A. Introduction

MERRELL FOOTWEAR AND APPAREL
In 1981, Merrell Footwear introduced the Randy Merrell Cowboy Boot as the original fitted boot. Since that time, the company has evolved considerably, but the firm’s message has always been about urging people to go out and enjoy the outdoors. The footwear products offered by this company have grown from cowboy boots to include hiking boots, sandals, slip-ons, and shoes for men, women, and children. The company has also successfully introduced lines of men’s and women’s apparel as well as backpacks, bags, and accessories. As part of the company’s ongoing efforts to encourage and equip outdoor activity, Merrell supports the National Park Foundation, Appalachian Trail Conservancy, American Hiking Society, Bay Area Wilderness Training, Conservation Alliance, Project Athena, and Youth Outdoors Legacy Fund.

Two ways that Merrell can increase its revenues are via selling more footwear and apparel to current customers and by selling more of these products to new customers. Some of these efforts have focused on consumers that spend time outdoors but have spent less time enjoying backpacking, hiking, and other traditional outdoor sports. In support of this desire to broaden its market share, Merrell has used its promotional strategy to communicate its participation in outdoor events that emphasize the need for sustainability in consumption. For example, Merrell has become a primary sponsor of the Rothbury Music Festival in Western Michigan.

The Rothbury Music Festival is a four-day music event attended by more than 30,000 people each year for the past two years. Headliners at this event have included the String Cheese Incident, Dave Matthews, Snoop Dog, Keller Williams, and many other musical groups. Beyond the well-known headliners, Rothbury is also guided by an environmental sustainability mission. The festival is dedicated to running as close to a zero-waste event as possible, and it supports companies that favor environmentally friendly products. The festival attempts to reduce trash via recycling and the replacement of disposable products with compostable products. The festival’s power is primarily provided via renewable sources of energy and uses carbon offsets to account for energy that cannot be eliminated. The festival also promotes the use of public transportation and carpooling.

Merrell has developed a series of promotions and advertisements designed to bring attention to Merrell and the Rothbury Music Festival. Before the event,
Merrell sponsored a **sweepstakes** in which the grand prize winners received air transportation to and from the festival, admission to the four-day event, Merrell gift certificates, camping gear, and pocket money. **Advertisements** prior to the festival provided consumers with information about Merrell, the sweepstakes, and the festival. In addition, seven weekly prize drawings of gift certificates and outdoor gear were picked each week leading up to the festival. At the Rothbury Music Festival, Merrell made its presence known by featuring ads and brand placement materials strategically throughout the grounds of the event. In addition, the Rothbury general store sold many types of Merrell shoes and hiking boots, and **point-of-sale displays** outlined the merits of these footwear products.

In this chapter, we will examine alternative forms of promotion, and we will examine a variety of creative strategies. The Merrell example illustrates how companies communicate the value associated with their products and brands. Companies seeking to promote a sustainable message use a variety of promotional messages and media. Since many companies have different objectives in promotion and have different means to distribute their products, companies in the same industry may develop very different promotional strategies.

Recall that in the last chapter, we completed a process for the development of a value proposition designed to serve the needs of a target market. In this chapter, we examine a series of strategies that marketers employ to communicate value to the consumer. We begin by introducing integrated marketing communication as a series of processes that add continuity to the promotional strategy. We then identify a number of message strategies used to achieve alternative objectives in promotion. We illustrate that the effectiveness of these strategies is related to the target market,
product, and environmental considerations. In the next part of this chapter, we explore the use of brands and accreditation labeling to communicate value. Brands reflect an effort on the part of the firm to illustrate a unique value proposition, whereas accreditation labeling reflects an effort to distinguish a firm’s products based on the firm’s achievement of some industry-level or environmental standard. We conclude by discussing deconsumption as a strategy employed to illustrate the value of consuming less.

B. Integrated Marketing Communication

Think about the number of advertisements that a person witnesses on a daily basis. Because consumers are confronted with many messages from many companies, it is essential that marketers offer a consistent message. Thus, companies such as Merrell that want to associate their brands with the outdoors should offer a consistent message in advertising on the Internet, in magazines, and on television. Similarly, sales promotion and personal selling should also reflect the same message. Promotion refers to all communication from the marketer designed to persuade, inform, or remind potential buyers of a product in order to elicit a response or influence an opinion.

The promotional mix includes advertising, personal selling, public relations, sales promotion, and direct marketing. Advertising refers to one-way, impersonal mass communication about a product or organization that is paid for by a marketing organization. By contrast, personal selling refers to personal, face-to-face interaction with a potential customer. The effort of Merrell’s sales force to gain shelf space at Bass Pro Shops exemplifies personal selling. Public relations involves the use of publicity and other nonpaid forms of promotion and information to influence attitudes about a company, its products, or the values of the organization. Merrell’s press releases and publicity about their participation in the Rothbury Music Festival provide examples of public relations. Sales promotion includes all marketing communication action other than advertising, personal selling, public relations, and direct marketing designed to influence consumer purchases and relationships with intermediaries in distribution channels. The sweepstakes developed by Merrell is one type of sales promotion focused on increasing consumer purchases.

Direct marketing refers to direct efforts to target an audience via the Internet, direct mail, telemarketing, direct-action advertising, and catalog selling. Companies such as Merrell engage in direct marketing when they use e-mail to invite consumers to enter a sweepstakes. Note that direct marketing serves as both a form of promotion and a means of retailing. As we will see in Chapter 9, retailing refers to all activities directly related to the sale of goods and services to the ultimate consumer. Direct marketing used to inform customers about an upcoming sale is a form of promotion because it provides information to potential buyers about an opportunity to buy. By contrast, mail received by consumers that asks them to purchase a product or service warranty is a retailing activity because it asks the consumer to make a purchase. Since marketers can combine these objectives in a single communiqué to consumers, we include direct marketing as a means of both promotion and retailing.

