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MARKET RESEARCH

THE PRINCIPLES AND METHOD OF
ADVERTISING RESEARCH AND MARKET ANALYSIS
AND THEIR SCIENTIFIC APPLICATION
TO SALES DEVELOPMENT

BY

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LONDON
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PARKER STREET, KINGSWAY, W.C. 2
BATH, MELBOURNE, TORONTO, NEW YORK
1931

PRINTED IN GREAT BRITAIN
AT THE PITMAN PRESS, BATH

PUBLISHERS' NOTE

ADVERTISING—an expensive but unfortunate necessity nowadays—absorbs enormous sums of money. Much of it is in grave danger of being utterly thrown away unless the advertising is conducted according to some pre-determined plan, based upon careful analysis both of the product and of the prospective market. The old, haphazard days of the happy inspiration, or the lucky “hunch,” are past. No longer can we afford to allow a costly publicity campaign to be almost as great a gamble as a horse race. We are bound to apply scientific method to our advertising if it is to continue to yield results commensurate with its cost, or indeed, if it is to continue at all. It is the nature of this scientific publicity method which is succinctly explained in this extremely interesting work. The author, an advertising modernist, with wide experience of business conditions at home and abroad, brings before the advertiser himself, together with his publicity manager and sales manager, a technique which, although relatively young, is nevertheless thoroughly proven, and a wealth of suggestion which, if adopted, may well save him a great deal of money.

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MARKET RESEARCH

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

ADVERTISING and the community—Evolution of scientific method in advertising—Modern agency procedure—Gathering facts—Application of facts to the advertising problem—Development of copy appeal—Media—Comparisons of advertising cost—Media surveys.

BEFORE the Industrial Revolution in England, under the domestic system in industry, goods were mostly manufactured in the home, for home use. A surplus was either sold to neighbours or else exchanged for other goods which the family required. Under this system it was rare even for goods to be sent from one village to another.

With the Industrial Revolution, manufacture was transferred from the home to the factory. In the factory, large quantities of goods were made. These goods were distributed locally at first, then nationally, and finally—in the last fifty years—internationally.

With the development of a centralized system of manufacture, there developed the necessity for a systematized method of marketing the products manufactured. Under the old system, goods were manufactured and sold locally to people who knew all about them. Modern conditions of mass production make it essential to sell the goods manufactured to people who are, perhaps, thousands of miles away from the factory.

Advertising and travelling salesmen are the only means by which news about merchandise can be spread from one town to another—from one country to another. Advertising enables the soap manufacturer to

regard as his legitimate market every country where people wash or can be educated to wash; the shoe manufacturer to have as his market every country where people wear, or can be persuaded to wear, shoes; and so on.

Many business men have tended to regard advertising as a luxury—something to be indulged in because it is the fashion. Sometimes business men have suddenly discovered a surplus of profits and decided they will spend it on advertising.

The consumer has tended to regard advertising with suspicion. If a line of goods has been advertised extensively, the consumer has thought that the cost of this advertising has been passed on to him. He thought that, if the line were not advertised so much, he would not have to pay so much for it. These conceptions have gradually faded away in the minds of business men and in the minds of the consumers.

Advertising has come to be regarded as of special service to the community. It is by means of advertising that the provincial housewife reads about bargains in the City store. If she did not read of these bargains in the daily papers, or in a catalogue, she would not know anything about them. In brief, advertising has brought merchandise before the notice of the consumer.

As the result of this tendency to tell the consumer what to buy, advertising has enabled the manufacturer to expand the markets for his products. With increasing demand for his products, the manufacturer can introduce methods of mass production. These methods of mass production enable him to reduce the cost of manufacture, and pass on this reduced cost to the consumer for each item of merchandise.

To look at the position, however, from another angle, it would seem that the consumer is being pressed

by advertising to buy merchandise, to spend money, when perhaps in the minds of many he ought to be saving it. According to this idea, the consumer simply exists so that the manufacturer can produce more goods to sell to him. On the other hand, advertising may be said to have contributed its quota to the development of our civilization. If it were not for advertising few of us would ever have refrigerators in our homes. If it were not for advertising we would not know what furniture to buy. Advertisements tell us where to go for our holidays, tell us how to care for our feet, our complexions, and our hair. Advertising places before us the claims of rival food products, so that we know what is available, and can make our choice. Advertising teaches us what we need for our well-being, and tells us how to get it. If it were not for advertising we would still be living in cheerless homes, without radiators, without all the little material home comforts which are so dear to us. We would still be wearing shoes that did not fit us, and, possibly, not even be cleaning our teeth regularly because we had never seen those terrifying advertisements which tell us how many germs lurk in "that film on our teeth."

Many modern advertising men still rely on inspiration or on a "hunch." The popular conception of an advertising man is probably of someone who sits back in a room and smokes ounces and ounces of tobacco, and from these ounces and ounces of tobacco gets a great idea, which he puts forth in the form of an advertisement which takes the country by storm. It is true that many of these great ideas originating in this way were quite a success, but, on the other hand, a great many of them were not.

Modern advertising, by substituting the scientific for the inspirational, has made advertising less and less

of a "hit and miss" affair. The old great idea, brought forth by much labouring and tobacco smoke, was expensive in that one did not know actually whether it was going to be a failure or not. A modern, scientifically evolved idea, behind a scientifically evolved campaign, is not a "hit and miss" affair at all. Although we have not yet perfected the scientific technique of evolving an advertising campaign, we are, nevertheless, approaching the ideal. We do feel that a scientifically evolved advertisement is not a haphazard, blindfolded stroke at a market—it is a stroke directed carefully right at the market.

Advertising itself, in some form or another, is almost as old as civilization. The ancient Town Crier, for instance, was an advertising man. He has his modern counterpart in the "sandwich man" of to-day. It was not until the last ten years of the nineteenth century that the real selling potency of advertising was discovered. It was not until the beginning of the second decade in the twentieth century that it achieved its present high estate as a force in business.

Early advertising in Great Britain and other countries stood still for many years. Most early advertisements were merely announcements similar to the "classified advertisements" of to-day. They simply consisted of statements of ship departures, of stage-coach schedules, brief announcements of enterprising manufacturers and shopkeepers. We can look up any of the old papers and see these advertisements.

Advertising has now become the function of the specialist, or rather, of a group of specialists. There are art specialists, copy specialists, marketing specialists, and specialists who know all about newspapers and what can be done with the newspapers. Ordinarily, a manufacturer who wishes to advertise cannot employ

all these people—he cannot afford to pay an art specialist, he cannot afford to pay a copy specialist, and so on. It is at this stage that what is known as the advertising agency has crept in. The advertising agency is a group of specialists in art, copy, marketing, and all the other phases of advertising. These specialists place their services at the disposal of a manufacturer who wishes to advertise. As an agency has several clients, the services of these specialists and their cost are spread over several manufacturers, in just the same way as the services of a lawyer, a doctor, or an accountant, are spread over many people who could not afford to pay for their exclusive individual service.

The advertising agency, coincident with the development of modern advertising, has developed throughout the world most rapidly since 1910. Market analysis has become more thorough; rates for publication space have become almost standardized, and the position of advertising, as a definite and vital force in business, has become more clearly established.

Let us assume that the manager of a modern advertising agency has been entrusted with the responsibility for advertising a product. He will immediately set about developing the application of scientific method to the solution of the new client's problems.

Scientific method involves three steps prior to the formulation of any advertising and merchandising plan. The first is the collection of facts; the second is the analysis of the facts collected; and the third is the graphic presentation of these facts.

The facts themselves may be gathered from various sources—from the client himself, from the past experience of the agency in dealing with similar products, or possibly even the same product in other parts of the world. Other sources are from official publications,

such as Government Statistics, from Research Bureaux, from Libraries or from Trade Journals; information may also be obtained from experts—these may be professionals, such as doctors, dentists, or dieticians, or they may be merchandising or manufacturing experts. The trade can supply quite a lot of information as to the attitude of dealers, sales trends, publicity and marketing methods, and sales resistance as represented by competitive products. The consumers themselves supply the greatest fund of information, as the consumer is the person who buys and uses the product in any case. Information obtainable from consumers comprises: who buys the product—whether men buy it, or women buy it; what income classification of people buy it, whether poor people buy it, or rich people buy it; the quantities these people buy it in—whether they buy it in pound lots, or half-pound lots, or packets, or tins; what prices they pay for it; where they buy the product—whether they buy it from grocers, chemists, or departmental stores; when they buy it—whether they buy it at the end of the week, or whether they buy it every day or every month; why people buy it; what they use the product for; what other similar products they use; and so on.

The first thing an analysis of the consumer and trade investigation for a product should reveal is the suitability of the product. The opinions of experts in the trade, and actual consumers, when scientifically analysed, provide irrefutable evidence of the suitability or otherwise of the product—evidence that has been gathered in a scientific way, and which cannot be gainsaid. It may happen that the product is revealed by research to be not suitable for the purpose for which it is designed. The value of the research at this stage is that, if the product actually is unsuitable, there is

scientifically obtained evidence that this is so—evidence that should be pretty conclusive to the manufacturer, in spite of what he himself may think to the contrary. Without this preliminary research, quite a lot of money could be spent on advertising an unsuitable product before small sales definitely revealed that it was unsuitable. As the result of research, agencies have occasionally had to recommend to the client that the product should not be put on the market. Reputable agencies will not accept the advertising for a product which market research has revealed to be unsuitable. In some instances, manufacturers have ignored these recommendations, and have gone on to some less scrupulous agency to get them to carry through the campaign. Without exception, in these circumstances, the sales result has proved the validity of the original market research.

Given that the product is suitable, and that research shows it is going to be a winner, a further study of the research analysis enables basic market data to be organized. Retail shopping areas can be marked out, and population distribution counted.

Advancing a step further, marketing and sales quotas can be determined on the basis of the research. The result of the trade and consumer investigations will show what prices the public are willing to pay for the products. The trade research will show what profit the dealer wants to make on the line, and what selling schemes he would consider most helpful. All this information is compiled from perhaps hundreds, or even thousands, of dealers and consumers, and averages taken. These averages will represent a truer picture of the situation than any figures taken from one or two dealers.

Analysis of the research will show, in an indisputably

scientific way, who is going to use the product—men or women, children or adults, rich, poor, or middle-class people. In the pre-scientific stage, the advertising man may have had a “hunch” as to who was to receive his copy. This may, or may not, have been correct. The modern scientific method indisputably establishes to whom the appeal can be most effectively directed. It replaces guesswork with exact knowledge. The results are often surprisingly different from what the advertising man thought they might have turned out to be.

Further, analysis will show how the consumer uses certain products; for instance, some time ago, Horlick's Malted Milk was featured in England as an “eleven o'clock drink.” When a less conservative agency took over the account, research revealed that very few people drank Horlick's Malted Milk at eleven o'clock in the morning, and, anyway, only a few people ever drank anything of that nature at eleven o'clock. On the other hand, it was revealed that people did like a hot drink just before going to bed at night because it made them sleep. On the basis of this, the “eleven o'clock” appeal for Horlick's was scrapped, and an appeal developed which featured Horlick's as a drink to be taken just before going to bed, to promote sleep. Sales, which had been at a standstill, started to go ahead with the new copy appeal. The moral of this is that, if the previous “eleven o'clock” appeal had been scientifically tested a long while before, many thousands of pounds' worth of useless advertising would have been saved. The “eleven o'clock” appeal was one of those inspirations—just a “hunch.” Probably the person whose inspiration it was drank Horlick's Malted Milk hot himself at eleven o'clock, and immediately concluded everyone else would. Like a lot of “hunches,” it was sheer waste of money.

Research actually provides the material for the copy. Copy-writing becomes, in a degree, mechanical. Research may reveal that 90 per cent of the consumers interviewed use the product. What could be better, as a headline, to persuade people to buy the product than "Ninety per cent of people interviewed use Z's product to clean their teeth?"

A copy idea is just dug out by a lot of hard work. A copy idea dug out by hard work, besides being scientifically sound, is also always available. Inspiration, however, is not always available; it is elusive, and not always there when it is wanted. Possibly research may suggest several different copy appeals. These would normally be tested against each other.

Assuming the copy appeal, based on research, has been determined, the next problem is where the advertisements containing this appeal are to be inserted. Here again, the old type of advertising man had a "hunch," which may, or may not, have been right. The modern advertising man has facts and figures before him relating to circulation, coverages of newspapers, who reads newspapers, and so on, and, on the basis of these, decides which newspapers he will use to carry the advertising message.

✓ The modern advertiser has many media at his disposal for carrying the message about his products. He has newspapers, magazines, posters, and movie slides, and to these has recently been added in some countries radio advertising.

A modern advertiser buys newspaper space just as he would buy a motor-car—he wants to know all about it. He is the person paying for it, so he is entitled to know all about his white space. He wants to know, first of all, the circulation of the paper, then where the paper goes to—whether it is sold in the City only or

is distributed throughout the country. He wants to know who reads it—whether young people or adults, men or women, wealthy people, or poor people. Nor is this all. The modern advertiser wants to know how the paper is sold—whether it is delivered to the home or is bought at a news-stand—whether the husband reads it in the tram and brings it home with him, or whether he just reads it in the tram and throws it in the wastepaper basket at his office. He wants to know why people read the paper—whether they read it for the news, or the women's interests contained in it, and so on. There is also a whole mass of more or less technical information relating to the size of the page the newspaper uses, the size of the columns, etc., that the advertiser must have. This may seem an enormous amount of unnecessary data. However, it is actually essential in order that newspapers may be selected for advertising so that they will be read by the people who are going to use the product advertised. It is no use advertising men's trousers in a *Woman's Home Journal*; it is useless advertising refrigerators in a newspaper which is mostly sold in districts with a cold climate, nor should radiators be advertised in papers circulating in tropical countries.

Advertising space in newspapers is usually paid for in proportion to circulation. A paper with the largest circulation should, logically, charge the highest price for its space. It is customary, for purposes of comparing the value of space bought in one newspaper with the value of space bought in another, to equate the price down to the cost for one single-column inch of advertising space to a 10,000 circulation, or some such unit. For instance: if the cost of an inch in a paper with a circulation of 100,000 is 8s. 4d., then the cost of a single-column inch, per 10,000 circulation, is 10d.

Another newspaper, with a circulation of 50,000, may charge 6s. 3d. for a single-column inch. This works out at 1s. 3d. per 10,000 circulation, so that, from this, obviously the former of these two newspapers is a better space bargain if all other things are equal.

The advertising managers of most newspapers are usually very willing to supply facts about their papers. Most papers publish audited circulation figures; some papers publish maps showing where their papers are sold. This information is helpful in many ways, but it would not be wise to buy a car just on the strength of what the salesman might say. However sincere he might be in his sales talk he would nevertheless be biased, and tend to favour the product he was trying to sell you. Some entirely independent opinion about the car should be sought. The same applies to the buyer of newspaper space. Newspaper advertising managers often paint rosy pictures of the circulation of their newspapers. Even audited circulations can be misleading. Experience often teaches the advertising man what to do, but experience thus obtained is costly, and is obtained at the expense of the client. At best, in any case, it is also very much like the "hunch" the old type of advertising man had about the copy appeal that would be most successful. The advertising man's "hunch" as to what newspaper can most effectively carry advertising for a product is not based on scientifically acquired facts.

The modern advertising man has no alternative but to go right out among newspaper readers, just as he went out among the consumers of a product. A definite questionnaire is formulated, and newspaper readers are asked what papers they read, where they buy them, what papers the various members of their family read,

and so on. The answers of a representative cross-section of the community are analysed, and form a nucleus of scientific data as a basis on which the advertiser can feel confident in using certain papers to carry the advertising for a product. This provides an impersonal method of determining the papers which must be used to carry the advertising for a certain product to a certain class or type of person. It also provides information as to where the various papers are read, what proportion of the metropolitan papers are read in various country towns, and so on.

As an illustration of the value of a media survey of this nature, some time ago, a large national advertiser, wishing to cover the whole of England, was uncertain whether he should advertise in both national papers and the local papers in certain provinces. He had a vague feeling at the back of his mind that if he omitted to advertise in the provincial papers the news about his product might not be read at all. The only way to find out definitely what to do was to send investigators to the districts in question, and ask the people who would be most likely to use the product what papers they read. It transpired that the type of person most likely to use that particular product read both the national and the provincial papers, so that, actually, there was no need to advertise in both. The advertiser's problem was solved. He found out that a number of people in country towns would not be missing his advertisements if he failed to advertise in the provincial papers, and concentrated on the national dailies only. Those most likely to buy his products would read all about them in these papers. The result of this was quite a considerable saving of money.

The scientific survey of people's newspaper habits also provides a fund of information on what is known

as "the duplication of newspapers." For instance, if a large proportion of people use two newspapers, it represents a certain amount of waste if the advertisement appears in both. A media survey, when analysed, will reveal this overlapping between the readers of various papers. In the course of its experience, an advertising agency accumulates a vast amount of scientific data about newspaper readers' habits. This, of necessity, must be revised from time to time.

CHAPTER II

THE CONSUMER MARKET

FACTS relating to the general type of product: (a) sex differences; (b) age differences; (c) psychological differences; (d) social differences—Variation in product uses—Differences in purchasing habits—Seasonal variations—Regional variations—Facts important in relation to a particular brand of product.

THE consumer market may be analysed with relation to—

- (a) The general type of product.
- (b) The particular brand of product.

