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*Salesmanship
and Advertising*

Salesmanship and Advertising

A TEXTBOOK FOR STUDENTS
AND A PRACTICAL GUIDE TO ALL WHO SELL

By

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PREFACE

EXPERIENCE in the training of salesmen and saleswomen over a period of more than twenty years has shown me that the average young salesperson suffers from two serious drawbacks. The first is that he or she (and the males most frequently) regard Selling merely as a job for which no special groundwork is required. Just an ordinary job—nothing more. The second is that they expect to be taught just what to say in particular circumstances, and they seek ready-made answers to the problems (for so they consider even minor difficulties) which appear to confront them most frequently.

Let me say frankly, that, in my opinion these people have little hope of anything more than a mere job. They will never rise from the ranks. They are just commercial “cannon fodder.”

For one of the outstanding features of modern selling, so far as the actual contact with the customer is concerned, is that, increasingly, the work becomes more and more mechanical, so reducing the responsibility of the person behind the counter or “on the road.” To put this another way, the Threepenny and Sixpenny Store system is accounting for the disposal of greater quantities of goods, for we find scarcely modified examples of it in the great Department Stores and Chain Stores, and these three sections of merchandizing hand over vast quantities of goods to the consuming public and employ thousands upon thousands of salespeople. Little actual selling skill is required, and in its place all, or nearly all, that is required is a knowledge of the system that is being operated, where this thing belongs, what documents have to be completed, and so on. I daresay, however, that many of those who are working under such systems will strongly object to what I have written, and many of those who are in charge of such systems will contend that they insist upon their staffs possessing selling ability.

Selling to-day is a question of organization : the plan ; the operation of that plan ; the control of that plan.

PREFACE

The student who is to be successful must be prepared to study widely, continuously, thoroughly. He should come to the work with the best possible general education. He must take every opportunity to acquire knowledge of the various methods of conducting selling campaigns, and of every possible application of advertising. There is no subject which does not hold value for the salesman, hobbies and sports no less than academic subjects. Every experience, whether gathered from reading, hearing, seeing, or performing, may, most probably *will*, become of practical value, and I would insist that this experience must result in mind-broadening or mind-opening. It must not result in a belief that all is known about everything. There are too many "know-alls" in the world; and know-alls never make efficient salespeople.

In a later chapter, "Selecting the Sales Force," I shall deal more fully with the individual aspect, but I would with all the power at my command urge the student to take to himself or herself the strongest ambition to attain to the highest possible position. The reward will surely come, for we need now, and shall need even more in the future, sales staffs recruited from intelligent people. Selling is a highly important factor in the life of the people.

The "rank and file" simile is applicable. If you would seek promotion you must become capable of responsibility, otherwise you remain a private. It will not be very difficult to remain a private.

It is with a view to providing a sound grounding in salesmanship and advertising, that the chapters which follow have been written. They are arranged in logical order, and the lectures on which they are based have had the merit of helping many students to develop their talents, or redirect their talents, and to achieve a very satisfying measure of success—to my own considerable gratification, for the reason that to meet them and to share with them their earlier efforts was of itself good.

J. NEWCOMB.

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CHAPTER I

THE DEVELOPMENT OF TRADE

IN order to follow the development of trade, one must picture the efforts of man to obtain a "living," from his earliest existence. Here is an interesting subject for the student to exercise his imagination upon, for while ample confirmation can be obtained from history, the imagination, so great an asset to the salesman, will be developed by such exercises. Imagination implies thinking for oneself. Think things out before you read the opinion of others, and you will then read more understandingly, question more sharply, and absorb conclusive evidence more thoroughly.

Primitive Trading

Let us try to go back to the dawn of mankind. We see that conditions arose, which would make it necessary for man to reach out, strive, for his requirements: his food, protective garments, and shelter. His primitive needs when this "reaching out" became necessary, would be weapons or tools with which to kill animals for food or garments or to win or defend his cave or shelter, or with which to fashion other weapons or tools.

Now let us imagine a tribe, herded together, with multiplied requirements. Personal effort is obviously the only assurance of existence. Every member is active. But skill now reveals itself. We see that one is the mightiest (or most productive) hunter of animals, another fashions better garments, yet another cultivates the soil more successfully, another makes better weapons, or cooking utensils. Now this success leads to specialization. The great hunter has his weapons, garments, and other requirements made by the other specialists, paying for his needs from the results of his hunting. The potter receives garments, food, and so on from the others, in exchange for his pots; specialization and the dawn of barter, with man trading his products in exchange for products.

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The specialist would find that he could produce more than he could immediately dispose of, and he would accumulate a surplus of his wares. This surplus creates a problem.

We have considered a tribe. There would, however, be other tribes existing, probably some distance away from the first, whose lives would be based upon different habits and customs. Here tools, weapons, ideas, though achieving the same real result of providing food, garments, and shelter, would differ. If these two tribes came into contact, peacefully or otherwise, a natural outcome would be the exchange or adoption of each other's ideas. We should see that with a greater number of people to provide for, some of the accumulated surplus produce would be disposed of, but at the same time there might come a form of competition: more people to provide for, but more providers to compete for the trade, and more methods of provision.

Let us suppose our tribe is a wandering one. It will dispose of its surplus in exchange for stocks obtained from the other tribes that it will meet, so adding variety. It may become almost entirely a trading tribe, not producing but simply exchanging and carrying from one tribe or district to another, and whose coming would be looked forward to and prepared for, by those desiring the wares.

As a further subject for thought, let us imagine that a number of tribes meet at one time. The market would become prominent: a displaying and exchanging of produce to such satisfaction that fixed meetings would be planned for this purpose, and in time the meeting-place would become a village or town with its market, such as may still be seen in the East. Thus would be born the market as we know it.

Now to this market would come traders who would actively and noisily compete for trade. The market cry thus appears. A trader would place a notice by his pitch or stand, stating who he was and what he offered. Is this not the birth of stand, stall, or shop?

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Looking again at the individual producer, we now find him with increased skill, a specialist, a craftsman, whose wares are becoming more widely known, who knows where his goods are needed and by whom : a trader who busies himself to the utmost to provide not only sufficient for his clients but still more for potential clients.

Without discussing fully the subject of currency, we now realize that our trader cannot afford to be handicapped by the proceeds of his trading as he would be, for example, if he accepted too much meat or other destructible things as payment. He needs something in exchange for his goods which he can be sure will keep its value, and be capable of use whenever necessary. If he accepted a live sheep he would have to feed the sheep to keep it alive, or kill it for food, and have more food than he could use. So beads, shells, and other tokens were brought into use, and eventually were replaced by the coinage such as we use to-day. Coinage is a subject well worthy of further study by the reader.

New Factors

By tracing trade as we have done, while there is much to be filled in to make the story complete and accurate, we may realize how craftsmanship, exchange, barter, the market, the market cry (which is advertising), the fixed place of trade or shop, competition, and other stages of modern selling originated, and how the producer must have been forced to exert himself not only to produce but to be sure of disposing of his produce, or in other words, how selling originated. The necessity for disposing of the created surplus produce is the same to-day as in early ages, but it is more complex because other factors have crept in and created problems.

First among these factors I think we may place Art, because it is the creation or fashioning of things more and more fittingly for their purpose, or more attractively or beautifully. Art has contributed enormously. Education too has taught the people to think, has supplied them with information, has shown them how to acquire information,

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and raised them from crudity. It has made them desire more and better things. It has given birth to Science, which in its turn has mothered invention. Yet Art, Education, Science, rather perhaps than having been born of each other, have arisen separately and helped each other while advancing what we call the "standard of living."

We desire a better life. We seek comforts, amenities, plenitude. The supplier, out of his desire to continue in trade, to prosper, to expand his business, to compete, to defend himself from competition, applies Art to his productions to make them more attractive, desirable, and fitting. Science shows him how to produce more or better goods; how to improve his raw materials and the finished article; how to communicate more quickly and surely with his market; how to carry his goods to market in greater bulk, with less damage, and more speedily. The telegraph, telephone, the engine, machine, and chemistry all come to the producers' assistance. Ideas, inventions, and developments all come to create new markets for themselves and to become, while novelties at first, standard requirements as time passes. The typewriter, fountain-pen, washing-machine, refrigerator, suction-sweeper, and motor-car, are all examples of this.

What part has exploration played? It has not merely discovered new lands but has found mineral and other resources. It has discovered other peoples. It has led to the discovery of new articles, methods and possibilities. Cotton, potatoes, tobacco, bananas, are simple examples of the result of geographical exploration. Chemists are constantly engaging in research work, which is also exploration. The results are seen in the development of the by-products obtained from coal, and the increasing use of gas, sulphates, and tar amongst other things, and the improved dyeing methods which reach out to the great textile industry. In every sphere the contribution of education, science, and exploration can be plainly seen, and however simply the majority of individuals can obtain their requirements, without a thought of the history of

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the efforts that have gone to simplify that providing, it is true that conditions have become extremely confused and complicated, and almost too involved and disquieting to the thinker.

One hundred and fifty years ago, and less, production of the still simple needs was by hand almost entirely, except for the use of tools. Machinery was non-existent, transport and communication slow, uncertain, risky, and limited. There was little surplus produce, so that a bad harvest meant shortage and famine, and always as measured by twentieth-century standards there was a low standard of living—yet surely peaceful, quiet, and leisurely ; time meaning little ; no haste. The craftsman enjoying his labours, receiving little as reward, and probably wanting no more. To live, to work, and give thanks. From these conditions we have moved far, and are moving farther and more rapidly day by day.

The Future

What then does the future hold ? Whether we like it or not, methods will be speeded up, conditions will change. Hours of employment will shorten. Hours of so-called leisure will lengthen and will provide the problem of employing that leisure. There may be a breaking-down of international boundaries and frontiers. Freedom from war. Freedom of Trade. What will individual requirements be ? Will the ratio of producers to non-producers alter ? Will the machine displace man entirely ?

Years ago there were peat, wood, then coal for fuel ; rush-lights, candles, oil, as illuminants ; brush, mop, and duster as household implements. Now at the touch of a switch the housewife can control heating, lighting, cooking, cleaning, and has supposedly more time to herself.

Then we are told that we are living longer. We know that millions of people have scarcely begun to know and possess the things that British, American, and Western European people possess. The people of China, Russia, India are yet a " market " as well as an enormous source of production.

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The young salesman is at the dawn of great changes and will be wise to prepare diligently, for as selling has necessarily been in the forefront of every past change, so very surely and certainly will it precede every new change and development. Every new idea must be marketed. Every new source of production must be given an outlet. All the "surplus" produce must be brought by the salesman to a consumer, or be so much wealth wasted and lost. Every new development competes in some way with an old one or a different one. The motor-car competes with the house. The radio competes with the book. The washing-machine competes with the laundry. Competition must be fought, and the fight is the salesman's.

CHAPTER II

THE PLACE OF SALESMANSHIP

THE importance of what we call Salesmanship is readily seen if we make a brief examination of the economic life of the people.

It must be emphasized that by salesmanship is meant the work in its broad sense. The individual's part is none the less clear for this.

The picture of mankind in search of a living is at once a complex and fascinating one, and in due course the student may with advantage undertake a full study of Economics, for it will enable him to understand and discuss the larger political and industrial questions that are too often misunderstood by the business man.

Classifying Effort

Human effort may be classified under several headings. There are (1) the Gatherers : these are the fishermen, miners, and quarrymen who gather what is provided by nature ; (2) the Cultivators : the farmers, dairymen, and their like who by their skill and efforts produce from the lands they occupy ; (3) the Carriers : shippers, railways, road transporters, and operators of air lines, who fetch and carry materials and supplies for us ; (4) Communications : mainly the post, the telephone, and telegraph ; (5) the Manufacturers, Engineers, Builders, and others who convert the products of gatherers and cultivators into useful forms ; (6) the Services : Public authorities such as Town Councils, also lawyers, doctors, teachers, insurers, actors, who guide, protect, regulate, and help us to live our lives in peace, understanding, and health ; (7) the Merchants, who buy from the producers and by disposing of their wares according to their experience achieve distribution to the places where demand exists or is created ; (8) the Bankers, who hold balances of money and lend it to borrowers, and, by their holdings, make

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our credit system the useful thing it is ; (9) the Consumers or users, who are of course all to be found under numbers 1 to 8.

Salesmanship Essential

Now it is obvious if we consider the relationships of these various classes, that without the service that salesmanship renders there would be no satisfaction from their efforts.

The producer as a producer must dispose of his goods. He must employ salesmanship in order to find his Consumer, without whom he cannot continue to produce. He sells his goods, and in doing so employs the carrier, the banker, some of the services, and probably the merchant.

The gatherer must sell to the manufacturer or merchant, who in their turn sell to the consumer, employing other classes in doing so.

The insurer sells his services to those who need protection against loss by fire, theft, death, and other risk.

The lawyer, the doctor, the actor, while actually selling their services, their skill being usually the measure of their success in finding their clients, or hearers, only find employment so long as the gatherers, cultivators, and others continue to operate successfully—so long as there exists a reasonable measure of prosperity.

Put another way : if there were no salesmanship there would be no production because there would be no distribution. This is taking things to an extreme, but it is arguable that salesmanship is the link between production and consumption, and it is demonstrable that the success or volume of production is the measure of the strength or efficiency of the salesmanship. Certain it is that salesmanship is the key to distribution, and how important the key is may be seen if we consider salesmanship itself.

CHAPTER III

THE FACTORS OF SALESMANSHIP

To subdivide salesmanship in the following manner, is to understand more clearly the job that it performs. The first factor is the Producer. He employs Capital (money) to establish his factory, equip it with plant (machinery) for his purpose, and keep it in working order. He employs a staff of workers, and, let us assume, aims to produce perfect goods. In the course of his operations we see the application of science in several possible ways : in perfecting the operations carried out by the plant to save time and cost ; in ensuring that the raw materials are perfect ; in the invention of new machinery, system, and method ; in research into all these and into the potential market for the goods, to decide where the goods are required, by whom, and in what form.

The second factor is the Goods or product, produced for different purposes to meet existing needs, or as the result of an invention or new or novel idea for which a demand has yet to be created, or to meet with new developments or new fashions.

The third factor is the individual Salesman. His work is to acquire a complete understanding of the goods, and the policy of the producer ; to know thoroughly the territory in which he is to work, from all points of view, geographical, topographical, population, staple and other trades, and transport arrangements within the area for the movement of goods and passengers. He must know his territory as a market for his goods. He must seek out, or attract to himself, buyers, users or consumers, of his goods.

The Unknown Factor

The fourth factor is the Customer or user. This factor is an unknown quantity. We know that customers exist.

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We do not know their condition or circumstances or exact requirements, and we do not know their particular nature, nor precisely where they are.

Now it may be said that there are, thus, three known factors and one unknown. From the point of view of the individual salesman, he can know all there is to know about the production factor, and of course he ought to know it. He can know all about the product. He can know all about himself, his work and his territory. This is all readily available information, but the fourth factor is yet to be known, and indeed is more or less always unknown in comparison with the other three.

The Salesman's Function

The salesman brings the factors together. He must understand them all, but in order to do so must be alert, not only in considering as factors himself and the production and product, so that he is point-perfect from this standpoint, but also as a student of markets, conditions, trends, developments, and requirements.

Where demand exists he seeks to supply it, where it does not exist, as in the case of a new idea or invention, he must make the idea known and so create a demand for it. He must be quick to note new conditions and altered requirements, for these may put a product "behind the times." His goods must follow the increasingly insistent demand for speed, simplicity of operation, protection, in any of the many ways in which these points may be seen.

By introducing his goods he literally brings them out of the darkness of "unknown" into the daylight of "known." He makes them known and shows how they meet a need, how they serve a purpose, where they are obtainable. He shows the goods, demonstrates, displays and explains them by all the means available, e.g. voice, printed word, and window or other display.

THE FACTORS OF SALESMANSHIP

In so finding the users he keeps production going and creates natural wealth and employment. A fitting simile is that of a tube into the production end of which the goods are passed. If the goods do not pass freely through the tube and out at the distribution end the tube will be clogged and production will slow down or stop, and producers will be idle. The salesman's job is to keep distribution (consumption) going, so that the goods pass through the tube without delay or halting.

The work of the salesman may be seen in the marketing of typewriters, cereal foods, radio sets, electrical apparatus, refrigeration, and other recent modern developments. For these a demand had to be created. To-day they are almost staple requirements. As in the past, so in the future, selling, the salesman, will precede the change. Selling is in everything. Everyone needs it, uses it, lives because of it. Its importance as Salesmanship, which is a science, or as individual Selling, which is an art, cannot be over-emphasized.

CHAPTER IV

PRODUCTION

WHERE does salesmanship begin? When we hear of a product failing to find a market, or when we see an ill-produced article being forced upon an unwilling market, finding a scanty hold from which it is readily dislodged, we can with safety conclude that salesmanship in such cases began with selling. If a product is to find a worthy and lasting market, if, that is, it is to fill a need and satisfy its producer, it must be deliberately produced for the purpose of satisfaction to all. Salesmanship truly begins with production.

Essential Preliminaries

There must be research, which is merely the name we give to careful consideration of the potential market, the conditions likely to be met with in that market, the volume of production that the market can bear, the customs of the trade where they affect us, and every other relevant detail. Are our goods to meet a new need, a need that has to be demonstrated, or are they to enter an existing competitive market? Can they be produced at a price that the Public can and will pay? In the case of common requirements the price must be competitive, but in the case of novelties, or luxury goods, or exclusive productions, the public will pay almost any price, because of the special enjoyment or pride which the acquisition of such goods brings.

Utility must be carefully considered in the light of known requirements. Design, facility of use, and fitness for purpose are examples of points to be covered.

Quality is important. This is primarily governed by purpose and should be as high as necessary, and is secured by the raw materials, their preparation, by manufacturing methods, and by careful or ample packing.

Value depends upon the cost of production and the price the public are willing to pay. Ideally the selling price should aim to be a fraction less if possible than the user expects or is

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accustomed to pay, and obviously the margin between this figure and the cost of production must be satisfactory or the venture fails as a profit-making proposition.

The goods must be of real utility, they must be as good as necessary, and the value must be right.

In the case of certain goods another consideration which may be separated from quality, because it is not seen clearly otherwise, is purity. Apart from the external influence of the government regulations, and the effect of education on the people, purity is a factor which is vital to success in many products, and every care must be taken as to the source from which supplies of raw material are drawn, the material itself, the method by which it is handled in and out of the factory ; and it must be unadulterated, or if adulterated for any reason, strictly according to law and safety. Examination by experts is necessary, probably by qualified chemists, and then further packing must be designed to protect from deterioration. If purity can be guaranteed, a strong selling point is at our hand. This will lead almost inevitably to a further and deeper consideration. If so much effort has been applied with a view to establishing excellence, it will be necessary to assure the supply of raw materials in continuity, and probably with a view to expansion of the market. It is quite possible that this may entail the control, partial, or complete, of the sources of supply, and of the cultivation or gathering of the materials. In this direction we may find the chemist again actively employed not only in ensuring fitness of the materials, but possibly in seeking alternatives such as synthetics. Such activities, whatever the required volume, will show forethought and wisdom and assist largely in the final success of the venture. But it must be borne in mind that if large production volume is aimed at, then at one and the same time large consumption must be planned for.

To ensure big quantities we must glance over the field again. If large quantities of raw materials are or can be made available, we must consider the factory plant and its capacity

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for converting the raw materials quickly and in bulk. This leads to considerations of the construction (design and arrangement) of the building, the installation of the plant, the choice of the right type of labour, and, throughout, the question of costs. Further the possible necessity for the revision of the plant, obsolescence, the discovery of new methods, must all be allowed for.

At this stage we must visualize the part played by contented labour, for the welfare of the workers becomes not only a humane idea but a profit-assuring one, and a very strong selling point.

How can we secure and maintain a large volume of consumption? We must employ ample publicity, we must keep the price-level firm, with if anything a downward trend; and we must maintain or improve the standard of quality so that our public will like us, and, finding satisfaction, continue to use our product, becoming publicity agents of the most powerful kind in their voiced approval, even if only by inference, or by their outspoken praise.

Our watchwords will be several. Foresight, Organization, Efficiency, Economy, Goodwill. We must be proud of our goods, and equally proud of our plant, of our workers, and of our customers. Our workers, whatever their jobs, must share our pride. In no other way can we be confident of success.

