chapter 3
Focusing Marketing Strategy with Segmentation and Positioning

When You Finish This Chapter, You Should

1. Understand why marketing strategy planning involves a process of narrowing down from broad opportunities to a specific target market and marketing mix.

2. Know about the different kinds of marketing opportunities.

3. Understand why opportunities in international markets should be considered.


5. Know what market segmentation is and how to segment product-markets into submarkets.

6. Know three approaches to market-oriented strategy planning.

7. Know dimensions that may be useful for segmenting markets.

8. Know what positioning is—and why it is useful.

9. Understand the important new terms (shown in red).
When personal computers first came on the scene, early business users needed a fast way to get quality “hard copy” of the text, spreadsheets, and graphs pumped out by their software. Hewlett-Packard (HP) quickly recognized this need and came out with its LaserJet brand printer.

HP’s unique LaserJet was so flexible that it virtually created the desktop publishing boom. By the time competitors came along, HP offered even better printers, including high-capacity models for firms with computer networks. When HP’s marketers saw fast growth in home computing, they targeted new easy-to-use models at families. To reach this segment at a lower price, HP sent its salespeople to convince discount retailers to carry the printers. Many agreed to do just that—because the printers were a good value and HP’s publicity, sales promotions, and ads attracted customers who were ready to buy. When Microsoft’s Windows software showed consumers the possibilities of color computing, HP was again ready. Its R&D on inkjet technology pioneered a new way for customers to do low-cost color printing. As a result, HP’s inkjets are the color leaders, and LaserJets still capture 60 percent of all laser printer sales. HP is truly the king of computer printing.

However, it’s not just because of these past successes that the top executive at HP is smiling when he prints out his digital self-portrait. Rather, it’s because HP is now making hefty profits with a new strategy that targets innovators who want to use computers for digital color photography. HP is meeting their needs with its line of PhotoSmart scanners, printers, and digital cameras. HP marketers believe that color digital imaging and printing will ultimately change how people think about photography—and about HP.

Can HP compete with a photo giant like Kodak? Clearly, Kodak is positioned in consumers’ minds as the leader in photography. Ads constantly remind us that “a Kodak moment” is about great pictures. One-hour photo labs are everywhere. They develop Kodak film and print it on Kodak paper for about 20 cents a snapshot. Many will even put pictures in digital form on a computer disk. HP has other disadvantages in the photographic battle. The quality of photos printed on the HP PhotoSmart printer is not quite as good. The colors don’t last as well. The cost is twice as high. And printing pictures is slow. On the other hand, HP isn’t immediately trying to meet all photography needs. Rather, it is focusing on specific target markets with needs that Kodak does not meet.

For example, many people want a quick and easy way to print photographs that they can download from the Internet. Similarly, Internet e-mail makes it cost less to send digital photos...
to friends or business contacts all over the world. A real estate agent can, for example, instantly send a picture of a house to a client in a distant city. Many photo buffs want to alter photographs on the computer, perhaps to include them in reports, brochures, and ads. Even kids like to make their own greeting cards, calendars, and brochures. Local photo labs don’t address these needs, and Kodak doesn’t (yet) produce a color printer. In contrast, HP has many different PhotoSmart printers for different needs. Large format printers make poster-size photos and graphics needed for business presentations and advertising. Printers for kids come with video tutorials on a computer CD. HP is even moving into printers that work without a computer. One PhotoSmart printer hooks directly to a digital camera. Another connects to Microsoft’s WebTV set-top control box. HP is working on a printer that plugs into a telephone line. Then, publishers who want to use electronic delivery will be able to “call” a subscriber’s printer—thereby wiping out the delays and cost of printing and mailing.

Some of these markets are not large, but they are growing fast and creating opportunities that HP is turning into profitable strategies. For example, each customer who buys an HP PhotoSmart printer uses ink cartridges and special paper. Selling these replacement supplies gives HP a profitable ongoing relationship with the customer. In fact, inkjet supplies now produce an amazing 25 percent of HP’s total profits! And this is just the beginning. HP’s marketing research says that sales of supplies will double if current users print just one extra color page per week.

HP marketers know that they need the right marketing mix to achieve HP’s growth objectives. So, they hope to extend distribution of inkjet cartridges—through 100,000 supermarkets, drugstores, and mass-merchandisers. That’s a big increase—more than 10 times the number of computer and office-supply stores that currently carry them. At the same time, HP is looking for ways to reduce the $30 price for a cartridge to about the cost of a roll of film. Of course, product development also continues. This includes new inks with better colors, more precise print heads, and Internet technologies that will make it easier to distribute pictures over the Internet. Finding new uses will also expand the market. One novel example: HP is working on a digital camera combined with a cellular phone that will allow a user to take a picture, instantly upload it to the Internet, and send it somewhere else to be printed.

Marketers at HP might have missed opportunities related to photography if they had just defined markets in terms of computer products the company was already producing. Instead, they’re focused on the changing needs of different segments of customers—and innovative ways HP can leverage its strengths to serve these customers. In the future, as HP attacks other photographic markets, it will face new challenges and tougher competition. But, if it can continue to spot opportunities and convert them into creative new marketing strategies, the future will be bright.¹
Marketing strategy planning tries to match opportunities to the firm’s resources (what it can do) and its objectives (what top management wants to do). Successful strategies get their start when a creative manager spots an attractive market opportunity. Yet, an opportunity that is attractive for one firm may not be attractive for another. As the Hewlett-Packard case suggests, attractive opportunities for a particular firm are those that the firm has some chance of doing something about—given its resources and objectives.

Throughout this book, we will emphasize finding breakthrough opportunities—opportunities that help innovators develop hard-to-copy marketing strategies that will be very profitable for a long time. That’s important because there are always imitators who want to “share” the innovator’s profits—if they can. It’s hard to continuously provide superior value to target customers if competitors can easily copy your marketing mix.

Even if a manager can’t find a breakthrough opportunity, the firm should try to obtain a competitive advantage to increase its chances for profit or survival. Competitive advantage means that a firm has a marketing mix that the target market sees as better than a competitor’s mix. A competitive advantage may result from efforts in different areas of the firm—cost cutting in production, innovative R&D, more effective purchasing of needed components, or financing for a new distribution facility. Similarly, a strong sales force, a well-known brand name, or good dealers may give it a competitive advantage in pursuing an opportunity. Whatever the source, an advantage only succeeds if it allows the firm to provide superior value and satisfy customers better than some competitor.

Sometimes a firm can achieve breakthrough opportunities and competitive advantage by simply fine-tuning its current marketing mix(es) or developing closer relationships with its customers. Other times it may need new facilities, new people in new parts of the world, and totally new ways of solving problems. But every firm needs some competitive advantage—so the promotion people have something unique to sell and success doesn’t just hinge on offering lower and lower prices. 

What Are Attractive Opportunities?

Breakthrough opportunities are best

Competitive advantage is needed—at least
You can see why a manager should seek attractive opportunities. But that doesn’t mean that everyone does—or that everyone can turn an opportunity into a successful strategy. As we discussed in Chapter 2 (Exhibit 2–12), too many firms settle for the sort of death-wish marketing that doesn’t satisfy customers or make a profit—to say nothing about achieving a breakthrough or providing superior value. It’s all too easy for a well-intentioned manager to react in a piecemeal way to what appears to be an opportunity. Then, by the time the problems are obvious, it’s too late.

Developing a successful marketing strategy doesn’t need to be a hit-or-miss proposition. And it won’t be if you learn the marketing strategy planning process developed in this text. Exhibit 3–1 summarizes the decision areas for the marketing strategy planning process we’ll be developing throughout the rest of the chapters.