By this is meant the market must be considered from the point of view of the whole range of products of a type, e.g. toothpaste, shoe polish, radiators, and also from the viewpoint of a particular brand of toothpaste, a particular brand of shoe polish, etc.

FACTS RELATING TO THE GENERAL TYPE OF PRODUCT

The first and most important consideration in a study of facts relating to the general type of product is that of individual difference.

Individual differences are responsible for definite market tendencies. It is only of late years that advertisers have realized this fact. The question of who uses a specific type of product is of fundamental importance in any market study. Ultimately the answer to this question provides the line of attack that should be adopted in advertising to reach the greatest market in the most effective way.

Individual differences fall into four broad classifications—

- (a) Sex differences.
- (b) Age differences.

(c) Psychological differences.

(d) Social differences.

Many products have their specific market among men, others among women; still others have their market among both men and women. Quoting extreme instances, trousers are sold to men, stockings to women, while soap is sold to both. Most products, however, have the greater part of their market among either one or the other. For example, it has been determined, by market investigation, that more cheese is eaten by men than by women, while more high-priced toilet soap is used by women than by men. On the other hand, a certain brand of tooth paste has been shown to have an equal market among both men and women. Should a survey definitely establish the greater proportion of the market for a product to be among men, the advertising must be directed towards men; should it prove to be among women, the advertising should be of such a nature that it will appeal to women. Advertisers have tacitly recognized this, in a broad way—face creams have been advertised in a different way from tools. However, when the greater market has been less obvious, advertisers have, in general, neglected to ascertain where it is, and, as a result, their advertising has been of a non-committal nature in its manner of appeal to either sex.

As an instance of what should be done, the example of the General Motors Corporation may be cited. In the market researches conducted, wherever a branch office operates throughout the world, efforts have been always directed towards determining the percentage of feminine influence in the selection of the General Motors' products in various price classes. On the basis of the conclusions arrived at, the advertising has been developed, with the requisite masculine or feminine

appeal embodied in it. It is claimed that this has resulted in more effective advertising.

After sex differences, the next important factor in considering the market for a general type of product is that of age difference. Many products are such that their main market falls within a definite age group. Tops have for their market young children; tobacco has its market among adults. However, other types of products have less specific markets. For example, malted milk, as a food, has been proved by research to have as its market both very young children and very old people. In addition, malted milk has been proved to have a definite market, as a beverage, among old and young alike.

The problem of the advertiser is to determine in what age group the market for his product mainly is, and then proceed to exploit that market; or possibly his survey may reveal markets hitherto unexplored—perhaps not so extensive as the obvious ones, but nevertheless profitable because previously unexplored.

Psychological differences or differences of individual preference are, from an advertiser's point of view, the most puzzling of all, and yet must be considered in all plans. Specific types of people react differently to specific types of product. Certain nations prefer highly-seasoned foods. A survey in the British Isles once revealed that among Scottish people the consumption of cocoa is astonishingly low; among Australians research shows the *per capita* consumption of tea to be very high. Taking other specific instances: one type of individual prefers antique, another modernistic furniture; one type of individual favours scented, another unscented toilet soap; one type of individual prefers cold, another vanishing cream, and so on, *ad infinitum*.

Before formulating any advertising plan, the advertiser should know, as the result of his survey, the idiosyncrasies of the individuals constituting the various markets he proposes to cover, and should adapt his advertising coverage accordingly. Should Scotsmen dislike cocoa, it is not taking the line of least resistance to advertise cocoa in Scotland. If a research has revealed that the majority of people in an area prefer a "mild," as opposed to a "bitey" cheese, then the hint to the manufacturer is to advertise "mild" cheese in that area. If the tendency in a country is to prefer Roadster to Sedan cars, then an advertiser is embarking on a difficult task should he advertise the Sedan models. He may ultimately educate that country to use the Sedan models, but the process will cost him more money than if he simply took the line of least resistance and advertised to sell the Roadster models.

The final aspect to be considered is that of social differences—or differences according to income groupings. It is customary to classify individuals according to four income groups; the first, or "A" group, consists of those to whom the matter of everyday expense is of no consequence—those in the highest stratum so far as wealth is concerned. The second, or "B" group, may be considered as consisting of those who are reasonably well off—persons who can afford to live well, but yet who cannot afford to live heedless of expense. The third, or "C" group, is constituted of those who are generally known as belonging to the "middle classes"—persons who keep up a respectable appearance, live moderately well, but who definitely cannot ignore questions of prices they pay for various commodities. The fourth, or "D" group, comprises those who have incomes just sufficient to provide them with the bare necessities of life.

It is at once apparent that each one of these four groups represents a very definite market. Certain products are of such a nature that they find a market in all income or social classifications. Other products are such that they only appeal to a specific group. A high-priced car has its market in group "A," while wooden clogs or cheap socks have their greatest market in group "D." Advertising must be modified accordingly—the high-priced car advertising must be developed in such a way that it will reach and appeal to the "A" group, while the cheap sock advertising must be planned to be read by the persons falling in group "D."

VARIATION IN PRODUCT USES

An extensive survey of a market revealed a wide range of uses for cheese. A certain percentage of consumers interviewed used cheese for cooking Welsh rarebit, others for cooking a dish known as cauliflower *au gratin*, others for macaroni cheese, and still others for grating on poached eggs. A certain significant percentage did not use cheese for cooking at all. On the other hand, a large percentage cut up cheese for luncheon sandwiches, or served cheese with biscuits and butter. Still others served cheese with salads.

These variations in the use of cheese were significant when it came to developing the advertising. Certain definite markets were revealed, and certain advertising appeals indicated. On the basis of the survey, it was possible to know definitely what uses to feature in subsequent advertising, and, further, how far people required to be educated in various new uses for cheese.

As another example, a survey of the market for a ready-bottled mayonnaise may be quoted. The manufacturer felt that the advertising should be directed towards urging people to use this brand of mayonnaise

as a lettuce salad dressing—the market survey revealed that very few people ever used a ready-made salad dressing, but made their own. So the advertising had first to aim at educating people to use ready-made mayonnaise in preference to the home-made article, and then, when this was accomplished, it had finally to educate people into the many ways in which a mayonnaise dressing can be used.

A further important aspect relating to the use of a product is how often people use it. Certain products are used daily—others weekly—others rarely. Tea and coffee are used daily—they are utility products. Cocoa and malted milk, as a general rule, are used less frequently; champagne is used rarely by most people—it is a luxury product.

In estimating a market, frequency of use must, therefore, be taken into account. Utility products have the greater market—the market for luxury products is more limited.

The matter of when a particular type of product is used often forms the basis of an advertising appeal. A market survey may reveal that a particular type of beverage is most commonly drunk before retiring at night. It is possible to develop a successful advertising appeal along lines of least resistance by featuring the use of the product in this way.

DIFFERENCES IN PURCHASING HABITS

Most products have a price paid by a majority of consumers. For example, among a certain section of consumers, threepence, or sixpence, is the generally accepted price for a cake of soap; a penny is the generally accepted price for a daily newspaper. The generally accepted price for other products may not be so obvious. Before fixing a price for any product

he intends putting on a market, the manufacturer should determine what price he should charge on the basis of his market survey. A manufacturer of a packeted cheese once retailed it at 1s. 1d. per packet. Sales were slow. A market survey revealed that the general price paid for other brands of packeted cheese was a shilling, and that, furthermore, people disliked the odd penny. If they did not have it they had to "break" into another shilling! He reduced his price to 1s., and sales made astonishing strides forward.

As there is a "general" price paid for any type of product, similarly there is a "general" unit of purchase. Tea may be bought in half-pound and pound packets; cocoa may be bought in quarter-pound, half-pound, and pound tins; milk is bought by the pint and the quart; cordials are bought by bottles of indeterminate size. In analysing the market for a product, it is important to determine the most effective units in which it can be retailed to the public. A cigarette manufacturer doubled his sales by packing in units of six in addition to his normal packings of twelve and twenty-four. A leading confectionery manufacturer has trebled sales by retailing an ounce packing in addition to his previous four-ounce packing of a particular confection.

In elaborating a marketing policy it is essential to ascertain how often people purchase a product—whether it is bought daily, weekly, or at lengthy intervals. The Fleischmann Yeast marketing system in America depends on an almost daily purchase by the consumer. If the product is bought once a week, with, say, the weekly grocery order, then advertising is most effective which is read by the consumer just before, or just when, the weekly grocery order is being made up. Drapery stores find that most women do their purchasing after pay day. Therefore, they concentrate

their advertising in the period immediately prior to pay day.

Many products are bought in pairs—for instance, biscuits are bought with cheese, fried fish with chips, tooth brushes with tooth paste, tobacco with matches. Allied products, from the purchasing angle, such as these, may be revealed in a market survey. It was determined that, in a certain market area, 38 per cent of women purchasing face cream bought cleansing tissues with it; in another market area, 26 per cent of women purchasing toilet soap also bought face washers. Such information can be used in a variety of ways. Enterprising soap manufacturers have made up special offers containing toilet soap packets together with face cloths. Tennis racquet manufacturers have endeavoured to offer sets comprised of racquet and balls at special prices. All these combined merchandising efforts, if based on a sound market survey, must tend to lift up sales.

While a market survey should reveal products allied to that under consideration, it may reveal products which compete with each other. Cocoa, is, to a degree, a competitor of tea; gas is a competitor of electricity. A few years ago certain cigarette publicity drew public attention to an unexpected competition between cigarettes and confectionery by claiming that cigarette smoking was conducive to slimness, while confectionery had a fattening effect.

SEASONAL VARIATIONS

Many products are consumed in greater quantities at certain periods of the year than at others. It is important that the advertising of a product should be coincident with the time when people are likely to need it most. The market survey should determine exactly

when people use most of the product—the greatest market for ice cream is obviously in summer. The time to advertise a product for killing mosquitoes is a more complicated matter. Conditions favouring the breeding of the pest have to be discovered, a study made of when these conditions obtain, and the advertising plan developed accordingly. Cocoa is drunk more in winter than in summer. A market survey should determine to what extent, and on the findings of the market survey should be based the relative strength of the winter and summer advertising.

REGIONAL VARIATIONS

Countries, and even sections of a country, vary as to their possibilities as a market for any type of product. For example, tropical countries present few opportunities for the sale of radiators, while colder countries promise little for refrigerator sales. Any market study, to be effective, must cover the matter of regional variation in the possibilities for a product. Cocoa, as a drink, is favoured more in countries having a colder climate; coca-cola, as a non-alcoholic beverage, may find a greater market in America, where Prohibition exists, than in countries where alcoholic liquor can be readily obtained. In other words, local conditions have a bearing on market possibilities, and should be carefully considered.

FACTS IMPORTANT IN RELATION TO A PARTICULAR BRAND OF PRODUCT

So far the problems involved in a market survey have been considered only in their relation to a type of product—not in their relation to a particular brand of product.

When a manufacturer contemplates a market survey

for a particular brand of product, in addition to covering the points previously outlined relating to individual differences, purchasing habits, seasonal and regional variations, he must also consider those relating to whether the consumer has ever used the particular brand of product. If not, why not? If so, is he still using it, and if he is not still using it, why has he discontinued using it?

Recently a well-known brand of face cream suddenly showed a sharp decrease in sales. A market survey revealed that consumers were gaining the impression that it contained oil and, therefore, promoted the growth of hair. The manufacturer took steps to correct this impression, and, in due course, sales picked up again.

An analysis of the reasons why people discontinue the use of any particular brand of product provides the manufacturer with information that will enable him to patch up weak spots in his marketing and advertising, and stop downward trends in sales.

Further points usually considered in most market surveys are: what people like in a particular brand of product, what they do not like, and why they prefer one brand to another. The first of these will provide material on which an advertising campaign can be based. If persons now using a particular brand of product give certain reasons why they like it, then it is logical that these reasons may be the means of inducing other people to use it.

An analysis of the things people do not like about a particular brand of product affords the manufacturer valuable information as to how his product can be improved—it enables him to discover sales resistances, and, ultimately, by eliminating these, he increases sales.

In many instances the consumer can give no concrete

reason why he prefers one brand of product to another brand ; where he can, the information supplements that discussed in the two preceding paragraphs.

The final point to be determined in the consumer survey is what first started him using a particular brand of product. The answer to this will provide the manufacturer with ideas as to how he may start other potential consumers using the product. It can usually be understood that the average consumer first starts using a product because (1) it has been recommended to him, (2) he has seen it advertised in one of the many possible ways, (3) he has used a sample, or (4) he has been the recipient of some as a gift by a friend. An analysis of the reasons revealed in a market survey as to why a group of consumers first started using a particular brand of product will at once reveal the strength and weakness of the manufacturer's merchandising efforts.

CHAPTER III

DEVELOPING THE CONSUMER QUESTIONNAIRE

RULES in evolving a questionnaire—A typical cheese questionnaire
—A typical car-owner questionnaire.

To standardize procedure in a market survey the questionnaire method is adopted—that is, the problems at issue are formulated as a series of questions, and the answers to these are analysed to give the survey report. In other words, the market survey is, as far as possible, reduced to mathematical terms.

In standardizing a questionnaire, certain points must be borne in mind. Firstly, the questionnaire must be simple and as short as possible. It must be simple, so that those who are asked the questions can readily understand them; it must be short, so that the whole thing does not bore those concerned. Further, the questions must be of such a nature as to admit of no ambiguity—so that each question will mean the same to all who answer it. The ideal questionnaire is such that every question can be answered by a direct “yes” or “no.” However, in most instances, this is not possible. Wherever an answer can be recorded by “yes” or “no,” this form should be adopted, as it simplifies the ultimate analysis.

In formulating a questionnaire there is a temptation to include questions relating to a host of incidental matters—possibly interesting, but not entirely relevant to the aims of the survey. These should be rigorously excluded—they make the questionnaire unnecessarily long. It is wise to outline the various essential points which must be covered in a survey of the consumer

market—then questions can be developed to cover these points.

There is a definite technique in the elaborating of a questionnaire. The technique can only be acquired after practical experience; certain rules can, however, be followed.

It should be remembered that the consumer will probably not give the first question the careful thought he will give questions occurring later in the questionnaire. He has not "got into the way of things." It is, therefore, often wise to have, at the first, some question that is unimportant, and, in the final analysis, not to include the answers to this question at all.

Another point worth remembering in the development of a questionnaire is that, in its earlier portion, the problems covered should relate to the market for the general type of product—reference to any particular type of product should be left to the very last stages.

At some place on the questionnaire space should be left for recording the name of the person interviewed and his (or her) address, and income classification. The type of classification often adopted is described on page 17. It is often desirable to record somewhere on the questionnaire whether the particular consumer interviewed has a motor-car, a telephone, or a wireless set, as an indication of his social status. These should not, however, be set down as definite questions. Should this be done, the person answering the questionnaire may regard it as an unwarranted intrusion into his private affairs to the jeopardy of his answering the other more important questions. The investigator can invariably discover the presence of these items by observing telephone wires, aërials, or garages attached to the residence.

As concrete examples, certain types of questionnaires

that have actually been used will be considered. Questionnaire No. 1 is one that was used in a market survey for cheese; while No. 2 was used to study a certain section of a motor-car market.

The cheese questionnaire—No. 1—was one used in a house-to-house investigation. It was desirable that the whole should be regarded as an impersonal scientific investigation—the name of the cheese manufacturers for whom the investigation was being made was kept from the front sheet, so that even if the housewife, while being interviewed, happened to read the first page, she would not gain any information that would lead her to favour a particular brand.

At the top of the questionnaire the district and the street where the person interviewed resided had to be filled in as a check on the investigator, and also for purposes of record, so that one investigator would not overlap the work of another. The class refers to income classification.

The first question was divided into two parts. Part "a" aimed to discover in the final analysis what percentage of people, according to income groups and regions, actually used cheese of any sort, and what percentage did not. In a market survey for any product this point of the percentage of people using a product, both generally and specifically, is one that should always be covered. The percentage of people using various specific brands of product was revealed in the analysis of section "b" of the first question. In other words, analysis of this section showed the relative popularity of various brands.

Question two was aimed to study the purchasing habits of people who bought the various brands of cheese—how they asked for cheese when buying it from the grocer, whether they just asked for cheese,

QUESTIONNAIRE No. 1

CHEESE CONSUMER INVESTIGATION

District..... Street..... Class.....

1. (a) Do you use Cheese in your house?.....
(b) What make or brand of Cheese is in the house now?.....
None.....
2. When you are buying Cheese do you specify the kind you want, or just ask for Cheese? Specify kind (give exact words).....
.....
Why do you prefer the Cheese you usually buy?.....
.....
3. When do you buy your Cheese?..... How much do you usually buy at a time?..... What do you pay?.....
4. Do you regard Cheese as being a digestible or an indigestible sort of food? Why?.....
.....
5. What, if any, advantages do you think a tinfoil wrapped and packeted Cheese has?.....
6. When do you use Cheese? Breakfast.....
Lunch (at home)..... Afternoon Teas.....
Dinners (at night)..... Teas(at night).....
Suppers..... Picnics.....
Lunches for children..... Lunches for workers.....
7. How do you use Cheese? Alone..... With biscuits and butter..... With bread and butter.....
As sandwiches..... Salads..... Others.....
8. Do you use Cheese for cooking?..... If so, for what dishes?.....
How often do you serve such dishes?.....
9. What members of your family are the largest Cheese-eaters?
Old..... Children..... Adult men.....
Adult women.....
10. Why don't you eat more Cheese than you do?.....
.....
11. Do you use X..... Cheese? Yes..... No..... Loaf.....
Packet..... Kind.....
If so, why do you prefer X..... Cheese to other Cheeses?
.....
If not, have you ever heard of X..... Cheese?.....
Have you ever used it?..... Comment if there are any points you don't like about it.....
.....
.....
12. Do you consider X..... Cheese a luxury or an economical purchase?
.....
13. What newspapers and magazines do you read regularly?.....
.....

whether they asked for packeted cheese, or asked for cheese by name, and so on. The second section of question two was aimed to discover why people preferred the brand they were using before other brands.