Fighting Competition

There will be obstacles. Prominent, if not overshadowing, will be competition. We shall probably have rival producers fighting to secure and keep their share of the market. We shall have competition from counter-attractions, as the motor-car may be said to compete with radio, or garden supplies with furniture, or the "eat more fruit" campaign with the "eat more meat" effort. The general and combined clamour of the market provides us with one kind of obstacle, but most to be feared is the direct competition of the rival product.

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It is not for us to consider here whether we can reduce the resistance by combining with our rivals ; let us rather consider how we can defend ourselves, and perhaps place ourselves on the offensive. The surest plan is to adopt a name for our product. This by no means simple thing to achieve, will, if we are able to choose the right name, distinguish our goods and emphasize and characterize them, and simplify our marketing problems far more powerfully than, for all the value attached to brand names, is usually fully realized.

Every detail of production may become a powerful selling point. We have seen and can still see how some producers reveal to the public interesting facts connected with their organization. Production facts, facts regarding staff welfare, statistics, anecdotes, are all of very real interest to the public and let us not forget, to the selling staff who should be closely in touch with the production point and relevant circumstances

After-sales Service

Finally under the head of production, we must plan for whatever after-sales service is necessary, as a great retainer and strengthener of goodwill, and for the supply of essential accessories for mechanical and other products. We see the value of these by examining the effect of the lack of them whether in radio, motor transport, or electrical contrivances or in many comparatively minor requirements, such as fountain-pens, pocket-book refills, and the like. Inability to secure adequate servicing and accessories will break down the selling campaign disastrously.

CHAPTER V

DISTRIBUTION

THE path which the product takes on leaving the factory or production point may be one of several, according to the nature of the product, the organization, and considerations of economy. It will be the simplest, shortest, or most convenient path to the consumer. Ideally the aim will be to multiply the number of points of contact, for the greater the number of these, the greater the consumption or purchasing volume. The paths are as follows : (1) Direct to the consumer by mail, by Specialty Salesmen, or by house-to-house distribution ; (2) direct by the producer's own chain of shops or showrooms ; (3) through our own depots to Retailers ; (4) through our own depots to Wholesalers and Retailers.

Choice of Method

One important consideration is this. The goodwill of the producer depends very much upon his retention of interest and responsibility in the goods right into the consumer's hands. If he can, in effect, come into personal contact with the consumer, he will know why his goods satisfy or do not satisfy, how they are used, and by what class of people. He will be able to foster consumer relationship, keep his wares up to requirements and his finger on the pulse of his trade. When he delegates any part of distribution, as when he passes the goods to wholesalers, this relationship may be broken or weakened. This appears to suggest that direct trading is best. It is not always possible or convenient, however, for the producer to sell direct to the consumer, therefore we must consider some of the problems that arise.

Considerations of policy arise, and with policy firmly decided upon, other problems may be simplified, but, once the policy and plan of distribution are embarked upon it is difficult to change, because change entails much disturbance (violent change that is) as well as loss of impetus and expense. Policy and distribution affect each other, and a change of

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distribution plan may alter the policy, as for example, when an organization having distributed through retail outlets, decides to distribute direct to the consumer. In the latter case responsibility is sharpened, and the conduct of customer relationship looms boldly.

Research Necessary

Careful inquiry and test, research work, should be undertaken. Research work is a looking forward, charting the route to be taken, marking the shoals or rocks, finding out everything possible regarding the route and what is to be encountered, as opposed to blundering blindly and ignorantly forward in the dark. It will discover the correct channel of distribution, decide what the attitude of outside distributors is likely to be ; show us fairly clearly the nature, location, and extent of the market ; disclose the nature and extent of competition ; what selling costs are likely to be entailed ; the size of the sales force needed ; the available media for publicity ; indicate the best angles of appeal to employ ; and enable us to estimate the sales volume, and therefore show us what volume of production to maintain. It may vary our original ideas, plans, or ambitions regarding production, and we shall see that production and distribution are two very different affairs, for an article may be readily produceable, but not by any means saleable.

Let us consider some of the stages of distribution separately before we go any further.

The Wholesaler

The Wholesaler carries various lines of goods that fall roughly into one category. Foodstuffs, as grocery, confectionery, vegetables, fruit ; clothing ; furniture and so on. His supplies will be received from various producers. Lines may compete with each other. The wholesaler maintains his warehouse, his indoor and outdoor staff ; he delivers, breaks bulk into convenient quantities to suit his customers, possibly advertises, and gives credit. When he is offered a product, it must appeal to him for its saleability. Its quality must be

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maintained. Deliveries must be assured. He may require the sole agency. He will want satisfactory terms as to discounts and settlements, and will be guided by his experience, so that we must satisfy his requirements if we want him to distribute our goods, or really give us the benefit of his connection or market. By securing the services, or support or custom of the Wholesaler we open the door to any number of retailers and are saved the trouble of seeking these retailers for ourselves. For our part we expect that, our goods being desirable, he will exert himself on our behalf, and not wait until he is asked for our goods before he moves. It is difficult to ensure that the wholesaler, however good he may be, will be as enthusiastic in this as we ourselves should be. What can we do to ensure that our goods do not remain in his warehouse? The answer is: advertise them and by creating a demand reduce the necessity for effort on the wholesaler's part by making the goods pass through the warehouse to fulfil the demand. Summarized, we see that the wholesaler places his organization, his market, at our disposal, provides guided access to his customer; houses and handles and distributes our goods as received from the source of origin (factory, etc.), in return for the margin between the price we charge him and the price he charges his customer. The only doubts we have are as to his enthusiasm and whether he will create such goodwill for our products as we could ourselves. A further vital consideration is whether the cost of doing the work for ourselves is greater than the cost of employing the wholesaler, and, whether it is or not, which path leads to the greatest popularity for our goods. In other words the comparison must be made with a view to deciding which, for us, is the most useful and profitable.

The Retailer

The Retailer differs from the wholesaler in that he deals direct with the user or consumer. Otherwise he houses, handles, and distributes the goods for the sake of the difference between the price he pays and the price he receives. The fact that he deals direct with the consumer is, however, of vital

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importance, for he is so closely in touch with the people that his personality, the character of his business, his peculiar goodwill, his recommendation, actual or inferred by the fact that he stocks the goods, give him a special power and advantage for us. Further there is that greatest of all advertisements, his shop window, wherein our goods will from time to time in their turn be displayed to the eye of the shopping public. If we deal through the retailer we must consider the provision of showcards, window display material, and dealer-helps of all kinds: samples, booklets, folders, doormats, shelf-edging, window-blinds, finger-plates, and other such material. We must guard against over-loading him with stock, or provide for the return of stale stock.

To summarize : we may deal direct with the retailer or through the wholesaler to the retailer, but it is important that we secure the services and support of the greatest possible or necessary number of retailers, because of their special influence with the consumer. If we pass the wholesaler and go direct to the retailer we must organize for the necessary distribution. By distributing to one wholesaler, one delivery suffices, and the latter will redistribute for us to say, fifty retailers. If we distribute direct, we have to send say, fifty separate parcels in fifty different directions. This is not to say, however, that the increased difficulty of distribution is not worth while. We must settle that question after careful research, and with a clear understanding of our organization and requirements.

Depots

It may be an advantage to establish Depots as advanced bases, where stocks may be assembled at convenient centres for redistribution to either wholesalers or retailers. They may simplify and speed up deliveries greatly. In the choice of positions for depots, if our business has already been developed, and is already covering a wide area, we shall fairly easily be able to decide. Otherwise careful thought must be taken in advance. Primarily the great centres of population

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appear to offer suitable locations, and in the United Kingdom cities such as Glasgow, Manchester, Newcastle, and Bristol seem generally to pick themselves. Actually, however, geographical knowledge, gathered, not from maps, but from actual study on the spot is advisable. It is a question of strategy. We want a place where we can find or erect the right kind of building, convenient for railway and road transport, and possibly sea transport. It should be within the shortest possible distance of the greatest number of consumers. The final number and location of the depots will develop accordingly. At the depot we should be able to receive by sea, rail, or road, or by each of these means of transport. We must be able to dispatch by all or any of them. We shall receive in bulk, divide and repack to convenient quantities for wholesalers or retailers, and arrange regular delivery journeys. The depot obviously relieves the factory or source of production of much detail, labour, and congestion.

The Part of Advertising

Advertising plays a tremendous part in distribution. It will open up the necessary channels and keep them open, by making the goods known, showing where they can be bought, and by keeping the public reminded of their existence, but it is important that the goods must be ready for the would-be consumer to buy when they are advertised.

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LET us see how the scheme of distribution works. The, at first sight, clumsiest road is to establish depots, from which to supply wholesalers, who in their turn supply the retailers, who then supply the consumer, in whose mind we have helped to arouse interest by advertising. Another method is to pass over the wholesaler, and supply the retailer direct from works or depot.

Methods Compared

Now our object is to secure as many consumers as possible. Leaving out the depot for the moment, let us say that every wholesaler we employ will place our goods in the hands of fifty retailers, who will each supply one hundred consumers. The figures are immaterial. For every wholesaler, then, we arrive at five thousand consumers. Ten wholesalers would introduce us at this rate to five hundred retailers and fifty thousand consumers.

Now suppose we go direct to the retailer. We have to secure the services of ten times as many people (retailers) as before, in order to reach the same number of consumers. The point is that a different, not necessarily a better or an inferior, organization is necessary.

The third method is to go direct to the consumer, by our own chain of shops. Now we have to secure fifty shops to find the five thousand consumers, and to equip, staff, and stock them, with all the other details necessary in shop management, to be borne and provided for. We do not condemn the method on this account, but how different the organization called for !

The fourth method is to employ house-to-house salesmen, or Specialty Salesmen. Here the organization differs widely again. We have to organize and control the territory, train and appoint the salesmen, and direct and control their individual efforts to search systematically and thoroughly for every potential user.

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Consumer Contact

Now some further considerations arise, and are worth study. We can evolve some safe rules.

Our object is to secure, first, contact with the potential consumer, and I have already suggested that to secure this contact in person, that is to say for ourselves, is to keep a finger on the pulse of our trade, to have direct relations with our clients, and to gain all that this means in goodwill and responsibility. Now plainly the greater the number of points of contact with the consumer, the greater the volume of sales that will be achieved.

Sales Resistance

But it is at the point of consumer contact that "sales resistance" is met, and this merits examination. I would define it as being disinclination to purchase from any reason or cause. It exists when people are unaware of the existence of our goods (ignorance); when they fail to understand the purpose of our goods (ignorance); when they do not realize that our goods can serve them (indifference); when they are loyal to a competing product (prejudice); when our goods are not easy to obtain (lack of enthusiasm); when our goods are not displayed or demonstrated to them (bad salesmanship); when a shop is not attractive (bad salesmanship); when a salesman is discourteous, unwilling, unattentive (bad salesmanship). Sales resistance exists or can be created. We do not begin to consider purchasing until we notice the existence of the goods and take some interest in them. Lacking these conditions sales resistance exists in the abstract. We unconsciously resist their appeal. But having satisfied these two conditions, anything that prevents us from proceeding to the purchasing stage, offends us, dissatisfies us, or weakens our interest, is "created" sales resistance. Therefore before a sale can be made, sales resistance must disappear or be broken down. Conversely a sale will not take place so long as sales resistance exists. It is removed by attracting favourable attention, by advertising, by display, by recommendation, by

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prestige of name (produced by well-known and reputable makers), by user prestige (used by people whose judgment is considered sound), by prestige of performance (the product, being shown to perform its purpose by satisfactory test), or by any other conceivable means. The salesman's job is to attract this favourable attention, to establish interest in the goods, and to complete the sale.

Competition

The reference above to the resistance set up by prejudice in favour of a competing product, suggests that the larger question of competition should be examined. In most minds competition is thought of merely in terms of rivalry between two persons, or products. Actually it goes much deeper than this. Competition is set up by various factors—

- (1) The discovery of new sources of supply : thus the banana market is invaded by the produce of a newly found banana-producing area, or the cotton market is attacked by Rayon, the cellulose fibre discovered by the chemist.
- (2) Competition becomes severe when a rival secures the control of, or captures the sources of supply. Indeed, this control or capture is a method of excluding possible competition.
- (3) New methods of preparing goods for the market (as seen in the canning and refrigeration developments, which, at any rate at first, hit the producer of fruits and vegetables, and those whose business it is to sell fresh meat) set up competition.
- (4) New methods of production.
- (5) New fashions.
- (6) New ideas for packing and presentation, etc.

Increased capital resources on the part of a rival, improving his buying powers and permitting of intensified activity will give him a larger share of the market, and will be felt competitively. As has already been mentioned, competition also comes from other classes of commodities or services, in

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changing desires, setting up counter-attraction, and overpowering interest in our goods. Advertising is competition. Price-cutting is competition. Plagiarism, or stealing of ideas, is competition.

Selling' Costs

These problems of consumer contact, sales resistance, and competition must be strenuously tackled, but over them hangs always the question of the cost of selling. What are selling costs? Briefly they may be stated as comprising all those expenses entailed in taking the bare finished product from the point of production, and placing it in the user's or consumer's hands. Packing, Transport, Display, Representation, Advertising, and intermediate and final handling; intermediate as when the goods pass through the wholesale stage, and final at consumer contact. Examples of selling costs at the final stage which might be overlooked, are parcelling, delivery, shop lighting, insurance at the shop premises, and even the messenger boy's wages. An examination of a simple trading account will show how many and varied items of selling cost may be. It is of tremendous importance that every available penny shall be spent in securing consumer contact, overcoming sales resistance, and defeating competition, or holding one's own against it; but equally important is it that not one penny more than is necessary shall be spent. Otherwise the enterprise will not be profitable. There must be ample ammunition, but none must be wasted. That much is wasted is recognized often enough. Careful control and individual responsibility alone can keep selling costs economic but effective.

Aims and the Choice of Method

Our Aims are (1) to cover available territory or market; (2) to secure distribution; (3) to achieve volume of sales; (4) to multiply points of consumer contact; (5) to hold ground won; (6) to operate profitably.

With our aims clearly in mind, and with our problems clearly observed, what methods of selling are available, and which shall we decide upon?

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- A. Through the Wholesaler and Retailer to Consumer.
- B. From our Depot to Retailer and Consumer.
- C. Direct to Consumer through our own chain of shops.
- D. Direct by Mail.
- E. Direct by Contact as in house-to-house or specialty selling.

Our choice will be governed largely by the nature of our organization and our selling policy, or, viewed from another standpoint, our decision as to the channels through which we propose to sell may necessitate the shaping of both organization and policy to suit.

Considering the above-mentioned methods or channels separately, we find "A" we want a wholesaler who operates in the areas chosen, and who has the best connection and the widest possible coverage in the area. Ideally, he should not carry a line already that is directly competitive with ours : an ideal not readily achieved. He should have an efficient and energetic organization. From his point of view, he wants good goods, good terms, and perhaps advertising support ; assurance of deliveries as required, and satisfaction in other directions such as, perhaps, packing, and the method of conducting the relationship when established.

What will he do for us? He maintains a warehouse, carries stock, employs travellers, splits consignments into "parcels" to suit his customers, delivers, gives credit to his customers, and possibly advertises. The margin left after he has paid us for our goods, and borne the cost of the foregoing services, represents his profit. It is necessary to observe that in this case we have no direct contact with the consumer : it should be noted that the absence of consumer relationship may effect our policy. Then there is the doubt left in our minds as to whether the wholesaler will employ the fullest energy in pushing our product (for we delegate this important matter to him). Lack of this energy definitely means that our progress is choked, as the volume of sales will not be as large as it might otherwise be. He might, for example, neglect

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our line for one of more established popularity. There is, of course, the possibility that by advertising our line we may force him to supply the demand so created ; in other words, we may supply much of the energy. Our costs from the completion of the product will be packing, representation, delivery, dealer's helps, advertising, and accounting.

In the case of " B " we find that retailers' methods vary. The Private Trader will buy comparatively small consignments. His connection may be described as a "family" one. He creates in the best circumstances powerful goodwill as between himself and his customers. He may give credit. He may want credit from us. He may demand local advertising support, and/or display assistance, demonstrations, dealer's helps and such-like. The Co-operative Store sells mainly co-operative productions, in some cases these entirely, in others some of the more popular household commodities are also stocked. The Multiple Stores buy bulk, have their own depots, re-pack and sometimes re-brand goods. They sell at the lowest possible prices, and their buying is necessarily conducted with this in view. The Department Stores buy bulk, and like job lots. They like to be able to brand their goods, and if possible to have them from manufacturers on an exclusive basis. Keen prices and bargains, half-price days, special offers and events, go side by side with high-priced and almost exclusive items, the policy being to provide shopping facilities in all classes of goods for all classes of people. In this case our costs will be higher than in " A " because, having a greater number of contacts to make, representation, transport, showrooms, and advertising are all necessarily increased. Put another way—we perform the function of the wholesaler for ourselves. We come closer to the consuming public, but have no definite contact.

In " C " we now get absolute contact with the consumer, and the entire selling problem is in our hands. Our costs now, from the completion of the product, comprise packing, delivery, and at each shop : rent, rates, lighting, wages,

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insurance, and so on. We are now producers, wholesalers, and retailers. Our costs are of course higher.

In the case of "D" advertising, and the dispatch of small parcels comprise heavy selling costs, and in the case of "E" personnel is a huge problem of organization and cost.

It will therefore be seen that the choice of method is not decided because any one is cheaper or brings more profit than another. In "A" we receive less for example than in "D" for our goods, but in "A" our costs are much lower than in "D." What does govern us most importantly is our ideals, our resources, the nature of our product, and the nature of the market. We must consider (1) our product; (2) the available market; (3) capital resources; (4) production capacity; (5) consumer contact; (6) multiplication of outlets; (7) selling costs; (8) sales resistance; (9) competition; (10) efficiency with economy.

CHAPTER VII

FINDING THE CUSTOMER

WE can supplement the considerations offered in the previous chapter, 'by looking a little more closely at the important question of locating the potential user of our goods.

Let us remember that the answer is not always as obvious as it appears, for there are examples of commodities which have been marketed in the first place for their obvious uses, and for which supplementary, and by no means unimportant, uses have been discovered, with a resultant widening of the market and enhanced success. It behoves us, therefore, to be always alert for further uses for our product.

There are two principal aspects which may be stated at once. We must seek out and approach the potential user, or we must induce the potential user to come to us. We must find the way in the first case, decide who the user is and where he is. In the second case we must decide the means of attracting the potential user's attention and create such interest in his mind as to encourage him to come to us.

Classifying the Goods

We can clarify the position by reconsidering our product from this angle. We can roughly divide all products under three main headings—

- (1) Universally used : the goods which are used either by or for almost everyone—staple goods which find the widest of markets.
- (2) Generally used : the products which while partially limited nevertheless have a fairly wide market.
- (3) Special products which are used by a special class, trade, or section of the people.

Taking this further, we may ask whether the goods are for household use, personal use, or for specialized use, whether they are used by either sex, and then whether their use is limited or not by geographical or climatic conditions

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Thus, to take some examples—

Bottled Fruits would come under the General heading. They are hardly of universal use, partly because of their price. Yet they should be marketable fairly widely. They are for household use, and since they belong to the larder will have a clear appeal to the female sex. While geographical limitation may be felt in the fruit-growing districts, this may be more than counterbalanced by the appeal they will make where fruits are scarce.

Electric Razors or Shavers approach, at present prices, the Special class, although usable more generally if the price should allow of the market widening. For personal use by men, with apparently no geographical limitations.

Breakfast Cereals fall into the Universal class because they are usable by all people, of all ages, except perhaps the youngest of babies. They are, then, for household use, with feminine appeal and with no apparent geographical limit, because it may reasonably be accepted that they may be consumed whatever the district or climate.

Calculating Machines are nearer the Special than the General class, being for specialized use, wherever accounting or calculating makes mechanical aid necessary.

Gardening implements fall almost into the General class, since modern housing methods have resulted in an increased number of gardens ; they are for specialized personal use, usually by the males, and are limited geographically to the extent that an area encourages or discourages gardening.

Put any product through such an examination and we know something of the people to whom we may expect to sell and where they are to be found.

Channels of Contact

Now we can decide which is the best channel through which to establish contact with the potential user.