When marketers deliberate about the degree to which promotional expenditures will be dedicated to various forms of promotion, it is in their best interest to examine the goals of the promotion as well as the costs and returns associated with each form of promotion. The company must determine the promotional objectives. Some
companies use promotions to raise brand awareness and inform consumers, yet other companies use the promotional mix to generate sales. In the evaluation of the promotional mix, it is germane to identify the stage of the purchasing process and the goals of the promotion. Because one can modify the presentation made by a sales representative, there is a greater opportunity to change the presentation to focus on the specific needs of consumers at the time they are making purchases. By contrast, advertising is an impersonal medium in which the marketer ordinarily cannot make changes to the presentation. Although the effectiveness of advertising may be somewhat lower than that of personal selling when the sale is about to be made, advertising is more effective at gaining broad consumer awareness of a company’s products and brands. In general, personal selling and sales promotion are most effective at the moment of a purchase decision, whereas other forms of promotion tend to be more effective before and after the purchase.

In addition to considering the consumer’s stage in the purchasing process, marketers also examine the relationship between the returns and costs of alternative forms of promotion. In 2000, the average cost of a personal sales call for an industrial marketing firm was estimated at more than $260. Not only has this cost increased over time, but the consideration of cost has been broadened to include ecological costs. Personal selling is not only labor intensive, it often also demands that sales representatives use substantial amounts of energy to get a message to the consumer. Advertising often is associated with substantially lower costs to reach the consumer, and it may require relatively little energy to deliver the message to the consumer. As marketer concerns about the environmental cost of communication increase, there will undoubtedly be increased evaluation of the ratio between the costs of promotion and the revenue generated from the promotion.

Although companies must make tough decisions about the allocation of resources across advertising, personal selling, public relations, direct marketing, and sales promotion, most companies value having a common message across components of the promotional mix. Since consumers are exposed to multiple promotions on a daily basis, companies find that consumer response to promotions is heightened when the promotional mix provides a consistent message. Integrated marketing communication refers to coordination among the elements of the promotional mix to ensure the consistency of the message delivered at every contact point between the consumer and the company. For example, Merrell used an integrated marketing communication approach in the days leading up to the Rothbury Music Festival. Print ads in magazines and banner ads on the Internet featured the Merrell brand as well as the logo for Rothbury. Point-of-sale placards, provided via sales and distribution channels, used the same design. Press releases by public relations offered the same message about Merrell and the Rothbury Festival’s commitments to the environment and sustainability.

Integrated brand promotion is a related term used to describe efforts to bring consistency to the presentation of the brand to consumers. Integrated brand promotion refers to the use of the promotional mix to build brand awareness, identity, and preference. Merrell, for instance, strives to have a consistent message about the brand’s efforts to market outdoor products in an environmentally friendly manner. Whereas integrated marketing communication refers to coordination in the communication effort of a firm, integrated brand promotion addresses coordination in order to build brand awareness, identity, and preference for a specific brand. In a world in which firms rely heavily on brands, integrated brand promotion is essential to building the value of the brand in the marketplace. Consequently, firms
today strive to achieve consistency in the messages sent as well as the brands associated with these advertisements and other promotions.

C. Message Strategy

Promotion strategies are developed to obtain a consumer response or influence a consumer opinion. One of the essential responses that the firm seeks is a product purchase. For example, India’s treesforfree.org (Figure 6-2) has point-of-purchase advertisements that ask consumers to contribute to reforestation.

Although increased consumption is often the motivation underlying promotion and advertising, select groups are now also presenting promotional campaigns that emphasize reduced consumption. For instance, the advertisement in Figure 6-3 was developed by ClimateMaster to promote reductions in the costs associated with home heating and cooling. These advertisements often focus on the environmental or economic returns associated with conservation of resources.

The second objective of promotion involves influencing the opinion that a consumer has about a brand, product, product attribute, or behavior. In many cases, promotional strategies designed to influence a consumer are in place well before a potential buyer is able or ready to buy. The promotional or advertising manager seeks to develop some association with the brand so that the association with the brand becomes relevant at the time of purchase. Thus, when Siemens advertising illustrates their wind turbines operating in the countryside, they are trying to foster an opinion about the firm rather than influence an immediate purchase.
The promotional strategy refers to a plan for the optimal use of advertising, sales promotion, public relations, direct marketing, and personal selling. To varying degrees, firms use each of these elements to communicate the value of their brands and products to the target audience. The strategy that underlies each of these forms of promotion should be focused on a particular target market and the associated value proposition developed by the firm. The message strategy refers to the objectives established by the promotional manager and the methods employed to achieve these objectives. Messages have verbal, nonverbal, and technical components that are employed to enhance the communication process and gain consumer acceptance.

In their analysis of advertising message strategies, O’Guinn, Allen, and Semenik identify several objectives associated with advertising and promotion, and they identify several different procedures employed to achieve these objectives. The objectives and the techniques ordinarily employed to achieve these objectives include:

1. **Promote brand recall.** The initial objective employed by many firms involves getting consumers to remember the service or brand name. If a consumer can remember the brand or some attribute, they are more inclined to buy the brand or engage in an activity associated with the message. The seemingly ubiquitous “reduce, reuse, and recycle” motto exemplifies an attempt to get the consumer to remember this activity. If consumers are unaware of these practices, they are unlikely to engage in them. Recurring use of a message builds retention that increases the likelihood that the consumers will reduce, reuse, and recycle.

Firms and organizations also promote their ideas and brand names via jingles and slogans. These communications to the consumer attempt to increase the likelihood that a consumer will remember the idea, product, or service. For example, Waste Management uses the copyrighted slogan *Think Green*. This brand association with a renewed vision of waste is supported by the firm’s efforts to create clean, renewable energy from ordinary waste, efforts to convert solid waste into renewable electric power, and efforts to redevelop land for wildlife.

