

**AN EVALUATION OF ADVERTISING STRATEGIES DEVELOPED
ACCORDING TO THE FCB GRID AND THE BENDINGER FORMULA**

by

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SUMMARY

This thesis argues that the FCB (Foote, Cone and Belding) grid can not only be used by advertising students to write strategy, but also to write superior strategies. To demonstrate this, the research in this study identifies two versions of the FCB grid that can serve as guidelines for students when writing advertising strategy. The argument is substantiated by the results of a statistical analysis of strategies written according to the FCB grid and the Bendinger formula.

A discussion of the areas which were researched and led to the introduction of the FCB grid, as well as an explanation of the FCB grid, provide the context in which the grid should be viewed as a guideline for writing advertising strategy. Thereafter, a summative overview of what advertising strategy and the Bendinger formula encompass, identifies the complexed nature of advertising strategy, as well as the minimum areas which need to be addressed when attempting to write strategy. A detailed discussion of the method which was employed and the instrument developed to evaluate the effectiveness of strategies, precedes the experimental results. A critical discussion of the results obtained from the statistical analysis and the literature on advertising strategy provide a theoretical foundation on which a model, to be used in conjunction with the FCB grid to write strategy, is designed. The model is then explained to illustrate how students can, in conjunction with the FCB grid, apply it to write advertising strategy.

This thesis recommends that, in order to improve on the suggested method of evaluating strategies, the measurement scale developed in this study could be considered as a starting point. A further recommendation is that the experiment

comparing strategies written according to the FCB sextant grid to those written according to the FCB quadrant grid, could provide the need for further research. The thesis concludes that as far as could be determined, this was the first time that a study of this nature was undertaken and that the need for future research to validate this study and its results, exists.

KEY TERMS:

Advertising strategy; Advertising strategy measurement scale; Bendinger formula; Brain specialization theories; Consumer behavior models; Consumer involvement; Evaluation of advertising strategies; FCB quadrant grid; FCB sextant grid; Strategy model; Traditional advertising/marketing theories.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

From its earliest form during the ancient period (inscriptions on tablets, walls and announcing rewards for the return of runaway slaves), through the formative period (1841 - 1891) and the modern period (1892 - present, Wells et al 1992), advertising in the United States has evolved into an industry with expenditures which exceeded \$109 billion in 1987 (De Deo 1988). During this evolution of advertising, theories were developed to explain the mechanics of advertising, especially during the second half of the modern period after the introduction of commercial television in 1947.

The traditional advertising/marketing theories of the 1950s (categorized as economic, psychological, responsive and social theories) were followed by the consumer behavior models of the 1960s. The 1970s and 1980s dealt with social researchers attempting to explain consumer involvement and how the brain specialization theories can be related to advertising. These advertising theories and models were developed due to the ever-growing importance of the consumer, which is illustrated by the fact that the average American consumer is subjected to more than 3,000 advertising messages daily (De Deo 1988). It should be obvious that advertisers' messages will have to stand out among this clutter to be noticed, and one way of accomplishing this is to ensure that an advertising message is based on a strong and sound strategy.

“Strategy focuses on **what** you will say in the advertisement; the execution, or the

actual print ads and commercials, focus on **how you will say it**" (Moriarty 1991:52). According to Albright (1992:18) strategy is " . . . the idea that the ads and commercials and other advertising materials (the creative executions) will explain . . . It is a direction. It tells the copywriter what the overall plan is and leaves it up to the copywriter to find a way to execute . . ." Although there may be consensus that advertising strategy is a plan which is designed for achieving its goal (what is being said) in an advertising message and never loses sight of its purpose (Ray 1973; Aaker & Myers 1987; Bendinger 1988; Patti & Moriarty 1990; Moriarty 1991; Albright 1992; Jewler 1992; Wells et al 1992), there is not consensus on the format of an effective advertising strategy.

1.1 NATURE OF THE PROBLEM AND NEED FOR THE STUDY

From the foregoing it is clear that the advertising industry, which has developed into a multi billion dollar industry, offers considerable career possibilities for advertising graduates and it should come as no surprise that numerous American universities include advertising in their curricula. From 1915, when the University of Missouri offered the first degrees to its advertising majors, advertising education has expanded to more than 100 American universities in 1992 (Ross & Johnson 1992). It would, therefore, be feasible to deduce that universities with an advertising program would be an appropriate place to start to teach students the importance of advertising strategy.

Based on personal experience, the researcher has found that one of the most

difficult tasks in advertising education is teaching students how to write effective advertising strategy, the main problem being advertising students' inability to distinguish between strategy (the plan for an advertising campaign) and tactics (execution of the strategy, i.e., the actual advertisements). Strategy and execution are so closely related and interwoven that even advertising practitioners often confuse the two (Wells 1989:ix).

Employees of a particular advertising agency may be familiar with their organization's strategic approach and can write strategies, but these advantages are not available to advertising students. University students have no practical experience and have to rely on their respective instructors and textbooks to learn how to write effective advertising strategy.

It may be true that the majority of advertising students lack the necessary practical experience (some may complete internships with agencies while studying) when it comes to writing effective advertising strategy, and their only sources seem to be instructors and textbooks (the most popular being Bendinger's, *The Copy Workshop Workbook*). There is, however, yet another source which can be applied to write advertising strategy: the FCB (Foote, Cone & Belding) grid. Developed by Richard Vaughn, Executive President and Corporate Director of Research and Planning at FCB's Los Angeles office, the FCB grid is an advertising efficiency model which resulted from Vaughn's research to determine **how** advertising worked.

The FCB grid was selected as the research topic for this study to illustrate how students could utilize it to write not only effective advertising strategy, but superior advertising strategy. In order to demonstrate this, an experiment was conducted whereby three accidental samples which were intact (these samples were intact as they consisted of the classes which the researcher taught during the spring semester, 1994), were employed for this purpose. Two null hypotheses were also posed. The students of these classes were taught to write advertising strategy according to the FCB quadrant grid, FCB sextant grid, and the Bendinger formula (as proposed by Bruce Bendinger in his textbook, *The Copy Workshop Workbook*). The subjects were assigned the same product (Mallo Cup, a candy consisting of two chocolate cups with a marshmallow center topped with coconut) and each subject was requested to write an advertising strategy for Mallo Cup. The evaluations of these strategies, which were conducted by two independent raters, were statistically analyzed and compared, and the hypotheses were tested.

1.2 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Very little has been written on the FCB grid. Due to the cooperation of its creator (Richard Vaughn) and his agency (Foote, Cone & Belding), all known published literature on this topic was obtained. Although the FCB grid was introduced during May 1979 during a worldwide seminar of FCB research managers in London, it first appeared in advertising textbooks, for example in *The Copy Workshop Workbook* in 1988 (Bendinger). The first scholarly introduction, written by Vaughn, was published in 1980 in the *Journal of Advertising Research*. Thus, the literature

review of the grid itself will span a relatively short period of only fifteen years, 1980 - 1994.

After publishing his findings on the FCB grid in 1980, Vaughn reported in 1986 on the grid's shortcomings and suggested certain improvements. Some authors evaluated the FCB grid (Berger 1985 & 1986; Cudlipp 1985; Ratchford 1987), while others suggested improvements and modifications (Vaughn 1988; Rossiter et al 1991). Rossiter et al pointed (1991) out limitations of the FCB grid where their main concern being that plotting on the grid was done for products rather than brands. The authors may have a valid point, but if one should plot brands instead of products, a grid will have to be created for each product category, thus depriving the grid of one of its main characteristics: simplicity. Finally, Rossiter et al (1991) suggested their own version of the grid. The only reference concerning the use of the FCB grid as a tool for teaching students to write advertising strategy, appeared in 1992 (Yssel & Walchle) and 1994 (Yssel).

A great deal of information was also obtained through personal correspondence and telephone interviews with Vaughn and FCB. To understand what the grid encompassed, the researcher saw fit to explain in detail (Chapter 2) those four areas which Vaughn researched and which led to the creation of the FCB grid. A brief description of those areas follows.

1.2.1 Traditional theories

The traditional theories of advertising effectiveness which were prominent in

marketing during the 1950s, were summarized by Vaughn into four categories: economic, responsive, psychological, and social theories. Although these theories were defended as sole explanations of consumer behavior in the 1950s, they are today considered at best only partial explanations by most marketers as “time and the efforts of consumer theorists have moved beyond these simpler explanations to more dynamic notions of how consumers respond to advertising” (Vaughn 1979:2). Vaughn reviewed these as background on his path to creating a model to explain how advertising works.

1.2.2 Consumer behavior models

Vaughn centered his research around consumers and their behavior, as consumer behavior models represent the trend of the 1960s which was aimed at comprehensive, sequential theories (Vaughn 1979). Consumer behavior deals with how consumers react and behave during the decision-making process (Robertson 1970 & 1971; Ward & Robertson 1973; Ray 1974; Robertson 1976; Hansen 1981; Ratchford & Vaughn 1989; Engel, Blackwell & Miniard 1990), and Vaughn studied various consumer behavior models to better understand the thought processes of consumers, as well as the variables influencing these decisions. Consequently he researched models such as the Attention, Interest, Desire, Action (AIDA) model (Patti & Moriarty 1990; Moriarty 1991), and that of Lavidge and Steiner (1961). Although many consumer behavior models, which took on a variety of forms, were developed in the early 1960s, most of them were patterned after the hierarchy-of-effects model of Lavidge and Steiner. These models included: Defining Advertising Goals for Measured Advertising Results

(Dagmar, Colley 1961), Nicosia (Nicosia 1966; Zaltman & Wallendorf 1983), Engel-Kollat-Blackwell (Zaltman & Wallendorf 1983), Howard and Sheth (Howard & Sheth 1969; Farley & Ring 1970) and Robertson (Robertson 1971). These second generation models (discussed in Chapter 2), as Vaughn refers to them, remedied defects in the basic hierarchy model as consumers might proceed through the sequence imperfectly; they (consumers) could allow later events to influence earlier activities and consumers could skip the process entirely and behave in an illogical manner (Vaughn 1979).

One of the most important models during the sixties was the hierarchy-of-effects model of Lavidge and Steiner (1961). Lavidge and Steiner argued that advertising is seen as a force which moves consumers to purchase through a sequential six-step process and that this process indicates three major functions of advertising: learn (cognitive), feel (affective), and do (conative).

The Lavidge and Steiner learn-feel-do model was followed by Krugman's low involvement theory (Krugman 1965; 1966/7) which proposed a learn-do-feel sequence. A third sequence of communications effects, the exact reverse (do-feel-learn) of the Lavidge and Steiner theory, was articulated mainly by social psychologists who studied dissonance and causal attribution (Ray 1973; Ramond 1976). These three variations were accepted as the only legitimate versions until Vaughn (1980) stated that all permutations of the three components (cognitive, affective and conative) were in fact acceptable, thus adding three more variations, that of: feel-learn-do, feel-do-learn and do-learn-feel.

1.2.3 Consumer involvement

Although consumer involvement played a major part in the realization of the FCB grid, there is not agreement what the term involvement entails (Lastovicka & Gardner 1978; Lastovicka 1979; Mitchell 1979 & 1981; Traylor 1981; Zaichkowsky 1985 & 1986). Definitions of consumer involvement vary from an unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest (Rothschild 1984), to a hypothetical construct which cannot be directly measured (Kapferer & Laurent 1985), but Vaughn (1979) studied consumer involvement to explain why consumers are more interested in some purchase activities than others and how consumers perceive different messages when considering purchases. In other words, the FCB grid deals with consumer involvement as it relates to the purchasing process – whether the decision is of high/low importance and whether consumers tend to lose a lot/little when a wrong/bad purchase is made (Ratchford 1987). Vaughn admitted that involvement is difficult to define as it can include consumption as well as purchase situations and that involvement level affects receptivity (Vaughn 1979).

Kapferer & Laurent (1985/6) consider this view an oversimplification as these two extremes, high and low involvement, represent only 25 percent of all purchasing decisions. The other 75 percent of purchases is represented by other types of involvement, a middle ground situation. Vaughn, knowingly or unknowingly, proposed something similar when he introduced the grid and admitted that, in fact, it consists of six sextants rather than four quadrants, thus implying that involvement should be categorized in terms of high, medium and low.

1.2.4 Brain specialization theories

The final area which Vaughn investigated and which played a role in the formation of the grid, was that of brain specialization theories which propose the anatomical separation of the cerebral hemispheres of the brain and which led to specialized perception of messages by the left (cognitive function) and right (affective function) sides of the brain (Appel et al 1979; Valentine & Weinstein 1979; Weinstein et al 1980; Weinstein 1982). The brain specialization theories have definite implications for advertising (Davis 1978), as the cognitive function is influenced by logic, product characteristics and functional facts, while the affective function involves ego, personality and the senses (Vaughn 1980). The subject of brain specialization theories was quite topical at the time but the "physiological evidence is limited and there is no empirical support for it in a marketing context (as it was not necessary to) endorse right/left brain theory to use the principle that people are capable of both thinking and feeling reactions to stimuli" (Vaughn 1979:7).

1.3 NULL HYPOTHESES

The purpose of this study is to demonstrate that the FCB grid can be used by students to write advertising strategy and that strategies written according to the FCB grid will be superior to those written according to the Bendinger formula. The following two null hypotheses were posed to demonstrate this:

- 1 When students write advertising strategy for Mallo Cup, those strategies written according to the FCB quadrant grid will be judged similar to those written according to the Bendinger method.

- 2 When students write advertising strategy for Mallo Cup, those strategies written according to the FCB sextant grid will be judged similar to those written according to the FCB quadrant grid.

1.4 METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH AND COMPOSITION OF THE STUDY

The research approach in this study is quantitative in nature. The researcher will seek to demonstrate that the FCB grid (both the quadrant and sextant versions) can be used by students to write superior advertising strategies when compared to those written according to the Bendinger formula.

The context in which the FCB grid is seen is provided in Chapter 2 by drawing on the areas which Vaughn researched prior to introducing the FCB grid at a worldwide conference of FCB research managers in London, 1979.

Chapter 3 summarizes what the FCB grid consists of and it also identifies the two areas between quadrants 1 and 3, and 2 and 4, which Vaughn briefly referred to at the introduction of the grid. Consequently, the FCB quadrant grid and FCB sextant grid are described in Chapter 3, as well as the implications for strategy.

Advertising strategy is described in Chapter 4, as well as how three different methods (Bendinger's formula, quadrant grid and sextant grid) can be utilized by students to write advertising strategy.

Chapter 5 addresses the method which was employed to conduct the experiment and the subjects involved in the experiment, the setting, instrument and treatment of data. The purpose of this study was to demonstrate, not only that the FCB grid (both the quadrant and sextant versions) can be utilized by undergraduate university students to write advertising strategy, but also that those strategies written according to the FCB grid methods, will be superior to those which were written according to the Bendinger method. Two two-tailed t-tests, alpha level .05, were then applied to determine if one specific method was superior to another. The data were analyzed at the Ball State University computer center using the SPSS-X statistical package. A set of two planned comparisons were conducted. The first focused on the difference between the FCB quadrant grid and Bendinger approaches. The second focused on the difference between the FCB sextant grid and the FCB quadrant grid approaches. The analyses were patterned after that suggested by Keppel and Zedeck (1989) to provide answers to highly focused questions in a data set.

Chapter 6 deals with the presentation and discussion of the findings as well as certain recommendations pertaining to improving the experiment, and future research areas.

1.4.1 Delimitations of the study

Earlier it was stated that the researcher employed three accidental samples which were intact for this study and, therefore, an argument of non-randomization may be raised. It was not possible for the researcher to assign subjects from the available

student pool at random as the scheduling of classes is determined by the university administration and, then based on this, students select which classes they wish to enroll in. The argument of non-randomization is offset by the similarities between these groups (discussed in Chapter 5).

Although it was the first time that the subjects (students enrolled in the advanced copywriting class) taught to write advertising strategy according to the FCB sextant method were exposed to this method, it can be argued that they had prior knowledge of strategy. This knowledge would have been obtained via the FCB quadrant grid and Bendinger formula, which they were taught while previously enrolled in advertising copywriting and layout (prerequisite for advanced copywriting).

As no measurement scale exists for evaluating the effectiveness of advertising strategy, the researcher developed such a scale based on the components of the Bendinger formula. The researcher recognizes this as a limitation of this study as it can be argued that the components of the Bendinger formula may not be an adequate representation of what a strategy should consist of. The researcher proposes in Chapter 6 how a measurement scale, where the validity would not be questioned, could be developed as an area for future research.

CHAPTER 2: HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF THE FCB GRID

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Nobody doubts that advertising works, but how does it work? Advertising, whether part of the communication or marketing process, centers around consumers, recipients of advertising messages. To understand how the advertising process works, the advertising theories and models which were developed over the past decades and which were aimed at explaining the workings of the advertising process, will have to be examined and investigated. This chapter deals with the most important theories and models which were developed over the past four decades:

- Traditional theories (fifties)

- Consumer behavior models (sixties)

- Consumer involvement and brain specialization (seventies and eighties)

2.2 TRADITIONAL THEORIES

The traditional theories of advertising effectiveness which were prominent in marketing during the 1950s, were summarized by Vaughn into four categories: economic, responsive, psychological and social.

Theories falling in the **economic** category can be summarized as those patterned after the Marshallian economic model according to which purchasing decisions are the result of largely rational and conscious economic calculations. According to this model buyers act in their best interest and it “provides logical norms for buyers

who want to be 'rational'" (Kotler 1965:39).

These theories deal with rational consumers, or bargain hunters, who are concerned about price and demand considerable product information as they look after their wallets. Considered to be *thinkers*, these consumers want to learn as much as possible about products prior to purchasing and the economic theories most often apply to commodity items. Vaughn (1979) argues that economic motives dominate much consumer behavior, especially when it comes to expensive products and those with highly functional benefits.

Theories which were categorized as **responsive** theories, were patterned after that of Russian psychologist, Pavlov, who "concluded that learning was largely an associative process and that a large component of behavior was conditioned in this way" (Kotler 1965:40). Refined, the Pavlovian model is based on four central concepts:

- **Drive** which refers to a strong internal stimulus which impels action
- **Cue**, which is a weaker stimulus, determines how subjects will respond and serves as a prerequisite to impel a drive
- **Response** is the reaction to the configuration of cues
- **Reinforcement**. "If the experience is rewarding a particular response is reinforced . . . strengthened and there is a tendency for it to be repeated when the same configuration of cues appears again" (Kotler 1965:40).

The Pavlovian model emphasizes the desirability of repetition in advertising. "A single exposure is likely to be a very weak cue, hardly able to penetrate the individual's consciousness significantly to excite . . . drives above the threshold

level. Repetition in advertising has two desirable effects. It 'fights' forgetting, the tendency for learned responses to weaken in the absence of practice. It provides reinforcement, because after the purchase the consumer becomes selectively exposed to advertisements of the product" (Kotler 1965:41). The responsive theories maintain that consumers buy through rote and purchasing is influenced by conditioning and repetition. Consumers are considered to be lazy and want to exert minimum effort when purchasing products. Habits are developed through stimulus-response learning; consequently information serves as a reminder, rather than thoughtful purpose. Products purchased under this theory are normally inexpensive and the risk involved in making the wrong purchasing decision would not have grave financial consequences. Many routine items may require little or no thought, but once purchase habits are established, they can serve ad infinitum (Vaughn 1979).

Theories grouped as **psychological** theories, are based on the Freudian psychoanalytical model which marketing implications have it that consumers are motivated by symbolic as well as economic-functional concerns (Kotler 1965). Unpredictable consumers who buy compulsively under the influence of unconscious thoughts and indirect emotions, are covered by the psychological theories. These theories explain consumer behavior as ego involvement because consumers' personalities must be defended or promoted. "This is essentially unpredictable, undeliberate and latent as psychic energy flows between the id, ego and super-ego. Implicit product attitudes are more important than functional benefits for the selective products that touch people so deeply. This 'hidden persuader' theory is discussed most by militant consumerists" (Vaughn 1979:2).

The category which include the **social** theories, is based on Veblen's social psychological model. Veblen, a trained economist who evolved into a social thinker greatly influenced by social anthropology, saw consumers as social animals conforming to the general forms and norms of their larger culture whose "wants and behavior are largely modified by . . . present group-memberships and . . . aspired group-memberships" (Kotler 1965:42). According to these theories, consumers like to imitate, and purchase products because they want to join, emulate, or belong. This behavior is emotional and insecure as group role, prestige, status, peer pressure, and vanity concerns are important. "Opinion leaders and word-of-mouth communication are important for the visible products affected" (Vaughn 1979:2).

