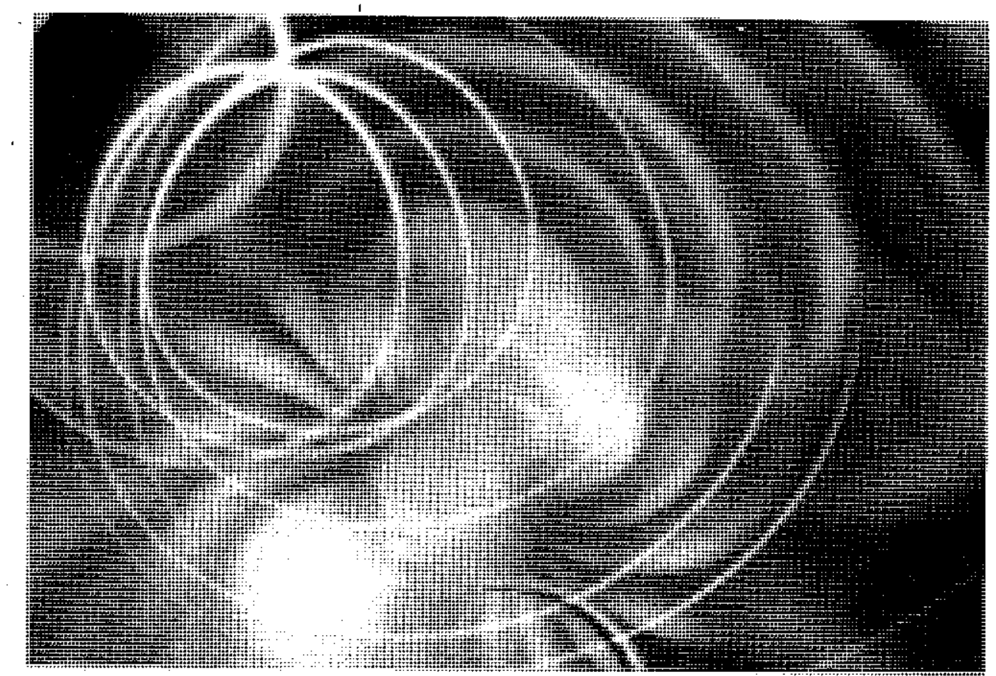
Chapter 4

Buyer Behavior



Key Terms

amiables
analyticals
assertiveness
buyclass
buyers
decider (or economic buying influence)
drivers
esteem needs
expressives
gatekeepers
influencers
modified rebuy
motives
need
new task
personality
physiological needs
problem
responsiveness
safety needs
self-actualization needs
social needs
straight rebuy
user buying influences

Outline

Learning Objectives

Learning Objectives

After studying Chapter 4, you will understand:

- Why it is important for salespeople to understand consumer buying behavior
- The steps in the consumer and organizational buying process
- The hierarchy of motives that influence both individual and organizational behavior
- How to make use of the hierarchy of motives in selling
- How to interact as a salesperson with the four major consumer personality types: analytical, driver, amiable, and expressive
- Differences between individual and organizational buying
- The organization decision-making process
- Who is involved in the organizational buying process
- Motives of industrial buyers
- Selling to groups

Bob Harris is a life insurance sales representative. Before he calls on prospects, he tries to find out their age, occupation, number of children, and the amount of life insurance they carry. Through experience, Bob has learned that people don't buy life insurance for its own sake. They buy the benefits that it provides them, and these benefits may vary considerably from one buyer to the next. By gathering information beforehand, Bob hopes to determine his client's insurance needs and structure his presentation accordingly.

If product knowledge was all that was needed to make a sale, a buyer could merely read descriptive literature without any help from a salesperson. The fact of the matter is that people don't buy product features. They buy the benefits those product features provide them. When people consider buying a product, they ask themselves, "What will this do for me?" It is up to salespeople to communicate how the product will satisfy a person's needs. Before each call, salespeople should ask themselves, "Which needs will my customer satisfy by purchasing my product?" The more that salespeople understand what motivates buyers, the more sales they will make.

Skilled salespeople know that they must attune their discussion to the motives of the buyer. If the prospect's motive is primarily economic, then Bob Harris must relate how his insurance plan will provide the most protection for the least expenditure. If the customer is motivated primarily by status needs, then Bob might emphasize that clients of the same age and occupation are buying insurance plans of similar amounts. Bob will adjust his presentation to conform to the buyers' various needs, such as security, investment, or reputation.

4-1 Individual Determinants of Buying Behavior

Although demographic characteristics will answer questions such as "Who buys?" "What do they buy?" and "When do people buy?" they provide only a minimal understanding of "Why do people buy?" An example may illustrate this point. You have probably heard the saying, "If you build a better mousetrap, the world will beat a path to your door." Years ago, a company tried to do just that. They built a better mousetrap, one that allowed fewer mice to escape, but few of these new mousetraps were sold. Later analysis revealed the reason. Although the trap was more efficient, it required the user to remove the dead mouse from the trap. Because the trap was more expensive, the user could not simply throw the trap and mouse away, as with cheaper models.[1] As you might imagine, people were less than enthusiastic about pulling dead mice from the trap. No amount of demographic analysis concerning income, age, and geographic distribution would have revealed this phenomenon. Accordingly, it is necessary to examine consumer behavior at a deeper level. Full understanding requires an examination of psychological characteristics such as motives, attitudes, perceptions, and personality. If you don't think emotions can make a difference, imagine two young men standing on the side of a highway, backpacks resting on the ground, hoping to hitch a ride. One holds a sign that says, "Akron." The other's sign reads, "To Mom's for Xmas." Which do you think is more likely to make the sale?[2]

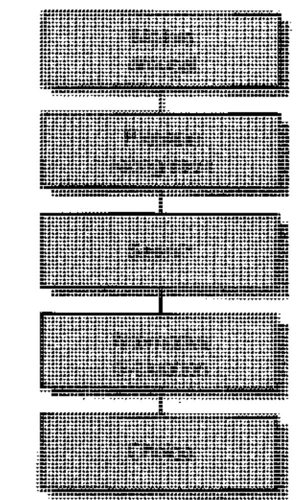


Figure 4-1
The Buying Process

4-1a The Buying Process

Because it is impossible to physically open up the minds of consumers and become privy to the processes by which they arrive at a purchasing decision, it is necessary to hypothesize about what goes on. The hypothetical model that appears in Figure 4-1 helps to explain the actions of ultimate consumers like you and me, not the concerted actions of corporations and other organizations. The model outlines the steps that may be present in a consumer buying decision. First-time purchases probably include all the steps and require a great expenditure of time, while recurring ones—buying your favorite soft drink—require little time and include only the first and last steps.[3]

As depicted in the figure, motives trigger the buying process. Here we define **motives** to be the "drives, urges, wishes, or desires that initiate the sequence of events known as behavior."[4] Motives serve both to lead off and to direct behavior toward a desired outcome. Although salespeople can exert great influence over the buying process, most of their persuasive efforts should be directed at later stages of the process. Changing motives is almost impossible; it is better that salespeople determine operative motives and work with them as given.

motives
Drives, urges, wishes, or desires that initiate the sequence of events known as behavior.

Once a motive is aroused, either because of an internal imbalance (e.g., hunger) or because of external stimuli (e.g., a salesperson), problem recognition occurs. When there is a difference between an ideal state of affairs and the current state, then a **problem** is said to exist. For example, if a person becomes hungry while doing homework, he or she is motivated to look in the refrigerator. If nothing is there, then a problem exists; there is a serious difference between the actual state of affairs (an empty stomach with nothing immediately available to fill it) and the ideal (a full stomach). Similarly, a tax accountant may become aware of the immense amount of time spent researching cases in the law library, when that same time could be spent more profitably with clients. Here, too, there is a difference between an actual state of affairs and the ideal state, a problem the accountant recognizes.

problem
Difference between an ideal state of affairs and the current state.

At the problem-recognition stage, salespeople can exercise influence in two important ways. By questioning potential customers carefully, they can make them aware that a problem exists. Although motives are relatively unchangeable, they must be activated for behavior to occur, and the salesperson's questioning serves this purpose. Further, by underscoring the inadequacy of the current state of affairs and pointing to the desirability of the ideal state, salespeople can hasten the advent of ensuing steps in the buying process.

Once a problem is recognized, consumers begin to search for information regarding a solution. The search may be internal—reviewing prior knowledge in one's mind—or external—attending to media or seeking the advice of friends. Our hungry consumer will try to recall where there might be food besides the refrigerator—a cupboard with a bag of potato chips, for instance. Or failing this, she or he might consult the phone book for the number of a restaurant that delivers pizza. Similarly, our accountant will review what she or he already knows about time-saving methods. If this information is limited, the accountant will seek advice from other accountants, look through professional journals, or consult with salespeople offering computer time-sharing services.

Once consumers feel that they possess enough information, they will compare purchase alternatives using criteria they deem important. These criteria can be objective (e.g., price and service) or subjective (e.g., an automobile's image). Our hungry consumer will choose a restaurant to deliver the pizza on the basis of price, variety, reputation, and speed of delivery. Our accountant might decide to hire a junior associate to research cases at the law library or to contract with a computerized time-sharing service that has legal cases stored in its computer data bank. The alternative selected will depend on which is less expensive, requires less time, and does the best job of selecting relevant cases. At this stage of the purchasing process, salespeople can be influential by introducing additional criteria and by relating how their products or services satisfy important buying themes.

At the last step of the purchasing process, consumers make a final buying decision. By using their persuasive skills, salespeople can often prompt consumers to select a model and a supplier, and ultimately to go ahead and expend the money.

Throughout this description of the buying process, we have emphasized that salespeople are well advised to work with consumers' existing buying motives. Although salespeople can introduce additional criteria of which consumers might not have been aware, the underlying motives making these criteria important must be present. This places a premium on the ability of salespeople to know the typical buying motives of their customers and to recognize which are preeminent with any individual buyer.

4-1b Needs

Because we cannot directly see a need, we must infer its existence from the behavior we observe. If we see a man get up from his favorite chair, drive to the store, and buy a 6-pack of his favorite beer, we might assume that he was motivated by thirst. Similarly, we might infer that the purchase of Michelob rather than a cheaper beer was motivated by a desire for status.

Some analysts theorize that salespeople do not actually sell, in the traditional sense of the word, as much as activate needs that already exist within consumers and motivate them to make the final purchase decision. This implies that salespeople should be "applied" psychologists, at least in the sense of being intimately acquainted with the needs of their buyers. The good ones are—at least within the narrow realm of their own specialty. In writing a textbook, however, it is difficult to include the entirety of diverse human needs that predominate in each narrow selling specialty. Psychologists themselves have enough trouble coming up with exhaustive lists of human needs; certainly, it is beyond the scope of this text to cover them all. However, a useful and fairly comprehensive theory of needs is presented in the work of A. H. Maslow, who conceptualized a hierarchy of five basic needs.[5]

need
A "feeling, which, if left unsatisfied, produces anxiety or tension . . . yet if satisfied, imparts a sensation of well-being."

Needs talk to us as feelings. Maslow says a **need** is a "feeling, which, if left unsatisfied, produces anxiety or tension . . . yet if satisfied, imparts a sensation of well-being." This sounds very similar to the definition of *motives* that we saw earlier. Indeed, needs and motives are words that are used interchangeably. Typically, we act when problem recognition occurs, when an existing situation in which we find ourselves appears less favorable in satisfying our needs than another situation we have in mind. It is the contrast between what we want (or are afraid of losing) and what we've got that motivates action. The greater the contrast, the more the need is felt and the greater the tendency to move toward resolution of the problem. Quite often, salespeople need only point out this contrast in order to "sell."

