



SELLING AND SALES MANAGEMENT

Dr. Narayana Srikanthreddy
Saraswati Kumari



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CHAPTER 1

EVOLUTION OF SELLING AND ITS PLACE IN MARKETING

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ABSTRACT:

Although marketing is the process of meeting and fulfilling client wants, selling converts the products into cash. The planning of a product's and service's pricing, promotion, and distribution are all part of the marketing process. Order takers inside, order takers outside, this chapter discusses business-to-business (B2B) and business-to-consumer (B2C) marketing and sales, consumer-to-business (C2B) marketplaces, and B2B (business-to-business) marketplaces.

KEYWORDS:

Business-to-Business, Market, Marketplaces, Product, Selling.

INTRODUCTION

There are perhaps few commercial activities that generate as much conversation among and between those immediately engaged and those who are not as much as selling. This is hardly unexpected given that so many individuals depend on selling for their income, either directly or indirectly. Even individuals who do not engage in selling directly come into touch with it via their responsibilities as customers. This familiarity may be the reason why many individuals have strong, and sometimes misguided, opinions about selling and salespeople. Curiously, many of these misunderstandings are maintained by individuals who have spent their entire professional careers in sales, suggesting that familiarity creates disdain in this situation. It is critical to understand that selling and sales management are distinct concepts even if they are closely connected. The nature and purpose of selling will be discussed in this chapter. The topic of sales management in modern organizations will also be covered. We'll bust some of the most widespread myths and misunderstandings about selling and sales management.

The selling function has evolved with time, much like other corporate functions. The development and use of marketing may be one of the most significant and far-reaching of these shifts. This is because the business climate has changed. Both the position of selling inside marketing as well as the position of marketing within the company will be explored [1]–[3]. Making a sale is the most straightforward method to understand the nature and purpose of selling, also known as salesmanship. This phrase may appear apparent, but it really hides an often intricate procedure. This calls for the use of a number of guidelines and methods in addition to strong psychological abilities. Also, a variety of various kinds of selling responsibilities are included in this procedure. We shall define the word "selling" in greater detail later, but first let's look at why this field of commercial activity is receiving so much attention.

There is a wealth of writing on selling, ranging from more intellectual approaches to the straightforward "how it is done" approach. Businesses invest a lot of money in the selling skills training of their sales staff. The focus on personal selling is understandable given that salespeople are often an organization's most vital customer contact point. Due to the

salesperson's front-line position, many consumers see them as the business. But, even the most well thought out and planned marketing campaigns may fall short if the salespeople are incompetent. There are compelling arguments supporting the necessity of the selling work and efforts to increase this activity's efficacy, in addition to the sometimes-high expenses involved with hiring, training, and keeping the sales staff. This vital topic of sales methods is covered in Part Three of this book.

Selling refers to a wide range of sales circumstances and actions. For instance, there are sales roles where the sales representative's primary responsibility is to routinely or sometimes deliver the goods to the consumer. When a sales representative works with capital equipment sales to industrial buyers, the focus is considerably different from that of this form of sales activity. Moreover, some salespeople solely work with export markets, while others do direct sales to clients in their homes. The great variety of selling responsibilities is one of the most noticeable elements of the industry. A sales representative could only be able to provide basic items for sale, but others might work with personalization or customization of goods and services. Sales representatives may provide a variety of plans at mobile phone stores like EE, Vodafone, and Apple, for instance. The firm, however, sets the rates. They may, however, add extra services and, if necessary, negotiate a package with all the additional expenses based on the demands of the unique consumer. As a result, while the pricing plans are conventional, considerable customization is allowed.

Sales team nowadays needs a diverse set of abilities to succeed. The days when salesmen needed basic presentational and closing abilities to succeed are long gone. Selling nowadays calls for a variety of talents, which are listed in the next section. We go through the features of contemporary selling in this part. Salespeople will be ill-prepared to handle their duties if they do not comprehend these traits. Client retention and deletion are two aspects of contemporary marketing. According to the Pareto Principle, 20% of a company's customers account for 80% of its revenues. This implies that maintaining current high-volume, high-potential, and highly lucrative consumers requires a significant investment of resources. Since it enables a salesperson or sales team to concentrate their efforts on one client or a small number of key clients, key account management has grown to be a crucial type of sales organization. On the other end of the scale, some businesses are discovering that their smallest consumers actually lose them money. This is due to the possibility that providing service and distributing goods to those clients may cause expenditures to exceed earnings. The high expenditures to serve these tiny consumers may force larger businesses to switch to telemarketing and/or the internet as a way of providing service, or they may opt to break up the partnerships altogether.

The current sales force has to be taught in the usage of client databases, their construction, and how to utilize the internet to support their sales tasks (e.g. finding customer and competitor information). Salespeople used to write down client information on cards and mail orders to headquarters. Modern technological innovations like email, cell phones, and video conferencing have completely changed how information is shared. With the use of laptops, salespeople may keep data on clients and rival companies, create presentations, and electronically interact with corporate headquarters. Also, the corporation may provide information in the form of price lists and catalogues that may be stored online. Customer relationship management calls for the sales staff to put more of an emphasis on the long term than just making the next transaction. The focus should be on establishing win-win scenarios with clients so that both sides benefit and desire to keep the connection going. Relationship management for important clients may include creating specialised teams to handle the account and maintain all facets of the commercial relationship.

The contemporary salesperson engages in much more than just preparation and delivery of a sales presentation when it comes to marketing the product. In fact, online pages and email attachments may occasionally take the role of in-person presentations by providing customers with up-to-date information on a variety of issues more quickly, thoroughly, and conveniently than many in-person engagements. The job description of a salesperson is evolving to include involvement in marketing activities like product development, market development, and market segmentation, as well as other tasks that support or complement marketing activities like database management, information provision and analysis, and market segmentation evaluation[4], [5].

Selling systems and problem-solving strategies: A large portion of contemporary selling, especially in business-to-business settings, is based on the salesperson serving as a consultant who collaborates with the client to identify problems, ascertain needs, and suggest and implement effective solutions. This strategy differs significantly from the conventional perception of a salesman as a slick, quick-talker who glides into a client's office, convinces the consumer to purchase, and then leaves with an order. Today's salespeople often make many calls, have a team-selling strategy, and have strong analytical abilities. Also, rather of purchasing a single item, customers are increasingly searching for a systems solution. This implies, for instance, that in order to sell door handles to a company like Ford, a supplier must not only be able to sell a door system that includes door handles as well as locking and opening devices, but also possess a thorough understanding of door technology and be able to advise Ford on potential problems. As a result, the enhanced services are becoming more and more significant.

DISCUSSION

The contemporary salesman must be able to recognize and meet the demands of customers while offering value. Some clients are unaware they are in need. In these circumstances, the salesperson's duty is to encourage need identification. Customers, for instance, may not be aware that a machine used in the manufacturing process is less productive than newer, technologically more sophisticated equipment. It is the responsibility of the salesman to inform clients about the advancements being made and made accessible to them in order to persuade them that the firm will continue to support its customers and stay creative. Although recruiting new clients is costlier than keeping current ones, accomplishing this will bring value to the customer's company by lowering expenses. This condition also creates a win-win scenario for their business and the client[6]–[8].

Understanding the crucial success variables in selling is a crucial problem for aspiring, experienced, and sales managers. In a 2003 research by Marshall, Goebel, and Moncrief, sales managers were asked to list the knowledge and abilities necessary for effective selling. Important elements for success are related to important factors. Recognizing these success criteria is critical since doing so may enhance the overall efficacy and efficiency of the salesperson-customer contact in a number of ways. Sales managers may first utilise this understanding of generally recognised sales success variables to enhance their hiring and training procedures. Second, applicants for sales positions may make the most of highlighting their own skills during the job interview by using this understanding of success variables to ensure they aim towards high levels of competence in those important areas they can control. Finally, sales instructors at universities and colleges have information to use to make sure their courses accurately represent the knowledge and abilities that professionals find most valuable.

Due to the variety of purchasing circumstances, there are several forms of selling jobs; selling tasks vary according to their nature. Order-getters try to encourage consumers to make an order directly, while order-takers reply to clients who have already made a commitment. Order-creators converse with people who specify rather than buyers, therefore they do not directly accept orders. Inside order takers, delivery salesmen, and outside order takers are the three different categories of order takers. Missionary salesmen are those that generate orders. Order-getters may be either front-line salespeople, such as those who sell to new clients, organisations, or consumers, or sales support salespeople, such as merchandisers or technical support salespeople. Both kinds of order-getters work in circumstances when a direct sale is possible. We'll now go into more depth about each kind of selling profession.

Order-takers

Takers of orders inside

Without a salesman present, the buyer is given complete freedom to pick the things they want. The only responsibility of the sales assistant is to transfer the items and accept payment. The telemarketing sales team, which supports field sales by accepting telephone orders from clients, is another kind of inside order-taker.

Drivers who make sales

The main responsibility of the salesman is to provide the goods. Milk, newspapers, and magazines are all delivered to your home in the UK. There isn't much of an effort to convince the family to buy more milk or newspapers since variations in order size are driven by the customers. Orders will be won or lost depending on the salesperson's disposition and delivery dependability.

Outside takers of orders

When these salesmen go to consumers, their main duty is to fulfil their demands rather than aggressively trying to convince them. Outside order takers are ineffective, and to some degree, more economical telemarketing teams are taking their place.

Missionary entrepreneurs

In certain businesses, most notably the pharmaceutical industry, the salesperson's job is to convince the consumer to specify the seller's items rather than to make the transaction. For instance, medical representatives calling on physicians are unable to make a direct sale since doctors do not directly purchase pharmaceuticals; rather, they prescribe (specify) drugs for their patients. Similar to how architects operate as "specifiers" rather than purchasers in the construction sector, the goal of a sales call cannot be to complete the transaction. Under these circumstances, the selling role is to spread knowledge and foster goodwill.

Order-getters

The last group, known as order-getters, comprises of those who work in sales and whose primary goal is to get clients to make an immediate purchase. They are the salesmen that work directly with customers, and in many respects, this sort of selling is the most difficult of all the ones. Order-getting requires the salesman to have a variety of talents, such as the capacity to recognise new prospects, persuade and negotiate, and finally develop new and lucrative business in the face of sometimes strong competition.

Technical sales representatives

This sort of salesperson often falls under the order-getters category since their primary responsibility is to help front-line salespeople with sales-related tasks. When negotiations are difficult and a product is extremely technical, a salesman may be assisted by financial and product experts who can provide customers the in-depth technical knowledge they need. If necessary, the experts may be summoned into the selling scenario on a temporary basis or continuously as a member of a key account team.

Merchandisers

In instances involving retail and wholesale selling, these personnel provide sales assistance. Orders may be negotiated nationwide at head office, but merchandisers who advise on display, carry out sales campaigns, monitor stock levels, and stay in touch with shop managers promote sales to particular locations.

Marketing and selling between businesses and consumers (B2B and B2C)

Based on the kind of clients being targeted, marketers and salespeople sometimes differentiate between two broad types of marketing and selling. There are two main types of marketplaces or client groups. Instead of consumers, they are corporate customers (profit or non-profit organisations) (individuals). Business to business marketing (B2B marketing) and business to consumer marketing (B2C marketing), respectively, are the names of the two separate categories. While both markets may benefit from understanding the fundamentals of marketing and selling, as we will see in this chapter and numerous others, there are some important distinctions between the two sectors. Several of the key elements of business-to-business and business-to-consumer selling and marketing are addressed in advance of some of these upcoming chapters.

Consumer to business (C2B) marketplaces

Consumer markets are those whose unique selling point is that customers are buying goods and services for their own or their families' needs. The primary driving forces behind purchases are therefore personal in character. Nonetheless, depending on the kind of product and consumer purchase we are examining, there are a number of distinct sorts or sub-markets inside the consumer market. These are the primary categories of various consumer markets:

Fast-moving consumer goods (FMCG): FMCG marketplaces are places where consumers shop for items that often need only modest outlays of cash. These products are often not durable and are frequently purchased. These include things like toothpaste, candy, cigarettes, food items, and cosmetics. Also, some of the most popular electrical components, such as batteries and light bulbs, are included. These are throw away items. Customers will only invest a brief amount of time in information research and comparing various product options. If they are content, they will, nevertheless, more often than not stick with the same brand. As a result, they are often purchased items. These goods are categorised as low-involvement goods.

Semi-durable consumer goods: Products like apparel and footwear, soft furnishings, and jewellery are examples of semi-durable consumer goods. These items, as the name implies, are less often purchased than FMCG goods. They often last longer. The client often takes more time selecting from a variety of competing products. Consumer items that may be used repeatedly include refrigerators, vehicles, and computers. Less commonly, these purchases are made. They often need substantial expenditures. The buyer has made a long-term commitment to the item. As a result, while deciding between several product offers, the buyer

often exercises great caution. They will seek out a lot of information and assistance while making purchases. High-involvement products is another name for these goods.

B2B (business-to-business) Marketplaces

Business-to-business (B2B) marketplaces are characterised by often strong and big customers who tend to make purchases primarily to promote organisational goals and in an organisational environment with skilled/professional purchasers. Customers are often geographically confined in B2B marketplaces, and bargaining is the standard in interactions between marketers and consumers. B2B selling, however, also includes businesses of all sizes. These markets have quite different marketing and sales strategies than B2C markets. Price negotiations are significantly more likely to occur with buyers. Service and delivery are extremely crucial. The salesman is probably negotiating with experienced people, and the purchasing and selling procedure for certain kinds of capital equipment, such machines for making biscuits in a factory, might take months or even years. There are several unique sorts of sub-markets in B2B marketplaces, just as there are in consumer markets. The following are the key ones:

1. Supply and consumables markets (such as those for raw materials and semi-manufactured products);
2. Marketplaces for capital goods (such as machinery and plant);
3. Business service marketplaces.

A car manufacturer engages in several business-to-business transactions, such as buying tyres, windscreen glass and lighting. A completed car is sold to the client in the final transaction, which is a single business to customer (B2C) transaction.

Selling as a profession

Order taking, order making, and order generating are the three degrees of selling. The subdivisions of the just-described sales jobs provide an indication of the variety of sales positions that are offered. Being an order-taker often involves less personal pressure than being an order-maker, and an order-primary maker's personality trait is a pleasant, non-competitive disposition. Order takers, however, have the chance to earn more benefits since their compensation often consists of a commission or bonus whose payment is based on how many orders they fill. The possibility of earning very large earnings at a relatively early age exists in many business scenarios, it is a well-known reality. It is impossible to provide a detailed list of the traits necessary for a successful sales career due to the wide variety of selling conditions and jobs in sales. Other than "trying it out," there is no certain method to determine if a person is suitable for a career in sales. There is also no clear-cut test or selection process that can be used to differentiate between successful and less successful salespeople. Yet, there are a few crucial traits that are widely acknowledged as being crucial:

By putting oneself in the other person's shoes and comprehending why the customer feels the way they do, empathy and interest in people will help one detect consumers' true requirements and issues more correctly. Communication skills include the capacity to listen to and comprehend as well as the capacity to convey a message to a consumer. It's crucial to have the ability to know when to stop talking and when to listen. Determination: A salesman who wants to thrive in their career must not take "no" for an answer, despite the fact that they must be able to do so. Customers sometimes say no when they actually mean maybe, which may eventually result in a yes. A deal is often closed successfully by tenacious salesmen. Self-control and tenacity are required since salesmen often work alone and unsupervised for a large portion of the day. They may anticipate obstacles, rejections, and failures as part of their

work. To handle these aspects of the sales work, a salesman must be both self-disciplined and resilient[9], [10].

Several different reactions will arise when the term "selling" is used. It will elicit a significant percentage of unfavorable, even hostile, reactions, such as "immoral," "dishonest," "unsavory," "degrading," and "wasteful." Is such a negative opinion justified? Our advice is no. The fundamental attitudes about selling, some of which are listed below, are really the result of commonly held misunderstandings about selling. One frequent belief is that if one has skill, it will be squandered in sales, and that selling is not a rewarding profession. Regrettably, adults in a position to guide and sway young people's employment decisions often adopt this mentality. Many of our better graduates are not drawn to a career in sales since it is trendy in certain places to disparage professions in sales.

This idea holds that if you offer a good product, then there will always be consumers. As a result, the marketing process adds needlessly to expenses. This would be okay if a company can create a technologically better product, but it's probable that more research and development expenditures will arise, and there will be ongoing research and development costs associated with staying ahead. Also, as will be covered later in this book, selling may be used to gain feedback from current and future clients in order to learn more about their needs. For research and development, performance data on products may be highly helpful.

The genesis and cause of this most widespread and harmful of the myths about selling originate from the 'foot-in-the-door' image that has been fostered. There is something unethical about selling, and one should be sceptical of individuals who make their livelihood from this activity. Such attitudes may make life challenging for the salesman, who must first get beyond the obstacles that such distrust creates in the connection with the consumer. The sales job has a variety of demotivating components, including: Because of their perceived low status, salespeople are constantly at risk of rejection and frequently have to endure "ego punishment" like being kept waiting, having appointments cancelled at the last minute, and receiving "put downs" from customers, to which they are ill-equipped to respond because in these situations, the customers are in control. As a result, there is some psychological risk associated with selling, particularly business to business and business to consumer selling.

Salespeople are effectively operating in "foreign" territory in B2B settings since they meet buyers in their workplaces. As a result, they may sometimes feel awkward while approaching the location. The consumer may make the salesman wait, which would be uncomfortable. The salesman often works alone and spends a lot of time away from home. Independence has its appeal, but it can also be a lonely life. As a result, there is some psychological danger involved in such circumstances. Selling is obviously not a simple undertaking, and those who are anxious to enhance its reputation must be more outspoken while still being impartial in presenting its argument and understand that misunderstandings almost always have some validity. There are always dishonest people and businesses willing to profit from the ignorance and credulity of unwary clients. These folks are not salesmen; at best, they are foolish investors, and at worst, they are crooks. We all experience high-pressure selling at some point in our lives, leading us to believe we bought something we didn't really want or on conditions we couldn't really afford.

Although salespeople are growing more professional in their dealings with clients, selling is not absolutely faultless at the moment. Some of the worst selling excesses have been restrained. While done legally, this is becoming becoming more optional. Selling has to sell itself in order to dispel some of these myths, and the following information about selling needs to be spread more widely: Neither the act of selling nor those who engage in it are

immoral or dishonest. Customers' needs and wishes are met by selling, which offers a means of exchange. However, selling is something that almost everyone does in at some point, even if it's only selling their personalities and abilities in order to get work. A job in sales is beneficial. Many people who have worked in sales their whole lives consider it to be a demanding, responsible, and fulfilling profession. A career in sales always entails interacting with people, and the ability to choose one's own work hours is often a significant perk of the position.

Quality goods don't sell themselves. If a buyer isn't made aware of the advantages and characteristics of a great product, it can go undetected. A product that seems to be excellent may be completely inappropriate for a certain buyer. Selling is unique in that it addresses the specific requirements of each individual consumer, and the salesman, who is knowledgeable about the product in question, is in a position to evaluate these situations and advise each client appropriately.

The nature and function of sales management have changed in the same manner as selling has grown more professional. The term management is highlighted. Planning, organising, and controlling—the three primary responsibilities of all managers—are increasingly being expected of individuals engaged in management. The notion that a competent sales manager needed to have the correct attitude and that the major responsibility of the position was to make sure that the sales force was outselling the competition enough has been replaced with a new perspective. While these traits may be laudable, the responsibilities of the sales manager in the contemporary organization have altered in both scope and focus [11], [12].

CONCLUSION

Several of the most pervasive myths regarding selling and sales management have been investigated, as well as the nature and purpose of these activities. It was said that sales management and selling are getting more professional, and people participating in these activities now need to be knowledgeable of a variety of managerial strategies. The creation of the marketing idea has been one of the most important advancements in contemporary business theory and practise. From a focus on production to a focus on sales to a focus on the market, businesses have evolved.

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CHAPTER 2

SALES MANAGEMENT: NATURE AND FUNCTION

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ABSTRACT:

The administration of activities and procedures involved in the efficient planning, coordination, execution, control, and assessment of an organization's sales performance is known as sales management. In most businesses, sales management plays an essential business function. A sales-related goal, an emphasis on goods the marketing strategy, In this chapter, we cover market segmentation and targeting as well as the advertising mix. In today's business, the sales manager is expected to perform a considerably more strategic role and to contribute significantly to the creation of corporate strategies. So, it is important to be knowledgeable about planning strategies, such as budgeting and sales forecasting. To guarantee that sales and marketing efforts are coordinated, the sales manager must also be conversant with the idea of marketing. This chapter serves as an illustration of such. In many businesses, earnings are prioritized above sales volume. The sales manager must be able to evaluate and steer the sales force's efforts towards more lucrative clients. The sales manager must be knowledgeable of current advancements in human resource management while working with a sales staff.

KEYWORDS:

Business, Management, Marketing, Sales, Strategy.

INTRODUCTION

All other traits were noted by both groups, with the exception of flexibility, which sales managers and salespeople did not name, and selling abilities, which neither group noted. The top four qualities of a successful sales manager, according to sales managers, are knowledge, organization and time management abilities, communication and listening skills, and people skills. The majority of salespeople agreed, although they listed motivating abilities instead of organization and time management skills as their top four attributes. When seen in the above-described way, the position of sales manager may seem challenging since that individual is also required to be an accountant, a planner, a manager of people, and a marketer. Nonetheless, the main duty is to make sure that the sales function contributes as much as possible to the accomplishment of corporate objectives and goals [1]. Sales managers will carry out the following tasks and obligations to fulfil this role:

1. Establishing the aims and goals of the sales force;
2. Budgeting and forecasting;
3. Territory design and planning, sales force organisation, and sales force size;
4. The selection, recruiting, and training of the sales staff;
5. Inspiring the sales team;
6. Management and assessment of the sales force.

Parts Four and Five go into great length on these topics since they cover the essential responsibilities of the sales manager. The evolution of the marketing idea has maybe been one of the most important changes impacting selling and sales management in recent years. We will now focus on the nature of this development and how it has affected sales operations since it is crucial to selling. Discussing business origins, how they were formed, and how they still have relevance in business now is crucial when tracing the history of the marketing notion.

Four primary business philosophies, sometimes known as orientations or conceptions, have historically served as the foundation of the corporate environment. The proposed explanation for the origin of these orientations emphasises the evolutionary nature of the commercial world and the sales and marketing industry. In fact, it might be claimed that this very subtle but important change is what gave rise to the business concepts' enduring appeal and importance in the modern marketplace. These are the top four business philosophies:

1. A sales-oriented mindset
2. Production-focused
3. Product-focused
4. A marketing focusses.

The barter system in ancient times undoubtedly predates the modern concept of marketing as an exchange mechanism, but the Industrial Revolution that followed World War II is more likely to be responsible for the development of modern marketing administration.

Sales or a Selling Focus

Brassington and Pettitt claim: Companies began producing more than they could readily sell as markets and technology advanced. This resulted in "the sales period," which lasted through the 1950s and 1960s and saw organisations establish larger, pushier sales teams and more aggressive advertising strategies. The notion that customers won't purchase enough of the organization's goods unless the organisation engages in a significant amount of marketing and advertising, "So, it is possible that "selling orientation" or "sales orientation," one of the four major philosophies acknowledged in the business world, was developed at that time[2], [3].

When a company's primary goal is to sell items owing to overcapacity and excess supply, or when clients need to be convinced about the products, sales orientation is often used. Companies in these situations often think that aggressive marketing and sales tactics are the only ways to sell enough goods to meet demand. As a result, it is expected that under such circumstances, firms' priorities shift from meeting consumer needs to selling what they already have. Several businesses developed a sales orientation as a result of the widespread adoption of mass manufacturing methods in the 1920s and 1930s, notably in the United States and Western Europe, and the ensuing sharp rise in global competitiveness.

Companies that are sales-oriented shift their attention from other business functions to the sales function. Instead of how and what to manufacture, the major concern here is how to guarantee that the items are sold once they are made. In a sales-oriented firm, the fundamental tenet is that clients would be delayed or unwilling to purchase if left to their own devices. In any event, there are a variety of prospective suppliers available to clients who are looking to buy the kind of goods or services the business offers. When the supply side has enough capacity and the demand side is also weak, the problem is made worse. In the 1930s, several "hard sell" approaches were created since this was the situation in many industrialised countries. Several of them were questionable, if not downright dishonest, and their usage is much to blame for the negative perception of selling.

Although while consumers are better protected from its worst excesses, many businesses continue to operate in a sales-oriented manner. Nowadays, this kind of approach is often seen in businesses that have made significant investments in fixed capital equipment, such as buildings and technology, in markets where supply exceeds demand. For instance, the hotel industry may be seen as adopting a sales-oriented attitude when supply of accommodations exceeds demand, as is often the case during off-peak seasons. Here, the hotels' attention moves from a strategy centred on rate maximisation to a stratagem focused on occupancy maximisation. Rates are then decreased in an effort to reach a larger audience and boost volume sales. In order to meet the significant fixed capital expenditures, such as overhead, connected with these sorts of enterprises, the aggressive selling of rooms is thus encouraged in this situation. It should be emphasised, nevertheless, that these hotels use rate maximisation as a strategy when demand is strong by trying to sell as many rooms as they can for that price.

DISCUSSION

There is a possibility that "production orientation," which Kotler et al. 9 define as "a philosophy that consumers will favour products that are available and highly affordable, and that management should therefore focus on improving production and distribution efficiency," was created before the sales orientation. Companies during this time period concentrated their attention on creating products or services. More precisely, managerial initiatives were made with the goal of obtaining great production efficiency, often via the mass manufacture of things that were standardised. In this case, the production of goods and services took precedence over other tasks like as sales, finances, and human resources. More significantly, the fundamental tenet was that customers would buy things if they were of a decent quality, offered in adequate numbers, and priced reasonably.

When Henry Ford began mass-producing the Model T Ford in Detroit in 1913, he pioneered this idea. His reasoning was that if he could use mass production methods to build a standard model car in huge numbers, he might potentially meet the need for reasonably priced private transportation. Ford was right at the time; there was such a need, and his goods were effective. So, a production-oriented approach to business was suitable for the then-current economic environment in the United States, where prospective demand exceeded supply. But, things have changed, and in the current economic environment, where potential supply often exceeds demand, such a philosophy is not helpful for doing business[4], [5].

This business concept supports the idea that consumers should choose goods and services that are easily accessible and offered at the lowest cost. As a result, companies that adopt a "production orientation" favour continuing to emphasise production efficiency by lowering operating costs and taking advantage of economies of scale. Yet, this emphasis on cost effectiveness could lead to a decline in product quality. Due to their inability to successfully compete with superior goods or those that provide more advantages when supply exceeds demand, such items may eventually lose market share. It almost seems inevitable that these problems would have resulted in the need to control excess capacity. Thus, the "selling orientation" may have developed.

Although historically this situation was evident during the Industrial Revolution and again in the 1950s when there was exceptional global demand for goods primarily supplied by the Western hemisphere, in modern terms the "production orientation" is frequently found in markets where demand exceeds supply. Also, this kind of business orientation works best in sectors or marketplaces where there is minimal room for product differentiation, or where there are little distinctions between rival goods and services. For instance, there is little to no

product distinction between the companies that operate in the UK hotel industry's 4-star segment.

A focus on Products

The 'product origination,' which define as the notion that consumers will favor products that offer the most quality, performance, and features, and that the organization should therefore devote its energy to making continuous product improvements, could have developed from the problems mentioned above. The emphasis in this situation is on performance and quality. Businesses that follow this business concept aspire to achieve the pinnacle of 5-star hotels, where clients pick items based on quality rather than price.

Businesses that practise "product orientation" strive to provide the greatest goods or provide the best services available. This is probably accomplished by ongoing enhancement of goods and services, such as via the inclusion of additional capabilities and value-added services like "customer support helplines." Yet, such actions might have two unfavourable effects. It is possible that such extra features, such as valet services or car washing services, may not be required or desired by either existing or potential customers. On the one hand, a company may price itself out of the market or be forced to match the prices of competitors, thereby damaging profitability.

A Marketing Focuses

It's unclear precisely when the concept of marketing or customer orientation came into being; in some senses, the essential significance of the client may have been acknowledged throughout trading's lengthy history. The concepts related to the marketing notion didn't start to arise and take shape until the 1950s, however. The marketing notion, which was first a US phenomenon, developed in part due to discontent with manufacturing and sales practises, in part due to a changing environment, and in part due to common sense. Organizations did not truly start to shift away from a "sell what we can manufacture" way of thinking in which marketing was at most a tangential activity toward a "find out what the consumer wants, and then we'll make it" manner of market-driven mindset until the 1960s and 1970s. ⁸ Hence, marketing orientation was born. In the 1950s, the marketing idea also known as the customer orientation or even the customer-led approach started to acquire traction as a fundamental corporate tenet in the United States.

One could argue that the modern marketing orientation, defined by Kotler et al.⁹ as "the marketing management philosophy, which holds that achieving organisational goals depends on determining the needs and wants of target markets and delivering the desired satisfactions more effectively and efficiently than competitors do," has primarily evolved from the sales orientation and the production orientation, although both of these types of business are still present today. Nonetheless, the marketing orientation often borrows certain ideas from each of the three major business philosophies rather than completely disregarding the prior ways of doing company. In fact, businesses that adopt a marketing orientation have the same belief as those who embrace a product orientation on the need to improve product quality. Yet, firms focused on marketing vary from those focused on products in that the former would invest in such enhancements only if it has been determined that consumers would find them useful. The reduction of costs and enhancement of efficiency are among the main goals of marketing-oriented firms, much as those that have a production orientation. Moreover, companies with a marketing orientation may short-term employ price reduction and promotion strategies, which are often linked to a selling orientation.

Nonetheless, marketing orientation continues to provide a fundamentally distinct method of doing business. According to Kotler et al. 9, marketing orientation is the only business philosophy that favours a "outside-in viewpoint" as opposed to the other business philosophies' preference for a "inside-out perspective." In other words, unlike the three other businesses, where the organisation and its goods serve as the foundation of a company, principles, marketing orientation places the customer at the centre of a company's operations. According to the marketing concept, "Value and customer attention are the roads to sales and profits."

As a result, businesses that embrace the marketing orientation seek to concentrate on the real requirements and desires of their target clients. As a result, it may be claimed that the primary distinction between marketing orientation and the other business philosophies is found in how organisations see their customers and the markets in which they compete. Simply simply, the consumer is what matters most. Moreover, a firm that has a marketing perspective not only emphasises the customer as the key to corporate development and survival, but also strives to provide the products and services that consumers desire to purchase. Consequently, it is evident that the marketing orientation's strength resides in its emphasis on the customer as the primary element of the marketing process.

According to the marketing theory, determining the needs and desires of consumers and meeting those needs and wants via the provision of goods and services is the key to a successful and lucrative firm. The marketing notion demands a revolution in how a firm thinks about and conducts its business operations as opposed to production or sales orientation, even if it may not first seem to be a far-reaching and fundamentally different philosophy of business. The focus placed on the requirements and desires of the consumer is at the heart of this revolution in business thought. Companies are beginning to realise how important this new way of doing business is in the current climate. Customers nowadays are more smart and more informed. Real salaries have consistently grown over time, and consumers now have a sizable amount of discretionary purchasing power to divide among an expanding variety of goods and services.

A range of goods and services. Too many businesses have discovered the hard way that, no matter how admirable they may be, having a great product, efficient manufacturing, and substantial marketing does not guarantee success. Customer demands must be put at the very centre of company strategy for there to be any hope of success. The development of those notions and practises targeted at comprehending customer behaviour may be somewhat attributed to this focus on knowing the consumer. A corporation must make a variety of organisational adjustments to its processes and attitudes in order to become marketing-oriented. It needs the marketing discipline to offer what may be called a marketing technology in order to be of value. In order to apply the marketing strategy, management must provide a set of tools. The development of quantitative and qualitative marketing research methodologies for analysing and evaluating markets is another example of how the behavioural sciences may contribute to a knowledge of consumer behaviour. We'll now talk about some of the most significant and practical marketing principles.

Market Targeting and Segmentation

Since marketing focuses on the requirements and desires of the consumer, businesses must identify these needs and wants before creating marketing programmes to meet them as a means of attaining business goals. Few, if any, businesses are able to efficiently service every consumer in a market in a uniform fashion because to the variety of customer demands and desires and the number of methods in which they may be fulfilled. Market segmentation is

the practise of identifying groups of consumers within a market who have comparable requirements and desires and will react differently to a particular marketing initiative. After the different market segments have been discovered, a firm may select which segments are the most appealing and to which segments it can promote the most successfully. The company's marketing initiatives may then be properly customised to the demands of these market groups at whom it has chosen to direct its marketing[6].

Two of the most helpful marketing ideas are market segmentation and targeting, and a number of methods have been created to help businesses employ them.

Effective segmentation and targeting has several major advantages, including the following: a clearer identification of market opportunities, particularly the analysis of gaps in a market; the design of product and market appeals that are more precisely tuned to the needs of the market; the concentration of marketing and sales efforts on those segments with the greatest potential.

There are many bases for market segmentation that may be utilised alone or in combination. For instance, a toothpaste maker may determine that the market is best divided into age groups after learning that the various age groups that make up the market for the product have various desires and requirements and differ in what they demand from the product. In terms of sales, the seller will see that the different categories will react more favourably if each segment's demands are more closely met by the goods and marketing initiatives.

Instead, the toothpaste market may be segmented according to income, with various income groups in the market having distinct product needs. Last but not least, the seller can discover that the market is divided based on a mix of income and age factors.

The following are some of the most popular basis for segmentation: Consumer markets/products: age, sex, income, social class, location, kind of dwelling, personality, advantages sought, and consumption rate. Industrial goods and markets, end-use markets, industry types, and product applications, advantages sought, business size, location, and utilisation rate. The implementation of segmentation and targeting principles, regardless of the foundation used to segment a market, is a crucial step towards becoming marketing-oriented.

Advertising mix

We have often mentioned the corporate marketing strategy while talking about the idea of market segmentation. The choices involving the controllable marketing factors, or what E. Jerome McCarthy called the "four Ps" of pricing, product, promotion, and location, are by far the most crucial ones in this marketing programme and represent the crux of the marketing manager's job inside a corporation. The marketing mix, as defined by Neil Borden, is a notion that is essential to contemporary marketing practise. It is made up of these four factors combined with the selected target segments. Several academics have proposed modifications to the elements that need to be included in the marketing mix throughout time. Even yet, the 4Ps are still widely used in business today.

Broadly speaking, a variety of factors or components are within the authority of firm management. The management of a corporation, for instance, has control over the variety of items to be produced, their characteristics, and their degrees of quality. The goal of marketing management is to combine these elements into a potent mix. The term "marketing mix" is suitable since there are several marketing mix components and numerous combinations of those components. Making choices is required for each of the four Ps:

Advertisement, publicity, sales promotion, personal selling, and sponsorship are all forms of promotion. The phrase "communications mix" refers, more accurately, to the combination of these five components. Getting these five components to operate harmoniously together is known as "integrated marketing communications." This component of the marketing mix has lately received increasing attention as a result of the development of the internet and the rising usage of direct marketing strategies in particular. Location inventories, distribution methods, and the amount of middlemen. It will become clear that personal selling is regarded as one element of the marketing mix's promotional decision area. Later in this chapter, we will return to the selling component of the mix.

Product

Many people think that the most crucial component of the marketing mix is the choice of products. They contend that decisions made in this area have the most immediate and enduring impact on the level of success a firm has. This may first seem to be evidence of a product-oriented or even a production-oriented perspective as opposed to a marketing-oriented one. Nonetheless, it doesn't. Product choices are without a doubt the most crucial marketing choices a business can make. It is true that no matter how great a product is, it will fail if there is no prospective market for it. This is not to mean that choices about things need to be made in a hoover. It's also true that several items have failed despite having a substantial market potential due to bad price, distribution, and marketing choices. In essence, choices made about products define the maximum sales potential of a business.

The degree to which this potential is realized depends on how choices affect other components of the mix. Everything that a business provides to clients in order to meet their requirements is considered a product. Services and abilities are also provided for sale, in addition to actual, tangible things. Moreover, non-profit organizations advertise their services to prospective clients. More and more, political candidates, libraries, museums, educational institutions, and charities adopt marketing strategies. Depending on the criteria used for classification, there are several methods for categorizing items. For instance, a wide contrast between consumer and industrial items may be drawn, with the end-user or customer serving as the foundation for categorization in this case.

Whatever the categorization method, it's crucial to remember that the consumer is buying a bundle of advantages rather than specific product qualities. This idea for a product is yet another illustration of a company strategy that is focused on the market. It examines the product in light of the demands and desires of the consumer who is really making the purchase. For instance, when individuals buy cosmetics, they are buying beauty. When Theodore Levitt writes, "Purchasing agents do not purchase quarter inch drills; they buy quarter inch holes," he gives us a clear illustration of this idea of a product. [7]–[9].

CONCLUSION

Sales management is concerned with running the sales department. It covers all of the tasks, including scheduling, managing, and marketing sales as well as the delivery of products. Previously, the work's scope was constrained. It now includes additional sales management-related duties. When a product is seen in this manner, insights may be gained that can be applied to its marketing. By highlighting the ways in which the product or service offers a solution to the customer's concerns, it may be utilized to improve the sales presentation in the sales area

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CHAPTER 3

A BRIEF DISCUSSION ON LIFE-CYCLE CURVE FOR PRODUCTS

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ABSTRACT:

The notion that most items tend to follow a certain pattern in terms of sales and profitability over time is one of the most helpful principles in marketing. The product life-cycle curve is the shape that this pattern takes. The product life cycle comprises four different stages: introduction, growth, maturity, and finally decline. It is comparable to the human life cycle pattern. Customers and competitors are disregarded in a cost-based strategy. Market-based pricing takes into account the value consumers place on owning a product as well as their access to similar goods or brands. Customers' perceptions of the product's value are influenced by the product, services that complement it, the company's response to consumer demands, and the product itself.

KEYWORDS:

Customers, Life-Cycle, Market, Product, Sales.

INTRODUCTION

The easiest way to describe its form is to quickly describe each stage's characteristics. **Introduction:** At this point, the rate of sales growth is modest. It is necessary to convince retailers to stock and advertise the product. Customers need to be made aware of it, persuaded to be interested in it, and persuaded that buying it would be beneficial. People may need to get instruction on how to utilise the product, and their current consuming and lifestyle patterns could alter. At this point, there aren't many profits, and high launch expenses often result in a loss [1].

Growth: From a cautious start, sales pick up speed rather quickly. When word-of-mouth advertising and communication spread, there is a snowball effect. Dealers may ask for the product to be stocked. Particularly if a freshly released product can fetch high initial pricing, profits start to be produced.

Maturity: When the market gets saturated, the rise of sales starts to decelerate. There are few new buyers drawn to the goods, and a large percentage of sales are repeat purchases. Competitors have now joined the market, drawn by the excellent profit and sales statistics. Profits peak and then start to drop, in part due to the increasing competition.

Decline: Sales start to decline, further reducing already thin profit margins. Customers may have become disinterested in the product and be drawn to newer, better items. In preparation for lower sales, dealers start to minimize their inventory of the goods.

Consequences of the Product Life Cycle

Not all goods display this common sales and profit cycle. Some goods have very short life cycles. Similar to this, sales might drop sharply even during a time of fast expansion due to, for example, the launch of a new, superior competitor product. Also, the amount of time it takes for a product to complete its life cycle varies. There is no standard for how long goods

should last. Notwithstanding what the model suggests, systematic advancement is not always ensured. Many goods, in fact, do not gain from development and maturation because their intended markets do not favour them. Yet, there are a number of consequences for marketing and sales techniques since a large number of items do have a tendency to follow the overall life-cycle pattern.

Adoption and Spread of Products

Everett Rogers initially proposed this hypothesis in 1962, and it is strongly tied to the product life-cycle. It explains inventive behavior and contends that a new product's features may influence how quickly it is adopted. A consumer is assigned to one of five "adopter" groups, each with a unique set of behavioural traits. There are percentages of first-time customers in each of these adopter groups. The characteristics of a product or service will determine how appealing it is to first-time purchasers and how long the diffusion process will take to finish. If we take a new line of women's clothing into consideration, the diffusion process may be finished in less time than a year. The inventors in this case are probably wealthy, style-conscious individuals.

When it comes to a new kind of computer software, however, innovators are more likely to be technically savvy computer "experts," and it will take longer for their ideas to spread. Similar to microwave ovens, which are now in the "laggard" stage despite being created over 30 years ago, they have not yet completely spread across the market. But, for a number of reasons, many prospective customers will never adopt. The adoption rate of the invention depends on a variety of variables. These factors include: the innovation's relative advantage over competing goods or services; the degree to which it is compatible with customers' potential needs; the innovation's complexity in terms of use and understanding; the innovation's divisibility in terms of how it can be tried beforehand on some kind of test basis before a commitment to purchase; and the innovation's communicability, which is the extent to which the innovation can be described or demonstrated before being adopted[2].

Pricing

Pricing choices include a number of different decision areas, much like the product component of the mix. Price goals must be created, pricing levels must be chosen, credit and discount policies must be chosen, and a process for price modifications must be developed. Here, we take a closer look at some of the most crucial factors that go into price choices, especially from the perspective of how they impact selling and sales management.

Factors used in pricing choices

The purchasing power of consumers is a crucial component in marketing. If a business is unable to set its goods or services apart from those of rivals, it must be able to charge a lower price. According to Porter^{15,16}, attaining a competitive advantage or even just doing well is essential to a company's long-term success as well as the techniques it choose to use. Firms must choose the sort of competitive advantage they want to get as well as the parameters of the advantage's attainment before they can accomplish it. Each organization must choose whether to focus on a narrow or wide target audience, and whether to choose a low cost/price strategy or a differentiation strategy, since the pursuit of competitive advantage is based on a set of generic strategies. A corporation will not only be trapped in the middle of the pack if it does not adopt one of these general tactics, but it will also perform worse.

The ability to set pricing is limited by what rivals charge, but there is also the matter of "perceived value," where price differences across businesses should be explained by "differential utility." Instead of distinguishing the product offering, some salespeople focus on selling product characteristics. When there is little distinction, price competition takes center stage. Making the product more unique will help lessen price sensitivity. It should be acknowledged that clients' levels of sensitivity vary. Delivery, service, and image are more significant factors for certain people than pricing is for others. When a company uses market-based pricing as opposed to cost-based pricing, it recognizes that price reflects value as well as expenses. Traditionally, businesses calculate a selling price by adding overhead, profit, and direct and indirect expenses. The salesperson's job is to persuade customers that the product is worthwhile after the price has been decided. Price may be dropped if demand is low or increased if demand is high, depending on the volume requested.