Psychological issues and social motives complicate the understanding of consumer purchasing, as both can have symbolic overtones as many products have public meaning, which is the main consideration when a purchase is being considered. Furthermore, Berger stated that people often argue past each other with unconscious reference to these theories. "Socialists favor the theory of the economic man, the search for value, the need for information with advertising seen purely as informational" (1986:35). On the other hand, Freudian and other psychological theories imply that behavior is governed by unconscious principles.

"While these theories have enough face validity to make them interesting, they lack the specificity to make them practical. Time and the efforts of consumer theorists have moved beyond these simpler explanations to more dynamic notions of how consumers respond to advertising" (Vaughn 1979:2).

2.3 CONSUMER BEHAVIOR MODELS

“Consumer behavior are acts, processes, and social relationships exhibited by individuals, groups, and organizations in the obtainment, use of, and consequent experience with products, services and other resources” (Zaltman & Wallendorf 1983:4). Vaughn, in his desire to determine how advertising worked, investigated various consumer models which will be briefly described in this section.

The AIDA (Attention, Interest, Desire, and Action) model, one of the earliest consumer behavior models, paved the way for most advertising theories that followed.

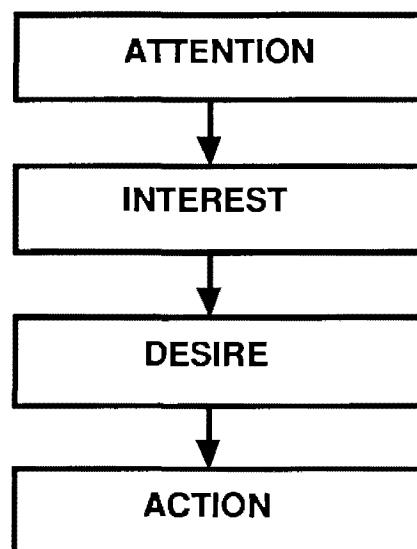


Figure 2.1: AIDA model (Source: Researcher's origination)

According to this model, the purpose of advertising is to get consumers' attention, which would be followed by them expressing an interest in the product, idea or

service, from which a desire to purchase would be developed and finally, consumers would move to action, i.e., buy the advertised product.

2.3.1 Lavidge & Steiner model (1961)

A variety of consumer behavior models were developed in the 1960s, but most were based on Lavidge and Steiner's hierarchy-of-effects model, although it can be argued that the Lavidge and Steiner model is an extension and modification of the AIDA model.

Lavidge and Steiner (1961) acknowledged that the purpose of all advertising is to sell, but also argued that the effects of much advertising are long term and therefore something must be happening in the short run – something which will ultimately lead to eventual sales. They also stated that “ultimate consumers normally do not switch from disinterested individuals to convinced purchasers in one instantaneous step, rather, they approach the ultimate purchase through a process or series of steps in which the actual purchase is but the final threshold” (Lavidge & Steiner 1961:59). According to the Lavidge and Steiner model, advertising is seen as a force which moves people to purchase through six steps:

- The first deals with those consumers who are merely aware of a product's existence.
- This is followed by prospects knowing what the product has to offer
- Next in line are those who have favorable attitudes toward the product; i.e., like the product.
- Those whose favorable attitudes have developed to the point of preference over all other possibilities, are next.
- The penultimate step is filled by consumers who couple preference with a

desire to buy and the conviction that the purchase would be wise.

- And, finally, the step which translates this attitude into actual purchase.

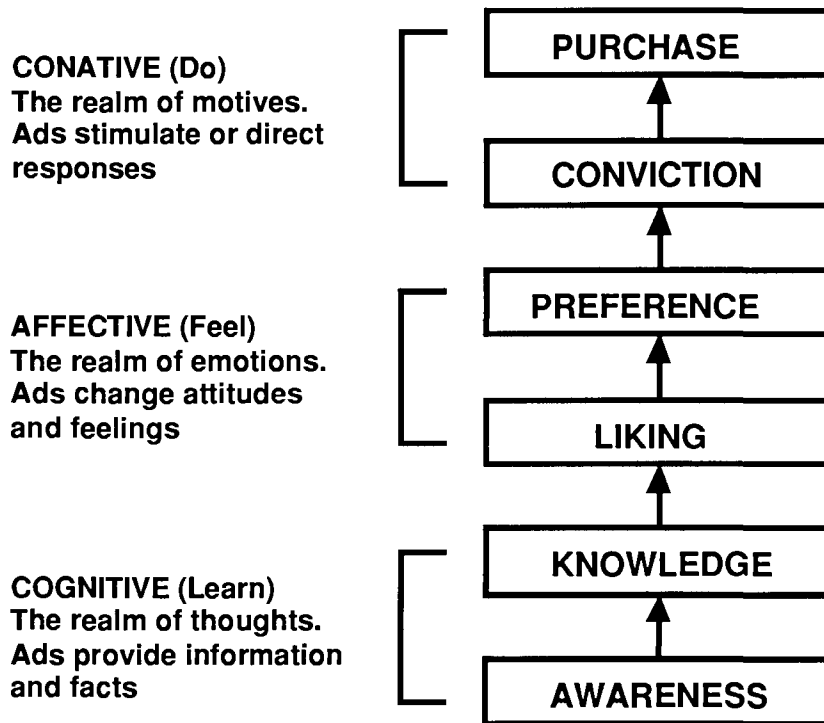


Figure 2.2: Lavidge and Steiner model (Source: Journal of Marketing 1961)

Lavidge and Steiner argued that the 6-step process indicates three major functions of advertising:

- The first two, awareness and knowledge, relate to information or ideas (*learn* component).
- The next two, liking and preference, deal with favorable attitudes or feeling toward the product (*feel* component).
- The final two steps, conviction and purchase have to produce action, i.e., consumers have to purchase the product (*do* component).

The **cognitive** component deals with consumers' intellectual, mental or rational states, while the **affective** component incorporates the emotional or feeling states of consumers. Finally, the **conative** component is what makes consumers strive i.e., it relates to the tendency to treat objects as positive or negative goals.

The uniqueness of this model lies in the identification of the learn-feel-do theory. As far as can be determined, this was the first time that a hierarchy-of-effects theory was identified. Lavidge and Steiner agreed that the various steps are not necessarily equidistant and that a potential purchaser may sometimes move up several steps simultaneously. This model was followed by a flurry of others in the 1960s and the most important ones will be briefly described.

2.3.2 DAGMAR (Russel Colley 1961)

Colley's DAGMAR (Defining Advertising Goals for Measured Advertising Results) model included a precise method for selecting and quantifying goals and for using such goals to measure performance.

In DAGMAR, the communication task is based on a specific model which suggests that there is a "series of mental steps through which a brand or objects must climb to gain acceptance" (Aaker & Myers 1987:105). Like all other hierarchy-of-effects models, DAGMAR too, implies that consumers will sequentially pass through a set of steps. Consumers start at some point by being unaware of a brand's presence in the market and the initial task would be to gain awareness. Brand comprehension involves consumers learning something about the brand. Conviction, the penultimate step, intervenes between comprehension and action, while the last step "involves some overt move on the part of the buyer like trying a

brand for the first time, visiting a showroom, or requesting information” (Aaker & Myers 1987:105).

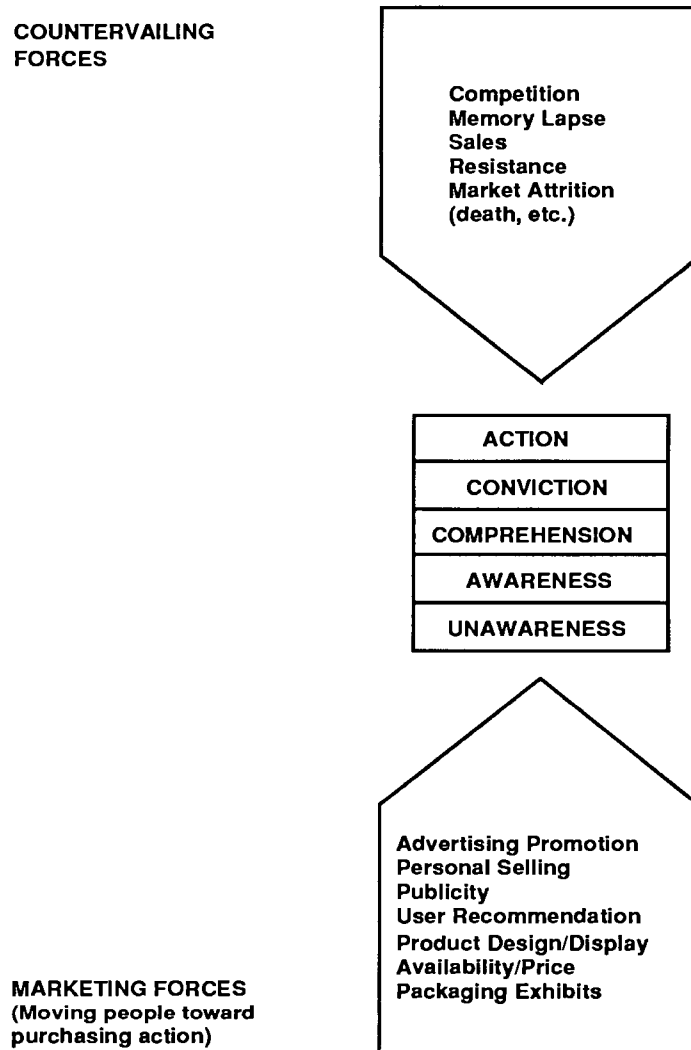


Figure 2.3: Dagmar model (Source: Aaker & Myers 1987)

Features of the DAGMAR model are:

- **Measurability:** DAGMAR needs to be made specific when actual goals are formulated and this specification should include a description of the measurement procedure.

- **Benchmark:** This is an essential component to the ultimate measurement of results and of DAGMAR in particular.
- The **target:** Has to be well-defined in order to reach consumers in an effective manner.
- **Time period:** The objective should state a particular time period over which it has to be accomplished.
- **Written:** Goals should be committed to paper in order to determine whether the goals contain the crucial aspects of DAGMAR.

Weaknesses of the DAGMAR model include:

- Colley's book (*Defining Advertising Goals for Measured Advertising Results 1961*) is not very specific in its advice to the individual charged with implementation of the DAGMAR model and it was suggested that "a systematic information-gathering process, termed the 6-M approach, be employed to analyze the market and product situation The 6-M approach is structured around six categories of analysis: merchandise, markets, motives, messages, media, measurements" (Aaker & Myers 1987:107).
- The general belief is that goals can be measured only in terms of sales. So, how would one measure awareness if it does not affect sales; in fact, why bother to attempt to measure it?
- The many implementation difficulties inherent in the DAGMAR model. Even with the 6-M approach and the checklist, it falls short of providing sufficient details to implement this approach.
- Noise exists in the hierarchy model and there are many causal factors other than advertising that determine sales. Thus it can be argued that there are

many causal factors besides advertising that determine awareness.

- This is basically a rational, planned approach that should, among other things, provide guidance to creative people. “. . . if it does in fact have any influence on their work, it must also necessarily inhibit their efforts. When the creative approach of copywriters and art directors is inhibited, there is less likelihood that they will come up with a great idea . . . ” (Aaker & Myers 1987:112, 113).
- The proposed sequential path does not necessarily have to occur in the suggested order. “Action can precede attitude formation and even comprehension with an impulse purchase of a low-involvement product” (Aaker & Myers 1987:113).

2.3.3. Nicosia’s dyadic model of consumer decision processes (1966)

A criticism aimed at the various consumer behavior models is that they consider an “isolated individual who is affected by, but not interacting with, other individuals” (Zaltman & Wallendorf 1983:639). As consumer behavior is normally social in nature (it involves interpersonal interaction), a need for a different approach existed – an approach which would explain not only the behavior of the parties, but one which also took into consideration the behavior of other parties as well as the interaction between the two; in other words, the dyadic approach. However, a dyadic model of consumer decision processes must include at least two interacting people. This is exactly what Nicosia’s model proposes. The seller is exposed to a stimulus (increased demand or a new market segment) which leads perception, learning and an output behavior (new product) and the outputs of the seller which now become the stimuli for the buyer. Another decision process is then under way: the decision or output of the buyer becomes a stimulus for the seller; hence a

dyadic system in which each individual is affected by the behavior of the other, as well as by own behavior (Zaltman & Wallendorf 1983).

Nicosia's model is the only consumer behavior model that explicitly includes the selling firm (Zaltman & Wallendorf 1983). Although the emphasis is still on the consumer's half of the dyadic system, the firm is also included; in other words, the firm affects the consumer, the consumer affects the firm and the consumer's behavior affects the consumer's future behavior.

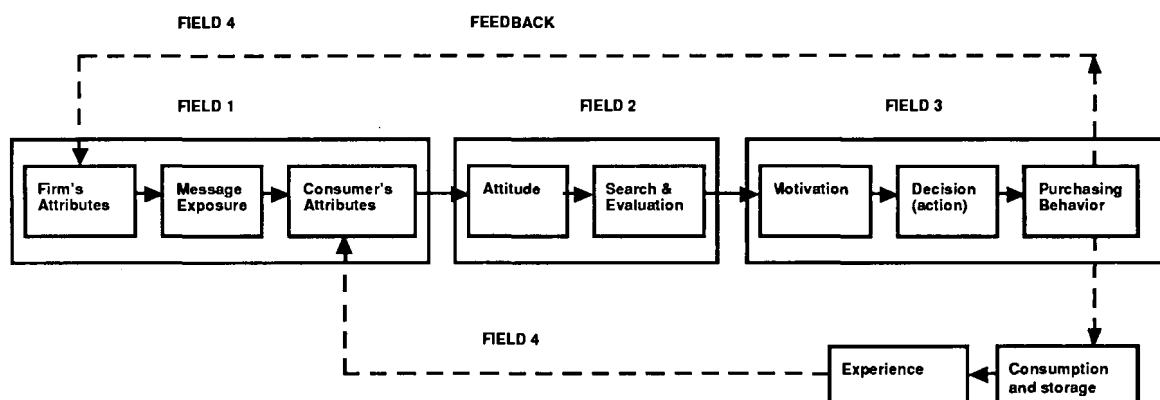


Figure 2.4: Nicosia's dyadic model of consumer decision processes (Source: Zaltman & Wallendorf 1983)

Nicosia's model divides the processes into four fields:

- Field one includes all processes that take a message from the firm to the consumer.
- Field two includes immediate responses to the message (consumer forms an attitude, evaluates alternatives and then is ready to enter another phase of the model).
- Field three is the area where the consumer develops a motivation to action (intention to act in other models) and then acts (purchasing of product).

- Field four includes the feedback linkages that take place after purchasing.

The strengths of Nicosia's model lie in including the firm, explanations offered by the model, and recognition of the many steps that exist between attitude formation and actual behavior. "The model is also strong in showing change in consumer attributes due to the experience of considering, choosing, purchasing and using a product. There is intraperson feedback; that is, consumers think to themselves and respond to their thoughts and acts" (Zaltman & Wallendorf 1983:643).

The weaknesses are that this model presents problems when used to make predictions; the linkages show flow rather than causation and it is also not very explicit in describing how and when the consumers' or firms' attributes function.

2.3.4 Engel-Kollat-Blackwell model of consumer behavior (1967)

The Engel-Kollat-Blackwell (EKB) model emphasizes the information search process as different types of search behavior occur, depending on how routine or unusual the purchasing choice is. The basic components of the EKB model are:

- stimuli which encourage the consumer to become aware of information about a product.
- processing of information – after filtering the information, the consumer evaluates it and forms an attitude.
- the decision process whereby the consumer searches through the information stored in memory and evaluates alternatives. If insufficient information is stored, additional information is sought before reaching a decision.
- environmental influences which affect whether the consumer continues

through the output decision process.

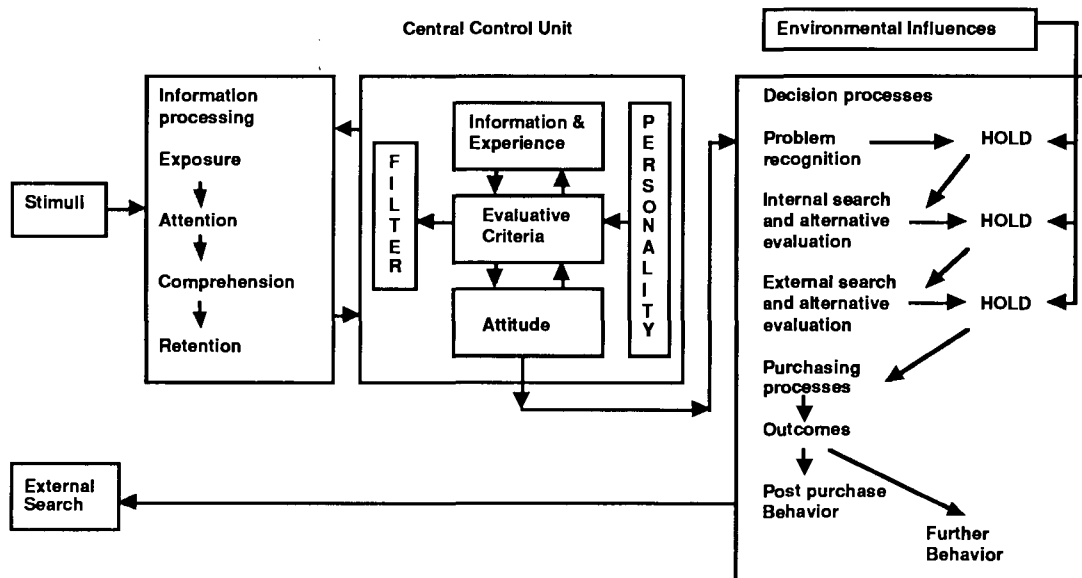


Figure 2.5: Engel-Kollat-Blackwell model of consumer behavior
(Source: Zaltman & Wallendorf 1983)

Weaknesses of this model are:

- It does not explain when particular variables influence others, how this influence occurs or what strength the influence is.
- It essentially applies to individual consumer purchasing situations. "Although groups such as the family are included, they are not included in the search evaluation and decision processes" (Zaltman & Wallendorf 1983:635). Therefore, this model is based on individual, rather than interpersonal choice behavior.
- It is not very original. ". . . the strength and major contribution of the model lie in its unification of concepts and propositions, rather than in the originality

inherent in its linkages” (Zaltman & Wallendorf 1983:635).

2.3.5 The Howard-Sheth model of buyer behavior (1969)

The Howard-Sheth model illustrates the processes and variables affecting an individual’s behavior prior to, and during a purchase. Perceptions, learning, and attitudes are three variables which are heavily emphasized in this model “which is meant to explain how consumers compare available products in order to choose one that fits their desires” (Zaltman & Wallendorf 1983:625) as consumers learn through actively searching for information on products. The depicted model is a simplified version of the original which involved some 40 variables grouped under input, perception, learning and output categories.

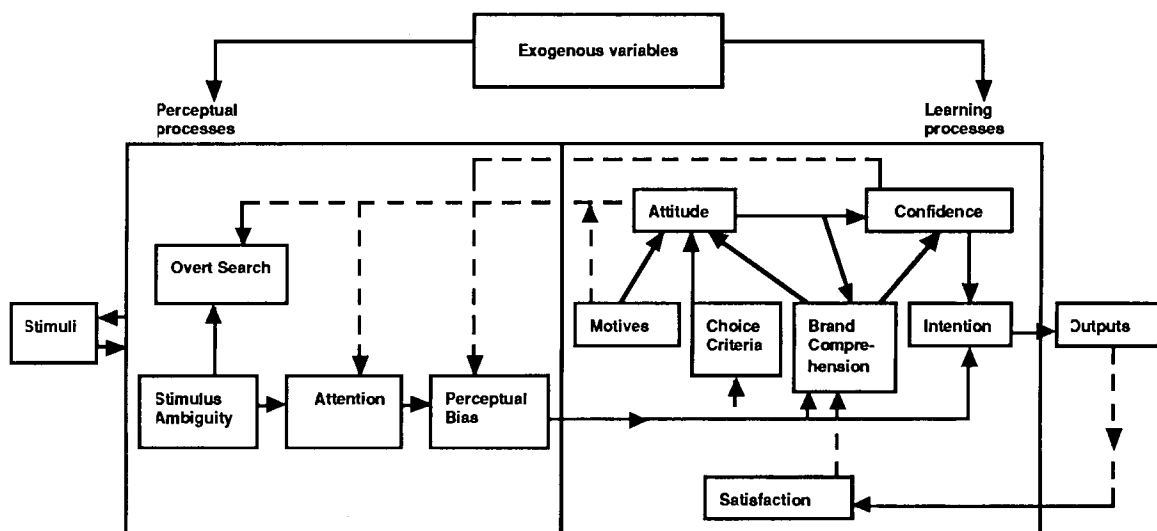


Figure 2.6: Howard-Sheth model of buyer behavior
(Source: Zaltman & Wallendorf 1983)

The features of this model are:

- The inclusion of five different, sequential output variables (attention, brand

comprehension, attitude, intention, and purchase).