2. **Link a key attribute to the brand name.** In some cases, the firm seeks to associate particular attributes of a brand with the consumption decision (Figure 6-4).
A properly developed value proposition identifies self-expressive, emotional, or functional benefits delivered by a brand that provide value to consumers in a target market. The ability to achieve these benefits should be, in some way, superior to the competition. The firm must therefore develop advertisements that emphasize the unique selling proposition of the brand. For example, consumers have many alternatives with respect to the purchase of bottled water. The ads for
Bangalore, India-based Bisleri water emphasize that the company has made substantial commitments to reforestation. In contrast to brand recall ads, such ads require the consumer to learn somewhat more about the brand and the product class. A single viewing of a Bisleri water bottle will not likely project the message of the firm’s commitment to reforestation, but viewing multiple ads with this same message provides greater insight into the efforts of this water bottling company.
In many cases, firms seeking to link a key attribute to a brand name will focus on a single attribute of the product. Thus, Bisleri repeatedly states that purchases of their products lead to more money being invested in the planting of trees in Bangalore (Figure 6-6). When the firm has made a long-term commitment to this single brand attribute (e.g., reforestation), it often finds the strategy to be superior to a series of ads addressing multiple brand attributes. In addition, being the first to make a claim makes it difficult for the competition to make the same statement. Thus, competitors to Bisleri water will have some challenge making an association between their brands and reforestation in India.

3. **Convince the consumer.** In many cases, the marketer seeks to influence the buyer to make a purchase. Whereas the earlier strategies offered one or two reasons to buy, efforts to convince the consumer to make a purchase involve several logical arguments. Marketers use this approach when they feel the consumer is highly involved in the purchase. These consumers are willing to listen to cogent arguments about branded products. For ads and other promotional vehicles of this nature to work, the consumer must understand the logic presented in the ad, and the consumer must also agree with the logic. Advertisements that explicitly offer reasons to buy a product embody this strategy. For example, the American Public Transportation Association has developed newspaper and magazine ads that inform commuters that they can save money by taking public transportation (Figure 6-7).

The success of the strategies to persuade or convince consumers is contingent on the consumer’s involvement in the purchase process. On some occasions, companies draw attention to the relative advantage of their products. By illustrating the superior performance of a product, the marketer hopes to convince the consumer to buy. This method has been found to be effective for brands with low market share when compared with high–market-share brands, and it has been shown to be effective when consumers have not demonstrated a brand preference. Thus, many consumers faced with purchasing a new faucet are likely to have no brand preference. The Delta ad for...
the Dryden brand draws attention to the money-saving benefits of this efficient-flow-rate faucet (Figure 6-8).

Another means that marketers use to convince the consumer to buy is via ads that express a sense of urgency. For example, sellers of solar panels for homes may post a
newspaper ad that indicates a limited-time offer of a reduction in the price of goods. This form of ad is particularly effective when the consumer is comfortable with the benefits of a product but is looking for additional motivation to buy now.

4. **Instill brand preference.** In many cases, the goal of communication is not to influence an immediate purchase but to nurture preferences for the brand. These ads and promotions often emphasize the development of positive feelings toward the brand rather than rational thoughts about the salience of a product. One means of fostering these feelings is through ads that attempt to make the
consumer feel good about the brand. The logic rests on the presumption that consumers who like a brand will prefer the brand to alternatives. For example, Clorox’s Green Works brands (see Figure 6-9) attempt to foster positive feelings for the brand prior to purchase.

Two of the most common methods used to foster positive feelings toward a brand are via the use of humor and sex appeals. Humorous ads ordinarily attempt to create a memorable and pleasurable association with a product or brand. Humor is particularly effective when the punch line or payoff from the humor is directly associated with the product or brand. For instance, ads for the MINI featured a play on the carbon footprint terminology through the vehicle’s fuel efficiency and the fun go-kart feeling of a MINI by referring to MINI’s Carfun Footprint (Figure 6-10). The humorous mention of the footprint shaped like a MINI vehicle draws attention to the MINI advertisement. Sexy ads similarly draw attention to the product with the hope that this attention will lead to brand preference. The Body Shop, for example, uses attractive models in their campaigns to draw attention to the firm’s health care and beauty products (Figure 6-11).

5. Change behavior by inducing fear or anxiety. Marketers operating in some situations have found that they can get a consumer to act—or convince the consumer not to act—by instilling fear or anxiety in the consumer. Fear apparently is most effective when consumers have engaged in some thought about the issue, and under such circumstances, fear can be an effective way to induce consumer action. In the world of green marketing, fear is more likely to be used in a public service announcement than in ads for specific products. Aspen/Snowmass ads, for example, that treat snow as an endangered species are designed to instill in the consumer a desire to act in an environmentally responsible manner (Figure 6-12).
The Aspen/Snowmass ad shown below illustrates an effort to instill fear that one is leaving a less than desirable climate for future generations. The use of anxiety is related to the use of fear because both methods attempt to call attention to the negative consequences of certain activities or consumption practices. Anxiety is not as strong an emotion as outright fear, and it can last longer. For example, the World

![MINI Ad associated with the Carfun Footprint initiative](image)

Source: © 2009 MINI, a division of BMW of North America, LLC. All rights reserved. The MINI and BMW trademark, model names and logo are registered trademarks.
FIG. 6-11 The Body Shop Ad Using Sex Appeal

Source: © Image courtesy of The Advertising Archives
Wildlife Federation (WWF) has repeatedly employed ads that use destruction of habitat for polar bears to generate anxiety over global warming (Figure 6-13).