DISCUSSION

In terms of better goods and greater levels of service, more value often entails higher expenses. It is necessary to strike a balance between what consumers will provide and associated expenses. Considering pricing levels, we must take into account:

Business Objectives: Before choosing a price, a firm must decide what goals it wants to accomplish via pricing in relation to its financial and marketing goals. For instance, a goal rate of return on capital utilized could be included in corporate objectives. Each product pricing levels should reflect this goal. Alternately, a business may express its financial goals in terms of an investment's payback duration or an early cash recovery.

Marketing Goals: They may influence the choice of price. For instance, a business may decide that aiming for a substantial market share as soon as feasible is the best marketing plan for a new product it has produced. Such a tactic falls under the category of market penetration. It is founded on generating and capturing demand, supported by affordable pricing and aggressive marketing. In contrast, the business can decide that a market-skimming approach is more suitable. Here, high starting pricing are established, often supported by significant levels of promotional expenditure, and the greatest profit is obtained before the price is subsequently lowered. An additional, more price-sensitive group of buyers subsequently joins the market when the price is reduced. The context within which price choices are made is determined by the stated financial and marketing goals. Both the sales management and the individual members of the sales team should be informed of these goals [3], [4].

Demand Considerations: In the majority of marketplaces, demand determines the maximum price a business may charge. Simply said, one can only charge what the market will accept. The nuances of demand research and how it relates to price choices are oversimplified in this. Yet these difficulties shouldn't stop decision-makers from taking demand into account when making their choices. The idea of a demand curve for a product, is one of the easiest ways to understand how demand and price relate to one another. The decision-maker may learn something from the demand curve. It demonstrates that bigger quantities are often desired when prices are lower. The quantity required at any given price may also be read from the curve. Lastly, we may compute the % change in quantity requested for each given percentage price increase or drop in order to determine how sensitive demand is to price changes. Demand is influenced by factors other than price, thus it is important to evaluate the link

between demand levels and price. The sales force may be very helpful in this area by providing information.

The slope of the demand curve is a last factor to take into account. A "conventional" curve in that it slopes downward and to the right, indicating that bigger volumes are desired at lower costs. Yet one shouldn't automatically assume that this is the case at all times. It is possible to overcharge for a product or service in certain cases; rather than boosting demand, such cheap prices actually do the opposite. This is so that these pricing may affect how customers see the goods. An excessively cheap cost could be seen by the client as inferior quality. When a product's price is dropped after it has been purchased due to its high price, the high status attached to the product may be lost.

Cost Factors: if demand dictates a price's higher barrier, costs determine a price's lower threshold. Prices charged in a business that seeks to make a profit must eventually cover all production and marketing expenses, leaving a respectable profit margin. Companies often start the process of deciding on a pricing by taking their expenses into account. Some pricing strategies go one step further and base prices exclusively on costs; for instance, total costs per unit are calculated, a profit margin is applied, and a final price is established. While simple, such cost-plus systems have a propensity to overlook some of the more nuanced and significant features of the cost input. Cost concerns may be complicated, much like demand. A crucial difference that a cost-plus strategy sometimes overlooks is that between a product's fixed and variable production costs. Up to the capacity of the plant, fixed costs are those that are constant regardless of production level. Variable costs vary depending on the volume of output; as volume grows, overall variable costs rise, and vice versa when volume decreases. This straightforward difference gives birth to the break-even analysis method and is particularly helpful for price choices.

The break-even point is when the total cost curve and revenue curve cross. The business is now producing neither a profit nor a loss. When paired with demand data, the break-even chart may be used to assess the impact that charging various prices will have on the break-even point, making break-even analysis a very potent tool for decision-making. Sales managers need to be knowledgeable with the various costing principles and the processes used to price the goods they are in charge of selling.

Competition: Pricing choices, especially quick tactical price adjustments, are often made in direct reaction to rivals' moves. Using this strategy requires caution, especially when the price is moving downward. A corporation should think about alternatives to price reduction in order to battle competition since once prices are dropped, they might be difficult to increase. Product sizes may sometimes be decreased while maintaining pricing. The maker of flame-grilled Quorn burgers lowered the size of the burgers in its four-piece pack while maintaining the price of the box of four burgers after a successful debut stage. Despite the fact that the firm had lowered the size of its product, it did not lose both current and new clients as a result, since sales did not significantly decline.

Distribution

One of the business areas where significant advancements and cost savings may be realised is in the management of physical distribution, which is a component of the marketing mix. The distribution sector, which often accounts for a sizeable amount of a company's overall

expenditures, has recently gained significant attention in terms of new ideas and strategies aimed at improving the management of this crucial function. Distribution management is increasingly recognised as a crucial component of a company's strategic management and is often the job of a specialist in bigger organisations. We are thus limited to providing a general review of some of the most crucial components of this component of the mix. In its widest definition, distribution refers to all the tasks necessary to transport products and resources from the point of origin to the point of consumption. The following are examples of decision areas covered by the distribution component of the marketing mix:

The first step is choosing the distribution channels, which entails deciding how and via which outlets products and services will be made accessible to the ultimate customer. When products and services are offered directly to the client, such through mail order, marketing channels may be relatively brief. Alternately, the channel may consist of a large number of middlemen, such as brokers, wholesalers, and retailers. Together with choosing the path that items will take to reach customers, choices must be taken on the scope of distribution coverage. For instance, some businesses have an exclusive distribution model, using just a few carefully chosen middlemen to distribute their goods. In other situations, a business could need to have the broadest distribution coverage feasible and would look for a lot of distribution locations[5].

Defining the degree of customer service: decisions must be made about elements like delivery windows and modes of transportation in addition to choosing distribution networks. A corporation may gain a lot from shorter delivery times while selling its items. On the other side, such a programme often necessitates raising inventory levels, which raises costs. After weighing the costs and advantages, a policy choice must be taken on the required degree of customer service. The terms and conditions of distribution: Included under this area are the distributors' terms of sale, minimum order and inventory requirements, and the choice of credit, payment, and discount terms. There are additional factors to take into account when determining the distribution component of the marketing mix, and in Chapter 4 we go into more depth about channel management.

The scope of distribution, for instance, directly affects territory design and route planning. At this point, it is important to highlight that distribution choices have a substantial effect on sales activities. The context within which sales are negotiated is influenced by the terms and conditions of distribution. The sales force's ability to provide their clients crucial delivery terms is influenced by the management of physical distribution. There is probably no other component of the marketing mix that has such a broad impact on the sales process.

Communications

Although personal selling is one component of a company's overall promotional mix, this last component of the marketing mix has the most direct impact on sales. Advertisement, sales promotion, PR, and sponsorship are further components of this communications sub-mix. They held the opinion that the different sub-elements of communications had hitherto been seen as independent entities. They promoted tying all of these together in order to provide target markets a message that is coherent and in which each component supports other elements of the communications campaign. Integrated marketing communications are what the American Association of Advertising Agencies describes as:

An idea for marketing communications planning that acknowledges the added value of a comprehensive plan that assesses the strategic roles of various communications disciplines and combines them to provide clarity, consistency, and the greatest possible communications impact through the seamless integration of discrete messages. IMC is a marketing communication planning concept that acknowledges the additional value of a comprehensive strategy that assesses the strategic roles of several communication disciplines. . . It integrates them for optimal message impact, clarity, and consistency. The integrated communications mix for selling implies that all new sales promotions, direct marketing initiatives, and advertising campaigns must be adequately communicated to the salesforce. Promotional initiatives have sometimes backfired because sales personnel was not notified. When clients are the first to inform sales workers about a special offer that has been offered via an advertising campaign that they are not fully aware of, it is obviously unacceptable.

All of these supporting components are discussed throughout the book in various situations, and their connections to selling are thoroughly explored. But, it would be helpful to go back to our differentiation between B2C and B2B markets at this point and quickly look at how the application of the marketing mix components varies between the two. Marketing strategies differ in B2C and B2B sectors. We must be cautious when analysing how the marketing mix tools may apply inside each major market group since, as we have seen, there are several varieties of B2C and B2B industries. In light of this, the following lists some of the crucial factors to take into account while using the marketing mix tools in each kind of market.

B2C markets' marketing mix

As was previously established, business-to-consumer (B2C) marketing targets consumers who are making purchases for personal, family, or household requirements. As a generalisation, we would anticipate to discover the following mix components in this kind of environment, even if we find all kinds of varied combinations of the marketing mix depending on an individual company's positioning plan, etc.

Product: In B2C settings, branding, packaging, logos, and design are especially crucial components of the product portion of the mix. The actual product is often standardised. Branding, and brand image in particular, are crucial because they provide customers assurance and make choosing a brand relatively simple. Short product life cycles are common in B2C marketplaces, often as a result of customer boredom or trend influences. In order to maintain client interest, new product creation and innovation are crucial in B2C marketplaces, even if just via repositioning, repackaging, and other strategies.

Promotion: When it comes to the promotional component of the mix, there is likely to be a strong emphasis on non-personal tools of promotion like advertising rather than personal selling. Advertising will typically be directed at the mass market and will again have a tendency to emphasise brand image and persuasive advertising messages rather than in-depth factual messages. Informational or transformative advertising are both possible. Advertising is used to raise awareness in the first instance, while in the second it is hoped that the intended audience would take action. Many commercials blend the two in an effort to enlighten, pique curiosity, and inspire action. Brand and business image are significant, and there is substantial usage of sales marketing tactics.

Price: The weight and significance of pricing in B2C marketing vary greatly depending on the goods and markets, but value for money is likely to be a crucial and deciding factor for customers. In B2C marketing and sales, price haggling between buyers and sellers is probably not employed very often. Tendering is also not generally employed, even if the importance and usage of negotiating will vary depending on the market's culture. So, even for B2C marketing, negotiating or bargaining is the norm in certain cultures.

Location: Distribution in B2C markets will often need to be extensive and will frequently be done via intermediaries, with stores being especially important, of course. In the end, everything relies on the market and the goals of the business.

B2B markets' marketing mix

The B2B market comes in a variety of forms. Even across businesses in the same category, the marketing mix will vary within each of these marketplaces. Nevertheless, the following list illustrates some of the factors and distinctions when using the marketing mix in B2B markets as opposed to B2C markets:

Product: In B2B marketplaces, customers typically base their decisions on the technical features of the products. Items are often customised to meet the needs of each unique client, with a focus on quality assurance, product after-sales, and technical assistance. In B2B markets, the dependability of the product and the scope of the backup service given are essential components of the marketing mix.

Promotion: In B2B markets, the focus on the promotional component of the mix is likely to be considerably greater on personal selling than on advertising, a topic we will return to in more depth in subsequent chapters. Nonetheless, sales promotion is heavily employed in B2B markets, particularly when marketing to distributors and intermediaries, just as it is in consumer markets. In B2B marketing, publicity is another effective promotional technique, particularly when introducing new items. Lastly, since mailing lists for B2B markets tend to be more accurate and the content can be more precisely tuned to meet the demands of specific customers, direct marketing may be a highly powerful promotional strategy.

Pricing is a significant consideration in B2B markets, but it would be incorrect to believe that all B2B clients base their purchasing decisions just on price. No, they don't. In actuality, much as in consumer markets, total value is what matters. But, in B2B markets, pricing will always be a significant component of the marketing mix. In the B2B market, prices are far more likely to be negotiated, and we can see several methods for pricing and, in particular, quoting prices, such as tendering.

Location: While intermediaries are utilised in B2B marketplaces, distribution is often done directly. In B2B markets, the logistics of distribution are especially crucial since delivery speed and, more importantly, dependability, are both essential. With the development of flexible manufacturing and just-in-time production systems in recent years, this focus on delivery dependability has grown.

Sales and Marketing's Relationship

This chapter has covered the nature and functions of selling and sales management, as well as the overall shift towards a marketing-oriented approach. Also, we have discovered that judgements made about the components of a company's marketing mix impact its total

marketing efforts and are in turn affected by sales activities. Thus, complete integration of sales and marketing is crucial. Changes in organisational structure and a new understanding of the nature of selling have often gone hand in hand with the adoption of the marketing idea in many businesses. The organisational charts of a sales- and marketing-oriented corporation, provides examples of the potential organisational consequences of implementing the marketing idea.

The fact that sales are subsequently seen to be a component of the activity of the marketing function is perhaps the most obvious distinction between companies that are pre- and post-marketing oriented. The marketing function assumes a considerably broader coordinating and controlling role throughout the spectrum of firm operations in the marketing-oriented company. Salespeople sometimes misunderstand this aspect of marketing orientation, which may lead to a lot of anger between the two departments. Such anger is often the result of management that is callous and undiplomatic while making the adjustments required to reorient a business. Selling is simply a small portion of a company's overall marketing strategy, which should be managed by the marketing department. Nonetheless, the marketing notion does not mean that sales operations are any less significant or that marketing professionals should occupy the top positions in an organisation.

The impact of the marketing function and the more professional approach to sales, in addition to changes in organisational structure, have transformed the nature and role of this activity. Selling and sales management are now focused on the study of customers' requirements and desires as well as the pro- vision of advantages to meet these needs and wants via the company's overall marketing initiatives. The relationship between marketing and personal selling is summarised, which also identifies the main components of sales management. The personal selling role, like all other components of the marketing mix, must be seen in the context of the entire marketing strategy. The selection of the target market and the pricing strategy are two crucial marketing factors at the product level. The development of a distinct advantage. These two choices have an effect on personal selling.

Choice of Target Market

Because of its connection to target accounts, the definition of a target market has obvious consequences for sales management. Sales management may transform the target market's definition into particular accounts to target after it has been established. Then, Salesforce resources may be used to their full potential. Both B2B and B2C have appropriate target audiences. Also known as target segments.

Differential Benefit

Successful marketing strategies begin with the development of a differentiated advantage, but this must be conveyed to the salesforce and integrated into a sales strategy to guarantee that they can persuade clients of it. There are two typical threats:By continually caving in to client requests for price reductions, the salesperson may weaken differentiating advantage.The characteristics that provide the differential advantage are discussed, but the benefits to the consumer are ignored. Consumer advantages must be explained in ways that have significance for the target audience. This implies, for instance, that benefits like increased productivity may need to be translated into financial savings or increased revenue for financially responsible clients.

Strategic goals have an impact on the personal selling function in a second manner from marketing strategy. The sales goals and approach, are impacted by each of the objectives: build, hold, harvest, and divest. For the optimal allocation of resources and execution in the marketplace, it is crucial to link business or product area strategic goals with functional area plans. As we've seen, selling goals and tactics are determined by marketing strategy choices and must be in line with other marketing mix components. In fact, the marketing plan will decide if a sales force is even necessary or whether another method, like direct mail, may be used to do the selling task more effectively. The goals of the selling function are specified in the objectives.

Typically, objectives are described in terms of the following: the amount of sales; share of the market; financial success; service standards; sales force expenses. The following factors may be taken into consideration while defining the salesforce approach that will be used to accomplish those goals: call volumes; a ratio of calls to prospective versus current customers; discount guidelines; proportion of resources, geared more towards new than old items, geared on selling rather than offering after-sales support, focused on outdoor selling rather than telemarketing, geared at various client groups, enhancing the salesforce's input on the market and customers, enhancing interactions with customers.

Considering the connection between sales and marketing, it's crucial that those working in these roles collaborate well. sales representatives in particular who oversee external relationships must work together internally with their marketing colleagues to establish shared commercial goals and create marketing campaigns that cater to and are easily embraced by trade clients. The supplier's successful marketing to the trade customer, and as a result, the company's overall success in the market, could be jeopardised by any lack of collaboration between sales and marketing.¹⁹ Unfortunately, the sales-marketing relationship, while strongly interdependent, is reported to be weak. Neither especially harmonious nor collaborative. According to research by Dewsnap and Jobber, improved working relationships can arise when senior management actively supports the close collaboration between the two functions and when sales and marketing personnel are placed in close proximity to one another in the organisation. The relationship appears to be characterised by a lack of cohesion, poor coordination, conflict, non-cooperation, distrust, and dissatisfaction.

A positive senior management attitude towards collaboration between the two groups facilitates it and reduces conflict between the two groups, improves communications, and fosters a commitment to organisational learning, according to later research. Collaboration between sales and marketing also positively affects a company's performance. The creation and successful use of integrative devices, such as trade marketing and category management, has also been proven to improve collaboration. Another relevant issue is how crucial it is for the sales team to think that a suggested marketing strategy or activity is acceptable and worthwhile. This is often referred to as "sales buy-in." This is essential since salespeople are in charge of carrying out marketing strategies. According to research, the following factors increase the likelihood of getting sales buy-in:

Objectivity and Logical Persuasion: Marketing presentations should be fact-based and objective. Salespeople's buy-in was likely to suffer if they thought marketing managers were using the plan as a cover to further their own agenda. Instead, marketing managers should

provide evidence to back up their claims and provide a fair, objective analysis of the state of the market.

Sensitivity and Responsiveness to Reality:Marketing staff members should encourage salespeople to share their field experiences, as well as listen to their queries and suggestions, to help them become sensitive to what's occurring in various territories. It is possible to respond to these comments by openly addressing the thoughts and concerns of the salesmen and/or by altering the plans in light of this input. In summary, salesmen prefer conversation than orders.

Participation in the development of the Strategy:Salespeople are more dedicated when they feel that they are a part of the process. It's important to start a conversation so that sales may provide advice on marketing tactics. Salespeople are more likely to put such methods into practise as a result of becoming stakeholders in the process.

Salespeople might be included in strategic initiatives by means of cross-functional teams. Through involvement, marketing is able to get input on their concepts, including the viability and benefits of certain techniques as well as the challenges sales anticipates in putting plans into action.

Positioning for Success:Salespeople need to think that the marketing efforts are positioning them to succeed in the market. Marketing managers' actions must be seen as adding value to the sales force and assisting them in achieving their goals. Salespeople should be questioned by marketing managers on how they can be successful. Salespeople rely on marketing staff to help them accomplish their goals. There is more support for marketing strategies when people think it is occurring[6]–[8].

CONCLUSION

The product life cycle, market segmentation, and targeting, as well as the marketing mix, are a few of the major ideas in marketing that have been described. It has been shown how marketing orientation affects sales operations and how selling plays a part in the marketing program. Due of the importance placed on catering to customers' requirements and desires are focused with further examining the nature of consumer and organizational purchasing behavior.

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CHAPTER 4

A BRIEF DISCUSSION ON SALES STRATEGIES

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ABSTRACT:

A sale is a transaction that involves exchanging products or services for a certain sum of money. To put it another way, a sale is any action that includes giving the buyer possession of a thing or commodity in return for payment. An organization's thorough plan to boost sales performance, innovation, and growth by more effectively entering current markets and increasing share of current customers' wallets is known as a sales strategy.

This chapter covers situational and marketing analysis, market research, analysis of opportunities, threats, and weaknesses, sales forecasting based on market potential and sales data, creation and selection of strategies, and study of opportunities, threats, and weaknesses.

KEYWORDS:

Customers, Market, Product, Sales, Strategies.

INTRODUCTION

Sales activities must be conducted as part of a comprehensive strategic marketing strategy in order to be successful. Only then can we guarantee that our sales efforts support other marketing initiatives rather than compete with them.

As a result, sales tactics and management are given a more comprehensive viewpoint and often include the whole organisation. So, it is already accepted wisdom that only within the context of corporate-wide goals and strategic planning procedures may sales strategies and tactics be developed, implemented, and evaluated. When addressing sales strategies and tactics, it is important to understand the nature, function, and role of strategic market plans as well as where selling fits into them[1]–[3].

The nature of the sales planning process. This procedure is comparable to using a home's central heating system. To ensure that this is accomplished, we must identify the temperature, time, etc., and processes that must be followed. The next step is to put the right processes into place, making sure that the required tools are on hand. At this point, we can start using the system. Next, we must assess the system's performance, paying close attention to the temperature that has been attained. The thermostatic system then reports and makes any necessary temperature adjustments.

The abbreviation MOST may be used to characterise this planning process since it goes from broad to particular and stands for mission, objective, strategy, and tactics. Since every planning circumstance is different, there is no one approach to create the optimal marketing strategy, and the procedure is also not straightforward in reality. Conceptually, the procedure is simple and consists of a sequence of reasonable phases. Three layers make up the hierarchy that represents the marketing strategy:

Objectives: Where does the company want to go? What does the company want to do?

How will it get there, according to its strategies?

Tactics: Which exact course of action and specific actions does the firm aim to take?

Commercial Definition

Determining the overarching function or objective of the organisation should be carefully considered before developing any marketing strategies. The simplest way to deal with this problem is for top management to ask and respond to the question, "What business are we in? Instead of focusing on the goods or services that are produced, a business's function should be defined in terms of the requirements of its customers that are being met. For instance, a microcomputer maker would describe their line of work as quick problem-solving. In the vehicle sector, one brand, like Volvo, specialises on family transportation, while another, like BMW, offers rapid transportation as well as prestige. Both businesses do more than simply build automobiles[4], [5]. Business definition is a crucial procedure. It not only ensures that a business considers the goals and requirements of its clients while planning, but it also acts as a concentrating device for the subsequent, more in-depth considerations. This and branding go hand in hand.

Situational Analysis and Marketing Analysis

While the specifics of this stage in creating the marketing strategy may vary from firm to company, it often includes an analysis of the marketing as well as strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats. Also, it will cover PEST elements that are prevalent in the industry.

Market Research

Examples of the types of information and analysis needed for internal audits include:

1. The market's size and expansion in recent years. This analysis must be performed for the multi-product firm overall, by product/market, and by geographic region.
2. Evaluation of consumer demands, attitudes, and trends in shopping patterns.
3. Present marketing strategy.
4. Competition study, comprising assessments of present strategy, performance, and market share, as well as their strengths and shortcomings and forecasts for future behaviour.
5. Potential new entrants should be evaluated in addition to the analysis of the current competitors.

The external audit includes an examination of major macro-environmental changes in the political, economic, sociocultural, and technological spheres that may have an impact on the company's goods in the future. With the addition of legal aspects, this initial description was first expanded to SLEPT, then to PESTLE, then to STEEPLE, and now with the addition of ecological factors.

Both internal and external audits are planned, thorough examinations of the previously mentioned internal and external components. They may be executed by marketing staff members or those from other departments, but most significantly, senior management must support them since they are crucial to the company's marketing and corporate planning ambitions.

DISCUSSION

Study of Opportunities, Threats and Weaknesses

Here, management must conduct an honest and unbiased assessment of the company's internal strengths and weaknesses in light of prospective external opportunities and threats. Possibilities for a company's future and risks to it are mostly caused by external variables, especially trends and changes in the external elements formerly referred to as the macro-environment, such as political, economic, socio-cultural, and technical aspects. They could also be related to what rival businesses are doing. It is crucial to understand that identifying opportunities and threats, as well as evaluating strengths and weaknesses, must be done at the same time. An "apparent" strength, like a reputation for excellence, only transforms into a true strength when it can be used to your advantage in the marketplace [6], [7]. A SWOT analysis is only a few bullet points under each area, not a long list of claims. As marketing plans are developed from the SWOT, it should be brief and straightforward. The following items might be included in a quick SWOT analysis of the health and beauty firm Boots:

Strengths: The business has a solid reputation in the national market, it has a long history of selling health and beauty items, and its high street sites make it convenient for both current and new consumers to reach the business. The business has a solid track record as a seller of prescription drugs. It has reputed pharmacists, and 6 Its store floor staff members have received training. One of the UK market's most generous loyalty programmes is offered by the 7 Boots Card.

Opportunities: The over-the-counter drug and health supplement industries are expanding, and consumers are becoming more likely to self-medicate. Moreover, pharmacists working in the shops may provide guidance on conditions like the flu or even allergic responses. In certain places, speaking with a chemist at Boots is quicker and more convenient than scheduling a doctor's appointment or going to the hospital.

Weaknesses: Not every employee has the same degree of expertise and training, inconsistent service may sometimes lead to customer discontent, and three, sometimes workers are unable to completely understand the large range of goods and services the firm provides. Stores are not aggressively promoting registration for the Boots Card.

Threats: Also, supermarkets provide over-the-counter medications including headache pills and various vitamins. Several of Boots' items are more expensive when purchased from less expensive retail locations. Online shopping makes many of its more pricey beauty goods more affordable.

Objectives Statement

The organisation may now specify the aims and goals it wants to attain based on the previous processes. The choice of marketing strategies and methods is then made in accordance with these goals.

A business may have numerous goals. Despite the fact that business and marketing goals often complement one another, they may sometimes be the same. It should be noted that there are several kinds of goals, including corporate and financial ones. Objectives may also be divisional or at the departmental level. Nonetheless, each goal needs a different approach, regardless of the style or format.

There are several areas where targets are necessary, including productivity and financial goals. Marketing goals are crucial in a business that is driven by the market because they show how the firm can meet customers' demands. Marketing strategies come first in the entire corporate planning process of a firm that is driven by the market. The goals of other departments must therefore align with the goals of marketing. Along with this aspect of consistency, goals should be articulated clearly, ideally quantitatively, and with a timeline for when they are expected to be accomplished. The criteria for such goals are SMART, or specific, measurable, achievable, realistic, and time-related.

Planning literature often experiences some uncertainty due to this duration of the scheduled actions. Short-term, intermediate-term, and long-term marketing strategies are often separated into these categories. There is no widely acknowledged definition of what makes the ideal time horizon for any of these categories, which causes misunderstanding. What one organisation may see as long-term planning may be viewed as intermediate planning in another. The many planning categories are said to be conceptually similar yet obviously distinct in their specifics. Additionally, the many planning categories are ultimately interconnected since completing intermediate and short-term goals comes before long-term goals. Setting targets requires the consideration of the following factors:

Make sure goals are results-focused. As marketing activity's impacts are fundamentally quantifiable, sales and marketing strategies should make it possible to measure marketing success. Create metrics to gauge success in relation to goals and ROI. If at all feasible, keep each objective's topic consistent. Vague goals, such as "decrease customer defections by 20% via best-in-class service," are unacceptable. There are at least two goals, and each one has to be given a numerical value. Make sure the resources are adequate.

Best practise: Use test and roll-out strategies to address typical marketing issues. Since testing makes it possible to realistically predict roll-out expenses, this should guarantee that campaign operating costs are reasonable. Make sure marketing goals are fundamental to company objectives. If corporate objectives diverge from marketing objectives, there will be a significant misalignment. The yearly marketing plan is one of a company's most crucial documents, and the sales manager is crucial to its creation. The rest of this chapter talks about planning in relation to creating this yearly report.

The evaluation of the market and sales potential, followed by the creation of a thorough sales forecast, is a crucial step in the formulation of marketing programmes. Market potential is the highest volume of sales a certain industry might possibly achieve in a given time frame. Sales potential is the largest share of the market that a business may reasonably expect to capture under ideal circumstances. The last component of the sales forecast is the percentage of sales potential that the business anticipates achieving. The creation of business strategies requires careful consideration of the sales estimate. The sales prediction will be used in planning activities by other departments, such as manufacturing, buying, and human resource management, in addition to having a direct impact on the marketing and sales operations. Hence, sales forecasting is a must for effective planning and is covered in full in Chapter 16.

Creating and Choosing Tactics

After defining marketing goals and evaluating market potential, consideration should be paid to developing and choosing tactics. In general, strategies refer to the collection of methods

the business will use to accomplish its goals. The fact that there are often several approaches to accomplish each goal adds complexity to this phase in the process. One strategy must be used for each aim, even if other methods may be examined. This leads to the phrase "one approach per objective." For instance, raising pricing, sales volume at the corporate level, or industry sales may all result in an increase of 10% in sales income. It is wise, albeit time-consuming, to produce as many alternative strategies as you can at this point. Each of these approaches may then be further assessed in light of the market prospects already mentioned as well as their specific implications for resources. Ultimately, it's important to weigh each approach against the prospect of counterstrategies from rivals[8]. The example that follows, which affects MCRL, one of PR Artistry's customers, was given. By the use of what the corporation refers to as GOSPA, it gives an explanation of how the planning process is carried out.

Strategies as examples

We start by assuming that the goal is to maximise profit from transactions with loyal consumers.

Strategy 1: Targeting

Targeting is the marketing professional's counterpart of segmentation. Any or all of the following factors may be used in a segmentation/targeting strategy: value, customer preference, and life stage. It is crucial to stress the following points at this point: segments are not mutually exclusive; segments are not stable; and segments must have the potential to be financially successful for a corporation to target them. As a result, a customer may belong to many segments at once or to various segments at different times. The segment's prospective buying power must be high enough to make extra efforts to reach or appeal to it worthwhile.

Strategy 2: Pricing

The following pricing techniques may be used in accordance with the traditional marketer's approach: Make tactical short-term price cuts; set price premiums; and raise perceived quality. As a result, the traditional strategy of improving a brand's perceived quality in order to increase its ability to command a bigger selling margin may be used. A discount is also more valuable if the value of the item being discounted is known. Of fact, discounting is a common practise in all marketing. Consumer goods marketplaces that move quickly are often influenced by retailer or competitor forces. Tactical cuts are often seen as defensive.

Strategy 3: Maintaining clients

Focus is progressively moving away from the profitability of individual products and towards the profitability of client relationships since modern technology allows suppliers to monitor the development of a potential customer or inquirer. Yet, the cost of acquisition and the losses of customers or potential customers at certain critical junctures in the relationship will decide the customer profitability. The following might be used to describe key points in the customer relationship: inquiry, conversion to customer, repeat purchase, up-sell, threatened dormancy, and recovery.

The likelihood of loss often decreases with the course of a partnership. In consumer markets, the length of a connection often surpasses the pace of spending when calculating the relationship's lifetime worth. Here, a customer data base will not only make it easier to

measure this connection, but also make it easier to take remedial action. As a result, an offer might be initiated to stop a client from lapse or becoming inactive. When a buyer and a seller's connection is permanently broken, lapse occurs. In order to recover the client, restart the connection, and avoid relationship lapse, more offers may be sent if the client doesn't reply and eventually becomes inactive. A plan for customer development and retention may also exist, which may provide a way to keep consumers. There could be a development plan based on sales promotion and a retention strategy focused on customer service[9]–[11].

A decision must be made on the broad marketing strategy that the business believes would be most successful in accomplishing goals from this list of various tactics. This has to be turned into a strategy statement, which needs to be discussed and approved by all managers who will have an impact on its likelihood of success or failure. Again, each company will have a different strategy statement with different specifics, but as an example, a strategy statement may include the following topics:

1. A precise description of the marketing goals.
2. A discussion of the selection of tactics used to accomplish these goals.
3. An overview of the major effects of the chosen tactics on the following crucial marketing domains: target market, positioning, marketing mix, and marketing research.

At this point, the strategy statement need to provide a brief and unambiguous explanation of the main marketing initiatives of the organisation. A thorough plan of action may be created after this has been discussed and approved. The Boston Matrix and the GE/McKinsey Matrix are two of the numerous methods available for creating strategic choices, and they are also the most well-known. It is beyond the scope of this book to describe and use such techniques, which is more suited for works on corporate strategy and strategic marketing planning. Yet in this situation, analysis based on the idea of the product life cycle and the dissemination of innovations is suitable. An important technique for developing strategies is SWOT analysis. Many steps are required:

1. Assess the impact of environmental issues on the business.
2. Provide a prognosis for the future.
3. Think about the company's strengths and shortcomings in regard to all of its major business sectors.
4. Create strategic alternatives.

CONCLUSION

There is now a framework for developing sales plans and methods. As we've seen, they are created and run inside a marketing planning framework. The sales department, which offers vital information on customers, markets, rivals, sales predictions, and budgets, provides a significant contribution to the creation of marketing strategy. In turn, choices made during the marketing planning stage have a direct impact on selling efforts. Databases' growing importance should not be overlooked in the meantime.

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CHAPTER 5

MARKETING PLAN'S IMPACT ON SALES ACTIVITIES

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ABSTRACT:

A growth in the company's sales and marketing is caused by a well-defined marketing plan. The amount of income earned is directly impacted by this since the more individuals you reach out to, the more they will reach out to your company or brand. Of course, a company's marketing efforts directly impact the amount of revenue it brings in. Developing the marketing strategy, planning a budget for resource allocation The role of sales in the marketing plan, the contribution of the sales function to an analysis of the current situation of the market, This chapter covers forecasting and estimating sales, establishing and selecting strategies, setting budgets, carrying them out, and monitoring them.

KEYWORDS:

Advertising, Marketing, Product, Sale, Strategy.

INTRODUCTION

SWOT analysis offers potential strategic options: Here are two strategic options for the sports car manufacturer indicated as an example. Increase production levels via automation to sell to additional European nations using the already powerful, well-established brands. Increase the starting price. The TOWS matrix is an application of the SWOT matrix that, in essence, takes SWOT matrix components and combines them to create marketing strategies. Weihrich made the first suggestion in 1982[1].

Putting together the Marketing Strategy

The strategy statement created in the preceding section serves as the basis for determining the comprehensive programme needed to carry out these strategies. The selection of the marketing mix is the first stage in the creation of this campaign. Regarding product policy, price, advertising, and distribution, certain choices must be taken. Making ensuring the different components of the marketing mix are connected requires caution. This portion of the planning document is unavoidably the longest since at this point in the planning process, what had previously been an outline plan for guiding decision-making becomes a thorough operational plan. This section of the strategy will serve as the foundation for organising, carrying out, and evaluating the company's daily marketing strategies and techniques.

Budgeting for Resource Allocation

The next stage is to put up a budget for each of the marketing mix parts after making specific judgements about them. Managers from the various functional areas must compete for these few resources in the majority of organisations due to restricted resources. There will probably be a lot of debate amongst individuals in charge of each marketing mix component. In addition, due to financial and other resource limitations, it may be discovered that the original marketing goals, strategies, and detailed plans for the marketing programme to accomplish

the predicted level of sales are unachievable. In this situation, it could be necessary to alter the initial strategy. It should be emphasised that at this point, both expenses and revenues may be estimated, and a predicted profit and loss statement can be created.

Implementation: The process up until this point should have produced a thorough document outlining what needs to be done, when it needs to be done, who is accountable, the expected costs and revenues, as well as agreed-upon timelines for the different actions in the plan. Details of the marketing strategy should be distributed to all parties after it has been approved. This communication is a crucial and sometimes overlooked part of marketing strategy. Many businesses have complex marketing strategies that are never put into action because important stakeholders were not notified or did not approve the planned strategy.

Control: The plan should also include a description of the control measures that will be used. This should include information on the main goals and important metrics for gauging how well the goals were attained, allowing for changes and modifications to be made as the plan develops. The marketing plan's control section should outline what will be measured, how it will be measured, and what data will be needed to measure it. Details on the course of action to be followed in response to deviations from the plan may also be included. This contingency planning is an essential component of any planning process because it acknowledges the necessity for plans to be adaptable to any unanticipated or unexpected developments in the market.

The position of sales in the Marketing Strategy

We have looked at the creation of marketing plans. We now examine the nature of this role, in particular the contribution the sales function makes to the creation of the marketing strategy and how the marketing plan affects the sales function in and of itself. The sales function has a significant role to play in this process.

Sales Function's Contribution

Alternative courses of action must be discovered throughout the planning process, and decisions must be made on which of these possibilities is the most suitable. Such contingency planning methods include evaluating options and making decisions based on them, which calls for precise and timely information. The supply of such information is a crucial part of the sales function's involvement in the planning process. If we look at some of the planning phases when the sales department might contribute significantly, this becomes more apparent: Analysis of the existing market environment, estimation of sales potential, selection of tactics, creation of a budget, and execution and management of those plans.

Analysis of the state of the Market Today

The sales department is in a unique position to contribute to the analysis of the present market scenario confronting the organisation because of its close closeness to the marketplace. Sales is often in a position to help with the study of consumer demands and trends in buying behaviour. The sales manager may be an invaluable resource for information on rival companies and their position in the industry. As they are best-equipped to deliver current, correct information based on client feedback via the salesforce, sales managers' informative function should not be disregarded. Sales executives in particular may provide an

organisation useful information on the shifting requirements and desires of the clients because of the ongoing contact they have with them.

Estimating Prospective Sales and Projecting Sales

The creation of sales predictions to serve as the foundation for business planning is a key duty of the sales manager, as we can see in Chapter 16. The sales manager's short-, medium-, and long-term projections serve as the foundation for allocating corporate resources in order to accomplish projected sales.

Creating and Choosing Tactics

The sales manager should be contacted before any judgements concerning acceptable marketing tactics are made, even if marketing management is ultimately responsible for making these choices. Once again, the sales department is in the best position to evaluate the suitability of any recommended techniques. Management, and the sales manager in particular, should aggressively encourage sales people to remark on whether company marketing methods are acceptable, however in fact this is not always the case. The field sales force is at the forefront of tactical marketing and can predict target markets' reactions to firm marketing campaigns more accurately. The fact that there are front-line employees who profit from having the greatest interaction with clients should not be disregarded, as they have the power to counsel and persuade them z.

Budgeting, Carrying Out, and Controlling

A sales prediction must be created before specific marketing strategies can be created. The sales budget is likewise created using the sales prediction. The sales manager must decide what level of spending will be necessary to reach the expected level of sales based on the sales estimate. The most crucial thing to keep in mind regarding this budget is that it serves as the foundation for the whole company's budgeting process. This budget will have an impact on not just the actions of the sales department but also on production, human resource management, finance, and research and development. Due to the importance of sales budgets, Chapter 16 goes into great length about them. It is sufficient to emphasise at this point that the sales manager must provide an overview of the crucial sales activities necessary to reach the sales forecast, together with an estimate of their expenses, when creating the sales budget. Although each company may have a somewhat different yearly sales budget, it often includes information on salary, direct selling costs, administrative expenditures, commissions, and bonuses. The sales manager is in charge of enforcing and monitoring the department's sales budget once it has been agreed upon. Information on historical performance versus budget, especially any discrepancies between actual and planned outcomes, is a crucial input for creating future plans. The sales manager should analyse and understand such "budget variations," both favourable and unfavourable, as a contribution to the planning process. Budget variations should be explained, together with any corrective measures that were implemented and their results[2].

DISCUSSION

Marketing plan's impact on sales activities: techniques and approaches. Each planning process is only useful inasmuch as it impacts behaviour. The company's tactical and strategic actions are influenced by an efficient marketing planning system. The Schultz, Tannenbaum,

and Lauterborn inside-out planning paradigm is preferred by the traditional marketing strategy. The reverse outside-in planning technique, however, is well-liked by many organisations. An outside-in planning process that starts with calculating the cost per sale to existing customers, moves on to lapsed customers and database prospects, and concludes with new customers. The sales objective in each situation is determined by the cost-per-sale estimates. A strategy for each discrete segment is then applied after this procedure. For instance, a product may not be sold to each section at the same price. Likewise, each part will need a distinct style of communication. The segment approach and the messages' substance will ideally be compared against plausible alternatives. The remaining population in each section will subsequently be introduced to the testing results' most effective alternatives.

The inside-out planning paradigm is much less secure than the customer-oriented planning model, while being financially motivated and maybe being perceived to be tightly connected with the organization's goals, competencies, and resources. Making choices about the marketing strategy or marketing mix may allow for the clearest display of this impact. Planning choices made for the marketing mix's promotional component have the most direct impact on sales tactics. Here, we'll quickly go over the idea of a "mix" of promotional tools, highlighting the factors to take into account when choosing an acceptable mix and how those factors may affect sales tactics. The significance and often misunderstanding of the connection between selling and advertising is highlighted and examined. As a quick look at sales methods serves as the conclusion to this section[3]–[5].

Model for inside-out planning

The Blend of Marketing

Earlier in this chapter, we made the suggestion that creating a marketing programme, with the identification of the marketing mix (product, pricing, distribution, and promotion) as its most crucial stage, is a crucial component of marketing planning. In this mix's promotion component, selling is only one component. The promotional mix of a corporation is often mentioned. There are four main components to this traditional promotional or advertising mix: advertising, promotional sales, media/public relations, Personal sales. All four of the conventional factors may typically contribute to corporate sales, but where to put the focus must be decided. During the planning stage, this choice is chosen. Also, it's critical that the promotional mix's components function together to meet business goals. Coordination of promotional efforts is a key management planning responsibility.

Where to put the focus in the promotional mix depends on a number of planning considerations. In certain businesses, the sales force is prioritised, with almost the entire promotional budget going into this component of the mix. Some believe that sales promotion or advertising is much more effective and efficient than personal selling. The degree to which the different promotional tools may be used in place of one another is perhaps their most remarkable feature. It is challenging to be precise when designing the promotional mix inside a certain firm since businesses within the same sector vary significantly in where they put the focus on promotions. These are some general guidelines for the main significant deciding elements[6], [7].

Business-to-business (B2B) and business-to-consumer (B2C) marketing represent two of the main market-type differences. As we have seen, while marketing in each of these areas, the

parts of the marketing mix are often used differently. For instance, we noticed that marketing to consumers usually places more emphasis on advertising and sales promotion, but marketing to businesses places more emphasis on personal selling. One of the main causes of variances between B2B and B2C marketing is due to variations in corporate and consumer buyer behaviour processes. The marketing of high-demand consumer items and the marketing of capital goods to industry often extremely complex and expensive stand in stark contrast. Notwithstanding this, it would be incorrect to assume that marketing of industrial items does not include the use of advertising. In fact, salespeople often underestimate the value of advertising and consider it to be a waste of resources for the organisation. Later in this chapter, we'll talk about the connection between advertising and sales. The "new" promotional mix increasingly incorporates e-commerce options, as seen by advancements in this area and the volume of businesses using this capability. Moreover, freephone services make it simpler and cheaper for prospective customers to communicate. The following two instances demonstrate these more modern concerns. The steps that a potential buyer goes through before reaching a purchasing choice are indicated to be relevant for both industrial and consumer items. While there are many ways to conceptualise this process, it basically entails the prospective customer going from not knowing anything about a firm and/or its goods to being persuaded that those items or services are the best suitable for their requirements. Figure 1 illustrates this process's sequential nature.