According to Maslow, needs work in a hierarchical order; each higher level of need will not be activated until the preceding need has been satisfied. A hungry person, for example, is unlikely to be interested in Guess jeans until his or her hunger is abated. An industrial buyer whose organization borders on bankruptcy is unlikely to be interested in decorative, status-oriented office furniture. In actuality, it is probably true that needs at each level are never totally satisfied, and they may act as an impetus to buying behavior at any moment. Maslow's five levels of need are as follows.

physiological needs
Group of needs that includes basic necessities such as shelter, clothing, food, water, sex, and sleep.

Physiological needs: This group of needs includes basic necessities such as shelter, clothing, food, water, sex, and sleep. In Western culture, most of these are fairly well satisfied. However, people can readily adjust their needs upward; in an organizational setting, these new needs are realized in terms of pleasant working conditions, more leisure time, avoidance of physical strain or discomfort, and increased salary as a means of better providing for one's creature comforts. A Burger King ad featuring a juicy double cheeseburger seeks to activate the need for food.

safety needs
Needs associated with the desire to avoid physical harm, the need for economic safety and security, and a preference for the familiar rather than the unexpected.

Safety needs: These needs are associated with the desire to avoid physical harm, the need for economic safety and security, and a preference for the familiar rather than the unexpected. Life and health insurance, stocks and bonds, real estate, radial tires, burglar and smoke alarms, and travelers' checks all represent purchases motivated by the desire for safety and security. Education, vocational training, and membership in the local health club are services for which safety and security are important motives. On the job, safety and security needs are reflected in a preoccupation with fringe benefits such as hospitalization, retirement provisions, pension plans, workers' compensation, safe working conditions, seniority protections, and clear and consistent performance standards. Smoke detector and burglar alarm manufacturers also focus on these needs.

The desire for the familiar rather than the unknown represents one of the more exasperating obstacles for the salesperson. We have all met people who feel safe only when doing what they already know, who are extremely reluctant to change to the new and different. Only when such people view something new as less threatening—when the old way or doing nothing seems a greater gamble—are they motivated to change.

Although safety and security are undoubtedly important motives, the salesperson must be judicious in using them. Results have been contradictory in studies on the effects of fear appeals in marketing.[6] A strong appeal to protect one's safety may cause the buyer to repress the need ("This can't happen to me"). For example, a life insurance salesperson could remind a buyer of the chances of dying from cancer at any moment, only to be escorted out the door shortly thereafter.

Box 4-1

Determining Your Predominant Need in Maslow's Hierarchy

To determine your predominant motive in Maslow's hierarchy, complete the form below. In answering this questionnaire, you will be asked to rank groups of five statements. There are no "right" or "wrong" rankings. The best responses are those that reflect your feelings. The more open you are, the more possible it will be for you to gain insights into your real preferences.

In ranking, it is often easier to pick your top choice first, then your last choice, then your choice next to the top, then your choice next to the lowest. The remaining choice becomes your middle choice. By each of the statements, place a number that indicates its importance to you within the group of five statements. Use "5" to indicate your highest ranking, then "4," "3," "2," and "1" to indicate you lowest ranking. (For now, disregard the letters by each question.)

1. Rank these factors as to their importance to you in a job ("5" is high, "1" is low).
   - L. _____ Being given recognition and attention for achievement
   - V. _____ Working for a strong, stable organization
   - Q. _____ Opportunity to belong to a good group
   - D. _____ Developing your abilities to their full potential
   - G. _____ Opportunity for independent thought and action
2. Rank these factors as to how concerned you would be with them on the job ("5" is high, "1" is low).
   - H. _____ Able to accomplish the job on your own
   - R. _____ Development of close friendships on the job
   - W. _____ Good benefits and job security
   - M. _____ A source of pride when you accomplish something
   - E. _____ Real achievement and personal growth required
3. Rank the most important factors to you in going to a new job ("5" is high, "1" is low).
   - A. _____ The learning and growth you would obtain from the experience
   - K. _____ Prestige and respect from others because of the job
   - F. _____ Freedom to operate on your own
   - P. _____ Friendliness of coworkers
   - U. _____ Assurance that you would maintain job security
4. Rank the factors in the order you would like them most in a job ("5" is high, "1" is low).
   - T. _____ Congenial working relations
   - I. _____ Able to set own directions and make own decisions
   - B. _____ Interesting and meaningful work
   - X. _____ Few changes so that you knew where you stood
   - N. _____ The job being seen by others as important
5. Rank these factors as to the need for them to be present for you to work your hardest ("5" is high, "1" is low).
   - Y. _____ Stable and orderly job to be done
   - C. _____ Meaningful work and growth opportunities
   - O. _____ Full credit for accomplishments
   - J. _____ Freedom and independence to get the job done
   - S. _____ A real feeling of belonging to a team

Now list and total the point ranking assigned to these letters:

I	II	III	IV	V
A. _____	F. _____	K. _____	P. _____	U. _____
B. _____	G. _____	L. _____	Q. _____	V. _____
C. _____	H. _____	M. _____	R. _____	W. _____
D. _____	I. _____	N. _____	S. _____	X. _____
E. _____	J. _____	O. _____	T. _____	Y. _____
Totals: _____	_____	_____	_____	_____

(*Note:* If you score highest in I, then you are motivated most by self-actualization; II in independence, which is also included in some conceptualizations of the hierarchy; III, esteem; IV, social; and V, safety.)

Social needs: At this stage of the hierarchy, individuals begin to experience their need for love, affection, and belonging. They desire the presence of friends, a mate, children, and a place in a group. Physical and psychological isolation is one of the most feared human punishments. Many have been able to survive long terms of ordinary imprisonment without drastic personality deterioration, but few can long endure the agony of solitary confinement without profound personality changes.

social needs
At this stage of the hierarchy, individuals begin to experience their need for love, affection, and belonging.

Any evening's viewing of television will demonstrate that marketers have seized upon social needs for emphasis. Advertisements for clothing, soap, perfume, deodorant, mouthwash, and toothpaste are filled with appeals to the desire to belong and be loved. Though these appeals are sometimes repetitious, there is no doubting the importance of social needs.

Esteem needs: These reflect an individual's desire to feel a sense of respect from others. This group of needs may also include desires for (and actions to avoid loss of) strength, achievement, adequacy, independence, and self-confidence. Esteem needs are closely related to social needs, but the individual desires not just acceptance but also to stand out and be recognized. Many products are purchased with esteem as the primary motive—conspicuous homes, club memberships, clothes, restaurants, and cars. If one trades in a Ford Focus for a Mercedes-Benz, a feeling of self-worth and prestige is gained. The American Express Gold Card and Brooks Brother Clothiers appeal to these needs. Of course, status symbols vary considerably from one person to the next. An 18-year-old may consider a beat-up Volkswagen van a status symbol; a 65-year-old might feel a retirement home in Arizona serves the same purpose.

esteem needs
Needs that reflect an individual's desire to feel a sense of respect from others.

Self-actualization needs: These needs represent the desire to grow, to fulfill one's capabilities, to become everything that one is capable of becoming. Maslow suggests that even when needs lower in the hierarchy are satisfied, we may expect "that a new discontent and restlessness will soon develop. That is, it will appear unless the individual is doing what he's fitted for, what his talents allow him to do. A musician must make music, an artist must paint, a poet must write, if he is to be ultimately happy. What a man can be, he must be." In other words, self-actualization simply reflects individuals' desires to become the best they possibly can at whatever they choose. It is the desire for self-actualization that has prompted many individuals to seek second and even third careers. A long-running U.S. Army recruiting program invites enlistees to "Be all you can be."

self-actualization needs
Needs that represent the desire to grow, to fulfill one's capabilities, to become everything that one is capable of becoming.

Using the Hierarchy of Needs

The salesperson can make use of the hierarchy of needs in developing a number of buying appeals for a product. If a woman has made up her mind to buy a fur coat, but is undecided about style and prestige, it would be unwise to emphasize benefits such as warmth and comfort. Instead, emphasize a name designer, a unique style, or an elegant look. An automobile salesperson questions customers about requirements. If they imply the need for image and status, he emphasizes "esteem" needs—the deep rich color, the metallic paint, the alloy wheels. If they, instead, want safety, he links it to "security." If they prefer a light color, he says, "It may not be fashionable, but it's safe." He follows with other safety features—the structure, the airbag, and so forth. Let us take the example of a salesperson selling a personal improvement course, such as the Dale Carnegie program. The sales representative might appeal to prospective buyers' physiological and safety needs by explaining how the course will increase their incomes and make them more valued employees to their companies. The salesperson can speak to the prospects' social needs by mentioning how the course will teach techniques for getting along with people and winning their approval. Esteem needs can be addressed by telling how the course will make individuals more successful, winning them promotions and the admiration of their colleagues. And finally, there is an appeal to the self-actualization need by emphasizing that the course's ultimate objective is to develop people into the sort of individuals they want to be.

Even with industrial buyers, the influence of personal motives should not be dismissed. Performance-related buying criteria are predominant, but personal motives unique to the buyer as an individual are not to be ignored. No matter how straightforward it might appear that one vendor has the edge in product quality and price, hierarchical needs can still change the outcome. The buyer may have a great incentive to "play it safe" and purchase from the market leader, the supplier with the recognized name in the field. Or if something should go wrong, the individual buyer reasons, he or she might be better off with the well-known firm than the lesser-known one. In the former situation, there would be less of a tendency by upper management to second-guess the individual's decision. Similarly, salespeople should understand that any buying decision that brings profits or cuts costs for the company also brings recognition (and perhaps a promotion) to the individual decision maker. This personal motive can be subtly incorporated into the sales presentation by the skillful salesperson. Moreover, arguably the motivation to avoid pain, loss, or ridicule (i.e., security in the hierarchy of needs) is stronger than the motivation to gain pleasure, profit, or pride. Prospects might be more motivated by a presentation focused on avoiding losses rather than gains. If you really want a customer's attention, talk trouble—lost sales, wasted time, excessive turnover, customer complaints. In other words, get them dissatisfied and insecure. However, as mentioned earlier, it is important not to severely frighten the buyer, as this can easily backfire.

As Figure 4-2 demonstrates, there is a parallel to Maslow's hierarchy of the individual to the customer–supplier relationship. When organizational customers are looking to purchase goods or services from a particular supplier, they operate on a similar hierarchy of needs, called the *Stages of Organization Need*.[7] Organizational customers possess a priority of needs and a level of satisfaction with their current supplier, based on how well the supplier meets those needs. This analogous hierarchy portrays the relationship a buyer desires, all the way up to a partnership with suppliers.