If the goods are a requirement which the potential user would normally seek at a retail centre—patent medicines, cheese, bicycles, overcoats, watches, biscuits, perfumes,

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shoes, furniture, or generally speaking any article which falls naturally within the scope of retail distribution—we know that we must establish contact for this purpose with the retailer. We must note, however, that certain articles are retailed by distributors who would not generally be called retailers, e.g. motor supplies through Garages and Motor Agents, house-repairing supplies through Builders' merchants, sanitary equipment and accessories through Plumbers' or Builders' merchants, shop equipment through Retailers' suppliers, and so on. The specialized distributor may be called the Merchant.

So we reach the Public mainly through the retailer, as the volume of retail trade proves, or in many specialized instances through the merchant. For our purpose here we may consider that products which do not naturally fall into these two classes must be distributed by personal contact.

Through the Retailer or Merchant we must induce attention and interest on the part of the potential user by informing him of the existence of the goods, their purpose, their advantages, and where they may be obtained, or by displaying the goods so that, seeing them, the visitor may desire them; or by the personal approach of the salesman in introducing the goods.

To distribute by personal approach we must decide who the potential user is, e.g. a Grocer, an Architect, a Dentist, a Farmer, a person who living in a particular district has because of that a special need for our product, such as a water-softener; a person, who because of the type of class of his residence will require an electrical product, or who for lack of electricity will require a hand washing-machine; and having decided this, directly approach this person and endeavour to sell to him.

Choice of Advertising Mediums

It should be noticed that the several methods of advertising may be used according to these same considerations. A product which falls clearly into the Universal class may

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be advertised by every known or discoverable means, the newspaper, the weekly journal, the magazine, by posters on the street, by tram, bus or railway, by radio, by film, by postal matter such as catalogues, booklets, and folders. The potential user is everywhere ; catch his eye as he reads, as he travels, as he passes through the street, with the slogan " Tell more and sell more " as your guide.

If your goods are of general appeal you may use all the above-mentioned methods all the time, or you may come more closely to him if there are advertising mediums which make of themselves a special appeal to him, or to her. The women's magazines are a valuable source of approach for many such products, as are the women's pages in other journals and newspapers.

Goods which are of Special appeal may be made known by adequately prepared booklets, folders, or other descriptive matter sent to the potential user's address, and by advertisements in journals which are specially published for the interest of such people. The Medical, Pharmaceutical, Accountancy, Engineering, Gardening, Photographic Journals, and other such publications are clearly indicated.

It is not enough to depend entirely on one method. The best rule is to use every possible method all the time. Seek out the individual. Attract the passer-by. Persuade the man-at-a-distance. Make every possible contact through the eye and through the ear. Better to interest a person who cannot use your product, than fail to interest one who can. Even a non-user can be convinced of the merit of your goods, and even a non-user can condemn them as lacking merit.

CHAPTER VIII

SELECTING THE SALES FORCE

THE selection or recruitment of the personnel for the Sales Force provides us with a subject worthy of the careful consideration of the student, because it enables us to consider the type of person available, the type which is preferable, and also to establish standards for our own attainment.

We can approach it from the viewpoint of the organization setting up the force, or from the viewpoint of the individual who seeks to fit himself to occupy a place in the sales force or to improve his abilities if already a member of such a staff. It is a question of and for the individual.

The Salesman's Work

Consider the nature of the work which the salesman has to perform. Indoors, we find him standing, passing to and fro ; perhaps climbing steps and stairs ; coming into contact with people from whom, in times when influenza and other epidemics are rampant, he may gather infection ; working, despite modern shop conditions, in air which is never quite pure ; attending to detail or routine duties ; meeting various types of customers, and having to be pleasant to all.

The out-of-doors Salesman, with or without a car, is out and about in all weathers. He goes from the fresh outdoor air to spend some time interviewing a client in a hot room, perhaps wearing damp clothes, or in a waiting-room awaiting his turn for interview. He must pass quickly from one call to another to allow the maximum effective time for each visit. He must make the greatest possible number of calls each day, and is engaged in a battle of wits most of the time, with the many and various people who are his clients and prospective clients.

Indoors or out of doors, the work of selling demands physical and mental fitness of a high standard. The salesman must be physically capable of performing the work. He must be able to meet and talk to people of all types. He must

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be courteous and of good speech and education. He must be of good character. He must understand his proposition thoroughly. The nature of the work calls for all these as the minimum essential qualifications for real success. You would not willingly employ a person for your sales staff with less than these qualifications. You would not be satisfied with your own qualifications were they less than these.

Qualities Required

Let us imagine that we are interviewing candidates for our selling staff. From the material presented for our consideration we have to seek that which is suitable, or capable of being made suitable. There are some points which may be settled at the interview, others can only be finally judged by practical test. We can judge appearance at once, but honesty may require time for judgment.

When the candidate enters we at once notice appearance and manners, and his method of greeting us or responding to our greeting. The interview should be so planned that we on our part do not create a stiff attitude or atmosphere but rather one in which the candidate will feel comfortable and so reveal himself openly. Does he instantly remove his hat on entering ; is his handshake firm ? Is he neatly dressed and well groomed, rather than peculiarly or flashily dressed, or is he untidy ? The more quietly and neatly he is clothed, the more acceptable he will be wherever he goes, and there will be nothing to cause offence or remark. If in our organization there are regulations regarding dress, then grooming will matter most.

Has he personality ? Before we can answer this question, we must know what we are looking for. It is not physique, good speech, a pleasing appearance, confidence or aggression, or a bold voice or manner, either separately or combined ; and yet a man possessing all these qualities might readily be said to have a strong personality. It is not always force or power which makes a man a leader of men, though such men are said to have personality. Rather the kind or quality of

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personality which will be possessed by the successful salesman, may be termed likeability, but it is not this alone. Our salesman must be able to meet everyone and secure their full confidence, and he must be capable of holding that confidence and trust. He will be cheerful, good to meet and talk to. There will be in him a sufficiency of aggressiveness, and courage. Strong-minded if need be, he will be modest, frank, and sincere, a true "gentle"-man. He will be well informed and broadminded, able to speak his mind without offence so that he will be able to discuss general topics wisely and reasonably, and with respect and understanding for the other fellow's point of view—a good companion. He will have a ready smile, and he will be careful of his outward appearance. The extent to which our candidate is an acceptable, strong, gentlemanly companion, and cheerful withal will be assessable from the moment we meet him, and our impression will clear as the interview proceeds.

How does he speak? Does he speak clearly and plainly, with his voice moderately pitched and well modulated? Could we, standing at a distance of one yard, hear him plainly? He will not shout or whisper or mumble. His speech will be quiet, clear, distinct. Is his English good? Can he express his ideas or is he tongue-tied? We do not want a talkative man. It is a fallacy that a "talker" makes a good salesman. When necessary he will speak to the point, understandingly, convincingly, in good English, in quiet tones, but distinctly

What of his health? An unhealthy-looking man lacks personality. Notice how a boil on the neck, a pimply cheek, or a "snively" cold will ruin the best personality. Is the eye clear and the mind alert? Is the hand steady and are the lips clear and firm? The salesman must be fit. Good food, the plainer the better, and regular meals are essential. Even allowing for the exigencies of his job, the man who does not take his meals at regular times whenever possible is making a bad blunder that presently undermines his health. Exercise for the indoor man should obviously be sought out of doors,

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and for the outdoor man should be of a kind that gives work to muscles that otherwise become flabby. For both I place first, swimming, second golf, and third walking. Exercise for health first, then for recreation, then for fun. Hygiene, or cleanliness of the body, externally, and internally, must not be neglected: signs of it are good teeth, a clear skin, clean finger-nails, clean hair. Recreation should be of the kind that re-creates, that sets the lazy muscles working, and rests those which are overworked; that clears the mind of so-called worries and opens it to new channels of thought. Games, exercise, companionship of people and books, or a change of surroundings such as a day of quiet and rest in the country. Above all, adequate rest—and the best kind of rest is sleep in bed. There should be no excesses of drinking, smoking, or late hours. Moderation is a fairly safe rule.

We can judge our candidate's experience only by the nature of his answers to our questions, by his record of achievement, by documents and the like. Time and test only can prove the value of experience, but we will judge them so far as possible. A candidate's record is built up by his training and his performances. He learns from what he experiences; it is the road he has travelled, and may the more easily travel again. He can prepare himself to gather the most from experiences that are yet to come, by reading, by discussion, by attending lectures, by meeting people, by seeking experience from others, by observation, practice, and by energetically pursuing his aims.

We can estimate the condition of his mind by his answers to our questions, and by the way in which he expresses himself. Has he trained his mind and can he use it? We do not want him to show us what a clever fellow he is, but we want to find that he possesses understanding. The only way a mind can be trained is by study, reading, observation, hearing, and discussion. Train the mind, and use the mind. Think, but think cleanly, constructively, and with purpose. "As a man thinketh, so shall he be."

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For the remainder, we want a man who is cheerful, enthusiastic, ambitious, and active. But these characteristics cannot be completely tested at an interview. A candidate may be all these at an interview, but be found wanting later on. Cheerfulness is, however, demanded of him. His troubles must be hidden. (Ninety-nine per cent. of worries are unjustified. Count blessings, and do not grumble). Enthusiasm comes of belief and faith in the job, the goods, and himself. It cannot be successfully pretended or acted. Loyalty makes enthusiasm, and lacking other attributes an enthusiastic salesman is already well on the way to success.

Ambition is a strange thing. In some it may be the realization of an objective, and a ruthless striving after it. In others it may be a general determination to do their best in all circumstances, in the belief that that will lead to better things. In others again, and we meet these so very often, ambition is merely wishing, and wishing is no substitute for working: wishbone cannot equal backbone. Ambition is the task one sets oneself. In so far as this goes one is one's own master, and master no doubt of one's destiny. The salesman should be his own severest critic. None can blame or drive him as he will blame or drive himself. He will be jealous of the passing of time, and realize how little time there is, so that he will waste none. He will realize with growing experience how lacking he is. The more he comes to know, the less he will find he knows. He will aim to be efficient (which no man is, for true efficiency is perfection), and being truly ambitious he will continue to strive.

As for activity, first we must have health as the power, and ambition as the driving force. Then careful planning and preparation, and the energetic carrying out of the plan. This is work—the purposeful employment of energy, not the fruitless, frantic, dashing and darting that is so often mistaken for activity.

Just a word about laziness, indifference, and carelessness. Should these be treated as symptomatic of disease? Are they definitely evidence of unfitness? So far as we are concerned,

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they are so dangerous to us that we must guard against them with all our might, as being a handicap and a positive danger.

The Ideal Salesman

The successful salesman will be a man of many parts, and it is not necessary surely to qualify the word successful. He will be a fine man, of good appearance, sincere, courageous, tactful, loyal, cheerful. In him we shall find quite naturally honesty, integrity, truthfulness, willingness, frankness, and probably other excellent attributes as well. Can you demand these and find them? Can you do without any or all of them? Do you want merely a spice of them, or do you want them in the fullest measure? Certainly for lack of them you will have inefficient salesmanship, unreliability, unpunctuality, carelessness, indifference. You will have bad workmanship, false promises, deception, and their fellows.

Consider the day's duties. The work to be done must be planned, to save time and expense, and the plan is to be worked systematically. The requirements of the organization must be conformed to and we want to do the work thoroughly and successfully, with the least trouble. We must be fit and alert, and energetic. We have to consider our living, our reputation, our record, our future, our ambition. We have set our hand to a task. Our candidate is to be set a task. Can we, can he, accomplish it if the characteristics which have been here set down are lacking?

CHAPTER IX

ANALYSIS OF GOODS

THE salesman's knowledge of the goods he sells should be as extensive as possible, and it is necessary that the product be examined in order to discover vital, important, and interesting facts which may be used in explaining the goods to the public in order to induce them to buy. The approach to this should be made first by the Producer. It is wrong to assume that the producer necessarily knows all about his own product. Advertisement writers and others have frequently found, in fact, that the producer is by no means the only person to approach for information of this kind. Many attractive points may be forgotten from familiarity, overlooked, or even never noticed. The producer should therefore subject the product to a detailed tabular analysis for use in publicity campaigns and for the information of the Sales force. Similarly, whether such data has been prepared by the producer, or not, the salesman, and the Advertisement writer too, should for assurance and self-satisfaction leave no stone unturned to discover fresh facts or new points of view. In either case, this work should be treated as research. The goods should be dissected, their origin and the methods by which they are brought into being should be looked into, and every detail that is available at the factory or production point should be examined. Wholesalers and retailers should be consulted and the proposition discussed with them. Users too, and indeed non-users.

A Guide to Analysis

Details of manufacture, history, advantages, objections, every facet must be examined and considered. In no other or less meticulous way can an analysis be prepared. There is no excuse for half knowledge, which is equivalent to "damning with faint praise." There is no reason to assume that the Public are already aware of a fact or detail, however obvious it may be; in any case the Public are fickle-minded and must be reminded. Here is a guide to the analysis of most products—

ANALYSIS OF GOODS

MAKE. How invented. How originated. How discovered. How developed. History.

RAW MATERIALS. Growth. Qualities. Methods of recovery. Treatments. If manufactured.

FACTORY METHODS. Location of factory. Plant. Organization. Staff. Welfare.

USE. Purpose for which made. Used by whom. Where. How. When. Circumstances under which used. Sex of user. Class of user. Other possible uses. Accessories.

ADVANTAGES. Permanence. Speed. Facility. Protection. Precaution. Economy. Novelty. Price. Appearance. Comfort. Guarantees. Enjoyment.

PACK. 1st Container. 2nd Pack. 3rd Pack. 4th Pack. Is the first for use and/or for Presentation, and/or for Identification. Are the other packs for display, and/or protection?

MARK. Trade Mark. Mascot. Are they helpful?

DEMONSTRATION. Is it necessary? Is it helpful? Can it be arranged?

PRICE. Is it high? Is it low? Is it competitive? Is it a selling point? Discounts. Quantities.

PRACTICAL ANALYSIS. Self-test. Result of self-trial. Trials by others.

Detailed Consideration

With your product before you, and clearly in your mind, let this Chart act as a reminder. Now proceed to consider the proposition point by point. Wherever the slightest detail is brought to light, note it, and on completion of the analysis revise and reconsider until the complete story of the product is revealed. Supplement as experience makes possible.

Under the head of **MAKE** you may reveal an interesting story. Treat it fully. On the other hand there may be little to note beyond the number of years it has been in existence or

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some other such simple detail. **RAW MATERIALS** where concerned may offer plenty of material. Taking timber for example, there may be information under the head of where grown, how seasoned, how cut for grain, or veneer, how lamination is performed. Cotton shows many varieties : West Indian, Sea Island, Russian, Egyptian, American, East Indian ; then the treatments such as washing, spinning, dyeing and weaving.

FACTORY METHODS. Perhaps your factory is in a Garden City. Perhaps it is ultra-modern. Perhaps there is some special feature such as the care of the staff, or nearness to the source of raw materials.

USES. Perhaps your goods are for some domestic purposes, such as a clothes-washer, of low price as these things go, and worked by electricity. Used by women, of probably the lower middle class, or by the one maid or helper. We visualize them working in a scullery or washhouse of limited size, under far from ideal circumstances ; a weekly or fortnightly use, dependent upon there being an electrical installation. Or perhaps the product is a low-price cereal, used by everyone, for breakfast or supper, and prepared by women for a family. Circumstances may indicate the need for cheap (economical) preparation. Other possible uses may be suggested, as for example a sweet lunch course with the addition of fruit. Our proposition may be an electrical dry-shave razor, used by men, daily, in haste ; the class of buyer is plainly among those who can pay a few guineas for a shaving implement.

ADVANTAGES. Saving of time, money, life. Prevention of illness, accident, loss. Easy to use, saves trouble. Cheap for the work done. Newness. Fashion. Beauty. And so on.

Under the head of **PACK** consider an ointment. Here the first pack will probably be a jar : this will be for use. The second pack will be to protect the first, and for presentation, that is for identification, on the shopkeeper's stand. The third will be a carton containing a given quantity, twelve or perhaps a gross. The fourth pack will be of millboard or wood and

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ntended for the protection and conveyance of bulk. Each will bear identification labels or marks, and these contribute to the publicity campaign. The first should be of distinctive design, individualistic, and giving the product personality. There are many such examples. The second, protective, but as has been pointed out, assisting identification by the printing, design, and colour.

The TRADE MARK or Brand Name will be dealt with more fully later.

If DEMONSTRATION is found possible or necessary, every step should be taken to assure that this is planned and staged completely and convincingly and that the salesman becomes expert in the use of the product.

PRICE must be normal to share an existing market. If above or below normal there must be a reason. Low price may be due to improved methods of production, and/or to increased sales. The price may be lowered to widen the market. High price should be due to superiority and quality and a clear explanation should be provided. Superiority may be a sales lever; money-saving is a strong lever. Reduced prices for quantities will be an inducement to buy more and to spend more.

The Value of Knowledge

A knowledge of your goods, and a knowledge of their selling points, and their advantages, enables you to talk about your goods, to explain them, and to advance reasons for their purchase. It secures sales, it may increase the value of a sale. It does not mean that you will tell the story in fulsome detail to every prospective purchaser. It does mean that you will be able, from your store of information, to know just what to say. You will cover every vital fact, convince your prospective customer, anticipate objections and answer or dispose of them convincingly.

The Specialty Salesman will in his important explanation and demonstration be able to cover every vital point crisply and clearly, and to assure that no point is overlooked, no

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time wasted, and the time to be occupied reduced, so leaving more freedom for the closing of the sale.

The Commercial Traveller will know just what important points to advance, as necessary ; in opening a new account he will give satisfactory evidence of standing and of the nature of his firm's products, or in introducing new lines he will advance just those points which will appeal to his customer.

The Retail Salesman will, through knowledge, gain confidence in selecting stock, in introducing or recommending it, or in suggesting it as a substitute where other such goods are asked for but not stocked.

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THE recruit to outdoor salesmanship may be drawn from either the works office or the warehouse; from other organizations for his experience and connection; or he may be entirely a newcomer to the work. In the case of manufacturers' or wholesalers' representatives the office and warehouse provide an excellent training-ground, as the policy, atmosphere, and general organization of his firm will be familiar to him, and further, his knowledge of the methods by which the goods are manufactured, and the classes, grades, and real nature of the goods will be sound.

First Steps

His first experiences of the new work will possibly be in relieving a regular salesman, when he may only be expected to maintain contact with regular customers. He is likely to be promoted permanently to the selling staff when opportunity offers, and he should therefore take every opportunity to gain experience and prepare himself diligently.

When appointed he may at first assist a senior salesman, under whose guidance he will receive sound training and advice. He should as often as possible be enabled to revisit Headquarters to refresh his knowledge, consult with seniors, and find fresh or added enthusiasm for the work. If he is recruited from another organization he should, at the outset, be given every opportunity to familiarize himself with the organization, policy, methods, and products of his new employers.

In Specialty Salesmanship (the selling of non-consumable goods, such as calculating machines, cash registers, bacon slicers), the recruit will either be secured from a similar organization or be new to the work, and it is customary for him to receive a special course of training in salesmanship

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and the special methods of the organization before being sent out to a route. This may take four or more weeks and takes place at the headquarters of the company, the candidate receiving a small monetary allowance while being trained.

The recruit, however, soon finds himself placed upon his own responsibility, his early efforts being closely watched to decide his capabilities. He will be judged by results. It cannot therefore be too strongly emphasized that although his early experiences will be hard, and not a little trying and disheartening, he must by strong effort, concentration, and cheerfulness, go all out for success. Much will depend upon the energy with which he has accepted his training. Physical and mental fitness now count strongly and the proper exercise of wit, determination, enthusiasm, and whatever talent he may possess, will depend greatly upon these.

The old term "a gentleman of the road" should be taken literally, and gentlemanly behaviour to his customers, prospective customers, colleagues, and contemporaries should be his constant endeavour, in his private life as well. One sees, all too often, behaviour which (without being prudish) one can characterize as not reaching this standard, and the younger recruit may look forward to the freedom that the life sometimes brings, as an opportunity for indulgences which would be better barred from his outlook from the start onwards. He will be expected to be a "good fellow," and can, if he is wise, conform to this requirement of companionship in moderation, and without injury or offence to any.