6. Situate the brand socially. The social nature of humans is at the core of this strategy that situates the brand socially. Products have social meaning such that by putting them in the proper context, the marketer can gain awareness and, hopefully, adoption of a product. Many ads use a slice of life appeal that
situates the brand in an ideal usage setting. While this method is used extensively in television and print media, it is also used when marketers engage in product placement. Product placement refers to efforts on the part of brand...
owners to feature their products in films, movies, plays, or other performances. By linking the brand to a seemingly real activity, the marketer hopes to foster awareness of the brand. Figure 6-14 illustrates the use of Coca Cola on the TV show *American Idol*. Coca Cola gains increased awareness of its product, and the TV show receives revenue from the product placement.

7. *Transform the consumption experience.* Ads that transform the consumption experience seek to operate in a manner quite different from the strategies outlined previously. In most ads, the goal is to provide information about the product or enhance perceptions of the brand. When the firm elects to transform consumption, it is trying to make the consumption experience better. The marketer tries to make expectations about the experience or memories of the experience better. For instance, Starbucks has attempted to transform the mundane experience of buying coffee into something else. The claim that *Starbucks is not just coffee* (Figure 6-15) reflects the idea that Starbucks is trying to frame the experience of its coffee as different and superior to alternatives.

8. *Define the brand image.* The final strategy refers to action taken by the marketing organization to define the brand. In this type of advertising, the goal is to project an image of what the marketer hopes the consumer will associate with the brand. Regardless of whether the ad relies solely on visual images or lengthy copy, the objective is to link specific attributes to the brand. The Toms ad (Figure 6-16) defines the brand image as consisting of environmentally conscious, high-quality footwear.

The strategies outlined in this section are representative of most advertisements and promotions, but they certainly do not include all strategies employed by firms. The selection of these various strategies is driven by the goals of the firm as well as
FIG. 6-15
Starbucks Ad
Exemplifying
Transformation of
the Consumption
Experience

Source: © Richard Levine/Alamy

FIG. 6-16
Toms Ad
That Helps to Define
the Brand Image

Source: © AP Images/PRNewsFoto/TOMS Shoes
by the corporate and environmental context faced by the organization. In addition, it is not uncommon for firms to use multiple appeals in the same ad. Many humorous ads, for example, also are competitive promotions that link the product to specific attributes. The competitive position of the firm also influences the strategy employed. Well-established firms are likely, for instance, to place less emphasis on achieving brand awareness, but they are more inclined to invest in promotional strategies that promote a brand image.

D. Green Branding

The last strategy identified in the previous section addressed the development of a brand image. We define a **brand** as a name, term, design, or symbol that identifies a seller’s products and differentiates them from competitors’ products. Firms are heavily focused on branding because at the product-market level, brand equity increases channel effectiveness and communications and decreases price sensitivity associated with the brand. In some cases, firms are aggressively developing reputations for products that outperform the competition with respect to environmental concerns. For example, the Body Shop brand emphasizes natural ingredients designed to enhance natural beauty while striving to achieve sustainability. By contrast, other brands may pursue sustainability efforts within the firm, but this message is not integral to the manner in which they present the brand to consumers. Nike, for instance, has made a commitment to reduce deforestation in the Amazon basin, but the reduction of the firm’s carbon footprint and its commitment to rain forests are not central to the promotion of its brands.

In this section, we consider ways in which a brand can be differentiated from the competition based on appeals to sustainability or the environment. Firms that establish well-defined brand identity are substantially more likely to yield brand value. The value of a brand expressed as brand equity has been examined from a **customer**, **corporate**, and **financial** basis. Customer-based brand equity considers the attraction to a particular product from a particular company generated by factors other than the product’s attributes. Corporate-based brand equity refers to the additional value that accrues to a firm because of the presence of the brand name that would not accrue to the equivalent, unbranded product. Financially based brand equity is the price the brand brings in the financial market.

The levels of company-based and financially based equity are driven by customer-based brand equity. Customer-level brand equity can be captured by five factors that form a hierarchy from lowest to highest. This hierarchy is consistent with the awareness–interest–desire–action framework developed to describe and influence consumption. These factors include:

- **Awareness.** The initial step for a brand often involves positioning the brand and its promotion to increase the likelihood that consumers will remember the brand. Awareness of the brand fosters interest that prompts desire and ultimately action. Consumer awareness of the brand can be evaluated based on **brand recall**, the ability to retrieve the brand when given the product category, the needs fulfilled by the category, or some other type of cue. For example, Toyota is likely to monitor the extent to which consumers recall the Prius brand name when prompted with the hybrid automobile product category. **Brand recognition** refers to the consumers’ ability to confirm exposure to the brand when given the brand as a cue. Thus, Toyota could show consumers the product or brand logo and assess recognition.
Associations. Firms that establish brand associations in the minds of customers differentiate the brand and have potential to establish competitive superiority. The tangible components of products are obvious ways to instill associations with the firm. Thus, Patagonia’s use of organic cotton in its clothing products provides an association between this brand and environmental sustainability. Tangibles include product features, price, service reliability, style, design, and other factors incorporated into a product offering that provide superior performance relative to competition.

Intangibles are also germane to the development of associations with the brand. Intangibles develop brand imagery that influences how consumers think about a brand rather than their objective assessment of product attributes. One source of imagery involves user profiles that describe the type of organization or person that uses a brand. A Patagonia ad, for instance, may paint a picture about the type of athlete that wears the brand. Imagery can also inform the consumer about the appropriate usage situation for a green product. For example, advertisements for compact fluorescent light bulbs illustrate the utility of these lights. Imagery can also be derived from personalities and values associated with the brand. Research identifies five dimensions of brand personality that include sincerity, excitement, competence, sophistication, and ruggedness. Subaru ads, for instance, espouse the rugged durability of the company’s automobiles. Finally, the history and heritage associated with a brand fosters imagery about the firm. Eddie Bauer’s trademark, for instance, indicates the long-term dedication of the firm to the environment (Figure 6-17).