The lowest individual need is physiological. Business firms need, for survival, at least three resources: money, employees, and raw materials and equipment. Moreover, organizations need essential products or services that work. Most likely, businesses at this stage are commodity purchasers, looking primarily for low price and acceptable performance. The next highest human need is safety—security, protection, reliability, and freedom from anxiety. At the corporate level, this translates into essential services associated with the product, such as timely delivery, absence of damage, and insurance against loss of property and assets. These services also guard against liabilities that may arise in various business transactions. In a service business, the equivalent is accessibility, timely hours of operation, or local service access. The third basic individual need, social (or belongingness), can be equated with an organization's need for an accessible, two-way relationship. A sup-

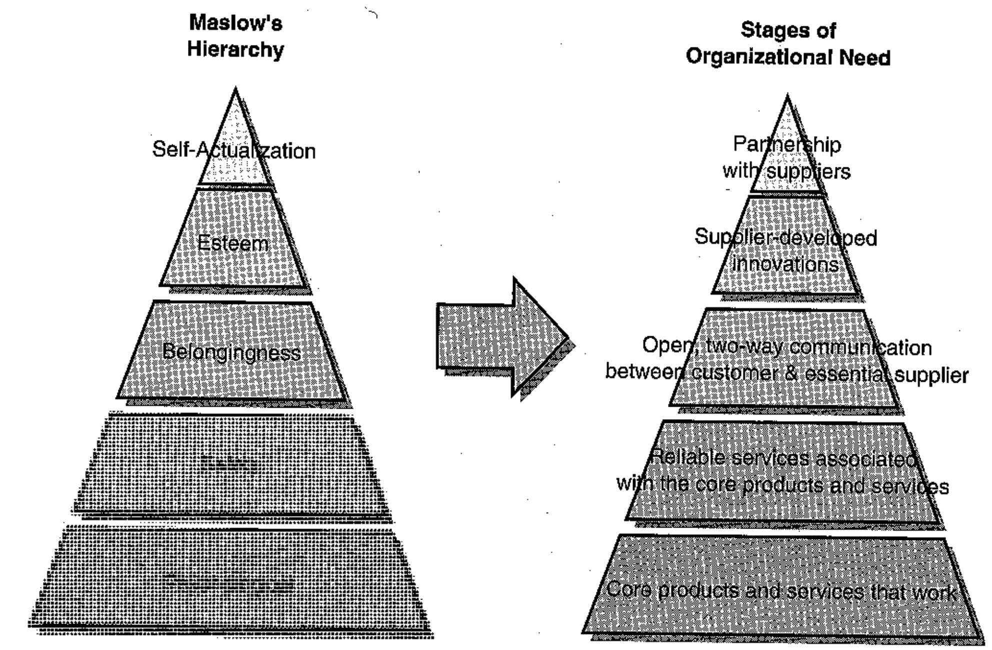


Figure 4-2 Maslow's Hierarchy of Consumer Needs and Corollary for Organizational Needs

Source: Adapted from Stanley Brown, "This Is No Psych Job," *Sales & Marketing Management,* March 1995, p. 32.

plier's employees must listen to and communicate with organizational customer workers at all levels to understand unique expectations and resolve problems. It might also translate into the need for recognition by peer organizations; being listed in the *Fortune* 500 or on the New York Stock Exchange; and receiving ISO qualification or the Malcolm Baldrige award for quality. These would also help fulfill esteem, the next need in the hierarchy. The fourth need in Maslow's hierarchy is esteem, the need for acknowledgement, or having a favorable reputation, prestige, or expertise. In business, suppliers grant the customer prestige and stature by committing resources to understanding and anticipating changes that affect him, and then developing new products and services that accommodate those changes. Such suppliers must be proactive and informed about market conditions, and who operate as an extension of the customer's sales force. High Point Chemicals, for example, sells specialty chemicals to the textile industry. The marketplace for its customers is highly volatile, because fashion trends are so short (two years, on average). Hence, it's in the best interest of High Point and its key customers to cooperate so they can develop the next generation of dyes and finishing chemicals in advance of fashion changes. The highest human need is for self-actualization, or mastery. Analogously, at the highest level of organizational need, the supplier's mastery of the customer's business drives the relationship. The self-actualized customer relationship is a true partnership, one in which the supplier is a full participant in the long-term conduct of the customer's business. Bandag, which sells truck-tire retreads to more than 5,009 dealer-installers, offers extra services. For example, it assists dealers in filing and collecting on warranty claims from manufacturers and now offers comprehensive fleet-management services to its largest accounts. Bandag plans to embed computer chips in the rubber of newly retreaded tires to gauge each tire's pressure and temperature and to count its revolutions. That information will enable the company not only to tell each customer the optimal time to retread each tire (thus reducing downtime caused by blowouts) but also help it improve its fleet's operations.

4-1c Personality

personality
An individual's characteristic way of reacting to a situation.

If needs have a marked impact on consumer buying, it's also true that buyers' personalities exert a great influence on what they buy, why they buy, and how they interact with salespeople. By **personality**, we mean an individual's characteristic way of reacting to situations. If we observe people who never drive above 55 miles per hour, who check over each answer before handing in their exams, and who spend hours, days, even months before making a buying decision, we say they are cautious. Any experienced salesperson will tell you that understanding buyer personality is critical to sales success. A tactic that is successful with one customer may have just the opposite effect on another. Witness the following exchange between buyer and seller as testimony to the importance of understanding customer personality.

A salesperson strides into a buyer's office, warmly extends his hand, and greets the client, "Hi, Dale, how are you? Nice enough day to be playing golf, don't you think?" The buyer reluctantly extends his hand in response (while still remaining behind his desk) and immediately sits back down. After asking the buyer several questions about his family and talking about the weather, the salesperson begins a presentation addressing general features and benefits of his product. The prospect remains quiet and stone-faced for the most part, occasionally asking for detailed technical explanations, to which the salesperson responds with his own opinions and personal reassurances. The interview ends without a sale—not even a date for a further call. Later at his office, the salesperson comments on how picky and aloof the buyer was; at the same moment, the buyer is thinking how uncertain the salesperson was about his facts and how intrusive he was regarding matters unrelated to business.

What happened? What occurred was that two individuals of different personality styles failed to communicate with one another because of their fundamentally divergent ways of reacting to people and their environment. The basic reality is that businesses do not buy products and services—people do, on behalf of businesses. Salespeople, then, will find it easier to get along with some of their buyers than with others. Because they are typically in the position of seeking the buyer's approval, salespeople must adjust their own style to that of the buyer. This requires that they first know their own personality style, its strengths and weaknesses, and how they are likely to be received by buyers of different styles. Take a moment and complete your own personality inventory in Box 4-2 and plot your personality style.

VIDEO

responsiveness
Readiness with which a person outwardly shows emotions or feelings and develops relationships.

assertiveness
Refers to the amount of control and forcefulness a person attempts to exercise over other people and situations.

analyticals
Technicians who are persistent, systematic, problem solvers. Details of performance are their forte; they gather all the facts and attempt to make decisions free of personal and emotional considerations.

The application of the concept of social style to the art of selling and the inventory was developed by David Merrill and Roger Reid, who discovered patterns of communication that people use when interacting with one another.[8]

Are you a Driver, an Analytical, an Amiable, or an Expressive? To define these four styles, it is first necessary to describe the scales by which they are defined. **Responsiveness** refers to the readiness with which a person outwardly shows emotions or feelings and develops relationships. **Assertiveness** refers to the amount of control and forcefulness a person attempts to exercise over other people and over situations.[9]

Using the two traits of responsiveness and assertiveness, Figure 4-3 illustrates four possible personality styles. Although most people have characteristics of all four styles in various degrees, typically they have one dominant style. There is no one best style for salespeople; each has its own unique strengths, and successful interaction with buyers depends greatly on the buyers' particular style.

Analyticals are technicians; they are persistent, systematic, problem solvers. Details of performance are their forte; they gather all the facts and attempt to make decisions free of personal and emotional considerations. Because they are so preoccupied with the task at hand, Analyticals are often described as quiet and aloof. Analyticals prefer written proposals and agreements that nail down as many details as possible and expect to have time to weigh the buying decision carefully. Overall, their actions and decisions tend to be extremely cautious and slow. When analyticals raise objections, they expect salespeople to back up what they say with facts, and they are willing to wait for those facts. Price, as measured against durability and dependability, is an important buying motive for Analyticals. When at last ready to buy, Analyticals expect a direct but low-pressure request from the sales representative.

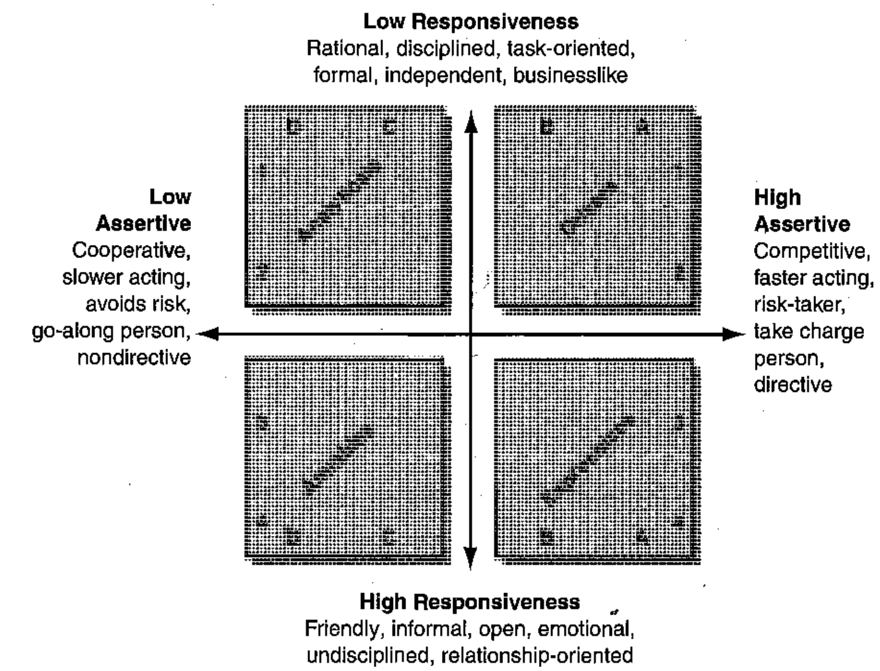


Figure 4-3
Your Personality Style

VIDEO

drivers
Individuals who are task- and bottom-line oriented, high in assertiveness, and low in responsiveness.

Drivers are task-oriented; "efficient" is a common description for them. They like to take control of people and situations. Drivers find it difficult to communicate a warm, caring attitude; they often seem insensitive to the feelings of others, evoking adjectives such as *cold, dominating,* and *pushy.* Like Analyticals, Drivers prefer facts but of a different sort. Drivers are bottom-line oriented; rather than being interested in the technical performance aspect of the product, they are interested in what the product will do to lower costs, raise income, streamline production schedules, and achieve a quick return on their investment. Because they like independence, Drivers are attracted by things that give them greater independent control over their departments. Drivers are upwardly mobile and, if products help build their track record in the corporation, so much the better.

In dealing with Drivers, salespeople should be organized and to the point; Drivers are very time-disciplined. Small talk is of limited value. Attempts by salespeople to dominate Drivers are destined to backfire. When Drivers raise objections, they expect quick answers, since they expect to make quick decisions; "impatient" is another description of them. When asked for the order, Drivers expect a direct, businesslike approach and a rapid follow-up.

VIDEO

expressives
Individuals who are lively, animated, and intuitive; high in responsiveness; and high in assertiveness.

Expressives are animated, intuitive, and lively. They thrive on involvement with others. They like informality and prefer to deal with people on a first-name basis.