At the outset, in training class, under other guidance and of his own accord, the recruit will perfect his knowledge of the product or goods which he is to sell and complete his knowledge of the requirements of his firm as to routine work, reports, orders, and other details, and his next concern will be the study of his territory, route, or "ground." The first purpose of this will, in the case of the manufacturers' or wholesalers' representative, be to familiarize himself with the geography and topography, to enable him to know his way

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about. The specialty salesman will study it for this purpose, and also perhaps with greater importance in order to locate potential customers. He may be selling to a special section of the population, dentists, butchers, or households of a particular class. He may gather information that will assist him from up-to-date directories, from trade journals, from connections as he proceeds, but in particular from his own careful study and observation. It is important in both classes of selling that this information should be perfected as quickly as possible and that every inch of the territory should be known, to save time and simplify the planning of journeys. The difference between the two classes may be put thus : the Commercial Traveller seeks to establish himself permanently and studies and operates accordingly, building up for himself a sound and lasting connection, which he extends with care and judgment ; the Specialty Salesman, however, can for the moment take it that his potential customers are clearly defined, limited in number (not necessarily few), and hidden. He has to locate them and sell to the greatest possible number of them ; he " goes through his territory with a small tooth comb."

A Plan of Work Invaluable

The value of a plan of work is enormous. Plan every day's work purposefully. This will save time and increase effective application. You know where you are going, on whom you are to call. At the outset you are perhaps digging virgin, uncultivated, ground. The first results come slowly. Make as many calls as you can, and then make some more. The greater the number of effective calls the greater the number of sales you will achieve. Keep on the attack, but plan the attack. Do not be discouraged by failures, learn from them, and strengthen yourself as you go on, gathering experience, and therefore strength.

A " Prospect " Book

A " prospect " book is a valuable asset. This should be a combined list of potential and prospective purchasers and a

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record of the results of your calls, with any supplementary details which are likely to be of use later. Organize it carefully to suit your methods. It may be arranged by district. This has the advantage of your being able to refer to it when you are going to a chosen part of your route, to note possible calls in that direction, and it facilitates planning. You may plan it alphabetically, or by trades ; you will know best on the spot. From what sources will the names come ? Potential customers will be those who should buy but have not been approached. Prospective customers are those to whom you have a prospect of selling. Head office references, customers' recommendations, people who are for some sound reason left to consider your proposition. Note names (these must be correct, for sometimes incorrect spelling or pronunciation jars), addresses, trades, names of department managers, or buyers ; when they may be seen, and all helpful matter of that kind. The date of your call ; the result ; if no sale, the objections raised, or the reasons for not buying, or for delaying, and so on.

If a report of the case was sent to headquarters, and support was asked for, what action did they take ? Did they send a special letter, make a special offer, or send literature or samples in support of your call ? If a further visit is necessary, note the date when this should be made.

Seek recommendations from your customers, remembering that often their enthusiasm for your goods is highest at the time of your first sale, and that this is the best time to ask them if they can recommend you to any of their friends. Record these names, and when you call, say that you were so recommended : an introduction that should be very helpful.

Responses or applications for information will probably be received by headquarters and sent to you for attention. These should be recorded and dealt with without delay, as generally the interest is genuine, although occasionally merely curious.

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Inspect your "prospect book" often. Never less often than daily, as a reminder. Miss no opportunities of making a call. A full book means a full field of work, a book of contacts, but a book of mere names is not a prospect book. There will be no leisure: the work is hard and calls for real effort. As has wisely been said, "the strength of the effort is the measure of the result."

Obtaining an Interview

Securing interviews at places of business requires tact and persistence, but not trickery. Often it proves that there is a time to call and a time when not to call. The firm may stipulate certain times at which representatives will be seen. The business card, which in all cases must be of good, distinctive appearance, is more or less of a necessity. There are some very poor and inexcusably unsuitable cards to be seen, although any good printer can provide the right kind of card. A card is not a passport to admission: it is easy to have a card sent in, and just as easy for it to be sent out again, but a distinctive card is less likely to be sent out, especially if it is accompanied by a courteous request for a brief interview. Occasionally it may have to be handed to an office boy, or perhaps a commissionaire, or other subordinate, and it is well to remember that courtesy to such people will further your interests. You may have to fill up forms stating your business. You may be kept waiting unduly long. You may suffer patience-trying experiences and loss of time, but you must retain your composure and courtesy, and if necessary persist firmly, though tactfully and smilingly until you secure the desired interview, even at a later date. In cases of failure at this stage, nothing is obtained, except further failure, if you do not take things in good part. Work for the opportunity to call again.

Advice cards are sometimes used to advise the recipient of your call. These are often of advantage in the case of a traveller making regular routine calls, because they act as reminders to customers to consider their stock replenishments, but in other cases are no assurance of an interview.

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Telephoning for an appointment may be tried. You will probably get into touch with someone in authority, and if you speak convincingly it may enable you to secure your interview. Invitations to stockrooms or showrooms should be followed up if necessary by personal calls. While your stock is being shown it is a convincing demonstration which it will be to the advantage of your prospective clients to see.

It is confessedly the most difficult stage, this of securing the interview, but unless it is secured no progress can be made. Courage, tact, courtesy, persistence are your best weapons. With some organizations it is the rule that calling salesman must be seen, and a sound rule it is, for such buyers are the first to receive trade news and useful information, and are unlikely to miss the "good things."

The work will, despite occasional contrary experiences, reveal to you much kindness, and on the whole prove fascinating to the right type of individual.

Behaviour at the Interview

Having secured your interview there is no need to be nervous. Be self-possessed. Tact and good manners will stand you in good stead. Open with a courteous greeting. If your prospective customer offers to shake hands, respond with a firm, not a flabby, grasp. Come at once to business. Briefly introduce your subject, and if you have something to show, produce it early. A demonstration model may be placed in view at once if it is small, but if large ask for permission to unpack it and show it. You may have samples to show. Model or samples must be in perfect condition, clean, fresh, true to type. At the right moment let your "prospect" handle your samples or operate your model. With some people to handle or operate is to desire. To be able to perform some special or intricate operation is flattering.

Tell your story briefly, crisply, completely. Complete your knowledge of your product and practise your description

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so that you may cover every vital point in the shortest reasonable time. Make your story interesting by illustration, demonstration, or, if in no other way, by the manner of the telling and your enthusiasm. Avoid an apologetic tone. Emphasize the advantages of the proposition, putting time, trouble, and money-saving or profit-making points forward first.

Experience will reveal certain common or standard criticisms or objections to your proposition. These may be in your present "prospect's" mind. Raise these first and remove them by convincing explanation, rather than allow them to remain in his mind. Mention the names of other users. They may be known to him by name or repute and prestige be gained thereby. If another customer has recommended you to call and has given you permission to use his name state this fact early. If you have special advantages other than those mentioned, such as exclusive lines, after-service, inspection service, insurance, advertising support, accessories, or instruction in the use of the article, use them as supporting assurances.

Be prepared to prove what you say. You must interest your prospective customer, you must convince him that your proposition will bring him advantages, and that perhaps he cannot afford to do without it. Prove to him that it is a desirable thing, make him wish to possess it, and at the right moment endeavour to clinch the sale at once. It may be necessary to use persuasion, to produce arguments or reasoning against delay or putting off the decision. You may have special inducements to offer to help you in this; do not produce them until the psychological moment, or you may weaken your "prospect's" confidence with too much persuasion or "gilding the lily." After the contract is signed or the order handed over other details or assurances can then be dealt with. Unless encouragement is given for, and time permits of, a chat, leave with courtesy and do not leave the impression that you are either over-talkative, or a time-waster.

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You will not secure a sale at every interview, first interviews in particular, and you must always regard a "put-off" as a real danger. There may be clear and obvious reasons, however, for delay, and you must be able to sense when pressure would be harmful. If a put-off cannot be avoided, seek to cultivate a sufficient measure of confidence or friendship to enable you to call again, and keep the call in mind through your prospect book, making a careful review of the case and the position so that at your second interview you may make further progress.

Your Responsibility

What authority have you to represent your firm, and what is its extent? The Law of Principal and Agent defines this clearly, and subject to any conditions laid down in your agreement or appointment you must work accordingly. If you represent yourself as fully authorized to deal with all matters for your employer, your customer may suffer damage, if he is led to accept what is subsequently refuted by your firm. Put simply, your employer is generally responsible for your acts. If your authority is limited, therefore, do not exceed those limits. Make no promises which you cannot carry out. Make no statements which your employer will not support completely. Claim no authority which you do not possess. You represent your firm to your and their customer, and you may reasonably adopt the attitude, when it is justified, that you must represent your customer to your firm. Even this latter attitude, however, need not lead you to assure or promise more than wholehearted representation.

As to other matters. Take care of your samples, because they are a means to securing sales, and because they are probably expensive. Avoid waste. If a report of your daily work is called for make it out at the end of the day, correctly, truthfully, and promptly. In that way you help headquarters best to visualize your work, your territory, and your difficulties. Operate your firm's system of communication with headquarters, the forwarding of orders, and reports of complaints or credit standing, with loyalty. They will be made

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full use of and will help headquarters to help you. If instructions in the operation of your proposition are necessary to your client, see that they are given thoroughly, because you want him to enjoy the use of it. Call to assure that it is giving satisfaction. Perhaps you will call to provide accessories or supplies. Routine calls may be a source of further sales, additional equipment, repeat orders, recommendations, but only where there is satisfaction with your goods and services. The first sale is always the hardest to get. Ploughing is harder than reaping. Keep on. Time will bring its reward in good sales, good will, and good fellowship.

CHAPTER XI

INDOOR SELLING

THE Outdoor salesman seeks to locate and interest his prospective Customers, but for the Indoor salesman the prospective Customer's interest is aroused by the window display, the personality of the shop, its reputation, by recommendation, or by his wanting some article commonly stocked by such shops. The indoor salesman therefore finds that his prospective customers come to him.

The point at which the indoor salesman operates is of immense importance. It is the point where contact is definitely made with the Consumer, the purchasing point. The work of selling is less aggressive because the stage of securing attention is overcome already, and because that of creating interest is partly if not completely passed.

It must be clearly stated, and borne in mind by the salesman, that this does not make the work passive. In many organizations, no doubt, by the time the salesman and the prospective purchaser come face to face, nothing remains but for the visitor to state his or her requirements and make a selection, and for the goods to be handed over and the money taken. Selling skill is short-circuited. It is not expected of the shop assistant that he or she will possess any knowledge or ability beyond knowing how far responsibility extends, and what the routine duties are. The American self-serving system is the extreme of this. The Automatic machine is the limit. Each of these latter systems are part, however, of the distribution system.

Role of the Indoor Salesman

The indoor salesman or woman may be a specialist. Footwear, Tailoring, Millinery, Jewellery, Grocery, Radio, are examples of such specialization. In the high-class

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furnishing trade a salesman may be an expert in the complete furnishing and decoration of a home. He will have "served through" all departments, Furniture, Carpets, Curtains, Decorations, and understand each thoroughly; or again, he or she may become expert in Department store methods generally, and advance beyond single department specialization, to the control of more than one department, or to that of a branch store.

Let us review the knowledge which an expert indoor salesman will possess. First, of the goods he has to sell: a full acquaintance with his stock, the obtaining of the raw materials from which it is made, the methods by which it is manufactured, its uses (by the consumer), its proper arrangement, as in furniture, or dress; fashions, vogues, modes, ideas, and trends of these. He must be able to use the goods. Where required he must be able to undertake measuring, planning, fitting. In many cases he must understand colour harmony. He must be able to offer expert advice in the choice of goods. In cutting up materials he must be able to avoid waste. He must be capable of suggesting alternative goods, methods, and materials. He must be familiar with qualities, grades, ranges, and prices (both cost prices and selling prices).

Then there is the work of keeping stock in order, marking it, recording issues and receipts of stock, taking stock, and price coding. In this connection the receipt, checking, and passing of invoices becomes part of the work, the invoice being checked against the order for the goods to see that it conforms exactly, or that any differences are admissible and explainable. Then the goods received are checked to the invoice for correctness and for condition. Should it prove that for any reason a part of the goods are to be returned to the suppliers, then a record should be made on the invoice and in a "returns" book (this latter probably by the clerical department), so that replacements or credit notes may in their turn be checked. The person who passes the invoice is actually certifying that the goods ordered, and invoiced, have been correctly received, and may be paid for. The responsibility is therefore an important one.

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In dealing with sales, the individual will make himself closely familiar with the routine adopted by the organization, and as with stock and invoices be aware of the reason for the routine and understand where it dovetails into the complete organization. In other words, he will know what the duty he is performing leads up to, and what happens after he has performed his part. In connection with the understanding of system, there is much to be desired, and an indifferent or careless salesman may be the cause of error, muddle, and confusion, which in their turn may disturb relations with customers, and at the same time be a cause of financial loss. The proper recording of the article sold, its stock number and description, its cost, the correct name and address of the customer, the correct recording of delivery arrangements, either or all of which may enter into the system, will simplify the carrying-out of the order, its recording, the deduction from stock, and the despatch of the account or invoice, as well as, if this applies, the subsequent collection of payment.

Other necessary knowledge will be the relationship between one department and another, where responsibility lies, and the scope of the salesman's own authority, which should in no circumstances be overstepped. Then there should be regard for discipline, however lightly or otherwise this may be held necessary, and of course respect for superiors. Only by getting the true atmosphere of the organization and the right perspective will the individual contribute fully to the smooth working of the machine of which he is part.

Clearly the work of indoor selling calls for competence in many things, and is not work which may be adequately performed by those lacking in capacity for thinking, acting, and in personal bearing.

Selling Policy

But there are other matters of which the salesman should be aware, responsibility for the origin and control of which will be in the hands of his superiors, and these merit some

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reference here. For example, the selling policy of the organization. This may appear in various forms but may be briefly stated as the general line on which the business is run. Features of it often noticeable are: the class of custom sought, price levels, the giving of credit, adherence rigidly to cash trade, the control of credit by credit or hire purchase agreements, price cutting, price maintenance, buying bulk, buying job lots, selling bargains, buying exclusives, the clearance of stocks, the margin of profit on stock, specialization, delivery area, carriage charges, discounts, approval, exchange of purchases, hours of business. It follows that as the salesman represents his firm to the customer the correct line of policy will be adhered to by him.

Competition dictates many, if not all, of the aspects of the policy, and undoubtedly this has led to certain "weak-kneed" attitudes which bring trouble and annoyance in their train. One of these is the policy of "the customer is always right." It is definitely untrue to say that the customer is always right, and it is true to say that this policy lays the firm open to all sorts of abuses on the part of the unscrupulous customer. This attitude has been responsible, it has been said, for making the customer a life-long friend; it has often resulted also in the trader being clearly defrauded and neither of these results gives an indication of the true attitude. While it must be quite frankly stated that often the trader is afraid to antagonize a customer for fear of loss of his custom, it must be added that the sensible trader is willing to do everything within reason to please his customer. This is the true position, and a slogan such as "the customer is always right" is simply foolish. If you are aware that the customer is not entirely pleased with his purchase, or is even really dissatisfied with it, you should put the matter right as a sensible person. If you are certain that you are dealing with the type of customer who blames you or your goods when he or she is simply endeavouring by "foul" means to have them exchanged, or to secure a return of the money, you have two alternatives: either to swallow your annoyance and give

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way or to refuse to give way, well knowing that you may lose that customer for good. In the first case you agree that the customer is honest and quite right, but in the latter you are sure he is neither. You must decide, but not because of a slogan.

Initiative Required

The indoor salesman contributes very largely to the economics of his organization. He may by the exercise of care reduce the working costs, increase the profit, and build goodwill, which latter means, in other words, contribute to the continued existence and success of his firm. But the examples which follow must be accepted according to circumstances, and not adopted as rules. Some of them clearly need cautious adoption and careful handling.

Let us suppose that the salesman has the alternatives of selling for cash or selling for credit. It is to some extent true that salesmen find it easier to secure the order on a credit basis. In my view many opportunities of selling for cash are lost because the mental attitude of the salesman is to sell for credit. Clearly, where we consider goods of the higher price levels it is not possible to sell for cash always, but it is certain that if the salesman goes all out for cash he is the more likely to get it. He still has credit to fall back upon, whereas it will be more difficult, having "sold" for credit, to convert to a cash sale. The advantages of the cash sale are obvious. The transaction is complete, the money is on hand for further employment, the bank position is stronger, there is much less book-keeping.

Another feature is that of the price itself. Where the salesman has latitude to so operate, he should not weaken more than is necessary to secure or bargain for the sale. The higher the price he sells for, consistent with market values and customer satisfaction, the higher the profit turn.

How many salesmen realize the great importance of selling a little more than the customer intended to buy? It is not intended to advance any argument for selling a ten-pound

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article to the person who only wanted to spend five pounds, which may in some cases be the right and proper thing to do, while being very damaging in other cases. What is meant is that wherever circumstances permit the salesman should seek to sell a little more merchandise. We all know that stock phrase, "Anything else to-day?" to which the invariable reply is, "Nothing." Instead of that, let us suggest a further purchase, show some other articles, take the opportunity to introduce something attractive. That is the progressive way and it leads to increased sales. Let us try to put it in arithmetical form. Suppose there are ten salesmen each averaging ten sales per day: sixty sales per week each, and six hundred in total. If the average value of the sales is five shillings our turnover for the week is £150. Now if each sale were increased by sixpence our turnover for the week would be £165, a ten per cent. increase. On paper it does not seem very wrong to assume that "that little more" could be sold. If it can be sold, what a lot it means! In any case it represents the difference between selling and merely "serving."

Delivering Goods

It is a piece of excellent service to deliver a customer's purchases. There are, however, points to be considered. Some goods, an easy chair for example, *must* be delivered for the purchaser. Some by no means insignificant traders have no delivery system, and strangely enough are seldom if ever asked to deliver. I have in mind a large confectionery business and a nationally known tailor. In other cases the delivery of goods, while not being vitally necessary, has become commonly accepted, and is only varied by the customer carrying home the goods of his or her own free will. I suggest that without fear of offence, or being considered wanting in service, there could be a saving in delivery costs if the salesman did not so readily advance the delivery service; "Will you take them with you, or may we have the pleasure of sending them?" is not discourteous, but it may save money, as compared with "We will send those home

for you," because the customer may be quite willing to carry the goods.

Sources of Expense

There is a readiness on the part of some salesmen to sell goods that have to be specially ordered from the manufacturers. This is not entirely condemned, but it should be borne in mind that to sell from stock to the greatest possible extent is to keep stock "moving," to realize on it, and to convert to new stock, and to save the probable higher price which the manufacturer may charge for the special order, as well as additional carriage charges.

Sources of additional working expense and consequent loss of profit are, the careless use of telegraph, telephone, letters, stationery, wrapping, showcards, price tickets, and the like ; lack of care of stock to prevent soiling or damage, and general waste or misuse of facility, or material, and, we must add, time.

Other Duties

While it is not proposed to deal with the question of displaying stock at this stage, we must note that the indoor salesman will possibly be partly responsible for this, or he may come to specialize in it. He must however know what is being displayed in the windows, as he will receive inquiries for what is being shown.

As to the salesman himself, or the saleswoman. There must be attentiveness to all duties, and a constant alertness. There must be not the slightest suggestion of sleepiness. There must be courtesy to visitors and to fellow-members of the staff, and to the latter whole-hearted support, and genuine team-work for the good of all, interest in the work and its progress, enthusiasm, and the acceptance and sense of personal responsibility, however apparently inferior the position held may be. There must be activity, and a readiness to move or step forward to receive visitors, or to attend to something that demands attention, even if this be the picking up of something from the floor ; careful personal grooming, punctuality

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of attendance, systematic tackling of routine work; the acquisition of a thorough knowledge of English for speech and for correspondence, and familiarity with the contents of the firm's advertisements as a guide to policy or to the goods that are listed.

The indoor salesman is a highly responsible individual, for so much depends upon him. To take an illustration of the value of his work, a visitor enters the shop for the first time, is given interest and attention, makes a small purchase and departs satisfied. What is the value of this purchase? One shilling, ten shillings, or perhaps ten pounds. Yes, for the moment. Now imagine we inspect the firm's ledgers or list of customers. We shall find some, perhaps many, whose purchases over a period of years will run to a very high figure, say £500, or £2,000. Yet one day for the first time, those customers entered the shop and made a small but very satisfying purchase with the assistance of a pleasant, efficient, goodwill-building salesman. The relationship commenced with a five-shilling purchase which led to years of custom, resulting in a customer whose value to the firm, measured by the total purchased, is very considerable indeed. The efficient salesman will treat every visitor as if he were a life-long investment, as indeed he may prove to be.