A third means for developing associations with the brand lies in the reputation and image of a brand. In a world in which greenwashing is rampant, it is essential
that the firm establish credibility in the eyes of the consumer. Corporate credibility refers to the degree to which consumers believe that a company is willing and able to provide products and services that satisfy the needs and wants of consumers. Credibility can be developed in a number of ways. For example, Merrell’s support of the Rothbury Music Festival lends credence to the company’s claims about its concerns for the environment.

**Attitude.** Brand attitude refers to the consumer’s overall assessment of the brand. Attitudes are important because they form the basis for brand choice. Research indicates that attitudes toward brands are associated with beliefs a consumer has about a product and evaluative judgment about those beliefs. In their efforts to market BlueTec diesel automobiles, Volkswagen may seek to assess consumer beliefs and assessments of this technology.

**Attachment.** The emotional bond that may exist between a consumer and a brand embodies brand attachment. The attachment that consumers have toward a brand is embodied in affective, warm feeling for a brand, passionate intense feelings toward the brand, and the consumer’s feelings of being connected with the brand. Attachment is important because it can lead to brand loyalty and a willingness to spend more for a brand. For example, Starbucks has developed many loyal customers by fostering an affiliation with the company through a unique, retail dining experience.

**Activity.** The activity associated with the brand addresses the purchase and consumption frequency of a brand as well as the consumer’s involvement with the marketing program. In general, higher levels of activity should foster stronger consumer brand equity. Frequent buyer programs, for instance, enable consumers to take active parts in the marketing programs of the firm. For example, Staples ink cartridge recycling program is an activity that bolsters the environmental reputation of the brand while simultaneously stimulating brand loyalty and store traffic.

The five factors listed above reflect ways in which firms have increasingly nurtured brand equity among consumers. Each level implies increasing interaction and involvement with the brand, thereby yielding higher levels of brand equity. Green brand identity refers to a specific set of brand attributes and benefits associated with reduced environmental influence of a brand and the perception of being environmentally sound. Positioning a brand as green or sustainable involves communication and differentiation of the brand through its environmental attributes. Companies specifically interested in enhancing their affiliations with green practices and sustainability have focused on the functional and emotional benefits derived from the brands. Similar to the tangible brand associations addressed above, functional benefits are based on the relevant environmental advantages of the product compared to competing products. For example, Brita markets the functional benefits of lower costs and reduced landfills of its water purifiers over conventional bottled water.

As many analysts have indicated, the functional, ecological benefits alone of a product can have a limited influence on consumption. In many cases, the environmental benefit is not realized by the consumer, and these benefits can be easily replicated by competitors. The benefit of smaller landfills may not resonate with many consumers, and other marketers could make the same claims about landfills.

Emotional brand benefits can serve as alternative complementary strategies to nurture green brand identity in three ways. First, a brand can enhance its green equity by engaging in altruistic acts that contribute to the environment. Celestial Seasonings, for example, has partnered with Trees for the Future to plant one tree in a developing country for every box of Celestial Seasonings tea purchased. This
benevolent activity enriches sentiments toward the brand. Second, consumers can express green benefits through socially visible consumption of green brands. Thus, the purchase and operation of a Prius sends a message to other consumers that one is acting in an environmentally conscious manner. Third, a brand can espouse a green identity when it enables consumers to get in contact with natural environments. Thus, the Siemens ad in Figure 6-4 associates the company’s wind power products with a pastoral setting.

E. Certification Labeling

Businesses and consumers that want to act environmentally responsible are looking for ways to do so when they go to market. Consequently, a wealth of certification labels has been developed in a variety of industries and contexts. For example, the Energy Star label is a joint program of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency and the U.S. Department of Energy. This certification is designed to save money and protect the environment through energy-efficient products and practices. Certification labels include eco-labels that reflect adherence to some standard associated with food safety and environmental performance and social labels that concern human rights and labor standards. Although traditional labels focused on a single aspect of the useable life cycle of a product, these labels increasingly incorporate multiple criteria. For example, Food Alliance certification ensures that United States farms, ranches, and food handlers engage in both sustainable agricultural and facility management practices.

Retail Product Terminology. In the retail sector, consumers are increasingly interested in purchasing healthy and sustainable products. Research suggests that 60% of consumers in the United States market select foods for health purposes, regardless of age or gender. The challenge for many consumers, however, is to determine the meaning associated with high-quality products. Three terms are used to varying degrees to describe and classify products. Although these terms may be viewed as interchangeable by the consumer, they have different meanings, cost structures, and marketing implications. The terms include:

Natural. Few terms employed in consumer marketing are as confusing as the term natural. Since essentially all products derive from nature, every competitor can claim to have natural products. Although the definition of this term varies based on the type of product under consideration, there remains a lack of agreement on the meaning of this term. Since products are produced in a variety of ways that include new technologies such as genetic modification, the ability to label a product as natural continues to be problematic and confusing to consumers. Moreover, the natural term alone is likely to offer little competitive advantage in comparison to organic or other healthy claims.

