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Assessment the Influence Factors for Increase the Market Share in Industrial Cooling and Heating Products

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ABSTRACT─ A central question in industrial marketing is whether the form in which the market of a firm is represented influences the marketing strategy. Market representations are coherent yet simplified views of what a market is and how it works. Managers need representations because markets are generally too complex, involving multiple people conducting multiple trades, at separate times, at multiple locations, and for various reasons. In order to understand a firm's market context, managers must make assumptions and predictions about significant external structures. Furthermore, managers must simplify and isolate relevant issues involving complicated interactions between social, economic, political, and technological structures in order to make simplifications about markets, they have to assemble representations. In this paper we try to survey effect of two distinct differentiation strategies, vertical and horizontal, on pricing policies in the heating and cooling equipment industry. Furthermore, in this paper we survey effective factors which effects on increase the marketing share.
KEYWORDS: Brand Equity, marketing Mix, ANP

Introduction

Marketing is a representational practice (Levy, 1959; Stern, 2004). Marketers operate by representing one thing with something else—for example, using a brand to represent the values of the company, or crafting ads to represent the benefits of a product. Industrial market players feel a particularly high pressure to go abroad in order to secure and enlarge a company's sales volume. Since international activity is vital to their performance, business-to-business companies are facing the challenge of designing and implementing market-specific export strategies that take into account the uncertain environment within the fast changing target markets (Katsikeas, 2006). International market success is always linked to an efficient and effective implementation of a well planned marketing-mix strategy (Sousa, Martı´nez-Lo´pez, & Coelho, 2008) for a specific market. So, it is necessary to rethink established domestic strategies when entering a new market (McDougall & Oviatt, 1996) because of different international market settings. When entering a new market, firms have to design and implement an appropriate marketing mix approach. They have to weigh up between a cost and complexity saving strategy of international standardization and a customer and market-tailored adaptation strategy of the marketing-mix. For industrial marketing in particular, there is a growing need for guidance when navigating through a fast changing international business environment (Madhavaram, Badrinarayanan, & Granot, 2011). Metrics pertaining to consumer-base brand equity (CBBE) are a critical part ofmostmarketing or brand manager's portfolios. These metrics help formulate brand strategy and assess the performance of brand expenditure (Aaker, 1992; Lehmann, Keller, & Farley, 2008). An important dimension of CBBE is the brand's network of associations in consumer memory (Keller, 2003). This associative network (Anderson & Bower, 1979) is a store of knowledge that consumers draw upon to elicit and select between brands available in memory in choice situations. Marketers seek to influence consumer's associative networks for brands, through activities to build and refresh brand associations in consumer memory. Product differentiation has been widely regarded as one way for firms to isolate themselves from the pressure of competitors and thus obtain superior performance (Bain, 1956; Dickson & Ginter, 1987; Porter, 1980). Retail distribution plays a critical role in determining market shares: a product must be offered for sale before it can be purchased. Distribution also contributes to sales in less obvious ways. It can generate consumer awareness, change the set of competitors facing the product and alter the consumer's perception of the retailer and the brand. Given this critical role of distribution in determining market outcomes, a large empirical literature has examined the interplay between distribution and market share.

The Theoretical Framework

Most literature on the growth in private label market share can be classified into two main fields of study. The basic principle is that product branding is characterized by continuous growth in all different product categories. The research hypotheses in these studies tend to concentrate on the impact that the growth has on the following variables:

1- Average category prices (Bonfrer and Chintagunta, 2004; Anselmsson et al., 2008). A number of studies note how the growth in private label share tends to lead to a reduction in prices, especially in the early phases of share growth from 0% to 10%. Some recent studies show, however, that when private label growth leads to higher use of shelf space and a consequent reduction of Stock Keeping Units (SKU) of manufacturer brands, lower intra-brand competition can lead to an increase in average category prices (Pauwels and Srinivasan, 2004).

2- Product category margins (AilawadiandHarlam, 2004). It has been empirically shown that private label market share growth yields a significant improvement in retail margins and general profitability of the product category.

3- The "power" relationships between different brands (Cotterill et al., 2000; Juhl etal.,2006; Fornarietal.,2011). It is noted that the growth of private label market share tends to modify the equilibrium of competitive positions among brands, especially in product categories where there is no clear manufacturer brand leadership and where there is inertia in both demand and supply

Market Representations

A market representation is defined here as a coherent yet incomplete view of what a market is and how it works, either at the present time or in an alternative future. Managers sort out and select from direct observation, personal experiences, and secondary data the elements that constitute a self-reinforcing view (Day & Nedungadi, 1994). Because of the constructive aspect of market representations (Harrison & Kjellberg, 2010), managers can extrapolate divisions in their own organization into market representations.