From Chapter 2, you know that a marketing strategy requires decisions about the specific customers the firm will target and the marketing mix the firm will develop to appeal to that target market. We can organize the many marketing mix decisions (review Exhibit 2–8) in terms of the four Ps—Product, Place, Promotion, and Price. Thus, the “final” strategy decisions are represented by the target market surrounded by the four Ps. However, the idea isn’t just to come up with some strategy. After all, there are hundreds or even thousands of combinations of marketing mix decisions and target markets (i.e., strategies) that a firm might try. Rather, the challenge is to zero in on the best strategy.

As Exhibit 3–1 suggests, it is useful to think of the marketing strategy planning process as a narrowing-down process. Later in this chapter and Chapter 4 we will go into more detail about strategy decisions relevant to each of the terms in this figure. Then, throughout the rest of the book, we will present a variety of concepts and “how to” frameworks that will help you improve the way you make these strategy decisions. As a preview of what’s coming, let’s briefly overview the general logic of the process depicted in Exhibit 3–1.

The process starts with a broad look at a market—paying special attention to customer needs, the firm’s objectives and resources, and competitors. This helps to identify new and unique opportunities that might be overlooked if the focus is narrowed too quickly.

A key objective of marketing is to satisfy the needs of some group of customers that the firm serves. Broadly speaking, then, in the early stages of a search for opportunities we’re looking for customers with needs that are not being satisfied as well as they might be. Of course, potential customers are not all alike. They don’t all have the same needs—nor do they always want to meet needs in the same way. Part of the reason is that there are different possible types of customers with many different characteristics. For example, individual consumers often have different needs than organizations, and people with certain attitudes or interests have different preferences for how they spend their time, what shows they watch, and the like. In spite of the many possible differences, there often are subgroups (segments) of consumers who are similar and could be satisfied with the same marketing mix. Thus, we try to identify and understand these different subgroups—with market segmentation. We will explain general approaches for segmenting markets later in this chapter. Then, in Chapters 5 to 7, we delve into the many interesting aspects of customer behavior. For now, however, you should know that really understanding customers is at the heart of using market segmentation to narrow down to a spe-
A specific target market. In other words, segmentation helps a manager decide to serve some segment(s)—subgroups of customers—and not others.

A marketing mix must meet the needs of target customers, but a firm isn’t likely to get a competitive advantage if it just meets needs in the same way as some other firm. So, in evaluating possible strategies the marketing manager should think about whether there is a way to differentiate the marketing mix. **Differentiation** means that the marketing mix is distinct from and better than what is available from a competitor. As suggested above, differentiation often requires that the firm fine-tune all of the elements of its marketing mix to the specific needs of a distinctive target market. Sometimes the difference is based mainly on one important element of the marketing mix—say, an improved product or faster delivery. Differentiation is more obvious to target customers, though, when there is a consistent theme integrated across the four Ps decision areas. That emphasizes the difference so target customers will think of the firm as being in a unique position to meet their needs. In this chapter, we’ll introduce concepts relevant to this sort of positioning. Then, in Chapters 9 to 18 we’ll cover the many ways in which the four Ps of the marketing mix can be differentiated. For now, you can see that the thrust is to narrow down from all possible marketing mixes to one that is differentiated to meet target customers’ needs particularly well. Of course, finding the best differentiation requires that we understand competitors as well as customers.

There are usually more different opportunities—and strategy possibilities—than a firm can pursue. Each one has its own advantages and disadvantages. Trends in the external market environment may make a potential opportunity more or less attractive. These complications can make it difficult to zero in on the best target market and marketing mix. However, developing a set of specific qualitative and quantitative screening criteria can help a manager define what business and markets the firm wants to compete in. It can also help eliminate potential strategies that are not well suited for the firm. We will cover screening criteria in more detail in Chapter 4. For now, you should realize that the criteria you select in a specific situation grow out of an analysis of the company’s objectives and resources.
A useful aid for identifying relevant screening criteria and for zeroing in on a feasible strategy is **S.W.O.T. analysis**—which identifies and lists the firm’s strengths and weaknesses and its opportunities and threats. The name S.W.O.T. is simply an abbreviation for the first letters of the words strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. A good S.W.O.T. analysis helps the manager focus on a strategy that takes advantage of the firm’s opportunities and strengths while avoiding its weaknesses and threats to its success. These can be compared with the pros and cons of different strategies that are considered.

Exhibit 3–1 focuses on planning each strategy carefully. Of course, this same approach works well when several strategies are to be planned. Then, having an organized evaluation process is even more important. It forces everyone involved to think through how the various strategies fit together as part of an overall marketing program.

The discussion above makes it clear that finding attractive target markets is a crucial aspect of the marketing strategy planning process. But how do you identify a target market and decide if it offers good opportunities? In the rest of this chapter, we will begin to answer these questions. Opportunities that involve international markets present some special challenges, so we’ll give them some special attention.³

### Types of Opportunities to Pursue

Some alert marketers seem to be able to spot attractive opportunities everywhere they look. This seems reasonable when you recognize that most people have unsatisfied needs. Unfortunately, some opportunities seem “obvious” only after someone else identifies them. So, early in the marketing strategy planning process it’s useful for marketers to have a framework for thinking about the broad kinds of opportunities they may find. Exhibit 3–2 shows four broad possibilities: market penetration, market development, product development, and diversification. We will look at these separately, but some firms may pursue more than one type of opportunity at the same time.

**Market penetration** means trying to increase sales of a firm’s present products in its present markets—probably through a more aggressive marketing mix. The firm may try to strengthen its relationship with customers to increase their rate of use or repeat purchases, or try to attract competitors’ customers or current nonusers. For example, Visa increased advertising to encourage customers to use its card when they travel. The ads show interesting places and remind you to take a Visa card because “they don’t accept American Express.”

New promotion appeals alone may not be effective. A firm may need to add a home page on the Internet to make it easier and faster for customers to place an order. Or, it may need to add more stores in present areas for greater convenience. Short-term price cuts or coupon offers may help.

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<tr>
<th>Present products</th>
<th>New products</th>
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<tr>
<td>Present markets</td>
<td>Market penetration</td>
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<td>New markets</td>
<td>Market development</td>
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Market development

**Market development** means trying to increase sales by selling present products in new markets. Firms may try advertising in different media to reach new target customers. Or they may add channels of distribution or new stores in new areas, including overseas. For example, to reach new customers, McDonald's has opened outlets in about 800 Wal-Mart stores. It has also put them in airports, office buildings, zoos, casinos, hospitals, and military bases. And it's rapidly expanding into international markets with outlets in places like Russia, Brazil, Hong Kong, Mexico, and Australia.

**Internet exercise**  McDonald's has about 22,000 restaurants in 109 countries. Go to its web site, www.mcdonalds.com, and determine what country is its largest market outside the U.S. Do you think it offers more or less opportunity for future growth than the U.S.?

Internet

Market development may also involve searching for new uses for a product, as when Lipton provides recipes showing how to use its dry soup mixes for chip dip.

Product development

**Product development** means offering new or improved products for present markets. By knowing the present market's needs, a firm may see new ways to satisfy customers. Computer software firms like Microsoft boost sales by introducing new versions of popular programs. Microsoft also develops other types of new products for its customers, including the Microsoft Network dial-up service for Internet access. Similarly, many ski resorts have developed trails for hiking and mountain bikes, to bring their ski customers back in the summer when the snow is gone.

Diversification

**Diversification** means moving into totally different lines of business—perhaps entirely unfamiliar products, markets, or even levels in the production-marketing system. Until recently, the Coleman name has been nearly synonymous with camping gear. Now, however, Coleman has added a line of air compressors that are used to drive power tools. The compressors are of interest primarily to building contractors rather than the outdoor enthusiasts market with which Coleman has been so successful in the past.

Which opportunities come first?