Box 4-2

Personality Profile

The following sets of adjectives can be used by others to describe you or be used by you to describe others. You must choose those words or statements that best describe how others might see you. Circle the number 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 based on the nearer the number is to a word, the stronger you feel that the word describes you. Do not circle the number 3 unless you are very uncertain which word best describes you. Please be as candid as possible in filling out this questionnaire.

There are absolutely no good or bad connotations associated with any of the words or statements on this form. Apply each of the descriptive words to the statement, "I am most often seen by others as one who is . . ."

1. Prefers to deal with facts	5 4 3 2 1	1. Prefers to deal with opinions
2. Disciplined about time	5 4 3 2 1	2. Undisciplined about time
3. Friendly	1 2 3 4 5	3. Businesslike
4. Fun loving	1 2 3 4 5	4. No-nonsense
5. Animated facial expressions	1 2 3 4 5	5. Few facial expressions
6. Cautious and careful	5 4 3 2 1	6. Open and careful
7. Likes people-involving tasks	1 2 3 4 5	7. Prefers problem-solving tasks
8. Pushes for facts and details	5 4 3 2 1	8. Little interest in facts and details
9. Easy to get to know	1 2 3 4 5	9. Hard to get to know
10. Uses infrequent eye contact	5 4 3 2 1	10. Uses frequent eye contact
11. Critical	5 4 3 2 1	11. Permissive
12. Imprecise and general	1 2 3 4 5	12. Precise and specific
13. Uses hands infrequently in conversation	5 4 3 2 1	13. Frequently uses hands in conversation
14. Shares personal feelings in conversation	1 2 3 4 5	14. Limits sharing of personal feelings in conversation
15. Seeks close relationships	1 2 3 4 5	15. Keeps a distance
16. Formal	5 4 3 2 1	16. Informal

Total 1–16 ____ Responsiveness

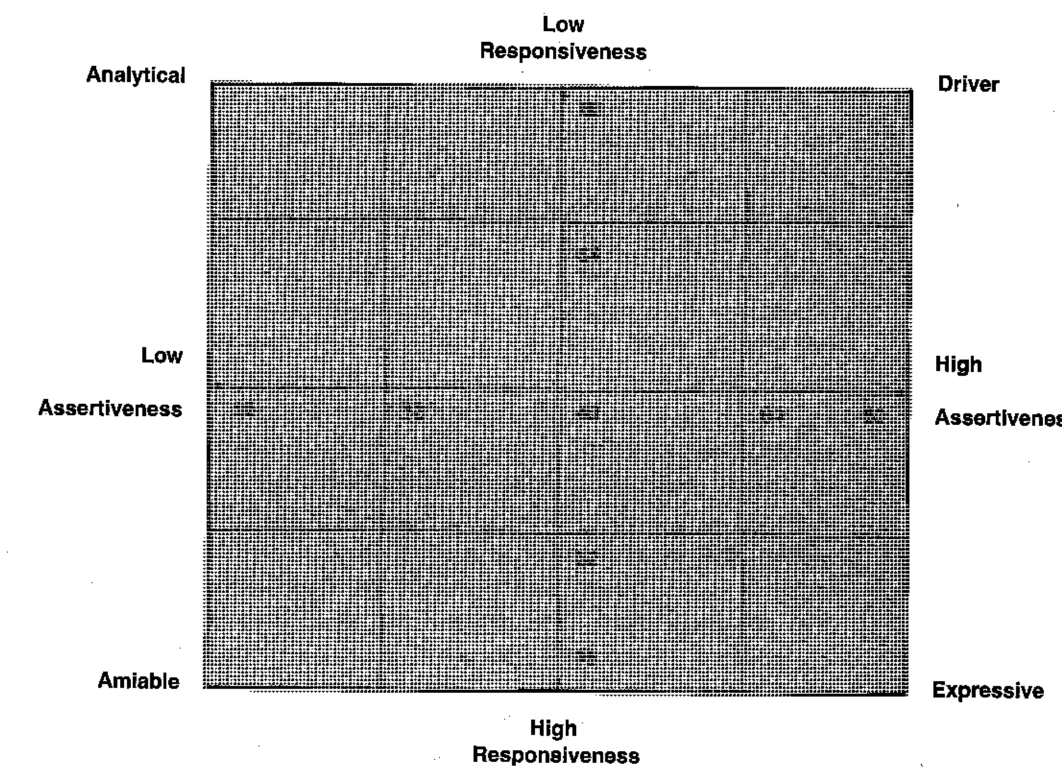
17. Active	5 4 3 2 1	17. Reserved
18. Cooperative	1 2 3 4 5	18. Competitive
19. Quiet	1 2 3 4 5	19. Talkative
20. Fast actions	5 4 3 2 1	20. Slow actions
21. Uses voice intonation	5 4 3 2 1	21. Little use of voice intonation to emphasize points
22. Easy going	1 2 3 4 5	22. Aggressive
23. Fast-paced speech	5 4 3 2 1	23. Slow-paced speech
24. Takes risks	5 4 3 2 1	24. Avoids risks
25. Passive	1 2 3 4 5	25. Active
26. Thoughtful	1 2 3 4 5	26. Makes quick decisions
27. Makes statements	5 4 3 2 1	27. Asks questions
28. Vague and general	1 2 3 4 5	28. Organized and specific
29. Tends to use power	5 4 3 2 1	29. Avoids use of power
30. Strong opinions	5 4 3 2 1	30. Moderate opinions
31. Supportive	1 2 3 4 5	31. Challenging
32. Go along	1 2 3 4 5	32. Take charge

Total 17–32 ____ Assertiveness

see case 4-1

Plot Your Personality Style

Mark your total responsiveness score vertically and your assertiveness score horizontally.



Soon after meeting you, they are ready to begin sharing personal points of view. Unlike their opposites, Analyticals, they are not interested in equipment for its own sake but rather as a means to achieve status and recognition for themselves. A Mercedes-Benz for Expressives is less a means of transportation than a way of showing that they have "made it." Expressives will tune out technical explanations; they prefer dramatic sales presentations with creative graphics, showmanship, and a mention of companies already using the equipment—the greater the stature of these companies, the better. If Hewlett-Packard laser printers are what the "winners" have, then those are what Expressives want, too. They expect immediate responses to their objections—ones that speak to their dreams, their opinions, and their personal stake in the buying decision. Expressives generally prefer an informal, relaxed request for the order, but one that appeals to their need to stand out can also be effective.

Table 4-1 Interactions with Different Buyer Types

	Buyer's Social Style			
Preference	*Driver*	*Expressive*	*Amiable*	*Analytical*
Sales interview environment	Professional	Informal, relaxed	Open, honest	Professional
Salesperson's use of time	Effective, efficient	To develop relationship	Slow to develop relationship	Thorough, accurate
Pace	Rapid	Rapid	Purposeful	Purposeful
Information provided by salesperson	Salesperson's qualifications; value of products	What salesperson thinks; whom s/he knows	Evidence that salesperson is trustworthy, friendly	Salesperson's technical expertise
Winning customer acceptance	Documented evidence, stress	Recognition and approval	Personal attention and interest	Evidence with technical details
Presentation of benefits	What product can do	Who has used the product	Why product is best to solve problem	How the product can solve the problem
Assistance to aid decision making	Explanation of options and probabilities	Testimonials	Guarantees and assurances	Evidence and offers of service

amiables
Individuals who are high in responsiveness and low in assertiveness. They value highly personal relationships, dislike risk, and are slow to act.

Amiables are highly responsive, unassertive, and supportive. Most people feel very comfortable with Amiables. Amiables dislike conflict so much that they might tell people what they think others want to hear rather than what is really going on in their minds. In buying, Amiables are concerned with the human aspect; they require that the salesperson establish a personal relationship with them first, and they want to know how new equipment will affect their employees (e.g., "Will my people be able to handle the new system?"). Moving along slowly with personal guarantees of performance is a good idea. Because Amiables are slow to take action and dislike risk, getting the order from them may be problematic for salespeople, who must be patient and must minimize the risk for Amiables.

A rather innovative illustration of the effective use of personality style is illustrated by the campaign of one pharmaceutical company. In an effort to secure appointments with difficult-to-see physicians, the company customized its sales literature to conform to the personality style of the individual physician. Receptionists of Amiable physicians were left a product folder with a handwritten note from the sales rep that referred to a recent discussion. For down-to-business Drivers, the salesperson underlined new or important information on a quick-reference page. Analytical doctors received a typewritten note, a copy of a recent research article, and a folder opened to the page showing charts and graphs. Within six months, many of the previously unapproachable physicians were accepting appointments with the company's sales personnel.[10] Salespeople should adjust their interactions with buyers according to the buyer's style and preferred way of doing business. Table 4-1 provides suggestions.

4-1d Identifying Styles

Although you can easily understand the importance of recognizing the buyer's personality style, the $64,000 question is, "Of what use is this knowledge if I can't identify my customer's particular style?" After all, it is difficult to come right out and ask, "Could you take out a pencil and complete this personality inventory so I can decide how to deal with you?" The answer to the problem, described in Table 4-2, is to first note the buyer's surroundings and then his or her actions, both verbal and nonverbal. When first entering the client's office, do you see diplomas, awards, and other signs of achievement affixed to the walls? If so, you may be dealing with a Driver. Or are there family pictures on the desk and walls? If this is the case, then you may be selling to an Amiable. Is the office neatly arranged, or are papers strewn all over at random? Is there a simple, functional chair across the desk from the buyer? Or two overstuffed leather armchairs and a small table by the side of the desk for intimate conversation? The former could suggest an Analytical; the latter, an Expressive. What about the buyer's actions? Is the handshake firm or weak? How does the buyer's voice sound? Is it hearty and dominating or subdued? In identifying personality styles, experts recommend that one first determine the buyer's responsiveness because it is more easily recognized than assertiveness, which can be kept in check. Does the buyer have animated facial expressions, much hand and body movement, a flexible orientation toward time, a preference for anecdotes rather than facts, a tendency to share personal feelings, and immediate nonverbal feedback? If so, he or she is probably an Expressive because responsiveness is high. Is the handshake firm, the eye contact steady, the communication emphatic, the vocal volume high, the voice speed rapid, and the questions challenging? Then assertiveness is high and, in combination with high responsiveness, this alerts the salesperson that the buyer is definitely Expressive. These cues and others for spotting personality style are presented in Table 4-2. Another fruitful way of gathering information on buyers' personality styles is to ask questions of their secretaries. Here are some sample questions:[11]

Is Mr. Johnson easy to get to know, or does it take him a while to become comfortable with others?

Does he speak exclusively about business and work or does he like to discuss his family, outside life, and thoughts and feelings with others?

In a meeting, does Mr. Johnson readily voice his opinions, or is he more of a listener?