Business Marketing Strategies: Product Differentiation

When the product differentiation strategy is privileged, services are regarded as supplementary to the products. The strategic aim is to provide a better product offering than that of competitors, by means of differentiation (Treacy & Wiersema, 1993). For instance, customer support and after-sales services can be offered to provide a better reason to buy the product and to ensure future product sales. On the other hand, service focus is a different strategic path. Service focus aims to develop a distinct service business that can potentially be independent from the traditional product business (Raddats & Easingwood, 2010). For that reason, manufacturing firms, which operate under a service focus strategy, can offer services around an originating product, and product-independent services (e.g. process optimization and training services can be formulated based on the capabilities of the firm and sold independently from the product business). Typically, service focus strategies require more extensive interaction and collaboration between customer and supplier (Gebauer, Fleisch, & Friedli, 2005), and more emphasis on mutual construction of value-in-use (Aarikka-Stenroos and Jaakkola, 2012). In fact, the service focus strategy is counter intuitive for a business built on selling products.

Influence of International Entrepreneurship and Use of Networks on Uncertainty

International entrepreneurship is a well established concept in research; however, the definition of the term remains unclear (Wirtz, Mathieu, & Schilke, 2007). Following McDougall and Oviatt (2000), we associate the proactive and innovative action of a company with its international entrepreneurship, as a ‘‘combination of innovative, proactive, and risk-seeking behavior that crosses national borders and is intended to create value in organizations. ’’There seems to be a positive relationship between the active search for new opportunities or the innovative responses to changing environments, and a firm's export performance (Nelson & Winter, 1982; Wirtz et al., 2007). On an individual level, Ruzzier, Antoncic, Hisrich, and Konecnik (2007) show that the entrepreneur's international orientation and environmental risk perception influence the firm's degree of internationalization.

Brand Equity

Brand equity has received much attention from marketing academics and practitioners due to its significant role as a key intangible firm asset (Aaker, 1991; Keller, 1998). Brand equity is considered one of the major drivers of customer equity, which is defined as the total combined customer lifetime value of all of a company's customers (Rust et al., 2004). Keller and Lehmann (2006) asserted that brands simplify customer choices, promise a particular level of quality, engender trust, and reduce risk. They also noted that brands play an important role in influencing the effectiveness of marketing efforts, such as advertising and channel placement. The accrued value from these benefits is called brand equity. Using a customer-based approach, brand equity is defined as "the differential effect of brand knowledge on consumer response to the marketing of the brand" (Keller, 1993).

It should be noted most previous brand equity research, besides that on the "buffering" perspective, focused on the positive role of brand equity on firm performance (Hess et al., 2003; Oliveria-Castro et al., 2008; Tax et al., 1998). This is driven by two motivations: finance based (e.g., estimating the value of a firm) and strategy-based (e.g., improving the efficiency of marketing expenses). Firms have utilized branding strategies as a marketing tool to achieve high levels of brand equity (Olins, 1989; Murphy, 1989; Rao et al., 2004). Firms usually begin with a single brand and extend product lines if the initial brand is successful (Laforet and Saunders, 1994). Firms can use the name of the initial brand for new products related to the firm. The impact of branding strategy on consumer responses can be explained by the accessibility-diagnosticity framework of Feldman and Lynch (1988).This perspective suggests that when brand A is perceived as informative regarding brand B, a consumer's experience with brand A will influence evaluations of brand B. Applying this logic to a crisis context, when a parent company (e.g., Darden restaurant, Inc.) is perceived as informative regarding its product (e.g., Red Lobster), the previous image of the parent company may affect product evaluation. When one product is associated with a product-harm crisis, the negative image of the product may influence market evaluations of the parent company as well. In a perfect situation, a company defines its brand. That's why the above four brands are internationally known, well respected, and unique within their competitive marketplace. The branding teams behind those companies spend countless hours and dollars to develop what billions of people around the world think and feel about those brands. A brand community is a community formed because of attachment to a product or service. In a less than perfect situation, the leadership in a company has allowed the *brand community* to define the brand. They have allowed the brand audience to take control of the conversation in a negative manner.