Usually firms find attractive opportunities fairly close to markets they already know. This may allow them to capitalize on changes in their present markets—or more basic changes in the external environment. Moreover, many firms are finding that the easiest way to increase profits is to do a better job of hanging onto the customers that they've already won—by meeting their needs so well that they wouldn't consider switching to another firm.

For these reasons, most firms think first of greater market penetration. They want to increase profits where they already have experience and strengths. On the other hand, many firms are proving that market development—and the move into new international markets—is another profitable way to take advantage of current strengths.
It’s easy for a marketing manager to fall into the trap of ignoring international markets, especially when the firm’s domestic market is prosperous. Yet, there are good reasons to go to the trouble of looking elsewhere for opportunities. International trade is increasing all around the world, and trade barriers are coming down. In addition, advances in transportation and communications are making it easier and cheaper to reach international customers. With an Internet web site, even the smallest firm can provide international customers with a great deal of information—and easy ways to order—at very little expense. E-mail communications and interactive electronic ordering on the Internet are fast and efficient whether the customer is a mile away or in another country. Around the world, potential customers have needs and money to spend. The real question is whether a firm can effectively use its resources to meet these customers’ needs at a profit.

If customers in other countries are interested in the products a firm offers—or could offer—serving them may improve economies of scale. Lower costs (and prices) may give a firm a competitive advantage both in its home markets and abroad. Black and Decker, for example, uses electric motors in many of its tools and appliances. By selling overseas as well as in the U.S., it gets economies of scale and the cost per motor is very low.

Marketing managers who are only interested in the “convenient” customers in their own backyards may be rudely surprised to find that an aggressive, low-cost foreign producer is willing to pursue those customers—even if doing it is not convenient. Many companies that thought they could avoid the struggles of international competition have learned this lesson the hard way. For example, most regional producers of car tires in the U.S. have disappeared because foreign firms with tire sales in many countries could offer better quality at lower prices.

Different countries are at different stages of economic and technological development, and their consumers have different needs at different times. A company facing tough competition, thin profit margins, and slow sales growth at home may get a fresh start in another country where demand for its product is just beginning to grow. A marketing manager may be able to “transfer” marketing know-how—or some other competitive advantage—the firm has already developed.
Consider Cybex, a small company that sells exercise equipment. In the U.S., Cybex faced slow growth and intense competition. But in many other countries, demand was still growing because consumer interest in fitness started later. So export sales to 30 foreign markets became a key to Cybex's profits.\(^5\)

Unfavorable trends in the marketing environment at home—or favorable trends in other countries—may make international marketing particularly attractive. For example, population growth in the United States has slowed and income is leveling off. In other places in the world, population and income are increasing rapidly. Many U.S. firms can no longer rely on the constant market growth that once drove increased domestic sales. Growth—and perhaps even survival—will come only by aiming at more distant customers. It doesn't make sense to casually assume that all of the best opportunities exist “at home.”

**Find better trends in variables**

A marketing manager who really understands a target market may see breakthrough opportunities. But a target market’s real needs—and the breakthrough opportunities that can come from serving those needs—are not always obvious.

**Breakthrough opportunities from understanding target markets**

Identifying a company's market is an important but sticky issue. In general, a market is a group of potential customers with similar needs who are willing to exchange something of value with sellers offering various goods and/or services—that is, ways of satisfying those needs.

Marketing-oriented managers develop marketing mixes for specific target markets. Getting the firm to focus on specific target markets is vital. As shown in Exhibit 3–3, deciding on a specific target market involves a “narrowing-down” process—to get beyond production-oriented mass market thinking. But some managers don't understand this narrowing-down process.

**What is a company's market?**

Some production-oriented managers get into trouble because they ignore the tough part of defining markets. To make the narrowing-down process easier, they just describe their markets in terms of products they sell. For example, producers and

**Don't just focus on the product**

Different fax companies may compete with each other in the same product-market—and with overnight carriers in a broader generic market. Reynolds Wrap aluminum foil competes with other aluminum foils in its product-market—and with plastic zipper bags and Tupperware sandwich containers in a broader generic market.
retailers of greeting cards might define their market as the “greeting-card” market. But this production-oriented approach ignores customers—and customers make a market! This also leads to missed opportunities. Hallmark isn’t missing these opportunities. Instead, Hallmark aims at the “personal-expression” market. Hallmark stores offer all kinds of products that can be sent as “memory makers”—to express one person’s feelings toward another. And as opportunities related to these needs change, Hallmark is changing too. For example, from the Hallmark web page (www.hallmark.com) it is easy for computer users to create a custom electronic “greeting card” and send it by e-mail over the Internet.6

To understand the narrowing down process, it’s useful to think of two basic types of markets. A **generic market** is a market with broadly similar needs—and sellers offering various—often diverse—ways of satisfying those needs. In contrast, a **product-market** is a market with very similar needs and sellers offering various close substitute ways of satisfying those needs.7

A generic market description looks at markets broadly and from a customer’s viewpoint. Entertainment-seekers, for example, have several very different ways to satisfy their needs. An entertainment-seeker might buy a new Sony satellite receiving system for a TV, sign up for a Lindblad tour, or reserve season tickets for the symphony. Any one of these very different products may satisfy this entertainment need. Sellers in this generic entertainment-seeker market have to focus on the need(s) the customers want satisfied—not on how one seller’s product (satellite dish, vacation, or live music) is better than that of another producer.

It is sometimes hard to understand and define generic markets because quite different product types may compete with each other. For example, freelance journalists often need a fast, worry-free way to get articles to their editors. Sanyo’s fax machines, FedEx’s overnight service, and America Online’s Internet-based e-mail service may all compete to serve our journalists’ needs. If customers see all these products as substitutes—as competitors in the same generic market—then marketers must deal with this complication.

Suppose, however, that one of our journalists decides to satisfy this need with a fax machine. Then—in this product-market—Ricoh, Hewlett-Packard, Samsung, and many other brands may compete with each other for the customer’s dollars. In this product-market concerned with fax machines and needs to reduce worry, consumers compare similar products to satisfy their communication needs.
Broader market definitions—including both generic market definitions and product-market definitions—can help firms find opportunities. But deciding how broad to go isn’t easy. Too narrow a definition limits a firm’s opportunities—but too broad a definition makes the company’s efforts and resources seem insignificant.

Here we try to match opportunities to a firm’s resources and objectives. So the relevant market for finding opportunities should be bigger than the firm’s present product-market—but not so big that the firm couldn’t expand and be an important competitor. A small manufacturer of screwdrivers in Mexico, for example, shouldn’t define its market as broadly as “the worldwide tool users market” or as narrowly as “our present screwdriver customers.” But it may have the production and/or marketing potential to consider “the handyman’s hand-tool market in North America.” Carefully naming your product-market can help you see possible opportunities.

Naming Product-Markets and Generic Markets

Product-related terms do not—by themselves—adequately describe a market. A complete product-market definition includes a four-part description.

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<tr>
<th>What:</th>
<th>1. Product type (type of good and type of service)</th>
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<tr>
<td>To meet what:</td>
<td>2. Customer (user) needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For whom:</td>
<td>3. Customer types</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where:</td>
<td>4. Geographic area</td>
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We refer to these four-part descriptions as product-market “names” because most managers label their markets when they think, write, or talk about them. Such a four-part definition can be clumsy, however, so we often use a nickname. And the nickname should refer to people—not products—because, as we emphasize, people make markets!

Product type describes the goods and/or services that customers want. Sometimes the product type is strictly a physical good or strictly a service. But marketing managers who ignore the possibility that both are important can miss opportunities.
Customer (user) needs refer to the needs the product type satisfies for the customer. At a very basic level, product types usually provide functional benefits such as nourishing, protecting, warming, cooling, transporting, cleaning, holding, saving time, and so forth. Although we need to identify such “basic” needs first, in advanced economies, we usually go on to emotional needs—such as needs for fun, excitement, pleasing appearance, or status. Correctly defining the need(s) relevant to a market is crucial and requires a good understanding of customers. We discuss these topics more fully in Chapters 6 and 7.