- The stages (e.g. brand comprehension) are the measurable counterparts of some of the hypothetical constructs; however, these constructs are not observable (one can never observe an attitude toward a product or the intention to purchase).

The weaknesses of this model are:

- It has problems with both explanation and prediction (it does not explain why certain phenomena are important or how certain variables influence the outcome).
- It is limited in its generality – it applies rather to individual buyer behavior than collective decision making.
- It is also limited because it treats social influences in such a tangential manner (consumer behavior is essentially a social process). Consequently, it covers only half of the buyer-seller dyad (compare Nicosia) and “avoids the truly interesting process of their interaction” (Zaltman & Wallendorf 1983:630).

The strengths of the model include:

- It has, through its heuristic powers, particularly benefited the study of consumer behavior (the evaluation thereof by others raised many new questions).
- Its unifying power, i.e., its ability to bring together several topical areas.
- It has some original linkages (feedback link between satisfaction and confidence through brand comprehension).
- Compared to other models, the Howard-Sheth model has been empirically

tested (an empirical test compares the predicted with the actual direction of relationships between variables).

Although there are many comparable terms between the Howard-Sheth model and the Engel-Kollat-Blackwell model which was discussed earlier, the main difference between these two models is that the EKB model places more emphasis upon processes between attitude formation and the development of an intention to purchase. Differences/similarities between these models are:

<i>Howard-Sheth</i>	<i>Engel-Kollat-Blackwell</i>
Exogenous variables	Environmental influences
Attitudes	Attitudes
Choice criteria	Evaluative criteria
Perceptual bias	Filter

2.3.6 Robertson's Summary Adoption Process Model (1971)

Whereas the Howard-Sheth model was the ultimate in thoroughness and complexity, Robertson returned to simplification with his model which included the main features of the previously discussed models.

This modified hierarchy model, as Vaughn (1979) refers to it, proposes that certain consumers under certain conditions for certain products, might follow a sequential path. The dotted lines represent feedbacks which can alter outcomes. Decision patterns, on the right, track consumers as they violate the formal sequence of the hierarchy; therefore consumers can learn from previous experience and "swerve from the awareness-to-purchase pattern" (1979:4). Although this model preserved Lavidge and Steiner's learn-feel-do sequence as most models did, it made it more

flexible and helped explain purchase behavior without the presence of measurable product knowledge or attitude formation (1979).

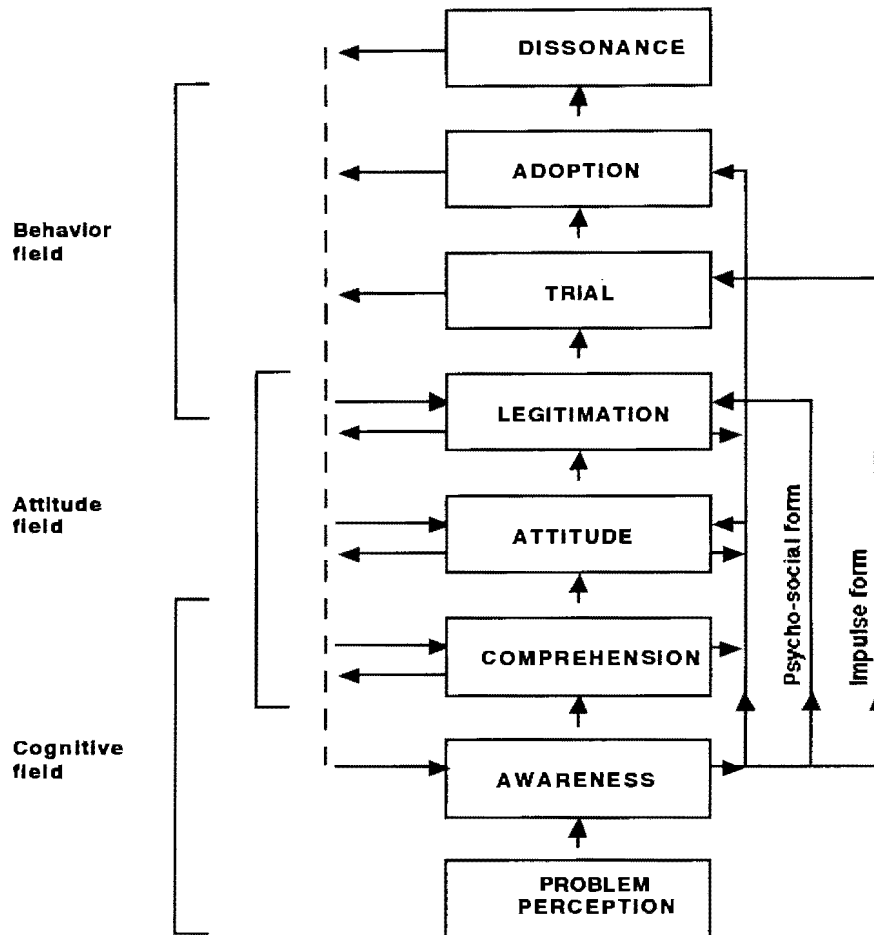


Figure 2.7: Robertson's Summary Adoption Process Model (Source: Robertson 1971)

Features of this model are:

- The learn-feel-do model of Lavidge and Steiner is retained and directly related to the common understanding of how advertising functions (Robertson 1971).
- The possibility to trace the different forms of the adoption process. The

rational/decision-making form follows the full sequence of stages, nonrational/impulse form goes from awareness to trial while the nonrational/psychosocial form goes from awareness to legitimation to trial or possibly, to adoption without trial (stages are depicted on the right hand side of the model in Figure 2.7).

- Dotted lines indicate feedback effects whereby adoption affects legitimation and attitude and also adds to knowledge and heightens product awareness (Other feedback effects could be similarly detailed).
- Two new stages, problem perception and dissonance, were added to account more fully for the possible sequences which may occur (Robertson).

In reference to his model, Robertson (1971) points out that it should be emphasized “that alternate forms and sequences of the adoption process are possible and that there is not set number of stages which must be covered. This summary model has taken into account alternate model forms, has provided for skipping stages, and has provided for feedback effect.”

From the foregoing discussion of the various models, it becomes clear that there is no consensus on advertising theory. “A discipline without accepted theory is naturally disputatious, especially when it also lacks agreed-upon methods by which to settle disputes Ever since AIDA (attention-interest-desire-action), would-be theorists have spent an inordinate amount of effort naming and ordering the stages by which advertising communications are assumed to take place The most frequently disputed questions about these stages are whether each is a (1) necessary, and (2) sufficient condition for the next” (Ramond 1976:14). Ramond’s contribution to advertising research was the categorization of various

advertising theories according to the components (cognitive-affective-conative) of the hierarchy-of-effects.

Despite these detailed models and numerous efforts by various theorists to create an advertising theory, Vaughn (1979) pointed out the following defects in the basic hierarchy model:

- Consumers might proceed through the sequence/hierarchy imperfectly, i.e. make mistakes, or stop and then start at a later stage.
- Feedback would allow later events to influence earlier activities.
- Consumers could skip the process in its entirety and behave in a totally “illogical” manner.

2.3.7 Other hierarchy-of-effects theories

When Lavidge and Steiner introduced their learn-do-feel theory, also referred to as the **learning** theory, it would have seemed that all permutations for the three variables, cognitive, affective and conative, would be possible and that researchers would investigate this. Four years after introducing their model, Krugman followed with his low involvement theory.

2.3.7.1 Krugman’s low involvement (learn-do-feel) theory

The learn-do-feel theory (low involvement) was first recognized by Krugman (1965) when attempting to determine why television advertising seems to have such a strong aggregate effect when laboratory research often indicated little effect of television commercials on individual attitude change.

Krugman (1965:350) argued that the belief, that the powers of mass media are

limited, also apply to the world of commerce and specifically advertising. This is the case because “. . . (1) we rarely feel converted or greatly persuaded by a particular television campaign, and (2) so much of television advertising content is trivial and sometimes even silly.” Referring to Zielske, who demonstrated that advertising will be quickly forgotten if not continuously exposed, Krugman pondered whether such a constant need for reinforcement was necessary and stated that “one answer is that much of advertising content is learned as meaningless non-sense material (and that) much of the impact of television advertising is in the form of learning without involvement . . .” (Krugman 1965:351). He continues to argue that although television commercials may not be responsible for a direct change in attitude, they might, after overwhelming repetition, possibly lead to a shift in cognitive structure (Ray 1973).

Thus, with sufficient repetitions of exposure, consumers may be better able to recall the name or idea of a product and the next time they are in a purchasing situation, a particular name comes to mind. Consequently, a purchase is made and attitude is changed as a result of experience with the product, and not the advertising. This low involvement is of a learn-do-feel (cognitive-conative-affective) nature and occurs most often when consumers are presented with minimal differences between alternatives or when the actual differences are unimportant to audiences. It would, therefore, appear that this low-involvement theory would only apply to inexpensive consumer goods. This is not necessarily the case as low-involvement situations can also apply to a variety of social acts, such as voting (Ray 1973).

Furthermore, in laboratory experiment measuring the occurrences of the learn-feel-do, learn-do-feel and do-feel-learn hierarchies, it was found that “the Low-

Involvement hierarchy occurs somewhat more often than the Learning one” (Ray 1973:158) and that the do-feel-learn hierarchy did not occur in a laboratory setting.

2.3.7.2 The do-feel-learn theory

The do-feel-learn theory, the third sequence of communications effects, is the exact reverse of the traditional learning theory of Lavidge and Steiner. According to this theory, behavior occurs first (do), followed by an attitude change (feel) and finally learning takes place. This sequence occurs mainly when consumers find that alternatives have been almost indistinguishable and are forced “. . . to make a choice or behavior on the basis of some non-media or non-marketing communication source” (Ray 1973:152). Attitude is then changed in order to support that choice and this often done on the basis of experience with the chosen alternative. “. . . learning itself occurs on a selective basis, in order to bolster the original choice by response to messages that are supportive of it” (Ray 1973:152).

Ramond (1976:19) continues along these lines stating that this hierarchy-of-effects theory differs from the other two hierarchy-of-effects theories in that consumers make their original choices “stimulated by some source other than advertising in paid media.” For example, when a motorist is traveling on the interstate and sees a sign that the upcoming service station would be the last for the next 100 miles, gas could be purchased without any prior learning or change of attitude.

The do-feel-learn theory had been articulated mainly by social psychologists who studied dissonance and causal attribution and “it is best regarded as an adjunct to the first two theories, useful mainly when communication-induced behavior provides experience with the brand which differs widely from prior expectations”

(Ramond 1976:20). This theory can also apply in the case of impulsive purchasing of expensive products when consumers' experiences with such products do not match their expectations. This can result in cognitive dissonance, in which instance consumers change their expectations to match reality to justify their behavior. They search, recall more advertising of the chosen product, and seek out others who will support their opinions (Overton 1981).

2.3.7.3 Only three variations?

“Consider, for instance, the three major levels of response: cognitive, affective, and conative. If we knew nothing about them, it would be reasonable to assume that they could be ordered in all six possible permutations of three things. In fact, there is a great deal of research which indicates that the majority of communication response situations are represented by just three of the orders: . . . cognitive-affective-conative (learn-feel-do) . . . conative-affective-cognitive (do-feel-learn); and . . . cognitive-conative-affective (learn-do-feel)” (Ray 1973:150, 151).

Vaughn (1979), as far as can be determined, was the first (and only, thus far) to identify the other three permutations: feel-learn-do, feel-do-learn and do-learn-feel. The *feel-learn-do* theory, could be appropriate in situations of high involvement where consumers' ego-involvement (psychological make-up) would be of great importance. In the case of jewelry, for example, consumers would develop a *feel* about a certain piece of jewelry, but would then gather information about this (learn) to justify the ultimate purchase. A *feel-do-learn* theory could apply to situations where products, too, are bought mainly because they relate to consumers' self-esteem. However, these products are not as expensive as the jewelry piece referred to earlier. When visiting the local wallpaper store, wallpaper,

for example, reflects consumers' tastes and a particular pattern may be selected (*feel*), bought (*do*) without paying much attention to features such as whether it is pre-pasted, vinyl, washable, etcetera. What is at stake is that the selected wallpaper reflects consumers' tastes. The difference between these two theories could be mainly the money cost factor; i.e., consumers do not stand to lose as much when purchasing the wrong wallpaper compared to jewelry, hence the learning component coming before the do component in the case of jewelry compared to the wallpaper situation. Finally, a *do-learn-feel* theory could apply in a low involvement situation. "What we mean is that as involvement drops lower, people will not give much of their energy or effort to learn about your product. They will learn more after they buy the product than before" (Berger 1986:36). Per illustration, buying laundry detergent: to have clean clothes, consumers would buy detergent (*do*). Only once it has been bought will they learn about the qualities of the product (makes clothes smell good) before developing a positive attitude about the product.

2.4 CONSUMER INVOLVEMENT IN THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

There does not seem to be consensus on what the term, involvement, entails and numerous scholarly writings dealing with this topic, have been published. However, Rothschild's (1984:217) generic definition of involvement seems to be most acceptable when he stated that "involvement is a state of motivation, arousal or interest." Rothschild explained that this state exists in a process which is driven by current external variables (the situation; the product; the communications) and past internal variables (enduring; ego; central values). Its consequents are types of searching, processing and decision making.

Rothschild urged researchers to call a moratorium on attempts to define involvement as researchers are dealing with a hypothetical construct and probably never will agree on one, acceptable definition. Rather, he proposed, researchers should concentrate on collecting "data on interesting aspects of involvement and then, in ten years, see if we can (or need to) devise a better definition" (Rothschild 1984:217).

According to Laurent and Kapferer (1985:41) the "degree of consumer involvement in a product category is now widely recognized as a major variable relevant to advertising strategy" and consumers, depending on their involvement, differ in the extent of their decision process and search for information. These differences may lead advertisers to consider a number of variables such as type of media, degree of repetition, length of copy and message tone in order to reach consumers in the most effective way.

Kapferer and Laurent (1985/6:49) continue to say that "involvement is a hypothetical construct, (and) cannot be directly measured. It can only be inferred from the presence or absence and intensity of its alleged determinants or antecedents." These antecedents are: interest, perceived risk (with two sub components, importance and probability), rewarding nature of product (its pleasure value) and the perceived ability of brand choice to express one's status, personality or identity (sign value). It therefore "seems more useful to think of involvement as an arousal or motivational state, potentially triggered by one or more (of these antecedents)" (Kapferer & Laurent 1985/6:50).

Thus, by speaking of high and low involvement as is the case in advertising theory

and practice, it becomes an oversimplification as these two types of involvement would be just the extremes and one should also consider the “middle ground” between these two extremes. High and low involvement “represent only 25% of the purchase decisions. There are other types of involvement, more contrasted, more nuanced, representing 75% of the purchases. In these situations, consumers are high on some facets of involvement and low on other facets; and it is precisely the subjective situation created by the interaction of facets which leads to specific purchasing and communication behaviors” (Kapferer & Laurent 1985/6:55).

Whichever way one looks at consumer involvement and whatever variables are taken into consideration in order to determine consumer involvement, these theories attempt to explain why consumers are more interested in some purchase activities than others; i.e. why do they get more involved in the decision making process of certain products than others. Consumer involvement also deals with why consumers behave differently when purchasing the same product and why the same consumers do not necessarily behave in the same way when purchasing similar products (for example a family car versus a sports car).

Although consumer involvement is normally viewed in terms of a two-fold dichotomy, low and high involvement, one has to distinguish between the different forms of involvement. Involvement could relate to advertising, products or purchase decisions and involvement with these different objects can lead to different responses. Vaughn proposed that consumer involvement suggests a continuum of consumer interest in products and services. High involvement is linked to money cost, ego support, social value or newness, and it also involves

more risk, requires paying more attention, and demands a greater use of information. Low involvement decisions are exactly the opposite as they arouse little consumer interest or information handling because the risk is small and effort can be reduced accordingly.

It may be argued that all expensive products, such as automobiles, houses and computers are high involvement products and therefore only expensive products will require high involvement activities from consumers. This is not entirely true as FCB had discovered when it researched and validated the FCB grid after its introduction, that the average American spends 20 minutes plus when purchasing a birthday/greeting card, and purchasing wine for friends also requires more involvement than purchasing wine for personal consumption.

Consumer involvement can include consumption as well as purchase situations. The money, time, complexity and effort involved in buying and using products demand that consumers make value judgments. Some decisions are important enough to justify much involvement, others not. It is vital that consumers avoid making a "bad" purchase in the case of high involvement products. With low involvement products the penalty for a "bad" purchase is light and there is also less anxiety about the outcome.

The researcher does not wish to add to the controversy and confusion surrounding involvement, but has serious reservations when it comes to categorizing involvement in terms of high or low involvement only. Per illustration: products such as a car and a lawn mower would both be classified as high involvement products. Surely, this cannot be the case? There should be no doubt that a car

would be a high involvement product due to the expense and the subsequent grave financial implications should a wrong/bad purchase be made. However, how "grave" can the implications be if a "wrong" lawn mower is purchased?

Consequently, the researcher strongly favors a third category of involvement, that of medium involvement. This may seem trivial, but the usefulness of such a category will be discussed in the next chapter and it will also be pointed out that Vaughn suggested this when he introduced the FCB grid in 1979.

2.5 BRAIN SPECIALIZATION THEORIES

A trend in consumer-behavior research which started in the 1970s, involves the differentiating between the activities of the left and right brain hemispheres and although much of the research has been conducted by psychologists, "this subject is quite topical, and enthusiasm for it is providing considerable marketing speculation" (Vaughn 1979:7).

The two brain hemispheres have specialized functions. The left hemisphere which primarily involves language and logic "is credited with processing the kind of information one receives from a print communication such as a magazine ad (while the right hemisphere is) credited with processing the kind of information one receives from a television commercial" (Weinstein et al 1980:57). Vaughn (1979) summarized the factors which play a role in determining whether a purchase involves more thinking or feeling, as follows:

RATIONAL (thinking)	vs.	EMOTIONAL (feeling)
Functional facts		Ego
Logic		Personality
Product characteristics		Senses

Krugman (1977) suggested that consumers receive information differently and that it depends on whether or not they are involved in situations in which information is received. When this is related to hemispherical specialization, it implies that the right brain dominates in low involvement situations, whereas the left brain dominates in high involvement situations. Furthermore, Krugman (1977) stated that print media relate to the left brain, while television relates to the right brain.

In contrast to Krugman's (1977) findings, Weinstein et al (1980:57), in an experiment exploring the relationship between brain-wave activity and advertising recall, concluded "that although evidence indicated that advertising which generated higher levels of brain activity regardless of hemisphere also tended to produce higher levels of advertising recall, there was no evidence to support the belief that television advertising produces disproportionate amounts of activity in the right hemisphere."

Weinstein et al (1980) did acknowledge the limitations of their study inasmuch as the tested television commercials were shown without the intervening influence of entertainment sequences and that no attempt was made to study the effect of magazine advertising and in a follow-up study the following hypotheses were posed:

- "magazine advertising produces more brain-wave activity than does television advertising;

- relative to television, magazine advertising generates disproportionately more brain-wave activity in the left hemisphere than in the right;
- advertising that generates more brain-wave activity will also generate higher levels of brand recall” (Weinstein et al 1980:58, 59).

All three hypotheses were confirmed, although the third hypothesis (advertising which generates more total brain-wave activity produces more brand recall) was confirmed only in part as it was found that this hypothesis could be confirmed only in the case of print advertising. This was not the case in either the comparison between print and television or among the television commercials themselves.

Kassarjian and Kassarjian (1979) and Rothschild (1979) suggested that information processing under low-involvement situations has implications for message frequency. When the right brain dominates, more exposures may be required before a sufficient amount of learning has occurred. It would, therefore, seem feasible to rely on media that create lower involvement in situations where involvement is low – television and movies have such properties according to (Krugman 1977). Therefore, Hansen (1981:32, 33) proposed that the “use of pictorial material, the use of extensive copy, the complexity of the message, the number of informational items contained in the message, etc., may have to be adjusted depending on the degree of involvement and the nature of the information-handling process.”