Organic. Organic production refers to the pesticide-free farming of locally produced ingredients typically grown in a small farm setting. Due to the different interpretations of the term, many standards have developed in different markets and states. In 1990, passage of the Organic Foods Production Act (OFPA) required that the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) establish national standards for U.S. organic products. The USDA definition uses the term organic to refer to food that is generally free of synthetic substances; contains no hormones or antibiotics; has not been irradiated or fertilized with sewage sludge; was raised without the use of most conventional pesticides; and contains no genetically modified ingredients. The USDA legislation (1) established standards for marketing organically
produced products, (2) assured that organic products met a consistent standard, and (3) facilitated interstate commerce. The legislation targeted environmental quality by requiring that organic producers address soil fertility and regulate manure application to prevent water contamination. The act also included environmental and human health criteria to evaluate materials used in organic production. The USDA organic logo and the USDA National Organic Standards (NOS) were implemented on October 21, 2002, replacing the prior patchwork system of organic standards in various American states. Organic certification is performed via state-run or accredited private agencies that see whether farms conform to the standards of the National Organic Program (NOP). Farmers that meet these requirements can market their products as “USDA Certified Organic” and display the USDA organic seal on their packaging.

It is important to recognize the merits and limitations of organic farming. Note that research performed over several decades indicates that organic farming is usually associated with reduced soil erosion, lower fossil fuel consumption, less leaching of nitrate, greater carbon sequestration, and marked reductions in pesticide use. Despite these merits of organic farms, the organic label, per se, does not mean food is necessarily healthier than nonorganic food. The label applies to the manner of production, yet it says nothing about the nutritional value. There remains some debate as to whether food produced in an organic manner is necessarily better for the consumer. While some studies indicate added nutritional value and flavor for organic products, the results vary somewhat from product to product. Making organic junk food does not alleviate any of the health problems associated with a regular diet of such food. In addition, some farmers are wary of the future potential of organic farming. For example, Stonyfield no longer markets many of its products as organic. Because production of organic ingredients has not kept pace with the demand, companies like Stonyfield are increasingly finding it difficult to find enough organic feed, organic cows, and organic fruit to make genuinely organic yogurt.

Biodynamic. As the rapid commercialization of organic products has developed, there has been a complementary interest in developing and marketing products that exceed the organic criteria. Biodynamics is a farming orientation based on the teachings of Austrian philosopher Rudolph Steiner. Biodynamics refers to a specific form of organic farming that augments organic processes with consideration of the time of year, location, soil type, existing flora and fauna, and other factors. Biodynamic farms are virtually complete ecosystems such that livestock create manure to fertilize fields and natural predators, such as insects, provide pest control. Since biodynamics does not use artificial settings such as greenhouses, seasonality becomes a major issue. For example, the United States vintners using biodynamic techniques must plant grapes at the seasonally appropriate time rather than use hothouses.

Demeter International is a Brussels-based nonprofit organization that oversees use of the term biodynamics. In order to gain eligibility, a farm must first meet the National Organic Program standards for organic farms for at least three years. Given the variation among farms, a single threshold is not employed. On the contrary, certification is based on existing environmental and social conditions with the goal that each farm evolves toward its maximum potential.

Certification labels help reduce the asymmetry of information between producers and consumers by allowing communication of credible characteristics of products. Consequently, these labels are employed to inform consumers of product
quality issues and the environmental processes used in production. The premise behind using these labels is that this information will be used in consumer decision making. The consumer must know what the label means and the issues associated with the label must be meaningful to the consumer. Consider, for example, the purchase of a microwave oven. If the Energy Star label is to be instrumental to the purchase, consumers need to know that Energy Star is awarded to the most efficient products in this product class, and efficiency must be important to consumers.

Increasingly, certification labeling is not only used to indicate diverse criteria, but it is further associated with complete life cycle usage assessment. Life cycle assessment refers to accounting for production and processing as well as resource energy usage, emissions, and waste. Because of life cycle assessment, labeling criteria increasingly require firms to track products throughout the entire supply chain. The life cycle inventory assessment identifies the sum amount of resources and emissions associated with a product or service over its life. The eco-Leaf label used in Japan uses a life cycle assessment that quantitatively evaluates environmental information for all stages of the product’s life.

Given that there are more than 400 eco-labels in use, it is meaningful to distinguish among the types of certification. One can distinguish initially between labels that are mandatory versus voluntary. The Energy Guide label, for example, is a required label for appliance sales in the United States. It provides the average yearly operating cost of an appliance as well as the average operating cost for all other products in the class. Not only are these types of labels required in many markets, but the credibility of these governmental labels is also higher than the level of credibility for labels developed by retailers.

Among voluntary labels, one can distinguish between standards affiliated with the International Standards Organization (ISO). ISO 14000 certification is the international management standard associated with environmental management, and ISO 14020-29 address labeling. There are three types of labels associated with ISO 14000. First, labels can be based on self-declarations made by producers and suppliers without the direct authorization of a third party. For example, the recycled content label is featured on many supermarket products. Since corporately developed labels may lower levels of credibility more than other labels, it is germane for the marketer to consider whether these labels will lead to product associations that generate revenue. The credibility of these labels is likely to be associated with the overall credibility of the firm. These labels are used on the product and are featured in advertisements and other promotions.

A second type of label is awarded by agencies external to the firm. For example, USDA certified organic labels are awarded to products that adhere to recognized standards for organic farming and food processing (Figure 6-18). Another such certification is the Blue Angel, which is awarded to products and services that are of considerable benefit to the environment and that further meet high standards of serviceability. They must also achieve high ratings for health and occupational protection. Economical use of raw materials during production and use, a long service life, and a sustainable disposal are also factors of great importance in making this award. The Blue Angel is awarded in Germany by the government after a review by an independent decision making body.

It is noteworthy that there are many standards that are not directly associated with the International Standards Organization. For example, the Energy Star label used in the United States is not, per se, based on ISO criteria. In many cases these standards are focused on a single industry. There are standards and associated
labels designed for assessment of buildings, carbon, electronics, energy, food, forest products, retail goods, textiles, tourism, and other industries. For example, Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design (LEED) certification is focused on the construction and building industry. To use the fair trade label in the coffee industry, a company must buy coffee directly from certified small coffee producers, and it must offer long-term contracts beyond one annual harvest. The company must agree to pay a price premium of $1.26 per pound, and it must offer producers pre-financing covering at least 60% of the annual contract.49

A third type of label is awarded based on quantitative life cycle environmental data provided in an extensive report format.50 In this case, an organization external to the firm provides extensive reporting and assessment of the sustainability efforts by a company. For example, Environmental Product Declaration (EPD) has developed integrated systems that enable companies to help communicate the environmental performance of their products in a credible and understandable way. Upon verification, companies qualify to use the EPD trademark label on products as well as in advertisements and packaging materials.