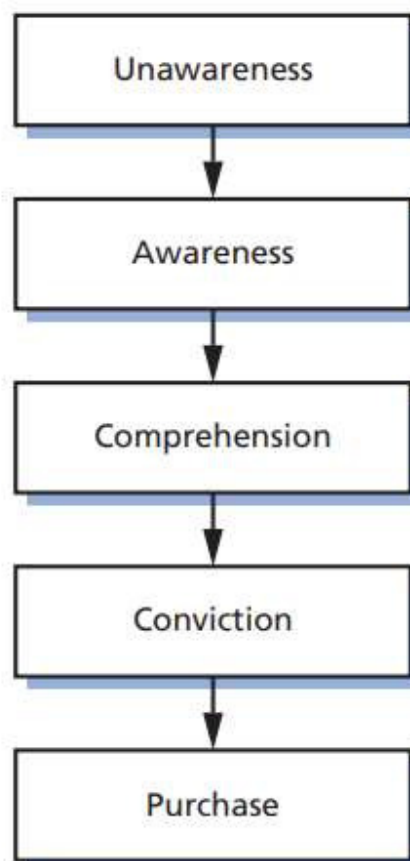


Figure 1: Illustrate Stages in the buying process.

Advertising and publicity are more successful for a given budget when used to move prospective customers from ignorance to understanding in the early stages. During the

decision-making and purchasing phases, personal selling is more cost-effective than other types of promotional activities. This is not to imply that "cold calling" is not a significant area of sales activity, but as we will see later, cold calling is far more successful if the client is already familiar with the goods of the firm. Direct selling to the general population is often linked with "cold calling" or "cold canvassing." Such salespeople often follow a pre-written sales script, which has given birth to the phrase "canned selling" since it, in a sense, comes out of a tin can. When a salesman encounters a challenge, they recall the script's logical sequence of questions and strategies for getting beyond it. The screenplay includes a variety of strategies, including opening and closing methods for sales interviews. Making the first contact is the main challenge, and training for cold calling or canvassing indicates that first call should be about gathering information and scheduling the next meeting. When an order is asked too soon and the response is "No," it is then challenging to get the consumer to alter their mind. By doing this, the groundwork is being established for developing confidence and forging an alliance. It is preferable to request the order when the salesman has determined that a "Yes" response is more likely to occur.

The Tack School of Sales Training was one of the first organizations in the United States to spread these strategies following World War II, and the strategy offers helpful guidance on issues like: the significance of correctly pronouncing the person's name; Use open-ended inquiries to engage potential customers. Ask qualifying questions before you go into your sales presentation. Don't ask for information that isn't relevant. Avoid appearing too eager since it might come off as desperate. Confirm meetings in writing. Cold canvassing is often seen unfavorably, and it sometimes receives bad press. Many television shows have exposed instances when salespeople have used high-pressure tactics on unwary clients. Pull vs push tactics. The degree to which a firm chooses to focus its efforts in terms of its channels of distribution is one of the key factors in the choosing of promotional mix. Maybe the easiest way to show this is to compare a push approach to a pull strategy [8], [9].

CONCLUSION

The choices made while developing a company's marketing strategy or marketing mix, focusing in particular on the communications mix. It has been shown that factors including the kind of market for the goods, the phases in the purchasing process, push vs pull techniques, and the stage in the product life cycle all affect promotional and subsequently sales strategies.

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CHAPTER 6

COORDINATING MARKETING INITIATIVES: THE CONNECTION BETWEEN ADVERTISING AND SALES

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ABSTRACT:

Organisations seeking to maximise the effects of their advertising and sales activities must coordinate their marketing endeavours. This abstract investigates the relationship between marketing and sales, highlighting the significance of successfully integrating these two crucial elements of a company's marketing strategy. The abstract opens by emphasising the core function of advertising in raising consumer interest, building brand recognition, and marketing goods or services. It highlights the role of advertising as a magnet that draws prospective consumers and directs them into the sales funnel. However, the abstract recognises that without a coordinated sales process, advertising by itself cannot ensure sales success. The abstract goes on to discuss the vital cooperation needed between the sales and advertising teams to maximise performance. It emphasises the value of interaction and cooperation as well as the need of exchanging information, analysis, and feedback between these two divisions. Companies may improve consumer targeting, message consistency, and overall customer experience by combining their advertising and sales activities, which will eventually boost conversion rates and revenue.

KEYWORDS:

Advertising, Company, Marketing, Product, Sales.

INTRODUCTION

Producing for sales and profits is the foundation of every commercial operation. A company has to sell enough of its goods to pay operational expenses and generate a profit that is both acceptable and sustainable. For many businesses, a sales estimate serves as the basis for budgeting or profit. This is the case because, in the majority of circumstances, it must be decided before production units can be defined, and production units, in turn, influence material procurement. The most challenging role for many corporate leaders, however, is making sales decisions. This is due to the fact that because prospective consumers' expectations are determined by uncontrolled elements outside of a business, it is difficult to foresee, estimate, or assess them accurately. Given the significance of sales for company survival and the link between customers and sales, it is advisable for businesses to participate in campaigns that might affect consumers' decisions to buy their goods. Advertising and brand management are important in this situation. One of the 4ps in the marketing mix product, price, location, and promotion advertising is a subset of promotion mix. Advertising plays a significant role in raising customer awareness of a product and preparing their minds to make a purchase choice as part of a promotional plan.

"Advertising is a type of communication via mass media about products, services, or ideas paid for by a recognised sponsor," according to the Advertising Practitioner Council of

Nigeria (APCON). It may be accurate to classify advertising as a type of communication as communication involves the transmission of an idea, attitude, information, emotion, and other things from one person to another via a medium. This is due to the fact that advertising uses a channel to spread persuading messages about the goods, services, or concepts. Without a doubt, this is comparable to the communication process in which a source transmits a message to a receiver over a channel in exchange for feedback. By conveying to a group non-personal, oral or visual sponsored messages about a product, service, or concept, advertising as "any actions that include doing so." Advertising is impersonal since it is aimed at large audiences. Advertising is often sponsored by businesses to persuade the public that their goods would be beneficial to them. Several producers work to increase demand for their goods and services in the Nigerian economy. They are not content to only make their goods and depend on the possibility that customers would learn about them via the impersonal interactions of the market.

Consumers won't necessarily go to great lengths to learn about a product's existence, value, gratifying attributes, and where to get it, it is thought, if a better product is made. Advertising provides details that make it easier for the seller to do their job, aids customers in making quick decisions, and informs them of the existence of a product, the price at which it is being sold, and the location (where it is available), allowing them to save time, effort, and money when trying to find the product. Moreover, it promotes or generates inquiries, introduces a new product, suggests new applications for current goods, reminds customers of existing items and their appealing attributes, and enhances the company image, to name a few. Increased sales and profit are anticipated as a consequence of these's efficacy.

Profit may be defined as the difference between total revenue and total cost. Each organization's ability to turn a profit depends on a variety of variables. Prudence involves pursuing organisational goals and objectives tenaciously and persistently. Maximizing owners' wealth in a setting that openly embraces social responsibility is one of these objectives[1]–[3]. A push strategy is one where the main goal of marketing activity is to move the product through the distribution channel. The goal is to make sure that the target product is stocked by both wholesalers and retailers. The theory is that if channel members can be persuaded to carry a product, they will then actively participate in making sure that your product is promoted to the ultimate consumer. In general, a push approach involves placing a lot more emphasis in the promotional mix on trade marketing and personal selling.

A pull approach places a lot greater emphasis on getting the product in front of the customer and generating interest in it. The core of this strategy is founded on the idea that if enough consumer interest can be produced in a product, end customers would ask merchants for the goods, resulting in the creation of demand. Wholesalers will then get in touch with the manufacturer after being asked by retailers for the goods. By generating customer demand via techniques like forceful advertising, the product is 'pushed' through the channel in this manner. There is evidence that suggests the relative effectiveness of various promotional tactics varies over the various phases of this cycle. In general, sales promotion and advertising are more successful throughout the life-introduction cycle's and expansion phases, however it's been argued that as the market ages and finally collapses, personal selling must become more important.

While reviewing the elements that influence tool selection, it could have seemed as if some of these tools were mutually incompatible. For instance, one might decide to focus on either personal selling or advertising. That is not the situation. Personal selling is one of several promotional tactics, but their use should be coordinated and complimentary. This simple point may not need to be emphasised if this complimentary relationship's frequent misunderstanding didn't exist. The link between advertising and selling is the best example of this misconception. Unfortunately, a lot of sales managers and their teams think that investing in advertising is a waste of money. They contend that a client almost never buys anything just because it is promoted, especially if the buyer is an industrial consumer. The money "wasted" on advertising would thus be better invested on the salesforce, where it would have a direct and immediate impact. Evidence is emerging that refutes the concept that spending on advertising in industrial sectors is unnecessary. In these markets, advertising may serve a variety of purposes, including:

Corporate advertising may aid in improving a company's and its goods' reputation. Advertising is very good at raising awareness among potential customers. It is considerably more difficult to sell to a potential customer who is unfamiliar with the brand or product than it is for a salesperson who can capitalise on early recognition. By taking on part of the responsibility of outlining new product characteristics and increasing understanding, advertising may help the sales representative in promoting new items. Return coupon advertising may be utilised to generate new leads for the salesforce. Overall, the lowering of total selling expenses is by far the biggest advantage of advertising in industrial markets, as opposed to its direct impact on sales income. With enough frequency, the evidence suggests that this decrease in selling costs to clients exposed to advertising may reach 30%. Conversely, those that choose not to promote could suffer. Selling to clients who have been exposed to competition advertising may result in a 40% cost increase.

Branding and brand image are crucial when it comes to the marketing of consumer products. Transformational and informative advertising is often regarded as the most successful kind of advertising. Yet, by convincing stockists to give business goods greater shelf space and convincing new dealers to carry them, personal selling and a well-trained sales team may considerably expand market penetration. To accomplish business goals, sales and advertising should always be synchronised. It's critical that sales staff be aware of firm advertising initiatives. This advertising should be used in sales, with the sales presentation reinforcing the advertising idea [4]–[6].

DISCUSSION

A variety of elements play a role in determining how to put up sales tactics. According to some theories, this factor has the most direct impact on deciding how much weight should be placed on sales initiatives in a company's overall marketing plan. The marketing and sales goals listed in the marketing strategy also have an impact on sales methods. As an example, the sales manager may need to make sure that sales in the next year rise by 10% in order to achieve a marketing aim of increased market share. The planning document should also include the method or plan of action for achieving this goal. So, following consultation and agreement with the appropriate staff, sales objectives and strategies also result directly from the planning process [7]–[9].

Nevertheless, not all experts concur with this viewpoint. Shaw disagrees, saying that marketers should quit their fixation with liking their customers since it has diverted attention from the fundamentals of selling and measuring the causes of sales success. Nonetheless, the fields of customer relationship management and marketing have expanded and have become more closely related to sales. After the adoption of these strategic directives, the planning process must include a more specific set of tasks. The sales manager must decide on the precise strategies needed to accomplish sales objectives.

The daily operations of the sales department in achieving marketing and sales goals are referred to as tactics. Moreover, tactics include the steps that must be performed in reaction to brief, unforeseen occurrences in the marketplace, such as a targeted rival campaign. Figure 1 depicts the connection between goals, strategies, and tactics. The deployment of salespersonnel, territory design, and planning, for example, may be seen as a tactical part of sales. Tactical choices constitute the "fine tuning" of sales operations and comprise numerous decision areas described in more detail elsewhere. Similar to how incentive system design should be a component of a tactical strategy, sales objectives should be achieved within the framework of sales tactics.

The amount of autonomy given to salespeople in carrying out their duties is a crucial tactical choice that sales managers should make. For instance, in a tightly regulated system, salespeople have little to no latitude to deviate from centrally prescribed guidelines when it comes to choices like price, selling procedures and techniques, and call scheduling. Salespeople are allowed considerable latitude in a loosely regulated system to negotiate rates, customise their approach to selling to various consumers, and manage their own call schedule. The significance of tactics should not be understated; without the right tactics, even the best-formed concepts fall short. We briefly explore brand/supplier loyalty as an example of the use and significance of strategies in sales since it is a purchase factor that many businesses find to be quite important.

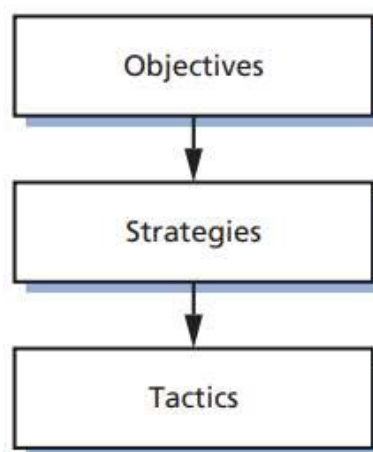


Figure 1: The relationship between objectives, strategies and tactics

Brand/Supplier Adherence

If we look at how people buy goods and services over time, we typically discover that their purchasing patterns show that they often acquire the same thing under a different brand or, in

the case of industrial goods, from a certain supplier. They are considered low-involvement items since they are routine purchases.

There is no denying the existence of brand/supplier loyalty. Also, fostering this kind of client loyalty often makes up a sizeable portion of tactical marketing and sales efforts since it is a big market advantage for a firm. Such a development of client loyalty completes conventional brand-building strategies by favouring a longer-term approach. Moreover, as Martin emphasises, "the customer-brand connection may be considered as an essential component of relationship marketing," since it "helps protect businesses from competition." Furthermore, while Reichheld and Schefter support this theory by asserting that "a large group of customers are influenced primarily by brand" and that these customers "are looking for stable long-term relationships," Curtis sums up that "customers need to feel that they are part of a brand's crusade" succinctly. This indicates that consumers are becoming more and more interested in feeling connected to a brand. This is referred to as belonging to a brand. Brand loyalty is a seemingly straightforward concept that may lead to some misunderstanding, therefore it is vital to define it explicitly before evaluating the role that sales methods might play in this process of fostering brand loyalty.

Let's go back to the previously shown ordering sequence. The occurrence of such a variety of purchases for a client does not, by itself, provide proof that this customer is brand loyal, despite the fact that we have argued that such a sequence is connected with a brand-loyal customer. There are several reasons why this buying behaviour could exist. One such argument is that this consumer shops mostly at one specific retail store, and this specific store only carries brand X of this product, indicating that the customer is loyal to the business rather than the brand. Another argument is that this client doesn't give much thought to the specific brand or provider; rather than being intentionally brand loyal, they just automatically buy this brand and can't be bothered to switch. This is an example of minimal engagement. In the second case, it is accurate to state that the buyer must be at least somewhat happy with the brand before making repeated purchases. The client would then decide to switch if this was not the case or if they were not happy. The reality is that this is not genuine brand devotion. Customers will sometimes choose a product based only on pricing. If a less expensive option becomes available, they could switch.

Real brand or supplier loyalty occurs when consumers consciously choose to focus their purchases on one brand because they believe it to be better to other options. There might be many causes or foundations for this sense of superiority. Customers use Ecover cleaning supplies because they are thought to be more ecologically friendly and have been shown to be so. We explore motivations, beliefs, and attitudes as we examine potential causes of brand or supplier loyalty. As the idea of brand or supplier loyalty is complex, caution should be given while analysing the sometimes contradictory data for its causes. Nonetheless, there are certain signs that suggest a salesperson might be crucial in encouraging consumer loyalty to a brand or provider. One explanation for this is that, according to learning theory, humans have a propensity to repeat enjoyable experiences and to steer clear of unpleasant ones. Face-to-face interactions with sales employees are among the most potent and enduring impressions that may be a source of joy or pain in purchase activities. Loyalty to a brand or supplier may be considerably increased by salespeople's positive attitudes and behaviours towards their clients.

A well-executed advertising strategy has the ability to raise consumer awareness of a company's goods or brands in the market in which it competes, unless otherwise stated. As a result, the marketed brands or goods get a larger market share. *Ceteris paribus*, a rise in turnover will result from this increased market share.

Profit after tax should grow under a stable tax system, and under well managed advertising, shareholders' profits should also rise. Advertising is generally used to tell prospective customers of the following:

- (1) The availability of items or services;
- (2) The time of year they are available;
- (3) Your location; and
- (4) Any unique features of your product.

The goal of advertising is to provide marketers access to communication methods including advertising, public relations, and sales promotion. One distinctive aspect of communication is that the intended audience or target group must comprehend the message, thus it must be as straightforward as possible. Advertising is a paid, non-personal communication through various media by business firms, non-profit organisations, and individuals who are in some way identified in the advertising message and who hope to inform or persuade members of a specific audience.

They did this from its functional perspectives. Advertising is used to build up knowledge about a product or service and to create a basic awareness of it in the minds of prospective customers. One of the four main instruments used by businesses to focus their persuasive messages towards target customers and the general public is advertising, which is defined as "non-personal forms of communication delivered via paid media under clear sponsorship. It seeks to do this by enhancing prospective buyers' reactions to the organisation and its offering. In their article on the nature and scope of advertising, succinctly summarise all advertising as having four characteristics: A message must meet the following requirements: It must be spoken or visual; it must be delivered by one or more media; and the sponsor must pay the medium that is broadcasting it. After summarising the information presented above, they draw the following conclusion: "Advertising therefore comprise of all the actions involved in conveying to an audience a non-personal, sponsor-identified, paid-for message about a product or organisation."

By way of illustration, Davies claims that "advertising is any paid kind of non-personal media presentation marketing ideas/concepts, products or services by a recognised sponsor. Advertising is defined by Arens, who shares a nearly same point of view, as "the human delivery of information generally paid for and typically persuasive in character about items (goods and services) or ideas by identifiable sponsors via different media." From the foregoing, it can be inferred that the goal of advertising is to raise awareness of the advertised product and offer information that will help the consumer make a purchasing decision. As a result, the usefulness of advertising as a promotional strategy depends on its capacity to persuade consumers to make purchases as well as subsequent purchases, which will lead to the development of brand loyalty. Because of this, many businesses spend a lot of money on branding and advertising. The producer's ultimate purpose is to sell merchandise and create profit, and one method he may do this is by advertising.

A number of empirical research have been done on advertising. The study stated that there is fierce rivalry in the industry, particularly when advertising messages are directed at the final customers.

As customers are repeatedly exposed to different types of advertising, they start to get motivated, according to who held upon his preliminary conclusions. In asserts that males who seek for the greatest products available are aware that promoted items are generally the best available since a trustworthy product can withstand extensive advertising. When a company makes a public claim, they must be able to back it up by marketing products that are worthwhile investing in. Also, advertising affects brand product categories' expanding sales, which raises the product's profit.

More social connection allows for the more fast dissemination of new ideas, and there is a link between advertising appeals and social character, according to conducted a research to determine the significance of social status in decision-making. It could be vital to highlight that marketing efforts are intertwined with everyone else's actions and that until one stage is finished, a firm might not be able to go on to the next. People now see marketing as an integrated system as a consequence of this. In one of his works, describes marketing as a comprehensive system that involves the pricing, promoting, and distribution of pleasing products and services to prospective clients.

As a result of Stanton's definition, it is clear that all marketing initiatives are focused on meeting the desires, needs, and happiness of customers in order to generate some amount of profit. In order to apply the 4Ps in marketing, often known as the marketing variable, one must first satisfy the demands of the target market.

Several people address the product categories, the pricing associated with the product, the advertising component to increase product awareness, persuasion, and ultimately the location or distribution/logistics when talking about the marketing variable. Each good company's ability to satisfy the demands of its target market depends much on how it operates and how it manipulates the four utilities to meet both its own needs and those of its customers. In actuality, any organization's main goal shouldn't be to maximise profits; instead, it should be to meet the demands of customers and encourage repeat business. Undoubtedly, the firm will generate a profit in order to stay in operation.

This also applies to the beverage industry, and it is important to note that this will only be accomplished when a business produces a quality product that is reasonably priced based on its value to consumers, uses good promotion to educate and raise awareness of the product, and is accessible to the target market. advertising persuades people to like, prefer, and purchase a product by promoting its advantages rather than just informing the public that a thing exists[10]–[12].

CONCLUSION

We looked at sales strategies, the connection between selling and advertising, and the crucial topic of brand/supplier loyalty. It has been shown that advertising is essential for assisting in sales, cutting prices, and making the work easier. Customers that are loyal to a brand or supplier are a significant asset to any business, and the salesforce plays a key role in establishing and maintaining such customer loyalty.

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CHAPTER 7

ORGANIZATIONAL AND CONSUMER BUYER BEHAVIOR

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ABSTRACT:

The marketing of products and services in general, and the personal selling role in particular, are significantly impacted by a number of significant changes in focus between consumer and organizational purchasing. Patterns of consumer purchases, the importance of reciprocal exchanges in organizational buying and selling inside an organization might be risky, Organizational purchases are more challenging, this chapter discusses how vital negotiating is in organizational buying.

KEYWORDS:

Buyer, Consumer, Marketing, Organizational, Products.

INTRODUCTION

A firm selling industrial goods will often have fewer prospective customers than one selling goods to consumers. In the former situation, it's common for 80% of production to be sold to about 10-15 organizations, indicating that one client has a lot greater significance to a business-to-business marketer than it does to a consumer marketing firm. Although the products have a market of many millions of consumers as their ultimate market, this situation is complicated in some consumer markets where the significance of trade intermediaries, such as supermarkets, is so great that the immediate customers of the companies rank alongside those of significant organizational buyers[1]–[3].

It makes sense for suppliers to engage on long-term relationships with major clients given their significance. This may be seen in the rise of key account selling, where specialised sales and marketing teams are hired to cater to important clients. Customers recognise the benefits of forging strong ties with providers. Ford, for instance, has decreased the number of its suppliers from 30,000 to 3,000, and many of them are now considered single suppliers. Customer and manufacturer interactions are uncommon in many consumer marketplaces, and brand switching is frequent for many items found in supermarkets.

Business purchasers are More Logical

While organisational purchasers, like all individuals, are influenced by emotional elements, such as a salesperson's likeability or hate, the colour of office supplies, etc., it is likely true that organisational purchasing is, on the whole, more logical. Decisions are often made based on economic factors. This is so that organisational purchases don't have to defend their choices in front of other employees. While the initial purchase price of Caterpillar tractors was greater than that of the competition, expenses throughout the life of the tractor were much cheaper. This was the foundation of the sales pitch used by Caterpillar tractor salesmen. For many years, this reasonable economic argument was quite effective. Consumers are evaluating items more and more using life-cycle cost and value-in-use assessments. When

acquiring a new locomotive, rail firms, for instance, include in the life-cycle expenses, which include the purchase price, operating costs, and maintenance costs.

Organizational purchasing may be in response to unique needs. In business-to-business marketing, it is customary for buyers to specify product requirements and for sellers to adjust their product offers to satisfy them. Due to the significant potential income from such items, like train engines, this is possible. This is considerably less a characteristic of consumer marketing, where a product offering may be produced to satisfy the wants of a market niche, but anything beyond that would be uneconomic [4]–[6]. In organisational purchasing, reciprocal transactions could be crucial. An organisational buyer may be able to demand concessions from a seller since they may be in a strong bargaining position with them. In rare cases, in order to secure the order, the buyer may require that the seller purchase part of the buyer's goods. A tyre buyer for an automaker may insist that, in exchange for the contract, the tyre producer purchase its corporate vehicles from the automaker.

Organizational selling and purchasing might be riskier. In business-to-business marketplaces, a contract may be reached before the product is created. However, the product itself can be quite technical, and after construction has begun, the seller might run across unanticipated issues. For instance, Scott Lithgow was awarded a contract to build an oil rig for British Petroleum, but the cost of the project turned out to be unprofitable due to the nature of the issues that arose during construction. While GEC was awarded the contract to create the Nimrod surveillance system for the Ministry of Defence, technical issues led to the project's cancellation, which received a lot of negative press. Another instance was British Rail, which finally overcame technical issues with the commissioning of the Class 60 diesel locomotive constructed by Brush Traction.

Organizational purchasing is more difficult. Several personnel from various levels of the organisation are involved in many organisational acquisitions, especially those that cost significant amounts of money and are novel to the firm. Which pricey equipment to buy may be decided by the managing director, product engineers, production managers, buying manager, and workers. In order to impact as many of these individuals as possible, the sales assignment may require multi-level selling using a sales team rather than a single salesman.

In organisational purchasing, negotiation is often crucial. Because of the involvement of professional buyers and sellers, the scale and complexity of organisational purchasing, as well as the importance of negotiation, organisational buying often involves negotiation. The beginning point for negotiations may be the supplier's list price, but the final price will rely on the power bases and negotiating process of buyers and sellers.

DISCUSSION

Consumers are those who purchase goods and services for their own use. It might be challenging to determine if a product is a consumer good or an organisational good. For instance, cars are sold to individuals for personal use and to businesses for use in carrying out their operations. Only by providing answers to the following five questions will one be able to comprehend consumers for both sorts of buyers:

1. Who is significant in the choice to purchase?
2. How do they purchase?
3. What are their selection criteria?

4. Where do they shop?
5. When do they purchase?

The first three of these inquiries since they are often the most challenging to respond to. Individual purchases by consumers are common. When a person sees a wide selection of candy at a newsstand counter, they can make an impulsive buy of a Mars bar. But, a purchasing centre, like a home, may also make decisions. A lot of people may intervene in this scenario to affect the buyer's choice. Everyone has the ability to participate in the decision-making process. Engel, Blackwell, and Miniard outline five roles. Any of the following may be chosen by the husband, wife, kids, or other family members: The individual who starts the process of thinking about a purchase is the initiator. This individual could acquire data to aid in the choice.

1. **Influencer:** The individual who makes an effort to convince others in the group of the decision's outcome. Influencers usually collect data and make an effort to force their selection criteria on the decision.
2. **Decider:** The person who has the authority to make the final decision on the product to purchase.
3. **Buyer:** The person who makes the call to the supplier, visits the shop, pays for the item, and arranges for delivery.
4. **User:** the person who really uses or consumes the product.

At the purchasing centre, one individual may take on many responsibilities. For instance, a youngster can suggest buying a toy and try to persuade their parents, who are making the decision. A sibling may persuade the youngster to choose a different brand. One of the parents can be the one who buys the item and takes it home after visiting the shop. And lastly, both kids could utilize the item. Despite the fact that just one individual was the target of the transaction, marketers still had two children and two parents to influence the choice. The domains of marketing communications and segmentation are where knowing who buys has marketing ramifications. When directing persuasive messages towards a specific audience, it is necessary to understand the roles that each buyer plays. The individual who really uses or consumes the product may not be the most important member of the purchasing center or the decision-maker, as the preceding discussion has shown. Communication with other members of the purchasing center might make sense even when they do play the dominating position since their expertise and views may influence the decision-making process [7], [8].

The second conclusion is that there are new chances to creatively divide formerly stable markets due to the shifting roles and effects within the family purchasing center. Consumer decision-making is seen by behavioral scientists as a problem-solving or need-satisfaction process. As a result, purchasing an electronic calculator to address an issue that itself identifies the necessity fast and accurate calculations. The steps that a buyer might take to decide which calculator to purchase.

Needs

The demands in the case of the calculator are mostly practical. In this case, the salesman would be encouraged to show the speed and accuracy of the calculators they are selling after determining the buyer's demands. Identifying demands in more depth may be necessary for successful marketing; for instance, are specific features necessary, or do customers simply

need to conduct a standard, basic set of calculations, meaning a less complex and more affordable calculator? For other items, emotional or psychological needs may need to be satisfied. For instance, a Sheaffer pen is more often purchased for its prestige than for any little practical advantage over competing pens. An effective salesman will be able to design the sales presentation and show the product as a way of meeting the requirements or resolving the issues of the buyer with the help of an accurate evaluation of the types of needs that a product is fulfilling.

These could happen naturally as part of life; for instance, the arrival of children in a household might necessitate the purchase of a bigger vehicle. They could also develop as a result of stimulus. An advertising for video recorders or a salesperson's speech could both generate the desire for more indoor entertainment and provide a solution for it. Salespeople must to investigate need inhibitors as well. They stop a need from being awakened, which stops the decision-making process from beginning. For instance, a person could desire to purchase an item on eBay but be discouraged by their fear of paying for something they don't get. According to the boxed case discussion, eBay is aware of this issue.

Collecting Information

Only after a lengthy time of information search can many demands be met. So, a potential automobile buyer looking for a tiny, affordable car may do a thorough search before settling on the model that best fits these demands. Visits to auto dealerships, television shows about cars, periodicals about cars and *Which?* reports, as well as conversations with friends, may all be part of this quest. It is obvious that information is gathered from a variety of sources in addition to the salesman in the showroom. In certain instances, the salesperson may not even be included in the search until the very end of the procedure. The buyer may narrow down the options to a reasonable number and speak with the salesman simply to learn what type of offers are being made on the rival models. The rise in internet use and the existence of search engines like Google and Yahoo! help customers find information. Nowadays, a lot of customers research items and prices online before going into a shop. For instance, more than 80% of Ford purchasers in the US did their research online before visiting a dealership, and more than 75% of American buyers of mobile phones do their study online before making a purchase.

Selecting The Best Option After Evaluating the Options

1. **Evaluative Criterion:** these are the parameters that customers use to contrast or assess goods or brands. The appropriate evaluation factors in the automobile example may include dependability, purchasing price, and fuel efficiency.
2. **Beliefs:** These are the levels of attributes that a product, such as roominess, has in the eyes of the customer.
3. **Attitudes:** Attitudes are the levels of liking or disliking a product, and they rely on both the evaluative standards used to assess the items and the opinions held about those standards. Hence, whereas attitudes suggest liking or disliking, beliefs require knowledge, e.g., model X gets 36 miles per gallon at a constant 56 miles per hour, but attitudes imply beliefs, e.g., model X has low fuel economy.
4. **Intentions:** They gauge the likelihood that attitudes will be put into practise. Positive attitudes are thought to boost purchase intentions, or the likelihood that a customer will make a purchase.

With this system in place, it makes sense for a salesman to inquire with a prospect about the evaluation standards being used to competing items. An effort will be made by a stereo system salesperson, for instance, to determine if a prospective customer is comparing several stereo systems largely based on their outward design or their sound quality. Moreover, trying to alter the standards used for evaluation may be successful. For instance, if the salesman for a stereo system thinks that the sound quality of the product line gives it a competitive edge, but the buyer's criteria is largely exterior design, the salesperson might emphasise the sound quality of the product and downplay the significance of external design. Alternately, if a competitor's system is chosen but sound quality is the buyer's top concern, the salesperson's goal is to sway opinion in favour of their own system. They may utilise performance comparisons from hi-fi periodicals and in-store demos as tools[9], [10].

Choice Evaluation After Purchase

Customer pleasure is the key to good marketing. The majority of firms depend on repeat business, which suggests that consumers must be happy with their purchases. Festinger⁵ first proposed the idea of "cognitive dissonance" to explain why many purchasers of pricey goods experience uneasiness soon after purchase. The classic example of this is the car buyer who diligently peruses automobile advertising after purchasing the vehicle to allay their concern about whether they made the right choice.

Once an order has been placed, salespeople often attempt to reassure the customer that they have made the proper choice. Nevertheless, the success of the post-purchase review depends on numerous variables in addition to the salesperson's assurance. Customer satisfaction is obviously influenced by the calibre of the product and the degree of after-sales support, and it is the salesperson's responsibility to assist customers in making sure the product they choose in the first place best meets their requirements. This suggests that, although pressuring customers to purchase more expensive things with features they may not really desire may raise short-term profit margins, it may also cause long-term sales to decline as customers look elsewhere for a replacement.

Selection Criterion

Choice criteria are the different attributes that customers consider while assessing goods and services. They provide the justifications for choosing one brand over another. Members of the purchasing centre may use various selection criteria. For instance, a youngster could choose shoes based on their self-image, but a parent would use price. The same criteria may be used in many ways. For instance, a youngster could like the most costly video game, while a parent would prefer a more affordable version. Due to variations in income throughout the course of a family's existence, selection criteria may alter over time. Price may no longer be a primary determinant for decision-making when disposable money increases, but rather, status or social membership may take its place.

Choice criteria may be societal, economic, or personal. Performance, dependability, and cost are examples of economic criteria. Status and the need for social connection are examples of social criteria. For instance, in order to appeal to a sizable portion of the young market, Nike, Reebok, and Adidas trainers need to have "street cred." Societal conventions like tradition and style may also be significant deciding factors, with certain companies being rejected as being too outlandish or unfashionable.

Personal criteria refer to how the product or service connects with the person on a psychological level. Self-image, or the opinion we have of ourselves personally, is a key problem here. For instance, a person would want to purchase goods that represent the image of a youthful, successful CEO who is on the rise. Audi developed an advertising campaign that said Audi drivers "arrived" quicker than other drivers in an effort to attract to this kind of individual. In that they arouse emotions of amusement, pride, pleasure, boredom, or despair, many purchasing choices are "experimental." When selling goods or services, these emotions must be considered. For instance, retailers like Next and Principles understand the significance of setting the perfect mood with the proper in-store colour and design choices.

Salespeople and marketing executives need to be aware of the selection criteria that customers use to assess their goods or services. Such information enables it also gives marketing managers the foundation for designing products or services and the right messaging to employ in advertising. This allows salespeople to customise the right appeal to each consumer they speak to. Factors influencing how consumers make decisions. Many variables influence the decision-making process and result for consumers. Three categories may be used to group these: The purchasing position is the first effect, followed by personal and societal ones.

The Purchasing Scenario

Three different purchase circumstances were discovered by Howard and Sheth: thorough problem-solving; constrained problem-solving; automatic reaction. A customer is likely to perform substantial problem-solving when an issue or requirement is novel, the methods of fixing that problem are costly, and there is a high level of uncertainty. This requires intensive information searching and rigorous scrutiny of potential solutions. While dealing with this kind of customer, the salesperson may earn the customer's trust by offering information and evaluating alternatives from the product line based on how well their advantages match the customer's demands. When the purchasing circumstance switches to one of limited problem-solving, the goodwill built up with this sort of consumer in such a setting can be rewarded by a repeat purchase. Because of the trust established during this phase, effective automobile salesmen often find themselves with a group of very loyal customers who continue to buy from them even if the dealership changes.

When a customer has some familiarity with the disputed product and is maybe inclined to stick with the previously acquired brand, little problem-solving happens. The review of a few options and some information gathering do take place, however, as a basic check that the proper choice is being made. With the use of pertinent comparison data and, perhaps, risk-reducing promises, such as the free replacement of any damaged components, salesmen of rival goods may, in some restricted circumstances, convince customers to switch models or brands. Businesses that have established a sizable brand franchise will want to induce automatic reaction in their clientele. Advertising may be successful in maintaining brand awareness and reinforcing customer views that are already favourable towards the company. Personal selling to the final customer may not be necessary in this case. Consumer durables manufacturers may provide favourable trade-in conditions for their previous versions. This strategy by Black & Decker allowed for the partial payment of a new model with the trade-in of an old, useless lawnmower.

The degree of participation a customer has with the purchase has a significant impact on whether they engage in substantial or restricted problem-solving or automated responses. Important purchases with strong personal meaning are linked to significant participation. A purchase is likely to have high involvement when it impacts one's self-image, has a high level of perceived risk, has social ramifications, and has the potential to provide a great deal of joy.

The customer is likely to have little participation with the purchase when the situation is the reverse.

The consumer is seeking a lot of information in high involvement scenarios in order to make a choice. Such knowledge must be available, as well as the ability to address complex questions. The client is not likely to actively seek out information in low engagement scenarios. For these sorts of transactions, repetitive advertising is often employed[11], [12].

CONCLUSION

Salespeople and sales management must consider the ramifications of understanding buyer behavior. Knowing that customers buy items to solve issues and meet requirements suggests that a successful sales strategy will entail the salesperson learning about the customers' needs. Only then can they choose the product from the company's lineup that best satisfies these criteria and sell it.

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CHAPTER 8

A DISCUSSION ON PERSONAL FACTORS AND SOCIAL FACTORS

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ABSTRACT:

A second set of elements that affect how consumers make decisions has to do with their psychological makeup. Personality, motivation, perception, and learning are essential topics. While a client's personality may explain why they shop differently, it is incredibly difficult for salespeople to determine if a customer is extrovert or introvert, traditional or unconventional. Even for trained psychologists, accurate personality evaluation has proven challenging. The way that people perceive a brand determines its personality. It is possible to categorise brands as "for young people," "brash," or "clever." This is a dimension distinct from a brand's visual or functional qualities.

KEYWORDS:

Buying, Quality, Product, Selling, Social.

INTRODUCTION

A marketer may appeal to customers who value such categorization by giving their brand a personality. Beer brand personas revealed that most people liked the beer brand that most closely reflected their own personality. The various personality types of buyers must be understood by sellers. a two-dimensional strategy for understanding the psychology of consumers. They imply that everyone has a natural tendency to be friendly or antagonistic, dominant or subservient. Despite the fact that there are different levels of each of these behaviours, they think it is important to group people into one cell of a two-by-two matrix [1], [2]. We characterise each behaviour as follows:

1. **Dominant:** The desire to control people in face-to-face interactions is known as dominance. It suggests a demand for leadership in interpersonal interactions, situational management, and a strong desire for independence.
2. **Submissive:** the willingness to allow others take the lead is referred to as submission. It suggests a readiness to submit to authority, a desire to carry out others' requests, and a desire to avoid conflict.
3. **Warmth:** showing consideration for others. A warm person is one that is gregarious, humorous, upbeat, and eager to put their confidence in other people.
4. **Hostile:** A hostile person has no consideration for others. It portrays a person as being aloof, untrustworthy, and contemptuous of others. Those who are hostile prefer to be able to claim, "I told you so."

Also, sellers must inquire about the buyer's intentions. The underlying motivation behind a pursuit could be hidden. Nonetheless, a salesman is sometimes likely to learn the true reasons for a customer's purchase by carefully investigating. Needs and motivation are inextricably related; the more intensely a customer feels a need, the more likely they are to be driven to fulfil it. Hence, a salesperson may encourage need recognition in customers, demonstrate

how needs might be met, and make an effort to comprehend the numerous motivations that could be driving a customer's choice. They might be practical like the time saved by a convenience food or psychological like the prestige that comes with driving a Jaguar or BMW. Nevertheless, not everyone with the same motives will purchase the same goods. This is due, in part, to the fact that how someone chooses to behave is influenced by how they perceive the circumstances. A salesman may come across to one customer as sincere and honest, but not to another. There might be three selection processes operating on consumers.

Selected exposure: only certain sources of information may be looked for and read. Selective perception refers to the ability to receive just certain concepts, messages, and data from particular sources. Just some of them may be recalled due to selective retention. People often forget information more rapidly and misinterpret or ignore signals that significantly contradict their current beliefs. Making informed decisions as a customer also requires learning. Learning is the process through which a person's behaviour changes as a consequence of experiences. The customer will discover which brand names are associated with quality and which salespeople to trust [3]–[5].

Lifestyle

Practitioners of marketing research have paid close attention to lifestyle trends. A person's hobbies, interests, and ideas serve as an expression of their lifestyle, which is referred to as such. Consumers are categorised by lifestyle analysis, also known as psychographics, based on their attitudes, behaviours, and values, as well as by demographic factors like income and level of education. For instance, the UK marketing research firm Research Bureau Ltd looked at the lifestyles of housewives and discovered eight different groups: Young, ABC1 social class, highly educated, wealthy, owner-occupiers, full-time employed; lavish, experimental, non-traditional; interested in new items; gregarious with cultural interests.

1. **Home-Centered:** traditional, less concerned with quality, demographically average, middle-class, with average income and education; least interested in new things; mostly focused on the house; minimal entertainment.
2. **Traditional Working-Class:** traditional; quality-conscious; uninitiated in cuisine; love cooking; middle-aged; DE social group; less educated; lower income; tenants of council houses; gregarious; husband and wife share pastimes, such as betting.
3. **Middle-Aged Sophisticates:** unconventional, experimental; middle-aged, ABC1 social class; well-educated, wealthy, owner-occupants; full-time homemakers; interested in new products; sociable with cultural interests.
4. **Coronation Street Housewives:** low degree of interest in new things; quality conscious; conservative; traditional; DE socioeconomic class; likely to reside in Lancashire and Yorkshire TV regions; less educated; lower incomes; part-time jobs.
5. **Self-Assured:** self-assured, quality-conscious, and frugal; youthful, educated, owner-occupier, and middle-class.
6. **Homely:** bargain hunters, insecure, possessive, C1C2 social class, propensity for Tyne Tees and Scottish TV regions, early school dropouts, part-time employment, average level of entertainment.
7. **Penny-Pinchers:** 25-34 years old, C2DE social class, part-time work, less education, average income; love betting, enjoy saving, husband and wife share activities,

sociable. They are also self-assured, houseproud, traditional, and unconcerned with quality.

Since that lifestyles are linked to buying behaviour, lifestyle study has consequences for marketing. A business may decide to market its products specifically to a certain lifestyle group, aligning its advertising with the attitudes and ideals of this group. The choice of media may be impacted by lifestyle research when knowledge on the reading and watching habits of various lifestyle groups becomes more readily available.

DISCUSSION

Social status, peer groups, culture, and the family are significant social forces that affect how consumers make decisions. Social class, the first of these elements, has long been recognised as a significant influencer on consumer behaviour. In marketing, social class is based on the profession of the primary breadwinner or head of the home. The fact that respondents in market research surveys are often categorised by their social class and the majority of advertising media provide readership data broken down by social class groups show the practical relevance of social class. The use of this variable to account for variations in buying has drawn criticism, however. People from the same socioeconomic class often exhibit diverse consumption behaviours. Among the C2 category, which includes skilled manual labourers, it has been shown that some individuals choose to spend their money on more fleeting pleasures like drinking, smoking, and bingo, while others prefer to purchase their own homes, furniture, carpets, and in-home entertainment. A Classification of Residential Neighborhoods, a new classification system that groups individuals based on the sort of neighbourhood they reside in, was created as a result of these discoveries. This has shown to be an effective way to distinguish between various lifestyles, consuming habits, and media exposure[6], [7].

The phrase "reference group" refers to a group of individuals who have an impact on someone's attitude or behaviour. When purchasing a visible commodity, such as clothes or a vehicle, the brand or model may have been heavily affected by the buyer's perception of what their reference group would find acceptable. Acceptability within the reference group should not be mistaken with popularity. The buyer's desire to aspire to a "exclusive" reference group, for whom a less popular, more unique model may be suitable, may be in contradiction with the salesman who seeks to sell a vehicle using the theme that "it's extremely popular." The customs, taboos, values, and fundamental attitudes of the whole society in which a person lives are referred to as culture. As diverse cultures have an impact on how businesses are conducted and products are consumed, it is especially relevant to international marketing. Salespeople could perform a sales presentation in front of a salesperson from a rival company, for instance, in Arab nations. Between pieces of bread, chocolate is sometimes consumed in France.

The family is frequently referred to as a key reference group and may have a big impact on how people purchase things. Each family member could have a specific role in the selection over the brand or product to buy. As a result, while buying an automobile, the husband generally picked the model and his wife the colour. Children may have a big impact on cereal purchases. For the primary earner, the cleanability of a carpet fibre may be somewhat trivial, but it may be more crucial for the spouse who handles the housekeeping. A salesman would

be prudent to consider the advantages of their items in terms of each of the decision-makers or influencers when a purchase is a collective decision.