People create brand communities by the way they interact with a brand, including:

1- Products

2- Marketing

3- Advertising

Defining the brand is something that should be decided by the senior-most executive leadership. However, brands evolve and change over time. In fact, companies sometimes hire new executive leadership to change brand perception Brands owe their size to the combined effect of variables determined by firms (e.g., brand attributes, price, distribution and marketing communications) and the perceptions and actions of consumers (e.g., perceived quality, customer satisfaction, behavioural loyalty and word of mouth) (Dichter, 1966). Customers tend to discount the quality of store brands vis-_a-vis national brands despite a constant evolution in their attitudes. Because of the greater perceived risk associated with store brands, branding is an important issue for retailers (AilawadiandKeller,2004). There are different possibilities to classify branding strategies (Raoetal., 2004). We distinguish between own name branding and other-name branding strategies (DharandHoch,1997). Own-name refers to the strategy of using the retailer's name or part of the retailer's name. The retailer's name provides a signal about the quality of the store's products (Erdem andSwait,1998). Consequently, increasing the store's PLS with the retailer name may not generate similar effects as increasing the share of brands with out the retailer's own name. Customers with favorable impressions about the retailer are likely to transfer these impressions to the retailer's products and brands (McKenzieandLutz,1989).

Generic Strategies — Theoretical Background and Key Dimensions

Strategy at the strategic business unit (SBU) level is defined in terms of a clear strategic direction and positioning. Key direction components include vision, mission, and strategic objectives. Positioning is determined by defining where and how the company competes. Where, relates among other things, to market segments the company serves, the firm's line of products and services, geographic scope and business scope — horizontal or vertical integration and diversification (Brenes & Mena, 2003). How, has to do with the type of generic strategy the company uses to compete (Porter, 1985). Porter (1980, 1985) has pointed out the existence of three kinds of generic strategies: cost leadership, differentiation, and focus. These three generic strategies consolidate into two basic strategies, cost leadership and differentiation, which means that focus generic strategy is actually complementary and is obtainable in both cost leadership and differentiation strategies (Brenes & Mena, 2003; Campbell-Hunt, 2000).

Price Competition and Product Differentiation

The generic differentiation strategy is achievable by different means; non-exclusive common criteria also contribute to success (Porter, 1980, 1985). These criteria may be either of signal or use. Signal criteria can include price, brand image, packaging quality and time in business (Sporleder & Liu, 2007). The price of a product for a company that decides to compete through a differentiation strategy should be higher than that of its competitors. Price indicates that the product or service is truly differentiated by what ever means. Consumers who try the product or service and are not satisfied will not use it anymore. That is why price is considered as a signal factor that must be sustained over time (Porter, 1980, 1985). Porter (1980) later popularized the generic strategy of differentiation when a firm creates something tangible or intangible that is perceived as "being unique" by at least one set of customers. Thus, it is the customers' perceptions what determines the extent of product differentiation. Differentiation has been regarded as an important generic strategy widely used across all industries (Beal & Yasai-Ardekani, 2000; Homburg, Krohner & Workman, 1999), but their performance consequences are not well understood yet (Campbell-Hunt, 2000). Furthermore, there seem to be many possible differentiation strategies. For instance, Miller (1986) argued in favor of two types of differentiation strategy: innovation and marketing, which was supported by Lee and Miller (1999). In a broader categorization of differentiation-based strategies, Mintzberg (1988) proposed six types: quality, design, support, image, price, and undifferentiated products, which obtained empirical support from Kotha and Vadlamani (1995). However, customers often have different preferences about the set of desirable features in a product or service, so that a single ranking along a quality index cannot be developed for the firms in the market for which all customers would agree. This is the case of horizontal differentiation in which, even if all products were sold at the same price, firms would obtain different market shares to the extent that their products have a unique combination of attributes that are preferred by one specific set of customers. For instance, through brand loyalty a firm becomes more attractive to a specific set of customers with similar needs, which limits the degree of substitutability among competing firms (Makadok, 2010). When products are perfectly substitutable and offered at the exact same location, the lowest-pricing firm will prevail over the vis-a-vis higher pricing firm as all customers will shift toward the lowest-pricing firm. This is because the utility of consuming the product is the same and the disutility of paying a higher price prevents purchase. The implied outcome of strategically undercutting competitors' prices, under the assumptions of perfect information and strictly rational behavior, motivates the famous Bertrand competition (Yao & Liu, 2005), in which the firms cannot sell above marginal cost. Vettas and Christou (2005). Irmen and Thisse (1998) argued that firms need to maximize differentiation only in the product's dominant characteristic when the product has multiple attributes, in order to alleviate price competition. Cremer and Thisse (1991) showed that vertical (quality) and horizontal (variety) differentiation are essentially equivalent, while horizontal differentiation is only a special case of vertical differentiation in which the quality and prices of products are the same.