Question three was still on the subject of purchasing habits; part one was an effort to discover when people bought their cheese—actually it was revealed that the majority bought it once a week, on Saturdays with the grocery order. On the basis of this the advertisements were scheduled to appear on Fridays, wherever possible. The second part of question three, dealing with how much cheese people bought at a time, had the object of finding out the most popular packeting for a packeted cheese—in other words, whether people preferred to buy cheese in quarter-, half-, or one-pound lots. It transpired that the majority bought half-pound lots—this confirming a previous supposition that the half-pound packing would meet with popular approval.

The third section of question three was to settle finally the problem of price. Originally half-pound packets were priced at 1s. 1d. The analysis of this question pointed to 1s. being a more popular price.

Question four represented an attempt to discover whether cheese continued to be regarded in the popular mind as being an indigestible food. If the final analysis had shown this to be so, it would have been necessary to direct advertising towards dispelling the belief. However, it proved the other way, so, actually, this did not have to be done.

The cheese being marketed was packeted in tin-foil, and some previous advertising had featured, among other things, the fact that, with this type of cheese, there was no rind waste; also, it was more hygienic than ordinary bulk cheese. Question five aimed to discover whether the cheese consumer was conscious of these

advantages, or whether he still had to be educated to their recognition.

The analysis of question six was a study of the habits of cheese-eaters, and when they ate cheese. It afforded a guide as to how the advertising could most effectively feature the use of cheese.

The study of cheese-eaters' habits was continued in questions seven and eight. The former was aimed to ascertain how people actually used cheese, and, from this, to formulate plans as to what uses for cheese would have to be taught them. It transpired that the most common uses for cheese were with biscuits and butter, or in sandwiches. The use of cheese with salads was one to which this particular market had not been educated. Subsequent advertising, therefore, took this point into account.

It was felt by those who manufactured the cheese that, in the first place, it was not being used sufficiently for cooking, and that, in the second place, people did not use cheese generally, to any great extent, for cooking. The final analysis of answers to question eight revealed that cheese was used only in one or two cooked dishes (such as Welsh rarebit), that these were served infrequently, and that, as a general rule, people were not educated to use cheese in a long range of cooked dishes. A plan was included in the subsequent merchandising scheme for educating people in the use of cheese.

The last problem to be attacked was in question nine, where an analysis of the replies showed who were the greatest eaters—and therefore the greatest market—for cheese, old or young, men, women, or children. It proved that adult men and women were the greatest eaters; therefore advertising had to be developed bearing this in mind.

Question ten got back to the general sales resistance

to cheese. This sales resistance had been touched upon in question four, relating to whether cheese was regarded as being indigestible or not. However, question ten afforded the investigator an opportunity to discuss generally with the persons interviewed why they did not eat more cheese. Questions of such a general nature as this one are rarely satisfactory, and this proved no exception. Very little really valuable information was obtained from an analysis of question ten except a general impression that those interviewed did not eat more cheese simply because they had no great liking for it.

Up to and including question ten the survey had concerned itself with points relating to the general rather than to any specific type of product. The next question—eleven—refers specifically to “X” brand of cheese. “X” cheese was marketed in loaf form and in packet form—there were several varieties of packeted cheese. Question eleven aimed at, first of all, establishing what percentage of cheese users actually used “X” cheese, and then further detail as to what percentage used the different packings and varieties. The aim of this was to compare the present with the potential market for “X” cheese. If users preferred “X” cheese they were further asked why—an analysis of their replies showing they preferred it because of its flavour. Hence, reasoning on the basis that if present users prefer “X” cheese because of its flavour others can be persuaded to use it for the same reason, the flavour of “X” cheese was featured in the advertising.

Question eleven was probably too complicated, and should have been separated numerically into several questions. It further went on to discover whether a significant proportion of those interviewed had never heard of “X” cheese. If there had been it would have

revealed a deficiency in the coverage of previous advertising. The next section of question eleven went on to find out whether a significant percentage of those interviewed had ever used "X" cheese, but had discontinued using it. If this percentage had been revealed as large it would have shown the presence of some factor which was not present when people started using "X" cheese, but had subsequently developed, and been such that they discontinued its use. Such a factor may, among others, be change in price, quality, or packing. Finally, in this question, the investigator was afforded an opportunity of ascertaining whether there were any factors which consumers did not like about "X" cheese. These may have been related to flavour, "soapiness," staleness, or any of dozens of factors which may have been present. The analysis of answers to a question of this type shows the manufacturer the bad points (if any!) about his product, and, if he is wise, he proceeds to remedy them. On the other hand, it may reveal certain misconceptions in the mind of the potential or actual consumer, which judicious advertising can remove.

The price for "X" cheese, weight for weight, was actually higher than that for other similar cheeses on the market. It was considered that this may have had the effect of creating the idea in the mind of the consumer that "X" cheese was a luxury rather than an economical purchase. Actually, a significant percentage did say they considered "X" cheese a luxury, so that advertising had to be developed to direct attention to various economical features about "X" cheese.

The last question, relating to what newspapers and magazines were read by those interviewed, was included with the object of augmenting the information on media

already at the disposal of the advertiser, with particular reference to his own product. This subject will be dealt with more fully later. Here it is sufficient to mention that, on the basis of a significant percentage among the consumers of "X" cheese reading a certain newspaper or magazine, this would present a strong case for the insertion of "X" cheese advertising in that particular journal.

A TYPICAL CAR-OWNER QUESTIONNAIRE

The car-owner questionnaire (No. 2) was developed for use through the mail. The plan was varied slightly in that the name and address of the person filling in the questionnaire was not to be added until the last.

It was not possible to make reference to any specific brand of motor-car because the questionnaire was forwarded to car-owners irrespective of what car they actually owned. The first question, therefore, had to centralize the remainder of the questionnaire to one make of car and one type of car-owner. This question then developed information about this car—its body style, how long it had been owned, and what mileage it had done. The second question then developed what competition to the car bought existed in the mind of the purchaser when he was buying it. The third question had for its object ascertaining the purpose for which the car was used. If for utility purposes, advertising would have to be developed with this in mind; if for pleasure, different advertising would be developed.

The problem of purchasing habits is touched upon in question four. The aim was to determine the percentage of influence women had in the purchase of a car. Actually, it transpired that women's influence became greater in direct ratio to the increase in the price

of the car, so that the appeal embodied in low-price car advertising was not made so much to women as it was in the high-price car advertising.

A study of individual preferences is made in question five. The analysis revealed certain tendencies in colour preference, which were a guide as to the colours to be used for new cars.

Analysis of the second section of this question showed present competition, or what cars were now in the mind of the purchaser when it came to buying a new car. The analysis of this section was compared with the analysis of the section showing what cars *were* in the mind of the buyer when he purchased his car. This comparison will reveal *present* competition in relation to *past* competition.

The last section of this question relating to preferences in body style, when compared with the analysis of the style now owned, will reveal any swing-over from one body style to another. Actually, in the investigation for one particular type of car it was revealed that there was more than a 60 per cent swing-over from Touring to Sedan body styles.

It was felt that present owners were possibly not satisfied with the accessories sold with their cars. Therefore, in question six, this problem was brought up, and, in the final analysis, it was definitely revealed that certain additional accessories were desirable.

The problem of why people buy a particular make of car is important from the viewpoint of the actual advertisement. The answer to this affords the most effective way in which other people can be persuaded to buy the same make of car. To make the question more definite and to simplify analysis, the factors usually important in selecting a car were listed, and the person answering the questionnaire was asked to

QUESTIONNAIRE No. 2

CAR-OWNER INVESTIGATION

Date.....

Town..... Occupation.....

1. Car owned..... Year..... Bought new.....
2nd..... Colour..... Body type.....
How long owned..... Total mileage to date.....

2. What two other makes of car (in order of importance) did you seriously consider when you bought your present car?
(a)..... (b).....

3. Who drives your car most? (Number in order of use and, if possible, estimate percentage of total use.)
Husband..... Wife..... Sons.....
Daughters..... Chauffeur.....

4. What members of your family would have an influence in its selection?

5. What colours would you prefer?.....
What three makes would you consider in order of importance?
(a)..... (b)..... (c).....
What body style would you prefer?.....

6. What accessories or equipment do you consider important beyond the standard equipment on your present car? (Include any you have actually added to your present car.).....
.....
.....

7. Please carefully number FIVE of the following factors in their order of importance to you in selecting a car to buy—

- | | |
|------------------------|---------------------------|
| Economical operation | Easy to handle |
| Appearance | Hill-climbing ability |
| Speed | Mechanical perfection |
| Price | Used-car value |
| Silence | American manufacture |
| Reputation of car | Sales or payment terms |
| Power | Kind of guarantee |
| Luxurious appointments | Reliability |
| Acceleration | Smoothness |
| Agents' service | Comfort in riding |
| Number of cylinders | Long life |
| Springs | Recommendation of friends |
| British manufacture | Standing of maker |

8. What are your chief adverse criticisms of your present car?
.....

9. Name any specific suggestions for improvement of your present car in—

- Interior trim.....
- Mechanical construction.....
- Outward appearance.....
- Body construction.....
- Dealer service.....

10. Based on your experience with it, what are the outstanding features of your car which you most like? Please discuss.....

.....

.....

11. What magazines do you read regularly?.....

.....

12. What newspapers do you read regularly?.....

.....

mark certain of these factors which he considered important.

Just as with cheese, it was important for the car manufacturer to know the adverse criticisms owners may have to make about their cars. Question eight aimed to discover these with a view to counteracting them by advertising—if they were simply the result of competitive propaganda—or, if they had actual foundation, by eliminating the defects in models that were subsequently manufactured. Question nine aimed at much the same thing as question eight, except that the points were made more specific.

Question ten had for its aim the development of advertising copy more than anything else. If a large percentage of owners were proved to like a certain feature about a particular make of car, then this fact would provide an excellent foundation upon which a copy appeal could be built. It transpired that 90 per cent of owners of one particular make of car said they liked it because of its reliability. Therefore, reliability

was the feature about which the advertising campaign for that car was developed.

The last questions relating to the newspapers and magazines read by those answering the questionnaire were included, as explained in commenting on the cheese questionnaire, for the purpose of augmenting the general fund of information relating to media at the disposal of the advertiser.

Consumer questionnaires often vary considerably in detail from the two that have just been discussed. Frequently, when a new product is being introduced on to a market, in addition to being asked questions similar to those just described, the housewife, or whoever may be interviewed, is given samples to taste. She may be asked to select the sample she likes best, or she may just be asked to give her comments on the sample given her.

A well-known cigarette manufacturer, when putting a new cigarette on the market, posted out to each of a selected group of men three cigarettes, each different, and asked them which one they preferred. The cigarette preferred by the majority was the one ultimately put on the market, and it has been claimed that a very effective campaign was run for this cigarette based on the fact that a majority of men selected this particular one.

Another instance was that of a well-known firm of cocoa manufacturers. This firm decided to market a new drink, but were uncertain as to flavour, among other details. Consumers were asked to taste samples of the drink and comment on various flavours. The final flavour marketed was that which the majority favoured.

The actual questionnaires used may be long or short, according to the amount of information required, but

the principle behind all is the same. Each and all, they represent a scientific and impersonal method of obtaining information relative to a market, its possibilities, and how these can best be exploited. This comparatively new development has provided a standard method for market analysis that has entirely displaced the guesswork of the earlier years of this century.

CHAPTER IV

THE CONSUMER INVESTIGATION

COVERAGE—The representative cross-section—The investigators—
—Investigation procedure.

WHEN the form of the consumer questionnaire has been determined in the office, it is customary to "try it out" on a few people before interviewing consumers on a big scale. It may transpire, as the result of the "try out," that the wording of certain questions is ambiguous, or that consumer replies to certain questions will not afford anything of value. Usually about fifty questionnaires completed in this way are sufficient. Having done this, and after making any necessary alterations, the main market survey is begun.

The first point to determine in initiating the main investigation is that of coverage—how many people must be interviewed, how many in each income group, and in what cities and provinces they will be interviewed. There will usually be a tendency to interview too many people. However, this is preferable to too few people.

Some interesting investigations have recently been carried out to determine how many people should be interviewed to obtain a representative cross-section of the population. In one instance, taking fifty people, 63·2 per cent read a certain paper; taking one hundred, 65 per cent read the same paper; taking one hundred and fifty, 64·3 per cent read it, and taking two hundred, 64·6 per cent read it; taking one thousand, 64·4 per cent read it—so that the percentage does not differ greatly between two hundred and one thousand. Either

one hundred and fifty or two hundred would seem to be the ideal number of interviews.

Another problem is in what towns and provinces the investigations should be made to obtain a representative cross-section of population. Some time ago the tendency was to take any towns and provinces where differences were liable to manifest themselves and conduct an investigation in each of these. More modern practice has tended to lessen this "coverage." There has been an increasing tendency to select one or two cities as "average," and one or two provinces as "typical," conduct investigations in these centres, and legislate accordingly.

The modern campaign is usually a ~~national~~ one, and, therefore, cannot be adapted to the peculiarities of each city and province—it has to appeal to an ideal city representing the average. Therefore the modern research director aims to conduct a limited investigation in a few centres, the combined results of which will give him "average" results, on the basis of which he can legislate to appeal in his national campaign.

Having determined the areas to be covered and the number of interviews to be conducted in each area, the investigators are given their instructions. They are told to select areas where houses are reasonably close together, so that time will not be wasted in walking from one house to another. Sometimes investigators are sent out in pairs; each then "does" one side of the street. Before being sent out, the investigators are carefully instructed in the aim of each question they are to ask.

In most instances the investigators sent out are members of the Copy Department staff, so they are already familiar with the problems of the questionnaire. As a matter of policy, it is occasionally the practice to

let the investigators go through the whole questionnaire with each other before interviewing any member of the general public. If the questionnaire is a short one, investigators can learn it off by heart. They are instructed to ask every question and to record some answer to each question. If no answer at all is recorded it confuses those analysing the answers, as a blank may mean that either the investigator forgot to ask the question or the person interviewed refused to answer the question.

The investigator should be told to record any comments the person interviewed may have to make about the product—these often provide valuable copy material.

The investigator is supplied with business cards, denoting that he belongs to the market department of some organization (care being taken that no hint is given on this card as to the organization for whose product the investigation is being carried out). He is told he is to present a card to the housewife when she opens the door, then mention that he is conducting a survey into the market for "X" (general, e.g. cheese) product. At this stage he should endeavour to make conversation with the housewife and gradually lead up to the points covered in the questionnaire. There should be no flourishing the questionnaire in front of a bewildered housewife. The ideal procedure is to ask all the questions from memory; then, when the housewife has closed the door, fill them in on the blank. It is most important to introduce the points of the questionnaire in a conversational way, so that the housewife will hardly be aware she is being questioned. Wherever possible no mention should be made of the brand of product for which the survey is being made—the housewife may draw her own conclusions or she may insist

upon knowing. Most housewives do neither of these, but if she insists the investigator has no alternative but to tell her. Very few housewives turn down an investigator. If one does, all the investigator should do is to apologise for the intrusion and go on to the next place. When an interview has been successfully concluded the investigator should thank the housewife for the time she has given him—he may want to call again! Incidentally, and by the way, it is not a bad plan for the investigator to tell the housewife right at the beginning of the interview that he has nothing to sell. In these days of hawkers, this information will set the housewife's mind at rest, and if, in addition, some flattery is implied in that the investigator is coming to her as one who can give a valued opinion, then not one in a hundred housewives will refuse an interview! It is interesting to note that, as a general rule, women prove to be turned down for interviews less than men do. Other factors equal, a woman investigator will be the more successful interviewer.

CHAPTER V

THE MAILED QUESTIONNAIRE

THE mailing list—Type of questionnaire—The covering letter—
Experiments in mailing questionnaires.

THE first problem arising when it becomes necessary to send out questionnaires through the mail is that of the addresses of the persons to whom they are to be sent.

There are organizations which specialize in the compilation of "mailing lists." These can be bought for a price, but they are usually expensive. The *Telephone Directory* provides a cheap mailing list, but it represents a selected group of people who can afford a telephone, and so are at least moderately well off. Newspapers often have mailing lists which they are willing to place at the disposal of the advertiser. The ordinary *Town Directory* provides what is possibly the best mailing list, except that a percentage of the addresses are always out of date. Electoral rolls, trade union lists, and motor registration lists, provide other means. Or the advertiser can use lists of club members, or even compile his own list of people he wants to send questionnaires to from reports of social and sporting functions in the daily newspapers.

In considering the mailed questionnaire, it must be remembered that there is no interviewer to ensure the questionnaire being filled in. The advertiser sending out questionnaires by mail must depend first on the desire of the person receiving the questionnaire through the mail to help him. Often this purpose is achieved by making a special appeal to the recipient's patriotic feelings, i.e. the fact that he fills in the

questionnaire is going to help the development of some national industry. On other occasions, particularly when the questionnaires are sent to professional men, co-operation is obtained on an appeal to participate in a scientific effort to estimate a market. The more general way to obtain responses is by offering some gift to those who fill in and return the questionnaire.