Customer type refers to the final consumer or user of a product type. Here we want to choose a name that describes all present (possible) types of customers. To define customer type, marketers should identify the final consumer or user of the product type, rather than the buyer—if they are different. For instance, producers should avoid treating middlemen as a customer type—unless middlemen actually use the product in their own business.

The geographic area is where a firm competes—or plans to compete—for customers. Naming the geographic area may seem trivial, but understanding geographic boundaries of a market can suggest new opportunities. A firm aiming only at the domestic market, for example, may want to expand into world markets.

A generic market description doesn’t include any product-type terms. It consists of only three parts of the product-market definition—without the product type. This emphasizes that any product type that satisfies the customer’s needs can compete in a generic market. Exhibit 3–4 shows the relationship between generic market and product-market definitions.

Later we’ll study the many possible dimensions for segmenting markets. But for now you should see that defining markets only in terms of current products is not the best way to find new opportunities.

Market Segmentation Defines Possible Target Markets

Market segmentation is a two-step process of: (1) naming broad product-markets and (2) segmenting these broad product-markets in order to select target markets and develop suitable marketing mixes.

This two-step process isn’t well understood. First-time market segmentation efforts often fail because beginners start with the whole mass market and try to find one or two demographic characteristics to segment this market. Customer behavior is usually too complex to be explained in terms of just one or two demographic
characteristics. For example, not all elderly men buy the same products or brands. Other dimensions usually must be considered—starting with customer needs.

The first step in effective market segmentation involves naming a broad product-market of interest to the firm. Marketers must “break apart”—disaggregate—all possible needs into some generic markets and broad product-markets in which the firm may be able to operate profitably. See Exhibit 3–3. No one firm can satisfy everyone’s needs. So the naming—disaggregating—step involves “brainstorming” about very different solutions to various generic needs and selecting some broad areas—broad product-markets—where the firm has some resources and experience. This means that a car manufacturer would probably ignore all the possible opportunities in food and clothing markets and focus on the generic market, “transporting people in the world,” and probably on the broad product-market, “cars, trucks, and utility vehicles for transporting people in the world.”

Disaggregating, a practical rough-and-ready approach, tries to narrow down the marketing focus to product-market areas where the firm is more likely to have a competitive advantage—or even to find breakthrough opportunities.

Assuming that any broad product-market (or generic market) may consist of sub-markets, picture a market as a rectangle with boxes that represent the smaller, more homogeneous product-markets.

Exhibit 3–5, for example, represents the broad product-market of bicycle riders. The boxes show different submarkets. One submarket might focus on people who want basic transportation, another on people who want exercise, and so on. Alternatively, in the generic “transporting market” discussed above, we might see different product-markets of customers for bicycles, motorcycles, cars, airplanes, ships, buses, and “others.”

Marketing-oriented managers think of segmenting as an aggregating process—clustering people with similar needs into a “market segment.” A market segment is a (relatively) homogeneous group of customers who will respond to a marketing mix in a similar way.
This part of the market segmentation process (see Exhibit 3–3) takes a different approach than the naming part. Here we look for similarities rather than basic differences in needs. Segmenters start with the idea that each person is one of a kind but that it may be possible to aggregate some similar people into a product-market.

Segmenters see each of these one-of-a-kind people as having a unique set of dimensions. Consider a product-market in which customers' needs differ on two important segmenting dimensions: need for status and need for dependability. In Exhibit 3–6A, each dot shows a person's position on the two dimensions. While each person's position is unique, many of these people are similar in terms of how much status and dependability they want. So a segmenter may aggregate them into three (an arbitrary number) relatively homogeneous submarkets—A, B, and C. Group A might be called "status-oriented" and Group C "dependability-oriented." Members of Group B want both and might be called the "demanders."

The segmenter wants to aggregate individual customers into some workable number of relatively homogeneous target markets—and then treat each target market differently.

Look again at Exhibit 3–6A. Remember we talked about three segments. But this was an arbitrary number. As Exhibit 3–6B shows, there may really be six segments. What do you think—does this broad product-market consist of three segments or six?

Another difficulty with segmenting is that some potential customers just don't fit neatly into market segments. For example, not everyone in Exhibit 3–6B was put into one of the groups. Forcing them into one of the groups would have made these segments more heterogeneous—and harder to please. Further, forming additional segments for them probably wouldn't be profitable. They are too few and not very similar in terms of the two dimensions. These people are simply too unique to be catered to and may have to be ignored—unless they are willing to pay a high price for special treatment.

The number of segments that should be formed depends more on judgment than on some scientific rule. But the following guidelines can help.
Ideally, “good” market segments meet the following criteria:

1. **Homogeneous (similar) within**—the customers in a market segment should be as similar as possible with respect to their likely responses to marketing mix variables and their segmenting dimensions.

2. **Heterogeneous (different) between**—the customers in different segments should be as different as possible with respect to their likely responses to marketing mix variables and their segmenting dimensions.

3. **Substantial**—the segment should be big enough to be profitable.

4. **Operational**—the segmenting dimensions should be useful for identifying customers and deciding on marketing mix variables.

It is especially important that segments be *operational*. This leads marketers to include demographic dimensions such as age, income, location, and family size. In fact, it is difficult to make some Place and Promotion decisions without such information.

Avoid segmenting dimensions that have no practical operational use. For example, you may find a personality trait such as moodiness among the traits of heavy buyers of a product, but how could you use this fact? Salespeople can’t give a personality test to each buyer. Similarly, advertising couldn’t make much use of this information. So although moodiness might be related in some way to previous purchases, it would not be a useful dimension for segmenting.

Once you accept the idea that broad product-markets may have submarkets, you can see that target marketers usually have a choice among many possible target markets.

There are three basic ways to develop market-oriented strategies in a broad product-market.

1. The **single target market approach**—segmenting the market and picking one of the homogeneous segments as the firm’s target market.

2. The **multiple target market approach**—segmenting the market and choosing two or more segments, then treating each as a separate target market needing a different marketing mix.

Petersen uses a multiple target market approach with the magazines it publishes. It targets young women with magazines like *Great Looks* and bicycle enthusiasts with magazines like *Mountain Biker*. 
3. The **combined target market approach**—combining two or more submarkets into one larger target market as a basis for one strategy.

Note that all three approaches involve target marketing. They all aim at specific, clearly defined target markets. See Exhibit 3-7. For convenience, we call people who follow the first two approaches the “segmenters” and people who use the third approach the “combiners.”

**Combiners try to satisfy “pretty well”**

Combiners try to increase the size of their target markets by combining two or more segments. Combiners look at various submarkets for similarities rather than differences. Then they try to extend or modify their basic offering to appeal to these “combined” customers with just one marketing mix. See Exhibit 3-7. For example, combiners may try a new package, more service, a new brand, or new flavors. But even if they make product or other marketing mix changes, they don’t try to satisfy unique smaller submarkets. Instead, combiners try to improve the general appeal of their marketing mix to appeal to a bigger “combined” target market.

A combined target market approach may help achieve some economies of scale. It may also require less investment than developing different marketing mixes for different segments—making it especially attractive for firms with limited resources.

**Too much combining is risky**

It is tempting to aim at larger combined markets instead of using different marketing mixes for smaller segmented markets. But combiners must be careful not to aggregate too far. As they enlarge the target market, individual differences within each submarket may begin to outweigh the similarities. This makes it harder to develop marketing mixes that can satisfy potential customers.