Since there are many types of labels, it can be overwhelming to decipher which labels are most informative in a particular context. The development of a certification label involves many challenges and trade-offs. At one extreme, the label must be simple and distinctive to enhance consumer awareness. At the same time, however, the certification must also be supported by significant investment in sustainable business practices. The label must therefore convey complex efforts in an uncomplicated way. The Blue Angel, for instance, offers an efficient way to communicate sustainable practices associated with responsible management of health, climate, water, and resources.51
Several criteria should be accessible regarding any label associated with an environmental claim or standard. First, it is germane to consider the coverage of the standard. The developer of the standard needs to establish the breadth and extent of the environmental coverage associated with the standard. Over its life, a product uses resources and exerts influences on water, air, land, and energy. The degree to which a label is associated with concern for each of these factors should be addressed. Standards offer varying levels of attention to each of these factors that may be affected by products bearing a certification label.

In addition to the coverage of a standard, it is also important to know how the achievement of the standard is verified. The basis for verification should be available, as should the length of time during which a company may use the label. In addition, it is germane to report how often companies are audited with respect to the criteria associated with the award. For example, the Nordic Swan label is granted in 66 product categories based on environmental, quality, and health factors. The label is usually valid for three years, after which the criteria are revised and the company must reapply for a license. Information on environmental coverage and verification for a multitude of labels is provided at ecolabelling.org.

In addition to the coverage of the label, it is also relevant to examine who is involved in developing and managing the standard. There is tremendous variation in the extent to which groups are included in the development and maintenance of standards and related labels. Government, producers and processors, NGOs, and consumers are included in the development of standards and labels to varying degrees. The extent to which these groups are involved in the labeling process is related to the credibility of the label. Research suggests that consumers have greater trust in labels developed by consumer and environmental groups than those developed by other third-party groups, government, or retailers.

To this point, our review of labels has examined how the label is developed and the extent of environmental coverage associated with the standard. The logic of standards suggests that they inform the consumer, and the consumer thereby makes purchases of products developed in sustainable ways. The ultimate question of the label, then, is its effectiveness in generating consumption and thereby increased revenues to the firm. If the label is effective, then revenue should increase after it is in place. For example, research has illustrated that under some conditions, the use of the organic and free trade labels can be associated with increased willingness to pay for related products.

Although we value measuring the effectiveness of a label in driving consumers toward green products, results do not illustrate a strong relationship between labeling and consumption. Consequently, few labels can illustrate a direct link between their application and performance. Although people want to act in an environmentally friendly way, in many cases the environment is not a top priority in making a purchase. The purchase process may also be driven by habit or heuristics such that the consumer gives it little thought. In addition, the information overload can be overwhelming to consumers. As the amount of information increases, it becomes increasingly more difficult to process the information. When this information is not processed, it is unlikely that behavior will change.

F. Demarketing

The role of certification labels, like most marketing efforts, is to increase the amount of product consumed. By contrast, demarketing refers to action undertaken by marketers to discourage consumption. Consumers may be asked to refrain
from consumption on a permanent or temporary basis. For example, water is an increasingly scarce resource, and industry, consumers, and government benefit from water conservation. Research investigating the response to government efforts to reduce water consumption indicates that minority groups are less responsive than the majority population in reducing water consumption.63

The firm can demarket in three contrasting ways:

**General demarketing** occurs when companies such as utilities try to shrink the level of total demand. The effort to reduce consumption can be on short-term basis, such as the efforts to limit water consumption during a drought, or on a long-term basis, such as oil company promotions to conserve energy.64

**Selective demarketing** occurs when an organization discourages demand from certain classes of consumers. Urban governments in some countries seek to fight congestion by raising toll prices at selective times of the day. In Stockholm, a road pricing trial implemented was to reduce congestion by 10 to 15%. A congestion fee was differentially employed depending on the time one chose to enter the zone where the fee was being charged. The highest fee was set to 20 SEK (around $3) for the time period 7:30 until 7:59 in the morning and the period from 4:00 to 4:30 in the evening. The fee was SEK 10 from 9:00 to 3:29, no fee was charged on weekends, and the maximum fee per car per day was SEK 60. Environmentally friendly vehicles, vehicles owned by disabled drivers, motorcycles, taxis, buses, and other essential vehicles (e.g., police, military) were exempt from congestion fees. This selective demarketing effort in Stockholm yielded a 10% total travel reduction and a 17% reduction in travel for shopping purposes.65

**Ostensible demarketing** refers to a strategy that involves limiting consumption for the purpose of increasing sales. Note that in contrast to the general and selective demarketing, the goal of this strategy is to stimulate additional demand. Companies sometimes use ostensible demarketing to increase brand awareness and attractiveness by claiming overwhelming demand for a product. Limited availability of a good is often used to stimulate consumers to act immediately to ensure product ownership. For example, the rising gas prices in the summer of 2008 led some Hyundai dealers to offer to pay for a buyer’s gas for a year.