Table 4-2 Ways of Identifying Personality Styles

	Expressive	Driver	Amiable	Analytical
Behavior	Extroverted	Forceful	Relaxed	Direct/To the point
Surroundings	Disorganized/Personal things	Plaques/Signs of achievement	Cherished memories of personal effects	Organized/Diagrams
Business style	Sociable/A people person	Outcome driven/Bottom line	System orientation	Hard data/Facts
Temperament	Amiable	Fidgety	Evenly paced	Standoffish
Attentiveness	Wandering	Restless	Accepting	Listens critically
Talks about	People and events	Accomplishments	Processes/Systems	The "Company"
Approach	Empathy/Caring	Takes charge	Goes along	Evaluates others
Decisions made	By how they'll look to others	Fast/Realistic	Over time and after deliberation	Only if all the "data" is in
Time usage	Often wasted/Behind schedule	Always pressed	Respects it/Not pressed	Uses it well/Precisely scheduled
Body language	Animated	Restless	Precise/Deliberate	Reserved/Controlled
Attire	Contemporary	Impeccable/Well tailored	Conforming	Conservative/Subdued
Needs	Visibility	Achievement	Others' approval	To be right
Monitors progress by	Recognition	Measured results	How others feel about them	Self-satisfaction
Responses to pressure	Battles with emotion	Battles with reasons	Complies	Escapes with logic

Table 4-3 Behavior Modifications for Salespeople

To Increase Responsiveness:

- Share your feelings; let your emotions show.
- Respond to the expression of others' feelings.
- Pay personal compliments.
- Take time to develop the relationship.
- Use friendly language.
- Communicate more; loosen up; stand or sit closer.
- Use a few more "easy" gestures like leaning forward, smiling, or gently patting the other person on the back or shoulder (be careful of personal space, however).
- Be willing to digress from the agenda; go with the flow.

To Decrease Responsiveness:

- Get right to the task, the bottom line, the business at hand.
- Maintain more of a logical, factual orientation.
- Keep to the agenda.
- Leave when the work is done; don't waste time.
- Do not initiate physical contact.
- Downplay enthusiasm and body language.
- Use businesslike language.

To Increase Assertiveness:

- Speak and move at a faster pace.
- Initiate conversation.
- Initiate decisions.
- Recommend; don't ask for opinions.
- Be direct rather than circumspect.
- Use a strong, confident voice.
- Challenge and disagree, but tactfully.
- Face conflict openly, but don't argue.
- Increase eye contact.

To Decrease Assertiveness:

- Move more slowly in all ways.
- Seek out others' opinions.
- Share decision making with others.
- Let others assume leadership.
- Restrain your energy; "mellow out."
- Don't interrupt.
- Pause when speaking to allow others a chance to respond.
- Don't criticize.
- Choose words carefully so as not to offend.
- Use less eye contact.

Does Mr. Johnson make decisions quickly, or does he prefer to mull them over for a long time?

Is Ms. Schuldt a bubbly person or does she hold in her enthusiasm and act all business?

Does she control her time rigidly or flexibly?

Does she like working with others, or is she happier working by herself?

Is Ms. Hart a detail-oriented person or does she look at the big picture?

4-1e How to Modify Your Style to That of the Buyer

Because you will be dealing with all four types of personality styles in selling, it is important that you be able to adjust your behavior to that of the buyer. To do so, it is helpful to a look at what you can do to modify your responsiveness and assertiveness. Study the information in Table 4-3.

4-2 Organizational Selling

One good way of understanding the industrial market is to compare it with the consumer market. Several major differences exist between these two markets. At this point, a brief description of these differences will help the reader gain a feeling for the complexity and sophistication of the industrial market.

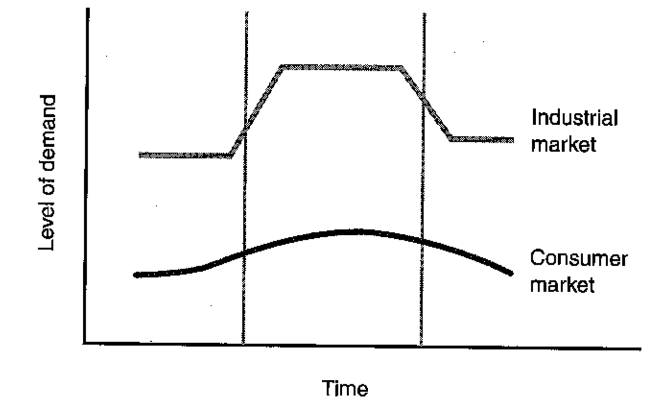


Figure 4-4
Changes in Consumer Demand are Magnified in the Industrial Sector.

4-2a Differences between Individual and Organizational Buying Behavior

Derived Demand

One major source of difference is that the demand for industrial goods is derived from the demand for consumer goods. The demand for lumber is derived from the demand for houses; the demand for plastic is derived from the demand for trash containers; the demand for rubber is derived from the demand for tires. Figure 4-4 illustrates the concept of derived demand.

Derived demand is characterized by great volatility, or fluctuations, in sales. Imagine a manufacturer of sinks used in the kitchens of recreational vehicles (RVs). If RV sales drop by 20 percent, then we would also expect a 20 percent drop in the production of sinks. Right? Unlikely. The RV manufacturer buys sinks for storage in inventory, so they will be available for installation as RVs roll off the production line. This magnifies fluctuation in the demand for sinks, since, as RV sales decline, the RV manufacturer will use up the inventory of sinks before buying any more. The classic example of this occurred during the Great Depression, when the production of consumer goods dropped 20 points, from an index of 100 to 80. At the same time, industrial spending dropped 65 points, from 100 to 35. It is easy to understand from this example why industrial firms are so careful in their production and inventory planning. Accordingly, industrial salespeople must know a great deal about the industry and firms to which they sell. An impulse purchase in the industrial market is a rare occurrence.

Concentration of Buyers

Another important difference between the industrial and consumer markets is the concentration of the industrial market with regard to both size and geography. Less than 2 percent of all industrial firms (those employing 500 workers or more) account for 50 percent of all manufactured goods and 42 percent of all the people employed in manufacturing. Four companies produce more than two-thirds of all tires. B. F. Goodrich, for example, sells its original equipment tires to fewer than 10 car manufacturers. The four largest companies in the tin-can industry account for 80 percent of total output. One computer company controls 70 percent of the mainframe computer industry.

Of the nation's approximately 3,000 counties, 294 are considered manufacturing centers. It is estimated that these 294 counties account for about 80 percent of all industrial buying power. New England, the Midwest, and Great Lakes represent almost 50 percent of total U.S. shipments of manufactured goods. Another 20 percent is in the Southeast, and 11 percent in the Far West. The buyers for some of these large manufacturers are often even further concentrated in home offices, often in large metropolitan areas. U.S. Gypsum, one of the largest buildings materials manufacturers, does most of its buying for over 50 plants out of its Chicago offices. Additionally, there are 1.6 million retailers and 521,000 wholesalers in the United States. There are also about 88,000 government units who buy goods and services.[12]

With the intense concentration of the industrial market, industrial sales representatives cannot afford indifferent preparation and sloppy selling tactics. A mistake can cost their company thousands or even millions of dollars.

Multiple Buying Influences

The typical industrial buying decision involves more than one individual. Although the number may vary considerably by industry, the average number of buying influences in manufacturing is five people. The choice of a vendor for industrial drill presses, for example, may be made jointly by the production, engineering, and maintenance departments, as well as the purchasing agent. Each of these departments will have a different viewpoint that must be reconciled before an order is placed. This, of course, makes the job of the industrial salesperson that much more difficult.

Size and Frequency of Orders

The size of orders placed by industrial buyers is considerably larger than those in the consumer market. For example, Motorola was awarded a $63 million contract to install a cellular phone system in Brazil.[13] An industrial order may involve millions of dollars' worth of goods and services, though typically the period of time between orders is longer. A company may order a computer system and not change it for five to six years. Even so, service requirements will continue during that time, and the salesperson will have to be available for that moment when another order is placed.

Derived demand, the size of the purchase order, and the number of potential buyers will all contribute to the success of the new A380 superjumbo jet (seating 500 to 800 passengers) being developed by Europe's Airbus Industrie.[14]

Sophisticated Buyers

Buyers in the industrial market are considerably more sophisticated than buyers in the consumer market. Economic rather than emotional motives predominate. The technical requirements of items purchased are such that trained professional buyers are employed. Although the characteristics of individual buyers are important, generally the requirements of the organization are more critical in vendor selection.

Shorter Channels of Distribution

Channels of distribution in the industrial market are generally shorter and more direct. In most instances, few if any intermediaries are involved. Because of the increased size of orders and fewer customers, the use of personal selling becomes much more feasible. With the average industrial sales call costing more than $200, it is difficult to justify using salespeople when the order size is small, but for a sale of thousands or even millions of dollars, it is another matter.

4-2b Understanding Industrial Buying Behavior

The industrial salesperson must understand both the organizational buying process and the motivation of those participating in it. In the sale of a large computer, it is not enough to know that the purchasing director, data-processing manager, controller, and chief financial officer must all approve the purchase. The motives of each of these individuals must be understood so that the salesperson can formulate a sales presentation that satisfies each of them. Speaking to the CFO about the internal speed of the machine will not improve the sales representative's chances of making a sale if the controller is interested only in the return on investment. Similarly, a presentation on available programming software is unlikely to please the purchasing agent.

The Organization Decision-Making Process

As Figure 4-5 indicates, the buying process may be divided into three buyclasses, which are categorized according to the newness of the buying problem (new task, modified rebuy, and straight rebuy) and hence involve extensive problem solving, limited problem solving, and routine response, respectively. A **new task** situation refers to circumstances never before considered by buyers, which accordingly demands much learning and deliberation on their part. For a new task buy, customers are likely to seek out salespeople and welcome their advice. The buyer in **modified rebuy** buying seeks to make modifications in product specifications, delivery schedules, prices, or suppliers. For instance, when energy prices started increasing, firms in the construction industry started shifting from ordinary flat glass to insulating glass. Although modified rebuy buying is less complex than a new task buy, it still may involve multiple buying influences. Alternative suppliers who better fit buyer needs may find opportunities to take business away from current vendors. A **straight rebuy** refers to the perfunctory purchase of a standard item from the same supplier on a routine basis. Typically, a straight rebuy is triggered by low inventory level, which initiates a purchase order being issued electronically to an approved vendor. Wal-Mart and Kmart have such a relationship with Procter & Gamble for ordering and replenishing P&G's products in their stores. By using computerized cash register scanning equipment and direct online connections to P&G, these retailers can tell P&G what merchandise is needed, along with how much, when, and to which store to deliver it on a daily basis. Clearly, this tends to lock in organizations to their current suppliers. Though advantageous for the "in" vendor, "outs" have difficulty breaking in. Buyers may feel that they already know all there is to know about the product in question, and they may be unwilling to listen to alternatives. In fact, salespeople may have difficulty just getting an appointment. To crack such accounts, they must begin by patiently examining buyers' needs in depth and then pointing out how their product will do a better job. Of course there is always the possibility that the in-vendor will make a critical mistake. This happened in one instance, when a forms supplier provided labels to a catalogue company at a good price only to have the labels fall off the shipping packages; another vendor was immediately contacted.

new task
A buying circumstance never before considered by buyers, which accordingly demands much learning and deliberation on their part.

modified rebuy
Buying that seeks to make modifications in product specifications, delivery schedules, prices, or suppliers.

straight rebuy
Perfunctory purchase of a standard item from the same supplier on a routine basis.