Economic Factors

Consumer spending is fueled by growing income levels and confidence in the stability of their jobs while the economy is expanding. Spending on upscale consumer durables, pricey vacations, fine dining, and premium goods is increasing. Yet, worries about the future of the economy and decreased real earnings cause many consumers to put off purchases, become more price conscious, and alter their buying habits. For instance, customers could dine out less often in favour of purchasing premium ready meals from supermarkets to enjoy at home.

Company-specific buyer behaviour: Fisher has helpfully divided organisational buying behaviour into three components.

1. **Structure:** The "who" aspect, or who is involved in making decisions and their specific tasks.
2. **Process:** The "how" aspect, which refers to the manner in which the buying organisation gathers information, analyses it, evaluates it, and makes a decision.
3. **Content:** The "what" element, which refers to the selection criteria used by various members of the decision-making unit at various phases of the process.

Structure

Understanding that the buyer or purchasing officer is often not the only person who impacts the choice or who really has the power to make the final decision is crucial when it comes to organisational buying. Instead, a decision-making unit, or purchasing centre as it is often known, is in charge of making the choice. This is not always a stable thing. As decision-making progresses, the DMU's membership may alter. So, a managing director may be engaged in the choice of whether to acquire new equipment but not in the choice of which manufacturer to do so. Six functions have been identified by Bonoma and Webster as part of the DMU structure:

1. **Initiators:** Those who start the purchasing process are called initiators.
2. **Users:** people who make use of the item.
3. **Deciders:** people with the power to choose the provider or model.
4. **Influencers:** those who contribute decision-making criteria and information along the way.
5. **Buyers:** those with the power to finalise the terms of the deal.

Gatekeepers are individuals who manage information flow, such as secretaries who may grant or deny access to DMU members or buyers whose permission must be obtained before a supplier contacts other DMU members. Later, we'll look at the variables that affect the DMU's nature. Clearly, the precise configuration will fluctuate depending on the sort of transaction. The structure of the DMU will be complicated for really significant choices, including many persons from the buying organisation. The essential players must be located and approached so that the salesman may persuade them of the product's value. Speaking with the buying officer alone is often inadequate since they may have little or no impact on the supplier's selection. Salespeople should abstain from two sins:

Doing tasks inside their "comfort zone." When choosing which product to purchase or which supplier to work with, they often spend too much time with individuals they like and feel comfortable with, interacting excessively with "naysayers." They are the folks who have the power to say "no," but not the power to say "yes." The decision-makers should get the majority of communication efforts; they are the later group.

When a highly technical issue has to be resolved, suppliers may collaborate with engineers inside the purchasing organisation to address issues and secure the order. As an illustration of how effective this strategy may be, consider the case of a tiny American firm that was able to collaborate with a big automaker to resolve technical issues related to the creation of an exhaust gas recirculation valve and subsequently received a sizable order from the latter. Its practise in this instance was to consult with corporate engineers and defer making a decision to the buying department until it was clear that it was the only supplier capable of supplying the component. Advertising may be utilised as a backup strategy in cases when DMU members can't be reached by salespeople. Moreover, if consumers have a significant impact and the product is consumable and reasonably priced, free samples provided by the salesperson may be successful in influencing choice.

Process

the process of reaching a choice on a commercial product. The purchasing circumstance will determine the precise form of the procedure. Certain phases will be skipped in some circumstances; for instance, the buying officer is unlikely to go through stages 3, 4, and 5 in a normal re-buy scenario. These steps will be skipped since the buyer regularly places reorders from the same supplier when they identify a need, such as a scarcity of stationery. In general, it is more probable that each step will be completed and that the process will take more time the more complicated the choice and costly the item. A requirement or recognition issue. Wants and issues may be identified by both internal and external causes. The realisation of undercapacity, which led to the choice to buy plant or equipment, is an example of an internal factor. Internal recognition therefore motivates action. Certain issues that are internally acknowledged may not be addressed. Internal/passive is a possible word for this circumstance. A production manager may be aware of a machine's issue yet choose to ignore it since there are more urgent issues to deal with.

Some possible issues can go unnoticed inside and only surface in response to outside stimuli. Unless another, more effective way is made known, a production manager may be very content with the manufacturing process. These many issues undoubtedly have significant ramifications for the salesman. The internal/passive condition suggests that there is a chance for the salesman to emphasise the issue by carefully analysing cost inefficiencies and other symptoms after identifying the condition, making the issue seem more urgent and in need of a remedy. Salespeople must provide a distinct advantage of one of their items over the competition in the internal/active scenario. Problem stimulation is not required in this instance, but the salesman may offer the essential outward indicators when internal recognition is lacking. By demonstrating how their trucks may save the client money due to decreased maintenance costs and result in more effective use of warehouse space due to increased lifting capabilities, a forklift truck sales person may encourage issue detection.

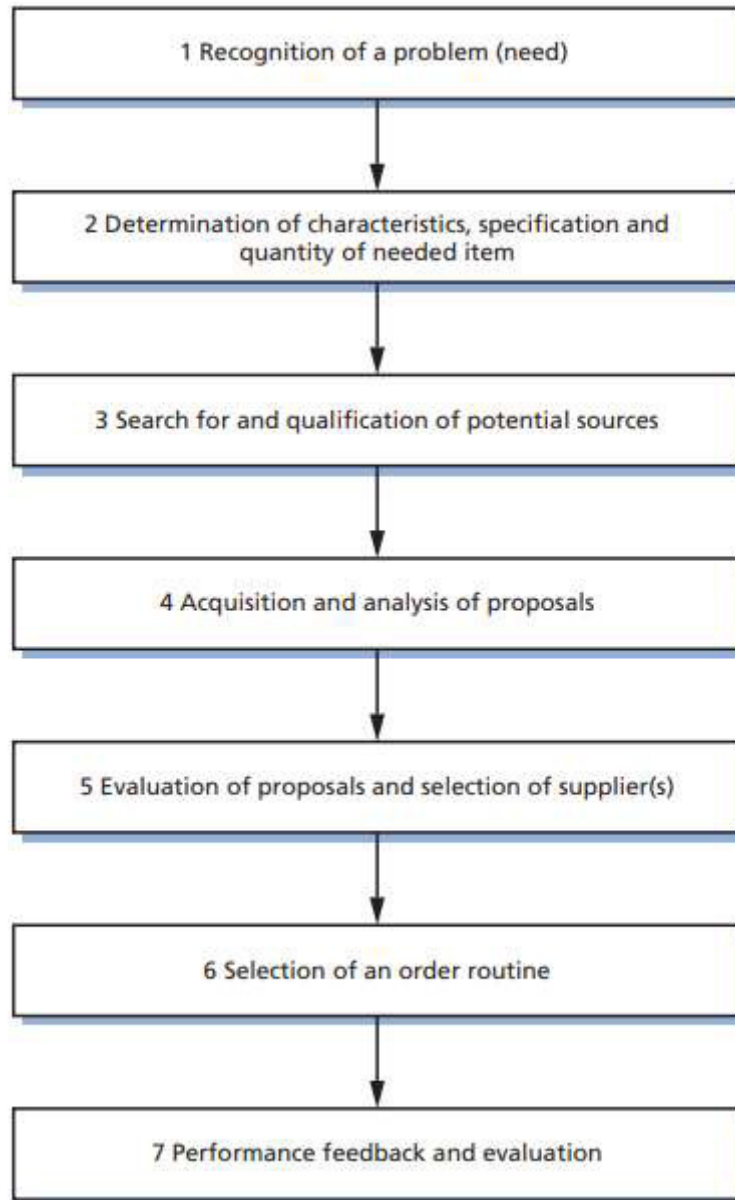


Figure 1: The method used by organisations to make decisions

determining the qualities, requirements, and amount of the required item. At this point in the decision-making process, the DMU will create a list of the necessary requirements. For instance, it could conclude that five lathes are necessary to satisfy certain requirements. Later on in the process, a salesperson's ability to alter the specs may benefit their organisation. At this point, the salesman may have effectively clinched the deal by convincing the purchasing business to demand qualities that only their product provides. Identifying and qualifying possible sources. In organisational purchasing, there is a lot of variance in the amount of search. In general, less searching occurs when an item is less expensive, less important, and the customer is better informed. Acquiring and evaluating offers. After identifying a number of businesses who are thought to be qualified to offer the product, maybe due to their technical know-how and overall repute, bids will be requested and analysed.

Assessment of bids and supplier selection. Each proposal will be assessed in light of the factors that each DMU member believes to be significant. It is crucial to realise that different members may apply different standards to evaluate proposals.

The process results in the choice of a supplier or suppliers, notwithstanding the potential for issues choosing an ordering procedure. Afterwards the payment and delivery information is created. Typically, the purchasing officer is in charge of this. When choosing a supplier, delivery may be a key factor, and this step may be combined with stages 4 and 5.

Assessment of and feedback on performance. This may be done formally by creating an assessment form that the user departments fill out, or informally via regular interaction. The upshot of all of this is that a salesperson may influence a sale by need awareness, product specification design, and by succinctly outlining the benefits of the product relative to the competition in terms that are relevant to DMU members.

By becoming involved early, a salesperson may take advantage of the creeping commitment process, in which the purchasing organisation becomes more dependent on one supplier as a result of its engagement in the procedure and the technical support it offers.

Content

The selection criteria that members of the DMU use while assessing supplier offers are referred to as this element of organisational buyer behaviour. The performance standards used to assess each member's performance will probably establish these standards. A production engineer who is assessed on the basis on the technical effectiveness of the manufacturing processes they design is thus likely to be less cost-conscious than a buying manager who is evaluated on the degree to which they minimise purchase expense.

Organizational purchasing is characterised by both functional and psychological factors, just as with consumers. For plant and equipment, return on investment may be a crucial functional factor, but for materials and component components, cost savings, supply dependability, quality, and technical support may all be important factors.

The long-term growth of the company's supply chain is a top priority for many buying departments due to the significant expenses associated with production downtime. Moreover, psychological considerations could be significant, especially when vendors' product offers are quite comparable. In this case, the ultimate choice can depend on how much you like the supplier's salesman. Here, a few crucial characteristics are looked at[8]–[10].

CONCLUSION

The significance of quality in assessing a supplier's goods and services is reflected in the creation of comprehensive quality management as a crucial element of organisational life. Many purchasing organisations are reluctant to sacrifice quality for cost. Buyers are focusing on consistency of product or service quality to ensure trustworthy final goods, lower inspection costs, and efficient manufacturing procedures. They are putting in just-in-time delivery systems, which depend on the quality of incoming goods. Under Sir John Egan, Jaguar vehicles changed from a buying system that prioritised pricing to one that put quality first. Purchasing teams were ordered to pay more as long as the cost could be justified by higher component quality.

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CHAPTER 9

A STUDY ON PRICE AND TOTAL COST OF OWNERSHIP

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ABSTRACT:

Price becomes a crucial factor for materials and components with comparable specifications and quality. Given that a variety of vendors may fulfil delivery and specification criteria for common components like ball bearings, pricing may be essential to closing a deal. Yet, it should not be overlooked that for many purchasing organizations, pricing is but one aspect of cost. Availability going forward, individual preferences for or against, the importance of a purchase to the buyer's organization, alterations to the purchasing procedure. This chapter discusses system acquisition, backward marketing, in-the-moment purchasing, coordinated buying, and in-the-moment buying. When assessing the financial effects related to the purchase, use, and maintenance of goods and services, the notions of pricing and total cost of ownership (TCO) are crucial. While pricing indicates the initial financial outlay necessary for a purchase, TCO incorporates a wider viewpoint by taking the full lifetime costs into account. This summary gives a general overview of the importance of price and TCO analyses while emphasising its applicability in diverse situations and sectors.

KEYWORDS:

Market, Marketing, Purchase, Product, System.

INTRODUCTION

In addition to the original purchase price, purchasers increasingly consider life-cycle costs, which might include productivity gains, maintenance expenses, and residual values. Life-cycle costs analysis is a tool that marketers may use to penetrate a market. It may be possible to create new views of value by analysing life-cycle costs with a customer [1]–[3].

Continued Availability

A production run interruption is one of the biggest expenses for a business. Such delays might result in expensive machine downtime and even missed revenue. So, in many buying scenarios, supply continuity is a key factor. Even if the price is comparable, businesses who don't perform well on this criteria lose out since a modest price advantage does not compare to the expenses of inconsistent delivery. Supplier businesses who can ensure delivery and follow through on their commitments might gain a significant competitive edge. Business consumers want strong ties to "qualified suppliers" who can provide dependable delivery, maybe on a just-in-time basis.

Perceived Danger

Functional risk, such as uncertainty about a product's or supplier's performance, and psychological risk, such as criticism from coworkers, are two different ways that risk is perceived. This last risk, which includes the anxiety about upsetting the boss, losing prestige, drawing jeers from colleagues, or even losing one's job, may have a significant impact on

purchasing choices. Buyers often lower uncertainty by learning about rival suppliers, asking influential people inside the purchasing organisation for their thoughts, only making purchases from well-known and/or respected suppliers, and spreading risk via multiple sourcing.

Work Politics

The result of a purchase decision may also be influenced by political groups inside the purchasing organisation. The development of rival "camps" over the procurement of a product or service might be a sign of interdepartmental conflict. Department Y inherently favours supplier B since department X favours supplier A. For the agencies and people involved, the conclusion has political ramifications in addition to buying ramifications.

Personal preference for/against

One salesperson may personally appeal to a customer more than another, which might affect the supplier they choose, especially if the items being offered are relatively identical. Buyers are known to support salespeople because they prefer to "be competitive" even though supplier selection is based on competitive bidding. Evidently, perception is crucial to any organisational endeavours since how someone acts relies on how they see the circumstances. A salesman may be seen favourably and honestly by one customer and not by another. Similar to how consumers behave, purchasers may exhibit three types of selection processes: Selective exposure means that only certain information sources may be used; selective perception means that only particular information may be understood; and selective retention means that only particular information may be retained.

First, a salesperson may need to alter their sales presentation while speaking to various DMU members as a result of knowing the decision's substance. While speaking with a manufacturing engineer, the discussion may focus on the product's technical superiority; yet, when speaking with a buying officer, a greater emphasis on cost considerations may be advantageous. Second, as conditions change through time, so do the selection criteria that purchasing organisations adopt. While attempting to resolve a highly visible technical issue, a corporation may consider price to be somewhat inconsequential and will place their order with the supplier that offers the required technical support. Price may become very important later, after the issue has been resolved and alternative providers have earned their qualification. Cardozo highlighted three variables the buy class, the product type, and the relevance of the purchase to the purchasing organization that affect the makeup of the DMU, the structure of the decision-making process, and the standards used to assess product proposals[4], [5].

Purchase Courses

Robinson, Faris, and Wind researched industrial buying choices and came to the conclusion that the characteristics of the purchase class affected buyer behaviour. A fresh task, a modified re-buy, and a straight re-buy were all differentiated from one another. When a requirement for the product arises for the first time and there is little to no prior experience in the organisation that is relevant, a new job is created and a lot of information is needed. On the other side, a straight re-buy happens when a company purchases goods from suppliers that have already been deemed acceptable. Straight re-buys are made possible by the setup of routine buying operations. The middle ground is the modified re-buy. There is a regular need

for the product type, and there are options for where to get it, but enough has changed to necessitate changing the way supplies are typically provided.

The following are some ways that the purchase classes impact organisational purchasing. The DMU's structure changes first. Although just the buying officer may be engaged in a simple re-purchase, a fresh buy is more likely to include senior management, engineers, production managers, and purchasing officers. Engineers, production managers, and buying officers often participate in modified re-buys, but senior management is less likely to be engaged unless the purchase is crucial to the business. Second, since the purchase class shifts from a straightforward re-buy to a modified re-buy and finally to a new assignment, the decision-making process is probably going to take considerably longer. Finally, it is anticipated that DMU members will be more easier to persuade in new task and modified re-buy scenarios than in straight re-buy situations. In the latter scenario, the buying manager already has other issues to deal with in addition to the purchasing issues. Why therefore create an issue out of it?

The first conclusion of this purchase class study is that if the salesman can engage the new task at the beginning of the decision-making process, there are significant advantages to be realised. The salesperson may be able to develop goodwill and creeping commitment, which secures the purchase when the final choice is made, by offering knowledge and assisting with any potential technical issues. The second conclusion is that supplier businesses must make significant long-term investments in sales human resources since the decision-making process is likely to take a long time and include many individuals. To assist in securing significant new work orders, several businesses use missionary sales teams made up of their top salesmen. In straight re-buy scenarios, salespeople must make sure that nothing changes while they are acting as the supplier. The buyer may need to be contacted often to make sure they have no complaints, and they could be urged to adopt automated recording systems.

Unless the customer has become unhappy with the current supplier due to bad service or another issue, the salesman has a tough time when dealing with non-suppliers. It is clear that the salesperson's goal in this scenario is to convert a pure re-buy into a modified re-buy. Pricing alone may not be sufficient since switching suppliers entails a significant personal risk for the buying officer. Products from the new source might be less dependable, and deliveries could be unexpected. The salesman may provide delivery assurances with penalty clauses in order to lessen this risk and may be quite eager to take a little transaction at first in order to establish themselves. It may also reduce perceived buyer risk for suppliers to adopt a comprehensive quality management standard like BS5750, or it may be essential to consent to a buyer's supplier quality assurance programme. As contracts are often the foundation for direct re-buys, prospective customers may be more open to hearing from salespeople who aren't suppliers before their contracts are renewed[6], [7].

DISCUSSION

Other strategies for converting purchases from a direct re-buy to a modified re-buy scenario include value analysis and life-cycle cost estimations. Value analysis is a way of cost reduction where components are reviewed to determine whether they can be manufactured more affordably. It may be done by either the supplier or the customer. The products are examined to find superfluous expenses that do not improve the product's dependability or effectiveness. A provider could be able to provide a product of comparable quality at a

cheaper price by redesigning, standardising, or producing using less costly methods. Minor redesigns, such as switching a curved edge to a straight one, may have significant financial effects. The goal of life-cycle cost analysis is to shift the cost emphasis from the product's initial purchase price to the whole cost of possessing and utilising it. Three categories of life-cycle expenses exist: purchasing cost; start-up expenses; post-purchase expenses.

Installation, lost production, and training expenses are included in start-up costs. Operating, maintenance, repair, and inventory expenditures are all post-purchase expenses. Residual values would be set against these expenses. Life-cycle cost arguments are effective motivators. For instance, if the out-supplier can persuade the client organisation that, despite a somewhat higher purchase price, their product has much lower post-buy expenses than the in-supplier, it may succeed in winning the order. This is because it will provide the buyer with a better economic value. This may both be a strong competitive advantage and support the higher price.

The kind of product

Four categories may be used to classify products:

1. Materials that will be employed in the manufacturing process, such as steel;
2. Parts that will be included in the completed product, such as an alternator;
3. Capitalized machinery and equipment
4. Maintenance, repair, and operation-related goods and services, such as spanners, welding gear, and lubricants.

This categorization is based on the viewpoint of the customer how the product is utilized and it may be used to spot variations in organisational buyer behaviour. First, depending on the kind of product, different types of individuals tend to participate in the decision-making process. Senior management, for instance, has been seen to participate in the procurement of machinery and equipment and, on rare occasions, when new materials are acquired, if the change is vital to business operations, such as when a switch from aluminium to plastic is being considered. They seldom ever become involved in component or MRO supply. Similar to how design engineers often purchase materials and components, but not typically MRO, plant, or equipment. Second, when a product type changes, the decision-making process always becomes slower and more complicated.

'Blanket contracts' as opposed to recurring purchase orders are becoming more popular for MRO components. The supplier consents to provide the customer with new goods on predetermined conditions throughout time. Orders are automatically written out by the buyer's computer when stock drops below a certain level while stock is retained by the seller. This benefits the providing firm by successfully thwarting the efforts of the salesforces of the rivals for extended periods of time.

The sales force receives hints about who is likely to have influence over the purchase decision when suppliers categorise their products by product category. The salesperson's job is to follow up on this in certain circumstances and make an effort to get in touch with the relevant parties. Although efforts to speak with design engineers by a salesman for MROs are likely to be fruitless, successful communication with operational managers is more possible [8], [9].

The value of a purchase to the buyer's organisation

When a purchase includes substantial quantities of money, the risk of making the incorrect choice, such as lost production, is high, and there is a great deal of ambiguity about the result of alternative options, the purchasing organisation is likely to see the purchase as critical. Under such circumstances, a large number of individuals from various organisational levels are likely to be engaged in the decision-making process, which is likely to be drawn out and include a thorough search and analysis of the available data. In order to persuade purchasing organisations that their solution has the highest payout, sales teams must engage with them; this may necessitate conducting acceptance trials. As a result, substantial marketing effort is likely to be necessary. Moreover, when a buyer's level of scepticism about these variables is strong, assurances of delivery dates and post-sale services could be required.

Modifications to the buying process

There are many changes in the buying function that have marketing repercussions for supplier companies. The emergence of just-in-time buying, as well as the rising popularity of reverse marketing, leasing, and central purchasing, have all affected the structure of purchasing and the way that suppliers compete.

In-the-moment buying

By setting up a supply chain that delivers materials and components as needed, the just-in-time buying idea seeks to reduce stockpiles. Profits rise as a result of the large reduction or elimination of stockholding expenses. Moreover, because owning stocks functions as a safeguard against equipment failure, defective components, and human mistake, it may be seen as a cushion that discourages management from eliminating such inefficiencies. Many JIT techniques are also connected to higher quality. Suppliers are assessed based on their capacity to provide high-caliber goods. The result is that suppliers could emphasise product quality more. Suppliers have greater freedom in product design and production processes since buyers are urged to simply define necessary product attributes. As quality control at the source is more effective than later in the supply chain, the supplier is also required to certify quality, which reduces quality inspection at the buying firm and lowers total costs.

JIT's overall consequences may be quite large. It is possible to save expenses associated with purchasing inventory and inspections, improve product design, simplify delivery, cut down on manufacturing downtime, and raise completed product quality. Therefore, integrating JIT into both buying and production activities is necessary. Delivery schedules must be very dependable, and suppliers must be ready to make deliveries on a frequent basis possibly even daily because the system demands the supply of the precise quantity of materials or components to the manufacturing line as they are needed. Order lead times must be quick, and there should be extremely few faults. It is common practise to draught long-term purchase agreements, which is attractive to suppliers. The JIT idea has marketing ramifications in that suppliers must be able to adapt to this rapidly expanding system in order to compete in various industrial sectors.

The Nissan automobile assembly facility in Sunderland, North East England, is one business that uses JIT. The number of component suppliers in the region expanded from 3 when Nissan came in 1986 to 27 in 1992 as a result of the relevance of JIT to its operations. Nissan has implemented what it calls "synchronous supply," in which components arrive only

minutes before use. For instance, the French supplier Sommer Allibert sends carpets to the Nissan assembly plant in a certain order so that they may be fitted to the appropriate model. The time it takes to order the carpet and have it installed in the automobile is just 42 minutes. Just five minutes remain in the Nissan Micra carpet stockholding period. Yet, there are hazards associated with just-in-time methods if labour stability cannot be ensured. When a strike at its engine and gearbox facility forced Renault's entire French and Belgian vehicle manufacturing lines to shut down in only 10 days, the company learned this the hard way.

Coordinated Buying

Centralized purchasing is a desirable alternative when numerous operational units within a firm have similar needs and there is a chance to improve a negotiation position by making a large number of purchases. By encouraging buying experts to focus their efforts on a select few goods, centralization helps them to get in-depth knowledge of cost determinants and supplier behaviour. Important marketing consequences result from the shift from local to centralised procurement. Although centralised purchasing focuses greater emphasis on long-term supplier connections, localised purchasing tends to be more concerned with short-term cost and profit concerns. In local buying organisations, external factors, such as engineers, have a bigger impact on supplier selection since less specialised buyers often lack the knowledge and standing to contest technical people's suggestions. Suppliers may learn more about the key players and their separate power structures in the decision-making unit by looking at the kind of buying organisation.

System Acquisition

The desire of purchasers to purchase full systems as opposed to individual components is known as systems buying. For instance, in order to sell door handles to a car manufacturer, a supplier must not only be able to sell a door system that includes door handles as well as locking and opening devices, but also possess in-depth knowledge of door technology and the capacity to address potential issues in the future. Certain systems, like managing chemical plants or telecommunications infrastructure, are purchased based on the expected advantages they will provide the customer in the long run.

Systems providers, such as IT and communications networks, industrial control systems, and inventory management software, may now be run by systems sellers. Both product and service components are included in every system offered. Hardware, also known as product components, are actual objects that provide a particular purpose for the system. Software, or service components, are the skills or intangible human efforts used to solve issues for clients and carry out tasks necessary for system design, construction, operation, and maintenance.

By reducing expenses and/or enhancing performance by coming up with creative solutions that cater to the demands of business customers, system vendors must generate value for their clients. It is pervasive in the capital goods sectors including Computers, telecommunications, and railroads. For instance, Alstom Transport, a company that makes trains, offers "train availability" solutions, while Thales Training and Simulation, a company that makes flight simulators, offers "flight training solutions" to clients in the military. Such businesses provide services to manage and maintain a system throughout its life as well as to develop and integrate components into a system.²³ In Europe, a significant tendency towards selling solutions is evident, as shown by businesses like Siemens, BP, Ericsson, and ABB. For

instance, Ericsson provides highly customised customer solutions that incorporate numerous equipment, installation, project management, technical planning, and financial offerings²⁴. The shift to system selling has resulted in the transformation of sales from an independent, isolated function to a crucial and integrated cross-functional component of long-term customer management.

Backward marketing

According to the conventional understanding of marketing, supplier companies would actively look for consumer wants and make an effort to satisfy them more effectively than their rivals. Under this arrangement, the provider takes the initiative. Purchasers might adopt a passive role, depending on the responsiveness of their suppliers to their demands and the technical prowess of their suppliers to provide them solutions to their issues. This trustworthy connection, however, conflicts with a new corporate buying scenario that emerged in the 1980s and is now gaining strength. In order to acquire the goods and services required to compete, purchasing is adopting a more pro-active, aggressive approach. Reverse marketing refers to the strategy wherein the buyer tries to convince the supplier to provide the company precisely what it needs.

In reverse marketing, the buyer takes the effort to contact potential or current suppliers and convince them to fulfil their supply needs. According to the implications of reverse marketing, uncooperative in-suppliers may face substantial dangers, whereas responsive in-suppliers and out-suppliers may benefit greatly. Reverse marketing is becoming more popular, and providers that are open to hearing what the customer has to say and giving it serious consideration stand to gain two major advantages. First of all, it offers the chance to forge a deeper and more enduring connection with the client. Second, it could provide prospects for new products that eventually expand to a wider client base^{[10]–[12]}.

CONCLUSION

The total cost of ownership (TCO) of a given asset is made up of the item's purchase price plus any ongoing running expenses. To determine the long-term worth of a transaction to a business or person, consider the total cost of ownership. A product or service's price, which is typically regarded as the monetary value attributed to it, is frequently the main element affecting consumers' purchase decisions. However, focusing only on price might be deceptive since it ignores other costs that occur throughout the course of the product's existence. TCO analysis provides a thorough methodology to evaluate the real cost of ownership, taking into account both ongoing direct and indirect costs. Acquisition costs, operational costs, maintenance costs, and disposal costs are just a few of the cost elements that make up TCO. Organisations and customers can choose products and services with greater knowledge if they take these variables into account. TCO analysis encourages a long-term viewpoint and enables decision-makers to assess the financial impact of their actions beyond the cost of the initial purchase.

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CHAPTER 10

A STUDY ON TECHNIQUES AND SALES STRATEGIES

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ABSTRACT:

A sales technique is a strategy of selling used by a company's sales team or a salesperson to close more deals and make more money. It's a tactic to improve a company's sales procedure. A sales approach is adaptable and open to change after its efficacy has been tested via trials. Techniques and sales strategies are crucial elements of good business operations because they help companies engage customers, increase sales, and meet their revenue targets. In order to create client connections, grow market share, and maximise profitability, this abstract highlights the importance of using successful approaches and sales strategies across a range of industries. The goal of effective sales techniques is to persuade prospective consumers to make a purchase using a combination of skills, tactics, and strategies. These methods cover a wide range of tasks, including prospecting, lead qualification, solution presentation, resolution of objections, and deal closing. By using these strategies, salespeople may build rapport, comprehend customer demands, and customise their solutions to add the most value. Moreover, B2C (business-to-consumer) contacts are not the only ones that can benefit from effective approaches and sales strategies. Building relationships, comprehending intricate buying processes, and providing tailored solutions are all essential components of B2B (business-to-business) sales. In B2B sales settings, building rapport, offering value-added services, and keeping the lines of communication open are essential.

KEYWORDS:

Company, Marketing, Product, Sales, Strategies.

INTRODUCTION

An essential component of a company's marketing strategy is the worldwide market. Marketing approaches may differ from nation to nation, brand to brand, and company to company. The marketing department within a company should be aware of all the various marketing mix strategies that can affect the comprehensive result and the cumulative firm success in order to achieve a satisfactory and adequate marketing strategy that has a positive outcome on global and overall firm success. Companies might utilise a traditional marketing mix when introducing a product into international markets or modify the current marketing mix to meet the needs of the nation in which they are doing business. The relationship between standardization/adaptation and business success is complex and may be impacted by several variable. It should be mentioned that one of the most current study topics in international business is the impact of standardization/adaptation choices made in foreign marketing strategy on firm success.

Because of the conflicting findings of empirical research studies and the small number of research settings, it is confirmed that the relationship between worldwide marketing strategy standardization/adaptation choices and corporate performance is a current area of scientific study. For businesses that operate in a worldwide business climate and seek prospects for survival or company growth, international marketing solutions become especially pertinent.

In the recent scientific literature on the topic of international marketing, there has been an increased focus on the relationship between international marketing strategy and company performance. One of the most crucial factors in determining the feasibility of certain tactics is company performance. Despite the significance of an international marketing strategy for business success, there are few scientific research studies that examine this connection, and the research studies' findings are inconsistent. We will investigate the idea of marketing strategy and analyse its usefulness by performing a thorough literature research, laying the groundwork for a conceptual model and empirical investigation[1]–[3].

The Marketing Strategy Idea

The capacity of many firms to execute the marketing plan choice alternatives selected is a key factor in determining their success. Many organisations have well-developed marketing strategies that outline where, when, and how they will compete. In order to productively direct the deployment of the limited available resources through the firm's marketing capabilities in pursuit of desired goals and objectives, the right and successfully executed marketing strategies are necessary. Marketing strategy choices and marketing strategy decision execution are two separate but connected characteristics of marketing strategy content, according to the literature. In order to achieve the numerous aims and objectives of the company, decision-makers in charge of the marketing strategy must choose which available resources the company should deploy, where to deploy them correctly, and create and communicate priorities.

These top-down, structured marketing tactics for improving business performance may also be emergent or improvisational. So, the substance of a company's marketing strategy includes explicit or implicit choices on target market choice, objective setting, positional advantage to be pursued, and timing to achieve firm performance. Managers must decide the firm's goals and objectives, convert these priorities and the firm's vision into marketing-related goal criteria, and create and express the intended accomplishment levels for each goal. Here is where well-defined strategic marketing objectives come into play. The desire of attaining firm performance may lead to various target criteria and levels that are incompatible or at least non-complementary, making it difficult to accomplish this. For instance, it is challenging to simultaneously increase the firm's sales and profit. As a result, managers must give priority to goals that could contradict. Goal-setting is obviously crucial in establishing future marketing strategy content selections since most definitions of strategy focus on strategies for how desired goals are to be accomplished. These goal-selection choices may in fact be among the most significant examples of strategic choice in the marketing strategy content.

The selection of the market is another crucial component of marketing plan content. This focuses on the market segmentation and targeting choices made inside the traditional STP framework of marketing strategy, which is based on target, positioning, and positioning. In order to achieve the specified strategic marketing goals, the business will choose where to compete based on this marketing strategy content selection. A key component of the marketing strategy is the value proposition, which is in charge of selecting the particular goods and/or services to give to the target market with the aim of surpassing their expectations. The choice of the value proposition is therefore an assessment of the value offering that managers believe will generate sufficient demand at necessary price points among target consumers to enable the company to accomplish its strategic marketing goals

set to overall firm performance. Thus, it is assumed that the value proposition can be supplied by the company as intended and that it is seen by consumers in the manner that decision-makers expect in order to reap rewards.

The exact resources and competencies that must be merged and changed in order to generate and provide the value offering, which ultimately contributes to company performance, are determined by the marketing strategy's content. A marketing plan must be well-timed with market demands in order to provide additional value and achieve performance. As a result, while analysing new market objectives or value propositions, time is crucial for marketing strategy decisions. Even though target markets or value propositions may not change as a result of a marketing strategy, timing is still a crucial element in most marketing plans, particularly in light of the rapidly shifting consumer preferences and tastes of today, which are accelerated by rapidly evolving technologies. According to research, most businesses also have precise timelines tied to their strategic marketing objectives or regular planning horizons that set deadlines and restrictions on how much time may be spent developing and implementing marketing strategies. Such significant time concerns often have an influence on other content selections in marketing strategies. For instance, various market segmentation, targeting, and value proposition options may be acceptable when a marketing plan must be established to generate a return on investment in 1 year as opposed to 2 years [4]–[6].

DISCUSSION

Types of Adaptation and Standardization: According to the literature, most research focus on the variables that affect the decision to choose a certain technique and attempt to identify the mechanisms that encourage uniformity or adaptability. Yet, the effectiveness of a standardisation or adaption plan is measured by its capacity to raise corporate performance. Effectiveness of an international marketing strategy is shown by its impact on the financial and strategic benefits that the business experiences as a result of the plan's adoption [7]–[9].

Modification

Although at a time of globalisation when many brands and items are almost globally popular, adaptation happens when businesses modify their sales tactics when entering other markets. These adaption choices lead to an adaptation strategy, which in turn affects the firm's competitiveness and, as a result, its performance in foreign markets in terms of sales, finances, and customer satisfaction. Adaptation tactics include altering a product's price structure, promotional mix, packaging, or even the product itself to meet the demands and preferences of a certain export market. In order to get a competitive edge while entering a foreign market and subsequently improve business performance, adaptation occurs when any component of the marketing plan is changed. A simple change to the packaging's colours and branding might accomplish the marketing goals, while more extensive adaptation tactics can entail creating new goods that are more suited to local tastes or new financing schemes that are better suited to the region's economy or market. The need of modification to satisfy different consumer requirements is emphasised by proponents of the worldwide marketing adaption method.

The adaptation school of thought's primary tenet is that marketers must take into account all environmental aspects and limits when entering a foreign market, including religion, language, climate, race, professions, education, taste, and various laws, cultures, and

communities. Researchers have, however, identified significant sources of difficult-to-measure constraints, such as cultural variations rooted in history, education, religion, values and attitudes, manners and customs, aesthetics as well as variations in taste, needs and wants, economics, and legal systems in the export markets. According to the adaptation technique, global corporations must determine how to modify their whole marketing strategy, including how they sell and distribute it, to meet changing consumer needs. It is critical for marketers to modify the marketing mix and marketing strategy to accommodate regional preferences, specific market needs, and divergent customer demands. The steps to putting into action a successful adaptation plan are as follows: after deciding strategically to change its marketing approach, a company must evaluate its goals and available resources in light of the specifics of the new foreign market it is entering. The advice of professionals who are acquainted with the new market is essential at this point in building an efficient approach. The adapted marketing strategy must be stated in terms of the marketing strategy's components, namely the product, price, distribution, and promotional aspects, all of which must be coordinated to achieve specific goals in the new market, as in the case of the launch of a new product in the domestic market.

Normalization

The marketing strategy of standardisation is the antithesis of adaptability. Companies that use a standardisation strategy enter overseas markets using the same marketing mix, offers, and presentations they used to entice clients in the native market. Standardization needs less expenditure compared to the adaption strategy to marketing since creating new commercials, packaging, and product lines is costly. The standardisation position contends that there is a fusion of cultures with equivalent environmental and consumer interests around the world, which necessitates the use of standardised goods in export markets. The proponents of this method contend that trade barriers are decreasing, technology is advancing, and businesses are emphasising a global orientation in their marketing strategies. A standardisation strategy's supporters also claim that it enables the presentation of a uniform image across nations. In order to achieve consistency with customers and to take advantage of economies of scale through lower costs, marketers in the globally oriented environment are developing a single strategy for the global market and standardising the marketing mix elements, namely product, price, promotion, and place. Levitt asserts that businesses with effective marketing have shifted away from personalising products and towards providing internationally standardised goods that are cutting-edge, practical, dependable, and affordable. The author continues by saying that businesses can perform well over the long term if they focus their marketing efforts on what everyone wants rather than worrying about the specifics of what everyone thinks they might like, which can be expensive to cater to when individual preferences are taken into account.

Success Stages of a Marketing Plan

A review of the literature reveals an increasing interest in the method used to create marketing strategies. This research focuses on the 4Ps components of the marketing mix and examines the performance consequences of applying various organisational methods to the formulation of marketing strategy. In particular, we created and tested a model that explains how the application of marketing mix components mediates the link between the quantity of marketing strategy approaches pursued in terms of adaptability and standardisation, and

business performance. Previous research on the effects of developing a marketing strategy nearly solely focused on direct financial performance, with varying degrees of success. The issue of utilising performance as an output variable is discussed by Ramanujam and Venkatraman, who state that any causal connection between planning traits and organisational success may be at best shaky. Researchers have often looked on formulation and implementation difficulties individually rather than as integrated parts, Menon et al. remark. Consequently, in this research, we assert that the best formulation approach is responsible for the execution of marketing plan's success. This is a crucial overview since the main goal of the strategy creation process is to enhance the execution of the marketing strategy, which leads to greater business performance. We contend that the persistence of revisiting through evaluation process the formulation and implementation of marketing strategy regarding the relationship between strategy-making and performance is justified by Noble and Mokwa's observation that "Marketing strategies only result in superior returns for an organisation when they are implemented successfully."

Development of a Marketing Strategy

Hart created an integrative framework that describes the complementary responsibilities that top managers and other organisational members play in the formulation of strategies. "Specifying both who is engaged in strategy-making and in what way provides valuable organisational principles for framework building," write Hart and Banbury. Strategy formulation includes defining the necessary personnel as well as their roles and duties. Apart from that, Westley and Mintzberg noted that strategy-making is a two-way street that calls for both inspiring leaders and capable followers. In Hart's theory, five types of strategy formation are covered: command, symbolic, rational, trans active, and generative. The five types described by Hart's framework essentially represent the various attitudes and views of senior managers and organisation members about the formulation of strategy. The command style describes an environment where a select group of senior managers oversee the creation of the strategy. The development of a strategy using a symbolic approach is influenced by the organization's purpose and long-term goals. Rational style is defined as the process of developing a plan that is governed by formal, documented rules. The term "trans active style" refers to decision-making that prioritises employee connection and learning, such as being mindful of initiatives to promote staff participation. Lastly, the generative approach refers to strategy development that promotes risk-taking and employee entrepreneurship. It is defined by experimental methodologies. Study of the literature reveals how businesses may use various strategy formulation methods as the cornerstone of strategy execution.

According to the Resource-Based View, the Paradox Perspective on Organizational Effectiveness, and Competitive Rationality Theory, organisations should be better able to execute their strategies as they utilise more strategy-making techniques. According to the resource-based view, a strategy-making process that uses a variety of styles will be more ambiguous and thus more challenging for other firms to understand and successfully imitate, giving the firm a competitive advantage and enhancing its performance. According to Barney, Moorman and Slotegraaf, and Slotegraaf et al., the business should be better able to execute its marketing plan if the strategy-making process is more difficult to mimic. In line with this, the paradox viewpoint suggests that using many organisational processes at once, even if they seem to be at odds with one another or to be competing with one another, may lead to a more successful strategy-making process. Using both a bottom-up oriented transactive style and a

top-down oriented command style simultaneously may be an excellent illustration of strategy-making processes that seem to be in conflict. Dickson claims that competitive rationality characterises the process of developing a marketing strategy as a "higher order routine" and that excellence in strategy-making requires the capacity to combine various organisational routines, such as market analysis and experimentation, which brings us to the marketing strategy's implementation stage[10], [11].

Execution of the Marketing Plan

Determining the specifics of how the marketing strategy's intended decisions on goal selection, choice of market and customer targets, desired value proposition, and timing can be realised through the selection of the most suitable set of marketing tactics, and allocating resources in ways designed to enact this, are all part of the implementation process. As a result, a successful execution of a marketing strategy must address both particular tactical challenges in the creation of an effective marketing programme and resource allocation and capabilities issues in carrying out each of the chosen marketing methods. As Noble and Mokwa note, there is no agreement on the meaning of implementation. Implementation is seen by Wind and Robertson as being identical with programme management and monitoring.

Implementation is the process through which plans are turned into deeds. However, simply refers to implementation as "the execution of strategy." We define implementation in this research as the company's proficiency in carrying out, supervising, and analysing its marketing plan based on these numerous implementation viewpoints. The goal of this research is to determine how marketing plan execution affects business performance. Strategic windows in the market emerge as a consequence of changes in the behaviours of both the targeted segments and the market as a whole, which causes the supply and demand not matching situation to shift continuously. Businesses can take advantage of these market opportunities strategically by offering either superior customer value thanks to their expertise in market segmentation and providing differentiated offerings to those targeted market segments, or by producing goods or services at lower relative costs thanks to their expertise in marketing programme management and evaluation. This implies that businesses should perform better as a result of their ability to capitalise on market opportunities if their marketing strategy is implemented correctly.

According to a research on the strategic planning process by Menon et al. , it is necessary to include elements from both strategy development and execution. The three processes of formulation, execution, and assessment are included in this research, and the implementation is thought of as the connection that mediates between the quantity of marketing mix components and company performance. The failure to consider implementation as a mediator between marketing strategy and firm performance could account for the lack of results, according to Noble and Mokwa , who refer to it as "a critical link between the formulation of marketing strategies and the achievement of superior organisational performance." The organic strategy process, as described by Farjoun , presents a paradigm in which strategy creation comes before strategy execution, which comes before company performance. Nevertheless, Farjoun contends that, regardless of how effectively a business prepares, success cannot be achieved without efficient execution, hence strategy development may not have as much of an impact on performance as previously thought. According to the research,

the use of marketing strategies yields favourable organisational returns and the capacity to carry out plan is inextricably linked to performance.