Hansen (1981:33) continued to say that it is possible “that a considerable amount of the advertising material to which a person is exposed, and which we normally conclude has no effect, may still be extremely important in forming habits, behavior and attitudes.” The question that arises now is whether two different personality

types can be identified:

- those with dominating right brain activity
- those with dominating left-brain activities

or should the following four types of individuals be considered:

- those who can use both kinds of information fully
- those who are very poor at both kinds of information
- those who are left-hemispherally specialized
- those who are right-hemispherally specialized

Contrasting the foregoing, Park and Mittal (1985) in Ratchford (1987:26), argued that think/feel and involvement are linked because “. . . if a purchase decision is high in thinking or high in feeling (or both), it will be high in involvement.” Therefore, as more than one motive may be operational in a given purchase situation, “thinking and feeling can clearly exist simultaneously. They are separate dimensions, and products can range on a continuum from high to low.”

Ratchford (1987:26) concluded: “Think implies the existence of a utilitarian motive and consequent cognitive information processing. Feel implies ego gratification, social acceptance or sensory pleasure motives and consequent affective information processing.” However, Ratchford (1987) stated that although think and feel may be separate dimensions, they can be, (and are) combined into a single scale which measures the relative amount of each which is present in any given purchase situation.

It would appear, as is the case with consumer involvement in the decision-making process (see 2.4), that there is not consensus among researchers what the

marketing applications of the anatomical separation of the cerebral hemispheres of the brain may (if any) be. The researcher concurs with Vaughn (1979:7) "The physiological evidence is limited and there is no empirical support for it in a marketing context. However, it's not necessary to endorse right/left brain theory to use the principle that people are capable of both thinking and feeling reactions to stimuli" and Weinstein (1982:59) "What we have is an enormity of data, some contradictory, some of it of little relevance to the practical world of marketing . . ."

2.6 SUMMARY

The four areas, traditional marketing/advertising theories (1950s), consumer behavior models (1960s), consumer involvement and brain specialization theories (1970s and 1980s) which were discussed earlier in this chapter, are the areas which Vaughn investigated and which played a major part prior to introducing the FCB grid during May 1979 at a worldwide conference of FCB research managers in London. Richard Vaughn, Executive Vice President and Corporate Director of Research and Planning at Foote, Cone and Belding, Los Angeles, had no qualms that advertising worked, but rather wanted to know how it worked. As an advertising practitioner, Vaughn geared his research toward the consumer in response to a need for strategic discipline and creative stimulation during advertising planning.

CHAPTER 3: THE FCB GRID

3.1 INTRODUCTION

“In response to a need for strategic discipline and creative stimulation during advertising planning, Foote, Cone & Belding explored and developed a comprehensive communications model” (Vaughn 1986:57). This model, the FCB grid, builds on the traditional theories (1950s), consumer behavior models (1960s), consumer involvement and the brain specialization theories (1970s and 1980s). As these areas were discussed in the previous chapter, this chapter will analyze and discuss the FCB grid, a model “which organizes advertising effectiveness theory for strategy planning” (Vaughn 1979:ii), step-by-step.

3.2 THE FCB GRID

Vaughn introduced the grid at a worldwide conference of FCB research managers in London in 1979, and it was immediately referred to as the Vaughn grid. At his request, because of the number of people involved, it became known as the FCB grid. Vaughn suggested an outline combining purchasing decisions (where thinking is dominant compared to those where feeling dominates) with the importance of such decisions; in other words, whether a purchasing decision should be a high (lot to lose if a wrong decision is made) or a low (little to lose if a bad purchase is made) involvement one.

According to Vaughn, thinking and feeling are a continuum in the sense that some

decisions involve one or the other and many involve elements of both. This was done on a horizontal continuum (to coincide with the left and right brain) while high and low importance were placed on a vertical continuum. Through the intersection of these two continuums, quadrants are created which outline four primary advertising planning strategies: to be informative, affective, habit forming or promote self-satisfaction.

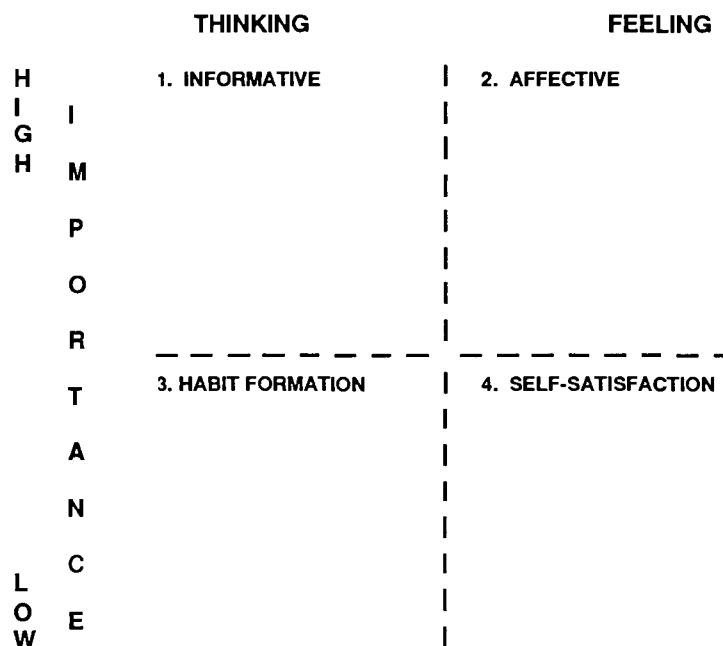


Figure 3.1: Four primary advertising planning strategies (Source: Vaughn 1979)

An **informative** strategy (quadrant 1, figure 3.1) should take into consideration that consumers seek information prior to a purchase as such purchases are considered to be of high importance and the risk in the case of a wrong/bad purchase is high. This strategy applies thus to situations where rational and economic considerations are relevant.

An **affective** strategy (quadrant 2, figure 3.1) should address the emotions of consumers who in certain instances would make purchases which would satisfy their psychological needs. This strategy applies to “those more psychological products fulfilling self-esteem, subconscious, and ego-related impulses requiring perhaps more emotional communication” (Vaughn 1986:57).

A **habitual** or **habit forming** strategy (quadrant 3, figure 3.1) would apply to those circumstances where consumers buy through rote and habit and purchases are considered to be of low importance as the risk will not be high in the case of dissatisfaction with a purchase and the purchase not living up to the expectations of consumers. With these low involvement and thinking products, “learning occurs most often after exploratory trial buying” (Vaughn 1986:57), thus implying learning-by-doing.

A strategy which promotes **self-satisfaction** (quadrant 4, figure 3.1) would apply to those low involvement/feeling products relating to personal taste and peer approval.

There is more to the FCB grid than depicted in Figure 3.1, as each quadrant also:

- approximates one of the traditional marketing/advertising theories (economic, responsive, psychological and social);
- suggests one of the hierarchy-of-effects models (learn-feel-do, feel-learn-do, do-learn-feel and do-feel-learn) as a strategy guide;
- suggests which products would be most appropriate for a specific quadrant.

The FCB grid centers around consumers, suggesting effective ways of reaching them and does this by incorporating various consumer behavior and decision-making theories – all which affect consumers’ purchasing decisions. After Vaughn introduced the grid in 1979, FCB validated it by putting it to work in their offices throughout the world and the grid, as it is known today, is depicted in Figure 3.2.

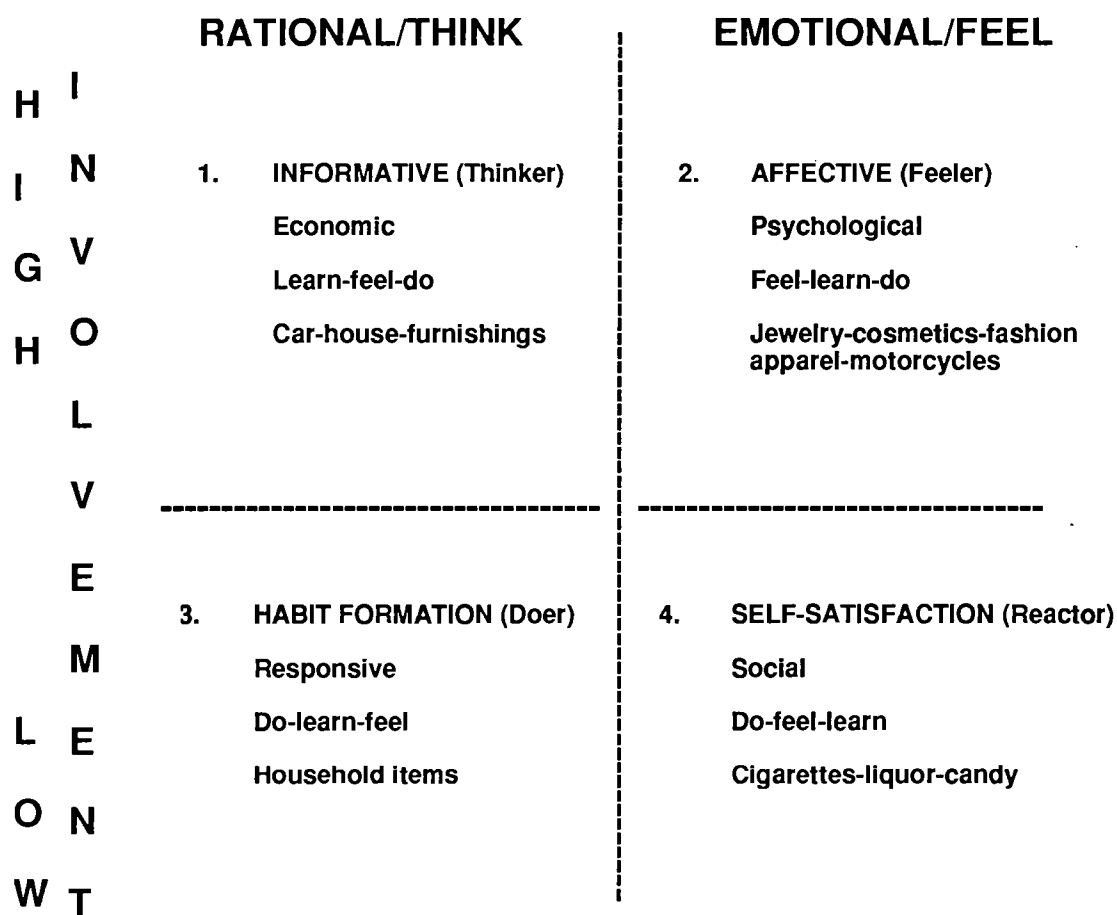


Figure 3.2: The FCB grid (Source: Dick Vaughn, FCB)

3.3 QUADRANT CHARACTERISTICS

Each quadrant has its own specific characteristics pertaining to the following:

- consumers' involvement in the decision-making process
- whether purchases are made mainly for rational/emotional reasons
- suggesting the most suitable strategy
- appropriate hierarchy-of-effects model
- approximating one of the traditional advertising/marketing theories
- products positioned in the quadrant

3.3.1 Quadrant 1, high involvement/thinking (informative).

Due to the product importance and thinking issues related to it, this quadrant implies a large need for information. Major purchases (car, house, furnishings) and initially almost any new product which needs to convey what its function, price and availability are, belong in this quadrant. The learn-feel-do sequence is the basic hierarchy-of-effects model where functional and salient information designed to build consumer attitudinal acceptance, leads toward subsequent purchase. As the economic model may be appropriate here, consumers might be pictured as thinkers.

A product in this area, a house, which approximates the economic theory, will be purchased by consumers basing choice on their best self-interest, and advertising for these products may include specific information and demonstrations and a large amount of copy, and may use reflective, involving media.

3.3.2 Quadrant 2, high involvement/feeling (affective).

Although the purchasing decision is very involved, specific information is less important than an attitude or holistic feeling, due to the importance related to consumers' self-esteem (psychological model). Jewelry, cosmetics and fashion apparel are in quadrant two as these items require higher involvement but are purchased more for emotional than logical appeal. Strategy for a product in this quadrant may make use of emotional appeals which relate to consumers' self-esteem. Products in quadrant 2 approximate the psychological theory and are often purchased because of their effect on the ego. These purchases help consumers to feel good and promote their personalities. When consumers buy jewelry, feelings may be developed about the product, information may be sought (learn), and a purchase may be made (do) and, therefore, an affective strategy is suggested to reach such consumers.

3.3.3 Quadrant 3, low involvement/thinking (habit formation).

Because purchasing decisions here require minimal thought and consumers tend to form buying habits of convenience and through rote, information will be "any point-of-difference that can be meaningfully exploited" (Vaughn 1979:12). Most staple packaged food items are likely to belong here. Since brand loyalty is considered a function of habit, it is also quite likely that most consumers (referred to as "doers") will have several acceptable brands. The do-learn-feel hierarchy model belonging here is compatible with the traditional responsive theory. "This is a troublesome quadrant because so many commonly used products and services are here and require very detailed and careful planning effort" (Vaughn 1979:12).

A responsive strategy, which should remind consumers about a product, may show a point-of-difference for the brand being advertised. (When Vaughn introduced the grid in 1979, it was suggested that food items would be placed in quadrant three. He admitted later that research had proven this wrong, as food items fell more to the right; but, in fact, food items fall in various quadrants). If a product works well when tried once, it quite likely will become the regularly chosen brand, resulting in brand loyalty. In the case of buying soap, the purchase may be made (do), consumers will learn from use of the product, and develop a feeling for the product.

3.3.4 Quadrant 4, low involvement/feeling (self-satisfaction).

Products in quadrant four include cigarettes, candy and liquor which are purchased based on consumers' beliefs that they will satisfy personal tastes. A strategy promoting self-satisfaction, often incorporates imagery and focuses on quick satisfaction. If consumers buy a candy bar, a purchase may be made (do), feelings about the product will be developed and a decision will be made as to whether or not the product will be purchased again (learn).

Figure 3.3 indicates where 24 products, which the researcher selected at random, will be positioned on the FCB quadrant grid.

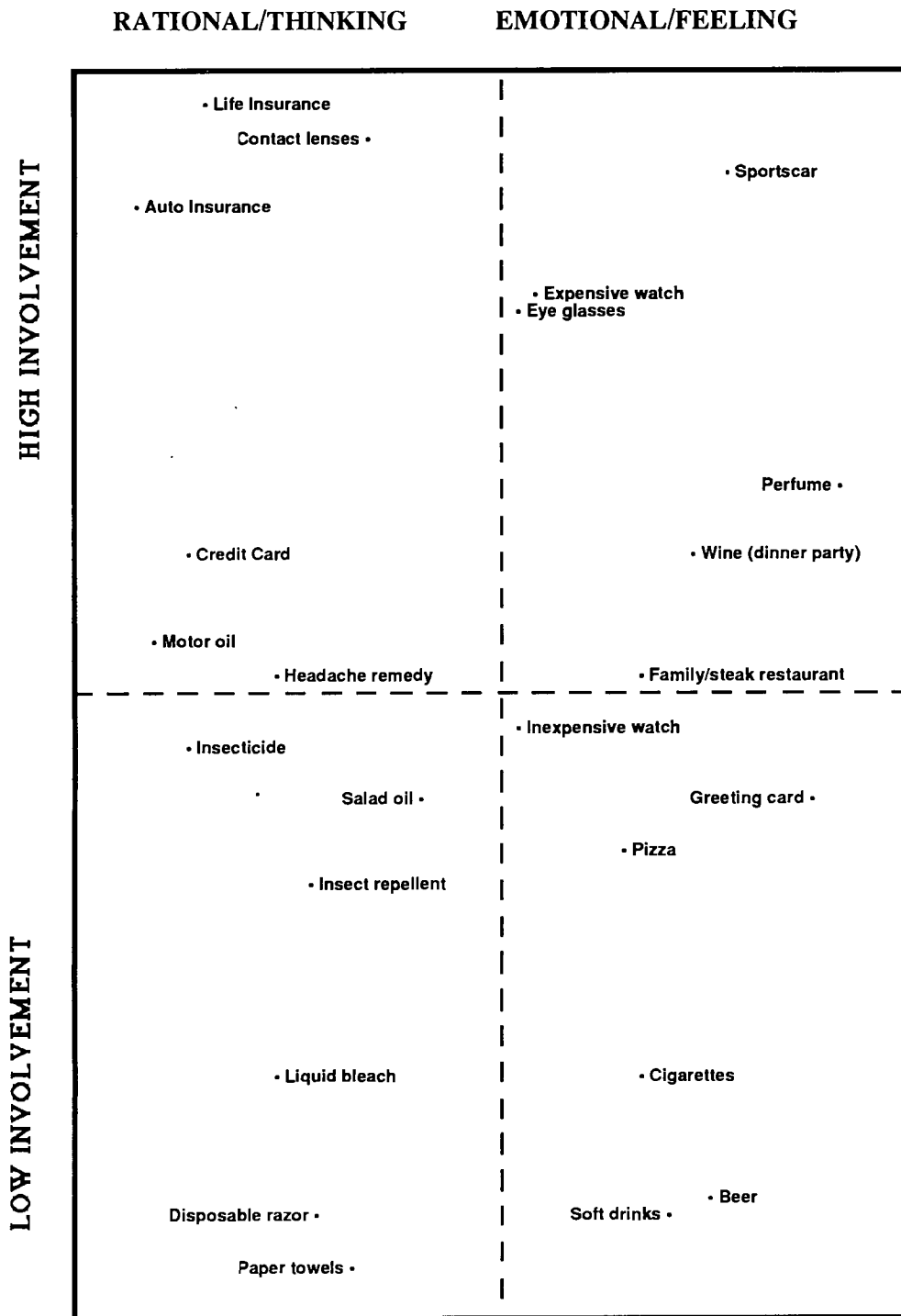


Figure 3.3: The FCB grid with 24 randomly-selected products

(Source: Researcher's origination)

3.4 THE "LOST QUADRANTS"

The grid as it is known, distinguishes only between high and low involvement, resulting in a host of products being grouped into quadrants where they do not really belong. Some purchasing decisions may not be as highly involved as their plotting suggests, while others may be more involved. This can be best illustrated by a lawn mower and a car which are both plotted in quadrant 1 (high involvement, rational). It should be obvious that a purchasing decision in the case of a lawn mower will not be as involved as is the case with a car, but that it will be more involved compared to buying liquid bleach (quadrant 3). The same applies to the emotional side of the grid. Quadrant 2 (high involvement, emotional) includes both an expensive diamond ring and Nike shoes. The purchasing decision will not be as involved for Nike compared to a diamond ring, but it will be more involved compared to a candy bar (quadrant 4).

When Richard Vaughn introduced the FCB grid in 1979, he agreed that some products could belong between quadrants one and three or between quadrants two and four. Suggesting that strategists should not be restricted to the four quadrants of the matrix, he proposed two other hierarchy models. Between quadrants one and three, a learn-do-feel sequence could apply as consumers go directly from information to purchase and develop a feel for the product later. Between quadrants two and four, a feel-do-learn model suggests that consumers learn about a product after it has been purchased. Prior to purchasing, a feel is first developed for the product. The fundamental hypothesis of this model is that "an advertising strategy is determined by specifying (1) the consumer's point of entry

on the learn-feel-do continuum and (2) the priority of learn versus feel versus do for making a sale” (Vaughn 1980:32). The appearance of the grid is thus changed.