The procedure with all mailed questionnaires is to send a covering letter with the questionnaire. This covering letter should be as personal as possible, as it has to "sell" the person who receives the questionnaire on the idea of filling it in and returning it. If it concerns a woman's product, the "one woman to another" tone should be adopted; if it concerns men, the scientific or patriotic aspect should be stressed. The letter-head of the covering letter is often that of the advertiser, but it may prove more successful to use a letter-head reading "School of Domestic Science," "E. Jones, Business Analyst," "The Bureau of Statistics," or "Marketing Department." The less suggestion in the letter-head of an interest on the part of an individual manufacturer the better. The letters themselves obviously cannot be typewritten, but they should be carefully multigraphed, with name, address, and signature carefully matched in to give the impression of being typewritten and signed. Wherever possible, the signature should be a genuine written one. If the survey is one covering women, it should be that of a woman; if one covering men, a man's signature is preferable. Underneath the signature, some pretentious office, real or fictitious, should be typed—e.g. for women, "Domestic Science Department"; for men, "Research Manager," or some such title. In mailing out the questionnaire, the envelope should be sealed

and first-class postage paid. If only second-class postage is paid, the person receiving it does not place such a value on it, and will tend to destroy it more easily. On the other hand, if the questionnaire is enclosed in a sealed envelope, he feels it is of some value.

The questionnaire itself should be worded so that no misinterpretation of the questions is possible. The shorter the questionnaire, the greater the percentage of replies—a long, complicated questionnaire bears too much resemblance to an Income Tax Return to obtain a cordial reception. A questionnaire sent out to newspaper readers consisting of only one question pulled 76 per cent returns. Another single-question questionnaire sent out to doctors pulled 66 per cent returns, and in neither instance was any gift offered as an inducement to return the questionnaire. On the other hand, a long series of twelve questions sent to mothers *re* food for infants pulled only 2 per cent replies.

It is customary to include an addressed envelope with the questionnaire and covering letter. Postage may be made payable on return to sender or a stamp may be put on the envelope. This latter results in a great deal of wasted stamps on envelopes not returned, but probably obtains a higher percentage of replies than the pay-on-return system, for the reason that people dislike to see a stamp wasted, and, rather than do this, will fill in the questionnaire and return it.

An interesting experiment was carried out by a large manufacturing company. Selected groups of people were sent similar questionnaires about cocoa under similar conditions, with stamped, addressed envelope enclosed. Clergymen were the worst in replying, then came doctors; boarding-house proprietors, solicitors, and school teachers were best. Clergymen returned

questionnaires in only 2 per cent of cases, while 45 per cent of the school teachers replied.

A somewhat ingenious scheme, but one taking more time to effect, is not to stick the stamp on to the return envelope, but to attach it loosely to the covering letter. This apparently appeals to people's honesty, as, in some instances, a remarkably high percentage of returns has attended this procedure.

The simplest way to ensure response is by promising some gift in return for a completed questionnaire. Much depends on the nature of the gift and the way it is described in the covering letter. Those returning a questionnaire relating to infants' food were promised a good "mixer"; this only brought a 2 per cent response. Others were promised a half-pound packet of cheese; this only brought forth a 4 per cent reply. During a survey of the market for sporting requisites, those returning a questionnaire were promised either a tennis or golf ball—whichever they chose. This brought over 15 per cent response. On the other hand, questionnaires were mailed to car-owners; no gift was offered, but the covering letter asked them to cooperate in helping to find information that would contribute to the building of the nation's motor-car industry. This brought 40 per cent of replies in one district and 25 per cent in another.

After a considerable amount of experience, one invariably comes to the conclusion that an investigation by mail is always a gamble. It is almost impossible to forecast the percentage of replies, and, for this reason, it is usually cheaper and more dependable to use investigators working from house to house rather than the method of mailing questionnaires. Questionnaires, when mailed, have the added disadvantage of being spread over a period in their return. This can

be overcome by an addition to the covering letter saying the gift will not be forwarded after a certain date. However, mailed questionnaires should generally be considered unsatisfactory, and not be used unless the expense of sending out investigators to remote districts is so great as to render it impracticable.

CHAPTER VI

THE RETAIL MARKET

THE retailer and his relation to the selling of a product—Retail outlets—Methods of distribution—Prices and price fixing—Sales factors—Sales resistances—Packing—Factors influential in purchase—Extent of distribution.

INTERMEDIATE between the manufacturer and his consumer market is the retailer. The retailer purchases from the manufacturer and retails to the public. The ultimate success of a product is, in most cases, almost wholly dependent on the enthusiasm with which the retailer proceeds to merchandise it to the consumer. It is conceivable that a product may of itself be ideal in every respect. However, if for some reason it is not received enthusiastically by the retailer, its success is extremely doubtful. In some instances it is possible for a manufacturer, through strong advertising gift schemes or especially attractive prices, to force sales in spite of retail opposition. Such cases are, however, rare.

A well-known brand of tea offered such a narrow margin of profit to retailers that they pushed other makes in preference. The manufacturer advertised so extensively and well that the consumer public demanded his tea, and retailers were forced to stock it and sell it at the narrow margin of profit. The same has been characteristic of a well-known brand of soap selling at cut prices. Sales have been forced despite retail hostility. Extensive advertising effort has developed the extraordinary situation of the public demanding this soap and the retailer having to sell it against his will.

The instances where this policy of forced distribution has been successful are considerably less than those

where it has resulted in the manufacturer having to modify his terms with retailers or else be faced with the failure of his product.

It will be seen that a survey of the consumer market only tells half the story—the other half is constituted by a survey of the retail market.

RETAIL OUTLETS

The first factor to be considered in a retail survey is that of retail outlets, or through what type or types of retailer a product can be sold to the consumer. In many instances surveys have revealed that certain products have not been sold through all the possible outlets. A leading manufacturing confectioner has only recently added chemists as additional retail outlets for a particular type of confection, and has found the result astonishingly good. The most obvious outlet is not always the best one. Chewing gum was once only to be purchased in confectionery shops; now tobacconists have become profitable outlets. Toilet soap a few years ago was almost exclusively a chemist line; now the majority of family grocers supply toilet soap. The most profitable outlets are probably chain and departmental stores, on account of their great turnover.

METHODS OF DISTRIBUTION

Most manufacturers are confronted with distribution problems. Some years ago the wholesaler was the only avenue for distribution. Now most of the large manufacturers deal direct with the retailer.

The points regarding methods of distribution which a survey should reveal are three.

Firstly, whether it is more profitable for the manufacturer to deal direct with the retailer or to distribute

through wholesalers. If the product has large sales concentrated in districts so that sales and delivery costs are reduced to a minimum, then it is best to deal direct; if sales are small and scattered, and delivery costs to the manufacturer are high, it is wiser to deal through wholesalers.

The second point to be considered relates to what is the most effective method of distribution—by motor transport, by rail or by boat, whether distributing depots in large centres would be advantageous, whether goods should be sent f.o.b. or c.i.f., and so on.

The third point concerns when the goods should be distributed. It often proves advantageous for goods to be delivered to the retailer at short intervals, ensuring both that he does not need to carry a large stock, and so have capital tied up, and that the goods can be sold to the consumer in a fresh condition. Fleischmann's in America feature the weekly delivery of their yeast to retailers, and claim that this has materially contributed to the success of the product.

PRICES AND PRICE FIXING

The retail market survey should enable the manufacturer to determine his price policy—whether he is going to advertise a fixed price for his product, and insist on retailers retailing at that price, or whether he will not advertise a fixed price but allow retailers to sell at whatever price they see fit. The question of price is usually a mixed one, and manufacturers would be well advised to consider it very carefully before embarking on any definite line of policy.

SALES FACTORS

It should be the object of every manufacturer to make the retailer eager to sell his product. As mentioned

early in the chapter, given the retailer is eager to sell a product, success is practically assured. Should the retailer be hostile to a product, advertising must be extraordinarily effective for sales to be satisfactory. The primary factor in making retailers anxious to sell a product is that the product must be good, and attractively packeted. Retailers like to be able to sell good products to their customers. Good products create goodwill, and the retailer desires that above anything else.

However, other factors are important. The retailer exists in business to make a profit for himself, and naturally he is more eager to sell products that afford him an opportunity of making substantial profits. Profits may be considered from either or both of two viewpoints—that of margin or profits on turnover. A survey should aim at finding what the retailer's aim is—to achieve profit through each sale or else through quick turnover—and, finally, what margin of profit he would expect to make on any product.

A second factor in making the retailer anxious to sell a product to the consumer is the facility with which he himself can buy the product. In other words, the retail survey should determine what quantities retailers buy, with a view to packing the product for sale and delivery to dealers in these units. Going a step farther, the survey should determine how often retailers buy a product, with a view to establishing how often the manufacturer's salesman should call—without loss of time in calling when a retailer does not require to place an order.

Many retailers are anxious to sell a product in proportion as they see a manufacturer is anxious to help them sell. Retailers are more eager to sell goods a manufacturer advertises in the daily press. They

often push a line if a manufacturer supplies them with display material or arranges window displays for them. The survey should aim at revealing what retailers consider the most effective methods of putting the story of the product across to the public.

SALES RESISTANCES

The main sales resistances in the mind of the retailer are concerned with profits; personal considerations often play an important part in determining his attitude towards a product. He may be prejudiced against the salesman, the manufacturer, or even the product, by reason of some trifling detail. If he can be persuaded to talk frankly to the investigator, certain quite unexpected sales resistances may be discovered, and can easily be removed by subsequent action on the part of the manufacturer.

PACKING

Being in direct contact with the consumer, the retailer knows what are the most suitable and effective packings. The success or failure of a product may depend on the unit packing for consumer use. The retailer knows what he can sell, and analysis of dealer opinions as to convenient packings will enable the manufacturer to cater more exactly in accordance with consumer demands.

FACTORS INFLUENTIAL IN PURCHASE

Passing from the facts relating to the retail market for a "general" type of product to those relating to the market for a "particular" brand of product, the first consideration is an analysis of why the public purchase one brand of product in preference to another. The retailer from his direct contact with the consumer

can throw light on this question that will add to the information on the same point as revealed by a consumer survey. He will be able to say whether attractive packing, price, intensive selling scheme, or any one of many factors influences consumers to buy one brand of product in preference to another.

EXTENT OF DISTRIBUTION

If the result of a retail survey establishes no point other than the extent of the distribution of any one brand of product as compared with another, much will have been achieved. Distribution should precede advertising, and where a retail survey reveals weak distribution for a brand of product, it would be unwise to advertise in this district until the distribution is strengthened. If distribution is weak, then even if advertising has created a consumer demand, this demand cannot be satisfied and, therefore, the advertising becomes ineffective. As a matter of policy it is wisest to eliminate advertising where a retail survey reveals that distribution is weak until such a time as distribution is strengthened, and to concentrate on areas where distribution is shown to be strong.

CHAPTER VII

DEVELOPING THE RETAIL QUESTIONNAIRE

COMPARISON of retailer with consumer questionnaire—Two typical questionnaires.

THE several factors considered in the development of the consumer questionnaire can also be said to hold in relation to the retailer questionnaire with, however, certain additions. The average retailer is more difficult to approach than the average housewife, and is less willing to answer a questionnaire aimed to discover certain aspects of his business. So the first point to be remembered in the development of the retail questionnaire is that the preliminary questions must be of a very general nature, leaving the intimate details of his trade in certain products until last.

Spaces should always be left at the top of the questionnaire for investigators to fill in details as to the type of shop they call upon, and the district it is in.

Trade questionnaire No. 1 was used during a survey to analyse the possibilities of a new salad dressing, prior to launching it on the market. Space is provided for the investigator to write in the result of his observations during his interview with the retailer.

Question number one launches too abruptly into the aim of the questionnaire and, in point of fact, is too complicated. It really is constituted of several questions, and greater simplicity should have been aimed at. The main object was to ascertain what brands of salad dressing, etc., the retailer stocked. The ultimate analysis of this section affords an estimate of the percentage distribution of the various brands. It was also aimed to find, in question one, from whom the various

brands were purchased, whether from wholesalers, distributing agents, or direct from the manufacturer. The final result from these findings would indicate the distributing policy followed in connection with each brand.

Question two endeavoured to discover first of all what sizes of the various brands were stocked, with the object of finding the most popular sizes, and packing the new product accordingly. The next sections of this question relating to price, when finally analysed out, afforded information relating to what consumer prices were for the various brands, what retailers and wholesalers paid, and how the different brands were packed. On the basis of this, retail and wholesale prices for the new product were determined on a competitive basis, and the case quantities were fixed in the same way.

In question three an attempt was made to ascertain the trading terms of the brands on the market at the time—it proved that few retailers would give an answer to this that was at all reliable.

The following question was also one that retailers hesitated to answer. The object was first of all to find out, if possible, the sales of the lines on the market, with a view to determining the existing demand for the type of product. The remaining sections of the question were not arranged in the best possible way—actually the points concerned related to salesmen's organization and the dealers' attitude towards price-cutting.

Question five aimed to determine in what quantities retailers ordered the product, and how often they bought it, in a further attempt to arrive at possible sales quotas and possible distribution in the various types of store.

The sixth question attempted to arrive at sales trends generally—whether the use of the product was

waxing or waning. This was of particular importance in arriving at a conclusion whether there was room for another salad dressing and mayonnaise in the market. If sales were on the increase, there would be possibilities; if they were decreasing, possibilities for the success of a new line would not be great.

The next question had for its object the determination of popular tastes—whether people preferred a boiled salad dressing or one that was not boiled. Obviously, a great deal depended on the final analysis of the answers to this question as to the type of salad dressing to be launched on the market.

Question eight represented an attempt to discover what manufacturers of leading brands on the market did in the way of supplying advertising material to retailers—with a view to imitation, if such were successful, and definite elimination if not. While not directly helpful, in an indirect way the analysis of this question proved of no little value, showing, however, what not to do rather than what to do.

The last question afforded an opportunity for the retailer to open up on the question of profit margins, and whether he considered these satisfactory. The average opinion of retailers as to the margin of profit they would look to on salad dressings enabled the manufacturer contemplating the marketing of the new line to allow a margin that would make the dealer anxious to push it. The retailer is also afforded an opportunity for expressing his opinion on the future possibilities of a mayonnaise, and what are the factors preventing a more rapid sales development for mayonnaise.

Trade questionnaire No. 2 was developed for the purpose of studying the toilet soap market. The first question aimed to discover the best-selling lines generally, and also in the various types of shop, e.g. chemist,

TRADE QUESTIONNAIRE No. 1 (SALAD DRESSING)

Name of firm..... City.....

Wholesaler..... Chain..... Retailer.....

Name of reporter..... Date.....

Comment on size, character, and extent of trade and general standing of firm.....

.....

.....

1. What salad dressings, mayonnaise, or similar purpose prepared products do you sell?

	Brand	Type	Name of Firm Purchased from	Type (Wholesaler, Agent, Manufacturer)
First
Second
Third
Fourth
Fifth
Sixth

2. What are the sizes and what prices are paid for the products mentioned above?

Brands as above Names	Size of Individual Packet, i.e. Quantity of Contents	Consumer Price each	Retailer Costs and Quantities	Chain or Wholesaler Costs and Quantities	Quantities in a Case
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

6. Are your sales of salad dressing and mayonnaise this year as compared with last—

Up.....? Down.....? Same.....?

7. Which is more popular: Mayonnaise (or oil dressing).....?
Boiled dressing.....?

8. What advertising material have you used for various brands and under what conditions?

Brand No. I.....

.....

Brand No. II.....

.....

Brand No. III.....

.....

9. General comments: (a) Do you consider these products generally satisfactory lines for you to handle from the point of view of profit margin? (b) What is your opinion of the future sales prospects of mayonnaise or salad dressing? What hinders the more rapid sales development for prepared dressings?

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

grocer, general store, etc.; while the second question was an attempt to ascertain dealers' opinions as to why the leading brand had reached that position. Instead of allowing the retailer to comment in a general way, the possible factors were noted, and the investigator was required to check these with the dealer. This procedure of listing possible answers to a question and instructing the investigator simply to check them is more satisfactory when it comes to analysing the question. If the comments of the dealer are simply written down by the investigator as such, then in the final analysis it is most difficult, as a rule, to summarize them in statistical form.

Analysis of question three revealed possible seasonal

variations in the use of toilet soap. This information proved valuable in allocating the appropriation for the various months in the year. The largest appropriation was allocated for the month in which most toilet soap was used as a general rule.

Question four had as its object the obtaining of information as to how far the manufacturers of the various toilet soaps went in supplying display material to the different types of shop, and if possible any dealer comments that could be obtained on the effectiveness of this display material. Actually, very little information of value was obtained from the analysis of this question. Retailers generally reported that they had used display material for all the lines mentioned.

Sales tendencies are revealed in the analysis of question five. This information proved of particular importance in view of intensive selling schemes that had been initiated by several soap manufacturers. It showed the effect of these schemes as compared with sales trends of lines for which no such schemes had been developed.

Question six had as its main object ascertaining at what prices the retailer sold various brands of soap to the public, with the idea of determining whether prices were the same for all lines throughout the distribution, or whether they varied according to territory. The retailer was then asked his opinion on each price—whether he considered it too high, too low, or just right. Retailers can often give valuable contributions as to whether a price to the public is right or wrong. Analysis of this section actually revealed two main prices considered “right” by the retailer; the lowest was threepence, and the next was sixpence. Getting to less popular prices, ninepence and one shilling were considered by some retailers to be fair prices for a good-class soap.