Competitive Reactions to Marketing-Mix Strategies

Market share information is an important gauge of the competition in a market. At its most basic level, market share for firm *i* is typically measured by dividing the sales of firm *i*, by total sales. Yet complications in the electric industry challenge tried-and-true measures of market share such as the Herfindahl–Hirschman Index and the Gini coefficient. At the wholesale level, market power and strategic behavior in the real-time power trading market challenge traditional concentration measures. At the retail level, these measures are similarly deficient but for different reasons. Passive demand, imperfect information, and institutional factors similarly confound traditional retail market share measures, and give misleading and erroneous indications of the true state of retail competition.

Passive vs Active Demand

In network industries, a consumer makes a decision once and will continue to 'demand' service from this provider until he/she chooses to switch. In every month that the consumer does not switch, he/she passively chooses the provider from the previous month. In this arrangement the consumer is not required to actively decide which provider to have each month—if he does nothing, he continues to buy from the same provider.

This is further complicated by the fact that an incumbent provider typically provides 'default' service. Since, in a monopoly environment, consumers had no choice of provider, there was little consequence to this type of arrangement. However, this type of market institution has serious complications for market share measurement.

Advertisement effectiveness

Advertising will only survive and grow if it focuses on being effective. All advertisers are expecting specific results, based on their stated objectives. Clients expect proof, and, for the most part, that proof must lead to or actually produce sales (Richard Vaughan, 1986). Advertising must be effective. It must achieve its objectives. Each advertisement can be made effective only when its explicit objectives should drive the planning, creation, and execution. Advertisement should work with other forms of marketing communication to reach customers. Only the advertiser and the supporting advertisement agency know whether the advertisement campaign reached its objectives, and whether the advertisement truly was worth for the money invested. Effective advertisements are advertisements that help the advertiser to reach its goals (Doyle & Saunders, 1990). Effective advertisement's characteristics work on two levels. First one is advertisers should satisfy consumer's objectives by engaging them and delivering a relevant message. The other one is the advertisements must achieve the advertiser's objectives. If the advertisement is sufficiently entertaining, customer may remember it. However, customer may then learn that the advertisement relates to a personal need and provides relevant information for that need. Further, advertisements may reinforce consumer product decisions and remind how one's needs have been satisfied. The advertiser's objectives differ from the consumer's. Ultimately, advertisers want consumers to buy and keep buying their goods and services. To move consumers to action, they must gain their attention. They must then hold their interest long enough to convince them to change their purchasing behavior, try their product, and stick with their product. It should be noted Strategy, creativity, and execution are the three broad dimensions that characterize effective advertising.