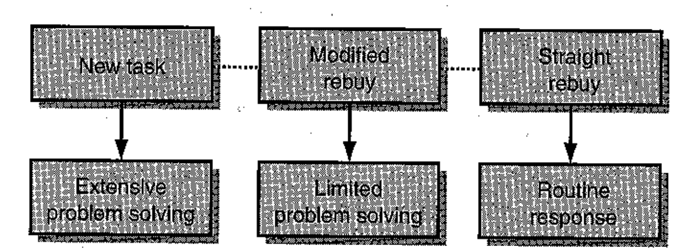


Figure 4-5
Three Types of Industrial Buyclasses

Buyphases

Some of the eight buyphases in the procurement process may occur simultaneously, but generally the eight phases take place in the following order:

1. *Anticipation or recognition of a problem (need) and a general solution.* Nothing fruitful can occur until a problem or need is recognized. This may be initiated by an organization member—anyone from factory worker to president. Often it is an outsider, such as the salesperson, who first points out a problem. At this stage, there is also likely to be the recognition that a solution to the problem lies in making a purchase.
2. *Determination of the characteristics and quantity of the needed item.* This step may be perfunctory in the case of a routine item. Once inventory of a commonly used item drops too low, the computer flags it, and a purchasing agent (or the computer itself) issues a standard purchase requisition. If the item is new, however, the using department probably will have to determine the characteristics.
3. *Outline of the description (specifications) of the purchase.* It is not enough that desired characteristics be identified. They must be specified objectively so that a buyer can work with them. A clear and comprehensive list is essential for subsequent stages of the procurement process.

   In phases 2 and 3, great opportunities are available to diligent salespeople. If they know of a corporate need, they can begin to work with the initiating department, assisting in drawing up specifications for the needed item. Prospects are usually only too happy to have this offer of help. Producing the specification is often a real pain for a prospect, because he or she simply does not know enough about the product. Of course, by offering assistance, the salesperson hopes to obtain specifications that favor his or her product. This must be done subtly, however, and must be backed by a firmly reasoned justification; the overall specification has to be sound and obviously in the prospect's best interests. Still, the competent salesperson should be able to do that and still write specs that favor his or her product. Preemption always beats competition. Salespeople coming into the picture after specifications have already been set are likely to find themselves hopelessly disadvantaged. As the buying process unfolds, there occurs a "creeping commitment" on the part of the buyer, which gradually narrows the field of potential suppliers. As decisions are made at each step, the range of alternatives narrows; the customer becomes more and more committed to a specific course of action and even a specific vendor. After all, with a new buy, it is the supplier who likely possesses the most technical knowledge.
4. *Search for and qualification of potential sources.* Once the characteristics of the item are identified and clearly described, a search for qualified vendors begins. If the item is simple or if the purchase is routine, a vendor that the company has long employed may be sought out immediately. If the purchase is a new one, the search may be extensive.
5. *Acquisition and analysis of proposals.* At this stage, proposals from alternative vendors are scrutinized. In the case of the simple item, this phase may consist of nothing more than consulting a catalog. If the article is complex or new, then proposals are likely to be lengthy and detailed.
6. *Evaluation of proposals and selection of supplier(s).* In this phase, the affected departments in the organization study the proposals and make a decision. The salesperson must be cognizant of the information flow between departments, which is often difficult and frustrating work. After selections are made, negotiations may continue regarding such matters as price, terms, and delivery schedules.
7. *Selection of an order routine.* During this stage, the buyer places an order with the vendor. The order is processed, shipped out, received, and inspected. Then payment is made.
8. *Performance feedback and evaluation.* The performance of the product and vendor are analyzed. The system may be formal or informal, but the salesperson should closely monitor the feedback to ensure favorable evaluation.

Figure 4-6 illustrates how the **buyclass**—new task, modified rebuy, and straight rebuy—affects the buyphases for an industrial drill. Note that the new task situation is marked by more buying influences, more suppliers, and a lengthier decision period. In fact, with the straight rebuy, many of the phases are so perfunctory as to border on the nonexistent.

buyclass
One of three types of organizational buying situations: new task, modified rebuy, or straight rebuy.

Whether a firm is "on" the list of suppliers or even the sole supplier or "off" the list of suppliers will obviously affect marketing strategies. The latter will have to exert much greater effort to get an order, especially in a straight rebuy situation. A summary of how selling strategies will vary for "in" and "out" firms by buyphase is presented in Table 4-4.

Determining who is involved in the buying process and their position in the organizational hierarchy is critical to the success of the industrial salesperson. The participants and their positions may vary widely from company to company, but some generalizations can be made.

In the big or complex sale, sales managers are apt to tell their salespeople to contact "my old friend Bob Thompson" or the head of a certain department at the buying organization. They rely on "friends," people who have been important in the past, or the heads of departments whose titles sound as if they would logically be involved in a buying decision.

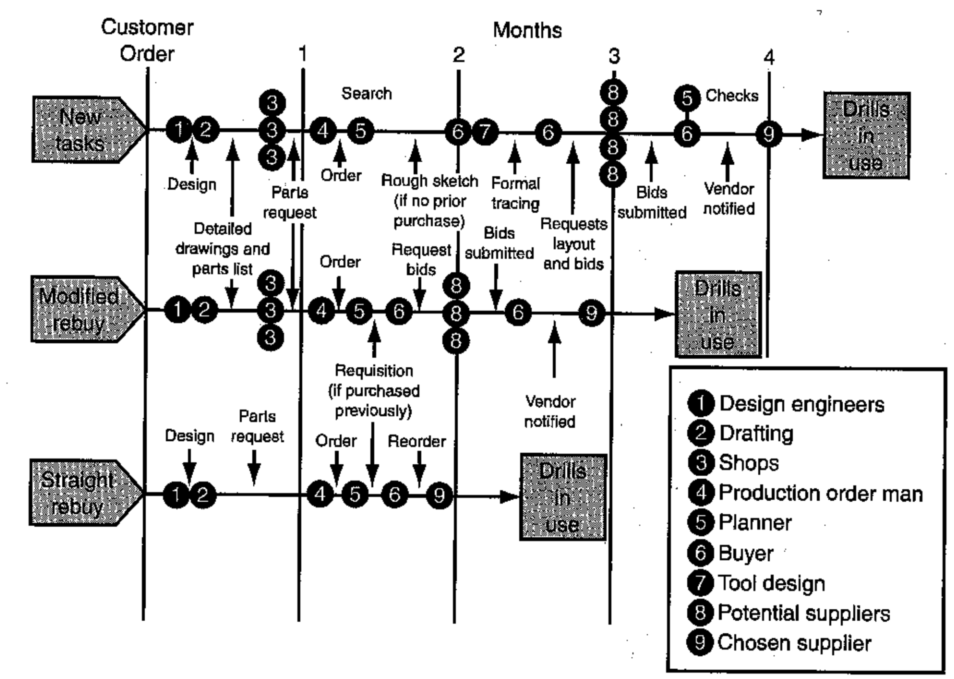


Figure 4-6
How the Decision-Making Process Varies with Each Buyclass

Table 4-4 Strategies for Vendors

Strategies for "In" and "Out" Vendors

Buyphase	*In Supplier*	*Out Supplier*
New task	Monitor changes in needs; respond quickly; participate in early phases	Search for leads; suggest new approaches; supply technical advice
Modified rebuy	Act immediately; reexamine needs	Respond more quickly; sell on alternative competitive advantages
Straight rebuy	Exceed expectations; reinforce relationships	Sell superior benefits; seek "foot-in-door" orders

4-2c Who Is Involved in the Organizational Buying Process?

There is, however, another approach.[15] Here, salespeople are told to look for certain key buying roles that are common to all organizations involved in the complex sale, as shown in Figure 4-7. Although personalities and titles might change, these roles remain constant, and salespeople should identify the role players before embarking upon the selling process. In every complex sale, there are thought to exist five critical buying roles. The number of people involved in the buying decision might be one or 100, but they can usually be identified as playing one of these five roles.

decider (or economic buying influence)
Role in buying center with the formal power to select or approve the supplier that receives the contract.

Decider (or economic buying influence): Although many individuals or committees may be involved in the overall buying decision, ultimately there is only one person who can give the final approval to buy. The Economic Buyer can say "yes" when everyone else has said "no," and vice versa. His or her focus will be the bottom line and the impact of the sale on the organization and its goals. Failing to identify the Economic Buyer early in the selling process has ended many "a sure thing," when someone hitherto unidentified puts everything on hold. If possible, the Economic Buyer should be contacted first.

The individual who is the Economic Buyer can change from sale to sale, and depends on a number of factors, but almost by definition you won't find people who can give final approval far down on the corporate ladder. For example, the chief financial officer at a hospital may make the final decision on a purchase because of payment terms, but leave the purchasing details to the purchasing agent. In small organizations, the Economic Buyer is typically the owner or CEO. Beyond this, the person who plays the role of the Economic Buyer depends on a number of factors. If Southwest Airlines decides to buy a new fleet of jet airliners, the CEO will make the decision. The greater the dollar amount of the sale, the higher up in the organization the Economic Buyer is likely to be. Every company has "cutoffs" at which approval for a purchase goes

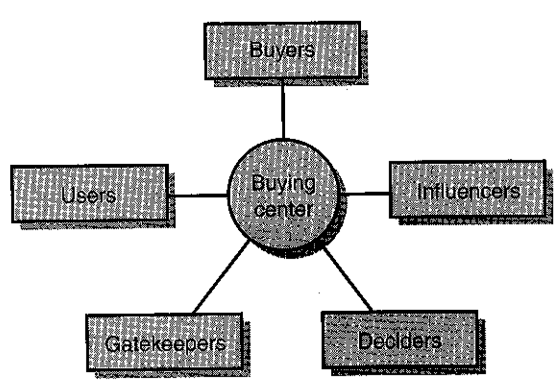


Figure 4-7
Who Is Involved in the Organizational Buying Process?

either up or down the ladder. These points relate to the dollar amount of the sale relative to the size of the buying company. In the small organization, the CEO may get involved in any decision over $10,000; for the large organization, the comparable figure may be $100,000. It is also true that business conditions can alter the identity of the Economic Buyer. In recessions, many salespeople are surprised to find the CEOs of even *Fortune* 500 companies signing off on every purchase over $5,000. It is also typical that the less experience the organization has had with the salesperson, his or her company, and the product or service, the higher up in the organization the Economic Buyer will be. Finally, because the Economic Buyer's focus is on long-term stability and growth, buying decisions that radically affect these areas will involve a higher-placed person playing that role. It is important to remember that there is no one individual who is the Economic Buyer in all instances; it varies from sale to sale, depending on the previously mentioned factors.

If the Economic Buyer is the CEO or chair of the board (or at a similarly high level), it may be difficult to get to that individual, especially if your access is blocked at a lower level. One practical approach to use in reaching these individuals is to use your own management. It is quite reasonable to say that your manager would like to come and meet the prospect; and, as a matter of courtesy, he or she would naturally expect to meet your contact's manager. This is a very difficult ploy for the contact to avoid, since protocol demands that he or she agree. Another possibility is to use a reference to provide you with an introduction to a higher level. Your own directors often will have contacts in common with your prospect; the old-boy network can be very useful.

user buying influences
Buyers who make judgments about the potential impact of the product or service on their job performance.

User buying influences: The role of User Buyers is to make judgments about the potential impact of the product or service on their job performance. For example, drill press operators at Southwest Airlines might request that the purchasing agent buy drill bits from a particular supplier because they stay sharp longer and reduce downtime in maintenance. Quite often, users initiate the purchase process. User Buyers are concerned primarily with how the sale is going to affect everyday performance in their own areas or departments; their focus is thus much narrower than that of the Economic Buyer. People acting as User Buyers will ask about factors associated with immediate day-to-day operations: product reliability, service record, retraining required, downtime record, ease of operation, maintenance, safety, and potential impact on morale. Because their personal success may depend on the successful performance of the product or service, User Buyers may make subjective decisions. The User Buyer cannot be ignored by the salesperson in the long run, because the way they use the product directly affects how that product is viewed by everyone else in the organization. Even if the salesperson manages to get around the User Buyer's initial "no," the chances for follow-up sales may be stonewalled by the resentment and lack of cooperation of User Buyers.

influencers
Individuals who influence, while not actually having formal decision-making power.