A combiner faces the continual risk of innovative segmenters “chipping away” at the various segments of the combined target market—by offering more attractive marketing mixes to more homogeneous submarkets. IBM saw this happen very quickly when it came out with personal computers. Apple took the segment that wanted an easy-to-use computer. Toshiba took travelers who wanted laptop convenience. Compaq got those who wanted the fastest machines. Dell attracted customers who wanted reliability at a low price.

**Segmenters try to satisfy “very well”**

Segmenters aim at one or more homogeneous segments and try to develop a different marketing mix for each segment. Segmenters usually adjust their marketing mixes for each target market—perhaps making basic changes in the product itself—because they want to satisfy each segment very well.

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### Exhibit 3–7
**Target Marketers Have Specific Aims**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A segmenter</th>
<th>A combiner</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Using single target market approach—can aim at one submarket with one marketing mix</td>
<td>Using multiple target market approach—can aim at two or more submarkets with different marketing mixes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The strategy</td>
<td>Strategy one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategy two</td>
<td>Strategy two</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Note: This exhibit illustrates the differences between segmenters, who aim at one segment with a unique marketing mix, and combiners, who try to combine several segments into one larger target market. The exhibit also highlights how combiners aim to satisfy a large, broad market with a single offering, while segmenters aim to satisfy very specific, homogeneous groups with tailored marketing mixes.
Instead of assuming that the whole market consists of a fairly similar set of customers (like the mass marketer does) or merging various submarkets together (like the combiner), a segmenter sees submarkets with their own demand curves—as shown in Exhibit 3–8. Segmenters believe that aiming at one—or some—of these smaller markets makes it possible to provide superior value and satisfy them better. This then provides greater profit potential for the firm.

Note that segmenters are not settling for a smaller sales potential or lower profits. Instead, they hope to increase sales by getting a much larger share of the business in the market(s) they target. A segmenter who really satisfies the target market can often build such a close relationship with customers that it faces no real competition. A segmenter that offers a marketing mix precisely matched to the needs of the target market can often charge a higher price that produces higher profits.

AFG Industries, a company that manufactures glass, had a small market share when it was trying to sell glass in the construction market. Then AFG’s marketing managers focused on the special needs of firms that used tempered and colored glass in their own production. AFG planned marketing mixes for “niche” segments that didn’t get attention from the bigger producers. As a result, AFG captured 70 percent of the sales of glass for microwave oven doors and 75 percent of the sales of glass for shower enclosures and patio tabletops. This enabled AFG to earn the best profit margins in its industry.

Which approach should a firm use? This depends on the firm’s resources, the nature of competition, and—most important—the similarity of customer needs, attitudes, and buying behavior.
In general, it’s usually safer to be a segmenter—that is, to try to satisfy some customers very well instead of many just fairly well. That’s why many firms use the single or multiple target market approach instead of the combined target market approach. Procter & Gamble, for example, offers many products that seem to compete directly with each other (e.g., Tide versus Cheer or Crest versus Gleem). However, P&G offers “tailor-made” marketing mixes to each submarket large—and profitable—enough to deserve a separate marketing mix. Though extremely effective, this approach may not be possible for a smaller firm with more limited resources. A smaller firm may have to use the single target market approach—focusing all its efforts at the one submarket niche where it sees the best opportunity.9

Kaepa, Inc., is a good example. During the 1980s, sales of its all-purpose sneakers plummeted as larger firms like Nike and Reebok stole customers with a multiple target market approach. They developed innovative products and aimed their promotion at specific needs—like jogging, aerobics, cross-training, and walking. Kaepa couldn’t turn things around until it focused on catering to the needs of a specific target market—cheerleaders. Cheerleading squads can order Kaepa shoes with custom team logos and colors. The soles of the shoes feature finger grooves that make it easier for cheerleaders to build human pyramids. Kaepa couldn’t turn things around until it focused on catering to the needs of a specific target market—cheerleaders. Cheerleading squads can order Kaepa shoes with custom team logos and colors. The soles of the shoes feature finger grooves that make it easier for cheerleaders to build human pyramids. Kaepa also carefully targets its market research and promotion. Kaepa salespeople attend the cheerleading camps that each summer draw 40,000 enthusiasts. Kaepa even arranges for the high-profile cheering teams it sponsors to do demonstrations at retail stores. Because this generates free publicity and pulls in buyers, retailers are willing to put more emphasis on the Kaepa line.10

Profit is the balancing point. It determines how unique a marketing mix the firm can afford to offer to a particular group.

What Dimensions Are Used to Segment Markets?

Segmenting dimensions guide marketing mix planning

Market segmentation forces a marketing manager to decide which product-market dimensions might be useful for planning marketing strategies. The dimensions should help guide marketing mix planning. Exhibit 3–9 shows the basic kinds of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Potential Target Market Dimensions</th>
<th>Effects on Strategy Decision Areas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Behavioral needs, attitudes and how present and potential goods and services fit into customers’ consumption patterns.</td>
<td>Affects Product (features, packaging, product line assortment, branding) and Promotion (what potential customers need and want to know about the firm’s offering, and what appeals should be used).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Urgency to get need satisfied and desire and willingness to seek information, compare, and shop.</td>
<td>Affects Place (how directly products are distributed from producer to customer, how extensively they are made available, and the level of service needed) and Price (how much potential customers are willing to pay).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Geographic location and other demographic characteristics of potential customers.</td>
<td>Affects size of Target Markets (economic potential), Place (where products should be made available), and Promotion (where and to whom to target advertising and personal selling).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
dimensions we’ll be talking about in Chapters 5 and 6—and their probable effect on the four Ps. Ideally, we want to describe any potential product-market in terms of all three types of customer-related dimensions—plus a product type description—because these dimensions help us develop better marketing mixes.

Customers can be described by many specific dimensions. Exhibit 3–10 shows some dimensions useful for segmenting consumer markets. A few are behavioral dimensions, others are geographic and demographic. Exhibit 3–11 shows some additional dimensions for segmenting markets when the customers are businesses, government agencies, or other types of organizations. Regardless of whether customers are final consumers or organizations, segmenting a broad product-market may require using several different dimensions at the same time.\(^{11}\)

To select the important segmenting dimensions, think about two different types of dimensions. **Qualifying dimensions** are those relevant to including a customer type in a product-market. **Determining dimensions** are those that actually affect the customer’s purchase of a specific product or brand in a product-market.

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### Exhibit 3–10 Possible Segmenting Dimensions and Typical Breakdowns for Consumer Markets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Behavioral</th>
<th>Geographic</th>
<th>Demographic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Needs</td>
<td>Region of world, country</td>
<td>Income</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits sought</td>
<td>Region in country (Examples in United States): Pacific, Mountain, West North Central, West South Central, East North Central, East South Central, South Atlantic, Middle Atlantic, New England.</td>
<td>Under $5,000; $5,000–$9,999; $10,000–$14,999; $15,000–$19,999; $20,000–$29,999; $30,000–$39,999; $40,000–$59,999; $60,000 and over.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thoughts</td>
<td>Size of city: No city; population under 5,000; 5,000–19,999; 20,000–49,999; 50,000–99,999; 100,000–249,999; 250,000–499,999; 500,000–999,999; 1,000,000–3,999,999; 4,000,000 or over.</td>
<td>Sex: Male, female.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rate of use</td>
<td></td>
<td>Age: Infant, under 6; 6–11; 12–17; 18–24; 25–34; 35–49; 50–64; 65 or over.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purchase relationship</td>
<td></td>
<td>Family size: 1, 2, 3–4, 5 or more.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brand familiarity</td>
<td></td>
<td>Family life cycle: Young, single, young, married, no children, young, married, youngest child under 6; young, married, youngest child over 6; older, married, with children; older, married, no children under 18; older, single; other variations for single parents, divorced, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kind of shopping</td>
<td></td>
<td>Occupation: Professional and technical; managers, officials, and proprietors; clerical sales; craftspeople, foremen; operatives; farmers; retired; students; housewives; unemployed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of problem-solving</td>
<td></td>
<td>Education: Grade school or less; some high school, high school graduate, some college, college graduate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information required</td>
<td></td>
<td>Ethnicity: White, Black, Hispanic origin, American Indian, Asian, Multiracial, and so on.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Terms used in this table are explained in detail later in the text.
A prospective car buyer, for example, has to have enough money—or credit—to buy a car and insure it. Our buyer also needs a driver’s license. This still doesn’t guarantee a purchase. He or she must have a real need—like a job that requires “wheels” or kids that have to be carpooled. This need may motivate the purchase of some car. But these qualifying dimensions don’t determine what specific brand or model car the person might buy. That depends on more specific interests—such as the kind of safety, performance, or appearance the customer wants. Determining dimensions related to these needs affect the specific car the customer purchases. If safety is a determining dimension for a customer, a Volvo wagon that offers side impact protection, airbags, and all-wheel drive might be the customer’s first choice.