Due to their capacity to draw in greater marketing investments, businesses who are able to execute marketing strategies more effectively may be able to perform comparatively better. Faster new product creation is one of the primary outcomes that superior execution helps a firm to promote. This may allow higher levels of performance. Additionally, the success of marketing strategy implementation may be a reflection of marketing strategies that are superior as well as better marketing strategy alignment with firm level strategies, all of which have been demonstrated in prior studies to improve performance at the business unit and firm levels. As a result, this research assumes and simulates that the business performance would be attained by the effective use of marketing tactics. The effective execution of the marketing strategy depends on the alignment of the marketing programs. This entails converting each marketing strategy choice into precise action-oriented strategies that address the pertinent marketing program elements.

The conversion of a series of somewhat abstract strategic choices into more specific and in-depth marketing program activities is not always a single act of marketing program alignment with the marketing strategy execution. Designing marketing programs necessitates careful strategic decisions and frequently entails trade-offs, negotiation, and compromise because there are typically alternative operationalizing ways of marketing strategy decisions through and across marketing program factors, and decisions about one marketing program element may affect decisions concerning other marketing program elements. Moreover, offering targeted value propositions to the target market requires genuine distinction. As a result, the process of converting marketing strategy choices into marketing program designs has come to be seen as more of a creative endeavor than just an analytical one that contributes to improving corporate performance.

Leasing

In a lease, the owner of an item agrees to provide a third party the right to use the asset for a certain amount of time in return for regular rent payments. Customers profit from leasing agreements because they avoid paying the full cash cost of the good or service, protect themselves from rapid product obsolescence, may qualify for tax advantages, avoid the issue of disposing of equipment, and in certain cases, save some maintenance expenses. These advantages must be balanced against the expenses of leasing, which might be more expensive than outright purchasing.

Financial leases and operational leases are the two primary categories of leasing. A longer-term agreement that is completely amortised throughout the duration of the contract is a financial lease. Typically, the amount of the lease payments is more than the item's purchase price. The lease's terms and conditions change based on the convention and the state of the market. On occasion, the provider will consent to cover maintenance expenses throughout the lease term. This is typical, for instance, when renting photocopiers. At the conclusion of the rental term, the lessee may also have the opportunity to purchase the equipment. An operational lease has a shorter term, is revocable, and is not fully amortised. Given that they have shorter term, operating lease rates are often higher than finance lease rates. This method of acquisition might be appealing when equipment is only sometimes needed since it

eliminates the need to leave plant idle. Storage facilities as well as a variety of equipment, including bulldozers, skips, and diggers, may be offered for short-term rental.

Since leasing offers customers incentives that may distinguish product and service offerings, it may be useful to suppliers. As a result, it can draw buyers who would not otherwise find the product to be cheap or profitable. Due to the significance of leasing in sectors including data processing, photocopying, and automobiles, more and more businesses are hiring leasing consultants to advise clients on the terms and advantages of leasing. Setting leasing rates is a crucial marketing decision that should be done while keeping in mind the following factors: the desired relative attractiveness of leasing versus buying, the net present value of lease payments versus outright purchase, and the tax benefits to the customer of leasing versus buying; the prices set by the competitors; the perceived benefits of spreading payments out to consumers; and any additional benefits seen to be provided to customers, such as the supplier covering maintenance and insurance expenses.

Relationship control

The subject of reverse marketing addressed the significance of buyer-seller connections in marketing between organisations and provided instances of buyers taking a proactive approach in their interactions with suppliers. The inter-action method was created by the Industrial Marketing and Purchasing Group to describe the complexity of relationship management.²⁷ According to this theory, these interactions exist between two active parties. Hence, one embodiment of the interaction approach is reverse marketing. Changes in the activities of one party without taking into account or consulting the other party are unusual. Both parties may be active in adjustments to their own process or product technologies to accommodate each other.

In such cases, managing client connections will be a significant goal for industrial markets. The informal network made up of the close connections and relationships between employees of the supplier and the customer should also be taken into account in addition to the formal organisational arrangements like the usage of distributors, salespeople, and sales subsidiaries. Senior executives from Marks & Spencer have candid conversations with the boards of each of its main suppliers twice a year. It is referred to as a "royal visit" when representatives of Marks & Spencer pay a supplier a visit. Repainted factories, fresh uniforms, and cleaned equipment are all possible. This is a reflection of the high standards the company has for its suppliers and the influence it has on them.

Organizational marketing is based on the fact that many suppliers and purchasing organisations have been doing business with one another for a long time. For instance, Marks & Spencer has had commercial ties with its suppliers for over a century. Both the buyer and the seller may benefit significantly from such long-term ties. When buyers get to know individuals inside the supplier organisation and are aware of who to contact in the event of issues, risk is minimised for them. As a result, there is better communication, which allows for collaborative issue solving and design management. Sellers gain by having a better understanding of the needs of the buyer, and by earning the buyer's confidence, a strong barrier to entry for rival companies may be created.

Such intimate contacts may be advantageous for the creation of new products. Due to Marks & Spencer's tight ties to UK manufacturers, machine-washable lambswool textiles and

simple-to-iron cotton shirts were developed. Information provided by purchasers might also be useful to sellers. The knowledge regarding market changes that is pertinent to the seller's company is often gathered and shared by buyers. 28 When one of the parties in a partnership has a well-known company on their side, the other partner might acquire credibility by seeming to be affiliated with that business. Such reputational consequences might be seen as a "stamp of approval" that allows a company to forge new connections across its network.

In a commercial partnership, partners must be cautious not to grow too dependent on one another. By expanding the number of partners and/or decreasing switching costs, dependence may be increased. 30 The expenses incurred while changing a supplier or customer are known as switching costs. Due to the significant capital expenditure required, transferring from one computer supplier to another, for instance, may have extremely high switching costs. Parties in a partnership should be mindful that increasing switching costs may result in a reduction in flexibility when contemplating changing suppliers and an increase in buyer dependence.

Since shorter product lifecycles, more international competition, and changing technology position marketing and purchasing departments in vital strategic roles, close interactions in organisational marketplaces are unavoidable. Trusted suppliers are increasingly being seen as strategic partners by buyers, who share information and rely on their knowledge when creating new goods that are both cost-effective and high-quality. Such alliances may act as a formidable barrier to entry for other companies looking to work with a purchasing organisation. For instance, buying organisations like Honda, Toyota, and Daimler Chrysler will collaborate with their current strategic partners to give them the chance to match or exceed the offer within a given time frame, which can be as long as 18–24 months, when an outside supplier's offer involves lower costs, higher quality, or even more advanced technology. The marketing consequence is that the conventional manipulation of the four Ps (product, location, promotion, and pricing) is just one aspect of effective organisational marketing. Its core is built on the deft management of client relationships. Because of this, several businesses have hired customer relationship managers to manage the alliance and play a communicative and coordinated role in ensuring customer happiness. Yet more businesses have reorganised their sales teams to better reflect the significance of maintaining critical client connections. The term "key" or "major account management" refers to this procedure. Strategic alliances and key account management, it should be mentioned, may not be appropriate for all businesses. For instance, small businesses may not be able to afford the resources required to implement such procedures.

CONCLUSION

The salesman must make an effort to locate and contact important members of the decision-making unit in order to convince them of the advantages of the product when the DMU is complicated, as it is in many organisational purchasing scenarios. They must also be aware that different members could assess the goods using various criteria, and that they might need to adjust their sales presentation appropriately. In conclusion, tactics and sales strategies are essential elements of good business operations because they help companies engage customers, increase sales, and meet their revenue goals. Businesses can strengthen client connections, expand market share, and boost profitability by combining efficient sales practises and clearly defined sales plans. The success of these methods and approaches is

further increased by adjusting to the digital environment and being aware of the specifics of B2B sales. Prioritising and funding these areas gives organisations a competitive edge and puts them in a good position for long-term success.

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CHAPTER 11

A BRIEF DISCUSSION ON MARKET FRAGMENTATION

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ABSTRACT:

Markets are splintering to establish market groups due to variations in economic levels, lifestyles, personalities, experiences, and race. As a result, markets are probably going to become narrower as a wider variety of brands are offered to meet the various wants of consumers. Since it occurs in every sector, both locally and internationally, and because it affects brand positioning, marketing strategy, and product development, market fragmentation is significant as it pertains to market research. This chapter discusses sales circumstances, psychological factors, technology at work, and internet stores for sales. Several significant factors have an impact on sales management and selling. Then, we take into account certain sales environments, including sales channels, commercial/industrial/public authority, retail, and services selling. Examined as well are related activities that assist selling, such as sales promotions, displays, and public relations. Major managerial and environmental factors have an influence on how selling and sales management are done now and in the future.

KEYWORDS:

Company, Market, Management, Product, Sale.

INTRODUCTION

Sales must respond to a range of pressures as consumers adjust to a changing environment: increasing consumer and organisational buyer expectations; customer avoidance of buyer-seller interactions; growing influence of significant buyers; globalisation of markets; and market fragmentation. Increasing client expectations and focusing on providing far more than just basic necessities more organised buyers with a professional mindset, avoiding customer participation in buyer-seller discussions Market fragmentation, market globalisation, and growing purchasing power of key consumers. Automation of Salesforce, laptops and more advanced software, electronic data exchange, desktop video conferencing, and extranet. widespread usage of credit cards as payment methods and the use of such services as potential for database construction.

TV home shopping, the internet, and electronic commerce channels administrative forces. Telemarketing, direct mail, and direct marketing. combining sales and marketing using an intranet. requirements for sales representatives and sales managers. increasing customer/buyer expectations and meeting increased order demands. Consumers' expectations are raised to expect even higher levels in the future as they encounter greater standards of product quality and service. Experiences overseas and newcomers to sectors that establish higher standards of excellence may speed up this trend. "What makes customer happiness so difficult to attain is that you continuously raise the bar and lengthen the finish line," said J.D.

Power's chief executive. You keep going. When you serve your consumers better, they will want better care.

Customer expectations have increased as a result of technological advancements. Because of the internet, clients expect to be able to readily research businesses online. As a result, before receiving any sales pitches, they are already somewhat acquainted with the company, its offerings, and its staff. Customer expectations for response times to their requests and questions have grown as a result of improvements in communication through email and the internet. 4 The "Contact us" link has provided 24/7 access. Customers are also looking for more customised services and goods. Systems are often intricate and customised, and thus need a lot of support. In order to provide solutions and oversee long-term client relationships, salespeople must be able to manage cross-functional interactions. Customers are demanding more openness in business operations and more ethical procedures when corporate crises are reported in the media. As a result, sales management has a responsibility to teach their sales staff ethical selling techniques, and salespeople must exercise caution when choosing their arguments and incentives while trying to close a deal [1], [2].

Avoiding customer participation in buyer-seller discussions. According to studies, purchasing a vehicle is the least satisfying and most stressful experience of all retail purchases. Professional automotive salesmen may get negotiation training in addition to high-pressure sales techniques. As a result, people now see shopping as a hassle to be endured rather than a pleasant activity to enjoy. In response, several automakers have changed their trade-in strategies to include a set price, no pressure, and full book value. The majority of new vehicle providers in Britain now adhere to this principle after General Motors utilised it for the successful introduction of the Saturn in the United States.

Increasing influence of Significant Purchasers

Selling and sales management are being significantly impacted by the rising dominance of big competitors across numerous industries. They may request and get specific services, such as special client status, just-in-time inventory control, category management, and collaborative financing of promotions, thanks to their significant buying power. Future sales success will rely on a salesperson's capacity to fulfil the growing expectations of important clients and to coordinate the efforts of technical and sales personnel inside their company to do so.

Market Globalization

Companies are expanding internationally in order to increase sales and profits as home markets get saturated. Major corporations like Coca-Cola, Colgate-Palmolive, and Avon Products now get the majority of their sales from overseas markets. The worldwide challenge involves striking the right mix between expatriate and local sales representatives, adjusting to other cultures, lifestyles, and languages, competing with top-tier companies, and forging international partnerships with clients situated all over the globe. For instance, 3M has a wide range of international strategic clients, including original equipment manufacturers in the fields of electronics, appliances, automobiles, electrical systems, aircraft, furniture, consumer goods, and health care as well as industrial high-tech. 8 Coordination of global sales teams that sell to companies like Nortel, Samsung, Siemens, or P&G, where the customer may be located in more than 20 countries and require special terms of sale, technical support, pricing,

and product customization, is a significant challenge for such transnational corporations. Because of this complexity, strategic account managers must have improved cooperation and coordination abilities to guarantee that consumers get top-notch service [3], [4].

DISCUSSION

Understanding distinct cultural expectations and considering numerous cultural concerns are necessary when businesses grow into new international markets. Differences in ethics are also crucial factors to take into account since what is moral in one nation may not be in another. Hence, even if they may be involved in standardised rather than integrated operations, international corporations must take this into consideration. Managers in marketing and sales must be skilled in spotting shifts in customer preferences and creating plans that cater to a more diverse and multicultural society.

Forces of technology

The emphasis shows how important technical factors are to selling and sales management. Three main factors are at work:

1. Automating the sales force;
2. Virtual offices for sales;
3. Online shopping options.

Nowadays, it seems like everyone is busier than ever attempting to strike a balance between work and family obligations. Online shopping may be done in a variety of ways. Customers are embracing the idea of doing their internet shopping from home, which includes bidding on items on auction sites and buying groceries. Salesforce automation encompasses tablets, laptop and palmtop computers, mobile phones, fax machines, email clients, and more sophisticated sales software that facilitates activities like trip and account planning as well as the hiring, choosing, and evaluating of sales professionals. Moreover, electronic data interchange creates computer connections between producers and distributors, enabling a direct flow of information.

Purchase orders, invoices, price quotes, delivery dates, reports, and promotional material, for instance, may all be shared. Desktop video conferencing has been made feasible by technological advancements, allowing individuals to conduct sales meetings, training sessions, and client interactions without having to leave their workplaces. Salespeople may deliver business and product information, video content, and testimonials to customers within their offices at the click of a laptop button thanks to customer relationship management technologies, especially databases. Also, this makes it possible for all supplier staff to access the same information, allowing the client to be provided with a consistent message and picture. These information systems may also be supplemented by intranets or even connected to them. Modern technology has promoted the establishment of virtual offices, enabling sales personnel to stay in touch with head office, clients, and coworkers. A parked automobile or even your house might serve as the virtual workplace. Since salesmen won't have to spend as much time or money travelling, which is normally a part of the work, they will be more satisfied with their jobs [5], [6].

The internet is the electronic sales channel that is expanding the quickest. Its effects go beyond merely shrinking salesforces to include shifting the sales team's emphasis. The Dell

sales team is urged, for instance, to persuade clients to make online purchases. The goal is to free up costly salespeople's time from transactional selling so that more time can be allocated to securing important new orders.¹⁰ The internet has also elevated consumer expectations about salespeople's familiarity with their firm and response. The capacity of merchants to enhance consumer interactions has been significantly impacted by the internet. Little study has been done in this area, according to Grewal, Levy, and Marshall¹¹. They talk about how the salesperson's ability to perform in the selling process may be limited or enabled by internet-related elements, as well as the consequences of online constraints. Looked at how much websites and email were being used in the selling process and noted that the internet offers vendors a chance to contact more easily with new and current national and international clients. After looking at a sample of advertising companies, they came to the conclusion that various selling responsibilities required varied amounts of email and internet usage.

The frequency of website communication was higher among high-income agencies than it was among low-income agencies, but there were no significant variations in the usage of email between the two groups. More recent research by Santosh, Abhishek, Bappaditya, and Burnwal¹³ argues that e-commerce may function as a mediator between the front end and back end of the internet, with a customer using a computer as the front end to access all of the website's features, such as selling and buying things. The server processes this data and provides the client with the required outcomes. E-commerce has made it simpler for individuals to be more productive and to save time than it was before since customers and sellers used to carry out this procedure physically in an inefficient way. It offers enormous promise for manufacturing, retail, and service operations while changing supply-chain management difficulties.

A corporation may conduct its business via an electronic store thanks to e-dynamic commerce's online presence. Without the requirement for human processing, products may be promoted, sold, and paid for online. Due of the internet's size, advertisements and websites may be promoted globally for almost little money, and information can be altered immediately since the site can be maintained current with the newest items to meet customer demand. The capacity to conduct safe online transactions while also virtually instantly verifying and validating credit card transactions is e-largest commerce's benefit. Since they are considerably cheaper than a shop in a town and have the capacity to service a much larger number of clients, this has led to an explosion of e-commerce sites.

IT advancements have improved company communication and transactions, but Salo and Wendelin¹⁴ argued that the impact of Technology on business relationships is still not well understood. According to their study, which looked at how a digital bond develops in a commercial connection, business partners are bound together by interlocking behaviours that have an impact on other bonds and the company relationship. Digital ties were shown to be catalysts for other relationships that strengthen the corporate connection. To improve the effectiveness of routine company operations, they recommended that managers participate in digital bonding behaviour with important clients and suppliers.

In 2014, Blank and Groselj clarified theoretical aspects of internet usage that had been mixed up in earlier research in order to evaluate the dimensions of internet use in the UK. Regression studies were performed to validate three dimensions after the researchers

identified ten separate categories of online activities. They also identified the characteristics of each category's users in terms of their frequency of usage, diversity of uses, and kinds of use. Every kind had a distinctive and unique user. As a result of the internet's extreme diversity, they came to the conclusion that it was impossible to talk about "internet usage" as a universal phenomenon and that instead, researchers must be specific about the use they are looking at.

The literature has mainly ignored the technology connected to the development of social media. They proposed that social media has been identified as a key new selling tool as a result of evolving technological features inside the sales environment. Six key themes emerged from focus groups used to examine the breadth of current technology use by sales managers and salespeople: connection, relationships, selling tools, generational, worldwide, and sales/marketing interface. There was a need for further study in this area since their findings demonstrated that the buyer-seller relationship had undergone a revolution, which had some unexpected effects on the effectiveness of sales organisations.

Another new channel is important to note since it has reduced the necessity for field salesforces. Television home shopping, in which customers place phone orders after watching cable television presenters advertise everything from jewellery to consumer goods, is growing in popularity. The presenter in this instance effectively serves as the salesman. Teleshopping is being available on more networks. At times when they aren't showing programming, other networks provide teleshopping.

Organizational Forces

Managers may adapt to the environment by creating fresh methods and techniques to increase sales performance, such as: using direct marketing methods; enhancing the partnership between sales and marketing; urging salespeople to enrol in training courses and get professional certifications. The growing importance of direct marketing, which includes telemarketing and direct mail. Yet, a new development is the replacement of conventional salesmen by computer stations, particularly in American retail establishments. Daewoo's usage of kiosks in automotive showrooms, where clients may find out about products and prices, marked the beginning of the serious use of computer stations in Europe. The procedure has advanced in the US, where a number of Ford dealerships have set up computer terminals that completely replace personnel. Without the assistance of a salesman, customers may use a computer to type out their order and send it to the manufacturer, compare the characteristics of competing models, compute running costs, compute monthly payments, and more.

While it is acknowledged that efficient ties between sales and marketing may be developed, in actuality, combining the two roles into a successful whole can sometimes be impeded by poor communication. Links and information sharing may be improved by establishing intranets that connect workers, suppliers, and consumers through their PCs. Email, group projects, and desktop publishing are all done on intranets. Its adoption may improve the efficiency of the field sales force, which needs quick access to information that is always changing, such as product specs, competition news, and pricing revisions, and it enables information exchange between sales and marketing.

Sales management is reacting by acknowledging the value of education and professional credentials. In order to improve sales professionalism, abilities, and competences, the Chartered Institute of Marketing in Britain provides qualifications in marketing at the entry-level, professional, and postgraduate levels. These pressures have the effect of shifting the conventional sales organization's emphasis from taking and making orders to strategic client management. Repositioning sales as a crucial component of a company's competitiveness in which the sales organisation is strongly integrated into marketing strategy and planning is the issue. The sales organisation is tasked with taking a strategic approach to designing and implementing superior customer relationships as part of this process, which puts the customer at the centre of the business's attention. Sales management is also required to work towards the complete integration of how customer relationships are designed, established, managed, and sustained. Companies like Cisco, for instance, have created sales methods that employ human selling when the transaction is crucial, complex, and the choice is unclear - often the first sale to a client or a new application - allowing future purchases to be made online.

Three tasks must be carried out in order to implement strategic customer management: Enhancing client knowledge to strengthen customer connections is an example of intelligence. The salespeople of world-class sales organisations have a profound awareness of the client's company, enabling them to see requirements and possibilities before the customer, according to a study on corporate buyers' perceptions of these organisations. The theory is that by seeing fresh possibilities in the end-user markets of their clients, sellers may obtain a competitive edge. In order to do this, the seller must go from a basic grasp of the client's organisation to a market understanding of the consumer. For instance, Johnson Controls in the United States did not get the contract to provide the seats and electrical controls for Ford's F-series vehicles by talking with Ford about seats and switches. Johnson had a competitive edge over Ford because it knew more about the seating and control preferences of truck drivers.

Redirecting salesforce efforts to the management and exploitation of crucial interfaces that impact customer value is known as the "interfaces" strategy. The conventional salesperson and sales management methods must be integrated with the new business difficulties brought about by technological advancements in order to effectively manage strategic client relationships. For instance, the American company Western and Southern Financial Group has increased its 2,200 field sales reps by adding contact centres and internet sales activities. A seamless customer connection across all channels, working with and through the new channels, adopting a new collaborative sales representative position, and depending on salesperson trust-building to promote information sharing are just a few of the hurdles. The goal is to create a system that effectively manages customer relationships, enables customers to choose their preferred channel, and effectively delivers value to them.

Integration is the process of combining all business operations and procedures that have an impact on customer value into a single, persistent point of value delivery to clients. The requirement for cross-functional and cross-border integration to create higher customer value is similar to the prior activity but has a larger reach. Customer interactions have been harmed by a lack of such cooperation. One business, for instance, ran into issues due to a lack of integration between sales and supply chain management when the sales director saw that a key client was placing irregular orders as and when stock control indicated the need for extra

goods. He understood that if the client could be convinced to embrace continuous replenishment, his stock cover may be decreased.

The sales director got a call from the upset client two days after the customer decided to switch to the new system, stating that he was virtually out of stock and was about to go with a different supplier. To find the issue, the sales director hurried to the distribution centre. The solution was straightforward: big orders received first priority from the distribution system. Due to the switch to continuous replenishment, the client unfortunately placed several minor orders that were given poor priority and often weren't completed by the end of the day[7], [8]. We now evaluate the unique environments in which selling occurs as well as some of the activities, including sales promotions and exhibits, that support selling activities after examining the primary variables that have an influence on the sales function.

Channels of sales

Logistics, or physical distribution management, and routes of distribution are two distinct but interrelated tasks that are involved in distribution. Distribution used to be straightforward, with local producers selling to consumers who often picked up the items personally. Channel choices are today highly complicated due to modern production, more global customers, improved transportation and communications, and corporate specialisation. Costs of distribution have increased in comparison to manufacturing. Nonetheless, manufacturing costs as a share of overall expenses are currently lower than they were due to automation and e-commerce. Now, each component is thought about[9].

CONCLUSION

Fragmentation has little impact on equities that trade seldom because they hardly fragment, a negative impact on the liquidity of somewhat more active companies that at least partially fragment the market, and growing positive effects on the liquidity of actively traded stocks. The conclusion for salespeople is that they must acknowledge that demands for product quality, customer service, and value will continue to climb for both consumers and corporate buyers. To meet this challenge, they must promote and put into practise ongoing improvements in quality standards. Of course, the same applies to corporate customers, particularly in light of the tendencies mentioned.

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CHAPTER 12

MANAGEMENT OF PHYSICAL DISTRIBUTION OR LOGISTICS

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ABSTRACT:

Physical distribution management (PDM) essentially entails regulating the flow of supplies and items from their origin to their final destination. It is one of the most crucial components of any company and a very complicated procedure. The "opposite" side of marketing is PDM. This chapter covers the topics of distribution channels, evaluating sales channels, product earning potential, product lifecycle, nonmarketing factors, characteristics of sales channels, and control over sales channels. In order to ensure the effective transportation of goods and materials from the place of origin to the final destination, physical distribution management, also known as logistics, is essential. This summary gives a general overview of the importance of good logistics management, emphasising how it helps different industries increase supply chain performance while cutting costs and increasing customer satisfaction.

KEYWORDS:

Company, Market, Marketing, Management, Sales.

INTRODUCTION

While some authors imply that PDM is more concerned with tactics and logistics is more focused on strategic matters, the words logistics and PDM are interchangeable. Logistics refers to the efficient and cost-effective management of the physical movement of materials from their place of origin through the delivery of completed items to the final customer. Traditionally, logistics begins with the client and moves away from the original source of supply. Its efficient coordination is frequently described using the phrase supply chain integration. Each of them is now taken into consideration. The logistics mix summarises the functional factors involved in this process[1]–[3].

Order Processing: The first step requires close customer communication. A well-designed system should be quick and efficient with straightforward administrative processes.

Material Handling: This generally depends on the product's physical attributes, such as weight, bulk relative to value, and perishability, all of which will affect how the product is carried and kept. Hence, striking a balance between the company's service standards and expenses is crucial.

Warehousing: In several businesses, the proximity of depots and warehouses to final consumers is crucial. Warehouses may store buffer stock and aid in balancing production peaks and troughs. Once again, a balance between service levels and pricing is necessary in this process.

Inventory Control: This has emerged as a crucial problem with the increasing adoption of just-in-time, or lean, manufacturing. In place of days or weeks, it is now common practise to conceive about stockholding in terms of hours. The benefits of lean manufacturing are

obvious given that an accounting rule of thumb is that the physical act of stockholding may increase the expenses of inventory by 25% without increasing its value.

Transportation: this includes both the actual delivery of products to clients and the planning of the movement of materials from suppliers for use in manufacturing. Of course, it plays a crucial role in businesses that employ a lean manufacturing approach, and this often entails higher costs due to lower batch and load sizes, which frequently lead to incomplete loads.

Packaging: Although the design of packaging for a container that is placed on a supermarket shelf often comes within the purview of marketing communications, the logistics mix category includes outer containers and packaging that is suitable for shipment through different forms of transportation. Regarding logistics, there are two philosophical stances. Management views logistics as a system of interconnected components, which is known as a "systems concept." The opposing viewpoint sees it as a total cost strategy in which management seeks to reduce the price of utilising the parts together.

The Distribution Channels

To reduce costs, management should review distribution networks on a regular basis. Company policy dictates the marketing channels, which in turn affects how the sales force should be organised. A sales channel is the path that products traverse from supplier to client throughout the selling process. Sometimes the route is direct, particularly when the sold commodities are used in the production process. The final products could subsequently be offered through another channel. An example of a product is fuel injection systems, which are supplied to automakers; the automakers then sell the cars to distributors, who ultimately sell the cars to end users. Several distinct sales channels may be engaged at various phases of production when we look at a product from the raw material stage to the finished product. A manufacturer may sell to a wholesaler or agent, who then sells to additional clients in smaller numbers. This is an example of an indirect sales channel. This is referred to as "breaking bulk." The sales manager's primary responsibility is channel management. This is a significant obligation since, for the majority of businesses, the effectiveness and efficiency with which their goods are marketed via the members of their marketing channel determines whether they succeed or fail. The consequence is that sales managers need to be trained in how to handle channel management-related problems.

Evaluating the Sales Channels

The following variables must be taken into account by the business when choosing or reevaluating channels: the market, channel costs, product, profit potential, channel structure, product lifecycle, and non-marketing aspects. To make sure that as many prospective customers as possible will have a chance to buy the good or service, this has to be studied. Another thing to think about is not alienating current clients. Channel compatibility with competing items that are identical to yours is crucial. Customers are often cautious, and any departure from the recognised standard may be met with mistrust. Going off the established channel is not advisable unless there are good reasons to do so. For instance, unless the firm was offering a very specialised form of food or even delivering it as part of a hamper pack, a maker of canned food would not typically contemplate selling via mail order. The business would instead make use of conventional distribution channels like food multiples and cash and carry. Businesses need to take care to preserve the standing and reputation of the

channels. Levi's previously filed a lawsuit against Tesco for selling its jeans without its express consent[4], [5].

Channel expenses

Short channels are often the most expensive. A business that sells directly may reach a large market, but in addition to additional salesforce expenditure, the company also faces higher shipping and storage expenses. This is offset by the fact that there will be a higher profit margin due to the elimination of distribution middlemen and the lack of need to cover their profits. In addition to meeting these financial requirements, short channels offer the benefit of being closer to end customers, giving the business a greater opportunity to anticipate and satisfy their demands. Shortening distribution channels has been increasingly popular among manufacturers in recent years, especially in cases where advertising has been utilised to pre-sell items to customers.

DISCUSSION

Longer channels are often more suitable for low-price, low-tech products. The majority of industrial goods are sold directly from the maker to the consumer because more complicated items, which sometimes need extensive after-sales care, tend to be supplied via short routes. A vast product range may make it beneficial for the manufacturer to advertise directly since the salesperson has a bigger product portfolio with which to pique the customer's interest, which increases the possibility for profit.

Since throughout the supply chain it may be blended with complementary goods of other manufacturers, a limited product line is better suited to a longer channel. This results in a greater selection of things with which to interest the consumer. In this instance, the ultimate selling role is carried out by distribution channels rather than producers. A maker of bathroom fixtures that distributes via builders' merchants serves as an example here. These fittings are then sold to builders together with the other components they need[6], [7].

Earning Potential

There comes a time when the expenses of increasing sales via a channel surpass the income and profits generated by doing so. For instance, a producer of a high-end perfume wouldn't distribute in supermarkets or run television ads at prime time. Sales would undoubtedly grow if the firm took this action, but due to the expenses associated with doing so, it would become unprofitable. It is an accounting issue, and channel expenditure, profit, and gross margins must all be balanced. Short channel manufacturers are more likely to have high gross margins but also higher channel costs. Longer channels will result in reduced channel costs and correspondingly lower gross margins for the manufacturer.

The participants in that channel influence a manufacturer's decision about the distribution middlemen to some level. It will be difficult for a manufacturer to operate outside the established channel if the channel's members are powerful. In certain circumstances, it could be challenging to enter the market unless the product stands out from the competition via distinctiveness or a cheaper price than those currently popular in the market. A new detergent producer could find it challenging to sell their goods via bigger supermarkets, as an example. The maker would need to persuade the channel's customers that the detergent was superior to others currently on the market or provide favourable conditions and pricing. It may be

distinguished based on how it affects the environment. Detergent is also primarily promoted using a "pull" technique, which depends on consumer advertising to foster brand loyalty and pre-sell the item to end-users. To generate awareness, interest, trial, and ultimately brand loyalty for a new product, a manufacturer would need to invest heavily in mass marketing. Alternatively, the manufacturer might try to "push" the product through the channel by offering trade incentives, likely at a lower end price than rival products and with higher profit margins for retailers. It is clear that entering the market aggressively as a new detergent maker without significant monetary resources at its disposal would be a difficult undertaking.

Lifecycle of a product

How far along the product life cycle it is must be taken into account. A fresh idea or product that is just beginning its life cycle may need heavy distribution to get off the ground. As the product gets more established, it's possible that after-sales service standards may become more significant, leading to a shift to selective distribution, where only those dealers who can provide the required level of after-sales care are permitted to sell the product. Sales, on the other hand, start off modestly, in line with the diffusion principle. The early parts of the life cycle would thus only need a small number of distributors, if any.

When it comes to TVs, the distribution model has completely circled around, going from intense to selective to back to intensive. This is due to the fact that television service is now quite easy due to the comparable construction of TVs and the replacement of standard equipment when repairs are required. A television repairman is no longer required to be an expert in a single model. The makers of televisions are aware that when models are comparable, buyers are less likely to be tempted to a specific brand due to its purported technological superiority or level of after-sales support. Making sure the buyer can notice the brand and contrast it with other brands is now the most important component. So, a manufacturer's distribution goal is to get the most publicity at the point of sale.

No Marketing Variables

The quantity of financing that is accessible is influenced by non-marketing variables. It's possible that a company with an innovative product is unable to fully capitalise on it due to financial limitations. Since it is unable to pay to hire a field salesforce, the company may be forced to distribute via a middleman. In contrast, the company could choose to employ a less expensive sales channel like mail order, even if the product's physical attributes might not make it appropriate for mail order. When selling overseas, non-marketing variables often come into play since some businesses see export orders as a complement to domestic commerce and are willing to provide an agency to anybody who is likely to get orders, regardless of their commercial status. It should be emphasised that there are situations of businesses that signed into export agency agreements when they were tiny and exporting was somewhat insignificant. A detailed examination of international implications may be found. Exporting became essential to the enterprises as they developed, but it was difficult and costly to undo hastily entered into agency arrangements. These businesses often had to stick with the initial agreements, sometimes against their best long-term interests.

Features of Sales Channels

One of the more reliable components of the marketing mix is the marketing channel. Unlike to pricing, which is very simple to control, changing a channel is expensive and difficult. For

instance, changing from selective to intense distribution is a policy choice that will directly impact the size of the salesforce as well as the kinds of selling strategies to be used. Selecting the best channel is the key challenge that businesses must deal with.

Also, businesses must be able to change with innovation and growth while keeping an eye on their current and prospective clients. This covers the kind of sales outlet that has to be supported from the perspective of sales management. A manufacturer essentially has a choice of one of four distribution models:

1. **Direct:** The maker sells and delivers directly to the end-user without the need of an intermediary.
2. **Strict:** To facilitate better marketing of the goods, the producer sells via a select group of intermediaries who are selected according to their specific skills or capabilities.
3. **Intensive:** The manufacturer sells via the greatest number of channels and needs the greatest amount of exposure at the time of sale. Service and post-sale considerations are less significant. Cigarettes, morning cereals, and detergents are among examples.
4. **Exclusive:** The producer only sells to a select group of dealers. Using the auto industry as an example, distributors are required to provide levels of stockholding, after-sales service, etc. that manufacturers think adequate since distributors' service support is ultimately what manufacturers' reputations rely on.

Control over Sales Channels

Decisions about channels are crucial for two main reasons: Such choices often include a corporation entering into long-term obligations, frequently to other organisations. Such choices might be hard to alter once made, at least temporarily. A corporation will eventually need to reevaluate whether or not its channel strategy is optimal and maybe make modifications due to the dynamic nature of marketing channels. Such a shift is not comparable to altering pricing or promotional tactics, however. The marketing and operational activities of a corporation may all be significantly impacted by channel selections. For instance, channel design and choice are influenced by target market choice, which in turn influences them. Similar to this, a company's choice of channel must be reflected in choices on the marketing mix, such as price, product, and promotion.

The firm itself, in particular overall corporate and marketing goals and company resources, is a crucial aspect in defining possibilities for channel selection. For instance, a business. With long-term development goals focused on expanding market share, a company may need to consider deepening and broadening its distribution networks. Similar to this, businesses that want to dominate their respective markets like the supermarket market must think about distributing via multiples. A smaller business with lower financial resources could be compelled to use more indirect channels and will undoubtedly have little influence over how the channel is managed overall. Distribution management and choices should align with and reflect overall business goals and marketing strategy, just like all other marketing mix decisions.

The corporation may find that its desired target market is inaccessible via the existing channels, or it may find that this target market can only be supplied successfully through a certain system of distribution, but in any instance, the choice of target market and channel

must be made jointly. Customers' demands, tastes, and geographic distribution, as well as the quantity of consumers, must all be taken into account.

The following four strategic components of channel selection and design: The definition and selection of the fundamental channel structure, which takes into account the channel's length, the kinds of intermediaries, and the roles they serve. Determining the requisite market exposure is the second step, and it has to do with choosing how many intermediaries to utilise and how far to disperse them geographically. Mechanisms and processes for assuring maximum channel cooperation and the minimization of channel conflict, such as defining territorial rights and franchising terms.

The marketing and channel support strategies, deals with the relative importance and focus of marketing initiatives in the channel. The channel can be better maintained and there will be less chances for future dispute and misunderstanding if these components are in place. Commercial, industrial, and public authority sales. These groups are included because they both use a similar sales strategy and display behaviour that is consistent with organisational behaviour. These marketplaces are distinguished from consumer markets by a number of features.

Fewer Clients

Businesses and institutions buy products for use in their own operations or for use in the production of other products. Few and expensive purchases are being made by the few prospective buyers.

Specialized Markets

Industrial markets are often quite concentrated. The UK textile sector, which is concentrated in Lancashire and Yorkshire, is one example. An industrial salesman who specialises in one industry could only work with a small number of clients in a small geographic region.

Difficult Buying Choices

In the case of a public authority, when a buying committee may be engaged in a substantial purchase, purchasing choices often include a huge number of individuals. The decision-making unit may be observed in action when more than just the buyer is engaged in industrial purchasing choices. In certain circumstances, the technical specifier, manufacturing staff, and financial staff are also involved. The result may be a delay in the negotiating and decision-making process. Salespeople must interact and connect with people in a range of roles while also customising their selling strategies to meet each customer's demands. Examples include the requirement to persuade specifiers of the product's technical qualities, manufacturing personnel's need for delivery assurance, and consumers' desire for value for money. When selling technically challenging items, a sales team may be used, with each member collaborating with their counterpart in the purchasing team, for example, a sales engineer collaborating with engineers in the purchasing firm.

Long-Term Associations

It's possible for a life insurance policy salesman to close a deal without ever seeing the client again. Because of the nature of selling in commercial, industrial, and public authority

contexts, long-term partnerships develop and both sides rely on one another for dependable supply and consistent business.

Long-term personal ties have a propensity to become strong, and high-pressure sales tactics could backfire. A more thoughtful strategy that has salespeople assess the requirements of specific consumers and market the advantages of the product to meet those needs is more likely to be effective. It's crucial that salespeople be able to handle complaints and provide dependable after-sales support. According to connection selling theory, a competent salesman must know how to build and maintain relationships with important client groups. Sales in a business-to-business setting are more often linked to key account management and the creation of client solutions. Instead than taking typical orders, the salesman functions more as a relationship manager.

Reciprocal Business

According to this agreement, firm A buys certain goods made by company B, and vice versa. Such agreements are typically made at the senior management level and are frequently made when there is a financial connection between the companies, such as when they are members of the same group or when the directors of the companies simply want to formalise an agreement to buy as much of each other's products as possible. Such agreements discourage free competition, which may be annoying for both customers and sellers. Much as salespeople do not appreciate having a large portion of a prospective market permanently excluded due to a reciprocal trade relationship, buyers do not like being informed where they must make their purchases. Yet, there will often be an additional discount as an incentive[8]–[10].

CONCLUSION

This was a long chapter that was necessary since it established the sales settings in their proper circumstances. It has been shown that various marketing strategies must be used based on the circumstances. The relevance of environmental and management influences has been studied and shown. Several sales environments, such as sales channels, commercial/industrial/public authorities, resellers, and services offering, have been studied. In order to optimise supply chain efficiency, cut costs, and raise customer happiness, organisations must manage physical distribution or logistics effectively. Organisations can increase operational efficiency and gain a competitive advantage by combining transportation, warehousing, inventory management, and information flow. In today's globalised and digitally-driven company climate, embracing technology, responding to market changes, and putting sustainable practises into practise are crucial factors for successful logistics management.

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CHAPTER 13

A BRIEF DISCUSSION ON VARIETIES OF PRODUCTION

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ABSTRACT:

One of the most often used words is "production," which is frequently used in business-related interactions. The kind and size of the enterprise or organization does not matter since everyone strives to be successful, whether it be in small- or large-scale industries. The amount and quality of the output for the firms may be used to measure success. Below is a basic explanation of what the word "production" implies in the context of trade. The idea of distinct types of production includes the many methods and tactics used in manufacturing and production operations across various businesses and sectors.

This abstract gives a general overview of the importance of comprehending and using different production techniques, emphasising their effects on effectiveness, quality, adaptability, and overall performance in satisfying market needs. The range of production techniques includes more contemporary techniques like lean production, agile production, and customised manufacturing, as well as more conventional methods like mass production. Depending on the particular needs of the market and sector, each approach has a different set of ideas, methodologies, and organisational structures that define it. These methods also offer varying benefits and trade-offs.

KEYWORDS:

Advertising, Marketing, Management, Production, Selling.

INTRODUCTION

Specifically, industrial sales are relevant here. The kind of selling strategy to be utilised may be determined by the kind of manufacturing carried out by the company to whom the salesperson is selling. There are many various forms of production:

Job Production: An item is created or manufactured specifically for a customer's needs. Under such situations, demand forecasting is challenging. Ships, custom-made clothing, and hospital building are a few examples.

Batch Production: a number of goods or parts are produced simultaneously, but not continuously. Similar to job production, batches are often prepared to meet the specific needs of each client, although sometimes, batches are made in advance of orders. Examples of products include clothing, furniture, and books.

Flow Manufacturing: Flow manufacturing refers to the ongoing creation of same or comparable goods in expectation of sales. Examples include washing machines, video recorders, and automobiles.

Process Production: A completed product is produced at the conclusion of a manufacturing process that starts with raw materials. Chemicals, brewing, and plastic manufacturing are a few examples.

Salespeople that work in a variety of these environments must use various strategies in each. In order to guarantee that the company is requested to submit a quote from the onset for flow manufacturing, the salesperson must anticipate model modifications. They must also follow up on the quotation in the hope of getting an order that will be completed throughout the course of the product's life. If the salesman is unsuccessful at this point, they may not have another chance to sell to the company until the next model shift, when it will be challenging to unseat a long-standing supplier[1]–[3].

Lean production, also known as just-in-time manufacturing, is often used in flow production scenarios. As will be explained, manufacturers strive for low stockholding of raw materials and components, therefore dependability of quality and delivery is crucial. There are several long-term partnerships with suppliers. The ideal level of quality that providers should aim for is "zero faults." Losing an order in job production is often not as serious since, as long as the company has been effectively represented, it should be requested to quote for the next order and maybe succeed there. Losing a potential order is serious, but in the case of job production, you might only have to wait a short while before being asked to submit a quote for a different job, whereas in the case of flow production, it might take years before the model is altered and another opportunity to submit a quote is presented.