In many situations, marketers use the logic of ostensible demarketing to stimulate increased consumption of new, energy-efficient technologies and products. These ostensible demarketing campaigns emphasize that investments in new technologies can yield less consumption, lower costs, and greater benefits to the community. The Lexmark Corporation, for instance, engages consumers in sustainability by encouraging them to print less. This developer of printers and related computer technologies has developed document scanning technologies, duplex and multipage printing capabilities, and print preview, as well as draft print and quick print modes. Each of these technologies enables consumers to print less and, consequently, use less paper, energy, toner, and ink.66 Higher levels of sustainability accrue due to greater financial performance, better working relationships with consumers, and relatively lower influences on the environment.

Demarketing practices are related to sustainability and green marketing practice because they are employed to influence the financial, relational, and ecological returns associated with consumption. For example, low-flow showerheads can save homeowners more than US$100 per year over earlier technologies. Many of the promotions that emphasize demarketing are focused on the long-term health and
relational benefits of reduced consumption. The American Lung Association, for instance, runs multiple programs and promotions designed to limit tobacco consumption. The ecological returns associated with limited consumption are also featured in promotions. The Peace River Water Authority in Florida, for example, has developed promotions designed to stimulate water conservation.

A recurring theme in promotions that feature calls for environmental responsibility is that the consumer is often more interested in other issues associated with product consumption and use. Marketers that recognize this fact use multiple motivations to encourage reduced consumption. For example, Brita uses all three forms of demarketing in its ads for water filters. It emphasizes the cost savings from reusing a single bottle, the health and relational merits of filtering water, and the environmental savings associated with limiting the number of water bottles.

Summary

A. Introduction
The purpose of this chapter is to illustrate how marketers communicate value through the promotional mix. We used logic based on the marketing efforts of Merrell to illustrate an integrated marketing communication strategy developed to promote a relatively sustainable brand and its related products.

B. Integrated Marketing Communication
Integrated marketing communication is concerned with coordination among the elements of the promotional mix to ensure the consistency of the message delivered at every contact point between the consumer and the company. The promotional mix includes advertising, sales promotion, personal selling, public relations, and direct marketing. Integrated brand promotion is a related term that refers to the use of the promotional mix to build brand awareness, identity, and preference. Many firms today that seek to promote the sustainability of their brands engage in integrated marketing communication along with integrated brand promotion.

C. Message Strategy
Since there are multiple communication objectives associated with a promotional campaign, marketers have developed a series of strategies designed to help realize these objectives. Firms use jingles and slogans to increase brand recall, and they develop unique selling propositions to link a key attribute to a brand. When consumers are more involved in the purchase process, marketers use cogent logic or positive sentiment to stimulate brand interest. Positive feelings toward the brand are also generated through promotions and advertisements that use humor or sex appeal. Anxiety and fear have also been found to be effective strategies to induce consumption. Advertisements that situate the brand socially attempt to shape the meaning of the brand, whereas promotions that transform the consumption seek to make the consumption experience better. Promotional campaigns that attempt to define the brand image link certain attributes of the product class to the brand.

D. Green Branding
Green branding addresses the degree to which firms associate their brands with sustainability and sustainable business practices. The value of the brand can be expressed on a customer, corporate, or financial basis, yet many assessments of corporate or financial brand equity are derived from customer-based brand equity. The customer-based value of the brand is based on consumer brand awareness, associations made with the brand, attitudes and attachments toward the brand, and consumer involvement with the brand.

E. Certification Labeling
Labels are used by marketers to increase consumer awareness of the product and brand attributes. They help reduce the asymmetry of information between producers and consumers by allowing communication of credible characteristics of products. Certification labels include eco-labels that reflect adherence to some standard associated with food safety and environmental performance and social labels that concern human rights and labor standards.
The labels may be based on self-proclamation by a firm, or they may involve evaluation by a third party. Certification labeling is used to account for production and processing as well as for resource energy usage, emissions, and waste.

F. Demarketing

Demarketing refers to action undertaken by marketers to discourage consumption. General demarketing refers to efforts by organizations such as power companies that seek to reduce the overall amount of energy usage. Selective demarketing is employed when a company seeks to limit the amount of consumption by target markets within a community. Ostensible demarketing refers to strategies that use limited consumption as a means for increasing revenue.

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Questions

1. The introduction of this chapter characterizes Merrell as a company that engages in integrated marketing communication to present its brands and products. Describe the marketing mix of another firm that uses integrated marketing communication to promote sustainability.

2. Is direct marketing a component of the promotional mix? Under what circumstances would direct marketing be classified as either promotion or retailing?

3. What are the benefits that companies realize when they elect to develop integrated brand promotions?

4. One of the purposes of promotion is to generate consumer responses in the form of immediate purchases. Describe an ad or point-of-sale display that has been used to spur immediate consumer purchases of relatively environmentally friendly products.

5. The Green Works ad campaign uses a feel-good strategy to foster preferences for the brand. Describe another ad for an environmentally friendly product that is marketed using this strategy.

6. It is relatively easy these days to instill consumer anxiety about the environment. Under what conditions do you believe that such a strategy will be either effective or ineffective?

7. Distinguish brand recognition from brand recall as message objectives. Which of these strategies is more challenging to achieve?

8. What is the difference between eco-labels and social labels? Describe a certification label that incorporates both ecological and relational components.

9. The logic of labels suggests that the presence of a certification label should lead to increased awareness and ultimately increased sales. How successful have labels been in stimulating sales of sustainable products?
10. Why would a company use a demarketing strategy when this strategy is designed to reduce consumption? Will this strategy necessarily mean lower revenues for the firm?

Endnotes

8 See Note 6 above.
11 See Note 6 above.
12 See Note 3 above.
16 See Note 13 above.
26 See note 10 above.
27 See note 25 above.
37 See Note 36 above.
39 See Note 35 above.


47 See Note 46 above.


50 See Note 46 above.


52 See Note 51 above.


55 Ecolabelling.org, http://ecolabelling.org/

56 See Note 46 above.


58 See Note 42 above.


64 See Note 62 above.


67 See Note 60 above.