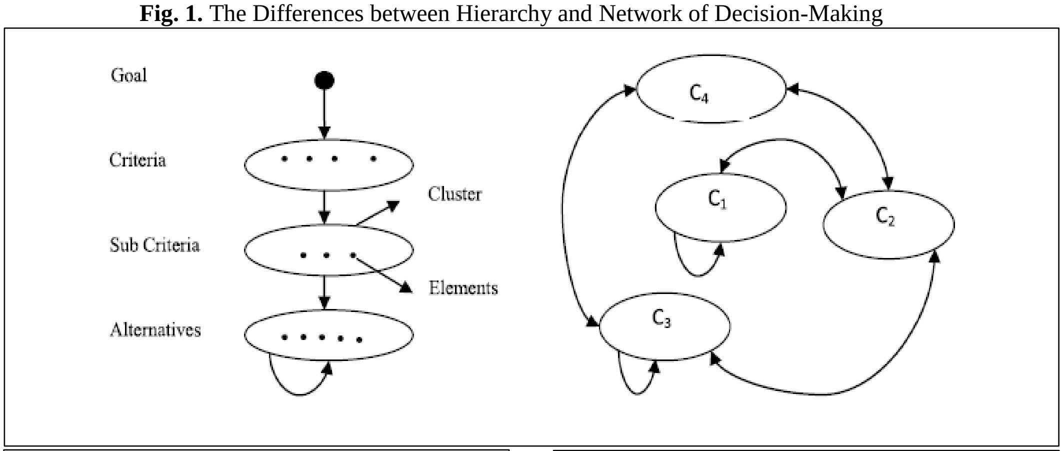
International Advertising

One important strategic consideration in international advertising is where, along the standardization–adaptation continuum, a campaign destined for a specific foreign market should fall. Proponents of the standardization approach claim that firms have successfully transferred their advertising campaigns and that standardized themes have provided unified brand images worldwide (Jain, 1989; Kanso, 1992; Levitt, 1983). Advocates of the adaptation approach point out that most blunders in international advertising have occurred b cause advertisers failed to understand foreign cultures (Mueller, 1992; Synodinos, Keown, & Jacobs, 1989). Researchers have documented ways in which multinational firms attempt to standardize advertising globally. Pebbles, Ryans, and Vernon (1978) distinguished between 'prototype' standardization (same ad, with only translation and necessary idiomatic changes) and 'pattern' standardization (some adaptation of content and execution appropriate for national markets). Killough (1978) looked at the two major elements of advertising — buying proposition that states the basic offer and creative presentation that packages the buying proposal. The buying proposition can be used successfully across cultures without modification more often than the creative presentation, which tends to interact with local cultural factors. It is because buying proposition deals with brand identity, which is universal.

Method of Research

As mentioned, the advantage of ANP is the capability of solving the problems in which alternatives and criteria have such interactions that cannot be shown in a hierarchy. When the decision-maker decides to model a problem as a network, it is not necessary to specify levels (Bauyaukyazici and Sucu, 2003). A network contains clusters (components, nodes or criteria) and elements (sub criteria) in these clusters. However, in creating structures to represent problems there may be a system larger than components. According to size, there is a system that is made up of subsystems and each subsystem made up of elements (Saaty and Vargas, 2006). The differences between a hierarchy and a network are shown in Fig. 1 (Azis, 2003).

Fig. 1. The Differences between Hierarchy and Network of Decision-Making



Hierarchy of Decision-Making	**Network of Decision-Making**

As shown in Fig. 1, in AHP interactions and dependencies can start from the upper levels through lower levels. However, in ANP all of the elements of network can interact on each other. In fact, AHP uses a kind of network, interactions of which are only linear and top-down.

Supermatrix in ANP

Although ANP and AHP are similar in the comparative judgment phase, they are different in the synthesizing phase. In the ANP, ratio scale priority vectors (derived from pair-wise comparison matrices) are not synthesized linearly as in AHP. Saaty has an improved "super matrix" technique to synthesize ratio scales. Each ratio scale is appropriately introduced as a column in a matrice to represent the impact of elements in a cluster on an element in another cluster (outer dependence) or on elements of the cluster itself (inner dependence). In that case, the super matrix is composed of several sub-matrices which each columns is a principal eigenvector that represents the impact of all elements in a cluster on each elements in another (or the same) cluster. Let the clusters of a decision system be C_h, h=1, 2,...,n, and each cluster h has n_h elements, denoted $c_{h1}, c_{h2}, ..., c_{hnh}$, then the super matrix of such a network will be like Fig. 2 (Lee et al., 2009b). The *i, j* block of super matrix is shown in Fig. 3. Vectors that form this matrix are ratio scale priority vectors derived by pair-wise comparison matrices. These comparison matrices demonstrate the judgment of decision-maker about the priority of elements. It is not necessary that every element of a cluster has an influence on an element in another cluster. In such a case, these elements are given a zero value for their contribution.

For deriving judgment of the decision-maker and establishing the comparison matrices, the scale that was suggested by Saaty for AHP and ANP can be used. These scales are shown in Table 1 (Lin et al., 2008).

Fig. 2. A Supermatrix of a Network

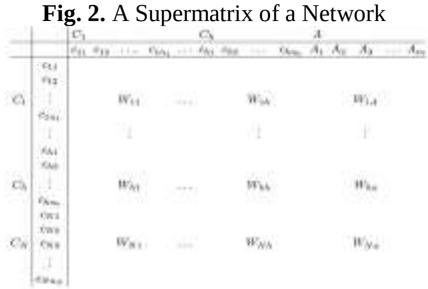


Fig. 3. *i, j* Block of a Network's Supermatrix.