Determining dimensions may be very specific

How specific the determining dimensions are depends on whether you are concerned with a general product type or a specific brand. See Exhibit 3–12. The more specific you want to be, the more particular the determining dimensions may be. In a particular case, the determining dimensions may seem minor. But they are important because they are the determining dimensions.

Note: Terms used in this table are explained in detail later in the text.

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**Exhibit 3–11** Possible Segmenting Dimensions for Business/Organizational Markets

| Kind of relationship | Weak loyalty → strong loyalty to vendor  
| Single source → multiple vendors  
| “Arm’s length” dealings → close partnership  
| No reciprocity → complete reciprocity |
| Type of customer | Manufacturer, service producer, government agency, military, nonprofit, wholesaler or retailer (when end user), and so on. |
| Demographics | Geographic location (region of world, country, region within country, urban → rural)  
| Size (number of employees, sales volume)  
| Primary business or industry (Standard Industrial Classification)  
| Number of facilities |
| How customer will use product | Installations, components, accessories, raw materials, supplies, professional services |
| Type of buying situation | Decentralized → centralized  
| Buyer → multiple buying influence  
| Straight rebuy → modified rebuy → new-task buying |
| Purchasing methods | Vendor analysis, inspection buying, sampling buying, specification buying, competitive bids, negotiated contracts, long-term contracts |

A prospective car buyer, for example, has to have enough money—or credit—to buy a car and insure it. Our buyer also needs a driver’s license. This still doesn’t guarantee a purchase. He or she must have a real need—like a job that requires “wheels” or kids that have to be carpooled. This need may motivate the purchase of some car. But these qualifying dimensions don’t determine what specific brand or model car the person might buy. That depends on more specific interests—such as the kind of safety, performance, or appearance the customer wants. Determining dimensions related to these needs affect the specific car the customer purchases. If safety is a determining dimension for a customer, a Volvo wagon that offers side impact protection, airbags, and all-wheel drive might be the customer’s first choice.

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**Exhibit 3–12** Finding the Relevant Segmenting Dimensions

| All potential dimensions | Generally relevant to purchasing behavior |
| Qualifying dimensions | Relevant to including a customer type in the product-market |
| Determining dimensions (product type) | Affect the customer’s purchase of a specific type of product |
| Determining dimensions (brand specific) | Affect the customer’s choice of a specific brand |
A marketing manager should seek new ways to serve existing customers and strengthen the relationship with them. Too often firms let their strategies get stagnant after they've established a base of customers and a set of marketing mix decisions. For example, special business services related to the determining needs of upscale executives might initially help a motel win this business. However, the motel will lose its competitive edge if other motels start to offer the same benefits. Then, the determining dimensions change. To avoid this problem, and retain the base of customers it has built, the motel needs to find new and better ways to meet the executives' needs. For example, the motel might make it easier for traveling executives to get messages by providing a phonemail system for use during their stay.

The qualifying dimensions help identify the “core features” that must be offered to everyone in a product-market. Qualifying and determining dimensions work together in marketing strategy planning.

Courtyard by Marriott targets business travelers in the U.S. who want a comfortable place to stay. But Marriott realizes that, for international business travelers, services like convenient voice mail and faxing may be the determining dimensions that affect the choice of a hotel.

**Internet Exercise** Courtyard by Marriott targets business travelers. Visit the Marriott web site, www.marriott.com, and write down what you think are the qualifying and determining dimensions for a businessperson choosing Courtyard over Marriott’s other hotel options.

Note that each different submarket within a broad product-market may be motivated by a different set of dimensions. In the snack food market, for example, health food enthusiasts are interested in nutrition, dieters worry about calories, and economical shoppers with lots of kids may want volume to “fill them up.”
Marketing managers sometimes face ethical decisions when selecting segmenting dimensions. Problems may arise if a firm targets customers who are somehow at a disadvantage in dealing with the firm or who are unlikely to see the negative effects of their own choices. For example, some people criticize shoe companies for targeting poor, inner-city kids who see expensive athletic shoes as an important status symbol. Many firms, including producers of infant formula, have been criticized for targeting consumers in less-developed nations. Encyclopedia publishers have been criticized for aggressive selling to less-educated parents who don’t realize that the “pennies a day” credit terms are more than they can afford. Some nutritionists criticize firms that market soft drinks, candy, and snack foods to children.

Sometimes a marketing manager must decide whether a firm should serve customers it really doesn’t want to serve. For example, banks sometimes offer marketing mixes that are attractive to wealthy customers but that basically drive off low-income consumers.

People often disagree about what segmenting dimensions are ethical in a given situation. A marketing manager needs to consider not only his or her own views but also the views of other groups in society. Even when there is no clear “right” answer, negative publicity may be very damaging.12

Success in international marketing requires even more attention to segmenting. There are over 228 nations with their own unique cultures! And they differ greatly in language, customs (including business ethics), beliefs, religions, race, and income distribution patterns. (We’ll discuss some of these differences in Chapters 5 and 6.) These additional differences can complicate the segmenting process. Even worse, critical data is often less available—and less dependable—as firms move into international markets. This is one reason why some firms insist that local operations and decisions be handled by natives. They, at least, have a “feel” for their markets.

Segmenting international markets may require more dimensions. But one practical method adds just one step to the approach discussed above. First, marketers segment by country or region—looking at demographic, cultural, and other characteristics, including stage of economic development. This may help them find regional or national submarkets that are fairly similar. Then—depending on whether the firm is aiming at final consumers or business markets—they apply the same basic approaches discussed earlier.

More Sophisticated Techniques May Help in Segmenting

Marketing researchers and managers often turn to computer-aided methods for help with the segmenting job. A detailed review of the possibilities is beyond the scope of this book. But a brief discussion will give you a flavor of how computer-aided methods work.
Clustering techniques try to find similar patterns within sets of data. Clustering groups customers who are similar on their segmenting dimensions into homogeneous segments. Clustering approaches use computers to do what previously was done with much intuition and judgment.

The data to be clustered might include such dimensions as demographic characteristics, the importance of different needs, attitudes toward the product, and past buying behavior. The computer searches all the data for homogeneous groups of people. When it finds them, marketers study the dimensions of the people in the groups to see why the computer clustered them together. The results sometimes suggest new, or at least better, marketing strategies.\(^\text{13}\)

A cluster analysis of the toothpaste market, for example, might show that some people buy toothpaste because it tastes good (the sensory segment), while others are concerned with the effect of clean teeth and fresh breath on their social image (the sociables). Still others worry about decay or tartar (the worriers), and some are just interested in the best value for their money (the value seekers). Each of these market segments calls for a different marketing mix—although some of the four Ps may be similar.