There is another feature, which may be considered a problem. What is to be done with the person who visits us, but from whom we do not at once secure a sale? While everything is to be said for securing a sale at once, and all your skill, persuasiveness and art should be employed to that end, it is inevitable that you will not sell every time. Retain your courtesy, your willingness, your helpfulness, your smile, so that you may please the visitor by your attention, and so that he or she may like you and be encouraged to come back. They do come back someday if they like you. But if they are treated curtly, or sulkily, or unwillingly, they may stay away. Make friends of your visitors. As they find you so will they think and speak.

CHAPTER XII

THE SHOP WINDOW AND THE SHOP

THE window has been described as the voice of the shop, for the reason that it is through the medium of the window that the shopkeeper speaks to the public, and that it is through the medium of the window that the public judge the personality of the shop. From the window they recognize the class, quality, and range of the merchandise, and at the same time instinctively assess the nature of the business, its up-to-dateness, its cleanliness, the kind of service likely to be given, and the general personality of all associated with it.

It follows that the window is an advertisement, but I would go further and declare that it is the finest of all advertisements if carefully handled, because it attracts attention, and tells a very complete story of the service offered, and is moreover at the actual purchasing point. Equally, it may be said, the window improperly cared for and under-valued may become a bad advertisement and a creator of sales-resistance.

Value of Window Displays

One can remember many instances of shops being admired for their windows, because the displays were interesting and instructive, and at the same time attractively laid out, and properly lighted. A desire to enter and purchase remains with one, and one feels a certain satisfaction in purchasing from such a shop, especially if the interior and the service bear out the promise conveyed by the windows.

Because the window is so valuable an advertisement or selling factor, it becomes of interest and value to all concerned. For the proprietor it is a means of attracting interest, of informing the passer-by, of indicating his personality, of self-expression. For the assistant, it provides an opportunity for contriving and inventing new methods of display and for self-expression, and further is a concrete piece of work which,

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by the results which it secures, gives guidance to the dresser and provides valuable experience, not only in the work of display but also in judging the requirements of the public. For the assistant not directly concerned in arranging the display it is of interest, because he learns from experience what the window can achieve, and because he sees in it examples from stock that are likely to be asked for, and therefore he should make himself especially familiar with the goods displayed, and with the ranges or types of which they are representative. To the outside salesman or traveller, windows are of interest as being indicative of the quality or nature of the business done, and of the prosperity or otherwise of the shop. He may judge something of the personality of the proprietor and his status, and he may judge the advantages of securing that his own goods are displayed therein.

So far as the design of window or display spaces is concerned, it is evident that changes and advance have been rapid, and that the architect is paying increased attention to this feature of his designs. In principle, the window display space should provide the greatest possible frontage, with the addition of arcade, and island frontages wherever the depth of the site allows, because the greater the variety of stock displayed the greater the attractiveness and resulting sales, and because there will be greater scope for the alteration of displays.

The question of changing displays is worthy of discussion, and a very important point to be clearly remembered is that the goods displayed exclude attention from those not shown. Therefore as long as one article or section is on display, so long will the remainder be obscured. This consideration must govern the length of time occupied by one display, bearing in mind that where a display is proving successful, that is, productive, some extra time might be allowed. A further consideration arises from the need for maintaining interest. Many people may have occasion to pass and re-pass the windows, and their interest wanes if a display is not changed; whereas in other circumstances, as in large cities, interest

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may last longer because a greater and further number of people than those who habitually pass may see the window at some time or another.

Methods of display are better actually demonstrated than described in writing, but it must be said that display work is of such importance that special aptitude and training are necessary, with artistic sense, imagination, and inventiveness.

The "Solus"

One type of display which is attractive is the "solus." In this case only one article is displayed and some powerful examples have been noted. Especially strong emphasis is by this means brought to bear on the article, and although valuable it would appear that the cost of so limiting valuable space and excluding other lines makes it necessary that the item chosen should have outstanding merit, features, and value. A semi-solus effect can be obtained by placing a central well-emphasized item supported at the outer portions of the window by relative or supplementary goods. Groups of related lines may be arranged; or the general layout of the display may lead the sight to some special item, detail, or showcard. A study of pictorial composition, colour harmony, and associated subjects will be necessary to enable such schemes to be developed.

Showcards

A window should be live, colourful, explanatory, and convincing, and showcards should be used only to draw attention to special points or to drive home arguments. A window full of showcards is not a window-show of goods. Moreover, the design of the showcards that are used should be in harmony with the display, and they should be worded simply and to the point, and placed so that their meaning or connection with the goods shown shall be clear.

A courteously worded invitation to enter the shop, or to inquire for details or for goods not shown, should be the subject of a showcard to be employed when opportunity appears.

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Price tickets where used should be carefully placed, easy to read, and only used when the price itself is in the nature of a selling-point to indicate good value. These should be of reasonable size, as a window that appears to consist mainly of price tickets is unlikely to be attractive to the eye.

Novel Displays

Bearing in mind that the first purpose of the window is to attract the eye of the passer-by, moving objects whether demonstrating a process, or merely novel, are successful if wisely used, as is anything of a novel or unusual nature ; but your object is not to attract attention to movement or novelty but to employ these to secure interest in your goods. Certain seasons, the holiday periods, Easter, Whitsuntide, Christmas, the coming of Spring, Summer, Autumn, and Winter present obvious opportunities for special seasonal displays, and add variety and interest to the windows, while the employment of colour as colour and as a medium to attract the eye, though calling for expert use, is of the greatest value. While splendid examples may be studied that prove the value of such ideas, the field is inexhaustible and there is ample scope for originality.

Windows may be dressed with a view to emphasizing cheapness, quality, beauty, fitness of the goods for their purpose, to show how the goods are used, or to show them in their natural surroundings. You may employ stage-craft and set-pieces, models, groups, such as wedding party or sports groups, you may allow proprietary firms to specially dress a display of their goods for you. Indeed the windows call for constant thought, planning in advance, and preparation if they are to be as successful as they may well be.

The Shop Interior

The modern shop interior is a logical continuation of the windows, and almost exactly the same considerations apply as in the case of the windows. The interest occasioned by the windows should not be allowed to flag once the people

have entered the shop. A visit to any well-ordered Department store is to-day to many a really interesting time, so full of vivid interest are the displays and demonstrations which are offered.

Dealer-helps

Dealer-helps seem logically to call for consideration here, and it may be questioned whether they are made the fullest use of, and whether they are really appreciated by the dealer. They range from set window display pieces to, say, finger-plates for doors, and include a variety of things such as catalogues, folders, showcards, display stands, and so on. They are produced by the manufacturer who supplies his goods to the shopkeeper for mutual benefit. They make known the fact that his goods are stocked and usually quite expertly advance the claims of the goods for attention. Resulting sales benefit both manufacturer and retailer. There is, however, room for criticism of this feature.

The manufacturer may be guilty of one or more of several faults. He may economize in the design and production of the dealer-help to such an extent that the dealer will not use the item. He may be over-generous in the quantities sent, and so encourage waste. He may not supply sufficient to be effective. The retailer having apparently received something for nothing does not always make the fullest or proper use of it, or even any use at all, perhaps feeling that he has other more attractive things to show. The actual position is as has been stated. It is to mutual benefit that everything that can be done to push the sales shall be done by both parties, and if some real form of co-operation can be secured the advantage to each will be plain. One of the best forms I have seen, though necessarily expensive and therefore limited, seems to me to be assured of success. It consists of securing from the retailer a list of customers, perhaps specially selected, and the sending to those addresses by the manufacturer of a sample of the goods, attractively packed and presented, with an invitation to test the goods and place an order with the

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retailer supplying the list. It appears to me that the maker ensures that his sample will reach reasonably safe hands and that the retailer is assured of any sales that may result ; while the customer feels that, since it is mentioned that the sample has been sent by request, the retailer has done him or her a favour, conferred a sort of gift or bonus. Folders which are capable of being included in a parcel or package should be so included. Every effort should be made to ensure that dealer-helps are effectively used. On the other hand, it is common to see such helps overlooked, damaged, ignored, or wasted in some other way. They are a link with the maker's advertising, they help in introducing other lines, they reduce verbal explanation, and when they picture the goods adequately, as can be done, thanks to wonderful modern printing methods, they are almost as good as actually showing the goods themselves.

Advertising the Shop

At this stage we could well raise the question of advertising the shop, having dealt with the window and dealer-helps, which are both a definite form of publicity. The window appeals to the passer-by, and the dealer-help introduces further lines to your customer. What about the person who is neither—the man at a distance. Tell him through the medium of the press, the poster, or by postal advertising who you are, where you are, and what you sell. Put your window into the newspapers for his benefit, attract his attention to your goods and services. Invite him to visit you. Tell him about your bargains. Offer him a catalogue. Get him to write to you if he cannot come to you.

Now an important next step. Record, by preference in a card index, the names and addresses of your past and present customers, and the names of those who make postal inquiries. Preserve this index carefully, and at every reasonable opportunity inform these people of any special events such as sales, or special offers, by means of folders or letters, or even samples. All such people have been in contact with

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you. Their attention has been drawn to you, they know you. Keep in touch, and do not let them forget you. They may buy one type of article to-day, and be potential purchasers of an entirely different item at another time or season. Make it easy for potential customers to find you. Help existing customers to enjoy your services. Keep your shop known, and make it more widely known. Attraction : you may achieve the attraction of people to you in small or great measure. Retention : you must employ every sensible and reasonable effort to keep their goodwill. Repulsion : any lack of attention or interest in their requirements and goodwill will definitely repel them, and, even allowing for personal peculiarities, this is very simply occasioned by neglect or want of thought and effort.

Demonstrations and Exhibitions

Demonstrations in the windows or within the shop can be helpful if certain elementary rules are observed. There should be reference to the demonstration in the press advertising, folders should be sent to all persons on the card index (mailing list), and there should be a special window display showing the goods, and announcing the demonstration. The regular staff should be enlisted to co-operate enthusiastically, while the demonstration should not unduly interfere with the routine of the shop. The demonstrator should go about his or her work quietly, pleasantly and courteously, without pestering the customers, although using every reasonable opportunity to secure the taking of a sample, or the purchase of a unit, or the understanding of a process. There should again at this stage be a supply of explanatory literature for distribution on the spot.

There are occasions when Exhibitions are organized, and the retailer either takes a stand or is a stockist of goods which are being shown. Here again co-operation is called for. If the retailer has his own stand he should make his primary object the making-known of his regular establishment, while losing no opportunity of securing sales. The establishment

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should be advertised at the Exhibition, and the Exhibition stand should be advertised in the shop. Where a manufacturer has a stand it should not be a case of "here to-day and gone to-morrow." The visit should be planned. Stockists should be advised of the dates of the Exhibition. They should be encouraged to make displays of the goods "as displayed by Messrs. X at the Exhibition." At the stand there should appear prominently a list of the local stockists, and if sales take place they should be at the usual price and credited proportionally to the stockists. The aim should be to create an impression, and leave an impression not only with the Public but with the Retailers too. It would be worth while after the closing of the Exhibition to display showcards pointing out for a few days that these are the goods "that were shown at the Exhibition," to hold the impression locally for as long as possible. Local prestige is being sought, and every effort, from the original planning to the follow-up work afterwards, must be made to establish it and firmly maintain it. If the general sales in the district are not raised and made capable of retention, then the effect of the Exhibition is too fleeting to be truly worth the effort.

CHAPTER XIII

A STUDY OF THE CUSTOMER

THE widely-assorted types and characters of the people with whom the salesman comes into contact in the normal course of his duties provide experience in the understanding of human nature and an interesting opportunity for a practical study of psychology. Undoubtedly this continuous and varied contact explains the reason why the work is so fascinating to many, who find great interest in meeting different kinds of people. It probably explains why a successful salesman is himself very often a likeable, forbearing, broadminded, and well-informed individual who finds little difficulty in making himself fit into any company or circumstance. It would seem to suggest that only those persons are likely to be successful who are able to adapt themselves to harmonize with the various people they will meet. Certainly it is true that the best salesmen are adaptable and able to adjust themselves to the people they meet. It is, further, probably true to say that such salesmen adjust themselves instinctively, rather than from the study of human nature which they possibly have never embarked upon.

We cannot all at once, partly because of inexperience, so adjust ourselves, and study or observation will therefore be helpful. In some cases a salesman may wish to make such a study for both interest and experience, or simply because the subject appeals to him and his work gives him such an opportunity of observation.

The Study of Human Nature

That the study of our customers, of human nature, is fascinating cannot be denied, but it must be cautiously, calmly, and perhaps gently approached. There are dangers. One may give so much thought to the psychology of others that one's own psychology and even outlook may suffer. One may fall into the error of hasty judgment and thereby damage relationships. There is the danger that incorrect

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judgment coupled with an incautious tongue may do harm in other directions ; indeed reticence is an essential, and opinions of individuals should never be expressed to others. Even in discussion points of interest that have been observed should never be associated with a named person.

The question naturally arises as to whether a deliberate study of the subject is necessary to help a salesman to sell more successfully. On consideration I feel bound to answer "No." The tendency of the salesman who made such a study profound would I think be to endeavour to classify his contacts and deal with them accordingly, and I cannot agree that except in "gifted" persons, if such exist, the results of the study would be of practical value. Human nature, outlook, manners, customs, environments, reactions are much too complex to be capable of mathematical tabulation and classification, and I feel sure that tact, experience and instinct are the safest guides. Add to these observation (and of all people, surely, the salesman should be observant), and the salesman will not go very far wrong.

Psychology, however, as a subject is of great general interest, and there is a certain justification for the salesman applying himself to it, because he is constantly making varied contacts. Moreover the study is good for the intellect, and it is mind-broadening and very informing.

First Impressions

There are two simple guides: first impressions and appearances, though we must remember that first impressions "are not always correct" and appearances are "deceptive." Many of us are so confident that the impression we receive on first meeting people is correct that we depend upon it and can safely be guided by it, rarely if ever discovering with the passing of time, and with ample renewing of contact, that we were wrong in our first impressions. We must, however strong our impressions may be, nevertheless be always ready and willing to admit ourselves wrong when occasion arises. To others of us comes the experience of

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receiving a first impression, of dismissing it, and of ultimately coming to say that our first impression is confirmed. Is there any reason for such first impressions proving correct? Perhaps it is that when two people meet for the first time, some primitive instinct of self-defence or self-assertiveness brings out the worst side of their characters, or shall we say, shows them up in their true colours. Perhaps caught unprepared, there is no time to clothe character with a veneer of momentary charm, to call up tact to assist in creating an untrue impression. So many true characters, and not always the bad ones, are veneered over, and we must try to see through this veneer, to discover the best characteristics always, while standing on guard against the bad which may appear to be present.

Appearances

So far as appearances are concerned, they are certainly very deceptive, and very difficult to read. The high wide forehead, the receding forehead, the powerful jaw, the receding chin, the straight mouth, the close-set eyes, and all the rest of the details that we are told are indicators of character, are frequently very unreliable, and except as a separate and special study, of a very interesting nature, they must be taken very cautiously, and only accepted as guides when they combine truly with other impressions. There are rarely two faces alike (doubles), so the variety of facial features is tremendous, and some characters would be very difficult to read by analysis of the features. A rough general grouping may be made, for example the cheery, kindly face which suggests generosity and invites confidence; the keen, almost ferrety face which suggests a grasping, keen, and mean nature; there is the face which by its lack of brightness or firmness suggests a weak, groping, futile nature, and so on, but even then beware of the veneer.

We must beware of snap judgments; we must be conscious of impressions received; we must be conscious of the impression which we make on our subjects, as, for example,

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is seen in the effect the blustering bully has on the nervous weakling, tending to reveal exaggerated nervousness and weakness. We must be able to note whether appearances coincide or otherwise with impressions, and we must be patient and self-possessed ourselves so that our subject may be as natural as possible and his reactions to ourselves spontaneous and unaffected or unacted.

Learn to read the "light" of the face, the expression conveyed by the eyes and the mouth. These are the two features that reveal the strongest part of the character. These are the features which make expression. These are the features by which we can vary our expression as we wish. They as nearly as can be reveal our thoughts.

Motives

In salesmanship we make an appeal to the people generally, subject of course to certain qualifications which need not be mentioned here, with a view to reaching the individual. We must be noticed, seen, claim attention. We must convert this attention into a desire to know more, and a desire to possess the goods, we must carry it through to the stage when a sale results and permanent relationship can be cultivated. All these may be achieved almost instantly in some cases, while in others the process will be a lengthy one, and some consideration may well be given to the reasons why people take action, the action which leads to a sale. The basis is in motive : motive is the cause, action is the effect.

Motives may be natural ones, or they may be compelling (perhaps entirely compulsory, irresistible) or they may be quite voluntary, free, summoned up by our own volition.

Natural motives are those which spring from the nature of the person, and the nature affects the behaviour very directly. Nature is modelled by childhood experiences, by upbringing, by environment, by influences that are brought to bear, by associations that are formed with others, by schooling or training, by the nature of employment, all of which affect the outlook and the habit of thought to such an

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extent that they become very firmly fixed and difficult to change, though varying as people are numerous. Of two children, one born with the proverbial silver spoon in his mouth, in generous circumstances, gently nurtured, knowing nothing of material want, schooled under what are accepted as the best conditions, at public school and university perhaps, then given one of the higher-placed positions in trade, commerce, government; while the other, born in dismal surroundings, always knowing want and famine, thrown into association only with others similarly circumstanced, schooled to a very limited extent, and thrown on to the labour market to work under the most hazardous and difficult conditions: which should logically be the gentler in nature, the more human, the more kindly and understanding? It is paradoxical that there is no certainty that the former will be gentle, and the latter rough and uncouth. Heredity offers no explanation. The reaction of the individual varies, and the effect of the same upbringing, or environment, or employment may be entirely different in any two chosen subjects, as is proved by countless living examples. In each individual there is a special nature or ego which dictates or governs the individual's outlook and the reactions to any and every circumstance or contact, and which can only be denied, counteracted, or thwarted by deliberate exercise of the will. Thus the kindly person can only be unkind by an effort of which he or she is conscious, and under which is felt a sense of discomfort. The brutish kind impelled to show gentleness, do so as it were under inward protest, and often revert sharply and quickly to their brutal ways as if hastening to cover up their display of apparent weakness.

In this way our natural motive will show us to be cautious, aggressive, timid, genial, quick, ponderous, vain, mean, generous, sympathetic, curious, inquiring, careless, possessive, or whatever our outstanding characteristic makes us.

The compelling motives originate in fear. Fear of pain which compels us to seek relief from it, or to avoid or prevent it. Fear of suffering, as with pain, in ourselves or others

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compels us, whatever our natures, to take steps to alleviate that suffering or to avoid it. We feel compelled sometimes to try to foresee it and to provide against its coming. Fear of loss of any kind compels us to protect ourselves and our property or dependants. Fear of penalty compels normal people to avoid, say, offending against the law, or losing their employment, because the penalty may be want and suffering, or at least inconvenience and discomfort. Indeed with many people, perhaps most, it can be said that their motive for going to work is to avoid the suffering or loss, that is, penalty, which will be felt if work is not attended to. Fear is closely related to need. We must have shelter, food, clothing, and to acquire these things we are driven, whatever our natures, to take steps to secure them. We do not conserve our resources because we are mean. We do not go to work merely because we are possessive or grasping. The things we must do spring from the compelling motives of fear and need.

Voluntary motives are seen in the amusements we seek, in the charitable work we do, in the service we render to others. We do not go to the theatre because we are kindly or generous or aggressive or because we need to go, or because we fear the consequences of not going. And although we may be charitable and service-giving out of a kindly nature we are not compelled to act so, but rather do we so act out of our own voluntary and free will.

Motives are the cause, and actions are the effect. It is the spontaneous action which reveals our true nature. Faced with a minor or major crisis or a demand for a quick decision or action, such as we all meet in many and various ways, almost daily, we respond normally, and invariably exactly according to our natures.

Consideration will reveal what is behind our actions. Is there anything compelling? Must we do this or that because if we do not there will be a penalty, some loss, or difficulty? Are we entirely free to please ourselves in what we do; are our motives entirely voluntary? The final action we take

will perhaps be voluntary, but our decision will be partly tinged with our true natures. Spontaneous action is mainly natural. Considered action is compulsory or voluntary, but our nature contributes to our decisions.