Influencers: These would be individuals who influence, while not actually having formal decision-making power, such as Research and Development (R&D) people who help write specifications or supply information for evaluating alternatives. They exercise great power in some decisions or they may simply provide information. In a hospital laboratory, for example, technical people may be critical in specifying one product or vendor over another. At Southwest Airlines, for example, flight engineers and pilots often influence purchase decisions based on their experience with various vendor options.

gatekeepers
Their role is to screen out possible suppliers. Their focus is on the product or service itself, and they make recommendations based on how well the product or service meets a variety of objective specifications.

Gatekeepers: The role of the Gatekeeper is to screen out possible suppliers. Their focus is on the product or service itself, and they make recommendations based on how well the product or service meets a variety of objective specifications. As one disgruntled salesperson put it, these are "people who can't say 'yes,' only 'no'—and usually do." Their job is to act as gatekeepers, to screen out potential vendors. Quite often, purchasing agents act as gatekeepers, screening out vendors based on price, delivery time, failure to meet quality-control specifications, logistics, and even references.

Gatekeepers control the kind and amount of information to other people involved in the purchasing process. A Gatekeeper may control information going to the organization's purchasing agents, the suppliers' salespeople, and others on the selling and buying teams. Information technology (IT) people are often Gatekeepers because they frequently hold the information that is key to decision making. There are two types of Gatekeepers: *screeners* (like secretaries at Southwest Airlines, who decide whose phone call is put through to the executive or purchasing agent) and *filters* (like the Southwest Airlines purchasing agent who gathers proposals from three companies and decides what to tell others in the buying center about each company). The purchasing agent filters information, choosing to pass along some but not all of it to influence the decision.

buyers
People who actually contact the selling organization and place the order.

Buyers are the people who actually contact the selling organization and place the order. In most organizations, Buyers have the authority to negotiate purchases. In some cases, they are given wide discretion. In others, they are constrained by technical specifications and other contract requirements determined by technical experts and top administrators. At Southwest Airlines, the level of authority to buy is determined by the size and type of purchase involved. In many organizations, the decision may be referred to a buying committee, which may either vote or reach a consensus on which vendor to buy from or which product to buy. Purchasing agents (individually or in committees with other executives) often perform the role of Buyers.

Different members of the buying center may participate—and exert different amounts of influence—at different stages in the decision process. At Southwest Airlines, people from engineering, quality control, and R&D often exert the greatest influence on the development of specifications and criteria that a new product must meet; the purchasing manager often has more influence when choosing among alternative suppliers. The makeup and size of the buying center varies with the amount of risk the firm perceives when buying a particular product. The buying center tends to be smaller—and the relative influence of the purchasing manager greater—when reordering products the firm has purchased in the past than when buying something for the first time or buying something that is seen as risky.

4-2d Motives of Industrial Buyers

Industrial buyers are motivated by both economic and noneconomic (or personal) motives. With industrial buying, economic factors predominate, but noneconomic considerations, especially those personal to the individual buyer, should not be ignored. Often the buyer may not even be consciously aware of these factors. It is, in fact, quite likely that the salesperson will have to recognize the influence of these personal considerations, even if the buyer does not.

Economic Motives

It would be impossible to list every economic buying motive, but some of the more important ones follow. Seven of the most commonly used criteria are (1) price, (2) ability to meet the quality specifications required for the item, (3) ability to meet delivery schedules, (4) technical capability, (5) warranties and claim policies in the event of poor performance, (6) past performance on previous contracts, and (7) production facilities and capacity.[16] It is important for the industrial salesperson to recognize which of these motives are most critical to the specific organization being approached. It is also important to realize that different buying centers may be interested in different combinations of buying motives.

Personal Motives

Because industrial buyers are also people, they are motivated by personal considerations. Many of the motives discussed earlier affect buyers within the context of the organization. Safety, one of the five motives in Maslow's hierarchy of needs, has an important influence on organizational buyers' decision making. Should they make a bad decision, not only may the organization suffer but so may their reputation; it is conceivable that even their job security may be jeopardized. To minimize this risk in decision making, buyers often rely on the size and reputation of the supplier. A salesperson from a company without a reputation may face a skeptical buyer.

The salesperson may take several measures on his or her own to reduce the risk a buyer sees in a purchase decision. The salesperson should make sure to present a credible image. Proper dress and attention to nonverbal behavior will help when first approaching the buyer. Thoroughly researching the buyer's problems and making a good presentation will further reduce perceived risk. Testimonials from satisfied customers are valuable, as are warranties that guarantee performance. Visits and reassurances from executives in the sales representative's company also are effective. Free samples or trials may eventually clinch the sale, but they cannot be used with all products, especially expensive items.

Corporate Culture

Salespeople also should be sensitive to the idiosyncrasies of the companies with which they deal. Some of this is due to the preponderance of personality styles that some industries seem to attract. As noted in Figure 4-8, the percentage of Drivers, Analyticals, Expressives, and Amiables varies widely among selected industries.[17] This alone will dramatically affect the personal motives that characterize buyers.

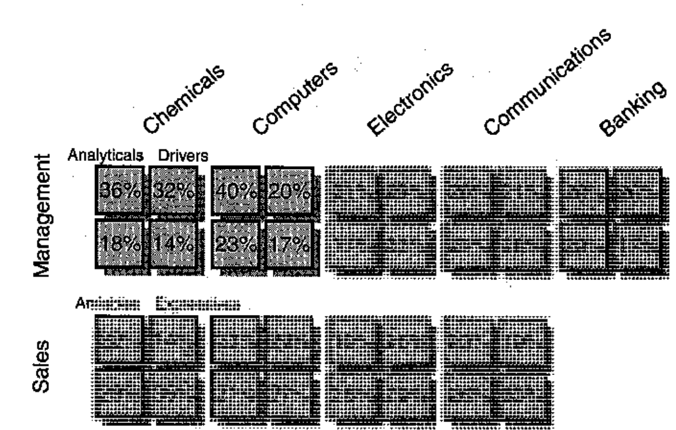


Figure 4-8
Personality Style Distribution in Selected Industries
Source: Adapted from Wilson Learning Corporation, Eden Prairie, MN.

Box 4-3

Sample Recommendations for the Salesperson

Structure Presentations to Airlines in the Following Way:	Structure Presentations to Banks as Follows:
• Stress new developments and new or improved features of products or services. • Make the presentation with a fairly fast delivery—about 200 words per minute. • Allow one's voice to sound enthusiastic and very upbeat. • Keep language simple, using one- and two-syllable words along with a sprinkling of insider jargon.	• Stress one's credibility by emphasizing experience and a tradition of success. • Compose one's appeal with an average or slightly slower-than-average rate of delivery. • Make one's voice sound contained and reserved. • Use more-refined language, employing occasional multisyllabic terms to elevate the perception of the vendor as a fitting and proper firm with which to do business.

Moreover, companies themselves have their own corporate cultures. It's 11 A.M. on a fall Thursday in Silicon Valley, and Sergey Brin, the 28-year-old cofounder and president of Google.com, isn't exactly tearing up the streets on his morning commute—via Rollerblades. Not that he cares; there's no official starting time at Google—or ending time for that matter. It's not about rules here. Workers at the fifth most popular website in America set their own hours, get backrubs from a company masseuse, and even bake bread from scratch if the mood strikes them. When he does arrive, Brin skates into the Googleplex, as headquarters are called—past the red, blue, and yellow lava lamps, the crimson couch, and the self-playing ebony grand piano with Muppet-theme sheet music. He's just missed one employee's two children throwing gigantic rubber balls at each other. This is typical as are the three employees suited up for a 50-mile, mid-morning bike ride. At any moment, Yoshka, a 100-plus pound Leonberger, might come trotting around the corner with his owner.[18]

In contrast, EMC Corporation is a company that's been leading the competition within the enterprise storage industry. Everything about EMC is fast, yet disciplined. CEO Mike Ruettgers is a no-nonsense leader who demands absolute dedication from each employee to help grow the business and stay ahead of the industry. "The first sales manual we had was written by a guy named Charles Darwin, and we've reprinted that about a dozen times," he says with a laugh. "We are very results-oriented, we have a very high sense of urgency. The motto of this company—instilled from day one of training, when new hires are asked to run across hot coals as an initiation into EMC—is 'only the strongest survive'. 'There's no whining, which sounds silly . . . we won't tolerate folks who see the obstacles," he says. "Because of that, it remains an upbeat place to be. We hire people for their attitude and train them for everything else. For example, we just hired a lot of Marines—they aren't experienced in customer service, but because we are a place that has established missions, they will succeed. It's all about attitude."[19]

Taking into account the culture of the industry to which they are selling, salespeople should change the words and tone of their presentations. When they speak to two contrasting industries as outlined in Box 4-3, airlines and banks, they must change their approach. When they talk with executives in the airlines, they find people who sound "well informed," and are somewhat "trendy," "energetic," and "harried" by their struggle to keep up with a deregulated, hectic, and constantly changing environment. At the same time, bankers are much more "calm" and "collected," and their speech reflects their "self-confidence" and the relatively "stable" nature of their field.

4-3 Selling to Groups

Quite often, perhaps most of the time, industrial salespeople must deal directly with groups of individuals in the buying organization; that is, they must make their presentation to an assembled group of executives from the prospect's company. The dynamics of communicating directly with groups are much more complex than when communicating with individuals.[20]

4-3a Special Problems of Dealing with Groups

Salespeople face unique problems when selling to groups:

1. As the number of people in a group increases, the sales representative's ability to monitor the reactions of any one member decreases. Additionally, the quality of feedback declines. To a substantial degree, as one group member speaks, the salesperson must analyze the nonverbal reactions of the other group participants—and analyzing nonverbal behavior is far from a science.
2. It is virtually impossible for the salesperson to personalize the presentation for each group member as would be the case when seeing each individually.
3. The dynamics of group interaction are such that knowledge of these dynamics is more important than knowledge of each individual's separate psychological makeup. That is, the role of an individual in the group is more predictive of buying behavior than that individual's own unique personality traits.
4. As the number of participants increases, the likelihood of noise (misunderstandings, distortion, and misinformation about the salesperson's message) increases.

4-3b Why Selling to Groups Is Important

Selling to groups is critically important because

1. Research seems to indicate that in industrial selling, the salesperson must influence three or more individuals to close a sale.
2. A salesperson can deliver a presentation to many, thus economizing on his or her use of time.
3. In a group setting, the pecking order of authority often becomes apparent, with some members of the group deferring to those with authority. The latter, once identified, can be visited individually later.
4. Often, those opposed to the salesperson's proposal may be convinced by other, more favorably inclined group members, something the salesperson might not be able to do on his or her own.

4-3c Dealing with Groups of Two

It is useful to make a distinction between buyer groups of two and groups of three or more. In a sales call on two buyers, the salesperson should first determine the relative positions of the buyers in the organization. If one is the superior and the other a subordinate, the salesperson can concentrate on the former, while making sure to be polite to the subordinate. The superior should be allowed to set the tempo for the meeting. If the two are of equal rank, the salesperson must treat each equally. The salesperson must not ignore one party enough for that person to lose interest. If the two parties are interested in different purchase criteria (e.g., a research engineer and a purchasing agent), the salesperson should concentrate on common points of interest to both and leave their unique interests for subsequent personal meetings with each person.