Reselling Anything

Selling to retailers falls under this category, the majority of whom being chain stores like Tesco, Morrisons, Sainsbury's, and Asda that essentially serve as their own wholesalers. Independents buy from wholesalers or businesses that provide cash and carry services, like Makro. Several stores are a part of independent chains like SPAR. Many purchases are centralised, and the buyer often visits the supplier. The development of retailing may be seen in the shifting retailing trends since the conclusion of World War II. We initially classify seven basic sorts of selling outlets before analysing these evolving retailing patterns:

Multiples: classified as a member of a chain of retailers with 10 or more locations that all carry a comparable selection of goods. Multiples currently dominate the retail trade in fast-moving consumer goods in Britain since this is one of the sectors of retailing that has grown the quickest. Typically, supermarkets come under this heading. Variety chains are similar to multiples, except they offer a larger variety of goods and need five branches to qualify.

Co-operative Societies: Each society is owned and run by the customers that frequent it, and its board of directors is chosen by those customers. Anybody may join by investing one share. The movement began in Rochdale in 1844, and its origins are known. Its guiding ideas are: open enrollment; democratic oversight; the payment of capital-related restricted interest; the operation's surplus was supposed to be transferred to members in proportion to their purchases; this was initially done via dividends but has since been replaced by trading stamps, which is typically preferred over cheaper pricing; the delivery of education; social cohesion on a national and worldwide scale[4].

Events in 2014, however, indicate that such a movement could struggle to survive in a highly competitive commercial climate. Department shops are establishments that include five or

more departments under one roof, at least 25 staff, and offer a variety of products, including a significant number of clothes and home items. Independents: businesspeople that own their own stores. The first variant is when the independent is a member of a retail purchasing group. The merchants in this informal alliance get together to buy in large quantities. When a wholesaler or group of wholesalers encourages retailers to associate with them and agrees to receive the majority of their orders from them, it is a higher-profile arrangement. These arrangements are known as voluntary chains or groups. In addition to their usual title, participating independent stores have an identification emblem. Retailers voluntarily agree to follow by the group's or chain's norms, including those pertaining to accounting practises, store amenities, and collective marketing and promotional initiatives. This includes a lot of restaurant franchise chains.

Mail order business has grown considerably in recent years. The mail order warehouse, which offers a wide variety of products, is the most common form of arrangement. Glossy catalogues are the medium through which business is performed; designated commission agents sell to friends and family. Commodity experts who deal in products like gardening supplies, government overstock, and hi-fi also do mail orders. They market by direct mail and in the proper specialised media. The growth of Sunday colour supplements has greatly increased this sort of company. Several businesses that operate in broader product categories utilise such colour additives as advertising tools. Several department shops supply catalogues sometimes and postal services.

Direct selling: For many years, party plan businesses have conducted in-home sales to clients. Tupperware manufactures a selection of high-quality cookware and other products for the storage of food and beverages. A group of visitors who have been invited by the host of the house where the presentation is taking place watch a direct salesman show items. A % commission on orders placed serves as the host's pay. Avon Cosmetics is a well-known brand in the direct selling industry, and its part-time sales representatives use a catalogue to market to customers in a particular area. A case study on this business is included at the conclusion. During the Second World War, purchasing from a "travelling store" was common, but as people grew more mobile, that popularity dwindled. Yet, selling customised things via this medium is becoming a popular trend.

DISCUSSION

With the concentration of buying power in fewer hands as a result of the multiples' success, manufacturers had to reevaluate their sales methods. Manufacturers in the FMCG industry are becoming more and more engaged in merchandising and distribution control to support their "pull" marketing tactics. As a result, significant advertising expenses have been incurred, and parallel point-of-sale merchandising action has been required to guarantee that products are promoted in-store in support of national advertising. Large manufacturers using a "pull" approach have been able to dominate their distributive middlemen as a consequence; these intermediaries could only turn away demand generated by advertising and branding at the risk of losing business. Due to manufacturers' ability to choose where their specific items would be displayed in stores, this control has resulted in decreased margins for retailers. For instance, the main supermarkets may be ordered to place Pringles products on certain shelves. Major companies' hefty advertising campaigns have given these manufacturers sway over their distribution channels[5], [6].

Manufacturers first resisted the creation of the multiples, but later realised that dealing with them directly would be to their benefit. This was due to multiples placing bulk orders far in advance of the delivery date, often for delivery to a central depot, which allowed the manufacturer to more effectively plan production.

Because to these advancements, FMCG salespeople are no longer need to display their items in the traditional "sales oriented" manner since advertising has already pre-sold the products. At higher levels of negotiation, selling to multiples is more about the buyer and the sales manager negotiating delivery and pricing, whereas salespeople at individual stores just offer after-sales care. It is very uncommon for salespeople to do merchandising tasks including creating shelf displays, supplying window decals, and in-store advertising, while these tasks may also be performed by distinct merchandiser teams, especially when some kind of product demonstration or promotion is necessary. Salespeople therefore participate in point-of-sale conversations. The establishment of trade marketing teams to meet their demands is a reflection of the rising significance of retailers. Several European consumer goods businesses have established a trade marketing organisation as a result of key account management by the salesforce and brand management's ignorance of what retailers truly desire. Bridging the gap between critical account management and the salesforce is a crucial function. Trade marketers emphasise the demands of retailers:

1. The types of goods people want;
2. How many sizes;
3. What kind of packing;
4. At what costs;
5. What kind of advertising.

Both brand management, which creates new items, and the salesforce, which can then better engage with retailers, get feedback on trade needs. Creating specialised advertising for supermarkets is a crucial task for trade marketers. During the Second World War, wholesalers have had difficulties, and many of them have had to close their doors. To combat the threat of multiples and provide a comparable brand to the public, whole-sellers organised voluntary organisations or chains. Due to lower buying power and the need for wholesalers to employ voluntary measures to get their independent retailing members to act like multiples, this strategy has generally failed. The wholesaler's only sanction against non-cooperating members is to expel them from the group, whereas in the case of multiples a store manager can be quickly removed.

From the late 1960s, we have seen a rise in large-scale retailing, which has included an increase in the size of retail spaces, from supermarkets to superstores to hypermarkets to megastores. The tendency has been towards out-of-town locations with convenient parking since such businesses demand a big site, as well as for consumer convenience. In order to save costs and provide more competitive rates, consumers are now willing to forgo the personal assistance of the shopkeeper for the majority of items. Self-service and self-selection are also now widely accepted. The expansion of mass marketing is due to the fact that once-luxury commodities like vehicles, overseas vacations, TVs, telephones, and mobile phones have become necessities for the majority of the population due to rising living standards and personal disposable money. With FMCGs being pre-sold to customers via "pull" promotional techniques, there has been a significant growth in advertising and other types of promotion in

an effort to foster brand loyalty since supply typically outpaces demand for consumer products. Retailers have also influenced customers to become "store loyal" by introducing loyalty card programmes. Salespeople's methods of operation have been impacted by the dynamic changes that have occurred in the retail industry.

Franchising

Contractual systems of franchising are a more recent trend in European commerce. Since its power is situated at a point in the channel that is one or more steps distant from the end-customer, it is a corporate vertical marketing system. At certain points in the production or distribution process, the franchisor starts the franchise and connects it to the end franchisee. Franchises were first developed in Britain as part of the "tied public house" system. Owners of their own properties were bound to a brewery by a contract to buy only that brewery's goods. Modern franchising, on the other hand, originated in the US and was imported to Britain in the 1950s. Since then, it has significantly expanded and is currently governed by a volunteer organisation called the British Franchising Association.

Franchises may take a variety of shapes:

1. **From manufacturers to Retailers:**For instance, a vehicle manufacturer grants sales licences to automobile wholesalers.
2. Manufacturers occasionally provide concentrate, which wholesalers subsequently mix with water and package for distribution to nearby retail establishments. This practise is common in the soft drink business. Manufacturers are the ones responsible for the product's brand image, hence strict quality control and consistency are crucial.
3. Due to the development of the aforementioned multiples, the number of wholesalers to retailers has been declining for a while. The most successful example is the nonprofit organisation SPAR, which does not make products, but because to its significant purchasing power at the wholesale level, it is able to pass along savings to independent stores that sign up for the group and display the SPAR emblem. They are required to follow with the group's policies for things like pricing promotions, requirements for store design, and operating hours used in advertising by the group, such as "SPAR - your eight 'to late shop."

Franchises sponsored by service companies and offered to retailers—this sector has seen the most development in recent years. Fast food, auto rentals, office services, motels, and resorts are a few examples. Franchise agreements often follow the following steps:

1. The franchisor provides professional guidance on a variety of topics, including location, finances, operational issues, and marketing.
2. The franchisor advertises the brand locally, nationally, or worldwide, giving the franchisee a name that is well-known.
3. A successful "formula" is often at the heart of franchise operations, or there is a central buying system where franchisees purchase at advantageous prices.
4. The franchise agreement gives both parties a legally enforceable contract. The conditions of this contract regulate the business's client interactions, sanitary standards, and operating hours. In fact, on the latter point, businesses like Little Chef use 'mystery shoppers' who make a surprise phone call and place an anonymous food order. To make sure franchisees are operating in accordance with the franchise's

operating regulations, they monitor their operations. The mystery shopper looks into things like the way the customer is greeted, whether or not they were kept waiting, whether or not certain extra food items were offered, the cleanliness of the lavatory facilities and whether or not such facilities were checked in the last two hours based on a chart that is displayed on the wall.

5. The franchisor often offers the franchisee initial start-up and ongoing training.
6. Under a typical franchise agreement, the franchisee is required to pay a royalty or franchise fee to the franchisor. The franchisee, however, owns the company and is not a representative of the franchisor.

During the last several years, this marketing strategy has grown in popularity. Both large-scale businesses and small-scale businesses benefit from it. The latter group is strongly motivated to work hard and build a successful company by the chance to work for themselves and be in charge of their own fate. Because of how well-known the name is worldwide, immediate financial success is guaranteed.

Purchasing Services

A service, like real goods, must meet customer demands. Yet, since they cannot be shown or kept, the advantages are less palpable than with actual goods, and enjoyment is only obtained via actions. There are many different types of services, for instance: travel via air, sea, train, and road; power - coal, gas, and electricity; lodging facilities; restaurants; text messages, emails, phone calls, and faxes; radio and television services; banking; insurance; clubs for social, athletic, and specialty interests; upkeep and repairs; travel companies; services in accounting; Business consulting in the areas of advertising, market analysis, and strategic planning; architectural; cleaning; library; public authority services and projects, such as road maintenance and waste disposal; services in computing; services of stockbrokers.

There are more, and both industrial and consumer consumers may utilise them. According to consumer demands, each category's selling strategy is different, just as it is when selling physical things. Britain's service economy has expanded significantly in recent years to the point that it now mostly consists of services rather than manufacturing. This is due to a variety of factors. For instance, more women are working full-time, and men and women are splitting up the tasks more fairly. This has placed pressure on the service secretary to provide services that can carry out responsibilities that were previously thought to be reserved for the home. A wider variety of services have been developed and are now being offered thanks to improved technology. Building societies now provide a wider variety of services, have expanded into sectors formerly thought to be the domain of banks, and the largest ones have transformed into banks. This came about as a consequence of the Financial Services Act's "liberalisation" of their operations [7], [8].

In the financial industry, more services have been added to those already offered. Governmental services must now be perceived as more accountable to the general public and have a stronger marketing focus. Council tax revenue is spent by local governments, and as a result, the public is becoming increasingly concerned about how its money is being used. Since they are held accountable to the public, these organisations must seem to be making sound financial decisions. They must interact with the general population and convey the value of the services they provide. Services have unique qualities like: intangibility; the challenge of separating consumption from production since more services are consumed than

created; services are harder to evaluate and have fewer 'standards' than goods; unlike things, services cannot be "stocked."

The last condition, ownership, demonstrates that, unlike a commodity, a service is not secured by the user; rather, they pay to get access to utilise the service. We now have the "seven Ps" of service marketing, which are an expansion of the original four Ps to include an additional three Ps. People, Process, and Physical evidence make up the other three Ps. Humans have a crucial role in providing services, particularly those who work closely with clients. While dealing with consumers, employees need to be well-trained and have a pleasant demeanour.

Process interacts with clients at the point of contact in the delivery of the service and is related to how the service is given. Service quality and consistency need to be carefully planned and monitored. Although services are intangible, physical proof is also included. Marketing efforts should emphasise the kind of service being provided. Customers should be informed of this by emphasising issues like quality standards, equipment varieties, and physical facilities. In light of the above, marketing services is likely more challenging than selling items due to the latter's more ethereal character. The fact that the service is often sold by individuals who also supply it sets it apart. As a result, service providers need to get more training in sales techniques, and sales bargaining is a crucial component of these interactions. The importance of paying great attention to image building cannot be overstated. Trust is crucial in the marketing of services since, unlike a physical commodity, it is impossible to predict precisely what service will be provided. A variety of scholars have suggested additional Ps [9], [10].

CONCLUSION

Comprehending the various tactics and strategies used by organisations to satisfy their manufacturing and operational demands is dependent on comprehending the different types of production. The idea of "varieties of production" acknowledges that diverse markets, sectors, and geographical areas adopt varied production methods depending on a variety of variables including technology, resource availability, market needs, and organisational objectives. Three main forms of production mass production, batch production, and job production—have been recognised and covered throughout this investigation. These many manufacturing methods each have distinctive qualities, benefits, and restrictions that are tailored to certain situations and goals.

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CHAPTER 14

A STUDY ON SALES PROMOTIONS TECHNIQUES

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ABSTRACT:

In a sales promotion, a company utilises a brief campaign or offer to boost interest in or demand for its product or service. The main motivation for a company to utilise a sales promotion (or "promo") is to increase sales, however there are other factors that might influence a company's decision. Techniques for promoting sales are crucial marketing tactics that businesses use to spur demand, boost sales, and accomplish certain goals. This abstract gives a general overview of the importance of sales promotion strategies, emphasising their function in promoting brand loyalty, increasing consumer engagement, and raising brand awareness across a range of markets and industries. Techniques for promoting sales include a variety of plans and initiatives intended to persuade people to buy something or do something else. Discounts, coupons, free samples, competitions, loyalty programmes, one-time offers, bundling, and various other promotional incentives are examples of these strategies. Organisations may generate a sense of urgency, offer customers more value, and set themselves apart from rivals by successfully employing these tactics.

KEYWORDS:

Advertising, Marketing, Management, Sales, Selling.

INTRODUCTION

Sales promotions Techniques that businesses might utilise as a part of their marketing strategy are included in sales promotions. The following goals may be accomplished by sales promotional activities: promoting repeat purchases; cultivating long-term customer loyalty; encouraging customers to frequent a certain sales outlet; improving retail stock levels; and expanding or boosting a product or brand's distribution. Price reductions, vouchers or coupons, gifts, contests, lotteries, and cash incentives are all examples of sales promotions [1]–[3]. Methods include trade promotions, salesforce promotions, and consumer promotions. During the 1960s, both the significance of sales promotions and the complexity of the strategies used have grown and developed. Little efforts were made at the time to evaluate their effectiveness. In an effort to compete with burgeoning sales promotion companies, advertising agencies expanded into sales promotions with the goal of providing customers with an all-inclusive package.

Midway through the 1980s, business operations were subjected to more economic strain, which caused advertising firms to worry more about declining corporate advertising expenditures. They started focusing more on the effectiveness of sales promotions and changed their advertising strategy to be more integrated. Instead of the current ad hoc commission structure, there was a shift towards fee-based sales promotional agencies, which suggested a longer-term relationship between agency and client. Advertising companies increasingly provide sales promotion alongside advertising as part of an integrated

communications package due to rising competition from sales promotional agencies. The distinction between advertising and sales promotion has been gradually eroding since the late 1970s. Three key areas of action may be identified within sales promotions: consumer promotions, trade promotions, and employee motivation.

Client Promotions

These strategies are referred to as "pull tactics" since they aim to increase customer demand and advance goods through the sales channel. Price reduction or price promotion is the most often employed consumer promotion strategy: The item has the notation "x pence off." Manufacturer or retailer origins are both acceptable. Manufacturers in the UK must employ this tactic with care since it is against the law to say this until the prior price has been in effect for a significant amount of time. An extra quantity is provided for the same price as before, such as "buy one get one free" or "10% larger - same price as usual." In-pack or on-pack price-off coupons may be used to pay for future purchases. Offers for new items with introductory discounts on prices. The sponsors of these programmes are aware that in hard times economically, customers are more likely to be drawn by the chance to save money than by accidental freebies. Producers of FMCG products often employ price promotions, particularly in the grocery industry.

Premium Deals

Premium offers are strategies used as part of a promotional package to temporarily add value to products or services: premiums that self-liquidate. On or off the box, a client is informed of a product offer. The cost of the item to the promoter is covered by the amount the buyer is paying.

The promoter may buy such goods in bulk and transmit the savings to customers, who perceive that they are receiving more value. These campaigns are often tied to the need to gather labels or cut-out tokens from several purchases of the same, or a comparable, range of items, or to provide till receipts as evidence. The product that carried the premium did not necessarily need to be related to the premium. Selling the premium is just of secondary relevance; the goal is to encourage product sales.

On-pack presents: In this case, the premium is normally included with the purchase. A toothbrush linked to toothpaste is an example of a product-related premium. A CD glued to a magazine is an example of a non-product-related premium.

Continuities: These are collections of goods, such as picture cards, china, glassware, etc., that may be acquired over a number of purchases. Either the premium comes with the product or the buyer must send money for it.

Coupon Programs: The pack's coupons may be accumulated over time and redeemed for a range of goods in a catalogue. A producer or supplier may utilise coupon strategies to promote its products or services, or the strategy may incorporate a variety of manufacturers' items under a single brand. These programmes have mostly taken the role of trading stamps, which had a similar function. In specialised retailing contexts, however, trade stamps and purchase coupons that can be exchanged for money or products are returning. No cost samples. Sample packs of goods are distributed in conjunction with brand-related items, connected to publications, given out separately in retail establishments, sent door-to-door, etc.

While it lacks the allure of money, merchandise as a premium could have a stronger allure than cash or a price cut. The premium selected and the manner in which it is presented may preselect a certain consumer type, but at least the offer may be directed towards the appropriate market group. The promotion should be cost-effective as long as the extra response it generates more than pays for the premium and administration/distribution expenses. It's important to choose the right premium and sales advertising strategy. Finding a premium that is "different" or uncommon, has widespread consumer appeal, and is offered in sufficient numbers to fulfil demand is the challenge[4]–[6].

The benefit of holding a tournament is that, if there are enough participants, it should be financially advantageous. Consumer product competitions are often advertised on the pack in conjunction with in-store promotions, and an entry form is placed on or near the product. Each entry used to need to be accompanied by evidence of purchase, but the government has now abolished this requirement on the grounds that it would encourage people to buy things they don't really need merely to get a receipt. Free drawings, where no purchase is required and participants just fill in an entry form with their names and 'post' it in an entry box within the store, have grown in popularity more lately.

DISCUSSION

This form of advertising allows for individualism and innovation. Competitions often target a national audience and offer high-value prizes like vacations and vehicles since it takes a lot of preparation and administration to ensure that consumer response is sufficient to pay the expenses of the campaign. In particular, retail establishments employ lotteries and sweepstakes as promotional tools to get customers into their stores. Joint promotions are becoming more popular as businesses look for fresh promotional strategies, and they are not only employed for consumer items. They may include two or more businesses, which are often linked not by the nature of their products but rather by the kind of clients they serve. There are many of these agreements: between manufacturers and retailers, where a branded product could come with a coupon redeemable at a certain retail location. a promotion for one manufacturer's goods on behalf of another manufacturer's product, or between two or more manufacturers. This relationship is based on customer profile rather than product. between a service provider and a producer, such as between a travel agency and a firm that makes breakfast cereal or between a dry cleaner and a company that makes clothing[7]–[9].

Marketing Campaigns

Often, the goal is to push things through the channel and into the customer's hands. Similar to consumer marketing, incentives are given out in the form of additional benefits including discounts, higher profit margins, dealer contests, exhibits, the availability of demonstrators, and cost-free vacations. Retailer-distributor promotions have the following goals:

1. To establish a new brand's extensive dissemination;
2. To place surplus inventory on store shelves;
3. To fulfil a product's display requirements;
4. To promote increased total product stockholding;
5. To motivate distributor-level salespeople to endorse the brand, especially in the case of non-consumer goods;
6. To promote support for the entire marketing plan.

Trade promotions are fraught with difficulties. Too much usage may result in a salesman focusing on the product in question at the expense of other items in the line. Since their management wants to keep control over their sales operations, some sales staff are not allowed to accept incentives or take part in trade competitions. This is because the promoter's goals may clash with those of the store or distributor. Also, there is a chance that a trade promotion will be utilised to promote a different brand or subpar product. As a result, long-term strategies to increase sales are impractical, and producers would be better served to focus on improving their products instead. No promotion made to workers should clash with their devotion to their company, according to the British Code of Sales Promotion Practice. If in doubt, get the employer's consent in advance or that of the accountable management[10], [11].

Business gifts are significant here even though they are not technically sales pitches. The business gift industry is characterised by seasonal demand, with an estimated 80% of its annual sales occurring in the last two months of the year. If the business logo is included in the present, in addition to the apparent connotation that it places the receiver under some moral responsibility to buy, it also functions as an advertising medium. The usage of corporate presents caught the attention of the Chartered Institute of Buying and Supply as early as 1981, particularly when the "giving" was connected to the placement of orders. It was believed that such presents should be limited to insignificant objects like calendars, diaries, pencils, etc. since they may affect the buyer's neutrality. Due to constraints put in place by businesses on what their workers may get, the gifting of corporate gifts has decreased recently. The Chartered Institute of Purchasing and Supply has released a "blacklist" of businesses that engage in gifting practises that go beyond the exchange of nominally valued goods.

Employee Inspiration

Some of these promos are for distributors and merchants, but most are for the sales staff. The sales incentive programme is the salesforce marketing that is most often employed. Participants get rewards that go above and beyond typical sales remuneration on an equal basis. They may be awarded as awards in a contest to people or teams that achieve the best in relation to certain goals. The issue is that if ordinary or below average workers believe that only top performers would likely win, they may not feel adequately driven to put in any further effort. Competitions are so often used to motivate a group or local sales team. One must take into account goals, scheduling, scoring procedures, and prizes or awards while creating a salesforce incentive programme. These types of projects often aim to:

1. The launch of a new product range;
2. The movement of products with sluggish sales;
3. To achieve greater geographic coverage;
4. Creation of fresh opportunities;
5. To combat seasonal revenue declines;
6. In order to exhibit;
7. The acquisition of fresh sales abilities.

The size of the salesforce, the need for immediate action, and the kind of the goals to be attained may all influence when the system should be implemented. Typically, an incentive program lasts between two and six months. Value or unit sales may be used to score or

measure performance. Quotas may be set for certain regions, locations, or salespeople in order to overcome geographical variations. When quotas or levels of sales are met, points, stamps, vouchers, etc. may be given as rewards. These rewards increase as higher levels are reached. The receiver may then swap these tokens for goods, money, etc. There are occasions when a salesperson or family is given a catalogue with a variety of goods to pick from. Coupons that may be redeemed or exchanged at retail establishments can be used as incentives or prizes.

For the accomplishment of more specific short-term goals, such as greater sales of a particular product, higher numbers of new clients, or training and display goals, extra bonus points may be given throughout a programme. A long-running plan may be maintained interesting and dynamic for participants in this manner. Recognition in the form of a trophy or "salesperson of the year" award is another kind of encouragement.

Exposures

Despite the fact that in certain instances trade shows and exhibits are where the majority of commerce is conducted, exhibitions only have a passing relationship to sales environments since their goal is not to make sales through display booths. In general, they serve to foster goodwill and pave the way for upcoming sales. Exhibition stand workers sometimes saw manning an exhibition stand as a convenient alternative to their regular tasks since exhibitions were formerly thought of as a luxury item in a company's marketing budget. They were seen as a kind of public relations. Businesses are becoming more conscious of their importance in terms of overall marketing and sales initiatives. The word "exhibitions" has a broader range than what has been mentioned. Simple event management focuses on events that advertise the company, but it is often used as an excuse to host clients. While the word "corporate hospitality" has an accurate meaning, it is seldom used since people don't want to attract attention to marketing expenses that can be seen as unnecessary. This may be done by giving invited visitors seats or a box at an event like Royal Ascot, the Silverstone Grand Prix, or a Test match. At a more advanced level, conferences that represent the objectives of the sponsoring firm but provide attendees a more sober platform might be funded.

One of the writers conducted research to see how trade shows may be more effectively included into a communications strategy. Updated data is now shown for these results. An excellent exhibition should have the following qualities:

1. A variety of goods;
2. A considerable number of rivals;
3. A substantial quantity of already publicly accessible information on the items on display;
4. A significant number of new items;
5. Proximity to the buyer's residence;
6. Excellent show hall amenities;
7. A straightforward stand that is never messy and isn't crammed with improper display items.

One of an excellent exhibitor's qualities is:

1. Displaying a whole selection of goods, especially bulky things that can't be displayed by a travelling agent;

2. Always have employees working there who avoid chit-chatting with one another;
3. Knowledgeable, friendly stand staff;
4. Informational materials readily accessible;
5. A desk or sitting area situated on the stand;
6. Refreshments for guests;
7. Employees abstaining from using their phones in public while on the job;
8. Staff members spend time with current and prospective clients, schedule appointments, and weed out time-wasters and freeloaders;
9. Aggressively following up on sales leads and afterwards debriefing the stand crew.

Trade exhibition use is rising, and businesses must develop a more scientific approach to managing this function since it necessitates knowing how an exhibition stand presents itself to the public. Establishing exhibition goals and tracking outcomes are crucial, as are recognising and understanding the many components of the exhibition event. The exhibition mix should be planned, coordinated, and controlled by management.

For various product categories, such as materials, services, and small- or large-scale, straightforward or sophisticated equipment, there are various communication issues. Using materials, the selling point or distinctive selling proposition may be expressed briefly or using a low-tech communication method, such as the written word. A prospective buyer may be the only one who can understand the USP of a massive, sophisticated piece of equipment by seeing it in action. The phrase "communication stratum" refers to the many ways in which the USP of various sorts of products is communicated. Whereas a product with a complicated USP is best conveyed via a high communication stratum, one with a basic USP may be done using a low communication stratum.

The other forms of communication must be set up to support the stratum that has been chosen to convey the USP. For instance, all other marketing efforts, such as salesforce and media advertising, must be synchronised with the scheduled trade show if trade fairs are chosen as the primary channel of communication. There are three communication channels that may be employed if stratum 5 or 6 are required, including trade shows, demonstration facilities, or the salesman bringing the product inside the company. The defining of goals is essential to the management of any function since without it, there is no foundation for planning, coordination, control, or outcomes measurement. These aims include the following:

Identify the market you want to reach by area, product, or any other segmentation technique. Establish the possible acquisitions' values. Is the exhibiting effort intended for users who could be little or large? Provide the position of the person to call, such as a buying manager, managing director, etc. High-status connections often can't be drawn to modest shows since they may want to meet with senior management or need a special invitation with entertainment. Provide your selection for the items the firm sells. Will the exhibition campaign target current customers? Is the main goal to introduce a new product? The risk is that stand staff may spend time conversing with the already-converted when their main goal should be to pique the curiosity of prospective clients. Specify the degree of communication you're aiming for:

1. To market the item from the booth;
2. To get approval before using a quotation;
3. To get approval to call for a follow-up sales interview;

4. To get consent to distribute further information.

These are some strategies for drawing customers to a certain booth: direct mailing; telephoning; a one-on-one sales call prior to the event; a commercial in a trade or technical publication. Once there, the following attractions may be found: a buffet, give-aways; promotional materials; films and lectures presented during the show; eye-catching displays on display. The exhibition stand itself has to have a few things: The target market will determine which products are shown. The number of interested prospects will increase as the number of items increases, but a balance must be established to avoid offering a selection that is too extensive and confusing. Books shouldn't be shown on self-service kiosks. When a potential customer stops by the stand in search of literature, this should be a perfect chance for the salesperson to make contact and get information about the customer.

At the very least, a display board with the product information should be included in the graphics. These tools improve the stand's aesthetic appeal. When the goods being sold is too big or unwieldy to physically show, models of the item are helpful. Expensive display space might take up a lot of space in an office or interview room. One option is to show the product to the visitor and then ask them to sit down nearby for the interview thereafter. Refreshment facilities on the stand are excellent attractors and, according to the study's findings, were a significant pull.

Designate a space for the storage of hats, briefcases, books, supplies, etc. to prevent clutter and diversions from the exhibition's primary goal. An pricey, eye-catching stand may have two purposes. While the survey found that visitors' sentiments regarding such ostentation were that it would reflect in the cost of goods, it might draw visitors. The stand should be planned as early as possible by creating a list of everything needed, checking stand design restrictions, creating a list of stand services needed, and creating a timeline for the preparation of all products and exhibits, including their manufacturing, transportation to the exhibition, assembly, and dismantling.

The staff working the exhibition booth has to be able to explain the USP of the items and possess solid commercial and technical understanding. They may have a range of backgrounds, including technical, sales, and marketing, thus it is important to inform them prior on the following topics: The exhibition's goals and the established practises that will be employed to accomplish them. The booth's characteristics, the other people on the stand, and its location inside the exhibition facility. Who manages the trade show booth? How to interact with stand visitors, conduct interviews with them, and handle irrelevant visitors. physical appearance suggestions before manning the display. Exhibitions may be a great sales tool and not the pricey extravagance that many businesses traditionally thought of them as with expert pre-planning and management.

CONCLUSION

Sales promotion's primary goal is to increase a product's sales by generating demand—consumer and trade demand, respectively. It enhances middlemen's performance and supports both personal selling and advertising. In conclusion, organisations can use sales promotion strategies to drive consumer interaction, raise brand awareness, and accomplish specific marketing goals. Organisations can draw in new clients, boost repeat business, and set themselves apart in the market by putting various promotional methods into practise. The

effectiveness and reach of sales promotion strategies are further increased by using digital platforms and technologies. For organisations to maximise the impact of their sales promotion efforts and promote overall business success, careful strategy, implementation, and evaluation are essential.

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CHAPTER 15

A STUDY ON PUBLIC RELATIONS' NATURE AND FUNCTION

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ABSTRACT:

In order to create connections between corporations and their publics that are mutually beneficial, public relations is a strategic communication strategy. Managing communication between a company and its publics is another way to describe public relations. This chapter covers public relations goals, corporate communications, optimal public relations, and setting objectives. In managing communication and developing connections between organisations and their numerous stakeholders that benefit all parties, public relations (PR) is essential. This summary gives a general overview of the nature and purpose of public relations, emphasising its importance in reputation management, strategic communication, and cultivating favourable public perception in the fast-paced business climate of today. The strategic planning and implementation of communication initiatives to foster comprehension, credibility, and goodwill among target audiences is included in the scope of public relations. PR specialists represent companies by attempting to create and maintain a positive public perception through a variety of platforms, such as media relations, social media, community involvement, and internal communications.

KEYWORDS:

Communication, Company, Organization, Sale, Selling.

INTRODUCTION

The field of public relations is far larger than selling or even marketing. Its scope is greater and includes the whole organization as well as all of its numerous internal and external "publics." Nonetheless, it plays a more significant supporting role in selling, both in terms of getting and providing. Selling relies on public relations to help it carry out its daily tasks, and selling is often asked to spread a public relations message. Since the publication of the first version of this book, there has been an increased understanding of the strategic value of public relations; it is no longer seen of as a way to "cover up" when something goes wrong. It can play a constructive function in an organization, and this role is being highlighted. Every public that the organization interacts with must be considered in the public relations practitioner's efforts. Depending on the situation, these groupings will have different characteristics. The community, workers, government, the financial sector, distributors, customers, and opinion leaders are among the PR publics [1]–[3].

It is difficult to pinpoint the precise nature of PR. There are several definitions that each emphasise a somewhat different strategy in an effort to provide a straightforward, condensed, and precise statement. The complexity and variety of the topic are reflected in how difficult it is to come up with a single definition that is appropriate. Let's examine the following two definitions: The purposeful, organised, and persistent efforts made by a company to build and retain trust with its audience are known as PR practises.

First and foremost, PR practise should be purposeful, planned, and maintained rather than unplanned, according to this definition. Second, for there to be clear communication between the organisation and its audiences, there must be mutual understanding. Whether a company likes it or not, PR exists. An organisation unavoidably sends some signals to individuals it engages with just by going about its daily business. On the organisation and its operations, opinions are formed. Thus, it is essential that PR coordinates various messages to aid in the creation of a business brand or personality. The Public Relations Society of America provides a more thorough and accurate explanation of PR: Predicting, examining, and interpreting public opinion, attitudes, and problems that might have an influence on the organization's operations and strategies, either favourably or unfavourably. Advising management at all levels on policy selection, action plans, and communication. Doing ongoing research, performing programmes of action, and reviewing them to ensure that the public has the knowledge required to support the organization's objectives. The organization's attempts to influence or alter public policy are planned and put into action. Managing the resources required to carry out public relations tasks.

In PR, communication is key. The goal of public relations (PR) is to create a two-way communication process to settle disputes by looking for points of agreement or shared interest. Naturally, word-of-mouth is the most effective way to do this, which is why the ability of selling to serve as a communication tool has the potential to be so crucial to the success of PR. Establishing and sustaining mutual understanding between organisations and their publics is the goal of public relations. It also entails social responsibility and cultivating respect and trust. While relationship selling and relationship management are more closely tied, PR is also influenced by relationship management. PR is concerned with establishing and preserving harmony between private and public interests. PR is essentially a management discipline that demands the successful execution of all planned messages. The linked processes seek to project favourable perceptions or change unfavourable ideas into favourable ones. The management of a company's reputation and image is PR, which is a sophisticated organised communication process. PR does include more than simply strategic persuasion. Yet, PR serves as a continuous role that, when necessary, helps sales, marketing, and advertising initiatives[4]–[6].

A Company's Identity

Corporate identity, or personality, and public relations go hand in hand. All public relations efforts must be conducted in accordance with a shared and acknowledged business persona. Since that the top management is in charge of the organization's strategy and operations, this personality must evolve to mirror their manner. If correctly and consistently maintained, a business personality may develop into a concrete asset. It is not a given that all managers will take personality into account while making choices, however. So, it is necessary to choose a PR executive who is knowledgeable with all organisational problems, policies, attitudes, and views that may affect how the organisation is seen by its target audiences.

It's intentional to use the term personality rather than image. A reflection or impression that could be a bit too flawless or polished is called an image. Deeper than this, true PR. Using the derogatory term "PR job" suggests that the truth is being concealed in some way beneath a phoney or shiny front. When done correctly, PR emphasises the importance of accuracy and

complete information. As a manager of the company's personality, the public relations professional can only maintain an identity that is grounded in fact over time.

DISCUSSION

The opposite of Public Relations

Confusion concerning PR's function has resulted from a lack of knowledge of its nature. Here, certain distinctions are made clear: PR is not free publicity. Selling is complemented by advertising. PR is enlightening, instructive, and promotes knowledge-based understanding. PR isn't cost-free. It takes a lot of time and is expensive in terms of managerial skills. Ads lack the legitimacy that editorial space and air time do. Every organisation has PR, whether they are aware of it or not. PR entails speaking with a variety of audiences and organisations, not only prospective clients. Public relations is not propaganda. Indoctrination is the goal of propaganda, which is used to gain adherents. The lack of an ethical component does not exclude the distortion or fabrication of facts for personal gain. Whereas PR aims to persuade by obtaining voluntary acceptance of attitudes and ideas, the latter. Publicity is not PR. The dissemination of information leads to publicity. The outcome might be unpredictably favourable or negative. The behaviour of an organisation, a product, or a person that generates notoriety is the focus of PR. It will undoubtedly make an effort to manage behaviour in order to try to secure positive PR.

To improve the atmosphere for the organisation and its operations, PR is utilised. The following goals might be one of them: In order to: Attract sales inquiries; Strengthen customer loyalty; - Attract Investors; Attract Merger Partners or Make Acquisitions Easier; Attract Better Employees; Dissolve or Block Union Problems; Minimize Competitor Advantage While You Catch Up; Open a New Market; Launch a New Product; Reward Key People with Recognition; Bring About Favorable Legislation; PR is seen as a component of a comprehensive marketing communications plan, the selling function of which is its main component, in order to accomplish these goals. Since PR is concerned with human connections and is a two-way process, PR activity may occur at any moment in a marketing campaign. Every aspect of marketing has a PR component. Manufacturers must interact more with consumers. They must utilise strategies like press relations, house journals, seminars, works visits, private demonstrations, exhibits, movies, professionally created web sites, and other aids to reach various groups, each with their own interests. Also, they must take into account people who shape public opinion, sales channels, and other forms of communication that convey information. A company may be connected to a variety of publics; PR must take them into account [7], [8].

Corporate Communications

This focuses on group identity and is based on a long-term, meticulously planned programme made to maximise comprehension of the organization's goals and performance in line with reasonable expectations. Prestige advertising is the primary business public relations tool. House style is another format. For sports like golf, football, cricket, and auto racing, sponsorship is crucial. It may cover a portion of the cost of events like concerts and neighbourhood improvements, as well as the attention they get as a consequence. Meenaghan defines sponsorship as "an investment in an activity, in kind or financially, in exchange for access to the commercially exploitable potential connected with that activity."

Optimal Public Relations: Setting clear, evaluable goals, thoroughly integrating the PR function into the organisation, and choosing the appropriate people to perform the PR role are all necessary for effective PR. So let's take a closer look at each.

Establishing Objectives: This is a fundamental prerequisite for PR work. According to Bowman and Ellis, it is crucial that a PR program's goals be established before methods of accomplishing them are chosen, progress towards goals is tracked, and successes and failures are evaluated. While it might be challenging to select how to assess a target, increasing sales is a clear goal that can be mentioned. Nevertheless, it can be difficult to tell whether this rise in sales was brought on by PR efforts or by other marketing efforts.

Crisis PR often sets its own goals. If information is to be kept from the press, then whether that information gets to the press will be the criterion for success or failure. If keeping the company's reputation is the goal, then an effort must be made to define "reputation" in ways that are helpful for measuring and evaluating it. Reactive crisis management is the norm. While it is in the best interest of any company to be proactive in its connection with its direct or indirect publics, it is essential to PR. Column centimetres obtained via press attention are a common unit of measurement for PR effort. Yet, this approach does not take into consideration the quality of such coverage. Also, since journalism has more trust than identical advertising, its worth cannot be measured against it.

Integration

The PR role must be fully integrated into the organisation. The decision of whether PR should play a "technician" or "policy-making" function should be made, with the connotation that a technician just executes top management directives and a policy-maker contributes to business strategic initiatives. The latter position is preferred in modern thinking since every choice has an impact on public relations. If PR is not included in the policy-making process, top management will implicitly take over the role of PR. The recommended function for PR is broad and calls for engagement with a sizable audience. Collaboration with different organisational roles is necessary for this. So that it can service all departments equally, PR must thus be a somewhat independent entity. A staff position should be such that it may direct its services to organisational levels that may serve as the organization's public face to outside entities. It is impossible to exaggerate the value of PR at lower hierarchical levels.

Senior management must first determine the scope of PR responsibilities, which may be done by defining clear goals and conducting thorough job assessments. The purpose of PR as a staff function is to support and enable line functions. Such a lack of PR power is preferable since it reduces friction and makes sure that line and staff collaboration and consultation are prioritised. It also acknowledges that line management has primary responsibility for daily operations and executive power. But, it does imply that in order for PR programmes to be approved and carried out with full support from senior management, direct connection to the board is crucial.

For future PR practitioners, choosing the "correct" staff is very crucial. Flexibility is crucial since the practise of PR involves such a broad variety of duties. There is no one set of ideal credentials, and there is no official route into the field, according to the Chartered Institute of Public Relations. Training in the media is required. As tests are now administered by the Chartered Institute of Public Relations, public relations has fully "came of age" and now

offers degrees that are equivalent to postgraduate degrees. It is said that PR has evolved from an art form that depended on a variety of practical strategies to a science that now has a strong academic foundation. The first university to offer a bachelor's degree in PR was Bournemouth University in 1989, and the first university to provide a master's programme in PR was Stirling University in 1988. There are currently 30 UK colleges that offer Public Relations as a dual honours or even a single honours programme, and there are also several Master's degree programmes in the field, so things are quite different now. Practitioners have recognised a variety of qualities and abilities that are essential for success, including good judgement, honesty, communication skills, organisational skills, a strong personality, and the ability to work well in a team.

Because of the historical significance of media relations, there is a substantial journalistic contingent in the PR industry. As the needed writing style, as well as the planning horizons and work habits, are different, some people find it difficult to adjust. Relevant experience may be acquired from practically any background, as shown by the vast variety of requisite qualifications and abilities. The capacity to be adaptive, have empathy, and have a strong personality are really considerably more important. It should go without saying that being able to speak and write well is essential[9], [10].

Using Public Relations Advisory Services

Using a PR agency may sometimes be more cost-effective, particularly in areas where the organisation lacks expertise. Larger organisations often discover that an internal PR staff plus an outside expert make for better communication. The PR sector is not complete without consultancies, which include benefits like as expertise, independence, and specialised knowledge that may not be readily apparent internally. These are some categories for external PR activities: Freelance writers and consultants, who are often qualified to create technical pieces for PR features. Two types of PR departments exist inside advertising agencies: a small press office that handles product publicity to support an ad campaign and a huge, all-encompassing PR department that mirrors the firm structure itself.

PR subsidiary of an advertising firm: if it is desired to allow the advertising agency to fully develop its PR activity and, in fact, whose customers will serve as a helpful source of new business. Its affiliation with an advertising agency may be advantageous due to common resources like production and art studios.

Independent PR consultants: These professionals often focus on a certain industry, and customers may use them for sporadic or brief projects. These consultants specialise in a variety of fields, including theatre, banking, agriculture, construction, shipping, travel, and fashion. Five public relations advisers who provide advice but don't do PR tasks. Sales promotions apply to all sorts of sales environments, and evidence of their development and significance in regard to consumer markets, trade markets, and as a tool for motivating sales staff has been shown. Exhibitions' function has also been studied.

CONCLUSION

The topic of public relations has been covered in considerable length since it has grown the most in recent years and because the salesforce is increasingly being asked to engage in PR activities. It also has a very direct link to the selling function. another example of a sales environment is one that is focused with worldwide selling. Yet, because of its variety and

growing significance, it is handled differently, particularly in light of changes to European Union regulations and the selling role. In conclusion, public relations is essential for managing communication, creating connections, and influencing public perception. PR specialists assist organisations in establishing credibility, navigating difficulties, and achieving their strategic goals by concentrating on reputation management, strategic communication, and stakeholder engagement. For PR professionals, the changing digital landscape offers new opportunities and challenges, highlighting the need for effective communication strategies and adaptability to meet the shifting requirements of the current business environment.