The analysis of question seven provided an interesting solution of the problem as to whether people preferred a white or a coloured toilet soap. It transpired that retailers in the region of 70 per cent considered people preferred a white toilet soap—and that generally because of its apparent purity; the remaining 30 per cent, who considered people preferred a coloured toilet soap, gave as the reason that people preferred coloured soap because they had become accustomed to the association of the idea of medication with colour in toilet soap.

Question eight was a change from the general to a particular brand of toilet soap. Retailers were asked who buy a particular brand of soap, with the object of determining to whom the appeal is to be presented—to mature or young women or to men. It transpired that young women were, in the opinion of the majority of retailers, the greatest purchasers of this brand of toilet soap, the reason being that it was considered good for the skin. Therefore, the advertising appeal had to be developed accordingly.

The following question also related to the specific brand of soap; its aim was to ascertain whether there was any consensus of opinion among retailers as to good things their customers had said about toilet soap; should any such consensus be revealed, it could be made the basis of a copy appeal to either the trade or the public. Actually, if over 80 per cent of the retailers interviewed reported their customers liked toilet soap because of its purity, it would provide a convincing appeal to be developed in subsequent advertising.

During the years this particular brand of soap had been on the market, from time to time consignments had deteriorated in certain areas. Question ten was developed with the object of determining how far these

TRADE QUESTIONNAIRE No. 2 (SOAP)

Name..... District.....

Type of shop.....

1. What are your three best-selling toilet soaps?

(1)..... (2)..... (3).....

2. Why has the present best seller advanced to this position? (Check)

(1) Consumer price

(2) Quality

(3) Advertising in press.....

(4) Posters

(5) Window or counter display.....

(6) Sampling or couponing.....

3. In what months do you handle most soaps (bath and toilet)?

.....

4. For which of these products have you used display material in the past year? Have the results been permanent or transitory?

Lifebuoy.....

Palmolive

Colgates

Lux Toilet Soap.....

Rexona

Solyptol

Cuticura

Cashmere Bouquet.....

Pears

5. Are sales increasing or decreasing or the same, of each brand as compared with last year?

Lifebuoy.....

Palmolive

Colgates

Lux Toilet Soap.....

Rexona

Solyptol

Cuticura

Cashmere Bouquet.....

Pears

6. What are your prices to the public, and what are your opinions on these?

	<i>Price</i>	<i>Comment</i>
Lifebuoy
Palmolive
Colgates
Lux Toilet Soap
Rexona
Solyptol
Cuticura
Cashmere Bouquet
Pears

7. Which do people prefer—a plain white toilet soap or a coloured one?
.....

8. Who buys Soap? Why do they buy it?

	<i>Reason</i>
Mother
Father
Young woman

9. What good things have you heard about X..... Soap?
.....

10. (a) Have you noticed regular customers have stopped buying X..... Soap?..... Why?.....

(b) Have they started buying since?.....

11. Have any selling schemes been carried through for toilet soap in your district?.....

Have the results of these been permanent or transitory?
.....
.....
.....

defective consignments had been noticed by the public in the various areas—whether it had caused them to stop buying, and whether they had started buying again. On the basis of the analysis of the replies to this question, it was possible to map out areas to which the defective consignments had been sent. The problem in these areas then became centred in how to overcome the previous bad reputation. Apart from this specific reason for this type of question being included in this particular retailer investigation, a question such as this should usually be included, especially if sales happen to be decreasing. Analysis of the replies will supply the answer to one of two questions—why sales are decreasing, or, alternatively, why sales are not greater.

The last question is once more a general one relating to selling schemes for soap, carried through in the various territories. Analysis of the answers to this question revealed both what had been done by competing lines and what had been the result. Many selling schemes just push up sales momentarily, then when the scheme has run out, sales drop to what they were previously. Again, other selling schemes have a permanent effect on sales.

It will be seen from the foregoing that analysis of the retail questionnaires supplements in many ways conclusions arrived at from a survey among consumers; on the other hand, an additional picture is given of retail attitudes towards the product, and how the product can first of all be sold to the retailer in such a way that he in turn enthusiastically sells it to the consumer.

CHAPTER VIII

THE RETAIL INVESTIGATION

THE consumer and the retail investigation—Retailer's attitude toward investigators—Wholesalers—Small retailers—Chain and co-operative stores—Departmental stores.

THE general principles to be observed by the investigator in making a consumer investigation may be said to apply to the retail survey as well. There are, however, certain additional facts which an investigator should bear in mind when proceeding to interview retailers. In the first place, retailers should be encouraged to comment as much as possible. Most retailers do not require a great deal of encouragement; they will tend to talk too much rather than too little. It is not so essential in most cases that the questionnaire be filled in *after* the interview; retailers will not mind the investigator filling in the questionnaire during the interview. It is more desirable actually that this should be done because it is essential that a retailer's replies should be most accurately recorded, and it is difficult for the investigator to remember with a great deal of accuracy the mass of detail the retailer gives.

Some of the retailers to be called upon will be hostile to the manufacturer for whom the investigation is being made, while some will be friendly. If the investigator reveals himself as representing a manufacturer with whom the retailer is on unfriendly relations, an interview will often be refused. If the retailer is friendly disposed towards the manufacturer he will probably be out to impress the investigator with how much he has done for that particular manufacturer. For this

reason it is desirable, as far as possible, that the investigator should avoid letting the retailer know that the investigation is being conducted on behalf of any particular manufacturer. It is admitted that this is often very difficult. In addition, manufacturers often fear needlessly that the fact of an investigator interviewing retailers may have a prejudicial effect on them in their attitude towards his product. Should the retailers know for whom the investigation is being conducted, the manufacturer should inform his salesmen of their probable attitude, and ask his salesmen to impress upon them how very important it is that they should answer the questions to the best of their ability. Salesmen often tend to regard the investigators in a flippant light, or else they may believe they themselves could give the information being sought just as well as any retailer could give it, or any investigator could discover it. For this reason, salesmen should be talked to before the investigation, and "sold" on the principles involved, so that they, in turn, can "sell" the retailer and in many cases make things very much easier for the investigator.

A difficulty frequently confronting the investigator is that many retailers do not take the questions asked them seriously—they give any answers rather than think out the questions and give reasoned replies. A great deal will depend on the personality of the investigator; the investigator by his earnestness and thoroughness in asking the questions can convince the retailer how important it is that a well-thought-out answer should be given.

During the course of the retail investigation five types of retailer will be interviewed—wholesalers, small retailers, chain stores, departmental stores, and co-operative stores.

WHOLESALEERS

In the earlier stages of his experience in market survey work, the writer considered it desirable to call upon a large number of wholesalers. However, experience has revealed that, as a general rule, wholesalers cannot give a complete answer to all the questions included in a standard dealer questionnaire. It thus became a matter of evolving a special questionnaire for wholesalers.

As the number of wholesalers in any district is limited, this did not prove desirable, so that, finally, it was considered to be the best course to rely on a small number of wholesalers (say three or four) with whom the investigator was personally on good terms, and from whom fairly complete information could always be obtained. In other words, the investigator went out of his way to maintain a personal contact with a small number of wholesalers, so that when it was necessary to conduct a survey he could refer to these wholesalers and obtain all requisite information from them. To date, this practice has proved most practicable and reliable.

SMALL RETAILERS

In the category of small retailers can be included suburban chemists, grocers, café proprietors, etc.; they provide the most general and widespread means of distributing the product, irrespective of whether they buy direct from the manufacturer or through a wholesaler. The majority of suburban retailers buy direct from a manufacturer if the manufacturer's traveller calls, but for lines where the manufacturer's traveller does not call they rely on the wholesaler. In the case of most small retailers it is only necessary for the investigator to call at the shop to obtain an interview.

However, the investigator should use some discretion as to the time of calling—for example, if the shop is full of customers, the proprietor is not likely to be enamoured of spending time answering questions. It is probably better to call on the suburban retailer early in the morning rather than in the afternoon. Fridays, Saturdays, and market days are days on which it should be aimed to avoid doing any suburban retailer calls.

The best approach to the suburban retailer is through flattery. The investigator should impress upon him that his answers to the questions are most important, as his opinion as one who knows all about the trade is most valuable. Another successful line of approach is that of co-operation. The investigator should suggest that the manufacturer for whom the survey is being considered wants to co-operate with his dealers, find out what they want, and give it to them, and so benefit all concerned. A third line of approach is that the manufacturer wants to increase the sales of his line, and wants to find out from the retailer how to do it.

CHAIN AND CO-OPERATIVE STORES

Buying for chain and co-operative stores is usually done through one centralized office. Managers of individual stores have more or less to carry out the instructions from headquarters. The person who can give the most helpful information to an investigator is the man who does the buying for headquarters. It is usually best for the investigator to secure a letter of introduction from the manufacturer's sales manager to whoever does the buying for the chain store. An appointment should be made, as normally these buyers are too busy to see casual callers.

DEPARTMENTAL STORES

Two persons may be of assistance to the investigator in departmental stores. If the departmental store is not a large one, and the merchandise manager personally does all the buying, then it is the merchandise manager whom the investigator should interview. In large departmental stores, however, the merchandise manager, while he nominally controls the buying, actually does not know a great deal about the individual merits of different products, but has to rely on the departmental buyer. In such cases the departmental buyer can get the investigator the most helpful information. Approach to this buyer can be made on the investigator's own initiative or else through the medium of an introduction from the manufacturer's sales manager. Probably the latter procedure is the best, in spite of obvious disadvantages. Buyers in departmental stores are quite important persons, and may be unwilling to give an interview to an investigator seeking one on his own initiative. However the actual interview may be obtained, and be it either with the merchandise manager or a departmental buyer, it is wisest to arrange an appointment either over the telephone or by letter. This, besides giving the interview an atmosphere of importance, ensures that the person to be interviewed will be available; when it is remembered that departmental store buyers spend a great deal of time away from their departments, the wisdom of arranging an appointment will be confirmed.

When the interview has been obtained, the approach should be determined partly by the terms of the letter from the manufacturer's sales manager. In point of fact this letter and introduction should simply be a plain statement to the effect that the investigator is engaged in making a survey of the market for a

particular product, and any help the buyer can give will be regarded as a personal compliment.

In explaining the object of the interview the investigator should usually take the attitude that he is coming to the buyer for his opinion as an authority on the sales possibilities, etc., for a particular product. Actually this is true, for the majority of departmental store buyers have an astonishingly accurate conception of the market possibilities for any of the products which they buy for their departments. It will be found, too, that most departmental store buyers are most frank and helpful to investigators.

CHAPTER IX

BASIC MARKET DATA

GOVERNMENT sources—Libraries—Information from client.

IN addition to the information on a client's marketing problem to be obtained from the analysis of consumer and retail questionnaires, supplementary information can be obtained from libraries, government sources, and from the client himself.

BASIC DATA FROM GOVERNMENT SOURCES

When considering the market for a product it is important that a study be made of tariffs, taxes, and local restrictions relating to either local manufacture or the importation of similar products from abroad. If the product is to be manufactured locally a picture will be obtained as to the advantage a locally manufactured product will have over an imported product. Certain local restrictions may be imposed by alcohol content, pure food Acts, etc. For obvious reasons, these should be completely studied in their relation to any product about to be marketed.

Customs officials and customs records can supply information relating to the quantities of any product imported and exported. This is of value in estimating present demand for local and imported products, and may show the extent of both the import and the export market that can be obtained for a product by judicious marketing. A study of imports and exports over a period of years will show market trends.

BASIC DATA FROM LIBRARIES

Before embarking on either a dealer or consumer survey much time may be saved by consulting the available literature on a product. A published research may have been carried out by some other investigator, and may cover the same specific points as those intended in a survey under consideration. Under these circumstances much time and money may be saved by a study of available literature. In any case much help can be obtained from a study of existing literature and research data before definitely starting out on a consumer and dealer investigation.

In estimating possible sales quotas by regions, a study of population and *per capita* consumption should be made. Helpful statistics are available in current year books, municipal records, etc.

When considering methods of packing for either local or export use, some study should be made of climatic conditions in the territories where it is proposed to market the product. Climatic conditions should be considered in their relation to the deterioration of the product, and how packings can be arranged so that possible deterioration is obviated. The study of climatic conditions is of further importance in developing the merchandising plan—the product must be merchandised in accordance with its seasonal use by the consumer. For instance, certain climatic conditions more than others favour the breeding of flies. Therefore, a knowledge of these conditions is essential when marketing an insecticide.

INFORMATION FROM CLIENT

Meetings should be arranged with various members of the client's personnel, with a view to obtaining as complete a picture as possible of the product to be

marketed. The client, or responsible members of his staff, should be asked to take the investigator entirely into their confidence—just as a patient takes a doctor into his confidence or a client tells every circumstance of a case to his lawyer. First of all the client should be asked to supply a history of the product—how the suggestion as to its possibilities came into being, what have been the most interesting points in its development, what have been the difficulties to overcome in its manufacture, and what, if any, has been the history of its sales development to date. The investigator should himself make as complete a study as possible of the various manufacturing processes with a view to selecting any phases of particular interest in the subsequent advertising story. The manufacturer should be asked if he has any means for testing the various qualities of his product, and how his product compares with competitive products in these tests.

As a help during the actual consumer and retail investigation, the manufacturer may be asked what are his views on competitive advertising, distribution, price policies and packages, and what is in his own mind as to the best means of effecting sales. The manufacturer may be asked about the extent of his present market and distribution, and what future development he is contemplating—how the product is now being used by the consumer, and what new uses he considers may be possible.

He should be asked how the consumer buys his product, how much he buys at a time, how regularly it is bought, and who buys it. The manufacturer may be able to comment on whether an increase in sales is more easily obtainable by developing and exploiting new markets or by entering into the competitive market with other products.

It is important that the investigator should gain a complete picture of the sales and advertising policies of the manufacturer. It is often of advantage for the investigator actually to accompany a number of the manufacturer's salesmen on their rounds, simply as an observer, to note their methods and how their product is received by the retailer. Special points to be studied in relation to sales policy are methods of distribution, methods of remunerating salesmen (whether by commission or fixed salary), special terms to retailers, terms of payment, delivery policies, methods of tying up advertising with retail selling, and methods of arriving at sales quotas.

Special points to be considered in relation to a manufacturer's advertising policy are how he arrives at his advertising appropriation, and what he considers to be the most valuable means of getting the story of his product across to the consumer. If possible, the history of his past advertising should be obtained, with a general outline of the various methods adopted and some comments on their success or failure; in addition, the manufacturer may be induced to discuss how he has previously determined what media to use and how he has arrived at his copy appeal.

A brief sketch should be obtained of the manufacturer's production facilities at the moment, and any future expansion he may be contemplating. If advertising results in increased sales, production facilities must be such that they can cope with increased demand. It is useless advertising a product in such a way that if the demand is created the production cannot satisfy it.

CHAPTER X

THE NEWSPAPER AND MAGAZINE READER SURVEY

PUBLICATIONS read by various types of person—How publications are bought and handled—Why journals are read—Duplication of papers—Country and Metropolitan circulation—Recommendation—Summarizing results of a media survey.

HAVING collected all the data available concerning the consumer and dealer market, still further information must be available before an advertising plan can be developed.

Information relating to media that may be used to carry an advertising message to the consumer has usually been collected at various times by advertisers and advertising agencies, and may be classified under three headings, relating to (a) people's reading habits, (b) information of a more or less general nature relating to newspapers and magazines, (c) information covering media other than newspapers and magazines.

Information relating to people's reading habits can only be obtained by a survey conducted along lines similar to a product consumer investigation. The selection of typical income groupings, and actual investigation procedure, should follow exactly the same principles as outlined for the product consumer questionnaire.

PUBLICATIONS READ BY VARIOUS TYPES OF PERSON

The first and most important point to be determined in a newspaper reader investigation is what publications are read by the various income classifications, with a view to determining which newspapers and magazines can carry a message about a product designed to appeal

to specific types of persons. It is important to determine who reads the paper—whether men, women, or children, or all, read it. In this connection it should be aimed to determine what combination of papers various types of people read—e.g. one paper only, or a morning and an evening paper, or two morning papers, etc. Scott has made an interesting study in his *Psychology of Advertising*, and has arrived at the following percentage of persons reading various numbers of papers—

One paper	14 per cent
Two papers	46 „
Three papers	21 „
Four papers	10 „
Five papers	3 „
Six papers	2 „
Eight papers	3 „

HOW PUBLICATIONS ARE BOUGHT AND HANDLED

A second point (of somewhat lesser importance but nevertheless one which should be determined) is how the different publications are bought, and what happens to them—that is, whether they are delivered to the home, whether they are received through the mail, or whether they are bought at a news-stand. If the publications are received at home it should be determined whether they are taken from home to read in the train or tram, e.g. morning papers, or whether they remain at home for the family to read. It should also be determined what proportion of people reading the various publications buy them at news-stands and bring them home for the family to read.

WHY JOURNALS ARE READ

A point of considerable importance in a media survey centres about why people read the various journals, and

in what portions they are most interested. Scott has made an interesting study of the relative percentage of interest in the various sections of newspapers. However, this must be taken a step farther, and it must be determined why people read the various papers. The application of this is that if a majority of housewives interviewed read a newspaper because of the women's page, then if it is planned to advertise a product appealing to women, the obvious place to insert is in the women's page of that newspaper, as it is read by a majority of women just on account of that specific page. Similarly, if a journal is read because of its motor news content, it has much to recommend it as a medium for motor-car advertisements.