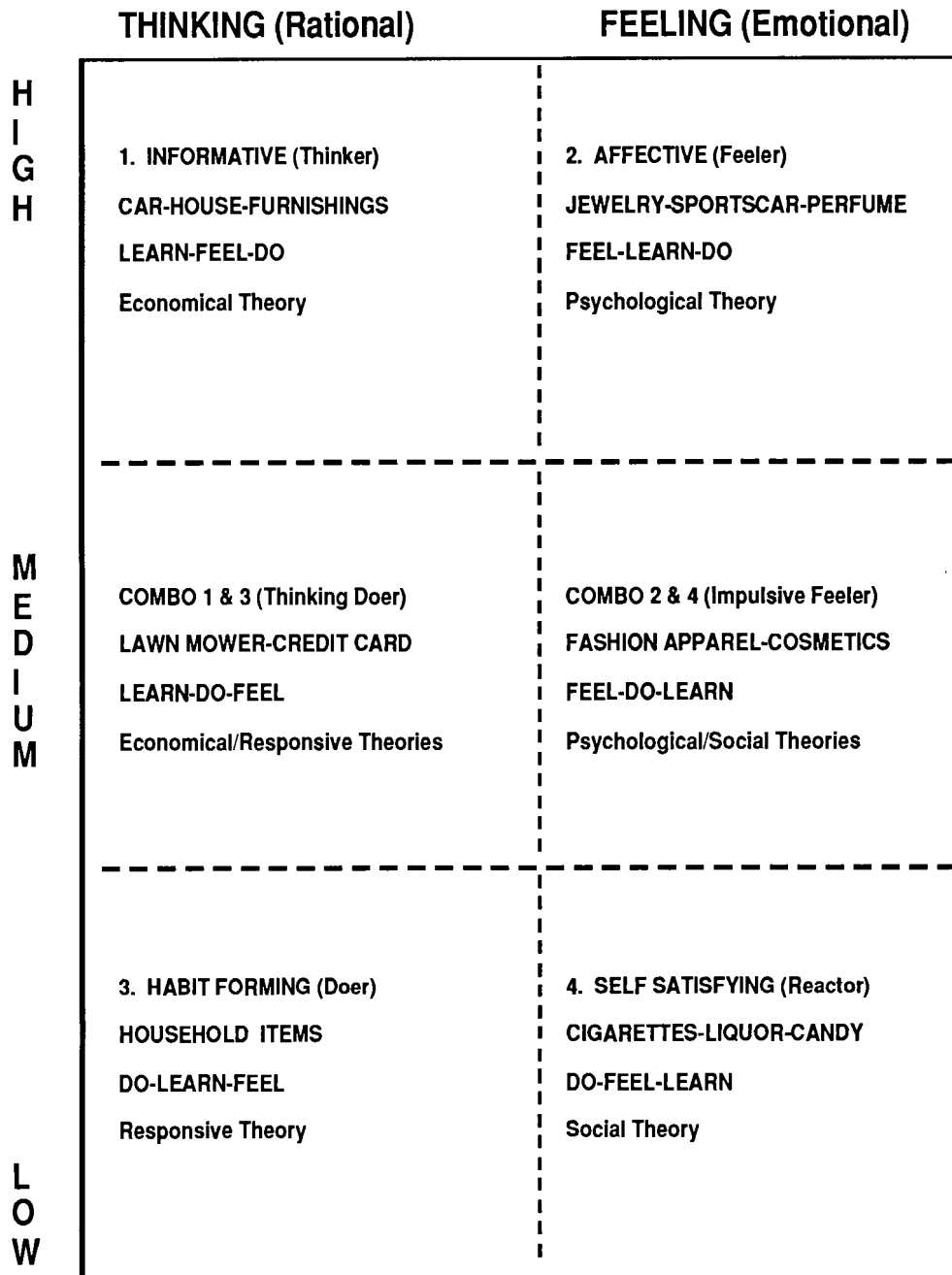


Figure 3.4: The FCB Sextant Grid (Source: Researcher’s origination).

By acknowledging the two “new” areas, involvement is now classified in terms of three categories: high, medium and low. The introduction of the medium involvement category would result in a number of products now being classified as medium involvement products. **It should be noted that these medium involvement products have not moved into a new area; they have remained where they were originally plotted. Rather, the appearance of the grid changed: from four quadrants to six sextants within the same spatial area.**

This would take care of products such as lawn mowers and Nike tennis shoes which were discussed in the foregoing paragraph. A car would remain in quadrant one, but a lawn mower will now fit into the “new” area (medium involvement/rational) between quadrants one and three. The same principle applies to the diamond ring, which will remain in quadrant two, but Nike will now fit into the “new” area (medium involvement/emotional) between quadrants two and four. The implications of this could be significant, as it appears that the majority of products are indeed medium involvement products and will be depicted as such in the FCB sextant grid.

3.4.1 Medium involvement/rational sextant:

By adding two new areas to the FCB quadrant grid as was discussed earlier, one is now dealing with a grid consisting of six sextants, rather than four quadrants. The medium involvement/rational sextant between areas 1 and 3 (see figure 3.4) too, has characteristics pertaining to it as is the case with the quadrants (see 3.3). However, in many cases the characteristics are combinations of the areas above

(area 1) and below (area 3). A brief description of this sextant's characteristics follows.

Type of person: This person will be a combination of the one found in the high involvement/rational (thinker) and low involvement/rational areas (doer) and it is proposed that this person be called a *thinking doer*. When making a purchasing decision the involvement will be less than in the area directly above, but more than in the area below.

Traditional theory: Once again a combination of the theories in the areas above (economic) and below (responsive) will apply as consumers will not be as concerned with the price of a lawn mower as they will be when purchasing a car, but the price of a lawn mower will be more important than that of toilet tissue.

Hierarchy-of-effects model: Vaughn suggested a learn-do-feel model as consumers may gather information (learn) about purchasing a new lawn mower, buy (do) it on the spot or come back later for the purchase and only develop a feel after the product has been bought.

3.4.2 Medium involvement/emotional sextant:

The medium involvement/emotional sextant between areas 2 and 4 (see figure 3.4) too, has characteristics pertaining to it as is the case with the quadrants of the FCB quadrant grid (see figure 3.3). However, in many cases, the characteristics are combinations of the areas above (area 2) and below (area 4). A brief description of this sextant's characteristics follows.

Type of person: The *impulsive feeler* is a combination of the feeler of the high involvement/emotional and the reactor of the low involvement/emotional areas. There will not be as much involvement here than in the area above, but more than in the area below.

Traditional theory: This will be a combination of the theories of the high and low involvement areas, as it is important that purchases are viewed favorably by peers (social theory) as well as what they can do for ego-gratification (psychological theory).

Hierarchy-of-effects model: The feel-do-learn model as proposed by Vaughn will be appropriate, because consumers would develop a *feel* for a product, purchase it (*do*) and only afterwards *learn* about their new purchase.

The main implication of the two medium involvement areas is that products which before were not really high or low involvement products, have now found a home where they truly belong. If one looks at how products are positioned on the FCB quadrant grid (figure 3.3), one would observe that many of the products are dispersed around the dotted line separating the high and low involvement areas. It would thus appear only logical that most of these products would belong in the two medium involvement areas. It would also appear that the main variable responsible for this would be price – thus it would seem that only the most expensive products would remain high involvement products, with the least expensive products remaining in the low involvement areas. Furthermore, it seems feasible to deduce that the products which are dispersed around this dotted line,

are those which scored in the middle range on the seven-point scale which FCB applies to determine consumers' involvement. *The researcher would like to point out that these observations are based purely on speculation, being of a hypothetical nature, and they should be tested and validated by FCB before any meaningful value is attached to them.*

The main advantages of the sextant grid are:

- It eliminates confusion as products such as a car, lawn mower, diamond ring and Nike shoes are no longer plotted in the same quadrant.
- A different hierarchy-of-effects model applies to the aforementioned products: a learn-feel-do for a car versus a learn-do-feel for a lawn mower, compared to a feel-learn-do model for a diamond ring and a feel-do-learn model for Nike shoes.
- The creation of a medium involvement category allows greater flexibility as strategists have to take into account that they are dealing with an area with characteristics which are made up of combinations of both the higher and lower areas; i.e., an in-between area.
- It acknowledges that the purchasing decision cannot simply be determined in terms of high or low involvement alone.
- It is a more focused model as strategies for products in the medium involvement contain traits of both the respective areas above and below.

The sextant grid (figure 3.5) depicts the same products plotted on the quadrant grid (figure 3.3) and it would appear that the majority of these products now fit into the two medium involvement sextants.

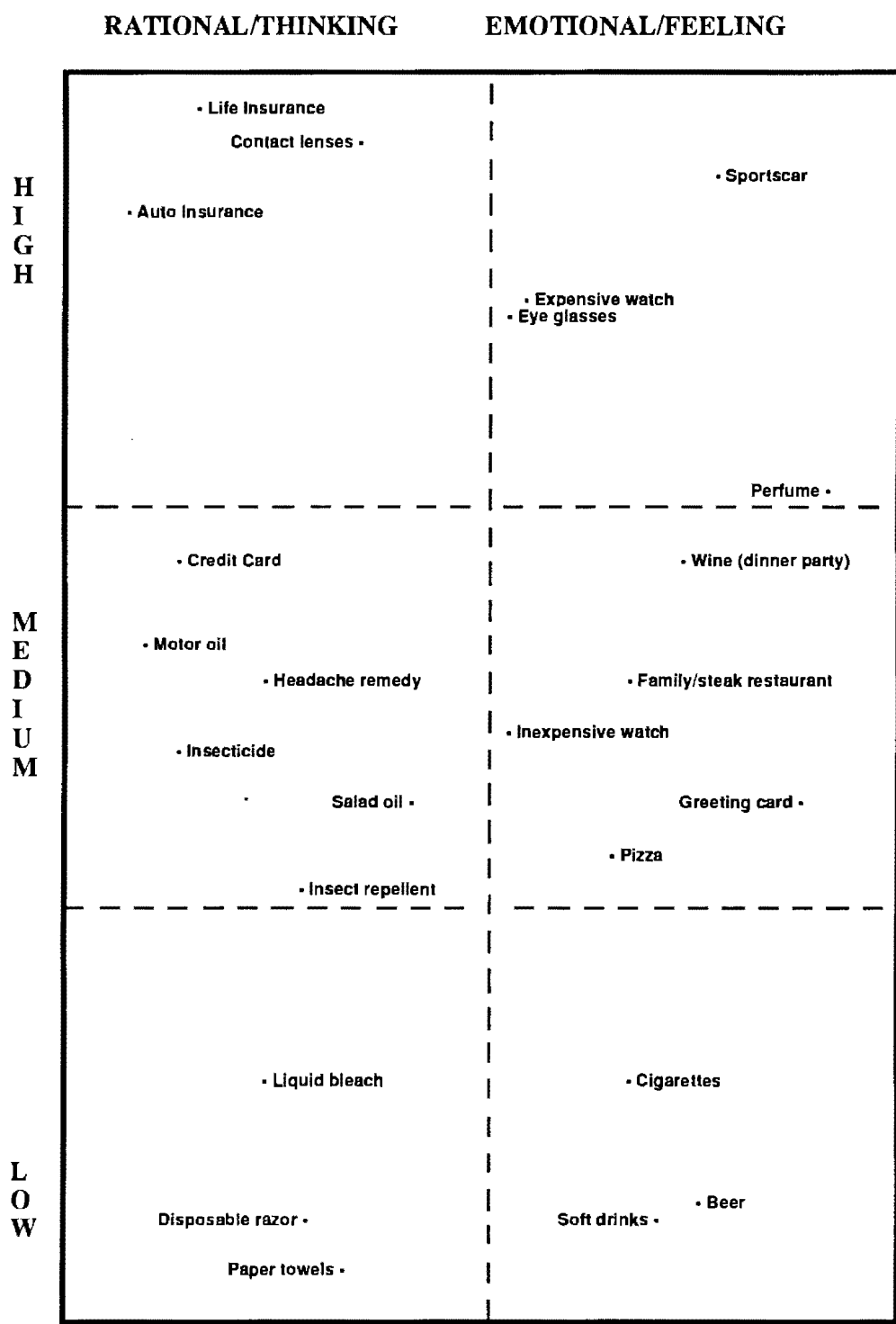


Figure 3.5: The FCB sextant grid with the 24 randomly-selected products as depicted in Figure 3.3 (Source: Researcher's origination)

3.5 THE GRID AND ADVERTISING STRATEGY

In strategy planning the issue becomes whether product features or brand image should be developed, or if the strategist should consider a combination of both. In the case of a brand which has "hard news," as well as distinct product features to offer, the sale centers on learn as feel and do come later. When a product lacks the aforementioned and its identity revolves around image, the sale will center on feel. And, when brands have become fixed in consumers' minds, purchasing may become routine and consist primarily of do, with little room for learn and feel. "It's impossible to spell out the many ways this . . . model can help us," (Vaughn 1980:32, 33) but there are several implications for management, creative, media and research areas within an agency.

Management will become more flexible in using the learn-feel-do model and set its goal to inform, persuade and/or impel purchase and to obtain client agreement.

The **creative** department should remember that every execution should try to get consumers to think, feel or do something about the product, and in the case of low involvement products with undifferentiated features, executional style can become the major task. Furthermore, subjective opinions about the strategy or campaign may be as productive as objective management comments for consideration.

The **media** people should bear in mind that the exposure plan should remember the learn-feel-do model to get the most out of the advertising and media vehicle judgments can use this model as a guideline. Finally, creative media planning,

beyond audience numbers, becomes a necessity in this day and age of advertising clutter where consumers are bombarded with numerous advertising messages on a daily basis.

Researchers should do copy testing with target respondents and measurement should be for the relevant effect (recall, attitude change, sales) that makes a difference. And, most importantly, in the case of a testing situation where the outcome offers very little to choose between choices, the account team should agree prior to testing which execution to use, should such an instance occur.

Vaughn (1980:33) concluded that this model “is not an all-purpose cure” . . . but rather . . . “a guide to help organize the advertising objectives for a product” and went on to state that “thoughtful use of this model should help us be

- thorough in advertising planning
- flexible in design and execution
- comprehensive in consumer testing
- skeptical of fads and untested theories
- open-minded about the future.”

After the grid was introduced, it was put to work within the FCB organization, and a checklist, consisting of several questions for advertising executions for each of the four quadrants of the FCB quadrant grid, was developed to demonstrate that “if used with judgment, they can be helpful” (Foote, Cone and Belding 1987:42-45).

High involvement/rational

- Is the advertising compatible with the importance of the purchase?
- Does the advertising somehow take into account the risk of wrong choice?
- Does the advertising provide enough food for thought?
- Are the points that are made in the advertising logical and cogent?
- Are the features, benefits, or reasons why, real and important?

High involvement/emotional

- Is the advertising compatible with the importance of the purchase?
- Does the advertising somehow take into account the risk of wrong choice?
- Does the advertising provide enough stimulation of the imagination, fantasies, and daydreams?
- Does the advertising engender the right feelings?
- Does the advertising express the right personality values?
- Does the advertising play on the right sense (of the five senses) in the right way?

Low involvement/rational

- Does the advertising provide the energy that the prospect will not provide?
- Does the advertising make one point inescapably clear?
- Does the advertising demonstrate or prove its one point irresistibly, irrefutably?

Low involvement/emotional

- Does the advertising provide the energy the prospect will not provide?

- Does the advertising convey inescapably one personality?
- Does the advertising work in, or on, the right sense in the right way?

3.6 THE GRID REVISITED

Foote, Cone & Belding immediately embarked on an ongoing research program to validate the grid. A pilot study in 1981 in the United States, involving 250 respondents, confirmed FCB's basic ideas. "The products were generally located where we thought they were (except) food products were farther to the right – more feel – than we thought. We had thought they (food) would be largely in quadrant 3, but they were almost all in quadrant 4" (Berger 1986:38).

The most revealing findings were that some preliminary implications of the grid in several areas were premature, if not unrealistic. ". . . specific creative, media and copy test activities were proposed for each strategic quadrant before it was sensibly realized how category- or brand-specific such issues were. Also, think and feel were mistakenly viewed as independent rather than complementary and interrelated" (Vaughn 1986:58). ". . . as we worked, we recognized that think and feel were not really one continuum, but two. You can have a lot of think and a lot of feel, as you do in a family car. Or you can have a little of either. Or you can have a lot of one and a little of the other" (Berger 1986:38). FCB continued with more development work in 1982 and it was confirmed that the organization was on the right track in separating think and feel for interview purposes "although we would still present them together in the grid because they are often interrelated, and because the grid is such a useful thinking tool the way it is" (Berger 1986:38). One

particularly flamboyant bit of generalization suggested that high involvement or think-oriented products would naturally decay over time to low involvement or feel” (Vaughn 1986:58). Although these impractical hypotheses were abandoned during “early, judgmental applications, (two questions emerged) which could not be ignored with grid experience:

- Did the grid accurately depict real consumer development and think-feel dimensions
- Where were major categories actually located in grid space” (Vaughn 1986:58).

Consequently, a considerable effort went into operationalizing the involvement and think-feel issues. With the help of Professor Ratchford (State University of New York) scalar questions were developed which would enable FCB to locate products on the grid according to consumers’ experience. These eight questions, on a seven-point scale, were directed at brand choice based on the last time respondents purchased the brand. They deal with think, feel and involvement issues and are as follows:

Think

- Decision is/is not mainly logical or objective
- Decision is/is not based mainly on functional facts

Feel

- Decision is/is not based on a lot of feeling
- Decision does/does not express one’s personality
- Decision is/is not based on looks, taste, touch, smell or sound (sensory effects)

Involvement

- Very important/unimportant decision
- Lot/little to lose if you choose the wrong brand
- Decision requires a lot/little thought (Vaughn 1986:60).

To date the grid has been tested among more than 20,000 consumers (covering some 250 products) in 231 countries and results have indicated that products tend to bear generally the same relationship from country to country as consumers' mental processes tend to be very similar around the world when selecting brands. It becomes clear that "a logical extension of thinking about products and brands on the FCB grid is to think about features and benefits – product and brand attributes – as people perceive them" (Berger 1986:42).

Most importantly, it became clear that "when we have repeated studies in the same country, we get the same patterns; and when we do these studies in different countries, we get very similar results. So while it is true that the product location dot is on average and that people are dispersed around it on the grid, it is also true that these average product locations on the grid are consistent through time and through space" (Berger 1986:43). This indicated that "consumer mental processes were similar over the marketing world despite necessary concessions to communication distinctions in advertising" (Vaughn 1986:62).

The applications and effectiveness of the grid are constantly being reviewed. "Since the grid is often used to reflect on previous consumer research as well as

¹ Argentina, Brazil, Mexico, Puerto Rico, Venezuela, Denmark, France, Germany, Italy, The Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden, United Kingdom, United States of America, Australia, Hong Kong, Indonesia, Japan, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, South Africa and Thailand.

current marketing judgments about a product's positioning and advertising opportunities, it is important to be flexible and insightful about consumer involvement. The real question often is not how much involvement, but what kind and what it means" (Vaughn 1986:64).

A close eye is also being kept on present research in terms of the think-feel dimension, emotion, non-verbal elements in advertising and hierarchy-of-effects models and to determine whether new discoveries regarding these variables in any way would affect the grid. Despite the outcome of these endeavors, thus far the "grid has helped to break through a previously rigid strategic barrier and become more expansive and creative in developing advertising. It has made strategic planning more relevant in terms of potential consumer response and stimulated more exciting executions" (Vaughn 1986:65).

Vaughn (1986:65) continues to say that this is the case because of opening up the advertising planning discussion to show how advertising works. Rational versus emotional appeals have been isolated, the option of raising involvement has been suggested and moving a brand in consumer perception has been considered. This was all done "within the context of a unified model of advertising effectiveness." According to Vaughn, we may never know how advertising works, but "we do know it works in some definable ways well enough to make more effective advertising" (1986:65).

3.7 SUMMARY

Compared to other models, very little has been published on the FCB grid, but one article was found in which an attack was made on the grid. Rossiter et al (1991) proposed their own version, called the Rossiter-Percy grid (RPG) which consists of five components:

Brand awareness as a necessary precursor to brand attitude

The RPG posits brand awareness as a necessary communication objective for advertising prior to brand attitude, stating that a product cannot be advertised unless brand awareness exists for such a product. From their argument it can be inferred that Rossiter et al are implying that the grid cannot be used to introduce a new brand to the market place (during the past year FCB Chicago has successfully launched Zima, the first clear malt liquor). Furthermore, it can be argued that the purpose of many advertising objectives is to create brand awareness and the researcher fails to see how this criticism can be leveled at the FCB grid.

Involvement dimension of brand attitude

The main criticism here is that the FCB grid deals with consumers' involvement in the purchasing process in terms of products and not brands. Rossiter et al may have a point that not all brands would be positioned in the exact same spot on the grid, but are they implying that a grid should now be developed for every brand within a product category? One of the strong points of the FCB grid is its simplicity. Furthermore, the researcher is not aware of two brands within the same product category being positioned in two different areas on the FCB grid. Will it really make

such a big difference if one brand is positioned slightly higher or lower, or more to the left or the right than its competitors? The characteristics of each area (refer to 3.3, 3.4.1 and 3.4.2) apply to ALL products in those areas and the implications are also the same for ALL products in a specific area, regardless of where in that area a product is positioned!

Motivational dimension of brand attitude

The RPG identifies eight purchase motives (compared to the FCB grid which only distinguishes between think and feel) of which five are informational motives (negatively reinforcing) and three are transformational (positively reinforcing). Other than a lengthy discussion of this component which criticizes the FCB grid, Rossiter et al have failed to provide the necessary arguments why their suggested eight purchase motives should be included or why they are an improvement over the FCB grid's two.

Advertising tactics based on the grid

The RPG includes tactics (i.e., how strategies should be executed) and Rossiter et al point out how this is a shortcoming in the grid. The researcher is not aware of any advertising agency instructing their creative people how to execute strategy. This is strengthened by the move away from tone statements in the advertising industry (see chapter 4) as creative people should not be inhibited in their executions of strategies. The researcher can only conclude from this that Rossiter et al attempted to create a manual for advertising.