Securing Attention and Interest

It would seem that the salesman may so couch his appeal to prospective or potential customers. If the goods or service he is selling are protective in any way whatever he may appeal to the fear motive. The fear of fire for fire-extinguishing apparatus, fire insurance. The fear of cold for warm clothing, house warming. The fear of illness for protective clothing, curatives, nourishing foods. How the mother instinct, love, gentleness, kindness, protection, is appealed to by so many producers of children's wear and children's foods, an appeal to natural and compelling motives combined ! An appeal to natural motives, pride, self-conceit, and vanity, is made by fashion experts, jewellers, and furnishers. Caution, curiosity, generosity, and almost all, if not entirely all, the revealed aspects of human nature may be similarly appealed to ; and our appeal may be strengthened by flattering, by removing ignorance, and by appealing to reason, although one of the obstacles to such an appeal is the fact that habits of thought, firmly fixed by constant use and repetition, cloud reason, and must be stripped away before reason can be reached.

It is this stripping away that must be achieved before we can secure our subject's attention, and here again we may employ an appeal to natural motives. In practice we secure attention by sound, motion, light, colour, all of which break into the thoughts, appeal to the curiosity that is in us all to a greater or lesser extent, or please some sense which we possess, as the sense of beauty. By displaying unusual things, or things in unusual settings (i.e. window display), by displaying familiar things, or things in familiar settings, we appeal to curiosity, vanity, acquisitiveness, reason too. We *create an interest* in our products in a similar way. We show

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them in use, show what they can do, show how they work, how they appear in their natural surroundings ; all this to simplify understanding, by levelling up our approach to common interests or habits of thought. People are interested in what is familiar to them. They like too to see things in use, and while a demonstration is often basically interesting, because of the skill of the demonstrator, we are by so demonstrating, creating interest very soundly and lastingly, because they have " seen it work," and know what it is for and what it can do. We also in that way appeal to the curiosity instinct. Again we appeal to reason. They have seen our arguments proved by illustration and are convinced. Things topical create interest. There is much to be said for the idea of associating our product directly or indirectly with the topic of the moment, whether it be political, sporting, or of other general interest. Here association of ideas, linking our product up with the thoughts of the public, is clearly effective. As a means of creating interest we may show user prestige by showing that we have the Royal appointment, that prominent individuals or groups use our product, that our product was used in some important achievement, such as the construction of an important building, or in some epoch-making flight or speed event.

The creation of desire is entirely psychological. Analyse the desires of the people and you find they are based on one or other of the following : a love of beautiful things ; the appreciation of personal comfort ; the desire to appear well in the eyes of others ; the relief from laborious duties ; the ability to do something better or more easily, or something not possible before ; the desire for protection in any form from danger to life, or security, or health ; the wish to amuse themselves or be amused ; to copy or imitate others to secure some advantage ; to achieve some economy ; to exercise the acquisitive instinct. Therefore by showing our goods for beauty, for comfort, for fashion, for prestige, or demonstrating the effectiveness with which they achieve their purpose, we approach the working of the mind. It must be

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noted that at times we create desire by employing appeals based on more than one of the aspects referred to. We can and do show beautiful things which will give comfort of body or mind, which will save or reduce effort and expense, and which encourage our prospective customer to exercise his imitativeness or acquisitiveness.

Before anything else, however, we must secure *attention*, for until this is done there can be no interest shown in our product. Then we must create *interest* in our prospective customer's mind, otherwise we cannot implant *desire*. We cannot expect to sell what is not desired, so we must next ensure that desire is there before we can safely proceed to the final stage of concluding the sale. The process may be completely achieved almost instantaneously or, in an involved or considerable proposition, it may be a lengthy process. In many cases before the salesman greets the prospective customer, attention, interest, and even desire may have been achieved by advertising, or by recommendation, while in commonly-used products or low-priced articles the salesman has nothing to do but hand the purchase over. We must keep in mind the fact nevertheless, that attention, interest, and desire have necessarily all been established, whether the final securing of the sale proves to be a simple matter of a moment, or whether it is a long-drawn-out process.

Impelling Action

The final closing of the sale requires the impelling of action on the part of our prospective customer. How can we achieve this? Again psychology comes into the picture, and we may see that the salesman who is able to sense the mind-working of the "prospect" will be greatly helped. The high-pressure salesman, whose methods we need not question here, literally overpowers his prospect with argument, reasoning and conviction, and so exercises the force of his personality that at the right moment he brings about the close of the sale and secures the order, producing the contract form, handing up an ever-ready fountain pen, and there is

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the signature on the dotted line. By reasoning we show that the proposition is vitally necessary. It affords protection, it saves money. Delay is foolish or even dangerous, the order must be placed at once. The article is appreciated, the price is right, it means comfort and happiness from now on ; why delay ?

Methods of persuasion : There is a special discount for orders placed now. After a certain date the goods will not be available. Sale prices will be taken off. As a special inducement to order now accessories are offered. The salesman must understand when to press for the completion of the order. He must know the danger of employing special lever offers or inducements and use them sparingly and tactfully. Sell the goods, not the low price or the bonus accompaniment. Sell the value, not the fact that the offer is limited by time or quantity. Use your ammunition sparingly. Be convincing in your sales talk and demonstration, get the fact home that the price means little compared with the advantages gained. It is useless to offer a discount to an unconvinced prospective customer.

CHAPTER XIV

CREDIT TRADING

CREDIT Trading is now firmly established as a means to further salesmanship and while by the purist, or even the economist, it may be looked upon with some disfavour, we cannot baulk the fact that it is here to stay. The advantages of cash trade are so obvious as hardly to justify reference. Many wisely refuse to leave it. Some firms, dealing in low-priced units, can readily maintain it, such as what were before the war the threepenny and sixpenny stores, and the multiple provision stores, or low-priced tailoring organizations. Cash trade is safe. The monetary position is fluid. There are no Bank charges to face, no borrowing. Ready-money purchasing with its advantage of discounts from suppliers is possible. Selling prices can be kept at the lowest level because, if for no other reason, overhead charges such as accounting are reduced. Clerical work is reduced. Bad debts are avoided. The advantages are almost innumerable, but nevertheless, there must be cases where it is a matter for careful consideration as to whether it is wise not to allow credit to customers, especially where one's competitors are allowing it.

Reasons For

What are the reasons for credit trading? It is based on a desire to secure custom by favour, by presumably securing a customer's trade permanently, although experience proves this is not assured. It is based on the desire to swell turnover for what increased turnover means, or it may simply be employed or allowed from a desire to serve. It means in effect that the client is being financed for the moment, that the trader is lending the means to purchase. The inflow of money being thus delayed, it follows that the capital resources of the business must be strong enough to stand the strain. Neglect of this strength results in many bankruptcies. Given the necessary strength of capital, with careful giving of credit, then it becomes a very powerful form of competition, because

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it attracts custom where the necessity for the goods exists, before the means to pay is possessed. Starting from this point it encourages even those who can well pay cash down, to open accounts and delay payment. There are many excuses for the customer engaging in credit, but they all amount to a desire to hold up payment. It often appears to induce a certain slackness, creates a habit of both thought and living, and offers a loophole for those who deliberately evade payment.

On the other hand it is undoubtedly true that there is a market amongst those who are ready and anxious to use the goods but either cannot pay cash down, although in receipt of a steady and reasonably well-assured income, or have their capital locked up, and such customers find payment out of income meanwhile a helpful facility. This market, reaching back as it does to the original producer, enlarges the scope of trading, enables production to proceed more steadily and not merely seasonably or spasmodically, increases demand, increases employment, and confers benefits on many. Experience shows that the actual percentage of loss due to bad debts is almost negligible, apparently because the vast majority of people are inherently honest and desirous of paying their debts ; but experience further proves that careful organization and control, diligent guard against bad credit, and a firm collection method are necessary. Again it must be noted that this not inconsiderable addition to operative costs, added to possibly by the need for borrowed capital and the payment of interest charges, must be passed on to the user or consumer ; hence prices for goods sold on an organized credit basis must tend to be higher than in the case of a business run on purely cash lines. This brings into existence a system of discounting to customers who pay cash down, or pay within a stipulated time, and while this is really a means of encouraging the inflow of money, it is found that this feature becomes competitive, partly because rival organizations may seek to improve their discounts to their customers as a further means to secure custom, by increasing either the

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amount allowed or the time allowed. Therefore from however sound a basis credit trading may commence, competition by means of a slackening of methods or freeing from restrictions, encourages slackness and re-creates or makes more solid and permanent, the habit of living on credit, and leads the trader to seek methods of controlling credit.

Instalment Trading

The Instalment or Deferred Payment system is a means of controlling credit. Under this method the customer signs an agreement, specifying the goods and the terms on which they are sold, and by which they must be paid for (see Hire Purchase Act, 1938). The ownership of the goods passes to the purchaser, but should he fail to keep to the terms of payment, the trader has the agreement as written evidence of the sale, and can use this to recover payment through the County Court ; and this is really the only advantage of the instalment method. It does of course effect a record of the sale, and gives time and occasion for the trader to consider the credit standing of his client before accepting the contract or order. It further puts the sale on a clear basis regarding the method of payment, but the only security it offers is through legal action.

Hire Purchase Trading

Hire Purchase Trading must be carefully differentiated from Deferred Payment or Instalment Trading. Applied to-day to numerous varieties of products, the contract is on the basis of an agreement to hire the goods for free enjoyment and use, wear and tear admissible, to pay a regular weekly, monthly, or quarterly rental, and to hold the goods in the possession of the hirer who is bailee for them (see Hire Purchase Act, 1938). The important fact is that the goods are hired and remain the property of the trader. The total amount of the payments or the number an amount of the payments will be specified, and when these are cleared, it is generally agreed that the hiring be converted into a sale, on payment of a small sum of money such as one shilling. The agreement is evidence and security, and will support any action at law.

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It would appear that as between open or loose credit, instalment selling, and hire purchase, comparison shows hire purchase to be the most protective for the trader. Of course discount inducements are offerable, and encouragement in other forms usable to secure regular income, but this does not mean that the trader will sell to all and sundry. Several essentials appear, if the trade is to be carried on with the greatest margin of safety. The status of the hirer must be examined. The goods must be good. The goods must not be consumable as otherwise they will simply disappear through use and wear. As large a first payment as possible must be secured. In some cases twenty-five per cent. is asked for, and in many others ten per cent. The hire payments must be reasonable, and the length of time over which they are spread should be as short as possible. Two years is much safer than three or four, because nobody can see ahead for long, and the longer the period the greater the possibility of mishap or loss of income or resources. The hiring should not be for a larger quantity of goods than is absolutely necessary, though much better a hundred agreements for £10 each, than ten of £100 each. It is further advisable, since the trader's goods are in the hands of other people, either to specify that the hirer shall insure them against loss by fire, or, and this is best, for the trader to insure them. These are the sound lines upon which hire purchase may be conducted successfully. It is not overlooked that there are those who sell goods of inferior quality, exercise little selection of the hirers, accept little or no first payment and spread the period over four or more years. Probably competition is responsible for this, and while many such businesses operate profitably it is to be doubted whether the high prices charged and the temptation created by "easiness" of terms are all to the good.

Documentation

In any credit selling the salesman must pay very careful attention to the internal documents, such as order books, sales sheets, agreements, or whatever records may be required by the organization, This is no place to discuss the work of

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the counting house or collection department, or accounting generally, but it must be observed that a sale is not complete until all the money is received, and for lack of correct and vital information all kinds of difficulties arise that bring about bad debts, or cause difficulties in account collecting. In many cases too, disputes may arise as to the arrangements made with the customer, and the theory that "the customer is always right" becomes both expensive and difficult to put into practice.

Taking the extreme as represented by Hire Purchase, the details that should be sought and completed whenever possible are, first, the full name of the hirer, with the signature. Then, if the hirer is a woman, whether she is able to undertake the contract in her own right, by reason of having her own property, for example; if she contracts on behalf of her husband, the husband's authority or guarantee will be valuable. Next, regardless of the sex of the hirer, whether the address to which the goods are to be delivered is tenanted; if it is, whether the rent payments are up to date. The correct address, correctly spelt, for some slight inaccuracy here may cause much trouble, as for example in the confusion between Street, Road, Avenue, Terrace, Gardens, and so on. The length of time they have resided at that address, and if for no considerable length of time the address at which they resided previously; younger people may be asked for the names and addresses of their parents. The nature of the employment and the name and address of the employer will be useful. If any references are obtainable, secure them. Before the goods are delivered inquiries should be made to confirm the information secured. It is not always possible to secure all the above details, because some customers are, or pretend to be suspicious. Tactful explanation as to the reason for asking for the details, which is to ensure that only good accounts are opened, and which is in the long run in the customer's interests, will help. Sensible people will prefer to deal with firms who are cautious as to with whom they open accounts. If the salesman is able to secure the confidence of the client, there will be much less difficulty.

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What are the advantages of securing these details? Firstly, one wishes to know whether the applicant for credit is worthy. The less freely the information is given the greater should be the caution, and the more carefully the later inquiries made. Then, does the nature of the employment indicate possession of steady income and the ability to pay? Is the address in a satisfactory residential area? Has residence in a rented house been over a sufficiently long period to indicate that the landlord is satisfied with the tenant? In the event of a change of address of which you have not been advised, or as it is known, a "runaway," will the details help in tracing the removal? These hints are sufficient to show that every reasonable effort should be made to secure complete information. For the details of the information required by law, the Hire Purchase Act of 1938 will be your guide, and satisfactory agreements may be secured from the Hire Purchase Traders' Association.

In "selling" for hire, the salesman should endeavour at an early stage to secure information regarding the rate at which payments can be made. These will be spread over varying periods up to four or five years according to the policy of the organization. Every care should then be taken to keep the size of the hiring within the client's ability to pay: you are not selling quantity. You must watch the terms, or the client will take on more than he can afford, and a bad debt is invited.

CHAPTER XV

SALES MANAGEMENT

SALES Management is perhaps one of the most fascinating branches of work, and it is the ambition of many salesmen to occupy the position of Sales Manager. It calls for competence in selling, organizing ability, the ability to get the best work from the selling force, and a capacity for hard work. Needless to say the sales manager must be completely a master of his proposition, living it, thinking it all the time, and producing fresh ideas and methods for advancing the work. If he has experienced the rough-and-tumble of actually selling it, all the better. He will have close collaboration with the heads of the organization, the proprietors, and the directors, as well as with the Accountancy Department, and the Advertising Department. The collaboration should be close, mutual, and for the advancement only of the proposition ; in other words, there must be team work. Co-operation with the Accountancy department is necessary for the securing of information : the records will be complete and must be available for returns of sales, of bulk, by separate lines of goods if the trade is varied, by departments, or by individual salesman ; they will also show the amounts of commissions paid, expenses to salesmen, and other such details. Analyses of Sales will be possible by districts, or by seasons, and the interest and enthusiasm of the accounting department should be cultivated so that the progress of the organization is of as much interest there as elsewhere.

The Advertising Department

Although this has been the subject of argument, the Advertising Department should be under the control of the sales manager. Advertising is selling. It must be planned to co-ordinate with sales effort, in placing, in timing, and in its nature. The sales manager will make the plans well ahead and with broad vision. He will be able to instruct the advertising department as to his plans and advise them as to

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the nature of the support required and when, and so enable the material to be produced in good time. He will keep them posted as to selling points and sales arguments or angles of appeal that are being employed. They in their turn will be able to advance selling points and ideas which will be passed on to the salesmen. In this again, team work and loyal enthusiasm will be cultivated. It requires, however, that the sales manager shall fully understand the nature, methods, and uses of advertising, and while he need not be a master of the technical production of the material he should understand the language, and the various aspects of the work, so that he knows both the limitations and the possibilities, and does not ask for what is technically impossible, while probably being able to offer ideas and suggestions for the technician and producer who will welcome new points of view.

Recruiting and Training

The sales manager will be responsible for the selection of the selling staff, and for their training. He must therefore be a good judge of men, as men and as salesmen. When engaging recruits for his staff, what attributes can he seek? He will doubtless form his first estimate from the nature of the written applications for employment. At the subsequent interview he will receive definite information as to the candidate's previous employment, training, and experience: his record of achievement, as indicated by the kind of organizations by which he has been previously employed; his earnings; references will probably be offered as to character and integrity; the holding of Fidelity Bonds. These can all be taken, without disparagement, for what they are worth. Some details of domestic life should be sought: whether married; personal interests or hobbies; whether from a good residence; what schooling. When, however, capability comes to be judged much depends upon the sales manager's reading of the personality, dress, confidence, tactfulness, aggressiveness, persistence, ambition, and speech. The final test of the correctness of his judgment must always rest with

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the job, and if it is found, however early, that the material is not promising, then in the best interests of the organization the recruit must be replaced. It will be necessary to consider employment agreements, which should be fairly worded and state the conditions of the engagement clearly.

The training of the recruit depends upon the requirements of the organization, but clearly it will be mutually advantageous to give the recruit a good insight into factory methods where these apply, or a good grounding in the nature of the proposition and its selling points. A stay at headquarters to allow of a study of the operative methods will be very helpful, while wherever circumstances permit there should be a well-thought-out plan to provide complete training, despite the recruit's previous experience, or apparent capabilities. By such means waste of good material is avoided, and once on the territory the more quickly will the salesman settle down and produce results, whereas half-trained or half-initiated or with no training, errors and blundering will result, with a consequent loss of confidence and of sales.

Mapping the Territory

The sales manager will map and allot the territory covered by his organization from his own close knowledge of the geography and peculiar features of each district with a view to assuring adequate coverage, fair returns in earnings for the salesman, and full results for the organization. The constant study of the individual routes or territories will keep them clearly in his mind, and he will be able to adjust, divide, and develop the ground as occasion permits or demands. The territory may be allotted to representatives, according to previous experience of it or as to whether residence has given special knowledge or advantages, whether the salesman has a connection or associations in it. The point at which the salesman will reside will be decided from the view-point of strategy, that is to say, real convenience of working to reduce effort in covering distances.

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Remuneration

The earnings of the salesman are also a subject for the sales manager's control. They may be based on a fixed salary, with commission added for business secured. The salary or periodical drawing may be considered as an advance against commission earnings, or the remuneration may be by commission only. There may be different rates of commission on new business and on repeat orders. The arrangements may cover all business coming from his territory, whether directly secured by the salesman or not. Bonuses may be offered for special efforts or results, or for the margin of sales exceeding a certain volume. Quotas may be set, and commission paid only on orders in excess of that figure, but in this case the salary paid will be reckoned as for the securing of the quota figure that is set for the territory or route. There may be bonus or prize offers for salesmen securing the best figures in competition with the entire selling staff, while there may also be allowances for specified out-of-pocket expenses; expenses ordinarily incurred for postage, telephone, and the like will probably be reimbursed, and if the salesmen use motor-cars, there may be an allowance for upkeep and replacement, as well as for petrol, oil, and the like. The car may be provided by the organization and remain their property. In retail selling there may be commissions, usually small—or "spiffs," as they are commonly called,—for selling out-of-date lines.

In some cases deductions may be made from earnings for delinquent customers, that is, those who become bad debts.

Other Responsibilities

Where salesmen are expected to collect accounts, it is usual for them to provide a Fidelity Bond through an insurance company, a form of insurance against embezzlement. It follows that to have held a fidelity bond, and to have kept the bond clean, is a recommendation or assurance of the fidelity of the salesman. If the bond has been broken, clearly the reverse is the case, and it will be difficult if not impossible for that salesman to have his fidelity insured again.

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Where samples or demonstration outfits are carried the sales manager will be responsible for assuring that they are conveniently carried, are in the most attractive and presentable condition, are renewed when necessary, and are returned when out-of-date, or no longer fit for showing.

Reports may be required of calls made, business done, conditions existing, problems arising, collections made, or of the credit status of prospective customers, and of complaints received. These must be considered from the point of view of the constructive value they possess. There is no sense in burdening the salesmen with work which occupies time in which they could be more effectively employed in securing sales, or in recreation or rest, in preparation for the next day's duties. The word of the salesman should be trustworthy and accepted seriously, especially on such matters as complaints and status reports. They will or should give the sales manager a true picture of conditions and help him to understand the separate and general problems of the selling staff, enabling him to adjust wherever possible, the product, the advertising, or any other feature of the campaign, or the methods employed. Too often the salesman regards his reports as an infliction, the sales manager treats them as routine, and disgruntlement and disorganization result.