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CHAPTER 16

A BRIEF DISCUSSION ON SELLING INTERNATIONALLY

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ABSTRACT:

This article examines concerns and problems related to worldwide selling as well as many elements of it. Businesses that are thinking about entering international markets will need to have specialized knowledge and skills in these areas. This chapter discusses financial issues, the payments balance, the proportion of UK exports overseas, and the sophistication of France. Selling abroad is a strategic business strategy that helps companies to access new client groups, grow their market share, and take advantage of global prospects. This abstract gives a general overview of the importance of selling abroad, highlighting the challenges, advantages, and important factors involved in making cross-border sales and navigating various foreign marketplaces. Organisations can gain from entering international markets in a number of ways, including improved income potential, a diversified customer base, and access to developing economies. Companies can lessen their dependency on home markets and use their competitive advantages to their advantage by expanding worldwide. Additionally, international sales offer chances for product innovation, adaptation, and exposure to various cultural viewpoints.

KEYWORDS:

Business, Company, Market, Product, Selling,

INTRODUCTION

While most who attempt it perceive that, although it is "different," it is no more demanding than selling in the home market, some sales managers believe that selling overseas is very tough. Success greatly relies on the mindset and strategy of the company as well as the personal traits of the salespeople; not every salesperson is suitable for such a role in terms of knowing and empathy with the relevant overseas market. Although it is believed that this material will help readers acquire the character traits essential for effective salesmanship, it focuses especially on those aspects of international selling that a company considering exporting should be acquainted with. Each year, businesses that have never engaged in international sales join the significant and sometimes extremely profitable league of exporters or licensors, and some create joint ventures or subsidiary firms in other nations. Despite government encouragement for businesses to engage in international sales, one of the challenges for the UK economy is that many executives are still wary of the process due to the stigma that often surrounds it. By looking at the more crucial economic components of global marketing, we will now try to remove some of this mystery [1], [2].

Financial Aspects

Many of the products we buy are imported, and we often see articles about businesses trying to expand exports. The business sector has been urged, pressured, and promised by

succeeding administrations to expand its exports and engage in overseas markets. For the economy to survive, exporting is essential. The UK is not financially independent. We have to buy a lot of our raw materials and food on international marketplaces. We must export in order to pay for these items. The balance of trade accounts, which display the discrepancy between our foreign profits and expenses, serve as the ledger for these transactions. The balance of payments is the difference between our export revenues and import expenses. So let's look more closely at what this entails.

The payments balance

Trade between nations entails the formation of debts between nations since goods moving from one nation to another must be paid for. A nation will tally up how much it has paid or still owes for commodities imported from other nations over the course of, say, a year. The nation will also total up how much is due to it or has already been paid by other nations for commodities that were shipped to them. When a country's exports outpace its imports, it is considered to have a positive trade balance, or a trade surplus. A nation is considered to have an unfavourable balance of trade or a trade deficit if its imports outpace its exports[3]–[5].

In international commerce, there are other elements than payments for tangible products. Debts between nations may result from services rendered by one nation to another. Such services are referred to as invisible exports or invisible imports since one cannot really see them. For instance, Britain provides insurance services to other nations, and Britain also receives premium payments owed by other nations.

Other instances of invisibles are payments for shipping services, earnings from tourism, banking services, and interest on foreign loans. We must compare a country's total exports and total imports to determine how it is doing in terms of international commerce, or its balance of payments.

The long-term balance between a nation's exports and imports should be achieved. One of two options is available to a nation that finds itself in deficit to make things right: Limit spending on imported foreign products, cut spending abroad on things like defence and international assistance, and make an effort to deter residents from travelling abroad in order to prevent money from being spent abroad. Offer more products and services abroad to boost your international income. It may attract foreign investment that will generate revenue or it may encourage international visitors to spend money while they are in the nation.

Although the first option may be somewhat successful, there is a limit to how much of this sort of expenditure can be cut. Hence, if nations want to preserve and raise their living standards and avert a balance of payments problem, they should choose the second option, which is exporting products and services abroad. To properly appreciate these points, we take a quick look at the relevant concerns.

A nation with a surplus in its balance of payments may choose to pay the debtor using its foreign exchange reserves, receive the remaining amount in gold, leave the funds there to be used for future purchases of goods and services, or lend the debtor nation the funds necessary to pay off the debt in exchange for interest. Similar to this, a country with a balance of payments deficit will have to exhaust its foreign currency reserves, surrender gold, borrow money from other nations to pay off its debt, or hold money on credit that the creditor nation may use to buy goods and services in the future.

DISCUSSION

The balance of payments is essentially an accounting record that uses double-entry bookkeeping to input data from many sources. Current account deficits, which occur when we buy more goods and services than we export, must be balanced by capital account surpluses in order for the account to balance. The capital account keeps track of the acquisition and disposal of assets like stocks, bonds, real estate, etc. If our proceeds from the sale of stocks, bonds, real estate, bank deposits, and other assets exceed our payments for our own acquisition of foreign assets, there is a capital account surplus, also known as a net capital inflow. To balance its books in the event of a current account deficit, the government must either borrow money from overseas or reduce its holdings of gold and/or foreign currency reserves. These borrowings and/or cuts are recorded in the capital accounts as positive figures, which balances the books by offsetting the negative entry that a current account deficit represents [6], [7].

You'll see that a nation can only finance a recurring current account deficit if it possesses endless gold and foreign currency reserves or boundless foreign borrowing ability. Over the long term, chronic current account deficits are destructive, expensive, and difficult to maintain. Economic system. As a country's exports decline, imports should similarly decline, unless the deficit in exports can be made up in the manner mentioned, since total exports must cover total imports. We now recognise how crucial it is for a nation to maintain its export volume.

Proportions of UK exports abroad

After the conclusion of World War II, the UK's proportion of exports by the major industrial countries has drastically decreased. Major rivals like Germany and Japan have grown their share at the same time. When one looks at our import history, one can see the difficulties that have resulted from this. Increasing real imports per unit of real gross domestic product and the proportion of manufactured products that are imported have been driving forces on the import side of the economy. These changes have had a significant impact on the British manufacturing sector.

The UK has had a balance of payments imbalance from the late 1980s up till the present. In fact, for more than a century, the price of physical imports has outweighed the value of exported goods. Even though this was undesired, our revenue from invisible exports more than made up for the shortfall. Yet, a number of factors have prevented revenue from invisible exports from keeping up with spending on physical imports, resulting in a general deficit throughout the course of this time. Selling abroad has been and will continue to be a pillar of the UK's economic growth, regardless of the causes of the present predicament. It benefits not just the country but also every sector of business, organisation, employer, and worker.

Additional Economic Variables

It is fair to take into account some of the most significant changes that have occurred in global commerce during the last 30 years. It is difficult to make generalisations about these advancements' effects since they have had varying effects on various businesses and sectors. Although some businesses believe they have improved their trade environment, others believe their competitive position has been substantially weakened.

Union of Europe

The Common Market was the original name of the European Union, and this name is still sometimes used. The Treaty of Rome, which was signed on March 25, 1957, by the governments of France, West Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Belgium, and Luxembourg, officially founded the Common Market. Ireland, Denmark, Greece, Spain, Portugal, and the United Kingdom have since joined the ranks of Europeans, and subsequently, with Germany's reunification, the former East Germany has also joined them. More recently, Poland, Hungary, Latvia, Estonia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Lithuania, Malta, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Romania, and Bulgaria were accepted, as were Sweden, Finland, Austria, and the United States. With the addition of Croatia in 2013, there are currently 28 member nations in the EU. Turkey's situation is still unclear, although it is one of the seven nations that are "waiting in the wings." The European Economic Community, and later the European Community, were other names for the Common Market. While it now stands for the European Commission, the acronym EC is still in use. As the organisation grew and evolved, it started to consider its mission as being more of a political union than just a commercial bloc, which led to these name changes. Its name was changed to the EU more subsequently, reflecting its present important political position.

By eliminating taxation disparities, border controls, and other types of limitation, the treaty's original goal was to end all constraints on the free movement of people, commodities, and services inside the EU. During those early days, progress has been sluggish due to political and economic factors. In actuality, it was this political factor that prolonged Britain's exclusion from the EU. The nation's resistance to adopting the euro and its propensity to regard the European Union as an economic rather than a political union served as the epitome of Britain's lack of perceived European identity a claim that many still believe today. By 1982, the movement for a single European market had all but ceased. There were still several non-tariff restrictions. Different taxation regimes, limitations on public procurement, and various technical and consumer protection regulations all impeded the free flow of commodities. For instance, value added tax rates continue to vary across nations.

When Jacques Delors became the president of what was then the European Community in 1984, it marked a turning point. In order to construct the biggest single market in Western civilization, he invented the idea of an open market inside the community. In spite of the fact that this was practically nothing new, his comment was made towards the conclusion of the economic downturn that gripped the member states in the late 1970s and early 1980s as they retreated inward to safeguard their domestic markets from European competition. Lord Cockfield, the EC Commissioner in charge of the internal market portfolio, created a plan to remove the last remaining trade barriers by December 31, 1992. During a summit conference in Milan in June 1985, the programme was submitted to the heads of state. The Single European Act finally went into effect in July 1987. The Act outlines 300 actions that had to be completed if the single market idea was to advance as planned. The veto authority was eliminated so that decisions could be made more quickly, and these resolutions may now be approved by a "qualified majority." After the withdrawal of some suggestions and the consolidation of others into single proposals, these 300 original proposals were eventually reduced to 279 in number.

The Single European Act's key characteristics are: the creation of a single European market; the freedom to freely market goods approved in one EU country throughout the entire EU; the gradual opening up of government and public body contracts to all EU contractors on an equal basis; more efficient and competitive services available across all of Europe in the areas of telecommunications and IT; the removal of barriers to shipping and road haulage between member countries to be provided on equal terms; and increased competition on air routes with

Even if there are others, these stand out as the most important. Maybe a booklet created by the Department of Commerce and Industry best encapsulated how businesses might benefit from the single market in terms of safeguarding their current markets and expanding new ones. Ironically, some EU nations have a more distinctly European attitude. They often see each other's markets as their own "home" markets, in contrast to UK businesses that still frequently view selling to EU nations as exporting. This is shown by the fact that Britain has consistently had a net trade deficit with its European allies since joining the EU with its present population of roughly half a billion people. According to the DTI booklet, firms should consider asking the following significant questions about their operations:

1. How has the market affected our industry?
2. Should we expand into Europe and consider the continent as our main market rather than simply the UK?
3. Would the size of the goals in our plans change if we become a European company?
4. How will we be more susceptible to increased competition in our current markets?
5. Should we join forces, combine, or buy companies to increase our market share, diversify our offering of goods and services, and reduce our financial risk?
6. Is our management and organisational structure suitable for seizing new chances or defending our stance?
7. What language and other skill training are required for us to be prepared for this particular market?
8. Who in our company will be in charge of determining how to maximise the single market?

While the booklet may have proclaimed the obvious, it at least formalised thought on the concerns of 1992. It advised the organisation to ask five crucial questions in the selling sector, to be more precise. A list of recommendations was used to solicit answers to each of these questions:

1. How do you contact the clients?
 1. Look into the trade hierarchy, including wholesalers and retailers.
 2. Determine your purchase points.
 3. Learn about the terminology and processes associated with purchasing, such as the preferred currency for invoices.
 4. Evaluate how much language proficiency is required in the area.
 5. Study various selling strategies, including those used by brokers and agents.
 6. See how your rivals are using their advertising, promotions, and trade discounts.
2. How do you enter this market to sell?
 1. Think about local test marketing.

2. Decide on your sales goals.
3. Set a budget for your whole sales and marketing efforts.
4. Choose the selling organisation.

3 What kind of sales literature is required?

1. Determine if the current content is appropriate for European markets.
2. Think about the necessity for a revamp to attract new clients.
3. Make translation arrangements if needed.

4. How should you market yourself?

1. Look at your current advertisements.
2. Examine variations in the prices and availability of national media.
3. Choose a budget for your advertising.
4. How will you provide post-purchase support?

Examine the relative benefits and expenses of subcontracting vs direct providing. The idea of a single market doesn't only exist in theory anymore; it really exists. Businesses who did not prepare for the changes the single market has brought about and will bring about now find themselves in an environment of increasing competition for which they are unprepared. Businesses who planned for the single market a few years ago will increasingly be successful businesses. Three-quarters of the 200 firms surveyed by the Confederation of British Industry in 1990 had conducted strategy assessments in response to 1992. It is crucial to keep in mind that, although being a significant milestone, 1992 was merely one more step in the European Union's 40-year march towards true free trade.

In a broader sense, member nations are autonomous of their national governments and are unable to accept directives from them under the rules of the Treaty of Rome, which established the European Union in 1957. The European Parliament's democratically elected members and the Council of Ministers may both formally reject their ideas. As a result, the UK government has little direct influence over many of the choices that eventually impact the UK sector, and the European Union as a whole often represents us in trade discussions. The provisions of the Maastricht Treaty, which caused controversy in the UK's domestic political scene, further this process of Europeanization. About the relative merits of the treaty's measures, there is still significant disagreement among political parties.

It is intended for the European Union to eventually resemble the United States, with each member nation acting as a separate state. Yet, given the disparities in attitude, culture, language, and even religion, can this ever ever happen? It is difficult to imagine a uniform pan-European marketing strategy similar to that of the United States. There will be numerous chances for businesses inside the European Union as the trend towards political and economic unification continues, but nothing will change overnight. It will take longer to establish an integration that is comparable to that in the United States now because of the slower pace of the shift. With the introduction of the euro, which has been embraced by the vast majority of member nations, we have witnessed the first steps towards this aim.

Each European nation will develop a specific skill, as predicted by Charles Betz of the European consulting firm Carré Orban and Paul Ray International, for instance: Germany will specialise in high technology engineering; the Netherlands will focus on service

sectors. Belgium will serve as the community's administrative centre via Brussels. France will advance in sophistication. Switzerland, which serves as a financial hub and an impartial guardian of currency, will continue to be outside the European Union. Being the link between the European Union and other Eastern European nations, Austria might have a significant impact. Turkey will develop as a low-cost manufacturing hub for items destined towards the Middle East and North Africa. The "winners" will be Italy, Spain, and Greece because they have enough amounts of easily accessible, reasonably priced labour. Portugal is a natural place to offer winter-grown veggies to the wealthier northern nations because of its cheap labour costs and mostly rural economy.

Denmark has given up its independence from the rest of Scandinavia in exchange for the freedom to trade inside the European Union, and its inventive ideas should prosper. Poland will focus on providing personnel for the construction industry and the hospitality industry, including plumbers and hotel staff. Ireland's political issues with the North should be resolved, and the country will be well-positioned to compete in the manufacturing and assembly industries thanks to its cheap labour costs. Sweden and Finland will expand their recognised competence in precision machinery and telecommunications equipment. The United Kingdom will take the lead in funding the consolidation of industries across international borders[8].

CONCLUSION

This chapter has described tactics for contending in global marketplaces. Executives must weigh the advantages and dangers of expanding internationally when deciding whether to compete in foreign markets. In order to increase their chances of success in international markets, executives would also benefit from taking into account their existing (domestic) demand circumstances, factor conditions, connected and supporting industries, strategy, structure, and competition. In conclusion, selling globally provides businesses with a wealth of growth and expansion prospects. However, a strategic strategy, market research, adaptability to cultural and legal variations, and efficient communication techniques are necessary for successful international selling. Businesses must carefully consider their market entry strategy, develop robust distribution networks, and adhere to international trade laws. With the right preparation, businesses may take advantage of global sales opportunities, penetrate new markets, and enjoy long-term success.

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CHAPTER 17

A BRIEF DISCUSSION ON INTERNATIONAL SELLING AT COMPANY LEVEL

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ABSTRACT:

Foreign trade also brings fresh possibilities to international markets and intensifies rivalry in home ones. Companies are pushed to innovate and utilise resources more effectively by global competition. International trade exposes customers to a wide range of products and services. International Organization for Trade, Discussion of the chapter's continuing export requirements. At the corporate level, "international selling" describes the strategic practise of extending sales efforts outside of national borders in order to access global markets. This abstract gives a general overview of the importance of worldwide selling, highlighting its advantages, difficulties, and crucial factors for businesses looking to enter foreign markets and successfully compete on a global level. Companies can benefit significantly from selling internationally, including greater revenue potential, access to new consumer segments, diversified market risk, and scale economies. Organisations can use their core strengths, distinctive offers, and competitive advantages to enter international markets and increase their overall market position. For businesses involved in worldwide sales, risk management and compliance with international trade legislation are crucial factors. Complex import/export rules, customs regulations, trade agreements, intellectual property rights, and currency fluctuations must all be negotiated by organisations. In order to reduce risks and guarantee seamless international transactions, it is crucial to develop effective risk management strategies and to ensure compliance with legal and regulatory frameworks.

KEYWORDS:

Company, Market, Organization, Product, Selling.

INTRODUCTION

This is simply one expert's speculation, but it seems certain that individual European Union member states will go in the direction of specialization. Calls for the UK to have a vote on leaving the EU are becoming louder. The United Kingdom Independence Party, which advocates for British secession, placed second in the 2009 European elections and third in the 2004 European elections in the UK. With 24 MEPs, four more than Labour and five more than the Conservatives, UKIP has pledged to conduct a referendum on Britain's membership in the EU. The party won the popular vote with 27.5% in the 2014 European elections. The growth of UKIP has spurred discussion over the future of Britain's membership in the EU. According to a Yougov survey conducted in Britain on January 18, 2013, 40% of respondents preferred EU membership versus 34% who preferred departure, with older respondents favouring withdrawal and younger respondents favouring it.

Other EU nations also have anti-EU parties; in the Czech Republic, it is the Party of Free Citizens; in France, there are three: the Popular Republican Union; the Pole of Communist

Revival in France; and the Political Movement for People's Emancipation; in Finland, the Independence Party; in Greece, the Communist Party of Greece; in Italy; in the Netherlands; in Poland, the Party for Freedom; and in Poland, the Congress of the New Right. As a result, this political union may evolve from what it is now to become more of the economic union that it was intended to be. The appointment of federalist Jean-Claude Juncker as President of the European Commission in May 2014 lends credence to this opinion. According to Bloomberg, he was a poor pick that was imposed on the EU by a European Parliament eager to increase its authority. Jean-Claude Juncker must be replaced [1], [2].

Organization for World Trade

The slow but pervasive trend towards protectionism over the last several years has perhaps been one of the most significant changes. The General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade governs the majority of international commerce. While this is a complicated agreement, its key elements may be distilled into four guiding principles:

1. **Non-Discrimination:** Every member state accepts that any tariff break or trade benefit given to one nation, GATT member or not, must be extended to all other members.
2. **Consultation:** Member nations are obligated to get together under GATT supervision to talk about any potential trade issues.
3. **Tariff Negotiation:** The notion that tariffs should be negotiable is what first motivated the GATT. It was hoped that the goal of these discussions would be to gradually reduce and eliminate customs taxes.
4. **Trade Liberalisation:** The main objective of the WTO, from which the aforementioned principles arise, is the ongoing liberalisation of international commerce. With this goal in mind, import quotas and licencing requirements restrictions that countries have historically used to control the number and kinds of imports are outlawed with the rationale that each country's indigenous industry should only get transitory protection via the customs tariff.

For the years after World War II, GATT had the effect of removing some of the protection given to national markets. As a consequence, the substantial expansion in global commerce previously mentioned may be partially attributed to GATT accords. Since then, a number of initiatives have halted this trade liberalisation. Restrictive trade policies that don't follow the official GATT norms have been widely adopted, such as anti-dumping laws and voluntary export restrictions. According to the World Trade Organization, the amount of international commerce that is impacted, excluding agricultural items, currently accounts for more than 5% of all global trade and is continuously growing. The average tariff on manufactured products did, however, decrease by almost 40% throughout the first 30 years of the WTO organisation, compared to when it was established in 1947 as the GATT, according to the WTO's guiding principles. After the WTO was established in 1995, it has continued to decline, although more gradually.

These tariff reductions are discussed at GATT round meetings; the eighth and last successful round started in Uruguay in 1986 and was initially scheduled to end in December 1990. The fact that this wasn't completed until 1995 is a reflection of how drawn-out and challenging the talks were. New regulations and tariff reductions from the Uruguay round, including a new general agreement on trade in services, moved slowly forward. Nevertheless, the

disagreement between the United States and EU countries over the European Agricultural Policy served as a significant roadblock to reaching an understanding. The United States argued that reforming the subsidies given to EU farmers was crucial to a GATT deal and demanded the elimination of all agricultural subsidies over a ten-year period. The Uruguay round initially seemed to devolve into a deadlock with a return to protectionist measures, notably on the side of the United States, since the United States and the European Union could not come to terms on the subject of agricultural subsidies. Nonetheless, after lengthy negotiations and diplomatic efforts, problems were substantially overcome and conversations could continue, although somewhat haltingly[3].

The Doha development round, the current round of discussions, started in Doha, Qatar, in 2001 and is still going strong. Subsequent sessions have been held in México, Hong Kong, Geneva, Potsdam, and Geneva. The Bali Package, a trade deal coming from the Ninth Ministerial Conference of the World Trade Organization in Bali, Indonesia in December 2013, is the most recent accord reached during this round of talks.

DISCUSSION

The WTO is a multilateral organisation, not a supranational one, like the UN and NATO. Britain would regain its own seat and voting rights at the WTO if it were to leave the EU. The UK would then be free to negotiate trade deals with quickly developing nations and export markets like the US, Singapore, and Australia. It is frequently said that Britain's influence at the WTO is greater since it is a member of the EU Single Market than if it spoke and bargained for itself in WTO councils. This assertion is only true insofar as the business interests of the United Kingdom and its 27 EU partners all coincide or are substantially similar. British influence is less powerful than it would be if the UK were outside the EU and allowed to make its own judgements at the WTO when British interests do not align as well, such as when it comes to the regulation of the City or in agriculture and fisheries. There is no reason to believe that, overall, British interests and those of its EU partners coincide more frequently than they diverge since the structure and pattern of UK worldwide commerce differs from those of its EU partners. It should be noted that the UK exhibits no desire to cede its votes, seats, or vetoes to insignificant agents of a regional bloc in irreversible long-term decline in the UN, the World Bank, the IMF, and NATO the other major multilateral institutions established after the Second World War by the UK and its wartime allies[4], [5].

Eastern Europe

The fall of communism and the subsequent developments in Eastern Europe have been an important recent event. It suffices to note that many of the once "closed" Eastern European nations are now open to commerce with their neighbours and nations throughout the globe. The nature and importance of these developments are long themes. Several of these once centrally planned countries are now trading partners for businesses that may organise themselves to do business with them as they work to grow their economies.

The Ongoing Export Requirement

There is little question that the composition, direction, and nature of international commerce, terms of trade, as well as the scale, direction, and nature of capital flows, are fundamentally changing the global economy. From being severely dependent on oil imports, Britain has transitioned to self-sufficiency. In connection with this, until the 1980s, our balance of

payments accounts showed a surplus before falling back into deficit. Despite this, exporting is still necessary and essential. Although these developments provide a challenge to exporters, one can only hope that the reaction they elicit will be supportive to everyone's prosperity and well-being.

While if higher exports of products and services benefit the country as a whole, individual businesses have more self-serving goals, and the best incentive for them to expand their international sales is the availability of lucrative prospects. Other elements, however, that must be taken into account are now covered. It has implications for specific businesses because the success of the national economy relies on exports. Yet, there are a few more urgent justifications for why businesses profit from exporting: Commerce resulting from the absence of a certain product: Such trade is unquestionably advantageous when a nation is able to import a good it is unable to create itself. For instance, rubber is imported into Britain since it cannot be farmed there. A company may need to buy the patent right or sign a licence agreement in order to develop a product or technique that is patented and protected.

Commerce based on regional variations in competitive costs: The idea of comparative costs developed by economist David Ricardo may be used to explain the foundation of trade between nations. According to the hypothesis, nations will benefit if they export goods with relatively low production costs and import those with relatively high production costs. While this notion is primarily used in relation to global commerce, it is present in all types of manufacturing. In that advantages are to be acquired by people doing what they can do comparatively better than other people, rather than by individuals doing what they can do best, it is comparable to the benefit of division of labour. The nation with higher productivity would nonetheless profit from specialisation in the products it produces well and should import the products it is relatively less adept at making. Trade as a result of product differentiation: In many sectors, each firm's product has certain unique characteristics that set it apart from goods produced by other enterprises. Quality, design, or even an intangible distinction like how buyers perceive the product are all examples of differentiation. This latter component is evident when it comes to automobiles, which explains why Britain both imports and exports automobiles to other nations.

It is essential to remember that in a free market economy, import and export decisions are not determined by the nation as a whole. It is produced by independent businesses who want to profit from international commerce. We have examined three general factors that influence a company's decision to sell internationally, but there are more factors that are more situation-specific. to mitigate market swings and become less susceptible to the consequences of the economic downturn, especially in the domestic market. a decline in domestic market share as a result of more competition. can profit from other markets' greater rates of demand growth. to eliminate excess or use extra manufacturing capability. loss of domestic market share as a result of outdated products. In less developed countries, products that become technically outmoded in highly developed nations may nevertheless be useful. For instance, aerosol fly killers have replaced flypaper in many European nations, yet this commodity is still in demand in underdeveloped nations since it is very affordable. If the company can increase production, it will result in a lower average cost and, consequently, a lower price, not only in foreign markets but also in the domestic market, which may lead to further domestic market expansion in order to reap the benefits of long production runs and to benefit from economies of scale.

The company has specialised skills or knowledge for creating a product that is not offered in a foreign market. The biggest incentive of all is most likely the simple presence of prospective demand supported by buying power. We have examined some of the major economic issues that influence selling internationally so far. The economics of global commerce has been the subject of whole books, therefore this coverage is not thorough. According to Hollensen, there are a few more crucial elements to take into account while talking about selling: Objectives: Some managers create goals such as "delivering the correct items to the right locations at the right time for the least amount of money." A wide variety of tasks that are more focused on completing orders than obtaining them are covered by physical distribution[6].

Channel choices may be influenced by several outside variables. They include: clientele; the nature of the product or service; the nature of demand and its variations; competition; regulatory requirements; and regional business customs. Channel structure choices may be influenced by a number of internal factors. They consist of the many kinds of intermediaries and the procedures used. The latter will deal with: vetting and choosing intermediaries; contracting; inspiring; managing; and termination. how the market is covered. the length. Manage resources. Intensity of integration. Channel power refers to a channel member's capacity to influence marketing factors for any other channel member at a different degree of distribution.

We said at the outset of this article that selling abroad was distinct from selling domestically. Although while economic variables are crucial, only non-economic ones can account for the disparities in consumption between two nations with comparable per capita incomes. We now move to the topic of cultural influences in foreign markets since selling internationally is both an economic and a cultural issue[7], [8].

CONCLUSION

The importance of these main components to the sales function has been established. These include both the broad economic considerations of international commerce as well as price goals. Balance of payments and Britain's percentage of world commerce have been included in this. The implications of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade and the World Trade Organization's operations were analysed together with the UK's accession into the European Union. In conclusion, international selling at the corporate level presents considerable growth prospects and the opportunity for market expansion. To compete in international markets, businesses must, however, negotiate obstacles like cultural disparities, complex legal issues, and market dynamics. For organisations intending to compete and prosper on a global scale, thorough market research, strategic market selection, deliberate choice of entry methods, and the development of efficient sales capabilities are essential. Companies can benefit from worldwide sales and achieve long-term success by taking a complete approach and adopting a global perspective.

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CHAPTER 18

CULTURAL CONSIDERATIONS IN GLOBAL MARKETING

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ABSTRACT:

What one culture deems professional may be different for another foreign civilization when it comes to a global commercial setting. You must be aware that cultural variations have an impact on global company in three key areas: communication, organisational hierarchy, and etiquette. Cultural issues are crucial in global marketing strategies in the linked world of today. The importance of comprehending and applying cultural variables into foreign marketing initiatives is examined in this abstract, which also highlights how culture affects consumer behaviour, the effectiveness of messaging, market access, and overall marketing success across a range of international markets. Values, beliefs, customs, and behaviours are shaped by culture, and these factors have an impact on consumer choices and purchase behaviour. Effective global marketing requires an understanding of and sensitivity to cultural differences. Language, communication techniques, symbols, social practises, traditions, religious views, and societal norms are all included in the broad category of cultural factors. Companies may engage deeply with customers and establish lasting brand ties by integrating marketing methods with cultural norms.

KEYWORDS:

Company, Cultural, Global Marketing, Market, Society,

INTRODUCTION

The technological revolution has eliminated barriers inside and between countries and continents. As a result, nations are more intertwined and closely knit than ever. Globalization is the term used to describe this phenomena of connection. Today's business and marketing tactics are mostly being driven by globalisation. In other words, as a result of the globalisation of the world's economy and markets, corporations and governments are becoming more global and are investing across borders and continents. Several businesses (from medium-sized to large-scale) are extending their manufacturing and marketing operations beyond national and continental borders in both established and developing markets. There has been considerable contact that is transforming the globe into a single society and is driving the need for global commerce as a result of worldwide travel and the widespread use of the internet. What is really driving the globalisation of markets throughout the world? Global market openings and increased rivalry for customers and resources have been made possible by the convergent demands and desires of consumers throughout the globe. Regional economic agreements, convergent marketing needs and desires, technological advancements, pressure to reduce costs, pressure to improve quality, advancements in communication and transportation technology, global economic growth, and leverage opportunities are just a few of the factors that identifies as driving globalization [1], [2]. Many businesses and organisations are founded with the goal of unrestricted expansion and growth. In order to expand, these businesses or organisations use business strategies that

assist in extending their marketing efforts beyond national and continental borders. In order for businesses to succeed in international commerce, global marketing techniques are required. The adoption of diverse marketing strategies has established international marketplaces from the universal needs and desires of human nature across all cultures. The development of global consumer markets is a result of this cultural universality's ongoing expansion. The way people live in various countries and continents still varies, despite the globalisation of the globe. As a result, there are many cultures in various nations and continents. Language, cuisine, dress, religion, and other cultural aspects vary from one nation to the next and from one continent to the next. Companies' worldwide marketing strategies encounter the cultural barrier as a result of their efforts to grow outside existing geographic limits.

Culture is the primary influence on consumer behaviour. Cultural studies embody knowledge of tradition and social behaviour. In recent years, academic literature has been heavily debating how culture affects marketing methods. Studies published in eleven discredited journals between 1996 and 2001 showed that about 10% of the studies employed culture as the explanatory variable. The majority of businesses are aware that cultural variations may prevent local marketing methods from succeeding in international commerce. Essentially, culture is a people's unique way of life that is not passed down by biological means. Such learnt behavior is transmitted from one generation to the next and changes and evolves through time. A civilization is structured such that individuals who follow cultural standards are rewarded, while those who stray are "punished" in varying degrees depending on the culture. Cultural norms will change as a society's requirements change and develop, and "old" patterns of behaviour will no longer be rewarded while new ones will. In this manner, society maintains itself and generates the behaviours and reactions required for survival[3]–[5].

DISCUSSION

While marketing abroad, it's crucial to remember the cultural reward and punishment concept. One's consumption habits, views of certain things, and the meanings associated to them are all influenced by the society in which they are raised. As a result, only certain goods and sales techniques that the person considers to be typical and appropriate for their particular culture will be accepted. It follows that in order to modify their sales strategies, international salespeople need to be aware of how culture functions in various international markets. A salesman has to be aware of the effect of cultural elements in order to be able to provide value to the market. This requires understanding the value system of the foreign market[6]–[8].

Hofstede proposed a variety of aspects that must be taken into account in national cultures, as addressed in Hofstede and Minkov³. Initially, power-distance, individualism, uncertainty-avoidance, and masculinity were the four main variables Hofstede used to categorise systematic cultural variations among nations. Later, long-term orientation was added as a third dimension, and most recently, indulgence was included as a sixth dimension. The following discussion covers all six factors:

Power-Distance: Cultures that support low power-distance anticipate and tolerate more democratic or consultative forms of power interactions. Regardless of official status, people interact with one another more on an equal footing. For instance, individuals often use their first names while speaking to one another. It is easier for subordinates to demand the ability

to participate in and question the decisions made by individuals in authority. The less powerful tolerate more authoritarian and paternalistic power relations in nations with significant power gap. Because of their placement in certain formal, hierarchical roles, subordinates recognise the authority of others. As a result, the power-distance index Hofstede defined instead reflects how individuals perceive power disparities rather than an actual difference in power distribution. When comparing individualism with collectivism, individual rights and accomplishments are emphasized in individualistic cultures. In contrast, people behave primarily as members of a stable group or organization in collectivist society.

The tolerance of a society for ambiguity and uncertainty is measured by the uncertainty-avoidance index. It illustrates how much a society's citizens try to manage their anxiety by reducing uncertainty. Individuals in cultures with high levels of uncertainty avoidance prefer to minimise the occurrence of new and uncommon conditions; they also tend to make changes gradually and carefully, plan ahead, and put regulations and procedures into place. Low uncertainty-avoidance cultures, on the other hand, attempt to have as few rules as possible and welcome and feel comfortable in unstructured settings or variable surroundings. These civilizations' inhabitants are often more accepting to change.

In contrast to feminine cultures, which put a higher importance on kinship and quality of life, male cultures prize rivalry, aggressiveness, materialism, ambition, and power. In contrast to feminine societies, where men and women share the same ideals emphasising humility and care, gender roles in masculine cultures are more starkly distinct and less flexible. In civilizations that are more long-term oriented than short-term oriented, the future is given greater weight. They promote pragmatic principles that are geared towards benefits, such as perseverance, saving, and adaptability. Values that are valued in short-term-focused civilizations include stability, respect for tradition, maintaining face, reciprocity, and upholding social commitments.

Indulgence Vs. Restraint: In communities with high levels of indulgence, hedonistic behaviour is tolerated, allowing individuals to freely satiate their physiological and psychological demands. Contrarily, restraint societies have rigid social standards that prevent and control the satisfaction of desire.

Culture consists of both intangible and tangible components. Values, perspectives, concepts, and religion are examples of abstract components. These are taught behavioural patterns that are passed down from generation to generation. Levels and types of technology and consumption patterns within that civilization make up the material components of culture. The integration and responsiveness model developed by Prahalad and Doz has proved to be an invaluable tool for illustrating the strategy that businesses may choose to use in their global operations. In accordance with this approach, a company has the option of keeping its standard products/services throughout all of its foreign markets or of tailoring its product offerings to the specific country's cultural requirements. But, if businesses worked to strike a balance between "Think global, act local," sustainable competitiveness would ideally be attained. The company and its personnel would therefore be able to successfully integrate into the culture and react correctly to the cultural expectations and requirements of the particular market, creating a win-win scenario. Since they influence the communications environment, a number of aspects must be taken into account. They consist of:

Language: For instance, businesses with global operations must take this into account while developing ads to avoid flops like the following: Pepsi's "Come Alive" was perceived as a request to resurrect relatives in Asia. The slogan "Citi Never Sleeps" used by Citicorp in China was interpreted as referring to a sleeping disorder like insomnia. McDonald's refrains from using numerous 4s when promoting rates in China since the term "four" has a deathly ring to it.

The brand name "Fiera" for Ford trucks translates to "ugly old lady" in Spanish. IBM's "solutions for a little planet" were renamed to "small world in Argentina" since the word "planet" wasn't clear enough to express the intended conceptual notion. Specific emphasis must be paid to the following areas in terms of cultural hot spots: humour, prestige, romance, music, colours, visual imagery, and verbal. Education. Development of the economy. Media resourcing. Governmental rules. Companies must keep in mind that both positive and negative credibility impacts eventually tend to dissipate. This is known as the "sleeper effect" or "dissipation effect."

Other hurdles to communicating include the following: Selective perception: audience wandering, zapping, zipping, and channel surfing; struggle with roadblocking - inability to recognise the distinctions between the sender's and receiver's fields of vision. Psychological interference: conflict with repeated exposures, contrast in the copy, and teasers. A lack of coordination between communications, such as a news release, an advertising campaign, and modifications to the product's features or cost. There are different ways to display a company's identity, brand, and product image. There are inconsistencies in the signals that employees of all levels and from various nations and cultures deliver to clients.

Selling internationally requires an awareness of how a culture structures its economic activity and the kinds of technology that are used. It makes sense that a company would have trouble selling sophisticated microelectronic equipment to a society with a backward, agriculturally oriented economy. In this situation, "suitable" technology will stand a better chance of being adopted. Salespeople should build cultural competencies that will enable them to connect to people from diverse cultures even when they are unfamiliar with all of their specific characteristics. People with cultural skills, according to Cateora and Graham, are able to: show empathy by comprehending other people's needs and viewpoints; avoid judging other people based on their own value systems; control the use of self-reference criteria; cope with ambiguity and the frustrations that can occasionally occur when faced with an unfamiliar culture.

Not all salesmen can function well in various cultural contexts. Cultural intelligence, or the capacity of a person to operate and manage in culturally varied environments, is essential to success. Since they are better able to adapt to the cultural backgrounds of their consumers, salespeople with high levels of cultural intelligence are more likely to be successful in selling across cultures. We now examine some of these cultural aspects while keeping in mind that Western materialism and industrialization have not been widely accepted in other nations due to considerations like religion.

Aesthetics

Aesthetics is a non-material cultural component that may have an impact on the growth of international marketplaces. This relates to a culture's conceptions of style, aesthetics, and

respect for form and colour. The exporter must understand the advantages and disadvantages of the designs, packaging, promotion, etc. that it uses. The business should be sensitive to regional tastes and preferences, and regional preferences should be reflected in products like company logos. Color has a significant role, as was previously discussed in the section on cultural hotspots. The most common illustration is that whereas white is the colour of sorrow in Eastern nations, black is the colour of grief in the West. In terms of pack design, this has consequences. Music is significant, especially when it is employed in marketing and advertising. Several non-Western societies use a style of music that isn't practised in the West but has symbolic significance for the people who belong to that culture. It is important to make an effort to comprehend this symbolism and use it to your advantage while marketing.

Religion

A culture's material culture and aesthetics are its outer expressions and provide insight into how its customers act. The company that sells internationally has to comprehend why customers act in that manner. A culture's religion may provide insight into the behaviour of its people. The discussion that follows will focus on Islam and Hinduism, two of the biggest faiths. While being primarily a philosophy, Hinduism is practised by 85% of the people of India and is seen as both a religion and a way of life. Understanding Hinduism's tenets is vital in order to comprehend Indian culture. Hinduism's core beliefs include the caste system, the value of close family relationships, and the idea that cows are holy animals. Hinduism's teachings are deeply ingrained in Indian society, therefore any product or marketing endeavour that offends them would have little chance of success. For instance, McDonald's does not provide beef burgers in India, despite the fact that they are their best-selling item globally.

Islam considers the Quran to be its final authority, and adherents are prone to reject anything that is not addressed in the Koran. The idea that everything occurs as a result of divine will is crucial to Islamic theology. This notion may sometimes limit efforts to effect change. Companies expanding into international markets must keep this in mind both when entering the market and launching new goods or services in a country where they may already be present. So, a business must be aware of religious variations in its international markets and ready to modify its sales strategies as well as its product offerings.

Education

The company gains insight into the type and complexity of customers in various nations by analysing educational data for relevant markets. When a company markets a new product abroad, it is also attempting to educate consumers about the applications and advantages of the product. The overall degree of knowledge in the culture will have an impact on how effective this sales communication is. Advertising, packaging, and labelling for businesses will need to be modified if most customers lack literacy. Complex items that need textual instructions may need to be changed into diagrams to accommodate the cultural norms and degree of education.

Language

A culture's language is significant. For instance, a literal translation made by someone unfamiliar with the underlying cultural significance might lead to grave errors. If a brand name is globally standardised in English, it could not be pronounceable in languages that lack

specific alphabetic letters or have a negative connotation in particular regions. The Rolls-Royce Silver Shadow almost went under the name Silver Mist, which would have been very terrible for marketing to the German market. Signal toothpaste, formerly known as Shield toothpaste, is an excellent illustration of the latter. In some languages, the word "Shield" is pronounced with a stress on the 'I' whereas in others, the emphasis is on the 'e'. This is one of the explanations for why several goods are offered in various marketplaces, nations, and sometimes even areas under various names. This is true of both the deodorant Lynx, which is marketed as JIF in certain regions, and the cleanser CIF, which is marketed as JIF in others[9], [10].

Social Structure

Many civilizations have different social structures. Kinship is the foundation of all social organisation, and in many less developed countries, this takes the shape of a huge extended family. A business functioning in such a culture must understand that the extended family implies consumption choices are made by a broader unit and in various ways. It could be challenging for a company selling abroad to identify the appropriate consuming unit.

Tribal groups are the basis for social organisation in many Asian and African nations, which might provide insight into how to segment markets effectively. In several other nations, such as India, social class is more significant and stricter. While directing sales efforts towards a certain social sector of the population, the selling business must be cognizant of the cultural distinctions in social organisation.

Political Aspects

Legal, political, and economic aspects are only a few examples of the activities that define a community's behaviour. Dealing with governments and nationalism is often seen as a big issue for companies doing business abroad. The majority of governments participate in or regulate their economy. For instance, in India, many economic sectors are only open to government-run businesses. Government law, economic policy, and rules governing goods and promotions might all have an impact on a company's pricing and credit strategy. The overseas sales strategy will be influenced by a number of variables, including nationalism, international relations, political stability, and the degree of capitalism and democracy in the other nation.

The main categories of advertising laws include:the promotion of drugs and "vice goods";Compare-and-contrast advertising, the substance of advertisements;children's target advertising;additional advertising laws, such as those governing local languages, taxes, and advertising prices. Businesses may use a variety of tactics to assist them comply with advertising restrictions. They consist of:keeping note of laws that are now being considered;early-stage campaign screening;lobbying efforts;filing a legal challenge against regulations;changing the marketing mix approach. Cultural norms and values generally. Selling and commerce in general may not be seen favourably in certain cultures. As a result, it may be challenging for an international business to find qualified salespeople and sell goods via the distribution network. Spiritual virtues are prioritised in many Eastern societies before material ones.

Time is valued differently in many cultures. A often cited example is how sales personnel in South American cultures are frequently kept waiting a lengthy time for business

appointments. This would be considered unconventional in our society and, at best, impolite. In Britain, a delay in responding to mail often indicates a low priority for the issue. In Spain, a comparable delay can have a different impact since immediate family members there are given first priority. No matter how crucial other business is, everyone who is not related is kept waiting. Although deadlines are common in the West, many Middle Eastern societies see them as an insult. If an international salesman behaves in this way, they risk losing business.