Theoretical extensions of the RPG

Under this discussion, Rossiter et al claims that the RPG "is a necessary simplification of the detailed theory to be found in Rossiter and Percy (1987:20)." This is a reference to their book, *Advertising and Promotion Management* and there is absolutely no discussion on what theories they are referring to and the researcher can only infer from this statement that, in order to understand the mechanics of the RPG, one will have to purchase the Rossiter and Percy book.

Finally, the proposed six-cell RPG is confusing and complicated and the researcher fails to see how students would be able to apply it to write advertising strategy. One of the FCB grid's strongest characteristics is its simplicity and, not only can students apply it to write advertising strategy, but, as will be seen in chapter 4, there are in fact TWO ways of accomplishing this.

CHAPTER 4: ADVERTISING STRATEGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

To describe how the FCB grid can be used by students to write advertising strategy, one first has to look at what the advertising process comprises and what are involved in order to produce the advertisements and commercials that consumers are exposed to on a daily basis. The three main components are:

Objective: What one wishes to accomplish. Must be accomplishable and measurable.

Strategy: Plan for action which has to include the objective.

Tactics: Executions, or ads, which have to be based on the strategy.

Advertising educators are familiar with the foregoing, but they are also familiar with the difficulties involved when it comes to teaching students to write effective advertising strategy. Even for advertising educators with practical experience this is a formidable task because they are dealing with inexperienced students who often confuse strategy with tactics. It would appear that all they seem to be concerned about is producing “cool” ads for their portfolios (which have become very important for securing an entry level position in the advertising industry).

This confusion is not surprising, considering what Wells has to say in this regard: “Exactly where strategy ends and execution takes over in the creative process is hard to determine, once a piece of advertising goes to work. Was it the strategic brilliance or seamless execution that made the early work of Doyle Dane Bernbach

so persuasive? Was it the phrase itself, or the wit to create it, that made 'You don't have to be Jewish to love Levi's Rye Bread' so right for its time? Was it the 'We try harder' theme for Avis that won customers, or the admitted runner-up position of the company that vested the phrase with credibility that carried the day? Obviously, in most cases, it is both, although it is execution that usually wins the most plaudits" (Wells 1989:ix). The importance of advertising strategy is emphasized by Harvey Bailey, creative director: "Refuse to pick up a pen until you're satisfied with the strategy. . . . You can't start laying tracks until you know where your railroad is going. Who precisely are you talking to? What do you want to tell him or her?" (Moriarty 1991:54). This is reinforced by Wells: "As a young copywriter, I learned early to appreciate the value of a well-wrought strategy statement. These days, a sharply honed strategy is more important than ever" (Wells 1989:ix, x).

There is no one correct way to write advertising strategy and therefore it should be clear that not all strategies will be effective. Moriarty (1991) suggests that the minimum areas which a strategy at least should address, are:

- (1) who to talk to
- (2) what to say to them, and
- (3) how to reach them.

From Moriarty's suggestions it should be clear that the areas which she suggests that should be addressed include the target market, the advertising objective as well as the message, and media (students, however, do not interpret the third component in the same manner and this will be addressed in Chapter 6).

The majority of advertising practitioners will agree on the importance of a sound

strategy as a prerequisite for effective execution, but there is no consensus on what an advertising strategy should contain, or what areas it should address. Neither is there agreement on the format. Some agencies would consider a strategy statement as sufficient, while others would favor a more comprehensive document. Most agencies, however, tend to favor the latter, although they cannot agree on a name for such a document. Names may vary from creative platform, copy platform, message strategy, work plan or blue print, to mention a few.

There is no doubt as to the role and importance of advertising strategy. As it also forms an integral part of the advertising curriculum, one has to look at the sources available to educators which can aid them in teaching students to write effective advertising strategy. There are three: educators' own experience, the advertising industry, and textbooks (as the practical experience of educators is self-explanatory, only the latter two instances will be described briefly).

4.2 ADVERTISING PRACTITIONERS

The proverbial "Learn from the masters themselves," seems to be a logical source for educators: go and learn from the advertising practitioners. Advertising is a fast and ever-changing process, and regardless of how much practical advertising experience educators may have, they need to stay in touch with those who are presently involved in the advertising industry in order to stay informed about the latest developments and changes. The researcher has found advertising practitioners to be very cooperative, concerned and interested in advertising education, willing to share information and experiences – yet, insisting on

confidentiality. In other words, these people are willing to supply documents and share relevant information, but they do not wish to see these published or conveyed to others. Patti and Moriarty (1990) experienced just this when they surveyed the top 150 advertising agencies of the 1980s, requesting them to make available (to be published in book form) what they considered necessities for effective advertising. Of the 150 agencies who were approached, 33 responded. These agencies' approaches were categorized into seven groups – product, prospect, message, persuasion, strategy, organization, and varied. In five of these more than one approach was identified.

4.2.1 Product

The *product* approach focuses clearly on product features or performance claims while the *brand image* approach applies to those products where very little differences among products are found and this approach is applied to create a “perceived difference” (Patti & Moriarty 1990:27).

4.2.2 Prospect

In the *consumer* approach, the advertising focuses on the audience and is concerned with consumer behavior, needs, interests and attitudes. “This is a relatively new orientation in advertising and parallels the development of the ‘marketing’ concept in business, which focuses on developing products based on consumer needs” (Patti & Moriarty 1990:28).

4.2.3 Message

The two approaches here are directly opposite to each other. The *informative*

approach centers around the premise that “what you say is more important than how you say it. . . . Unless the strategy is correct, the creative work, no matter how clever, brilliant, funny, or touching, will fail” (Patti & Moriarty 1990:29). TBWA agency, a strong proponent of the *inventive* approach, emphasizes the creative or inventive dimension. “We believe in the importance of the advertising execution itself . . . that how you say it is often as important as what you say. . . The most brilliant copy strategy in the world is worthless if the advertising is invisible. People remember ads, not strategies” (Patti & Moriarty 1990:29).

4.2.4 Persuasion

Although none of the agencies built their approaches entirely on the *affective* approach, a few explained that they attempt to establish an emotional bond between product and consumer as it creates a connection on an emotional level between the consumer and the brand. The *sales logic* approach is similar to the Unique Selling Proposition approach of the late Rosser Reeves. However, in this day and age of parity products it may be difficult to find or discover a benefit which is unique, but this can be overcome by preempting, i.e., “. . . claim a unique benefit simply by getting there first and beating out the competition” (Patti & Moriarty 1990:31).

4.2.5 Strategy

Approaches in this category focus on a variety of topics – from research and analysis of the competitive situation in the marketplace, to following a clearly defined plan or procedure in order to identify critical factors in the marketing situation, and then linking these together with the message execution technique

through some bond of association or logic. The *marketing* approach revolves around acquiring as much information as possible . . . about the product, marketplace, competition, and attitude of the consumer. The disciplined approach involves plans that outline the strategy and is seen as a method of imposing structure and discipline upon the decision-making process. The *integrated* approach incorporates several different elements which are then linked/married/bonded to each other. The BBDO philosophy, which incorporates this approach, is explained as follows: "The secret of great advertising is the way 'Product' and 'You' are married. . . . When an advertisement focuses primarily on 'Product' benefits to the exclusion of the 'You' dimension, it is likely to be a *cold* execution. Likewise, an advertisement focusing solely on the 'You' at the expense of the 'Product' tends to produce an empty execution" (Patti & Moriarty 1990:33).

4.2.6 Organization

Many agencies claim that great advertising is a product of great people. Consequently, these agencies believe in hiring people for their "national reputations and their seasoned abilities to cut to the very heart of complex marketing situations" (Patti & Moriarty 1990:34). As one California-based agency put it: "Outstanding advertising, we believe, is an alchemy of relationships: art and science, left brain and right brain, client and agency" (Patti & Moriarty 1990:34) and that the key lies in the meeting where the pieces all come together.

4.2.7 Varied

Numerous agencies responded with statements which included many, "if not all, of the dimensions" (Patti & Moriarty 1990:34) which were discussed previously.

These agencies' statements were all-inclusive rather than single-minded in approach as many agencies' statements were, and the authors categorized these as the *multi -focused* approach.

Although these agencies' strategies vary in format, they all have one common denominator: to provide guidance and direction for brand advertising, i.e., to serve as a basis from which advertising should be executed, hence the move away from tone statements. It is generally felt that unless the creative department is involved in developing and writing strategy, no one has the right to "dictate" to creatives how to execute, and in the process places unnecessary limitations on them. "As usually written they [tone statements] are meaningless. If the rest of the strategy is clear they are unnecessary" (Bendinger 1988:120).

4.3 ADVERTISING EDUCATORS

Various educators have different methods of teaching strategy, but all have similar frustrations: the majority of advertising students experience problems when it comes to grasping and writing effective advertising strategy. Although authors of advertising textbooks on this matter propose various formats, they are unanimous in proposing a document detailing the various components of effective strategy. Normally, the last component would be a strategy statement which summarizes all the previously-stated components. Jewler (1992) suggests that a strategy should be simple, specific, durable and advertisable, and proposes the following ingredients for advertising strategy: advertising objective, description of the target audience, key selling idea and key benefits.

Jim Albright (1992) claims that creative strategy is a plan for action and recommends a creative work plan consisting of the following components as a necessity for effective strategy: client, key fact, consumer problem to overcome, advertising goal, principal competition, target market, consumer promise,¹ reason why, and mandatories.

In explaining DDB Needham's R.O.I. (Relevance, Originality and Impact) strategy, Wells (1989) says the secret to this strategy lies in answering five questions:

- What is the purpose of the advertising?
- To whom will the advertising be addressed?
- What competitive benefit will be promised and how will it be supported?
- What personality will distinguish the brand?
- When, where and under what circumstances will the target be most receptive to the message and what media will deliver that message at the lowest possible cost?

4.4 THE BENDERGER FORMULA

With the introduction of *The Copy Workshop Workbook* (1988), Bendinger proposed a formula for writing advertising strategy. His formula consists of three components: objective statement, support statement and a choice between a tone or brand character statement. "Over the years, there has been movement away from 'Tone' or 'Tone and Manner' statements, which describe the character of the advertising, toward statements which describe the character of the brand"

¹ See Albright 1992 (p. 20) explaining that there is a "narrower view" (which he supports) where consumer promise could be substituted by "creative strategy" which could be the actual strategy while the other components would then support this strategy.

(Bendinger 1988:116).

The **objective statement** combines the advertising objective with a brief description of the target market and brand name. The proposed formula that Bendinger suggests, is: Advertising will (verb)(target market) that (product/ brand) is/will/provides (statement of objective/benefit).

The **support statement**, which is referred to as the “reasons why” section; i.e., how the objective statement will be attained, is summarized in a single sentence: Support will be (support/reason why).

Finally, the **brand character statement**, which describes the personality of the brand, simply states: Character of the brand will be seen to be (description of brand). In comparison, the **tone statement**, which describes the character of the advertising, simply states: Tone will be (selling attitude adjectives). [In line with the movement in the advertising industry, away from tone statements, in favor of brand character statements, the researcher opted for the latter when using Bendinger’s formula to teach students to write advertising strategy. Furthermore, the researcher firmly believes that the creative department should not be “restricted” in executing a strategy by being told how to execute strategy – a tone statement does this].

Per illustration of Bendinger’s formula: If one would take Tombstone frozen pizza and direct the advertising at college students, the advertising objective could be to inform students of the advantages of buying Tombstone pizza instead of ordering out from companies such as Domino’s, Papa John’s, Little Caesar’s and Pizza Hut.

Tombstone, with a market share of 17.2% is the market leader in the frozen pizza category in the United States. Tombstone spent \$5 million during 1993 on its advertising, which is a small amount compared to its 1992 sales of \$250 million. The main competitors are Tony's, with a 12.3% market share, and Red Baron, 10.6%. Using Bendinger's formula, an advertising strategy for Tombstone Pizza could be written as follows:

Advertising will inform college students that

Tombstone pizza is a great buy.

*Support will be that it's cheaper, always available
and takes less time to prepare.*

Character of Tombstone pizza is convenience.

However, the researcher experienced the following problems with students using this formula. Objective statement: For some unknown reason(s), the majority of students would alter the objective as was defined earlier and would also tend to quantify the objective in terms of sales, although it had been pointed out to them that such an objective is not measurable unless a coupon would be used. The support statement was the section that produced the fewest problems while the brand character statement surely was responsible for its fair share of errors. Once again students would incorporate elements of the actual execution in one way or another.

Furthermore, students used this method by simply copying it from their textbooks without giving the strategy the careful thought and consideration it requires and in such cases it resulted in weak and ineffective strategies.

4.5 USING THE FCB GRID TO WRITE ADVERTISING STRATEGY

Earlier on, the advertising industry and textbooks were identified as sources available to advertising educators for teaching their students to write advertising strategy. There is yet another source available to these educators: the FCB grid. The FCB grid can be used in two ways to teach students to write advertising strategy via the quadrant and sextant grid.

4.5.1 The Quadrant Grid

The researcher found that students became so involved with positioning the dot in one of the respective quadrants of the FCB quadrant grid, that all their time and energy were devoted to this and little time was spent on writing the actual strategy. In many cases such positioning would be wrong and students would use irrelevant arguments to justify their positioning. Adding to this dilemma of the students, the FCB quadrant grid covers a wide range of products in each quadrant. For example, in the first quadrant one would find life insurance, a very high involvement/rational product, as well as a headache remedy which is not as high in involvement or as rational a decision as life insurance.

Based on the fact that students have no practical experience and, as was stated earlier, they encounter numerous problems differentiating between strategy and tactics (often confusing the two), the researcher realized that it was necessary to simplify the FCB quadrant for his students. Therefore, he developed a three-step process which could be used in conjunction with the FCB quadrant grid in order to write advertising strategy. Before this method is explained, the researcher has to

make it clear that the FCB grid should not be seen as a sure-fire solution (as students tend to use Bendinger's formula) for writing advertising strategy. Rather, it should be looked upon as a guide for inexperienced advertising students to talk their way through writing strategy. Using the Tombstone pizza example which was discussed earlier, this is how the three-step process would work:

4.5.1.1 Step one

The first step does not involve any positioning of any product, but rather to select an appropriate quadrant in which the product should be positioned. From Chapter 3, it will not be difficult to determine that a frozen pizza would be placed in quadrant four, low involvement, emotional thinking.

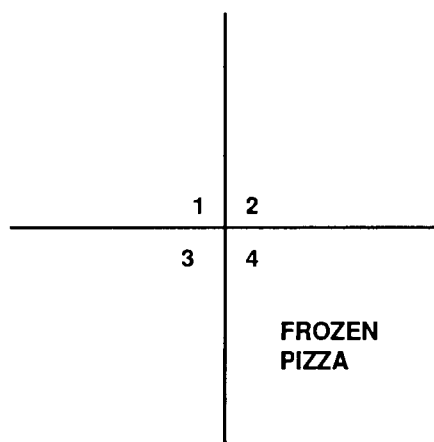


Figure 4.1: Step 1 for positioning products on the FCB grid

(Source: Yssel & Walchle, 1992)

4.5.1.2 Step two

Before this step is explained, the researcher would like to point out that this step will not change the quadrant which was selected during step one. A product will

always remain in the quadrant as selected per step one. The sole purpose of this step is to move closer to determining where a product should be positioned within the quadrant which was selected during step one.

In this step, student strategists have to draw a grid inside the quadrant which was selected during step one (quadrant 4). The next move would be to, based on the *brand name*, select a quadrant which would be considered most suitable for the product. As Tombstone is an unusual name for a frozen pizza, it would seem to be more of a high than a low involvement decision and certainly more rational than emotional. It would thus be acceptable to select quadrant one (in quadrant four) as shown in figure 4.2. As is the case with the first step, there is no actual positioning of the product during step two.

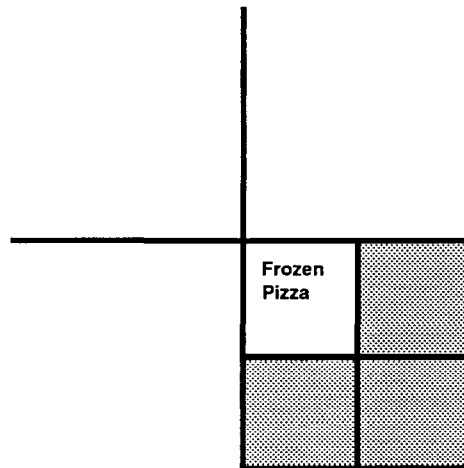


Figure 4.2: Step 2 for positioning products on the FCB grid

(Source: Yssel & Walchle, 1992)

4.5.1.3 Step three

Before this step is explained, the researcher would like to point out that this step will not change the quadrant which was selected during step one. A product will always remain in the quadrant as selected per step one. The sole purpose of this step is to finally determine where the product should be positioned in the quadrant which was selected during step one.

In this step, student strategists have to draw a grid inside the quadrant which was selected during step two (quadrant 1). The next move would be to, based on the *features/attributes/characteristics*, select a quadrant which would be considered most suitable for the product (some of these characteristics include: convenience, inexpensive, great taste, availability, hassle-free). Based on these, It would seem acceptable to select quadrant two (in quadrant one) and then the product is positioned within the last quadrant selection.

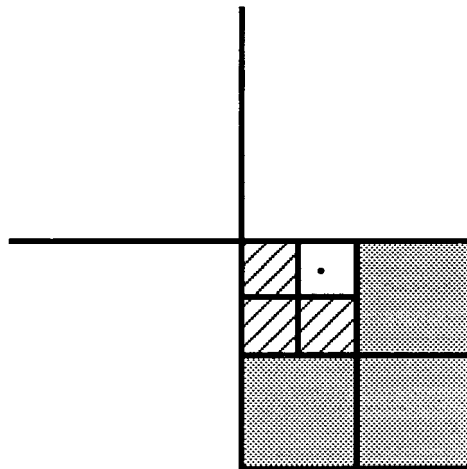


Figure 4.3: Step 3 for positioning products on the FCB grid
(Source: Yssel & Walchle, 1992)

Finally, if so desired, the additional grids which were drawn in quadrant 4 during steps two and three, may be removed to get a clearer picture as to exactly where a Tombstone pizza will fit on the FCB grid.

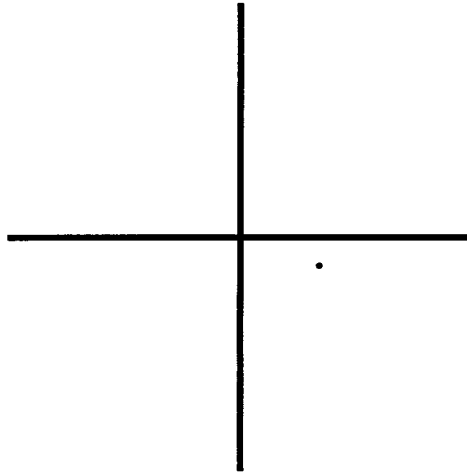


Figure 4.4: Step 3 with previously-drawn grids removed

(Source: Yssel & Walchle, 1992)

From the three-step process which was applied to determine where Tombstone pizza would fit in the grid, it becomes clear that Tombstone pizza will be positioned in the upper part of quadrant four (low involvement/emotional). Students now have to go back to the grid which was discussed in chapter three, and specifically to figure 3.2 to determine exactly what the positioning of a product in this quadrant implies.

As per chapter three, each quadrant deals with the type of consumer, level of involvement, traditional theory, as well as the hierarchy-of-effects model. Consequently, when using the three-step process to write advertising strategy,

students will probably make the following inferences:

The consumer for Tombstone pizza is considered a reactor, i.e., one who simply acts without any thinking or developing any affections toward the product, prior to purchasing the product. The consumer also wants to be perceived in a positive light by peers, therefore striving to belong and emulate. One could not, for example, go wrong if the advertising would position Tombstone as the “in thing.”

In sum, when using the three-step process to write strategy, the following variables are available to perform this task:

- product category (step one)
- brand name (step two)
- product features and benefits (step three)
- type of consumer (quadrant four)
- traditional theory (quadrant four)
- hierarchy-of-effects model (quadrant four)

4.5.2 The Sextant Grid

Earlier on (see 4.4.1) it was illustrated how the quadrant grid can be applied to teach students to write advertising strategy. When using the quadrant grid to write advertising strategy, the positioning of a product is important due to the wide range of products in each quadrant. But, when using the sextant grid to write advertising strategy, the positioning becomes less important, as products which are not truly high or low involvement products, are no longer part of these quadrants because these products now fit into the two **medium involvement categories**. These

areas combine the characteristics of both the high and low involvement categories, thus solving the problem of gray products, i.e., products which are not truly either high or low involvement products. **With the sextant grid it is crucial to determine in which area a product would be positioned, rather than where in the area it should be positioned.**

Once it has been determined in which sextant a product would be positioned student strategists have to talk their way through the particular sextant in order to answer the three questions (to whom are we talking?, what do we want to tell them? and how are we going to tell them?) which are the minimum three areas which should be addressed when writing strategy (Moriarty 1991).