$$W_{ij} = \begin{vmatrix} W_{i1}^{j1} & W_{i1}^{j2} & \cdots & W_{i1}^{jn_j} \\ W_{i2}^{j1} & W_{i2}^{j2} & \cdots & W_{i2}^{jn_j} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ W_{in_i}^{j1} & W_{in_i}^{j2} & \cdots & W_{in_i}^{jn_j} \end{vmatrix}$$

Table 1: Scale for Comparison Matrice

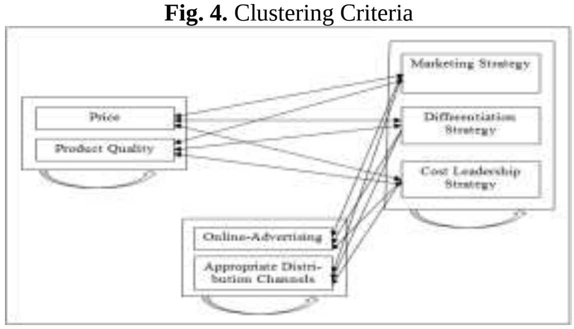
Verbal scale	Intensity of importance
Extreme importance	9
Very strong importance	7
Strong importance	5
Moderate importance	3
Equal importance	1
Intermediate values	2,4,6,8

Some time it is necessary to make a decision by more than one person. In such cases, group decision-making technique is used to integrate the judgments of decision-makers. Xu (2000) suggested that a ratio scale priority vector for each decision-maker's comparison matrice should be calculated, then these calculated vectors could be integrated to achieve a single priority vector. But Lin *et al.* (2008) proved that, the comparison matrices should be integrated to achieve a final comparison matrice followed by calculation of priority vector for final comparison matrices. Therefore in AHP and ANP a final comparison matrice indicating the judgments of decision-makers on the pair-wise comparisons should be calculated in group decision making. Then, the ratio scale priority vectors of the final comparison matrice should be figured out. Now these calculated vectors should be put in their appropriate positions in the super matrix. The elements of the final comparison matrice are calculated through the geometric mean of elements in comparison matrice of each decision-maker (Azar and Rajabzade, 2002).

$A'_{ij} = (\left(\pi_{k=1}^{m} A_{ij}^{wk} \right) \frac{1}{\sum wk}$

Data Analysis

Fig. 4. Clustering Criteria



The Results of Analysis

Table 2. Supermartix

	Marketing Strategy	Differentiation Strategy	Cost Leadership Strategy	Online-Advertising	Appropriate Distribution Channels	Price	Product Quality
Marketing Strategy	0.3681	0.2109	0.467	0	0	0.812	0.756
Differentiation Strategy	0.6319	0.7890	0.531	0	0	0.212	0.2489
Cost Leadership Strategy	0.389	0.237	0.5334	0	0	0.4038	0.2931
Online-Advertising	0.233	0.452	0.0667	0.6153	0.095	0	0
Appropriate Distribution Channels	0.223	0.167	0.334	0.3284	0.2216	0	0
Price	0.387	0.5761	0.7862	0	0	0.453	0.561
Product Quality	0.332	0.7644	0.876	0	0	0.6551	0.5337

Table 3. Weighted Super Matrix

	Marketing Strategy	Differentiation Strategy	Cost Leadership Strategy	Online-Advertising	Appropriate Distribution Channels	Price	Product Quality
Marketing Strategy	2.94E+25	2.94E+25	2.94E+25	2.94E+25	2.94E+25	2.94E+25	2.94E+25
Differentiation Strategy	8.63E+24	8.63E+24	8.63E+24	8.63E+24	8.63E+24	8.63E+24	8.63E+24
Cost Leadership Strategy	5.60E+24	5.60E+24	5.60E+24	5.60E+24	5.60E+24	5.60E+24	5.60E+24
Online-Advertising	1.12E+25	1.12E+25	1.12E+25	1.12E+25	1.12E+25	1.12E+25	1.12E+25
Appropriate Distribution Channels	1.37E+25	1.37E+25	1.37E+25	1.37E+25	1.37E+25	1.37E+25	1.37E+25
Price	2.75E+25	2.75E+25	2.75E+25	2.75E+25	2.75E+25	2.75E+25	2.75E+25
Product Quality	1.89E+25	1.89E+25	1.89E+25	1.89E+25	1.89E+25	1.89E+25	1.89E+25

Conclusion

According to the research findings, showed price has the most effective factors which affects on market share growth. It should be noted all of the industrial markets using respectively the differentiation and cost leadership strategy to increase their market share. All of the industrial markets should achieve competitive advantage as it compete with other competitors.

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