In the sales manager's own department at headquarters, every detail of the work should be recorded, analysed, examined, and tested. Sales in total, sales per area, sales per week, or month, as desirable; sales by the various lines carried; average value of sales; cash sales; credit sales; expenses; samples. The records may be kept graphically, so that not only can volume be watched, but progress recorded and variation studied. Much vital information is thus brought to light as to the comparative success of differing methods, the productiveness of certain seasons, the obstacles created by special circumstances such as weather, politics, unemployment, the varying demand for different lines in different

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areas, etc. The sales manager is then able to read the signs, plan ahead, budget expenditure, estimate results, and generally be fully alive to the state and prospects of the organization.

Organizing Courses

Where recruits for the selling staff are given a course of training, the sales manager will organize this, with a view of course to turning out the best possible material. The curriculum, the choice of lectures, the demonstrations, the tests, and the final passing out must all be carefully decided upon. It will be advantageous both to him and to the pupils that he shall himself lead this work, because in that way he will be enabled to estimate the calibre of the recruits, and get to know them personally. He will probably decide to adopt the plan of sending the trainee, at the conclusion of the training, out with a senior salesman to be brought into contact with the customers and to hear actual demonstrations and sales talks by an expert. It should be added that the trainee should watch and listen only, and never speak unless invited or instructed to do so by his senior, otherwise the prospective customer may be disturbed, or the trend of the sales talk be lost or interrupted. Experience in the works or at headquarters, as has already been mentioned, will be invaluable.

With the sales force recruited, organized, and working, there should presently be considered the necessity for refreshing their minds and renewing their enthusiasm and confidence. Post-graduate courses may be arranged periodically for this purpose, and the work covered adequately to bring details and points that may have been overlooked back to life. Conferences may be held at which the salesmen are allowed to compare notes with their fellows freely, discuss problems, and generally help and re-enthuse each other. The conferences should not be an occasion for "hot-air," or for any purpose which gives the individuals anything but a keen sense of

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pleasure in attending. Opportunity should be given for social contact, as well as contact round the conference table ; and luncheons, dinners, or theatre visits should be arranged to cultivate a free and easy atmosphere and to help the guests to get to know each other well. Brown and Smith may find themselves cramped at the conference table, and perhaps in disagreement, but put them together at a meal or a theatre and they will be better friends, and find themselves mutually helpful and interesting. Conferences can, properly conducted, cultivate the true spirit of team work. A visit to the works and headquarters, and meeting with officials who are usually merely names at the foot of correspondence will also be valuable.

The Ideal Sales Manager

The sales manager must know thoroughly his organization, his proposition, his salesmen, and his staff. He should not be tied to his desk, but should be free to move about and visit his staff to help them and advise them, and face their problems on the spot. There may be an entirely different problem in Edinburgh from that which appears in Manchester or Birmingham, and a visit will do more than fifty letters. He should watch returns and records closely, keep in touch with every detail of the work, and treat every salesman as a friend and guide.

If a staff magazine, house-organ, or bulletin is issued periodically it should be bright, cheery, hopeful in its outlook. It should be written so that its receipt may be looked forward to, not, the moment it is published, condemned to be sniffed at or ignored. Cheerfulness, understanding, enthusiasm, leadership, sympathy, firmness, are qualities that make the good sales manager, "A man's man," might well describe the ideal.

CHAPTER XVI

INTRODUCTION TO ADVERTISING

THE salesman should clearly understand the relationship between Advertising and Salesmanship. Actually they are inseparable, since their object is in each case to bring goods to the notice of the public, and it is true to say that salesmanship employs advertising to further its work. Taken separately and so considered, it is usually considered that salesmanship is personal contact, whilst advertising is making known through the medium of the printed word. The latter calls for the employment of specialists and technical workers, such as copy-writers who write the message; lay-out artists who prepare the advertisements for the printer; illustrators or commercial artists who prepare the illustrations; process engravers who make the blocks from which the illustrations are printed; printers, newspaper and jobbing, who set up the type and blocks and do the printing, and the binding in the case of booklets and catalogues; then there are the paper-makers, ink-makers, enamel-plate makers, bill-posters, and others who all contribute their special branches of work.

As has been previously pointed out the salesman should understand what goes on in the production of advertising matter, but only practical experience can really lead to any measure of expertness.

An Advertising Campaign

If we sketch a general campaign we shall see that the sales organization plans its effort to secure sales over its territory. The selling policy being known, the entire scheme is carefully planned with a view to covering every part of the area, the object being to ensure that every potential user of the goods may reasonably be expected to hear something about them. The campaign will be timed, so that the publication of the advertising coincides with the appearance of the goods in the retailer's shops. The newspaper advertisements will be prepared and approved, and sent out in good time so

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that the proofs may be passed and the booking of the dates of insertion fixed. If booklets, folders, or catalogues giving fuller and more detailed information are considered necessary, these will have been planned and prepared, a lengthy piece of work, since so many processes and so much consideration will be needed. They will be received from the printer, and held in readiness to be sent to applicants from press advertisements, or distributed to retailers for their use, amongst their clientele. If posters are included these will be designed and prepared, the contract for the posting placed, and they will be issued to the bill posters for placing in position in the selected areas, and probably at the selected sites at the arranged date. Similarly with advertisements in trains, buses and trams, the samples, if included in the scheme, and all other material will be prepared and produced at the right moment. The publicity now under way, it is necessary to complete in good time plans and schemes for the retailers' windows. Perhaps special window displays, or window groups, or showcards, counter displays, demonstrations, etc., are required. These call for arrangement with the retailer and his interest and co-operation will have been secured. The salesmen will have secured much assistance in contacting the retailer or other distributor by the demonstration of the extent of the campaign or "push," and stocks will have been distributed in readiness. The goods are now in the "eye of the public." The public will see the advertisements, and the measure of the attention- and interest-securing power of these latter is the measure of the success of the campaign. They should aim to impel the potential purchaser to ask for the goods, but, while this is perhaps ambitious, at least from the interest created the amount of introduction and persuasion needed will be less and more effective, while putting the advertisement at its lowest level of value it adds to the power of the general publicity and will result in sales eventually.

The Follow-up Campaign

The campaign having thus introduced the goods and created a market, it now becomes necessary to put into

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practice the follow-up campaign which will already have been planned. Effort must be continuous and unceasing, and the campaign now takes the form of continued and regular planned and timed advertising, backed up by skilled and persistent selling right down to purchasing point at the retailer's counter. As the goods take on the form of familiarity, that is to say, become well known and have a well-established demand, the advertising becomes more of a reminding nature, with fresh angles of appeal to re-create interest. The mind of the public is fickle. There are so many competitive factors, and so much counter-attraction that if the public are allowed to forget the goods, it becomes expensive, troublesome, and laborious to re-establish popularity.

The Scope of Advertising

The value of advertising depends primarily of course on the worthiness and appeal of the goods themselves, but the importance of securing that the advertisements are clear, powerful, convincing, cannot be too strongly emphasized. In other words the advertising must be right. Next in importance is the placing of those advertisements. Newspapers and journals which are widely circulated, or which reach the right homes and hands, should alone be chosen. It is not so much a matter of cost as of value ; and low-priced methods only bring poor results, if any. Then there is the question of the placing of the advertisement in the most prominent position to add to its attractiveness by reducing the competition of surrounding matter. As with the press, so with the other methods. In advertising, preparation and placing are the equivalent of personality and activity on the part of the individual salesman.

We have previously considered the importance of securing attention, as the key which opens the door to the potential consumer's mind to his interest, desire, and urge to buy. If we depend on the individual salesman, we know, however expert and praiseworthy his work may be, that it is limited in scope to the contacts which he is able to make, and he

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has to secure every step from "attention" onwards. If we use advertisements skilfully our proposition is made known to millions. At least a measure of familiarity is implanted in their minds, and indeed we may by this means, as has been experienced by almost every advertiser, carry the work through to the stage where the potential customer is impelled to go and purchase the goods. Even if, however, no further work were done than to secure attention, the plan will be furthered enormously.

The existence of competition may be felt by the advertising (which is energy and activity) of a rival proposition. How better can we compete than by employing the same methods? Of two propositions, each being worthy, one advertises but the other does not. It will prove that the more active organization will secure trade which otherwise would have gone to the rival. It may reasonably be asserted that to advertise is to insure against the loss of the attention, interest, and support of the public.

The cost of advertising is a selling cost, but all selling costs are productive, and if advertising maintains, and gradually increases, sales, the production plant is enabled to continue steadily, production costs are evened up, and probably reduced per unit of production, with the result that the cost of advertising becomes an unimportant addition, or at its highest becomes a factor which can comfortably be carried in the price of the article. It has frequently been known for an article to become widely enough demanded, as a result of energetic and efficient selling, to result in decreased production costs, with a resulting increase in the quantity contained in the unit of sale, or a decrease in the price; it is no exaggeration to say that this can be done with articles of a popular demand.

Advertising is not the working of miracles. It is not to be undertaken without careful thought and expert knowledge. It can only safely be employed as part of an entirely efficient

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plan of campaign. We know that there have been outstanding successes, and that remarkable results have been claimed and actually attained, but it must be remembered that half success is no success, and that good goods merit the finest possible, all-embracing, plan of selling. Skilful planning, expert manning, rigid control, imagination, and a high outlook are the essentials to success in the work done by the advance guard of commerce.

CHAPTER XVII

METHODS OF ADVERTISING

THE methods of advertising are: *Press*, which includes Newspapers, Magazines, Journals, and Trade Press; *Direct Mail* or advertising through the post; *Posters* and other outdoor advertising, such as Public Vehicles, and Signs of all kinds. There are other methods coming to the forefront, prominent among which are *Radio* and *Film* advertising, which owe their success to the multitudes of people to whom they appeal. Theatre and Sports programmes, the distribution of novelties, and various so-called "stunts" are all employable, but the number or class or people contacted is the measure of the pulling power of every method.

Press Advertising

Newspaper advertising is the most popular method. The reason for its success is that it reaches millions of people when they are in a reading, and therefore receptive, mood. Newspapers can be chosen for their wide national circulation, for their specialized local circulation, singly or in combination. The setting-up of advertisements is performed by the newspaper without added cost. Positions are varied and may be selected. Insertions can be arranged ahead to appear on given dates. By no other means can so great a number of people be appealed to so cheaply and surely, when it is remembered that for, say, £1500, a full-page advertisement in a newspaper with 2,000,000 circulation could be dispatched on a given day in 1939. Your advertisement printed and sent out to all those people at a cost of something like five copies for one penny, and in a size of about 22 inches by 15 inches can hardly be overlooked by anyone.

The advantages of newspaper advertising then, are: free composition of the advertisement; frequency of issue permitting of daily advertisements if necessary; rigid regularity, for the newspaper does not miss an issue, holidays excepted,

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unless a disaster overtakes it ; punctuality of appearance—you know that your advertisement will be circulated promptly at a given time ; coverage over a wide area is achieved with proportionate success by the national newspapers and by those which are strictly local ; selectivity of area, since according to the newspapers chosen given areas may be covered.

The popular weekly and monthly journals and magazines have corresponding advantages, with in some cases the additional advantage of being printed on paper of superior quality which permits of the reproduction of good photographic illustrations and also in many cases enables the advertiser to print his advertisement in attractive colours and thus secure increased attraction power. A further advantage possessed by this section of the Press is that the publications have a longer life. They are not put aside or destroyed so soon as the newspaper. They cost more, are for general reading, will probably be well read by every reading member of a family, and then be passed on to friends, and finally perhaps reach a hospital or be sent abroad.

In this section there is a special appeal to the feminine sex. Many such publications are produced specially for women ; most include a women's section, and the importance of cultivating feminine interest in all goods for women, children, and the home is obvious.

There is also the specialized interest journal, produced for motorists, photographers, gardeners, dog fanciers, bird-fanciers, handicraftsmen, art-lovers, and so on, and technical publications of interest solely to engineers, architects, sailors, furniture-dealers, tailors, accountants, and others. If your goods are for such a specialized market the value of the advertising space must be considered.

We therefore see that through the medium of press advertising we can tell our story attractively and thoroughly to great numbers of people in all walks or special walks of life, and we should bear in mind the fact that every publication

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has regular readers, apart from casual ones, and that therefore by using the space in any publication we are appealing to a clearly defined group of people.

We must not expect however that one single advertisement will achieve our object, for there are so many factors to be taken into account. Let us suppose that our advertisement is faultlessly prepared, and placed in a very prominent position. While it is certain that many people do deliberately read the advertisements as surely as they read the editorial matter, we must recognize that we do well at the outset to "catch the eye" of the reader. If our first advertisement does this, what effect will the second have? In all probability some measure of familiarity will help us, and more than a passing glance is given, and in our third that same reader will possibly read and digest the story, and the stage of interest may be reached. Subsequent issues go to strengthen the familiarity, and our reader by his passing glance is reminded of the existence of the goods, and subconsciously his memory stores up the information, so that in due course, if he is a potential user, he will see the article in a shop and be the more ready to purchase it. The cumulative effect so secured must be worked for, and the campaign must therefore be reasonably continuous, or this effect will be lost. It is a breaking down of sales resistance by the implanting of familiarity. We do not resist the things with which we are familiar as we do those which are strange to us. It is true to say that to advertise without sufficient frequency or continuity is to waste money.

In Press advertising we can regulate expenditure and plan well ahead. We can decide which publications are to be used, decide how large our space will be, when and how frequently our advertisements will appear, and so limit and control the cost.

We can check the results, which different forms of our advertisement or appeal will produce, or the results from any particular medium, by inviting applications for booklets,

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catalogues, samples, etc., and by including a request form or coupon which bears some indication of the publication from which it is cut ; or we may use the journal's own facilities for forwarding to us applications for such offers which they invite their readers to send to them. We can take note of the sales which accrue from the area in which the publication is issued, and note any variations which follow the appearance or withdrawal of our advertisement, or the announcement of any special offer or service.

That the Press method is productive and successful for the advertiser is perhaps best indicated by the enormous quantity of space used by advertisers, and experience bears this out.

Postal Advertising

Postal or Direct Mail Advertising is intended for a rather more specialized, or localized, appeal. While Press advertising broadcasts one story to all and sundry, Mail advertising, being sent through the post to chosen people, is selective. It is therefore of special value to those whose goods are used by a special section of the Public, such as Doctors, Dentists, Electricians, Architects, and others. It is useless to send matter to people whom we know will not be interested ; we therefore endeavour to locate through directories or other agencies those people who should be interested in what we have to sell.

Direct Mail therefore calls for a different plan. The matter will be specially prepared in the form of an attractive folder or booklet, which can be printed to suit our requirements, but, be it noted, we may if we wish use the finest paper, print in beautiful colour, use perfect photographs, and tell our story as fully as we care, presenting the whole in an attractive and indeed desirable form, so that it shall not only secure attention, but be of interest, really create desire, and influence sales. The percentage of response to good mail advertising is high for the number of units posted, but of course sales cannot be expected to accrue from every addressee.

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Obviously the compilation of the "mailing list" or list of addresses to which the matter is to be posted, is of special importance. Firstly, it should consist of just the right people. Secondly, the addresses must be correct, or "live," unless the proposition is of sufficiently general appeal to permit of the envelope being marked "or occupier." This is not to be generally recommended, for in many cases it is desirable that the package should not too plainly announce the fact that the contents are "merely" advertising matter. Thirdly, the list should be as large as possible, for the reason that it has been found that the greater the number of advertisements so sent out, the higher the percentage of responses; and moreover a long list permits of a greater number of units being printed, with a corresponding reduction in the printing cost per unit; the cost of designing, writing, illustrating, producing the blocks, and setting up by the printer is the same whether the quantity to be printed is one hundred or one hundred thousands. The quantity of paper used is varied, of course, and with a larger quantity of advertisements the actual printing costs more, but it is always cheaper per unit to print large quantities than small.

The production and distribution of Direct Mail matter is laborious, but this by no means condemns it. There is the design of the matter, the printing, the addressing of the envelopes, and the enveloping of the matter. In large quantities mechanical addressing may be employed to reduce time and labour, and mechanical stamping is available with the consent of the Postal authorities. It appears that more organization is called for to operate this method than is the case with Press advertising. Because the two methods are really for different purposes, however, the comparison should not be too sharply considered.

Postal advertising will indeed supplement Press advertising very effectively. The campaign launched through the Press may invite application for booklets or folders to extend the information given. The names and addresses so secured from

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applicants will be added to the mailing list for later use, or for use in advertising other lines, especially in the case of mail-order traders and department or other stores. Postal advertising may be employed at the same time as the Press, to back the appeal up, and the matter may be issued as dealer-helps to retailers and merchants, thus, incidentally, enabling us to increase the quantity of matter ordered and reduce the cost per unit.

The advantages of Direct Mail are : Selectivity of the "shot"; adequacy of explanation; luxury of preparation of the matter to make it attractive and desirable; the shots can be timed according to our requirements; any number of follow-up efforts can be used, duplicating or varying the angle of appeal; results may be closely checked.

The disadvantages are that the appeal is merely selective (this does not apply generally), the production calls for organization, and the production and distribution is laborious.

Postal regulations must be followed closely, but as will be seen by the information given in the Post Office Guide, these if followed are more helpful than hindering. As to the much-discussed question of whether Direct Mail shots should bear penny or twopenny-halfpenny postage stamps, this depends upon several things. While it is admitted that the twopenny-halfpenny stamp gives an air of exclusiveness and importance which may be considered desirable, it must be remembered that on the recipient discovering that what appeared to be an important package is "only advertising," there may be some psychological effect which is not in our favour. The higher rate of stamping will on a large mailing list account for a formidable increase in the cost of postage, and further let it be borne in mind that if our advertisement is really pleasing this will easily overcome the supposed weakness of the penny stamp, and again, that few people refuse to open such packets, so that our advertisement can hardly fail to reach its objective because of the stamp.

OUTDOOR ADVERTISING

OF the several methods of outdoor advertising, Posters are the most prominent, popular, and successful. In recent years their value has been enhanced by a high standard of art work and production methods, and their use is worthy of earnest consideration, either when launching a campaign in order to popularize the name and appearance of the product, or at a later stage when a strong form of "reminder" advertising is required.

Poster stations, that is the hoardings which are provided by the large billposting contractors, are also being improved, and in the place of the tumble-down fence, which was once considered to be sufficient for the purpose, one now sees attractively constructed sites consisting of a reasonably permanent, smooth-surfaced structure exactly the right size for a series of the standard posters, framed and painted, with a grass verge, flower border, or other similar embellishment, while flood-lighting provides night illumination. The positions are usually prominently placed, where, ideally, they are visible to passing crowds of people, and they therefore constitute a very powerful form of publicity.

Poster Design

To consider the designing of the poster itself, the first point to notice is the way in which the poster is built up. The popular size, indeed the standard size, is 120 inches by 80 inches and is described as a sixteen-sheet poster because it is built up of sixteen double-crown sheets, which are 30 inches by 20 inches in size. There are also eight-sheet, thirty-two-sheet, and forty-eight-sheet bills, but the sixteen-sheet is the most generally used.

Owing to the fact that although the size of the bill (10 ft. × 6 ft. 8 in.) appears large, it is really small for the work it has to do, since as a rule it is read at a distance, and also

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owing to the fact that most passers-by have no time to give more than a passing glance to it, the amount of reading matter and picture must be kept down to the minimum of units, and be crisp and clear in meaning. Thus the decision as to what matter will be shown on the poster calls for great care in the choice of the units, which should consist of the following : the name of the product, a short connecting phrase or slogan, and an apt picture, showing the goods as they appear to the purchaser, that is, in their usual container.

The work of the artist is very important because the attractiveness of the poster depends upon the success of his design, and the cost of producing it depends upon his experience in this kind of work. The sixteen-sheets all bear a part of the design, and each sheet will have to pass through the machine for printing as many times as there are colours used. With careful arrangement colour effect can be obtained without excessive printing, and therefore at the lowest effective cost.

Organizing a Campaign

A poster campaign requires time for organization, as even when the idea is evolved, the preparation of the design takes time until the draft is finally approved, and every care must be given at this stage. Then the contract for lithographing the bill, and the booking of the space and the final placing of the bills, may account in all for months of preparation.