Per illustration: If one had to use the Tombstone example which was discussed earlier, it should be clear that Tombstone would be positioned in the medium involvement/ emotional sextant, and the implications of this will be:

- The consumer to whom one is talking would have traits of both the feeler and the reactor, thus, the strategist has to decide which is more pertinent. It would appear, considering the nature of the product, that the reactor would be dominant, i.e., the consumer's logical interest would be hard to hold and short lived. In order to combat this, the creative executions will have to get the consumer's attention ("scream") with some consistency.
- As far as the nature of a possible strategy is concerned, this sextant implies a choice between, or a possible combination of affective and self-satisfaction strategies. It should be obvious that the purchasing of a pizza would be more for self-satisfaction reasons than for affective purposes.

- This sextant approximates the psychological theory (quadrant 2) and social theory (quadrant 4) apply, but once again it should be obvious that the social theory would be dominant (consumers would rather buy the “right” pizza to meet with the approval of their peers).
- A new hierarchy-of-effects model applies: feel-do-learn. This implies that the advertising will have to let the consumer develop a feel for the product which should be followed by the consumer acting on this feel and finally, through the advertising, learn about the product.

The preceding discussion includes the factors which strategists should consider when writing strategy. With the sextant grid, compared to the quadrant grid, students will have to resort much more to reason and logic, and a strategy for Tombstone pizza, using the sextant grid, could read like this:

Advertising will inform the target audience, college students who are between 18 and 24 years old and members of Generation X, that Tombstone pizza is a great choice to make when wanting to have pizza. It is always available (whether in your refrigerator or the local grocery store – grocery stores, unlike pizza delivery places, do not close). Furthermore, it is less expensive than ordered-out pizza (price wise and no delivery driver to tip) thus saving students money. It also tastes great and your fellow students will think you are “cool” when you pop a pizza in the oven or microwave the next time they are around. The students will be reached through publications which they read, such as: Details, Spin, Rolling Stone and national inserts in student newspapers (U magazine). Television will be used as a secondary medium to remind them about the advantages of buying Tombstone

instead of ordering out. These commercials will be aired during those television programs we know they like to watch: The Simpsons, Married with Children, Arsenio Hall Show and Late Night with David Letterman. Furthermore, as these students are reactors, i.e., buying for self-satisfaction purposes, our advertising will have to "scream" at them in order to be noticed. But, we do not consider this to be enough for them to change from ordering out pizza to Tombstone and, therefore, we will support our advertising with a strong sales promotions program – both in store and other places where students could be reached, for example athletic and social events. We know students love pizza and the main task of our advertising will be to persuade them to eat Tombstone.

4.6 SUMMARY

Experience has shown, that in the case of a strategy formula, students tend to copy such a formula from textbooks and simply "plug in" words without giving strategy the attention and careful thought a well-written strategy requires. The researcher experienced a similar situation with the three-step process as students treated this process as a type of formula. Students would devote so much of their time and energy to position a product in its quadrant, that very little time would then be spent on the actual writing of the strategy. As was pointed out, by simply "classifying" products as high or low involvement products, a host of products had to be grouped either as high or low involvement products, which they were in fact not. The sextant grid, due to introducing the two medium involvement categories, takes care of this as positioning of products are not as important compared to the quadrant grid. All students have to do is to decide in which sextant a product belongs, and once they

have done this, to talk their way through writing effective strategy.

The next chapter will demonstrate how the researcher has used both the FCB quadrant and sextant grid to teach his students to write advertising strategy and these strategies will then be analyzed in comparison with the formula method as proposed by Bruce Bendinger in *The Copy Workshop Workbook* (1988).

CHAPTER 5: METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to demonstrate that the FCB grid cannot only be utilized by advertising students to write advertising strategy, but superior advertising strategy, when compared to the Bendinger formula. This chapter describes the method that was employed in the study, including a description of the setting, target population, treatment, instrument and data analysis.

5.2 SETTING

Ball State University, Muncie, Indiana, is a public university with a student body of approximately 20,500 for the 1993/94 academic year. The Department of Journalism is one of the largest within the College of Sciences and Humanities and offers several options (advertising, journalism graphics, magazine, news editorial, photojournalism, public relations and teaching) for journalism majors to choose from. Prior to pursuing one of these options, journalism majors are required to complete the pre-journalism program where they have to achieve a GPA of at least 2.25 (on a four-point scale) with a C grade or better in each course. The courses of the pre-journalism program consist of: mass media in society, communication graphics, two media writing courses and the introductory course from the option which students wish to pursue.

To graduate as a journalism major with an option in advertising, students have to complete 126 hours of which 33 (including the pre-journalism program of 15 hours) should be selected from courses offered by the Department of Journalism. Once

the pre-journalism program has been completed, the balance of 18 hours, is made up as follow: advertising media, advertising copywriting and layout, journalism law, advertising campaigns, internship or practicum, as well as an elective.

By the end of the 1993/94 academic year, there were 831 students enrolled in the department of journalism of which 200 had selected journalism as a minor, resulting in a total of 631 students declaring journalism as their major. Of these, 295 had completed the pre-journalism program and 83 had indicated that they wished to pursue the advertising option.

5.3 TARGET POPULATION AND SUBJECTS

The target population for this study was undergraduate university students who had selected an advertising option within a journalism major. The subjects were students enrolled in the Department of Journalism at Ball State University, Muncie, Indiana, during the spring semester, 1994. Three accidental samples, which were intact, were employed. These samples were intact as they consisted of students who were enrolled in two advertising copywriting and layout (Journ 354), and one advanced copywriting course (Journ 455) taught by the researcher during the spring 1994 semester.

	Course	Gender		GPA range	Age range	n
		M	F			
Group 1	Journ 354*	6	4	2.02 - 3.88	20 - 24	10
Group 2	Journ 354*	6	4	2.06 - 3.11	20 - 24	10
Group 3	Journ 455**	6	4	2.11 - 3.64	20 - 24	10

*** Advertising Copywriting & Layout ** Advanced Copywriting**

Figure 5.1: Subject characteristics

Figure 5.1 contains a breakdown of the classes according to relevant subject characteristics. Each group consisted of ten students (four females and six males) and their ages ranged from 20 - 24 years. The first group consisted of students enrolled in the advertising copywriting and layout course whose GPAs (Grade Point Averages) ranged from 2.02 - 3.88 on a 4.0 scale. Students of the second group were enrolled in another section of the advertising copywriting and layout course and their GPAs ranged from 2.06 - 3.11. Students of the third group were enrolled in the advanced copywriting course and their GPAs ranged from 2.11 - 3.64. Thus, a total of 30 students, 12 females and 18 males, between 20 and 24 years of age, and whose GPAs ranged from 2.02 - 3.88, served as subjects in the study.

5.4 TREATMENT

5.4.1 Teaching methods

Three different methods for writing advertising strategy (Bendinger's formula, the FCB quadrant and FCB sextant grid) were taught by the researcher during the spring 1994 semester in his classes in the Department of Journalism on the

campus of Ball State University, Muncie, Indiana.

The researcher allocated an equal amount of time (two class periods which were each 75 minutes long) to teaching the three groups how to write advertising strategy. The same teaching methodology was used for all three groups: lectures on the relevant method for writing strategy were further explained by illustrating on the chalk board, as well as discussing well-known successful strategies (Avis, Pepsi, Michelob, etc.) These methods were taught within the first two weeks of the spring semester, 1994. During the remainder of the semester students received various assignments to practice what they were taught.

5.4.2. Bendinger formula

Bendinger's formula was proposed by Bruce Bendinger and discussed in detail in chapter four. According to this method, students have to "plug in" words in the formula, hence the researcher referring to it as Bendinger's formula. This formula consists of three components: objective statement, support statement and brand character statement. The description of each component is followed by the formula (*in italics*).

The **Objective statement** combines the advertising objective or benefit statement, description of the target consumer and the brand name and is stated within the first section of the strategy. [*Advertising will (verb) (target consumer) that (product/brand) is/will/provides (statement of objective/benefit)*]

The **Support statement** indicates the support which will be used to help attain

the objective. [*Support will be (support/reason why)*]

The **Brand character statement** describes the long-term values of the brand.
[*Character of the (brand) will be seen to be (description of brand character)*]

5.4.3 FCB Quadrant grid

The FCB quadrant grid method consisted of teaching students how the FCB grid, which Vaughn introduced in 1979, can be applied for strategic purposes. This method utilizes the three-step process (discussed in Chapter 4) in order to determine where to plot a product and it enables students to address the following questions:

Whom are we talking to?

What do we want to tell them?

How are we going to reach them?

These questions are considered the minimum to be addressed when writing advertising strategy.

5.4.4 FCB Sextant grid

The FCB sextant grid, on the other hand, deals with those areas (between quadrants one and three, and two and four) which seemed to have been ignored. Unlike the quadrant grid, where the plotting of the product in each quadrant is very important, this is not the case with the sextant grid. What is important is the selection of the sextant in which the product will be plotted. This method enables students to address the following questions which are considered the minimum to address when writing strategy.

Whom are we talking to?

What do we want to tell them and

How are we going to reach them?

5.4.5 Selection of groups for treatment

Earlier, the researcher stated that he employed three accidental samples, which were intact, for this experiment. This was done as it was not possible for the researcher to assign subjects at random into various groups as the groups consisted of the classes which were assigned to his teaching load for the spring 1994 semester. Scheduling of classes is administered by the university administration, and, once classes have been scheduled, students select those they wish to enroll in. However, each group was taught a different method for writing advertising strategy.

It was decided to teach the FCB sextant grid method to the advanced advertising copywriting class as these students were familiar with both Bendinger's formula and the FCB quadrant method which they were taught when previously enrolled in the advertising copywriting and layout course. The two advertising copywriting and layout classes were taught to write advertising strategy as per Bendinger's formula and the FCB quadrant method. The researcher had no preference as to which class was going to be exposed to which method and these were assigned at random.

5.4.6 Experimental task

Mallo Cup, a candy consisting of two chocolate cups, filled with marshmallow and

topped with coconut, was selected as the product for which the three groups had to write an advertising strategy as per the method they were taught. This candy was selected because it has not been widely advertised. Thus, students would not have had an opportunity to base or copy their strategies on existing advertising.

5.5 INSTRUMENT

5.5.1 Measurement scale

No standardized scale for measuring the effectiveness of advertising strategy exists. Using the Bendinger formula as a norm, the researcher developed such a scale. The Bendinger formula consists of five components (objective, target market, brand name, support and brand character). An assumed equal interval, five-point scale (5 = excellent, 4 = good, 3 = average, 2 = weak, 1 = poor) was developed to evaluate these components. It should be noted that the researcher decided to eliminate brand name from the scoring of advertising strategies since it was supplied to all groups. In order to determine the scores of these components, they had to be evaluated against the following:

The **objective** had to be specific, measurable, accomplished within a set time frame, reasonable, and meaningful.

Description of the **target market** had to include as many specific details as possible in terms of demographics, psychographics, lifestyles, etc.

The **support** section had to be preemptive, unique, compelling, believable and meaningful.

The **brand character** had to be a “real” one with personality traits or a theme and executional characteristics that could form an integral part of a campaign and brand identity.

The dependent variable was the actual ranking score of each strategy and the independent variable the teaching method each group was exposed to.

5.5.2 The raters

Two colleagues (at Ball State University and the University of Florida, Gainesville) with numerous years of practical experience were recruited to evaluate the various strategies in order to avoid personal bias and contamination by the researcher. The raters were not informed which method was used for writing which strategy.

The first rater obtained his master's degree from the University of Illinois and was employed in the advertising industry for 20 years where he worked in account management for some of the largest advertising agencies. He embarked on a teaching career in 1992. The second rater obtained her doctorate from the University of Texas and had fifteen years of advertising and public relations management experience before joining the ranks of academe in 1991. These colleagues' practical and teaching experience qualified them to evaluate these strategies.

Each student strategy was typed and averaged one page in length and had to be evaluated on four components. As a total of 30 strategies were involved, 120 evaluations resulted. A section for additional comments was added if the raters wanted to comment on any of the strategies, regardless of which method was used.

5.5.3 Inter-rater reliability

Method	0 - 1 point difference	2 - 3 point difference	4 point difference	Total
Bendinger	38	2	0	40
Quadrant	27	13	0	40
Sextant	27	13	0	40
TOTAL	92	28	0	120

Figure 5.2 : Differences between scores on components of strategies

Figure 5.2 contains a summary of the similarities and differences between the scores of the raters on the 120 strategy components that had to be evaluated.

In 92 (76.6%) of the cases the raters' scores were within one point or less of each other's. The scores of the remaining 28 (23.3%) evaluations were between two and three points of each other. No evaluation had a point difference of four.

To further demonstrate the reliability of the experiment, the researcher decided to sum the component scores for each strategy and compare the two raters' total scores for each strategy. The highest possible total score for each strategy was 20 points where the parameters were as follow: 0 - 4 = weak, 5 - 8 = below average, 9 - 12 = average, 13 - 16 = good and 17 - 20 = excellent (this compares with the five-point scale for individual components where 1 = weak; 2 = below average; 3 = average; 4 = good; 5 = excellent).

Method	0 - 4 points	5 - 9 points	10 or more points	Total
Bendinger	9	1	0	10
Quadrant	7	3	0	10
Sextant	6	4	0	10
TOTAL	22	8	0	30

Figure 5.3: Differences between total scores of each strategy

Figure 5.3 contains a summary of the similarities and differences between the total scores of the 30 strategies.

In 22 (73.3%) of the cases, differences between raters' total scores were 4 points or less. Differences between the remaining 8 (26.7%) strategies were between 5 and nine points, which can be further broken down as follow: 5 points: 4; 6 points: 2; 7 points: 1; 9 points: 1.

The researcher considers the content validity to be high. The fact that more than three-quarters of all component scores were either the same or within one point of each other, lends credibility to the reliability of the evaluation procedure. Both raters agreed, based on their practical and teaching experience, that the measurement scale was an appropriate tool for measuring the effectiveness of student strategies.

5.6 DATA ANALYSIS

To demonstrate the superiority of the FCB grid as a tool for teaching students to write advertising strategy, the following two null hypotheses were posed:

- 1 When students write advertising strategy for Mallo Cup, those strategies written according to the FCB quadrant grid will be judged similar to those written according to the Bendinger method.
- 2 When students write advertising strategy for Mallo Cup, those strategies written according to the FCB sextant grid will be judged similar to those written according to the FCB quadrant grid.

The researcher sought to reject these two null hypotheses.

The two raters' total scores for each strategy were averaged and two-tailed t-tests, alpha level .05, were applied to determine if one method was superior to another. For significance to occur, a t-value larger than 2.052 was required to reject either null hypothesis with 27 degrees of freedom. The data were analyzed at the Ball State University computer center using the SPSS-X statistical package. A set of two planned comparisons were conducted. The first focused on the difference between the FCB quadrant grid and Bendinger approaches. The second focused on the difference between the FCB sextant grid and the FCB quadrant grid approaches. The analysis was patterned after that suggested by Keppel and Zedeck (1989) to provide answers to highly focused questions in a data set.

5.7 SUMMARY

This chapter deals with the methodology which was employed in this experiment. To explain this, the method, setting, target population and subjects, treatment and the instrument which were used in the experiment, as well how the data was analyzed, are described.

The researcher pays particular attention to why it was not possible to assign subjects from the available pool at random to the various groups and why he opted for three accidental samples, which were intact. From Figure 5.1 it is clear that although subjects were not assigned at random to various groups, that these groups were indeed very similar. Figures 5.2 and 5.3 deal with the similarities between the scores of the two independent raters, thus explaining inter-rater reliability.

The results obtained from this experiment will be presented and discussed in the next chapter and based on these results, the researcher will also make certain recommendations pertaining to improving this experiment, as well as for future research.

CHAPTER 6: RESULTS, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to demonstrate how students can utilize the FCB grid to write superior advertising strategies. Three accidental samples, which were intact, were employed. These samples consisted of undergraduate students at Ball State University, Muncie, Indiana, who were enrolled in the classes the researcher taught during the spring semester, 1994. The ten students in each class were taught a different method of writing advertising strategy and then requested to write an advertising strategy for Mallo Cup, a candy which consists of two chocolate cups with a marshmallow center and topped with coconut.

The researcher sought to demonstrate that the FCB grid is a superior method for advertising students to write effective advertising strategy and posed the following two null hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: When students write advertising strategy for Mallo Cup, those strategies written according to the FCB quadrant grid will be judged similar to those written according to the Bendinger method.

Hypothesis 2: When students write advertising strategy for Mallo Cup, those strategies written according to the FCB sextant grid will be judged similar to those written according to the FCB quadrant grid.

6.2 PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

	Weak 0 - 4	Below Average 5 - 8	Average 9 - 12	Good 13 - 16	Excellent 17 - 20	Total
Bendinger	1	4	2	2	1	10
Quadrant	0	0	6	4	0	10
Sextant	0	0	3	4	3	10
TOTAL	1	4	11	10	4	30

Figure 6.1: Categorization of raters' scores

The data which were collected are presented in a simple categorical cross-break in Figure 6.1. Half of the Bendinger strategies (5/10) were scored as *below average* and *weak*. Two were scored as *average* and two as *good* while one strategy was scored as *excellent*. All the strategies written according to the FCB quadrant method were scored as either *average* (6/10) or *good* (4/10) with none being considered to be *excellent*. In contrast to this, seven of the strategies written according to the FCB sextant method were scored as either *good* or *excellent* (three falling in the latter category) and the balance was scored as *average*.

From Figure 6.1 the following is noted: The five strategies which were scored as *below average* and *weak* were all written according to the Bendinger method. Of the 11 strategies which were scored as *average*, the majority (nine) were written according to the two FCB grid methods. Half of the 14 strategies which were scored from *good* to *excellent*, utilized the FCB sextant grid method while the other half were nearly evenly divided between the Bendinger method (three) and the

FCB quadrant method (four). Of interest should be that 75% of the strategies which were considered to be *excellent*, were written according to the FCB sextant method; none written according to the FCB quadrant method received an *excellent* score. Furthermore, none of the strategies which was written according to one of the FCB grid methods received a score lower than *average*.

	Bendinger	Quadrant	Sextant
n	10	10	10
Mean	9.35	12.20	15.10
Standard Deviation	4.55	1.38	2.48
Range	4.0 - 18.0	10.0 - 14.0	11.5 - 18.5

Figure 6.2 : Descriptive statistics

In Figure 6.2, descriptive statistics are presented by group. When the means are compared, the strategies written as per the three different methods can be reported as follows: Both Bendinger and the FCB quadrant would fall in the *average* range with Bendinger at the bottom end (9.35) and the FCB quadrant method at the higher end of the range (12.20). The mean of the strategies written according to the FCB sextant method (15.10) would put these in the *good* category.

The standard deviations indicate that the strategies for the quadrant method (1.38) are more closely dispersed around the mean than those of the sextant method (2.48) and the Bendinger formula (4.55)

Scores of strategies for the Bendinger formula ranged from *weak* to *excellent* (4.0 - 18.0), compared to those for the quadrant method which ranged from *average* to *good* (10.0 -14.0) and the sextant method which ranged from *average* to *excellent* (11.5 - 18.5). It would appear that there was no consistency among those strategies written according to the Bendinger method and this inconsistency is further enforced by the standard deviation (4.55).

Hypothesis	Comparison	Group Means	Difference between means	t-value	DF	p
1	Quadrant vs Bendinger	12.20 9.35	2.85	2.058	27	.049
2	Sextant vs Quadrant	15.10 12.20	2.90	2.094	27	.045

N = 30; Alpha = .05

Figure 6.3 : Summary of significance testing of planned comparisons among groups

The statistical significance of the superiority of the FCB quadrant grid for writing advertising strategy, when compared to the Bendinger formula, was tested using a two-tailed t-test at a significance level of .05. In order to reject the first null hypothesis with 27 degrees of freedom, a t-value larger than 2.052 was required. The t-value of 2.058 for the first null hypothesis exceeded this value, and is therefore rejected as strategies written according to the FCB quadrant method received higher scores than those written according to the Bendinger formula. The probability of a t-value of 2.058 occurring by chance is .049.