A variation of the clustering approach is based on the use of a customer database. The seller fine-tunes the marketing effort with information from the database. This usually includes data on a customer’s past purchases as well as other segmenting information. For example, an auto-repair garage that keeps a database of customer oil changes can send a reminder postcard when it’s time for the next oil change. Similarly, a florist that keeps a database of customers who have ordered flowers for Mother’s Day or Valentine’s Day can call them in advance with a special offer. A firm that operates over the Internet may have a special advantage with these database-focused approaches. It may be able to communicate with customers via e-mail, which means that the whole effort is not only targeted but also very inexpensive. Further, it’s fast and easy for a customer to reply.\(^\text{14}\)
Firms that provide services to business customers have suddenly discovered the little guy. In the past, suppliers often segmented the market based on the size of customers’ business. Then, they targeted the big corporations. These big buyers spend in a day what a small business would spend in a whole year. That seemed to justify the special attention required to get their business. Thus, firms like AT&T, FedEx, and Continental Airlines would offer the goliaths big discounts, dedicate special sales reps to the account, and offer special services.

Now, many marketers are rethinking this approach. They’re developing new strategies that target small business customers with marketing mixes fine-tuned to their needs. Many sellers are waking up to the reality that the number of small businesses is growing faster than ever before—up nearly 50 percent since the early 1980s. Now, there are 20 million of these tiny enterprises. They account for about half of U.S. employment and about one-third of the national output. Individually they are not big customers. Collectively, however, they are a big market for firms that can develop a marketing mix to meet their needs.

Consider the case of Janet Fletcher. She owns B&W Auto Salvage, a $2 million junk car business in Dallas, Texas. A few years ago, if Fletcher needed a loan, she would have to appeal to a local banker. The banker would want a lot of confidential financial information, and even with that might not want to give her the money. After all, how is a banker supposed to know if she really needs a piece of car-crushing equipment? Now, however, she doesn’t call on her local banker anymore—and Wells Fargo, located in California, has her loan business. Wells Fargo used a database with information about small firms to develop a list of companies, like B&W, that looked like a good credit risk. Wells Fargo then sent these prequalified firms an easy-to-complete application for an open line of credit. Like many other entrepreneurs, Fletcher was glad to get the offer. She was even willing to pay a little higher interest rate.

Wells Fargo isn’t the only firm seeing these opportunities. Ernst & Young, the giant accounting firm, has added a new consulting service that is available to small businesses on-line over the Internet. Pitney Bowles is another convert. It is rolling out smaller, cheaper postage meters for firms that could fit in the mail room of the corporations on which it originally built its reputation. Instead of just using its 3,000-person sales force, it is relying more heavily on advertising and direct mail. And, for the first time, it’s distributing meters through office equipment retailers. Even AT&T has awakened to the opportunity. It’s setting up regional advisory councils of small business customers and a dedicated sales force to serve them. Of course, this is just the start. Now that more firms are appealing to these target customers, they will need to do a better job of further segmenting. After all, small businesses are not all alike.¹⁵

Differentiation and Positioning Take the Customer Point of View

As we’ve emphasized throughout, the reason for focusing on a specific target market—by using marketing segmentation approaches or a tool such as cluster analysis—is so that you can fine-tune the whole marketing mix to provide some group of potential customers with superior value. By differentiating the marketing mix to do a better job meeting customers’ needs, the firm builds a competitive advantage. When this happens, target customers view the firm’s position in the market as uniquely suited to their preferences and needs. Further, because everyone in the firm is clear about what position it wants to achieve with customers, the Product, Promotion, and other marketing mix decisions can be blended better to achieve the desired objectives.

Although the marketing manager may want customers to see the firm’s offering as unique, that is not always possible. Me-too imitators may come along and copy the firm’s strategy. Further, even if a firm’s marketing mix is different, consumers may not know or care. They’re busy and, simply put, the firm’s product may not be that important in their lives. Even so, in looking for opportunities it’s important for the marketing manager to know how customers do view the firm’s offering. It’s also important for the marketing manager to have a clear idea about how he or she would like for customers to view the firm’s offering. This is where another important concept, positioning, comes in.
Positioning refers to how customers think about proposed and/or present brands in a market. A marketing manager needs a realistic view of how customers think about offerings in the market. Without that, it's hard to differentiate. At the same time, the manager should know how he or she wants target customers to think about the firm's marketing mix. Positioning issues are especially important when competitors in a market appear to be very similar. For example, many people think that there isn't much difference between one brand of TV and another. But Sony wants TV buyers to see its Trinitron brand screen as offering the very best picture.

Once you know what customers think, then you can decide whether to leave the product (and marketing mix) alone or reposition it. This may mean physical changes in the product or simply image changes based on promotion. For example, most cola drinkers can't pick out their favorite brand in a blind test—so physical changes might not be necessary (and might not even work) to reposition a cola. Yet, ads that portray Pepsi drinkers in exciting situations help position it as the “choice of a new generation.” Conversely, 7-Up reminds us that it is the uncola with no caffeine, “never had it and never will.”

Figuring out what customers really think about competing products isn't easy, but there are approaches that help. Most of them require some formal marketing research. The results are usually plotted on graphs to help show how consumers view the competing products. Usually, the products' positions are related to two or three product features that are important to the target customers.

Managers make the graphs for positioning decisions by asking consumers to make judgments about different brands—including their “ideal” brand—and then use computer programs to summarize the ratings and plot the results. The details of positioning techniques—sometimes called “perceptual mapping”—are beyond the scope of this text. But Exhibit 3–13 shows the possibilities.

Exhibit 3–13 shows the “product space” for different brands of bar soap using two dimensions—the extent to which consumers think the soaps moisturize and deodorize their skin. For example, consumers see Dial as quite low on moisturizing but high on deodorizing. Lifebuoy and Dial are close together—implying that consumers think of them as similar on these characteristics. Dove is viewed as different and is further away on the graph. Remember that positioning maps are based on customers’ perceptions—the actual characteristics of the products (as determined by a chemical test) might be different!
The circles in Exhibit 3–13 show different sets (submarkets) of consumers clustered near their ideal soap preferences. Groups of respondents with a similar ideal product are circled to show apparent customer concentrations. In this graph, the size of the circles suggests the size of the segments for the different ideals.

Ideal clusters 1 and 2 are the largest and are close to two popular brands—Dial and Lever 2000. It appears that customers in cluster 1 want more moisturizing than they see in Dial and Lifebuoy. However, exactly what these brands should do about this isn’t clear. Perhaps both of these brands should leave their physical products alone—but emphasize moisturizing more in their promotion to make a stronger appeal to those who want moisturizers. A marketing manager talking about this approach might simply refer to it as “positioning the brand as a good moisturizer.” Of course, whether the effort is successful depends on whether the whole marketing mix delivers on the promise of the positioning communication.

Note that ideal cluster 7 is not near any of the present brands. This may suggest an opportunity for introducing a new product—a strong moisturizer with some deodorizers. A firm that chooses to follow this approach would be making a segmenting effort.

Combining versus segmenting

Positioning analysis may lead a firm to combining—rather than segmenting—if managers think they can make several general appeals to different parts of a “combined” market. For example, by varying its promotion, Coast might try to appeal to segments 8, 1, and 2 with one product. These segments are all quite similar (close together) in what they want in an ideal brand. On the other hand, there may be clearly defined submarkets—and some parts of the market may be “owned” by one product or brand. In this case, segmenting efforts may be practical—moving the firm’s own product into another segment of the general market area where competition is weaker.

A positioning analysis helps managers understand how customers see their market. It is a visual aid to understanding a product-market. The first time such an analysis is done, managers may be shocked to see how much customers’ perceptions
of a market differ from their own. For this reason alone, positioning analysis may be crucial. But, a positioning analysis usually focuses on specific product features and brands that are close competitors in the product-market. Thus, it is a product-oriented approach. Important customer-related dimensions—including needs and attitudes—may be overlooked.