4-3d Dealing with Groups of Three or More

Analysis of the problem of handling more than three people indicates there are several actions that can be taken to simplify the salesperson's task and to increase the odds of success.

1. Try to reduce the number of people in the group. Of course, the salesperson should take care not to offend those ignored. To avoid this problem, at the start of the meeting, the salesperson can ask for the group members to identify themselves and their reason for attending the meeting. Some may be there as observers for their superiors, and the salesperson can largely leave them out of the discussion because their role is mostly passive. The salesperson should be alert to those whom the group regard as dominant; if one person is clearly dominant, the salesperson can work largely with him or her. Until the spokesperson emerges, however, the salesperson may want to treat all group members as equals.
2. Establish an agenda. It is critical that the salesperson keep the number of topics discussed to a minimum. Otherwise, the group's attention may wane, and their minds may wander. Accordingly, conversation must be kept to the essentials of the salesperson's proposal. The easiest way of doing this is with the assistance of handouts, flipcharts, or a chalkboard on which points are enumerated. With these before the group, the salesperson can tactfully restrict the discussion until all points are covered. This has the added advantage of letting participants know how the discussion is progressing and how long the meeting will last. People are more relaxed and cooperative when they are familiar with the environment than when they are uncertain about what is going to transpire.
3. Draw conclusions from the discussion rather than leaving this to each group member individually. In an interview with one prospect, this is easy for the salesperson to do with appropriate questioning, but polling each individual is impossible with a large group. The salesperson therefore should summarize the discussion on each topic on the agenda and state the conclusion reached so the group can respond to it. If the group does not accept the conclusion drawn by the salesperson, discussion of the topic must be reopened until there is agreement. This technique of frequent summarization makes it more likely for group members to leave the meeting basically in agreement with the salesperson's proposal.
4. Bring up and concede weaknesses voluntarily rather than defend them after someone in the group has cited them as reasons for not buying. This is especially true of early meetings when the salesperson knows competitors will be following his or her visit. By anticipating the points that the competition will raise and responding to them, the salesperson minimizes their effect.

4-3e Maximizing Participation

It is essential that group members participate in the discussion; a lecture by the salesperson is guaranteed to fall flat. Yet, to do so is not easy; groups tend to intimidate many people. Here are some suggestions for maximizing participation:

1. The salesperson should indicate that he or she desires participation and act accordingly.
2. Unless already deeply involved in discussion, the salesperson should address questions to specific individuals rather than the group in general. Especially early on, addressing questions to the group as a whole is not likely to meet with success.
3. Develop interaction among group members. When one person has finished speaking, the salesperson can address another: "Why do you agree [disagree] with that view?"
4. Avoid calling on shy individuals in the early phases of a meeting. Not only are they embarrassed, but others also tend to resent the salesperson for putting the shy individuals on the spot.
5. Open up the discussion with questions about facts, not opinions. In the early stages of the meeting, people are loathe to express opinions.
6. Explain that participants will profit from the meeting in direct proportion to their participation. By stating their ideas, they can receive immediate criticism and new information and clarify their thoughts.
7. Use challenging and controversial statements to stimulate discussion early on. One college teacher I know begins his discussion on criminology by stating that crime is hereditary and worse in the South because Georgia originated as a penal colony. He never has any problem getting discussion started.
8. The salesperson should be tolerant of poorly developed ideas or opposing points of view.
9. Restrict individuals who try to monopolize the conversation.

Chapter Summary

Chapter 4 emphasized how important it is for salespeople to have an intimate understanding of the buying behavior of their customers. The chapter began by outlining the steps through which consumers typically progress when making a purchasing decision: motive arousal, problem recognition, search, alternative evaluation, and choice. Motives are drives or urges that initiate behavior, and until a motive is aroused, buying behavior will not occur. Once activated, a motive will lead the consumer to recognize the existence of a problem. Here the consumer realizes the difference between an actual state of affairs and an ideal state, a situation that will likely impel the consumer to search for information, either internally or externally. With the possession of enough information, the consumer will assess purchase alternatives, given his or her set of alternative criteria. The final step in the process is the decision to buy, along with the selection of an appropriate manufacturer and model. Throughout this process, it was emphasized that salespeople must recognize relevant consumer buying motives before making a presentation, because motives tend to remain relatively unchangeable.

Much of Chapter 4 concentrated on the individual factors that influence consumer behavior—motives and personality styles. Needs are impelling urges that drive people to satisfy certain goals. According to Maslow, needs can be classified into physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualizing needs. As one level of needs is satisfied, the next becomes the dominating force. Personality is defined as the generalized ways people react to situations. Four different personality styles can be identified: Driver, Analytical, Amiable, and Expressive.

The second part of this chapter discussed the behavior of the organizational buyer, starting with an examination of the differences between the industrial and consumer markets. Distinguishing characteristics of the industrial market include derived demand, concentrated buying power, multiple buying influences, larger and less frequent ordering, buyer sophistication, and shorter channels of distribution.

The organizational decision-making process includes three buyclasses and eight buyphases. The buyclasses are the new task, the modified rebuy, and the straight rebuy. A new task situation refers to circumstances never before considered by buyers and therefore demanding much deliberation. A modified rebuy occurs when a buyer decides to change suppliers, product specifications, prices, etc., for a product previously purchased. A straight rebuy refers to the perfunctory purchase of a standard item from the same supplier on a routine basis.

The number of people involved in the buying decision might be one or 100, but they can usually be identified as playing one of five roles. Although many individuals or committees may be involved in the overall buying decision, ultimately there is only one person who can give the final approval to buy, and this is the Economic Buyer. The role of User Buyers is to make judgments about the potential impact of the product or service on their job performance. Influencers would be individuals who influence, while not actually having formal decision-making power, such as research and development (R&D) people who help write specifications or supply information for evaluating alternatives. Gatekeepers screen out possible suppliers. Their focus is on the product or service itself, and they make recommendations based on how well the product or service meets a variety of objective specifications. Buyers are the people who actually contact the selling organization and place the order. In most organizations, buyers have the authority to negotiate purchases.

After a discussion of the economic and personal buying motives of industrial organizations (often a reflection of corporate culture), the chapter ended with a discussion of proper selling tactics for the salesperson making a presentation to groups of buyers, including the importance of selling to groups, common roles of group members, and how to deal with groups of two and three or more.

Discussion Questions

1. "Salespeople don't have to know anything about buying. All they have to know about is selling." Discuss.
2. Why must salespeople understand consumer-buying behavior?
3. What are the steps in the selling process? Briefly explain each step. How might the salesperson be influential at each stage?
4. Use "Ways of Identifying Personality Styles," Table 4-1, to identify the personality styles of your professors.
5. How can Maslow's hierarchy be applied to the customer–supplier relationship?
6. Explain the process by which someone decides to buy a new automobile. How might the salesperson be influential in this process?
7. What are needs? Name a few. Which motives are likely to influence the purchase of an automobile?
8. What is Maslow's hierarchy? Do you believe that the hierarchy accurately describes how motives affect behavior?
9. Is a purchasing agent for U.S. Steel likely to be influenced by Maslow's hierarchy in his or her buying habits?
10. What is personality? Name the four general types of personality. How do they affect the salesperson?
11. "A good salesperson can sell to any type of buyer." Do you agree?
12. A salesperson is preparing to deliver a presentation to a buyer identified as an Amiable. What suggestions can you make to improve the effectiveness of the sales call?
13. Given your own personality style, how would you plan making a sales presentation to an Amiable? Driver? Expressive? Analytical?
14. What clues can help identify the personality style of buyers? Cite buying behavior you have recently witnessed—in yourself or others—that was motivated by physiological, safety, social, esteem, and self-actualization needs. Do the same for purchases that can be explained by personality style.
15. How would you define organizational selling?
16. "Selling is all the same, whether it is to consumers or industrial organizations." Do you agree or disagree?
17. What are the major differences between consumer and industrial markets?
18. A marketing manager for a manufacturer selling transmission parts to the automobile industry is debating whether to lower prices. Automobile sales have been sluggish recently, and, in fact, several companies have laid off workers. How would you advise the marketing manager?
19. What are the three buyclasses? Name the eight buyphases. How do they affect the salesperson's job?
20. How does selling in a straight rebuy situation differ from selling in a new task situation or a modified rebuy situation?
21. What are buying roles? Identify the four buying roles.
22. Explain the role of the Decider, the User, the Buyer, the Influencer, and the Gatekeeper.

23. What are multiple buying influences? What are their implications for the industrial salesperson's job?
24. Talk with an industrial salesperson you know about a recent sale. Try to apply the industrial buying model to explain what happened.
25. What are some common economic motives of industrial buyers?
26. Can the personal motives of industrial buyers affect their overall decision? What can the salesperson do about this?
27. Select a local company of consequence. Does the decision-making process change depending on the type of product and whether it is a new task buy, modified rebuy, or straight rebuy? Who are the major decision makers, and what differential buying criteria are most important to each?
28. Why is the ability to sell to groups so important for industrial salespeople?
29. How should the salesperson conduct himself or herself with two buyers?
30. How should salespeople conduct themselves with groups of three or more?
31. What are some roles that are often found among group members?
32. How can the salesperson maximize group participation?

Chapter Quiz

1. During the _____ stage of the buying process, salespeople can influence customers by asking questions that will activate the customer's motives and make them aware a problem exists.
   a. problem-recognition
   b. information search
   c. alternative evaluation
   d. purchase decision
2. Many products, such as conspicuous homes, club memberships, clothes, restaurants, and cars, are purchased to fulfill _____, which includes the need to stand out and be recognized.
   a. safety needs
   b. social needs
   c. esteem needs
   d. self-actualization needs
3. According to Maslow, the lowest individual need is physiological. For business firms, survival needs are
   a. essential services associated with the product, such as timely delivery, and absence of damage and insurance against loss of property and assets.
   b. resources such as money, employees, raw materials, and equipment.
   c. profits earned on the company's products and services.
   d. sufficient financial resources to pay bills.
4. In terms of types of personalities, _____ are animated, intuitive, and lively. They thrive on involvement with others. They like informality and prefer to deal with people on a first-name basis.
   a. Drivers
   b. Expressives
   c. Analyticals
   d. Amiables
5. To win customer acceptance when the buyer's social type is Amiable requires from the salesperson
   a. documented evidence.
   b. recognition and approval.
   c. personal attention and interest.
   d. evidence with technical details.
6. If the salesperson wants to increase his or her assertiveness to fit the buyer's social type, the salesperson can do all of the following *except*
   a. speak and move at a faster pace.
   b. recommend, don't ask for opinions.
   c. increase eye contact.
   d. pause when speaking to allow others a chance to respond.
7. In terms of the buying center, the role of the _____ is to screen out possible suppliers. Their focus is on the product or service itself, and they make recommendations based on how well the product or service meets a variety of objective specifications.
   a. User
   b. Gatekeeper
   c. Buyer
   d. Influencer
8. The buyer in _____ buying seeks to make modifications in product specifications, delivery schedules, prices, or suppliers.
   a. new task
   b. evaluation
   c. straight rebuy
   d. modified rebuy