RELATIVE PERCENTAGE OF INTEREST IN SECTIONS OF
NEWSPAPERS (SCOTT)

Local News	17·8 per cent
Political	15·8 "
Financial	11·5 "
Foreign	9·5 "
Editorials	9·0 "
General News	7·2 "
Ethics	6·7 "
Sporting News	5·8 "
Cartoons	4·3 "
Special Articles	4·3 "
Music	1·88 "
Book Reviews	1·84 "
Society	1·4 "
Drama	1·1 "
Art	·9 "
Advertisements	·44 "
Storyettes	·13 "
Weather	·1 "
Humour	·05 "

DUPLICATION OF PAPERS

If the same person reads two papers, there arises a question as to the desirability of inserting an advertisement in each of these. If a large percentage of persons read two papers this is known as a high percentage of duplication. Many advertisers do not object to

inserting advertisements in two papers even if a large percentage of their circulation covers the same readers. Modern usage, however, has aimed to use only one of two papers which have a large percentage of common readers.

It is, therefore, important to develop some method of expressing duplication between two papers.

Let us study a representative town, to be known as Middletown.

In Middletown there are four papers—three morning papers, the *Times*, the *Leader*, and the *Star*, and one evening paper, the *Gazette*. On the basis of an investigation the number of people in each income group reading each of these papers has been estimated. It has also been established that in class "A" 33·67 per cent, in class "B" 38·84 per cent, in class "C" 43·07 per cent, and in class "D" 44 per cent of *Gazette* readers read the *Star* as well. From this information it is possible to estimate the number of *Gazette* readers in each income class who read the *Star* by simply taking 33·67 per cent of class "A" *Gazette* readers, 38·84 per cent of class "B" *Gazette* readers, and so on. Totalling up the numbers thus obtained for each income group it is possible to obtain an estimate of the total number of *Gazette* readers who read the *Star*—in this case in the region of 66,000. Thus the duplication between two papers can be expressed in an actual number of readers. The factors of circulation among various income groups, and also of duplication, should be considered in developing any media recommendation.

As a sample media recommendation for Middletown the following is an example of the plan to be followed subsequent to a media survey.

As the result of a research in Middletown the following table has been prepared showing the number of

householders in various income groupings reading the various dailies—

Group	<i>Times</i> (Morning)	<i>Leader</i> (Morning)	<i>Star</i> (Morning)	<i>Gazette</i> (Evening)
A	14,000	3,000	5,000	13,000
B	16,000	2,000	7,000	14,000
C	17,000	8,000	27,000	38,000
D	5,000	60,000	43,000	86,000
Total	52,000	73,000	82,000	151,000

COUNTRY AND METROPOLITAN CIRCULATION

According to the claims of the various dailies, the following are their respective town and country circulation—

Paper	Town	Country	Town	Country	Other
			Per cent	Per cent	Per cent
<i>Times</i> . . .	56,481	54,222	50	48	2
<i>Leader</i> . . .	73,584	48,917	60	40	—
<i>Gazette</i> . . .	152,760	29,136	84	16	—
<i>Star</i> . . .	108,626	58,496	65	35	—

DUPLICATION

On the basis of an investigation among Middletown householders, the following table has been compiled to show duplication in metropolitan Middletown—

<i>Leader</i> — <i>Times</i>	. . .	Readers	7,000
<i>Leader</i> — <i>Star</i>	. . .	„	12,000
<i>Leader</i> — <i>Gazette</i>	. . .	„	66,000
<i>Times</i> — <i>Star</i>	. . .	„	18,000
<i>Times</i> — <i>Gazette</i>	. . .	„	48,000
<i>Star</i> — <i>Gazette</i>	. . .	„	66,000

RECOMMENDATION

It will be seen from the tables on duplication that the greatest duplication exists between the evening paper,

the *Gazette*, and any one of the morning dailies, and that the duplication between any of the morning papers is comparatively small. On this basis, the ideal combination would be the *Times—Leader—Star*.

On this basis we would obtain an effective metropolitan circulation of 207,000 less 37,000 (duplicated) = 170,000 householder sales, plus newsagents in metropolitan Middletown, together with a possible 161,000 country circulation.

Should the *Gazette* be added to this group, very little country circulation would be added, and on account of duplication amounting to almost the whole of its metropolitan circulation very little effective circulation would be gained in Middletown itself.

On the other hand, should the appropriation be so limited as to render it desirable to use only one metropolitan paper, the *Gazette*, with its 181,000 circulation concentrated mostly in metropolitan Middletown, and read by most people who read any of the morning dailies, would be the logical "buy." However, it should be remembered that the *Gazette* does not claim a large country circulation, but only affords metropolitan coverage, and then not to the extent among classes A and B that is achieved by the *Times*.

Should an appropriation be such that a coverage among classes "A" and "B" is desirable, i.e. for a high-priced commodity, although it has a smaller circulation (110,000), the *Times* has been shown by researches to have the more selective high-class coverage, and in addition to have the advantage of a large country circulation—48 per cent.

It is suggested, therefore, that in a campaign requiring a one-paper coverage among the higher income groupings, and also to a degree in country districts, the *Times* is preferable to the other dailies in Middletown.

Should the appropriation permit of only two papers being used, and require a coverage among all classes, and as great a coverage as possible in country districts, the use of the *Times* is recommended to take care of classes "A" and "B," together with country coverage, and the *Gazette* to take care of all the metropolitan coverage, together with "C" and "D" class coverage not taken care of by the *Times*.

These two dailies supplement each other more effectively than any other combination of two dailies. None of the combinations—*Star-Gazette*, *Gazette-Leader*, or *Star-Times*—provides either the metropolitan supplemented by country or the class "C" and "D" supplemented by class "A" and "B" coverage that is afforded by the combination—*Times-Gazette*.

SUMMARIZING RESULTS OF A MEDIA SURVEY

Percentage of people reading various journals.

As the result of an analysis of the replies given by persons interviewed, it is possible to compute percentages of the persons interviewed in each income group who read each particular paper. For example, in Middletown 92.45 per cent class "A," 96.8 per cent class "B," 96.29 per cent class "C," and 86.20 per cent class "D" of the householders interviewed read the *Gazette*, an evening paper.

From local statistics it is ascertained that in Middletown there are actually 174,000 householders in all income groups.

From income-tax authorities it is possible to ascertain the number of householders belonging to each income group.

The total number of class "A" householders reading the *Gazette* can then be computed by taking 92.45 per cent of the total class "A" householders in Middletown.

In the same way, the total number of *Gazette* readers belonging to classes "B," "C," and "D" can be computed.

An estimate of the total circulation of the *Gazette* can be obtained by totalling the number of readers in each income group. It will be found, if a typical cross-section of Middletown householders has been made during the investigation, that in the case of a home-delivered paper the estimate will be very close to the audited circulation. However, where a large proportion of a paper's circulation depends on news-stand sales, there is a possibility that the estimate may not be so nearly correct, as the papers thus bought may not bear a relation to the number of householders, owing to being bought by younger members of the family, and not being brought home. This is particularly applicable to tabloid and evening papers, which normally do not find their way into homes to the same extent as regular morning dailies.

CHAPTER XI

BASIC NEWSPAPER AND MAGAZINE DATA

GENERAL information—Technical information—Type of publication—Circulation—Markets covered—Advertising rates—Obtaining basic media data.

EVERY advertiser and advertising agency normally has a compilation of data relating to the various publications. Usually this is compiled in a haphazard way. The ideal method is to aim at having a standard set of files—one for each newspaper or magazine. In these files information relating to the various publications should be set down in a standard way.

GENERAL INFORMATION

Certain general information relating to publications should always be at hand for quick reference. The main persons to whom correspondence is likely to be addressed are the managing editor, the managing director, the general manager, and the advertising manager. The names of these officials should be recorded and kept up to date. All available information relating to who owns a publication, and with what other publication it is associated, should be placed on record.

Somewhere in a media department's files a voucher copy of every newspaper should be available.

It often saves money, if the publication has a telegraphic address, to use this instead of the postal address. Similarly there should be ready access to the address and telephone number of the journal; or if the journal is not printed in the advertiser's home town, there should be some note as to the name, address, and telephone number of the nearest representative.

TECHNICAL INFORMATION

(a) **COLUMN AND PAGE SIZE.** When planning advertisements it is essential that this be done bearing in mind the column and page sizes of the publications in which they are to be inserted. A great deal of money is often wasted in producing advertisements that are not adapted to the page and column size of the journals which have to carry them. By page size is meant height and width; by column size is meant width and the number of columns to the page. It is often quite worth while to ascertain whether there are variations in column or page size in any particular issues of the journal.

(b) **SIZES OF ADVERTISEMENTS ACCEPTED.** There are usually certain sizes of advertisements that are not acceptable to most publications. Usually advertisements wider than they are deep are least acceptable. Another factor influencing newspapers in rejecting certain sizes is the odd amount of white space that may be left at the top or bottom—space so narrow that it is difficult to fill it with news. Much inconvenience can be saved if an accurate file of data is kept relating to advertisement sizes accepted by journals.

(c) **TYPES OF ADVERTISEMENTS ACCEPTED.** Many newspapers place restrictions on the proportion of black and white in an advertisement; others declare as a policy that type size and thickness must bear a definite relation to the size of the advertisement. Others limit the type of blocks used, while most journals use a fairly heavy screen on half-tone blocks. Before finally developing a lay-out, it will at least save much disappointment with ultimate results if the requirements of a publication as to advertisement styles are ascertained and studied. Alternatively, should a lay-out sent to a newspaper be such that it does not conform to

conditions, the advertising manager will invariably alter it round so that it is suitable; the result may well be that the whole original object of the lay-out is lost.

(d) TYPE OF PRESS USED. While at first it may seem a matter of small consequence what type of press a journal may use, one of the first problems an advertiser or his agent should consider is the form in which he can most effectively and economically send his advertisements to the various publications. For this reason it should be recorded in regard to each publication whether matrices, stereotypes, mounted blocks or unmounted blocks can be used. Many journals allow advertisers a special discount if stereotypes are supplied.

The advertiser should have on record, with regard to each journal, whether it is printed on a rotary or a flat-bed press. In journals printed on a rotary press, certain pages give better reproduction for half-tone blocks than others, and information on this point is essential in achieving maximum effectiveness in reproduction. At present, it is difficult for loose insets to be included in a journal produced on a rotary press, while it is not so difficult in a journal produced on a flat-bed press.

Many other minor factors relating to the production of each publication available should be on record, such as whether sections are printed in offset, what colour-printing facilities are available, and what type of paper is used. This last is of particular importance in relation to the lay-out of advertisements planned. Many publications use a tinted paper, and this acts as a disadvantage to a certain type of lay-out in which blocks are used for contrast. Other papers use art paper; in these it is obviously possible to secure

better reproduction than in those using ordinary newspaper.

(e) CLOSING DATES. Many a good campaign has been spoilt by copy failing to meet an issue. Closing dates or, in the case of dailies, closing times are factors that must be recorded and checked most carefully.

TYPE OF PUBLICATION

Mention was made in the preceding chapter that people read certain sections of various publications for certain specific reasons. The elementary factors relating to type of publication are price and times of issue, i.e. whether the publication is issued daily—in the morning or in the evening—weekly, monthly, etc. Other elementary factors are centred about the amount and type of advertisements carried and the number of pages per issue. Of these the amount and type of advertisements carried afford some indication of the value of the publication for various types of advertisements as estimated by other advertisers.

A study should be carefully made and recorded relating to the type of news carried in each publication and what is the policy of each paper. The type of news can be divided roughly into “clippings” and “direct” news. The stronger the journal the less reliance there is on clippings. The contents of each publication should be classified, and this classification used partially as a criterion of the value of the publication for carrying advertisements for various types of product. A publication's contents can usually be classified according to the following sections—

Local News	Finance
News from Abroad	Religion
Social News	Literary
Trade Items	Dramatic
Household Items	Science
Politics	Sports

In most daily papers on certain days there are featured items of special reader interest, e.g. a motor page one day, another day a women's page, and so on. A record of these special features in relation to each publication often enables a special feature page to be effectively used in a number of publications to tie up with the merchandising of a product which is of special interest to those reading the special feature pages, e.g. motor-cars on the motoring page, cheese on the women's page, etc.

CIRCULATION

Most reputable publications issue audited certificates of circulation from time to time. As it is on the basis of circulation that the cost of advertising in a publication is computed, a careful record should be kept, in the basic data file, of changes in circulation. Any increases or decreases should be noted, and, if possible, the reason for the change ascertained.

Audited certificates are often deceptive. The way in which circulation is described should be carefully studied. The number of returns from newsagents, and the number of waste copies, should be stated on certificates of circulation for them to be of any value. In addition, the period covered by the certificate should be considered, and any factors operating which may be such that the period does not represent a normal or average period for the circulation should be taken into account.

Many important factors relating to circulation are not given on audited certificates, and must be obtained either from the advertising manager or by research. Advertising managers may or may not be willing to give this information, and in many cases even if they are willing to give it they cannot, because they do

not themselves possess the facts required. Information relating to the class and type of people who read publications can most accurately be obtained by research in the manner described in the previous chapter.

Newspaper and magazine advertising managers or their representatives should, however, be in a position to supply information relating to the proportion of their journals sold in the town of publication and the proportion sold in other towns, together with a tabulation showing an analysis of circulation by towns. This information relating to coverage obtained from the publications themselves should be supplemented and confirmed by independent research, instituted by the advertiser or his agency, and the ultimate result should be charted on a map which should show towns and the circulation of all the publications read by householders in those towns. Once this map has been completed it is possible to see at a glance what papers can be considered in order to obtain a coverage in particular areas.

It is definitely of importance to the advertiser that he should know what proportion of a journal's circulation is sent out by mail, what proportion is home delivered, and what proportion is sold through newsstands and news-boys. Most journals can supply this information without any difficulty, and it can be confirmed by comparison with a media survey analysis.

Most morning and evening newspapers are run out in several editions—it is important in many cases that the advertiser should be conversant with the reason for each of these editions. For example, many evening journals bring out an edition for every race on important race days, and many persons may buy one of each edition to find out race results. Obviously, from the

advertiser's point of view, this means a great deal of wasted circulation, and it is important that some estimate should be made of the wasted circulation. Other journals publish local and national editions, featuring a slightly different content in each edition and accepting advertisements for either or both editions. While it may not be desirable for an advertiser to use a national edition the local edition may be ideal.

Circulations of journals vary on different days. Daily morning newspapers usually tend to have their largest circulation on Saturdays. In many cases this variation in circulation is dependent on the value of the daily news content. It will also depend, from time to time, and for limited periods, on the attractiveness of some special weekly feature or series of articles that may be running. A Saturday evening paper usually has a large circulation on account of the race results, sports news, and so on.

A general account of the daily variations in circulation can usually be obtained from the advertising manager of a newspaper, and should have its place in any file of information relating to a paper.

MARKETS COVERED

When considering a publication for inclusion in an appropriation, certain facts relating to the type of market covered by that publication should be available from the media data files. Certain of these will be revealed in the analysis of the media survey, i.e. relating to the type of person reading the publication. Here again, however, the executive of the publication can afford valuable assistance to the advertiser or his agency by supplying information as to the main occupation of the persons living in the area covered

by the paper, the chief industries in the district, as well as general business conditions and developmental prospects. Where a paper is circulated in a district removed from an advertiser's headquarters, its co-operation in keeping the advertiser well informed as to business developments can prove of very real value.

In addition, certain statistics concerning the number of people living in the town where a newspaper is published, under what conditions they live, what sort of homes they live in, what sort of shops there are in a town, etc., can be obtained through the newspaper. Details concerning a particular town in its relation to other nearby towns, such as how goods are taken to the town (i.e. methods of transport), often prove of importance in considering a merchandising campaign, and should, if possible, be obtained through the local newspaper.

Local race, show, market, shopping days and holidays are important when planning advertising schedules. Race-days and holidays are normally particularly bad days on which to advertise the majority of products, while shopping and market days are often good days before which to advertise certain types of products. Information as to the dates on which these particular days fall should be obtained from local papers, as far ahead as possible, and charted for ready reference on a calendar to be known as an advertising calendar.

ADVERTISING RATES

Invariably journals publish what they call rate cards. These are distributed to advertisers and agencies to show what publication space costs are. The way in which rate cards are set out varies according to the eccentricities of particular journals, and in many cases it is difficult for the advertising man to puzzle out

exactly how much the space he wants to book is going to cost him.

It should be one of the functions of those looking after a file of media data to check frequently the rate cards filed, to see that rates are kept up to date. If this is not done it is possible to lose money in the event of a reduction in rates taking place.

In many instances, concessions in rates are not mentioned on rate cards. Rate cards usually quote three rates—casual, space at will, and fixed insertions—that is, for an odd advertisement, for an amount of space to be used during a definite period, and for so much space to be used at regular periods.

Usually, special terms can be negotiated on large contracts, and the media file should contain the history of these negotiations and what the result has been. Other concessions, such as agency commission, discounts for stereos, discounts for cash, and general payment terms, should also be carefully recorded.

Most journals charge special loading rates for concessions relating to position; it is important that all information relating to such extra charges should be accessible in the data files.

All advertising space should ultimately be bought on the basis of its value as expressed in terms of circulation, with regard to its two aspects—quality and quantity. The quality of a publication's circulation refers to whether it is going to reach effectively the type of person for whom the advertising appeal (to appear in the space ordered) was written, and what proportion of the circulation will be wasted among those for whom the advertising appeal was not designed. The information obtained from the publication itself will have some bearing on this point, but most reliance should be placed on the result of a media survey.