The statistical significance of the superiority of the FCB sextant method for writing advertising strategy, when compared to the FCB quadrant method, was tested using a two-tailed t-test at a significant level of .05. In order to reject the second null hypothesis with 27 degrees of freedom, a t-value larger than 2.052 was required. The t-value of 2.094 for the second null hypothesis exceeded this value, and the second null hypothesis is therefore rejected as strategies written according to the FCB sextant method received higher scores than those written according to the FCB quadrant method. The probability of a t-value of 2.094 occurring by chance is 0.045.

6.3 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This study demonstrated that the FCB grid is a superior method for writing advertising strategies when compared to the formula of Bendinger and the results from the experiment which substantiated this, were presented in 6.2. From figure 6.1 it is clear that those strategies written according to the Bendinger formula came a distant third, as the average scores of these strategies just fell within the *average* range.

The researcher suggests that the poor showing of the strategies written according to the Bendinger method could result from the fact that his method consists of a formula where words have to be “plugged into” a framework which then becomes a strategy. An effective and sound strategy requires more than that. In order to write an effective strategy, all variables which could possibly influence such a strategy, have to be considered. Writing effective strategy is a thinking process which is time

consuming and cannot be accomplished by simply supplying an incomplete framework.

In contrast to the Bendinger formula, the FCB grid does not offer a formula to write strategy; rather, it deals with consumer behavior in the decision-making process as well as the level of consumer involvement in this process. It centers around consumers and serves as a guideline to answer the three questions which Moriarty (1991) considers to be the minimum areas that should be addressed when writing strategy:

Whom are we talking to?

What do we want to tell them?

How are we going to tell them?

The FCB grid should not be treated as a manual for writing strategy and strategists will have to carefully investigate the characteristics of a specific area and talk their way through the applicable area in order to answer the three questions (Moriarty 1991) which were referred to earlier. The researcher will, per illustration, demonstrate how a strategy can be written for a product, a family car, in area 1 (high involvement/rational). The same reasoning can be applied for writing strategy for products in other areas.

It was pointed out in Chapter 2 that an informative strategy for products in area 1 will probably be most suitable, as consumers for these products are highly involved in the decision-making process. They are considered to be thinkers as they seek as much information as possible prior to making a purchase, and therefore the

learn-feel-do theory of Lavidge and Steiner would apply. Consumers stand to lose a lot in the case of a wrong purchase being made and therefore this area approximates the economic theory, which implies that consumers are concerned about spending the actual amount on the purchase and have to be sure that such a purchase would be in their best interest and therefore they seek as much information as possible on products in area 1 as the risk for making a wrong purchase is high.

The foregoing discussion is helpful in obtaining a consumer profile while answering the first question, "Whom are we talking to?" Using the grid to write strategy does not imply that the target market should not be thoroughly researched. All possible demographic and psychographic data concerning the consumers whom the strategist wishes to reach, should be obtained via primary and/or secondary research. The FCB grid should not be viewed as a substitute for researching the target audience as the FCB grid only indicates how **most** consumers react in the decision-making process and whether rational or emotional reasoning prevails.

It could be argued that the FCB grid is not as useful when attempting to answer the second question, "What do we want to tell them?," in other words when the strategist had to identify the advertising objective. This is not the case. From the known characteristics of area 1, it should be clear that an objective emphasizing informative and useful advantages of why a particular product in this area should be purchased, could be a meaningful objective which is accomplishable and measurable.

When attempting to answer the third question, “How are we going to tell them?” it could be argued that the obvious answer to this question pertains to the media that should be selected to reach the target market. This is only part of the answer, as the not so obvious answer also involves the advertising message (not the actual execution, but rather the idea behind the advertising message). Therefore, to clarify this section and to avoid any confusion, the researcher suggests that two sections, Message and Media, be added to this component. The message section can be further divided into concept (idea behind the advertising), features/benefits of the product which has to be advertised, brand character (personality of the brand which will have to be reflected in the advertising), and positioning statement (the perception the advertising has to establish in the mind of the consumers) in order to answer this question as fully as possible.

The following is one example of how the FCB grid can serve as a tool in answering the third question (“How are we going to reach them?”) for products in area 1.

Message

Concept: An informative concept, emphasizing the advantages of purchasing a product in area 1, a family car, will be effective.

Features/Benefits: Concentrating on the rational aspects for product purchases in area 1 seems to be the logical choice. In the case of a family car, one could concentrate on the safety of a particular model due to the dual air bags, power steering, effective braking system, etcetera.

Brand Character: A useful, informative and rational brand character will probably work best for a product such as a family car.

Positioning statement: A statement which will result in factual, no-nonsense and practical perceptions, should work to the advantage of products in area 1. In the case of a car it could be that it provides the safety one is looking for one's family.

Media

Not only should the media section address the appropriate media, but it should also include the vehicles within the suggested media. In the case of a car, print media, due to their permanence (compared to television) and their ability to convey more information, is recommended as the primary medium. Television would serve as a good secondary medium due to its emotional appeal. (It should be noted that although the purchase of a car, as per this example, is a high involvement/rational decision, it does not exclude the emotional aspects; in fact, no decision is purely a rational or emotional decision. Rather, any decision includes both rational and emotional aspects).

Figure 6.4 contains a visual depiction of the foregoing discussion as a proposed strategy model which should be used in conjunction with the FCB grid to write advertising strategy. This model can be applied to both the FCB quadrant grid and FCB sextant grid, but strategists should bear in mind that the quadrant grid also involves the three-step process (see 4.4.1) which aids them to position a product in one of the four quadrants.

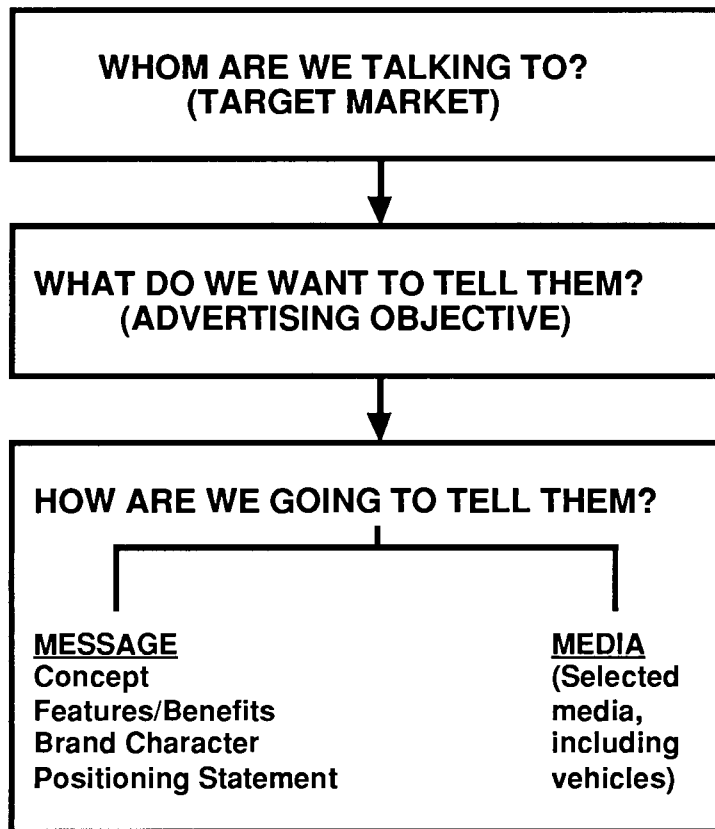


Figure 6.4: Proposed strategy model to be used in conjunction with the FCB grid

When the FCB grid is compared to the Bendinger formula, one should note the following differences:

- The FCB grid summarizes consumers' involvement and thought processes in the decision-making processes when purchasing products.
- It is possible to derive from the FCB grid a full and complete picture of the consumers who have to be targeted.
- The various areas of the FCB grid imply which media would reach the target market in an effective manner.

Furthermore, when the proposed strategy model (figure 6.4), which is to be used in conjunction with the FCB grid, is compared to the Bendinger formula, the following is noted:

The strategy model is much more complete as it addresses topics such as the concept of the advertising message, features and benefits, a positioning statement as well as the media (which includes the vehicles) in which should be advertised.

From the foregoing it can be inferred that the Bendinger method leaves considerable room for improvement, and for the following reasons:

To suggest a formula for writing strategy, is too simplistic, as the process of writing advertising strategy is a time-consuming, thought-provoking and involved process; something which the Bendinger formula is not. This inference is further supported by the fact that the strategies written according to the Bendinger formula fared very poorly when evaluated by independent raters who did not know which method was employed for writing the various strategies. The researcher, therefore, concludes that the time has come for a more comprehensive suggestion for writing strategy; some method as is suggested via the proposed strategy model which should be used in conjunction with the FCB grid.

The researcher in no way suggests that this study, and in particular the proposed strategy model, is flawless. Considering that this was a first attempt to measure the effectiveness of student strategies, the limitations of this study are dealt with in 6.4 and recommendations on how to counteract these limitations, are discussed in 6.5.

6.4 LIMITATIONS OF STUDY

As far as could be determined, this was a first attempt to measure the effectiveness of advertising strategy and it could very well be that this study is flawed. The researcher is aware of three possible limitations of this study and they will be discussed below.

6.4.1 Measurement scale

There is not consensus on what components an effective advertising strategy should include, and it could be argued that the researcher faulted by only including the components of the Bendinger formula as no empirical proof exists for the validity of this formula. It may thus be argued that certain components, which are considered to be of great importance, are not contained in the Bendinger formula. Such components could include those which are incorporated in the proposed strategy model, namely, concept, features/benefits of the product, and positioning statement. However, there may be more that the researcher is not aware of, or did not consider when proposing the strategy model. In the case of such omissions, this will be taken care of in the recommendation as contained in 6.5.1

6.4.2 Non-randomization of subjects to groups

It may also be argued that the subjects employed in the study were not assigned at random to various groups, but were part of accidental samples which were intact, as these groups consisted of the classes which the researcher taught during the spring 1994 semester.

6.4.3 Subjects prior knowledge of strategy

The third possible limitation of this study concerns the knowledge of advertising strategy possessed by the students who were enrolled in the advanced copywriting class. Although this was the first time that the subjects of the advanced copywriting class were exposed to the FCB sextant grid, one cannot deny that they had already completed the copywriting and layout classes where they were taught both the FCB quadrant grid and Bendinger formula. Therefore, one cannot rule out the possibility that the superiority of strategies written according to the FCB sextant grid may be attributed to the fact that this group was familiar with strategy.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

The researcher wishes to make two recommendations pertaining to this study. The first deals with the development of a valid measurement scale for evaluating the effectiveness of advertising strategy and this is discussed in 6.5.1. The second recommendation involves more testing of the FCB sextant grid and FCB quadrant grid methods for writing strategy and this will be discussed in 6.5.2.

6.5.1 Measurement scale

The researcher strongly recommends that an acceptable and valid measurement scale for evaluating the effectiveness of advertising strategy be developed. This should be done in conjunction with the advertising industry. A possible way of accomplishing this, could be to survey the top 100 American advertising agencies regarding what they consider the minimum components of an effective advertising strategy to be. Once this has been determined, it should be clearly stated what the

requirements for these components are to justify a particular score on such a scale. This is definitely an area which the researcher intends to pursue.

6.5.2 FCB sextant grid vs FCB quadrant grid

The researcher's second recommendation concerns more testing of the FCB sextant and FCB quadrant grid. This could be done, ideally, by assigning subjects at random to two groups prior to any of these subjects being taught strategy. Once these groups have been taught to write strategy, the same product should be given to these subjects for which they will have to write strategy. These strategies can then be compared and evaluated on the improved measurement scale (see 6.5.1) to determine if the one method is superior to the other for writing strategies.

6.6 CONCLUSION

The reason behind this study can be attributed to the creator of the FCB grid. When Richard Vaughn introduced the FCB grid in 1979 during a worldwide seminar of FCB research managers in London, it was not intended to be used as an educational tool. The researcher, as an educator constantly looking for ways to improve his teaching, contemplated the possible use of the FCB grid as a tool for students to write superior and effective advertising strategy.

When students experienced problems with positioning products in a particular quadrant on the grid, the researcher developed a three-step process to counteract this. When he found that students' energy went into determining where a product should be positioned, rather than using this process as a preliminary step to write

the eventual strategy, the researcher investigated the possibility of utilizing the FCB sextant grid to write strategy. When students tended to overlook the implications of answering “How are we going to tell them?” he added two subsections under this component. This was done to improve the way students can be taught to write effective advertising strategy.

The researcher, therefore, concludes that the use of the proposed strategy model (figure 6.4) in conjunction with the FCB grid will lead to superior strategies when compared to those written according to the Bendinger method, as advertising is not a process for which a manual can be devised. Rather, it is a time consuming process which requires considerable thought and based on this study it should be clear that the FCB grid is a model which takes this into consideration.

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APPENDIX B

Examples of student strategies written according to the Bendinger formula

Highest score:

The advertising will convince women, ages 18-34, that Boyer's Mallo Cup has a taste like no other candy on the market, combining chocolate, marshmallow and coconut.

Support will be that Mallo Cup was the first candy in the industry to come packaged in cup form and is the only such candy combining the tastes of chocolate, marshmallow and coconut.

The brand character is individuality.

Lowest score:

Advertising will increase awareness among the target market of Mallo Cup.

Support will be the unusual combination of chocolate, coconut, and marshmallow cream in this candy.

The brand character will be satisfaction.

APPENDIX C

Examples of student strategies written according to the FCB quadrant grid

Highest score

Objective: To increase awareness among the target audience that Mallo Cup offers an exciting, different taste, to that of the regular old candy.

Strategy: The target audience for Mallo Cup is male and female children, age 8 to 16. These children are elementary and middle school students. They are from middle to upper class families. They like to watch TV, play sports and do all the activities that other youngsters, their age, do. They are reactors and like to be in the latest fashions, and participate in the new trends. The children are not health conscious and love to eat candy, snacks, and anything else that is popular and bad for them.

The children will be getting the money to buy the candy from their parents. They are experts at nagging and know exactly how to manipulate their parents to get what they want. The target market reacts to what is popular on TV, around school and the neighborhood, and to their friends. This fits into the do-feel-learn hierarchy model, which pertains to their emotions.

Children are consumers that don't bother with brand loyalty, they are persuaded more by the brand's promotion. Thus, the promotion will give the consumers something to hold in their hot little hands after the candy is gone. The promotion will consist of collecting cards of likable and familiar pairs in all walks of life. Sports greats, cartoon characters, movie stars, singers, and other pairs will be on cards inside of every Mallo Cup wrapper. This will make the freebie the hottest new thing to collect, and no sassy kid will be seen without it. The advertising will tell the target market about how great Mallo Cup is, and how hot the new cards are to collect.

The target market will be reached through TV commercials on cartoons, kids shows, and some sports events. The commercials will also be geared toward parents, with children in the ads. The ads will show the consumer what a great

combination Mallo Cup offers. Cartoon characters and sports heroes will be used in them. Prizes will be given in the wrapper when you buy them, and will be showed in the commercials. The benefits of eating Mallo Cup will be shown in the ads also, with the people being accepted by friends after eating the candy.

Lowest score

The advertising for Mallo Cup is intended to increase awareness among the ages of 8-12 that enjoy eating candy. It will also be aimed at their parents, because in most cases when the purchase will be made, it will be made by a parent. The advertising will inform the target market that Mallo Cup is the marshmallowy filled chocolate. This candy has the soft creamy center that kids will be turned on to. Most kids don't like eating just your basic candy. They like things like Nerds and Gob Stoppers. This advertising will try to make the kids realize that Mallo Cup is also a fun candy. It's the candy that you bite into for a delicious marshmallowy taste. It will also appeal to their parents. This advertising needs to make parents think that Mallo Cup is the candy company that really cares about what their children eat. The advertising will appeal to the fun side in every kid by showing it as the candy that kids eat when they want to have fun. I think this advertising can be best depicted on television because most children watch a lot of TV. Hopefully this advertising will make the kids say, "Mommy, Mommy, I want Mallo Cup."

APPENDIX D

Examples of student strategies written according to the FCB sextant grid

Highest score

Purpose: The purpose of this campaign is to persuade the target market of the advantages of buying Mallo Cup candy instead of other candy bars when they are at local convenience stores or gas stations.

Target Market: This campaign will attempt to reach white males between the ages of 18 and 34. They are employed full time as professional/skilled workers and earn a salary between \$15,000 and \$34,999 annually. They may be single or married and have up to 2 young children (age 7 or below). They live in mid to large size metropolitan areas in the mid-atlantic/Midwestern regions of the country. Target users are medium users who buy candy on a spur of the moment decision. They are not likely to have a specific brand preference, so their minds can be easily swayed by advertising and point-of-purchase displays. They usually buy candy in individual sized packages rather than buying the multi-packs. They enjoy candy as a snack, and are not what you would consider "chocolate fiends." The lifestyle of our target market is fairly simple. They go to work everyday, and come home to enjoy television and the local newspaper. They enjoy sports most of all, and like to keep up with what is going on in the sporting world. They like to get involved in sports whenever possible. They like to think of themselves as good athletes and take pride in their "winner" self concept. This self concept also applies to their job. They do their work with pride and are looking to get ahead. These people are status oriented and use accomplishment as a measuring stick. They like to drive a nice car and dress accordingly to gain acceptance among their peers. They want to be noticed by the opposite sex, and are looked up to by their peers. They believe in fitness to some extent, but do not go to extremes. Basically, they are looking to make their own place in society, and want to be noticed for it.

Promise: When you buy Mallo Cup instead of other brands of candy, you will get the simple satisfaction that comes with eating a candy bar and will feel confident that it is an acceptable candy bar among your peer group.

Support: Mallo Cup is a great tasting chocolate and marshmallow candy bar. It will satisfy your craving for a candy bar and will help to fight your hunger between meals. Mallo Cup is a good quality candy. Mallo Cup offers two candy bars for the price of a normal candy bar. Mallo Cup, an acceptable candy bar among peer groups, is available at most places that the target market may stop during the day.

Personality: Mallo cup is simple, unique, satisfying.

Media selection: Candy is bought on feeling rather than rational. In this case, Mallo Cup is a low fourth quadrant product that will be bought on the spur of the moment. The product will be bought at the point-of-purchase, eaten almost immediately, analyzed (good or bad), and then a decision will be made about whether to buy the product again. These people are reactors who will make this decision according to taste and satisfaction. The target market also places emphasis on social acceptance. If Mallo Cup is acceptable to the target's peers, it may be passed on from person to person. To reach this target audience, we must utilize a multi-faceted campaign. Local newspaper would probably be a good media selection for reach, but we will not use it due to the lack-luster appearance of the ads. The ads need to stick out in order for them to take action and buy the product. Therefore, we will use radio as our first media choice. Radio will reach the target audience when they are most likely to be in the aperture to buy Mallo Cup. Vivid radio advertising will be used during the morning and evening drive times. This will attempt to get them to look for Mallo cup when they stop to get gas or to pick up a few necessities. Another integral part of this campaign will be the point-of-purchase displays that will attract the attention of these

potential consumers once they are in the store. Noting the fact that this is a product bought on the spur of the moment, something will have to distinguish Mallo Cup from the rest of the field. These point-of-purchase displays will have to be "loud" to attract the attention of the potential consumer. Cable television could also be a viable choice. The target audience could be tightly targeted by the correct vehicle choices. This would depend on the budget allocated. Magazines would also be a wise choice to raise awareness among the target market. Specialty sports magazines would reach the target market both effectively and efficiently. The ads would have to "scream" to get the attention of the audience and would also have to give them some incentive to buy. A hard sell approach probably wouldn't work, but the ad would have to tell them to try Mallo Cup for the experience. Once they have experienced Mallo Cup, they will make the decision on whether to buy Mallo Cup again or not.

Lowest score

Advertising will increase awareness among the target market. Target market consists of men, 18-34 years old. Advertising must be attention-getting because this is a fourth quadrant product. These men are emulators, they are concerned with social status, be it the car they drive or the clothes they wear. These men want to be trendsetters, instead of following in someone else's footsteps they want to make their own. Mallo Cup is the candy to set the trend with. These men can be the leaders with Mallo Cup. Advertising will promise the market that they will become more of the men they want to be with Mallo Cup. They will become the man they always wanted to be . . . a trendsetter. Support of the promise will be the great taste of the chocolate and marshmallow combination. Advertising will appear in print, radio, television, and the possible sponsorship of athletic events such as football, baseball, whatever is in season. Professional athlete endorsement corresponding with the sport in season. Target market look up to these people as leaders, someone they want to be.