Premature emphasis on product features is dangerous in other ways as well. As our bar soap example shows, starting with a product-oriented definition of a market and how bar soaps compete against other bar soaps can make a firm miss more basic shifts in markets. For example, bars might be losing popularity to liquid soaps. Or other products, like bath oils or body shampoos for use in the shower, may be part of the relevant competition. Managers wouldn’t see these shifts if they looked only at alternative bar soap brands—the focus is just too narrow.

It’s also important to realize that the way consumers look at a product isn’t just a matter of chance. Let’s return to our bar soap example. While many consumers do think about soap in terms of moisturizing and deodorizing, other needs shouldn’t be overlooked. For example, some consumers are especially concerned about wiping out germs. Marketers for Dial soap recognized this need and developed ads that positioned Dial as “the choice” for these target customers.

As we emphasize throughout the text, you must understand potential needs and attitudes when planning marketing strategies. If customers treat different products as substitutes, then a firm has to position itself against those products too. Customers won’t always be conscious of all of the detailed ways that a firm’s marketing mix might be different, but careful positioning can help highlight a unifying theme or benefits that relate to the determining dimensions of the target market. Thus, it’s useful to think of positioning as part of the broader strategy planning process—because the purpose is to ensure that the whole marketing mix is positioned for competitive advantage.

**Conclusion**

Firms need creative strategy planning to survive in our increasingly competitive markets. In this chapter, we discussed how to find attractive target market opportunities. We started by considering four basic types of opportunities—market penetration, market development, product development, and diversification—with special emphasis on opportunities in international markets. We also saw that carefully defining generic markets and product-markets can help find new opportunities. We stressed the shortcomings of a too narrow, product-oriented view of markets.

We also discussed market segmentation—the process of naming and then segmenting broad product-markets to find potentially attractive target markets. Some people try to segment markets by starting with the mass market and then dividing it into smaller submarkets based on a few dimensions. But this can lead to poor results. Instead, market segmentation should first focus on a broad product-market and then group similar customers into homogeneous submarkets. The more similar the potential customers are, the larger the submarkets can be. Four criteria for evaluating possible product-market segments were presented.

Once a broad product-market is segmented, marketing managers can use one of three approaches to market-oriented strategy planning: (1) the single target market approach, (2) the multiple target market approach, and (3) the combined target market approach. In general, we encouraged marketers to be segmenters rather than combiners.

We also discussed some computer-aided approaches—clustering techniques and positioning.

In summary, good marketers should be experts on markets and likely segmenting dimensions. By creatively segmenting markets, they may spot opportunities—even breakthrough opportunities—and help their firms succeed against aggressive competitors offering similar products. Segmenting is basic to target marketing. And the more you practice segmenting, the more meaningful market segments you will see.
Questions and Problems

1. Distinguish between an attractive opportunity and a breakthrough opportunity. Give an example.

2. Explain how new opportunities may be seen by defining a firm’s markets more precisely. Illustrate for a situation where you feel there is an opportunity—namely, an unsatisfied market segment—even if it is not very large.

3. In your own words, explain why the book suggests that you should think of marketing strategy planning as a narrowing down process.

4. Distinguish between a generic market and a product-market. Illustrate your answer.

5. Explain the major differences among the four basic types of opportunities discussed in the text and cite examples for two of these types of opportunities.

6. Explain why a firm may want to pursue a market penetration opportunity before pursuing one involving product development or diversification.

7. In your own words, explain several reasons why marketing managers should consider international markets when evaluating possible opportunities.

8. Give an example of a foreign-made product (other than an automobile) that you personally have purchased. Give some reasons why you purchased that product. Do you think that there was a good opportunity for a domestic firm to get your business? Explain why or why not.

9. Explain what market segmentation is.

10. List the types of potential segmenting dimensions and explain which you would try to apply first, second, and third in a particular situation. If the nature of the situation would affect your answer, explain how.

11. Explain why segmentation efforts based on attempts to divide the mass market using a few demographic dimensions may be very disappointing.

12. Illustrate the concept that segmenting is an aggregating process by referring to the admissions policies of your own college and a nearby college or university.

13. Review the types of segmenting dimensions listed in Exhibits 3–10 and 3–11, and select the ones you think should be combined to fully explain the market segment you personally would be in if you were planning to buy a new watch today. List several dimensions and try to develop a short-hand name, like “fashion-oriented,” to describe your own personal market segment. Then try to estimate what proportion of the total watch market would be accounted for by your market segment. Next, explain if there are any offerings that come close to meeting the needs of your market. If not, what sort of a marketing mix is needed? Would it be economically attractive for anyone to try to satisfy your market segment? Why or why not?

14. Identify the determining dimension or dimensions that explain why you bought the specific brand you did in your most recent purchase of a (a) soft drink, (b) shampoo, (c) shirt or blouse, and (d) larger, more expensive item, such as a bicycle, camera, or boat. Try to express the determining dimension(s) in terms of your own personal characteristics rather than the product’s characteristics. Estimate what share of the market would probably be motivated by the same determining dimension(s).

15. Consider the market for off-campus apartments in your city. Identify some submarkets that have different needs and determining dimensions. Then evaluate how well the needs in these market segments are being met in your geographic area. Is there an obvious breakthrough opportunity waiting for someone?

16. Explain how positioning analysis can help a marketing manager identify target market opportunities.

Suggested Cases

7. Lilybank Lodge  
29. Metal Works, Inc.  
30. Deluxe Foods, Ltd.

Computer-Aided Problem

3. Segmenting Customers  
The marketing manager for Micro Software Company is seeking new market opportunities. He is focusing on the word processing market and has narrowed
down to three segments: the Fearful Typists, the Power Users, and the Professional Specialists. The Fearful Typists don’t know much about computers—they just want a fast way to type letters and simple reports without errors. They don’t need a lot of special features. They want simple instructions and a program that’s easy to learn. The Power Users know a lot about computers, use them often, and want a word processing program with many special features. All computer programs seem easy to them—they aren’t worried about learning to use the various features. The Professional Specialists have jobs that require a lot of writing. They don’t know much about computers but are willing to learn. They want special features needed for their work—but only if they aren’t too hard to learn and use.

The marketing manager prepared a table summarizing the importance of each of three key needs in the three segments (see table above).

Micro’s sales staff conducted interviews with seven potential customers who were asked to rate how important each of these three needs were in their work. The manager prepared a spreadsheet to help him cluster (aggregate) each person into one of the segments along with other similar people. Each person’s ratings are entered in the spreadsheet, and the clustering procedure computes a similarity score that indicates how similar (a low score) or dissimilar (a high score) the person is to the typical person in each of the segments. The manager can then “aggregate” potential customers into the segment that is most similar (that is, the one with the lowest similarity score).

a. The ratings for a potential customer appear on the first spreadsheet. Into which segment would you aggregate this person?

b. The responses for seven potential customers who were interviewed are listed in the table below. Enter the ratings for a customer in the spreadsheet and then write down the similarity score for each segment. Repeat the process for each customer. Based on your analysis, indicate the segment into which you would aggregate each customer. Indicate the size (number of customers) of each segment.

c. In the interview, each potential customer was also asked what type of computer he or she would be using. The responses are shown in the table along with the ratings. Group the responses based on the customer’s segment. If you were targeting the Fearful Typists segment, what type of computer would you focus on when developing your software?

d. Based on your analysis, which customer would you say is least like any of the segments? Briefly explain the reason for your choice.

For additional questions related to this problem, see Exercise 3–4 in the Learning Aid for Use with Basic Marketing, 13th edition.