With regard to quantities of circulation, as circulations of different publications vary just as much as their advertising rates vary, it is necessary to reduce the relation between cost and circulation to some common basis for all publications. The most accepted basis is now either the cost per inch per ten thousand circulation or the cost per inch per million circulation. This expresses the cost of space in terms of a common circulation and as such affords a basis for comparison. The publication with the lowest cost per inch per ten thousand or per million circulation is, on the basis of quantity of circulation, the cheapest "buy."

OBTAINING BASIC MEDIA DATA

The basic media data that has been described in the foregoing pages, while being most essential in developing complete media recommendations, cannot be obtained in a day. Complete media data, if there is such a thing, can only be obtained after much hard work and a great deal of negotiation with publications. Executives of publications are still notoriously reticent in affording information about their journals. Many of them do not as yet admit the principle that an advertiser buying white space is in the same position as a man buying a motor-car—he is entitled to know all about it, and particularly to know what it can do for him.

The most effective method of obtaining all the information possible about a journal is, of course, field research coupled with constant tactful personal contact with the executives of the publication. Complete information will not be obtained as the result of a single contact with an executive of a publication, nor perhaps may it be obtained after many contacts. It may not be wise to appear too anxious or to ask for too much

at a time. The process is a very gradual one, but persistence will win out in the end.

It is, of course, not possible personally to meet the executives of all publications about which it is considered desirable to have information. When personal contact is not possible, the only way to obtain the requisite information is by means of a judiciously worded questionnaire, which should be accompanied by a covering letter worded in such a way that the executive of the publication is convinced how important it is that he should fill in and return the questionnaire. The covering letter should, of course, be an official one from the advertiser or his agency and should emphasize that the only way in which the publication can prove that its space is of value for advertising any specific product or products is by returning an answer to the various questions embodied in the questionnaire. In many cases publications receiving these questionnaires through the mail will not return them completely filled in, or they may not return them at all. Should a questionnaire not be returned at all, obviously there is very little basis on which to consider the merits of a journal for inclusion in a campaign for a product. In due course the journal will probably solicit inclusion in the appropriation. At such time the matter of filling in a questionnaire should again be brought up. By taking advantage of appropriate moments, it is only a question of time before most of the required information will have been obtained, even by the very unsatisfactory method of handling the negotiations through the mail.

CHAPTER XII

OTHER AVAILABLE MEDIA

POSTERS—Trade journals—Radio—Direct mail—Window displays
—Film advertising—Slide advertising—Tramway and bus signs
—Television—Miscellaneous media.

NORMALLY, before consideration is given to media other than newspapers and magazines, an advertiser should feel satisfied that he has obtained complete coverage in these two media. Should he feel reasonably confident that he can afford to supplement newspaper and magazine advertising in other ways, he has usually to consider the following media available: Posters, trade journals, radio, slides and films, window and other displays, direct mail, or special stunts.

POSTERS

Outside of newspapers and magazines, posters are probably the most effective media—actually many advertisers rely on poster publicity to put the story of their product across to the public.

Certain factors must be taken into account concerning the use of posters as a medium. The most important of these are size and location.

The size of a poster is largely dependent on what it is intended to include in the poster and also where it is proposed to locate it. Should the consumer be passing right up against the posters, small sizes, such as one- or three-sheet posters, are preferable to large ones, whose very size militates against their effectiveness. On the other hand, if the posters are to be seen from a distance, their size must be such that the detail can be adequately

understood by those passing. For this reason, data compiled relating to posters must include information relating to the distance from which the main body of consumers are going to read them.

The ideal location for a poster is solus, situated right at the point where the product advertised can be purchased.

For instance, posters advertising food products should be located in busy shopping areas as close as possible to, if not actually on, the walls of the shops selling the product. In any case the value of a poster, so far as location is concerned, may be estimated by the number of potential users of the product who pass the poster site daily, and who pass it in such a way that they can read its message.

A third factor, in considering the value of a poster, is the way in which it will stand out from its surroundings. Posters located in a medley of others are not so valuable as those which are individualized by framing or other devices used by bill-posting companies to isolate one poster from another.

Local government authorities often control local posting activities by laws, and enforce these laws to a varying extent.

It is important, before starting any bill-posting campaign, to have complete knowledge relating to local restrictions which may interfere with the effective carrying out of the campaign.

In brief, the following information should be held in the media data file relating to posters: (a) size of posters available, (b) locations available, with particular reference both to the number of people passing each poster and the nature of the position, e.g. solus, or how related to surrounding posters, (c) local government restrictions relating to posters, (d) prices.

TRADE JOURNALS

Advertisers are often tempted to insert advertisements in trade journals, for the reason that they circulate among members of a specific trade group who are purchasers of a product. It should be borne in mind, however, that trade journals only reach the trade and not the consumer, so that any advertisement appearing in a trade journal should be aimed to develop dealer rather than consumer interest in the product, i.e. should stress the advantage to the dealer if he stocks a product rather than the advantages to the consumer if he uses the product.

Taking the preceding considerations into account, the relative value of a trade journal should be estimated firstly on the cost per inch per 10,000 circulation basis; secondly, on the type of dealer who subscribes to the journal; and thirdly, on the question as to whether it is desirable for policy reasons to advertise in the journal.

RADIO

In many countries radio has of recent years been assuming more and more importance as an advertising medium. As with any new medium, its effectiveness may be over-estimated in many instances. Many dealers in America and other countries have waxed enthusiastic over the help it has afforded them in selling to the consumer public. On the other hand, it is regarded by many as waste of money. Its real value probably lies half-way between these extremes. A sponsored programme undoubtedly is effective in developing goodwill. This has been proved again and again by the amount of "fan" mail received by sponsors of programmes. However, it would seem at the moment that while radio is an excellent method for institutional advertising, yet it can never supplant newspaper

advertising. Probably the most effective advertising is obtained by a combination of radio and newspaper advertising—the one supplementing the other. The wisest course is probably to arrive at a figure for newspaper advertising first, then decide what appropriation is available to supplement newspaper advertising with radio publicity. Care must be taken to ensure that the radio coverage supplements the strength of the newspaper coverage. Data regarding radio, to be available in data files, should relate to the stations available, their rates for various periods, and the number of radio sets owned in the areas covered by each station. The value of each station and its time should be computed in relation to the number of potential listeners (i.e. radio set owners) in the area it can cover.

DIRECT MAIL

Direct mail is a medium that is favoured by many advertisers of high-priced products; for example, office systems and motor-cars. In the media data file there should be as complete a compilation as possible of the various methods of direct mail that have been used from time to time and described in advertising journals, together with a short account of the results that have been obtained. In many cases it is possible to keep a record of mailing lists, but if this is not possible, the names of mailing houses, together with the mailing lists they have available, and the price of these, should be filed. Whenever a direct mail campaign is conducted, a brief outline of procedure, together with results obtained, should be kept for future reference.

WINDOW DISPLAYS

From time to time most advertisers employ window displays right at the point of purchase, to supplement

other advertising. Data available relating to window displays should cover two main aspects: (1) names of retailers who are willing to allow their windows to be used for displays; (2) details of services willing to arrange window displays, with special reference to the charges made by these services.

In connection with the names of retailers who are willing to allow their windows to be used for display purposes, further details should be obtained concerning the size of these windows and the number of people who (on an average) pass the window in the course of a day. If this last is not available, particulars should be filed relating to the type of shopping area in which the window is located.

FILM ADVERTISING

Prior to the advent of the talking film, some attempts had been made to advertise through the medium of the motion picture. However, during the last two years various advertising talkies have been made. Another aspect of film advertising is either the mention or display of a product during the course of an ordinary dramatic film. For instance, in a recently released film when scenes were shown in stars' dressing-rooms, a packet of Lux flakes was prominently displayed on the mantelpiece.

The future of film advertising as thus described is obscure. A great deal will be dependent upon how far audiences will tolerate the interspersing of advertising matter among films which they pay large admission charges to see.

A possibility that has recently been exploited is the educational film. Many leading manufacturers have made films showing the various processes in their factories; these have been exhibited among other films

at cinemas and at schools. When exhibited at schools they have frequently been explained to the audience by a lecturer. Educational authorities during the past two years in America have been experimenting with visual education as a supplement to oral teaching. Kodascopes have found their way into classrooms, and educational authorities have been drawing on libraries of educational films. It has been possible to include in the film library films relative to the more important factories in America, and by this means to develop institutional advertising.

Salesmen of high-priced products, such as farming machinery, cannot take round samples to prospects, and many of these have been supplied with Kodascopes for demonstration purposes. It is claimed that the method has been successful.

It is difficult to estimate the real value of film advertising. Like all institutional advertising it aims to develop goodwill, and goodwill cannot be estimated in terms of immediate sales.

The media data files relating to film advertising should contain information as to the various types of film advertising available, with the production costs involved in each case, together with possible "coverage," or the places, and number of people in each place, where the film will be exhibited.

SLIDE ADVERTISING

Slide advertising during intervals at cinemas was once regarded as a most desirable form of publicity. Its effectiveness has been questioned from two points of view; the first is whether or not the audience obtains any lasting impression of slides which are shown them, since the actual time of exposure is only between thirty and forty seconds; the second is whether

or not the audience is ever more than casually interested in slides which are shown them during an interval when they are preoccupied with talking or eating sweets and ice cream. Unless the slides tie up in some definite way with a campaign as planned with specific reference to local conditions, they are usually another of the many ways in which an appropriation can be used up without achieving any definite object.

Slide advertising is usually done through companies holding options over all the slide advertising in various theatre circuits.

Records should be kept of the various companies operating in this way, and their charges, together with the theatres covered by each company and the type and number of the audiences in each one.

TRAMWAY AND BUS SIGNS

Cards inside and signs outside buses or trams often provide a way of obtaining a fairly extensive coverage for messages which it is desired to convey to many people in a short time and without spending a great deal of money on producing elaborate advertisements. A point to be considered in relation to this type of advertising is whether or not people travelling in the buses or trams are in such a hurry to get to their destinations that they have no time to read advertisements. This type of advertising is usually controlled in the same way as slide advertising, by companies holding an option over the trams and buses on certain routes.

Details should be recorded as to the various companies operating in this way, the number of buses over which each has the option, the routes these buses follow, and the number of people travelling daily. Costs should be compared accordingly.

TELEVISION

A new possibility for advertising is rapidly coming to the fore. It will combine the oral presentation of the radio with the visual presentation of the newspaper and the film. This is television. Its possibilities have been hitherto unexplored, and no effort has as yet been directed toward its control. Undoubtedly, television is going to have its place as a medium for advertising—if not as the greatest and most effective, still as one that will achieve much. At present it may prove an expensive medium and one to be viewed with scepticism, as was radio not so many years ago, but with the gradual introduction of the necessary reception apparatus into the homes of everyday citizens it must develop into a possibility for advertising.

MISCELLANEOUS MEDIA

The media manager buying space for any campaign is eternally worried by numerous salesmen, each one endeavouring to sell him some proposition which, according to the sales talk, is going to result in phenomenal sales if only a product is advertised in a particular way. There are salesmen for sky-writing, advertisements on tram tickets, charity bazaar programmes, and a thousand and one other propositions. It should be remembered that the majority of these propositions are sheer waste of money. There is, as a rule, no royal road to a phenomenal increase in sales by using a particular medium. Steady and slow wins the race for record sales. Once an advertising plan has been conceived, only those media which directly tie up with that plan should be included within the appropriation. All others, however wonderful they may seem, should be excluded if they do not tie up with the plan.

The fewer the media employed the more easily they can be controlled and operated to ensure maximum results; the greater the number of media employed the greater the danger that an appropriation will be frittered away without achieving any definite object.

CHAPTER XIII

THE ADVERTISING PLAN : (a) MERCHANDISING

THE meaning of merchandising—The salesman, the product, and the retailer—Distribution—Selling the salesman—Helping the salesman sell—The salesman's portfolio—Sales incentives—Merchandising policies—Uses and facts revealed by investigations among retailers—The manufacturer, the retailer, and the consumer—Selling the retailer—Co-operation with retailer—Displays—Selling schemes—Keeping the retailer informed as to the advertising plan—Teaching the retailer how to sell.

ADVERTISING has ceased to be regarded as consisting of the insertion of newspaper or other advertisements quite apart from and unrelated to any other selling factors. The modern advertising plan considers newspapers and other advertising as forming part of a general merchandising scheme. The advertising and selling functions of an organization must be considered as interacting and interdependent.

The aim of all advertising is to sell goods, and elementary though it may seem, this aim is often lost sight of in an effort to achieve artistic perfection in an advertisement. Advertising aims to do in many cases what the salesman cannot do—to cover ground where the manufacturer's salesman cannot penetrate. Where the manufacturer's salesman *can* go, advertising aims to develop a consumer market that will favourably receive goods sold by the manufacturer's salesman to the retailer. There is one comparatively uncontrollable factor occupying a place between the consumer and the manufacturer (as represented by his salesman), namely, the retailer. He must be considered in developing any advertising plan, and it is this consideration of the retailer that may be defined as the process of merchandising the product. By merchandising, therefore, is meant, in broad terms, securing the

co-operation of the retailer, firstly, so that he will buy from the manufacturer's salesman, and secondly, so that he will endeavour to persuade the consumer public to buy the manufacturer's product. The first of these aspects involves two factors—the salesman and the product; the second involves the advertising and other selling helps the manufacturer can supply to the retailer.

THE SALESMAN, THE PRODUCT, AND THE RETAILER

Primarily, it is waste of advertising effort to advertise in territories where distribution has not been effected. Distribution should precede advertising, so that when a consumer demand has been created by advertising it can be satisfied. The first factor to be considered in the merchandising section of an advertising plan should be distribution.

If a retail survey has indicated distribution to be weak in certain territories, the advertising plan should stress this, and suggest possibilities of strengthening distribution, or else eliminating advertising in these areas. Some comment should be made as to methods and avenues of distribution in the light of information revealed in the dealer survey relating to the practice of competitors.

Sales organization and the salesman himself should be the next points to be considered in the advertising plan. To sell successfully, the salesman must himself be "sold" on the product, and be anxious to sell it to retailers. Thought should be given to the education and selling of the salesman, and also to the methods of remunerating him, and encouraging him to put forth increased efforts.

It is advisable that the advertiser's policy and current

practices should be reviewed in detail in relation to the special needs which will have been revealed by the dealer survey.

Most manufacturers conduct classes for the improvement of their salesmen. These present an opportunity for "selling" the salesmen on the product considered in the advertising plan. At these meetings the salesmen should be told the entire advertising plan for the product, and should be told all its good points, so that they in turn can pass them on to the retailer. The salesmen should be convinced of the value of the advertising that is going to be given the product, and should be shown how this is going to help them sell to the retailer. This is usually supplemented in either or both of two ways—by means of a broadside or a salesman's portfolio.

The broadside usually consists of several pages in which the product is described, together with a description of the advertising that will be done by the manufacturer. In addition to affording the salesman information for his own use, the broadside can also be used by the salesman in subsequent contacts with retailers.

The salesman's portfolio is usually developed on a more elaborate scale than the broadside, and contains information important in "selling" both the salesman and the retailer on the product and the firm that manufactures it. The salesman's portfolio usually contains photographs of executives in the company and also of interesting stages in the manufacture of the product. These photographs should be described in copy which aims to "sell" the salesman and the retailer on the efficiency of the factory executives and on the unique care that is taken in the manufacture of the product.

Graphs should be included illustrating the growth of the factory and the growth in both sales and the number of dealers handling the product. Tabulation and other means should be adopted to show the coverage of the advertising campaign. Details of present and potential markets as revealed by consumer investigation should be given, together with a description of the copy appeals that it is intended to use on the advertising, and how these appeals were selected on the basis of the consumer investigation.

Information should be given as to the various selling schemes that are going to be put into operation in the current season, and also concerning the selling helps, such as counter and window displays, that are available. Photographs of actual window displays should be included.

If possible, testimonials from well-known retailers telling how they profited by selling the product should be reproduced and included. A short account, illustrated with concrete instances, should be given showing why it is advantageous to stock the product, with the object of persuading any wavering retailers to make up their minds.

Finally, proofs of all the advertisements to be run in the current season, together with a list of the papers in which they are to appear, should be inserted in the portfolio as definite examples of what the manufacturer is doing to help dealers.

The salesman should master the contents of this portfolio, so that when he comes to use it in selling to the retailer he will be *au fait* with its contents. Many salesmen are provided, in addition, with a sales manual outlining the exact procedure to be followed in making a sale. This has become a more or less general practice with motor-car manufacturers, but is not generally

justified except when a high-priced product is being sold.

Salesmen should be frequently taken round the factory so that they will understand the manufacturing of the product and be able to pass on their knowledge to retailers who may desire the information.

The advertising plan should contain some reference to incentives which will be used to urge salesmen to greater efforts. Despite certain efforts by well-meaning firms to spur salesmen on to greater efforts by the use of charts showing work of individual salesmen, it still remains to be shown that the greatest incentive a salesman can have is not some appeal to his pocket and his weekly pay-roll. For this reason, it is probably wisest to operate salesmen on a fixed salary plus a commission or a bonus of some sort for increased effort. Sales quotas should be determined for the territories covered by each salesman, and, as far as possible, salesmen should be kept to these quotas with the added incentive of a bonus or prize if the amounts are exceeded.