Weather is, of course, an enemy, and extra copies must be allowed for replacements. Also the choice of colours is important, as certain of them, some blues for example, are fugitive and will rapidly fade. The poster must be kept in the cleanest possible condition whatever margin of reserve bills for replacements may be necessary.

It is possible to secure solus positions, which are those provided for the display of one single poster and no more. They cost more but are worth it, because of the absence of competing bills and the emphasis which is secured by the prominence of the single bill. Naturally all general positions

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are not of the highest standard, but the campaign that is handled by the principal billposting companies will secure a high average of good displays.

To employ Poster advertising with Press and Mail advertising is to combine the three most effective forms of publicity. The Press method is educational and informing to the general public; the Mail method follows this up by extending the information and appeal especially to chosen addresses or districts; meanwhile the Posters drive home the name and appearance of the goods to the general public, and serve as a powerful localized reminder. If a reasonable campaign employing all three methods is visualized, it will be obvious that the volume of the appeal, the numbers of people appealed to, the area covered, are all very considerable and the preparation for the attack by the salesman will be thorough as a result.

Other Outdoor Advertisements

The other forms of outdoor advertising have advantages similar to those possessed by posters, with almost the same requirements of preparation.

Enamel plates wherever used have the advantage of permanence, which suggests that they should only be employed when the slogan and name are well enough known to make their use possible, because their permanence is an obstacle to the change of the matter employed on them.

A feature of tram-car and bus advertising to notice is that so far as the outsides of the vehicles are concerned the advertisements are moving along the streets and are read, as they pass. Therefore the side advertisements are the least easily read, while those on the ends, although travelling, are seen for some distance away down the street, and by approaching and following vehicles.

Railway stations offer excellent facilities for advertisements of all kinds and sizes, as there are such a variety of kinds of spaces available on the platforms, booking-halls, and waiting-rooms.

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The modern Electric Sign with its brilliant colouring and capability of novel arrangement is probably as effective as the poster, since it is readable and attractive by day, and vivid by night. There are a variety of positions for these, from the exterior of the retail shop to the skyline of a building, and, in the latter case in particular, a sign may be visible for a very considerable distance.

Radio Advertising possesses a technique of its own, but makes its appeal to a vast audience, despite embargoes. It is apparently applicable to every kind of proposition, and of course covers a wide area of territory. It has been long enough in use and sufficiently tested to have been proved successful.

Film Advertising is an excellent medium because of the amazing adaptability of photography in motion coupled with the sound-track. Here you may show your product, your works, the methods by which you manufacture, and the uses of the goods, clearly and convincingly, and you may vocally explain the details and point out the advantages, in other words, deliver a sales talk. Examples have been seen which show how interesting, and indeed fascinating, such films can be, and with this requirement satisfied there is a vast number of people to whom your appeal may be made.

Of so-called "stunt" advertising there is not much to be said, except to utter a warning that stunting is sometimes dangerous, and "out-of-the-usual" methods should be closely examined before adoption. There is no real limit to the opportunities which may occur for the making of an appeal, but only in well-considered, sane, and carefully planned methods which may please most people and offend but the few, lies the road to popularity in selling.

CHAPTER XIX

BRAND NAMES AND TRADE MARKS

THE advantages of branding goods with a well-chosen name is that, you distinguish them from competitive articles, as being your product. You make it possible for the buying public to recognize your goods and be sure that they get them, and if you are able to name them aptly you simplify the creation of familiarity and good will, for a good name is more readily remembered and associated than a bad one.

Choice of a Name

A name may be invented, or your surname may be presented as a particular design or in a special way such as a signature. Examples of invented names are Oxo, Lux, Melox. Surnames in present use as marks are Cadbury, Hoover, Gillette.

A brand name may be registered, and thus becomes your private property, with protection for you against infringement. A surname presented in a special or particular manner may also be protected by registration as a trade mark. We will consider the Trades Marks Act later.

The invention of a name is made difficult largely because so many names appear on the register, so that it is hard to choose one which is entirely distinctive. If we submit for registration a name which has any resemblance to one already registered we run the risk of having it refused by the Registrar, or of having objections raised by the owner of the other name.

What are the requirements? The name should be simple to read and pronounce. It should be short so that it is not only simple to read but is simple to print. A long name offers printing difficulties, because it will not be capable of use except on wide paper. A short name such as "Vim" requires little room, and can therefore appear in places which would be impossible for a long name. A short name is moreover

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capable of being presented in a variety of shapes or forms. Pronunciation is important. To have to present a phonetic guide to this is to add to the difficulty of securing familiarity. A short, crisp, easily understood word will much more readily become familiar.

The invention of the word is a matter for juggling. You may devise a word from the nature of the goods, as is probably the case in "Oxo." The word "Rexine" is probably a pure invention. You may twist a surname, as for example "Mackay" is turned to read "Yakcam" and so becomes an excellent name for a carpet. Clearly if the word can have some indication of the nature of the goods much advantage is gained. Examine the brand names which you may see in current advertisements and consider them in the light of what has been written, and you will find much of interest.

Reverting to the question of familiarity, it may be seen that the advantage of a good name, backed up of course by consistent advertising, is that it creates a very strong measure of familiarity. Unconsciously, the mind absorbs and retains the effect of this continuous hammering, and people know the names of articles which they have no occasion to use. Ask any group of people to write down the first names they think of when you read a list of articles, such as a bicycle, a toilet soap, a rainproof coat, a corset, a match, a fountain pen, and so on, and you will invariably find that the names written are those which are well advertised.

Having invented the name and secured its registration, it must naturally appear in the public eye, as often as possible : on the goods, the label, the various stages of packing, on the delivery vans, in the newspapers, magazines, posters, show-cards, and in every possible way, so that the people come to know what it stands for. A warning is however necessary. Your brand name must stand for goodness and reliability. If you give a name to an article which does not give satisfaction, the public will know that goods bearing that name must be avoided.

Trade Marks

The Trade Marks Act of 1905 defines a "mark" as follows: "it shall include a device, brand, heading, label, ticket, name, signature, word, letter, numeral, or any combination thereof," and a "Trade Mark shall mean a mark used or proposed to be used upon or in connexion with goods for the purpose of indicating that they are the goods of the proprietor of such trade mark by virtue of manufacture, selection, certification, dealing with or offering for sale." A "registrable trade mark" shall mean a trade mark which is capable of registration under this Act.

"A registrable trade mark" must contain or consist of at least one of the following essential particulars—

- (1) The name of a Company, individual or firm represented in a special or particular manner.
- (2) The Signature of the applicant for registration or some predecessor in his business.
- (3) An invented word or invented words.
- (4) A word or words having no direct reference to the character or quality of the goods, and not being according to its ordinary signification a geographical name or surname.
- (5) Any other distinctive mark, but a name, signature, or word or words, other than such as fall within the descriptions in the above paragraphs (1), (2), (3), and (4), shall not, except by order of the Board of Trade or the Court, be deemed a distinctive mark.

When the application for registration has been accepted by the Registrar it will be advertised and the registration may then be opposed by any who have grounds for doing so.

The registration of a trade mark shall be for fourteen years, and be renewable according to the provisions of the Act which, with the Trade Marks Act of 1919, should be studied for further details, such as marks which have been in use by the business since before August 13th, 1875, the use of colour, classes of goods, manner of applying for registration, and many other relevant matters.

THE ADVERTISING PLAN

PUTTING the advertising campaign into motion of course requires, for the preparation of the material, the work of the specialists previously referred to, but it is not within the scope of this book to describe and instruct in this.

Volume Required

The volume of advertising to be employed, however, must be decided upon, and as in any well-planned scheme of selling the cost of every detail of the effort can be estimated and budgeted for, so it is with advertising.

The universally-used article will require wide coverage, and frequency and continuity in the appearance of the advertisements is essential. With a commodity in the special or more selective class the advertising is more direct and limited. In these, or intermediate, or exceptional classes, the strength of the effort required will decide the methods of advertising to be employed and their volume, with the result that the amount of money to be spent (the appropriation) can also be decided and budgeted for.

True Economy

Whatever the proposition, we must reach every potential customer, and careful planning will assure that the right amount is spent, no more and no less. To spend either more or less than sufficient is to waste money.

It is said that the advertising appropriation should not exceed three per cent of the turnover, but clearly the extent of the market, the class and price of the commodity will affect this. In some cases advertising may comprise the greater part of the selling costs, in others a minute part only.

As the advertising effort is necessary to market the goods economically it follows that by no other means can the product be placed in the consumer's hands at so low a price, whatever

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the price may be, while since advertising permits of economical production and distribution it will prove to stand in decreasing percentage to the turnover as the campaign progresses and popularity is acquired.

Other 'Considerations

The choice of methods also depends upon the commodity, but it is clear that in most cases newspaper advertising, acknowledged as being the best medium through which to appeal to the general public, will absorb fifty or sixty per cent of the expenditure, with the other methods using proportionate amounts, say twenty-five per cent outdoor and twenty-five per cent direct mail advertising.

There are occasionally special opportunities for favourable advertising which cannot be foreseen in time to be included in the plan ; there are possibly occasions when, unexpectedly, supplementary effort is necessary. In view of this there should be a reserve of the appropriation kept in hand.

The campaign launched, systematic check is necessary to see that the advertisements are correct, that they appear as ordered as to date and position, and that the invoices are correct.

Files of issues or cuttings will be kept, and every detail of booking and carrying out recorded.

Results will be checked and compared with a view to forming sound opinions as to the respective " pulling power " of the methods or mediums used, and as time passes much valuable information and experience will be thus gained by the Advertising department for later guidance.

CHAPTER XXI

SALESMANSHIP IN THE POST-WAR WORLD

THERE is at the present time very considerable activity in post-war planning. Now while such activity envisages every detail of an organization, it must be clearly recognized that every factor must be considered with one object only in view, viz. the selling of the product. Whether it is the replanning of a works lay-out, the installation of office equipment, the improvement of the comfort of the workers, or a new letter heading, it is all contributing obviously to the securing of a market for the product, by producing a better article, increasing the volume of production, assuring an uninterrupted flow, distributing widely, quickly, safely, pleasingly, or installing it perfectly. Post-war planning however must be considered from another point of view. It is not enough merely to replan a damaged or deteriorated works plant, since repairs or replacement are in any case necessary. It is not enough to assume that we are going back to normal, and must plan to recover what used to be. Post-war planning must aim to meeting entirely changed conditions. There will be no going back to normal. There will be new methods, new products, new materials, fresh demands, different competition, all to be met. Markets will only stay open to those who are prepared, equipped, organized to meet the new conditions and satisfy them. Those who plunge in rashly may find themselves out of the race after a brief experience. In simple language, the requirements of the product of the post-war world are, as never before, quality, value, and service—lasting, unwavering, and dependable.

Wartime Measure.

It is well to review what has happened during six years of world-wide war. It will help us to replan our businesses and our individual selling skill.

With so many nations expending their resources in their prosecution of the fighting, the impact on trade has been so heavy as to virtually bring it to a standstill in every country

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in the world. Completely involved, Britain was compelled to divert her labour, materials, money, entirely to war purposes. Thus every form of supply for the fighting services from the "front line" to the most rearward bases in almost every town and village was provided for, from ships and tanks to medical supplies and the smallest item. The civilian population, specially skilled, or either too old, too young, or too infirm for the fighting services, became for the greater part engaged in providing the requirements of the Services. Civilians being directly open to attack, large forces of men and women, supplementing the Fire, Police, and Defence services had to be employed to protect those who stayed at home, and vast quantities of supplies were manufactured and diverted to their equipment. The remaining few not directly employed in the foregoing services had to be housed, fed, clothed, and transported from the resources that could be spared.

With such heavy demands to be met, economy became essential, and to achieve economy, the nation took stock of her resources, in money, labour, material, plant, transport, food, etc., and by control literally commandeered everything. The number and location of all workers skilled in trades useful to war's prosecution was recorded. Production was designated as essential or non-essential. Machinery was earmarked for the priority use of the essential industries, and wherever possible other machinery and works buildings were adapted to essential production. Raw materials, either virgin or manufactured, were allotted under a system of licensing and allocation. Food and clothing were allotted to consumers by a system of rationing. Labour was transferable from one employer to another only by Government permit. Prices were controlled in all essential goods or those in limited supply. By taxation, borrowing through savings schemes, and the limitation of purchasing power by means of the point or coupon system, money was diverted to Government use.

To further economize and at the same time to increase war production, there was keen search for substitute materials, as

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in metals, rubber, leather and the like. New methods of production were sought, and old ones speeded up. Material, time, and money had to be saved and applied more efficiently. Every effort was made to avoid waste.

Thus many products disappeared from the market altogether. The greater part of those available being controlled in supply were insufficient to meet demands ; or the coupon or points system applying, the available coupons kept purchases at a low level. The zoning system in certain commodities limited the circulation of goods to certain localities, and the pooling system by which, as in the mineral water industry, manufacturers grouped their products, eliminated competition.

Apart from other difficulties such as rising costs of operation due to Purchase Tax and its collection, Excess Profits Tax, National Defence Contribution, War Risks and War Damage Insurance, Air Raid precautions, Fire Watching, and the increased cost of services and supplies, there was the difficulty of obtaining stocks because of the operation of the quota system, the search for uncontrolled goods to keep sales going, and the loss of experienced staff to the fighting and defence forces. This latter loss led to the employment of temporary staffs, or juniors and seniors below or above the age for service needs, with the consequence that there was much indifferent and careless service which strained goodwill to the utmost.

Meanwhile, although much spending power was deferred by saving, and by Post-War Credits on Income Tax, it still remained high, so that only the fact that the controls checked spending by putting a ceiling on the prices of essential goods and, by rationing, prevented inflation, for the recognizable demand was tremendous. Every individual, every home, business, and Public Authority was seriously in need of supplies for repairs, replacements, reconditioning, because of war damage and destruction, deterioration, expansion (as in housing), or from sheer desire for the many things which are sought for in the way of additions and improvements.

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Thus we find the anomaly of the nation being rich in terms of the personal ownership of cash resources, yet impoverished in international credits, and at the same time seriously in need of commodities of almost every description. To recover International credits we must export our best goods. To do this in the face of desperate competition from other countries whose need is hardly less than ours, calls for the highest selling skill, for foreign and Dominion markets must be not only secured but held. The fact that goods are made in Britain may be a great recommendation but that is not enough. They must be better than they ever were, and better than the rest.

In the process the home market must not be neglected. As the export trade begins to flow, the home market will revive. Imports must be kept as closely as possible to essentials that we cannot supply ourselves. Competition will be keen and will come from new ideas and developments as well as from rivals. Salesmanship is never static.

Future Prospects

It is certain that production will reach a higher volume in Britain than has ever been known, and the same is most probably true of other countries, for not only will goods be available but they will be demanded to meet the higher standard of living which will be universal.

Production will be based on raw materials which will be produced by new and more efficient methods. They will be better for their purposes, more plentiful and more varied. Coal, iron, wool, cotton, rubber may remain or appear in new forms, but they will be added to by new processes, and we must expect the known synthetics to be added to by many not yet disclosed. The War has brought many new materials into use which have not yet been applied to general use. In addition there are many new scientific discoveries in photography, radio, medicine and in other directions. To what extent new materials, processes, ideas, and developments

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will oust goods to which we were accustomed in the past it is impossible to fully predict, but that it will happen is fairly sure.

There is another factor. The Public. Higher spending power, the demand for a higher standard of living, especially in those countries which were considered backward, such as China and Russia, and shorter working hours, create greatly changed conditions. In Britain there are thousands who come from the Services to Civil life literally for the first time, for when they left they were youthful and unaware of responsibility. They return with the desire to set up homes and businesses, to put ideas into effect, to establish themselves in a comfort that has been a dream to them. They constitute an almost entirely new Public. Those who have wisely accumulated savings will seek to deposit or employ them safely for their own security. Shorter working hours mean increased leisure and opportunity for recreation.

Government control is another factor still. It is certain that some of the War controls will remain. Although the cause of controversy at the time of writing, it is yet to be seen whether they are of benefit to the community. Thus industries are being planned under Government guidance, ostensibly to produce more efficiently with better conditions for the workers. In other cases complete control will be exercised, while, most controversial of all, Nationalization is to be introduced in coal mining, transport, and other directions.

Thus we find possibilities of increased demand due to increased spending power and new spending power ; increased supply due to increased production, new materials, methods, and ideas ; new conditions due to Government action ; keener competition except presumably where complete or semi-Nationalization exists.

Let us take a few instances and consider the practical effect of these changes. In Agriculture the demand from the Government is for increased Home supplies. But the small size of the usual farm is against mechanization, so the

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suggestion is that farms be grouped into larger units to permit of the employment of scientific methods on a large scale. In Transport we can expect to see the control of roads and vehicles coupled ; competition will be eliminated ; if efficiency is really the outcome, there must be new standards of timing, speed, comfort, and road laying. Lumbering will include the use of timber for purposes which may well mean the disappearance of it as we have known it. It will appear in manufactured form, in ply, and in laminated or other forms, as well as being the source of synthetics. Greater store will be set on timber, and its cutting down will be balanced by new growth and cultivation. The Canning and Preserving Industry will develop to a wider and greater volume, thus assuring that food may be preserved until needed, and conveyed to the people most in need of it. Education generally will be extended by the provision of greater and better facilities, and by the adoption of new methods such as cinematography and radio. Textiles will extend far beyond cotton, silk, and wool, or even rayon. Many other materials capable of being spun and woven will appear. In the field of Communications radio will surely develop enormously, in ways as yet unknown to us yet known to the War scientist. Similarly in the Home, in Mining, Refrigeration, Electricity and Gas, Chemistry, Medicine, Public Services, Engineering, Travel, and Entertainment, changes and developments will come about.

The Task of Salesmanship

The scope for salesmanship is therefore enormous. There is the task of recovering markets lost through the disappearance of the product, and calling for the re-establishment of contacts. During the War many products have wisely been kept in the mind of the public by purely good will or reminder advertising. In some cases the task will have been made more difficult because clients have been compelled to turn to other suppliers, and having found satisfaction will be loth to return to old connections. There is the task of securing new markets to replace lost ones or to absorb increased production, and there

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are new markets to be found for new products. In all these it will be necessary to apply forethought, energy, persistence and tact to the fullest extent. All machinery must be set in motion, every method must be employed. Advertising will have to be employed in every form that is applicable to the product: personal representation, display, demonstration, exhibition; and in all but personal representation we must make use of new and up-to-date facilities and devices, remembering that while "the strength of the effort is the measure of the result" only quality, value, and service justify the effort and in the long run bring good results.

What after all is this Post-War planning? It is re-organization. Whenever re-organization or replanning become necessary, the conditions sketched apply to some extent. Either new conditions have been experienced or it is found necessary to re-create conditions from operational experience. Inventions, improvements, enlarged production, internal economy, competition, and many other such conditions alter circumstances. Indeed the progressive and expanding sales organization must always be planning ahead. In times of peace, however, unlike times of war, when the future is dark and uncertain, it is more possible to forecast conditions and plan to meet them. To keep sales at the highest level a measure of adaptation is continuously necessary. A new source of raw materials, a new type of machinery, improvement in design, alteration in packing methods, the introduction of supplementary products, all make changes necessary to a minor or major extent. There can be no standing still in any circumstances. Even a slump in trade must be countered and fought by rearrangement. As with the organization, so it is with the salesman. The track is never so established and firm that there is not another way. To keep level with changes, to sense their coming, to be awake to opportunities, to be constantly observant, studious, and well informed, to remain healthy and efficient, these are essentials. To slow down or be content to plod the old road in the old way is to retreat, to retard all progress. It cannot be urged

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too often that, whatever the product, the salesman and salesmanship are in the van of progress. They serve the highest purpose, that of keeping human wants supplied, and so, as it has always been, it will always be.

CHAPTER XXII

CONCLUSION

To every ambitious salesman or saleswoman must come the desire to occupy a position of greater importance. Enough has been written to show that however excellent it may be to achieve expertness in meeting and dealing with the customer at the purchasing point, there is much more in salesmanship than just that.

Every slightest sale that is secured is only part of a vast plan which has to be originated, developed, put into operation, and controlled, before that sale is reached.

The student who wishes to progress must be studious and observant, industrious and enthusiastic. He must be aware of the full extent of his desired field of work and must acquire, and be able to apply, a very complete knowledge of it, by reading, hearing, thinking, discussing, experimenting, and by constant application.

For such students, if they also take care to retain and build personal character, there is much promise of success.

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