In determining merchandising policies it may be mentioned incidentally that good results have often attended the procedure of the sales manager making a call at least once a year on leading retailers in company with his salesman. The retailer feels flattered at such attentions, in the first place, and in the second, he feels that the manufacturer, as represented by the sales manager, is taking a personal interest in his problems.

No matter how efficient is the salesman, the selling policy, or the methods and avenues of distribution employed by the manufacturer, these are ineffective if the product is not "right"; therefore, considerations relating to whether the product is "right" or not

should be discussed in the merchandising section of the advertising plan.

Both the retailer and the consumer investigations will reveal in what ways the product is "right," or in what ways it is "wrong," and how it can be made "right." The findings in the investigations should be carefully considered and discussed in this section of the plan. The product should be considered in so far as it can be made "right" for both consumer and dealer.

With regard to the consumer, the product should be discussed with reference to what has been revealed by the consumer investigation, particularly as to how far it fits in with consumer purchasing habits (price and packing, time of purchase), its general suitability for consumer requirements and tastes, and so on.

So far as the retailer is concerned, the product should be considered in terms of what has been brought out in the retail investigation relating to price policy, consumer acceptance, whether the margin of profit is satisfactory or not, the attitude of retailers towards the manufacturer, methods of delivery, units of packing, credit terms, etc.

THE MANUFACTURER, THE RETAILER, AND THE CONSUMER

The second section of the portion of the advertising plan relating to merchandising should deal with the methods adopted or to be adopted by the manufacturer in making the retailer anxious to sell the product to the consumer.

Great help in achieving this object is afforded by the salesman's portfolio in the direction already indicated. Should the retailer find sales resistance already broken down in the mind of the consumer by extensive advertising on the part of the manufacturer, he will be

more anxious to stock up with the line because it will mean less effort on his part to sell to the public. Many retailers co-operate with manufacturers in advertising a product. Manufacturers should endeavour to foster this co-operation, to a much greater extent than has been the practice in the past, by supplying retailers with ample advertisements and blocks, or even meeting them in the matter of cost.

Too much cannot be done to develop the retailers' goodwill towards the manufacturer. Many manufacturers arrange for periodical visits of retailers to their factories; other manufacturers periodically entertain their retailers and at these times make the most of the opportunity to impress upon them the desirability of their product.

The matter of selling schemes and special offers should be carefully considered. Details concerning what has been done in this way by competitors will be revealed by an analysis of the dealer survey.

These schemes should be evaluated and possibly adopted. Many manufacturers give retailers special discounts for extra large sales, either in the form of cash or free goods. Other manufacturers develop selling schemes to arouse consumer interest, and allow retailers special concessions for participating in these schemes.

The question of display should be carefully considered. Retailers should be given every facility for displaying the product both inside their shops and in their windows. Lists of display and other sales material available should be freely circulated among retailers. Frequently manufacturers stage contests among retailers and award prizes for the best displays.

Retailers should be kept well posted with regard to advertising plans in their particular territories, and they should be encouraged to tie up with local advertising

by means of displays at the time when a local campaign is being run. It is a profitable investment to keep them supplied with "pulls" of local advertisements so that these can be displayed either in their windows or in their shops.

Many large manufacturers proceed a step farther and actually teach the staffs of leading retailers how to sell their particular products. When a salesman takes an order he instructs the retailer's selling staff in the points of the products so that the staff will know how to sell to the consumer.

Certain manufacturers have gone to the extent of having special sales instructors to go round among the larger shops, and actually spend a week or longer in instructing the staff in detail how to sell particular products to the consumer.

CHAPTER XIV

THE ADVERTISING PLAN: (b) THE COPY APPEAL

TRADE advertising—Advantages to the retailer—Consumer demand—Consumer advertising—Testing the copy appeal—Essentials in a coupon.

MARKET surveys are planned to cover two aspects: (a) the retailer, and (b) the consumer public. Similarly, advertising and copy appeal must be developed from these two aspects—the one relating to copy to appear in trade papers, and the other relating to journals which the consumer public may reasonably be supposed to read.

TRADE ADVERTISING

While the retailer is interested in reasons why the consumer should use a product, nevertheless it is of equal importance that he should be made to appreciate the reasons why he should stock a particular line of product to sell to the consumer. Advertising which is designed for insertion in trade journals primarily to sell a product to the retailer should, therefore, be aimed at showing reasons why he should purchase stocks. These reasons may in general be classified under two headings—

- (a) Advantages to the retailer.
- (b) Consumer demand.

ADVANTAGES TO THE RETAILER

The two main considerations influencing any retailer in purchasing stock are margin of profit and rate of turnover. Copy appeal in trade papers should, therefore, feature an advantageous margin of profit, or

if the margin is not so good, it may be possible to feature a rapidity of turnover such that no money is tied up in dead stock. To substantiate general statements in the copy relating to profits and turnover, it has often been considered advisable to include references to specific and well-known retailers who have definitely stated how satisfactory they have found the margin of profit or the rate of turnover.

The copy appeal to the trade might also feature the advantage to be obtained by any store stocking a product on account of its popularity or its good quality. Other advantages, such as suitability for display and the amount of display material available, have a definite appeal to the trade.

CONSUMER DEMAND

The market survey will reveal consumer demand for a product. If the retailer can see the possibility of a large consumer demand, it will influence him considerably in laying in large stocks. The results of the market survey showing consumer demand should be included in the retailer copy appeal.

If advertising being developed is such that a large consumer demand will be created for a product, this should be brought before the retailer in trade advertising. Points that will influence him in purchasing stock in this respect are (1) the coverage of the consumer public advertising, i.e. the circulation of the various journals used, with the distribution of that circulation, (2) the copy appeal in the consumer advertising and the principles on which that copy appeal has been developed. Often it is advantageous actually to reproduce a consumer advertisement and analyse it, showing the various principles underlying the copy appeal.

CONSUMER ADVERTISING

The consumer public, as a market for any product, may be classified into four groups—

1. Those who definitely know what they want, and where to get it.
2. Those who definitely know what they want, but do not know where to get it.
3. Those who know, in a vague sort of way, what they need, but have no definite ideas on the subject.
4. Those who do not know if they need the product at all.

With the group who know what they need and where to get it, advertising can do very little; with the second group, consisting of those who know what they need but not where to get it, advertising can only direct them where to get it. The position resembles a man looking for a job and going to the "Positions Vacant" column in the daily paper, or a man wanting a used car and reading the classified motor-car sales column.

The third group, those who have only a vague notion of what they want, offers more opportunity for advertising. To those who have a notion they want tea, it is an opportunity to sell them X's Tea by advertising. To those who have an evil-smelling breath, it is an opportunity to sell them X's products for eliminating it, and so on. The fourth group, consisting of those who do not know what they want, provides the greatest scope for the advertisements, which, first of all, must educate them to the fact that they need a specific product—for instance, draw their attention to the effect of evil-smelling breath and then proceed farther and educate them to the stage where they realize that Y's product is just the thing they should use.

For each of these groups, broadly speaking, a specific type of copy appeal is necessary.

For those who know what they need, but not where to get it, the simple classified advertisement is often sufficient.

Those who have a vague idea of their need, but no specific idea of what they should get to satisfy it, constitute the largest group of consumers. The type of advertisement used is known as "competitive advertising," which aims to persuade this type of consumer to purchase Z's product in preference to Y's or B's.

The group who do not know they need anything have to be educated to the use of a product by advertising, and this type of advertisement is known as "educational advertising." It aims to develop, first, the use of the product, and later, to educate people to use a specific brand of that product.

The ideal advertisement is probably a mixture of the competitive and the educating type. People are already educated to use products like, say, toothpaste. Still, companies like Pepsodent find it wise to educate people to the dangers of a film on the teeth, and, at the same time, by competitive advertising, they stress the advantages they believe Pepsodent has over all other products. Flour is a universally used product and probably demands more stress being laid on the competitive factor. Some years ago, however, manufacturers spent a lot of money educating people to new uses of self-raising flour. That done, the various manufacturers of self-raising flour proceeded to stress the value of their own particular brand.

The principles underlying the copy appeal directed at any one or all of these groups of consumers should be determined on the basis of facts revealed by the consumer market survey. The consumer market survey will reveal whether the consumer public have to be educated to the use of the type of product or whether

they have to be convinced that one brand of product is more desirable than another.

The consumer survey will reveal why people purchase a product, what particular features they like about it, who is the largest user, and how and when it is used most generally. These factors must be taken into account when determining the principles to be developed in the copy appeal.

Copy appeal has tended more and more away from the general and more and more towards the specific. The modern copy appeal is based on facts scientifically arrived at through market surveys and supplemented in actual wording by suggestions as to (a) prestige, (b) scientific endorsement, or (c) popular endorsement.

The prestige of a brand of product will be revealed by the number of persons interviewed during a market survey who use it and report favourably as to their impressions. On the basis of this are found headlines reading: "90 per cent of women use X toilet soap." "Seven out of every eight leading tennis players use Z balls," and so on.

Scientific endorsement of a product in a copy appeal is provided by evidence from scientists, doctors, or other authorities as to the qualities of a product as revealed by tests they have made or experience they have had in its actual use. Alternatively, emphasis may be placed in the copy appeal on the scientific principles followed in the manufacture of the product, followed by a scientific discussion of the objects it is aimed to achieve for the person purchasing the product. Following this procedure are found the Pepsodent advertisements discussing the elimination of film from the teeth, the medical endorsement of Horlick's Malted Milk, and so on.

Popular endorsement is provided in a copy appeal

by a reference to well-known persons who have used the product and recommend it, or well-known institutions where the product is used. An example of this is provided in the "personality" advertising that has been developed for Palmolive Soap.

TESTING THE COPY APPEAL

The copy appeal, when developed, may be tested in a variety of ways. One of the most common methods is to run each of several copy appeals in newspapers in selected territories and to watch their effect on sales before using any one as the basis of a national campaign.

Another method is to embody each copy appeal in a series of letters. Each letter may be sent out to, say, 1,000 possible consumers and may, at its conclusion, embody a request that the recipient will write back for a sample of the product. It may be held that the letter which brings back the largest number of replies gives some indication of the most effective copy appeal.

The third and most commonly used method of testing a copy appeal is to include in each advertisement a coupon which, when cut out and sent to the manufacturer ensures the dispatch of a sample of the product free of charge to the sender. These coupons are keyed according to the copy appeal of the advertisement—usually by the headline. It is claimed that some indication as to the effectiveness of the various copy appeals will be afforded by the number of coupon returns received from each advertisement.

ESSENTIALS IN A COUPON

Many advertisements contain coupons that do not fulfil the purpose for which they were intended. There

are four main essentials which should always be considered when including a coupon in the lay-out of an advertisement.

1. The coupon should provide ample space for the senders to write in their names and addresses. This will eliminate office time. In addition, a person considering the filling in of a coupon may be discouraged by the impossibility of filling his name in a small space.

2. The coupon should be prominent enough for people to be able to pick it out at a glance, but it must not be given so much prominence as to overshadow the appeal in the selling copy of the advertisement.

3. The coupon should explain, clearly and briefly, what it can do for the sender.

4. If possible, some effort should be made by means of the coupon to obtain information about the sender, such that replies can be graded according to occupation or some other classification, and also such that undesirable inquiries can be eliminated.

CHAPTER XV

SOURCES OF WASTE IN ADVERTISING

RESEARCH—The product—The market—The appropriation—The advertising—Merchandising.

THE main sources of waste in merchandising and advertising may be classified under six headings—

1. Research.
2. The product.
3. The market.
4. The advertising appropriation.
5. The actual advertising.
6. Merchandising.

RESEARCH

Experience alone can enable an exact estimate to be formed as to how much and what type of research is necessary to arrive at a true picture of the market in which it is proposed to merchandise a product. There is usually a tendency in the first place to interview too many consumers. By testing variations in the quality of replies given by various numbers of persons it is possible to determine what number should be interviewed in order to obtain an accurate and typical picture of tendencies. Usually, this number is between one and two hundred persons. If fewer than this are interviewed the picture will not be typical. If more are interviewed the picture obtained will not be in any degree different. Another aspect of research involving a great deal of wasted money is the spending of time on problems which are not pertinent to the merchandising of the product. There is often a temptation to follow up points which may be of interest but which

actually have little or no bearing on the major problems involved.

In the chapters dealing with research the suggestion was made that often a great deal of investigation and research can be saved by a study of what has been done by others on a problem similar to that under consideration. If the research has been done before, much can be learnt from the results obtained by other investigators—so much that often it is unnecessary to institute a new research at all.

THE PRODUCT

In the first place, if research has determined that the product is unsuitable, it is waste of money to proceed farther and advertise the product.

In the second place, if the product has not been completely considered in its relation to a market, the possibility of wasted advertising will present itself.

THE MARKET

Research reveals which markets are suitable and which are unsuitable. Advertising directed to sell a product in markets proved unsuitable is waste of effort. As the result of research, style trends will be revealed. Advertising should follow style trends and so take the line of least resistance; advertising which proceeds in opposition to style trends will have more resistance to overcome, and so there will be more danger of its being ineffective.

The market survey reveals market peaks. Advertising must be directed towards achieving sales at peaks of market periods. This is particularly concerned with the fact of seasonal variations—the most effective advertising is that which takes advantage of seasonal and other fluctuations. This also means that

advertising should boom when business is good. Many an advertiser has lamented—too late—his failure to advertise during times when business is good. Conversely, advertising should be maintained when business is bad, for the reason that goodwill should be retained. Failure to advertise during depression means the loss of goodwill which may be invaluable when good times return.

THE APPROPRIATION

Many advertisers spend too much money in merchandising their products—others spend too little. Both attitudes represent a waste. The appropriation should be arrived at as a percentage of estimated sales or by some other means that will ensure a due amount of money being spent in advertising.

THE ADVERTISING

All advertising should be developed with some definite purpose in view—advertising without a purpose is wasted advertising. Firstly, advertising should be linked up with sales effort, but on the other hand it should not be expected to achieve what a salesman can do better. Much wasted advertising results from a lack of proper co-ordination between the sales and the publicity departments of an organization. Secondly, each portion of a campaign should be linked up with the remainder; any item in a campaign not linked up in this way loses in its effectiveness, and this represents a waste.

Each line represented in a campaign should be adequately advertised—no one line should be featured to the disadvantage of other lines.

In many cases the temptation is strong to use advertisements which have been a success under circumstances different from those existing in the

campaign under consideration. Different circumstances may render these successful advertisements particularly unsuitable.

Vanity is a great factor in influencing advertisers in their selection of advertisements. An advertisement developed to satisfy vanity rather than to accord with a definite merchandising scheme may be regarded as waste. Similarly, advertising managers often fritter away money on advertisements which are of interest to them but not to the people whom they wish to influence in the purchase of the product.

Competitors, by organizing good campaigns, often influence advertisers to follow suit rather than to develop a sound campaign of their own. Advertising to match a competitor proves wasteful in the end.

At times advertisers purchase random ideas which have no place in the programme. Being unrelated to the main programme they lose effectiveness and, in addition, detract from the main scheme by making a break in it.

Often the principles involved in an advertisement are unsound. This selling of unsound principles—the selling of unsound and illogical reasoning—represents wasted effort.

In many advertisements the copy sells the product all right but fails to keep it sold. The aim of all good advertising is to keep a product sold. If the product does not live up to the standards on which it is sold in the copy, the advertising has ultimately proved to be of little value.

Many a campaign is just waste because the copywriter has selected the wrong points to talk about—he has wasted time on non-essentials and has failed to discriminate between good and bad selling points.

Copywriters are frequently called upon to show

originality. As a result of explicit instructions of this kind, the advertising may become forced—it may strive rather to make a hit than to sell goods. It may affect the mind of the reader because of its extraordinary nature, but not in such a way that he feels called upon to purchase the product. Most of the fantastic in advertising, even though it gains the attention of the reader, is waste, because the selling points of the product are overshadowed.

Copy should be brief and should not tire or confuse the reader. Advertisements often lose effect by being too lengthy, too indirect, and too tiresome to the reader. There should be no necessity for the reader to puzzle his brain before he can understand what an advertisement is aiming to convey; by being direct and dramatic the ideal advertisement arouses the reader to immediate action—advertising that does not have this effect does not fulfil its fundamental purpose.

The most successful advertising is that which has a personal appeal to the reader. The more personal the appeal an advertisement makes to a reader, the more it is going to stir him to action, and so the more effective it is going to be. If an advertisement fails in its personal appeal it fails to sell.

MERCHANDISING

Advertising and distribution complement each other. Advertising where distribution is weak represents waste, because the demand it creates cannot be satisfied. Distribution should always precede advertising.

Modern advertising has become more and more allied to merchandising. The manufacturer who advertises and does not persuade his retailers to tie up with his advertising by themselves advertising, by utilizing window displays during the manufacturer's campaign,

by distributing leaflets and so on, is losing the effectiveness of his own campaign.

In merchandising a product the manufacturer can waste a great deal of money in the selection of the wrong media, i.e. by selecting media that duplicate each other, or by selecting media that cover the wrong market and the wrong people.

The manufacturer should make sure that the maximum use is made by the retailer of his advertising. Retailers should be kept informed as to advertising schedules; they should be educated as to the story behind the advertising, and should be kept well supplied with proofs, etc., of the actual advertisements scheduled.

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DATE OF ISSUE

This book must be returned within 3, 7, 14 days of its issue. A fine of ONE ANNA per day will be charged if the book is overdue.

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