Many civilizations have varied interpretations of what space is. In the West, an executive's office size is often a sign of their prominence. This is not the case in the Arab world. The salesman must be cautious while speaking to individuals since the managing director could share an office with the general clerks. In the West, contracts are signed across a distance of two metres or more. Many Western salesmen find it unpleasant to engage in close physical contact during commercial meetings in Middle Eastern and South American nations.

In the West, business discussions often take place over a meal at the host's house. In India, it is against the norms of hospitality to do business at home or at any kind of social gathering. All commercial agreements are governed by contract law in the West, but in Muslim culture, a man's word is just as legally enforceable. A written contract really often offends a Muslim because it puts his honour at jeopardy. Subcultural influences shouldn't be disregarded since they may sometimes be the dominating force in a nation. Some examples are as follows: categories based on nationality, e.g. English and French speakers in Canada; religious organisations, e.g. Catholic and Protestant organisations in Northern Ireland; geographical divisions, such as the north and south of England, may be considered different marketplaces for a variety of goods; racial categories; societal stratification, such as the Indian caste system.

Cultural Evolution: A corporation that uses the notion of marketing abroad, seeking to meet the needs and desires of target markets while making a profit, must stay on top of cultural shifts that alter people's views and beliefs and, in turn, indirectly affect their needs and wants for goods and services. The cultural norms associated with debt have evolved in our own culture. Due to the widespread use of credit cards, debt has lost its stigma and has become a reality. Moral standards in our culture have shifted, and we now value liberalism and tolerance in areas like entertainment. Demand for goods and services has changed as a result of this shift in cultural values. So, a company must be aware that, rather than becoming obsolete due to technological advancement, its goods may become so in foreign markets due to cultural change.

A company's current goods are not the only ones that are susceptible to cultural change; if it is not aware of these changes, it may also pass up fresh chances. Whenever a corporation is dealing with a foreign culture seeking quick industrialization, the influence of culture is extremely crucial. A business functioning in this kind of climate must keep an eye on trends and make adjustments as needed. The company selling abroad must be knowledgeable with the politics, economy, and legal systems of the nation in which it operates. In addition, it must comprehend the more nuanced, less obvious meanings, cultures, and languages of the country in question [11], [12].

CONCLUSION

A firm may offer its goods and services on the worldwide market. You may sell on a worldwide scale by gathering sales from local markets. In compared to the local level, there

are more clients, increasing profit. To sum up, cultural factors are crucial for effective worldwide marketing. Companies need to understand how culture affects customer behaviour, adjust marketing plans to local norms and values, and customise messaging and market entry plans for particular cultural situations. Organisations may develop strong brand connections, win customer trust, and succeed in marketing across a variety of international markets by embracing cultural diversity and exhibiting cultural awareness.

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CHAPTER 19

ORGANIZATION FOR MARKETING INTERNATIONALLY

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ABSTRACT:

The choice of an appropriate organizational structure for the successful coordination of worldwide marketing operations is referred to as international marketing organization. So, we may define a marketing organization as an organizational structure that assists in making choices on manufacturing, packaging, pricing, advertising, sales promotion, brand, trade mark, routes of distribution, and other issues. To effectively access and prosper in a variety of worldwide marketplaces, careful organisational planning and coordination are required when extending marketing operations internationally. This abstract examines the importance of organisational factors in global marketing by emphasising the crucial components of establishing and overseeing global marketing operations. Establishing the structures, procedures, and tools necessary for smooth coordination and application of marketing strategies across many nations and regions is part of organising for international marketing. This involves coordinating marketing goals with overarching corporate objectives, choosing the best organisational layout, and encouraging cooperation between local and international marketing teams.

KEYWORDS:

Market, Marketing, Organization, Sales, Strategy.

INTRODUCTION

Every marketing strategy will be in jeopardy unless the business is set up to carry it out. Organizational structures may be seen as a key component in developing and implementing a strategy. They specify who is responsible for what, make reporting, information, and decision-making transparent, provide the incentives that encourage performance, and regulate the extent to which activities may be linked. Centralization vs. decentralisation is the fundamental disagreement in worldwide marketing organisation. For certain businesses, tight coordination at the corporate level is necessary to offer and manage the execution of their global strategy. Others may need more local response due to national mandates and political constraints[1].

The primary challenge for a worldwide marketing organisation is to strike a balance between the competing demands for local responsiveness and centralization. Companies often choose one of four distinct forms, each of which is based on a different divisionalization concept, when determining the best organisational structure. The first premise is the existence of an international division, a specialised organisation in charge of managing all facets of a company's interactions with overseas markets. These pursuits might range greatly in variety. The international division will be required to manage all documentation related to the supply of goods to foreign customers, deal with foreign governments as well as its own, and work with important business partners like exhibition contractors and advertising agencies, in

addition to managing relationships with all of its international markets and intermediary partners. The creation of an unique division for international marketing is a potential risk since it artificially separates domestic from foreign operations. The justification for this organisational structure, however, is that foreign marketing is so specialised that it requires this division.

The product division structure is the second organisational principle. The divide in this case is based on a product or a group of connected items. These product groupings are in charge of marketing internationally. Its product managers are very skilled, informed, and cognizant of client demands across all markets. The product division is well-liked by businesses that have a number of unconnected items or product lines or by businesses that sell technical products that need robust after-sales support and service. As a company enters new or unrelated business sectors, it may establish new product divisions thanks to divisional structures' flexibility. The product division strategy, however, may have certain drawbacks. International prospects are likely to be lost when a product division prioritises the home market above other markets. Due to cost constraints, product divisions often find that their local expertise is lacking. This is because each product cannot afford to employ a full worldwide team. Also, the product-structured strategy has a tendency to make it more difficult to develop corporate coordination in foreign markets.

Organisational concept is the use of geography-based structures. In this situation, businesses segment their global markets into separate regions like North America (i.e., the United States and Canada), the Middle East, South America, the European Union (EU), and so on. With this arrangement, the division is staffed by subject-matter experts, one of whom may have language proficiency. Companies that are heavily focused on marketing and have generally stable technologies, including those in consumer non-durables, medicines, and automotive equipment, are more likely to employ the regional organisation model. A regional approach to international marketing organisation is favoured by the expansion of regional groups. Treating a region's countries collectively makes sense as they become more economically (and politically) integrated. Also, operating in certain networks of marketplaces that are related geographically, a professor, edited the Wiley Encyclopedia of Management.

Demands extensive local expertise, which a roving product manager is never able to obtain due to his "short-sightedness" in regards to his own (far) home nation. Although being well-liked, the local organisation has flaws. Although it guarantees the greatest use of the company's regional experience, it results in a less than ideal distribution of product and functional expertise. Inefficiencies and the duplication of functional and product experts may occur, especially if regional organisations do not coordinate their efforts via cross-country teams and informal information sharing[2]–[4].

DISCUSSION

It might be challenging to organize for worldwide sales activities. Making choices on how to organize the interface between production and sales and assigning accountability for global operations. Every issue may be solved in a variety of ways, and the best choice must be customised for every business. Some businesses engage in foreign commerce to the extent that it accounts for the bulk of their revenues, whilst others are happy to fulfil export orders. Multinational marketing, global marketing, and exporting are differentiated, and each is now taken into consideration:

Multinational marketing refers to businesses with worldwide operations, including manufacturing facilities and offices. Multinational corporations may have their strategic headquarters in their home nation, but they conduct their business independently at the national level. Multinational corporations manufacture and sell products in the nations where they have decided to expand. Multinational companies include Shell, Ford, Coca-Cola, Microsoft, and McDonald's. Multinational organisations must be aware of their strengths and weaknesses if they are to succeed. The Microsoft case history looks at both the good and bad aspects of this business.

Companies who have strategically chosen to join international markets, who have modified their organisational structures and marketing strategies fall under the umbrella of international marketing. The word "exporting" is used to describe businesses that see exporting as a peripheral activity and generate less than 20% of their total revenue from exports. Market coverage may relate to the number of retail outlets or the geographic regions of a nation. Three different strategies may be used by a business to attain market penetration: Intensive, Selective, Exclusive.

Whatever the structure of the organisation for foreign marketing, it is essential that there be a senior manager with exporting responsibilities who can counsel and sway subordinates. There is a divide between indirect and direct ways when deciding how to organise for worldwide marketing. Below are some of the most prevalent styles of international sales organisations. The decision on which organisation to use is influenced by a variety of variables, including the nature of the product, the nature of the company, and the relative benefits and drawbacks of each organisational structure. The job does not have a single, consistent methodology. Flexibility and adaptability are the important concepts. We start by thinking about indirect strategies for marketing internationally [5], [6].

Types of intermediaries and how to choose them

On behalf of foreign corporations, agents and distributors are thought to conduct more than half of all international commerce. All individuals and organisations that provide the service of representing vendors and buyers are referred to by this word. Few producers can properly serve a market without the help of an intermediary. The choice of intermediary and the policies to be taken by businesses will have a significant impact on how successful they are in the market. Intermediaries may serve a variety of purposes.

1. One of them is carrying out inventory.
2. The creation of demand.
3. Distribution physically.
4. Post-purchase support.
5. Customer credit extension.

Agents

A company or person operating on behalf of another is known as an agent. One of the primary methods of representation abroad is this. The most typical kind of agency occurs when agents work as independent operators and secure orders for an exporter on a commission basis, with the exporter serving as the principal. Moreover, agents represent buyers, and some are experts in certain fields like advertising, market research, and

transportation and distribution. There are three primary methods to choose an agent or an agency:

A local advertising firm can provide the business the finest cultural interpretation when local customization is desired. The biggest drawback of this approach is how hard it is to coordinate global campaigns[7], [8].

A company-owned agency's primary drawback is that since the agency is based outside the region, it's probable that significant extra local involvement would be needed. Also, the corporate-owned agency could not interact much with the host nation. International advertising agency with local branches: this, for example, may provide globally coordinated campaigns.

A business entering international markets should take care to choose the correct agent and should confirm the agency's standing financially and in terms of reputation. The company should make sure that the agent's other interests do not clash with its own. Agents are often crucial players in a company's international business, and the agent's aptitude and dedication will determine the success of the international business. Since care must be taken when choosing an agent, businesses like banks will provide advice and assistance. The principal requires unambiguous responses to the following inquiries in order to determine if an agent is suitable:

1. When was the organisation founded?
2. Does the agency serve customers that are competitors? What additional interests does the agency have?
3. Do they provide the necessary coverage for your market, according to question three?
4. How does the agent's status in the market's business community in terms of professionalism, reputation, dependability, etc.?
5. Does the agent's personality or business model mesh well with how your organisation does business?
6. Are you able to collaborate with the agency?
7. Does the agent have the financial, transportational, office, warehouse, and human resources required to do the work effectively?
8. Can the agent make after-sales service arrangements or provide technical assistance if it is required?

This list is not comprehensive, and other specifics may be required based on the market, industry, and product type. Progress should be tracked when a relevant agent has been identified. Typically, agents are hired for a trial term, following which their contracts are extended.

Indirect marketing in foreign markets requires agent training, especially if the products are technically challenging. Without enough product expertise and technical understanding, the agent will be ill-prepared to negotiate with business purchasers who could be authorities in their industry. Any agreement should need training, which may need to take place at the principal's manufacturing facility. Particularly if the company is engaged in the creation of new products or if technology is evolving quickly, training may need to be ongoing with monthly update sessions.

Sales conferences and meetings may be utilised for training purposes, as a venue for addressing particular issues, and as a place to discuss potential promotional plans in the principal's home country. These gatherings will also serve a social purpose, bringing agents together for a few days to share ideas, talk about shared issues, and feel like a part of the business.

After a suitable agent has been identified, it is important to foster the ideal working relationship. Many businesses believe that hiring an effective international agent is a better alternative than entering the market directly. This is untrue since the principal has to be actively engaged and the relationship needs to be built on partnership and collaboration if it is to succeed. To foster feelings of worth, significance, belonging, and encouragement, the principal should pay a visit to the agent at the market. These visits help keep the agent up to date on the goods and country-specific advancements of the principal. The principal will learn important market knowledge on rivalry, global business conditions, and consumer opinion of advertisements and new items. All of this will result in an improvement in sales strategy and a better grasp of the dynamics of the international market.

The principle may aid the agent by offering special pricing or credit arrangements in order to gain business, or by participating in commercial negotiations between the agency and significant clients. The significance of the market, the agent's skill, and the distance from the principal's centre of operations will determine how often the principle travels overseas. If technical support or after-sales service is needed, important markets should be visited more regularly.

Agents can experience anxiety since businesses often see them as a transitory means of serving foreign markets. Many businesses stop using their agents as the industry develops and grows and instead turn to direct selling or establish a subsidiary. As a result, an agent's success itself might sometimes spell their doom. Agents sometimes assemble a large group of agencies in front of this possibility, which may lead to a dispersion of effort and potential conflicts of interest. After the agent has been established, this issue may be resolved by negotiating a long-term agreement or adding a progressive run-down provision to the agency agreement. In the second scenario, the agent often contributes significantly to, say, the establishment of a new foreign subsidiary firm or even the management of the subsidiary. So, treating agents and ex-agents fairly helps to build a reputation as a decent and fair employer, which will likely translate into future business transactions in that nation.

Identified the criteria sales agents use to assess principals, principals should succeed in certain areas in order to draw in top-performers. Below are the top 10 requirements. The top ten factors sales representatives use to assess principals: Principal loyalty to the agency, Product quality, Principal credibility, Territory exclusivity, Order receipt timeliness, Possible Sales Growth, Principal-agency collaboration, Main response to concerns, Commission or compensation schemes, important personnel attitudes.

Distributors

While they actually purchase and dispense the items, distributors perform a distinct function than agents, who are paid mostly on commission. A distributor, like an agent, would often be a local business or person who is knowledgeable about the demands of the neighbourhood market. They should be knowledgeable with the market structure, numerous socio-cultural

aspects, and local business practises and traditions. Agents and distributors vary in the following ways:

1. They will have the financial means to support their own inventory of items.
2. They may often buy in bigger numbers, which reduces the cost of shipping.
3. They shall be held legally and economically accountable as the principal for all market business dealings.
4. They are entrepreneurs who are willing to take on the risks associated with buying and reselling items, including local drops in demand and currency changes.
5. They could provide an after-sales service in specific circumstances.

The fact that distributors are separate firms that operate independently and may choose the ultimate selling price to the client is a common criticism from businesses utilising distributors. If the manufacturer believes that the product's success is significantly influenced by price, they should only work with distributors who are prepared to agree on a markup and selling price.

Similar to agents, it is crucial for the manufacturer to have positive working relationships with international distributors since both parties must be committed to the business partnership. Distributors are more than simply another consumer, even if they buy products from the producer to resale on their own. While the manufacturer depends on the distributor to further its own goals, it must take into account the distributors' own goals and interests. Giving distributors the most technical and sales support is in the company's best interests. Distributors may be utilised, like agents, to report on market trends and changes via information collection. Hollensen offers the following recommendations for anticipating and resolving issues with overseas distributors:

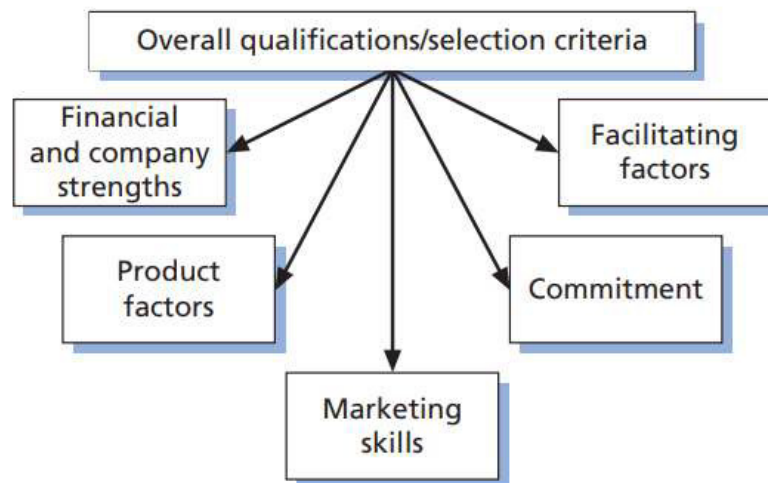


Figure 1: Helping companies evaluate foreign distributors.

Choose your distributors carefully; do not allow them choose you. Seek for distributors who can expand markets; treat regional distributors as long-term partners; and support market entrance by providing resources such as managers and tested marketing strategies. Get thorough market and financial performance information from distributors. Create connections

amongst national distributors as soon as possible. Retain command of the marketing plan. The choice of using a few major national distributors or a lot of smaller local distributors will also need to be determined. When there are regional variances in culture or business methods, it is beneficial to have a variety of small distributors to provide adequate coverage. Large national distributors, however, provide economies of scale since products may be sent in big quantities. In certain circumstances, it may be preferable to have an exclusive contract with the distributors; otherwise, if they offer a better profit, they could offer clients rivals' items.

Licensing

Another option available to a company thinking about a side-step into international markets is licencing. It is assumed that an international business would wish to produce the company's distinctive product or method. This is a useful strategy for entering and staying in more remote markets, particularly in areas where exporting completed items is difficult or impossible. Direct selling, sales via agents, and distributors may not be feasible in certain regions, and exporters may also face challenges from import taxes and other non-tariff barriers.

It can be too expensive to start a manufacturing subsidiary, or the foreign nation might be unstable politically. Licensing eliminates the risk of the company's foreign assets being taken by force, and in certain cases, it might be difficult for a manufacturing subsidiary to repatriate revenues. Leasing may be the only method to create a product at a competitive price when it is big and costly to transport in comparison to its worth. If a company has a great product concept but lacks the funds to develop and capitalise on the market independently, licencing enables the company to make at least some profit, or more accurately, royalties, without devoting limited financial resources.

The major issue is that, for a variety of reasons, royalties that are owed may not be paid if a licence agreement is in place with a business in a politically sensitive location. There is a risk associated with licencing, thus it is obvious that the licensee must be carefully picked. To attempt to get out of this dilemma, there are two possibilities. One is to make sure that the licence agreement entails the acceptance of certain component parts from the licensor and that components may be withheld if there are payment issues. The second proposal is that if a product is technically sophisticated, it is probable that it will be continuously enhanced via innovation. In this case, the newest invention may be delayed if there are issues with royalty payments. Such proposals, however, point out a drawback of licencing, despite the fact that the majority of such agreements are fruitful. The solution is to choose a licensee from a nation with a stable political system. If a licencing agreement is reached, periodical inspections of the licensee's final goods' quality should be conducted, and the licencing agreement should include clear requirements for product quality.

Homes for Export

Instead of having their own export department, manufacturers might utilise export houses. Export houses are often domestic businesses that handle part or all of the manufacturer's international operations. They frequently employ their own agents, distributors, or other middlemen. They are a good substitute for small businesses whose limited international activities do not justify the price of direct engagement. Also, they are employed by bigger

businesses that are only tangentially engaged in smaller markets, or they work with export companies until a market has grown big enough to support its own international branch.

An export house may handle all or portion of a manufacturer's international activities, or it can do some of the actual selling work. As a result, export companies provide a variety of services and flexibility: Export factoring is the management of financing and credit agreements on behalf of producers. Factory representation: When a sales manager works on behalf of a manufacturer, they oversee the sales operations of distributors or dealers. Market research in international markets. Managing export documents and processes. Assistance in the choice of agents, distributors, and dealers. Confirming orders entails paying the manufacturer once an overseas customer confirms an order and receives commission; however, in this case, the export company just confirms obligation for payment rather than making the payment to the manufacturer.

After examining the services that export houses may provide, let's examine the justifications for a manufacturing using one: The manufacturer's lack of resources to conduct operations abroad. If doing such procedures, oneself would not be economically advantageous due to their modest size and nature. When the export business specializes in a certain nation or sector. when the manufacturing business lacks marketing ability and is mostly production-oriented [9], [10].

CONCLUSION

There are many drawbacks, with lack of direct market interaction being the biggest one. The manufacturer can also have trouble keeping track of advances and changes on the international market and timely adjusting to these changes. After looking at indirect strategies for selling, we now turn to more direct ones. Organising for marketing abroad necessitates strategic strategy, delineated roles, efficient communication, and resource management. To ensure consistency and flexibility to regional market needs, organisations must strike a balance between centralization and decentralisation. Successful foreign marketing initiatives involve adopting a global mentality, engaging in talent development, and fostering cultural sensitivity. Organisations that are well-organized may take use of their marketing strengths, successfully negotiate international marketplaces, and experience long-term worldwide expansion.

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CHAPTER 20

A BRIEF DISCUSSION ON DIRECT MEANS OF SELLING ABROAD

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ABSTRACT:

The subsidiary might be a company that sells products, makes them, or does both. In a selling subsidiary, the company's own permanent employees often take the role of agents and distributors. In certain circumstances, a company may be able to launch its own sales department with minimal capital. Yet often, a business will begin by working with an agent before opening a small sales office with a few employees. The unit may become self-sufficient if earnings start to appear, and then it can eventually grow into production. Direct means of selling overseas refers to the practise of businesses interacting directly and without the use of middlemen with international clients and markets. This abstract examines the importance of direct selling in global marketplaces, stressing its advantages, difficulties, and crucial factors for businesses looking to set up direct sales channels abroad. Direct selling has a number of benefits for businesses entering international markets. It makes it possible to interact directly with customers and develop relationships with them, giving useful market insights and encouraging client loyalty. By avoiding intermediaries, businesses may more successfully tailor their services to the needs of the local market since they have more control over pricing, product placement, and customer experience. Additionally, direct selling offers chances to increase market exposure, create a strong worldwide brand presence, and boost profit margins.

KEYWORDS:

Company, Customer, Market, Product, Selling.

INTRODUCTION

The aforementioned example is a generalisation, and sales subsidiaries may need a higher investment than many businesses can afford, particularly in cases where after-sales support must be provided and extensive spare parts inventory is required. The spectrum of manufacturing subsidiaries includes basic assembly lines and full-scale industrial facilities. If the product is big and shipping expenses are considerable, a straightforward assembly plant subsidiary is helpful. The ultimate cost of travel may be decreased by employing local assembly since it is often more cost-effective to send containers of components for assembly rather than fully bulky manufactured items. Also, the creation of local jobs fosters positive perceptions of the business and helps to expand markets. Companies have several motivations for setting up manufacturing operations abroad, but the following factors are crucial:

Capacity for production: As foreign markets are growing, a company can have trouble supplying the market from its home base.

Non-Tariff Barriers: When such limitations are in place, creating a subsidiary can be the only option to get around them. Several foreign governments encourage businesses to

establish production facilities in their nations with subsidies and other incentives, and often prioritise domestically produced items in their procurement policies. Import limitations often take the shape of rigorous safety or packing requirements[1]–[3].

Costs: Establishing a manufacturing base reduces transportation expenses since labour and manufacturing facilities are sometimes more affordable in other nations.

Well Stated Import Limitations:The creation of a manufacturing subsidiary may be the only method to enter or remain in the market where these exist.

Local legal and taxes requirements must allow for the establishment of a successful subsidiary and for the parent business to reap revenues from the nation when creating a subsidiary. Before immediately establishing up a manufacturing division, it may be wise for a company to obtain market experience via agents and distributors. A former agent or distributor's employees are often used as the foundation of new businesses. The creation of a foreign subsidiary may seem to subject a company to many of the dangers that licencing reduces, yet such a venture might have the greatest potential. Local employment and production may be advantageous for the previously mentioned reasons, in addition to which the parent company may provide the subsidiary with the richness of its business resources and expertise. Additional benefits include simpler control over subsidiaries since they are directly under the parent firm's management and that workers who work directly for a business are often more motivated than those who work for an intermediary. The drawback is that national economic or political unrest may result in issues that are beyond the parent company's control. Joint endeavours: In a joint venture, two companies or perhaps more manufacture and market goods together. This exporting strategy may be direct or indirect.

Audible, a company that creates audio books, and Planet Rock, a UK radio station playing classic rock, joined together. This was not an apparent matching, but upon closer examination, many of the songs are a wonderful fit for the average Planet Rock listener, who is probably male and in his mid- to late-thirties. Burton, LoveFilm, and a fourth company, Domino's Pizza, have a joint venture. This is targeted at a somewhat younger consumer base of males who are over. Here are some instances of items that aren't obviously related, but are nevertheless perhaps interesting to this kind of buyer. The most popular types of legal entities are partnerships, limited liability companies, contractual agreements, and limited liability companies. Such agreements offer financial advantages since the expense of growth is shared, but they can cause conflict and discord between the parties.

Direct Sales

Despite the benefits of utilising intermediaries, some businesses discover that selling directly to foreign markets in their own nation has greater benefits. A company must assume responsibility for making contact with prospective clients when selling directly to them. Direct selling offers a level of control over issues like pricing, financing, after-sales support, etc. that is hard to get via intermediaries. The main drawbacks are the need for more frequent travel and the potential for issues due to a lack of a consistent presence in the market. The company may struggle to stay current with market advances and will be forced to depend on consumers to do so. Consumers can see this lack of constancy as an absence of firm commitment to the market. Companies that provide technically complicated goods that need technical support and advise often employ a sales engineer on a semi-permanent basis, which

tends to eliminate concerns about lack of commitment. The following rules demonstrate the situations in which direct selling is most suitable:

1. Work requested by the buyer the manufacturer and the buyer may need to meet to negotiate each project as a separate contract when individual orders are substantial and customised.
2. Ongoing supply once in action, this simply needs an occasional visit to discuss things like pricing increases. Normally, these contracts may be carried out without a permanent foreign presence.
3. Technically sophisticated products with a well-defined market are available. Here, the provider and user may speak openly about any issues.
4. Closeness to a location. For instance, due to effective communication channels, Britain occasionally provides direct services to nations in Western Europe.
5. Few consumers, but they place huge or expensive orders. Under these circumstances, the time and cost of travelling overseas are sometimes little in comparison to the magnitude and worth of the orders.

It is possible to develop deep relationships with specific clients based on trust, dedication, and understanding when selling directly to a customer abroad. A close-knit business partnership is advantageous, especially if the exporting firm is new to the market. Knowing the local language is more crucial when selling directly to consumers than when doing business via an intermediary. The salesman must be aware of the national cultural, religious, and business customs if they are to develop deep personal relationships with their clients. A foreign buyer making an order with an overseas salesperson may encounter various mental obstacles, and it will take time to overcome these obstacles. Hence, rather than expecting immediate achievement, focus must be put on gradual acceptance. This calls for thorough preparation in creating and cultivating relations, as well as refusing to accept the initial "no" as an answer[4]–[6].

DISCUSSION

Price has been discussed as a component of the marketing mix. Similar reasoning is used when deciding on prices for overseas markets, including concerns for things like survival, short- and long-term earnings, market share, skimming or penetration pricing, product distinctiveness, and keeping out new competitors. But, there are a number of other aspects that also need to be taken into account, with the logistical challenge of transporting the items to their destination being the most significant. While with containerization it is feasible to rent a full or half container, this is less of an issue for commodities when containerization is acceptable. This often entails additional packing to endure extended sea crossings. For perishable items or those with low weight and high value relative to volume, air freight is a rapid mode of transportation. Costs associated with transportation must be taken into account when determining the price at which commodities will be sold in their final market. Because of this, many manufacturers often accept lower profit margins for export orders in order to keep their prices competitive. Sometimes quotes for export orders are only an ex-works price without the goods to the final consumer. On the other hand, the cost can also include delivery to the consumers' places of business. These multiple pricing quotes are included in the formal contract agreement[7]–[9].

Considerations for Imports

Tariffs that may be imposed on products entering the customer's country are taken into account when determining pricing. This will need to be taken into account before the items are sold in the marketplace in the context of an extra cost. A quota limitation on certain commodities, which places a numerical limit on the quantity that may be imported during a specific time, may also be included in import considerations. In these circumstances, the importing nation may sometimes generate additional income by auctioning off these quotas to the highest bidder. It is sometimes necessary to get an import permission, which may be expensive and involve a drawn-out negotiation procedure with local authorities. Only businesses with sizable foreign trade teams could manage this procedure's complexity and level of detail internally. Smaller businesses would need the assistance of shipping and handling agencies, which raises the landing cost of products.

Purchasing Partnerships

Being able to create international buying alliances amongst themselves and, in a multi-country industrial organisation, between its own subsidiaries, gives larger corporations an inherent advantage. Such a partnership might take the shape of reciprocal commerce. On the other hand, many businesses, notably those in the automotive sector, buy component components from one another. For instance, one business may employ an additional company's engines in its automobiles. The conclusion for global sales is that these agreements may restrict free competition since they might prevent some markets from existing at all. Such affiliations should be known to the selling firm in order to avoid wasting time on pointless detours. The counterargument, however, is that these agreements do not always continue indefinitely. As a result, selling businesses should be prepared for the prospect of an alliance being dissolved in good time by utilising market information, to which the salesforce may make a valuable contribution.

Transferring Prices

This is one of the most fascinating parts of pricing and may be contentious since it often necessitates a thorough examination by customs, excise, and taxes officials if they suspect businesses are abusing their relative privileges. Large multinational corporations with production and assembly facilities based all over the globe would particularly profit from it. Transfer pricing is effective when completed goods and component components are transported between manufacturing or assembly facilities located in other nations as part of the production or marketing process. Corporation tax rates vary among nations, and import tariffs do as well. So, a multinational firm has an incentive to maximise profits in a jurisdiction with a low corporate tax rate. In fact, several nations provide businesses eager to establish industrial bases "tax-free vacations" for a predetermined amount of time.

Component components from one nation may be moved to a country with a high import tax for a cheap transfer price where the firm also has a manufacturing base in order to reduce import tax. To minimise earnings, components might also be moved at high transfer costs into nations with higher corporate tax rates. Also, expensive components or finished goods might be imported into a nation from which it is difficult to transfer earnings due to currency limitations or possibly where the currency is unstable, which would lower the profitability of the nation's manufacturing or assembly facilities. It is understandable that customs, excise,

and tax agencies tend to approach such agreements with a certain level of suspicion given the potential for exploitation of the transfer pricing system.

Japan: A Study of International Selling

This has not been intended to be a full manual for exporting and selling abroad. Instead, a basic argument for exporting for the benefit of the economy and of specific businesses has been made, together with a summary of organisational and cultural difficulties. The precise information on exporting to Japan that is directly useful to a prospective exporter is that which is provided below. This data was collected from an article in the *Journal of Sales Management*, whose editor at the time was the second author. Selling to Japan successfully demands tolerance for cultural differences and an understanding of business methods that Westerners may not fully understand. Commerce is still handled in Japan according to the old Confucian principles of civility, courtesy, and the pursuit of positive connections; the development of these relationships is the prerequisite for successful company.

The Japanese react differently from Westerners in many respects. Most of the time, Japanese people have good emotional control, and society dictates that a person of virtue won't react negatively when surprised or disturbed by unexpectedly terrible news. Bushido, the code of conduct for samurai and the ideal for many others, placed a major emphasis on the ideal of an expressionless face in times of extreme distress. Additionally, in Japan, not only are negative emotions restrained, but there is also a strong social stigma against displaying positive emotions in public. Males often display actual joy after work hours when their society allows them more latitude in how they behave when consuming alcohol, whereas women frequently hide their lips while laughing. Consequently, the poker-faced ideal is prevalent in Japan's public settings. The lesson to be learned from these observations is that, due to the difficulties in determining how the Japanese are responding, one must learn to be sensitive to their responses.

Shame is unbearable in Japan, which is another interesting fact. This indicates that one should never place their Japanese counterpart in a situation where they will have to take responsibility for a project's failure, delay, etc. The management of objections and the closing are two aspects of the sales process where this trait has significant implications. As a matter of etiquette, the Japanese may refrain from making direct criticisms in order to protect the seller's reputation. Similar to this, if a close is made, the Japanese may get worried about the seller losing face if the response is negative. The subtle manoeuvring involved in the persuasive method of selling conflicts with Japanese culture and runs directly against to the spirit of Japanese negotiation.

In some cultures, it is socially acceptable to praise someone directly on their professional success or the success of their firm, but in Japan, all compliments are given in an indirect fashion. The Japanese habit is often to tackle this specific difficulty indirectly and pick out some component of the space that shows the other person's taste and sophistication and remark on that. This is preferable than, instance, congratulating someone directly on his or her taste and sophistication.

Japanese corporations may not react to written inquiries about potential business ties in business letters. A sluggish reaction might have a multitude of causes, therefore it's not always indicative of lack of interest. The process of making decisions is usually slower for

this reason. Japanese businesses are used to speaking face-to-face with suppliers since this is how most transactions are made there. Personal introductions are often made by a third person as opposed to, instance, over the phone in response to a meeting request. The person making the introduction will inform the person being introduced about the topics that will be discussed, the firm they are from, and their position there. The Japanese businessperson one desires to meet will often be more receptive to hearing one's perspective if one introduces themselves since there will typically be a common understanding between the two Japanese rather than if one goes in uninvited.

Nowhere in the world are business and personal connections more linked than in Japan, where a strong personal relationship is the path to a successful commercial relationship. Such a bond, however, just opens a door. After that, the stark truth of the rewards to be had and the dangers to be taken will prevail. In contrast to the West, friendships in Japan take longer to develop, are deeper, and stay longer. Often, these commitments extend to commercial relationships. For instance, a major company would promise its suppliers and subcontractors ongoing orders during a recession to help them get by. These observations teach us that one must be ready to work within this two-tiered corporate framework; one must first build relationships before moving on to the second level of genuine commercial talks. Japanese business seems stiff and ceremonial to Foreigners. This is somewhat true, but corporate connections only mirror formal interactions in general. In any society, ritual is crucial, but it is especially crucial when meeting someone for the first time. It is used to establish and indicate that the first connections have been found. The first encounter is also the period when mistakes are most likely to have an adverse effect.

Dress is one of the most effective non-verbal communication tools. Japanese businesses often wear a black suit for men and a sombre outfit for ladies. Yet, the majority of Japanese businesses who are familiar with foreigners have learned to anticipate some variance in the attire of international businesspeople within appropriate bounds. So, it is not required that one should dress in a Japanese manner. Nonetheless, excesses in attire should be avoided since they could make someone uncomfortable. For instance, bright apparel will give Japanese entrepreneurs the unsettling impression that the foreigner hasn't taken them as seriously as they should have since they didn't realise that formal attire is the norm in Japan.

The Japanese businessman will bow extremely formally to the representatives of the opposing party in the discussions at the start and conclusion of each meeting. During the initial meeting, this is typically seen, and to a lesser amount at future sessions. The majority of Japanese who have interacted with Westerners before will anticipate a handshake rather than a bow. Maybe waiting to see if the Japanese businessman is going to bow or extend his hand for a handshake is the best course of action. Within Japan itself, there is debate about whether non-Japanese people should mimic the Japanese bow. For the non-Japanese party, a simple head nod or bow is usually considered appropriate. One should be aware that reciprocal bowing behaviour depends on the participants' status relationships; the inferior must start the bow and his bow is deeper, while the superior decides when the bow is finished. When participants are of equal rank, they must bow in unison and start and stop at the exact same moment.

The usage of business calling cards, or *meishi*, is one of the most noticeable distinctions between Japanese and Western business procedures. Every time a businessperson meets

another, they are exchanged. The main goal of the cards is to inform the receivers of their rank so that they may bow appropriately and speak in the appropriate way. In a hierarchical culture like Japan, people bow differently depending on their status connection with another person and use various linguistic tenses to express themselves. Also, business cards give a record for future reference and relieve the pressure of needing to instantly recall the names and positions of one's business opponents.

These cards have a consistent shape and size so they may be filed in Japanese filing cabinets. For men, they must have square corners, and for girls, round corners. The standard business card that a non-Japanese businessperson should have will feature the person's name in Japanese language on one side and information about their firm, their location, and their title on the other. The identical information will be available on the opposing side in English.

In Japan, exchanging business cards is a crucial step in the introduction process. This is why exchanging cards should be done carefully and one at a time. It should be delivered politely with the Japanese side up and the printing facing the recipient. The lack of a uniform set of English translations for the grades and positions in Japanese organisations is one of the characteristics of these business cards. Since Japan is a very hierarchical and status-conscious nation, it is crucial to comprehend the ranks in business. In a Japanese corporation, the fundamental titles are often fairly obvious, and the job level represented by the title is typically closely tied to the person's age. This structure of responsibility and ranking, which closely relates to age and years of employment, is one distinctive feature of Japanese organisations.

Although the Japanese representative may handle the specifics of the discussions, the managing director of the international company should make first contact with their equivalent in the Japanese company. This is known as the *aisatsu*, or greeting, and it serves to establish presence. The Japanese word *hai*, which may also mean "I perceive" or "I comprehend," is technically translated as "yes," although it does not always imply agreement. Additionally, since Japanese society places more premium on peace than conflict, Japanese people find it exceedingly difficult to say "no" outright. One is more likely to hear a non-committal response, such as "Let me consider," than the word "no." As a result, one must learn to recognise warning indicators of a negative reaction, such as hesitation or a reluctance to be more detailed.

Negotiations often get postponed in Japan, in large part because of the *ringi* system, a set procedure for reaching decisions. This necessitates the distribution of a proposal to all relevant divisions and departments, followed by extensive debate and revision. A agreement is finally reached after much back and forth in the *ringisho*, with the president giving the final nod. Negotiations can last for extended stretches in complete quiet. This is so that they may have some time to consider what they've said and their options before speaking again. Japanese people tend to depend largely on non-verbal communication and silence is frequently used as a communication tool. Europeans often find such silences to be awkward and feel compelled to say something unneeded to ease the seeming tension. The best response to such silences is to use discipline and wait it out.

Japanese entrepreneurs lack much faith in exhaustive contracts that aim to cover every conceivable eventuality. They favour wide agreements and understanding between parties. Contracts are drafted with flexibility in mind, and rather than setting specific conditions, they

are sometimes seen as agreements to engage in a broad course of behaviour. The Japanese like to discuss each problem as it comes up since it is assumed that both parties will be willing to make significant concessions to one another. This is not an effort to break the agreement; rather, it is an attempt by the Japanese to provide both parties flexibility to respond to unanticipated events. A comprehensive contract shouldn't be anticipated, but once a commitment is made, it's made for the long haul. Japanese businesses favour long-term, trustworthy, exclusive commercial partnerships and often use existing channels to create new company ventures.

Any translator one uses may unintentionally change statements moving from English to Japanese and back to English depending on the rank of the individuals involved because of the awareness of utilising the appropriate level of language in a conversation or debate. For instance, the translator will feel subordinate to both of them if they are chatting with a senior representative of a Western corporation and a high-ranking Japanese management. The senior official may decide to translate the remark differently from what they originally intended for a Japanese equivalent.

In Japan, relationships in the personal and professional spheres are greatly influenced by the entertainment industry. Business luncheons are uncommon, and nighttime entertainment nearly never occurs in the house, unlike the West. The traditional evening routine for a Japanese businessperson is to dine at a restaurant, followed by a trip to a bar or cabaret. Instead than addressing particular business topics, these evenings are about fostering business ties. The Westerner lacks the requisite interpersonal skills to complete talks effectively in Japan. The fact that most sales training is inapplicable to the Japanese reality is maybe even more upsetting. Reading body language is one of several abilities that are culturally specific. The Japanese attitude and view of the function of negotiations appear diametrically opposite to the persuasive method to marketing. The following are eight suggestions made by Bruderev¹⁰ for marketing to individuals in Japanese organisations:

Provide a thorough description of your company. Businesspeople in Japan are happy to receive pamphlets and brochures that provide information about your organisation, its location, your goods, and your goals for visiting Japan. Whenever possible, this should be in Japanese; otherwise, a summary of the key aspects should be in Japanese.

Conduct meetings in a Japanese manner. Ask a friend who you have in common to introduce you. Do not cancel or arrive late for appointments. Go between appointments with plenty of time, and carry a modest gift. Be aware that middle management often makes decisions. You could meet the president on your first call, but this is really a formality. The department or division leader is most often the significant individual. Don't force a closure. Japanese businesses won't make a choice during the meeting, even having the most appealing goods and persuasive sales pitches. They'll need time to evaluate your proposal, your business, and you as a person. They will require time to go over all the details of the transaction since they will be considering developing a long-term connection. They cannot refuse your offer in front of you out of respect for you.

As often as possible, speak Japanese. Make use of a native-born translator when creating sales and advertising materials in Japanese. Writing in English is required, which will reflect poorly on you. If you must communicate with a Japanese businessperson in English, talk slowly and with straightforward language. Acquire a few basic Japanese phrases; people will

recognise your effort. Keep sales presentations understated. Adopt an approach that reflects their preferred way of doing business: calm, low-key, and thoughtful. Develop a solid connection. Japanese people expect you to nurture connections via sales calls, courtesy visits, the occasional lunch, and other social occasions because they adhere to formal standards when starting a relationship. Dress sartorially. The Japanese like simple, understated work attire. To softly blend in should be the goal[9]–[12].

CONCLUSION

The benefits of businesses becoming global have been explored, particularly in reference to how the sales technique should be modified for various cultural contexts, particularly in respect to concerns like aesthetics, religion, education, language, social organisation, and political aspects. Many organisational forms for worldwide selling have been described, including indirect techniques using agents, distributors, licencing, and export houses as well as direct methods using subsidiary businesses, joint ventures, and direct selling.

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CHAPTER 21

A STUDY ON LEGAL AND MORAL CONCERNS

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ABSTRACT:

Each person presents in a state or nation that enacts that specific set of laws is subject to legal action. Yet, ethical rights are seen as a person's free and private action based on their understanding of right and evil. Legal and Ethical Issues, ethical problems salespeople encounter in their contacts with customers, obstacles to ethical sales behaviour, To develop moral standards, one must first understand values. This chapter discusses restrictions and guidelines, terms of sale, and servicing orders. Within organisations, business practises and decision-making are significantly influenced by legal and ethical considerations. The importance of taking legal and ethical considerations into account when conducting company operations is explored in this abstract, with particular emphasis on how they affect reputation, stakeholder relationships, and long-term sustainability. The observance of laws, rules, and contractual responsibilities is included in legal concerns. Legal frameworks pertaining to things like intellectual property rights, labour rules, consumer protection, data privacy, environmental standards, and anti-corruption measures must be followed by organisations. Legal responsibilities, fines, reputational harm, and even legal repercussions for specific individuals inside the organisation might occur from violations of the law. A proactive approach to legal requirements fosters responsibility, openness, and trust, improving the organization's overall ethical position.

KEYWORDS:

Business, Consumer, Ethical, Information, Sales.

INTRODUCTION

The ideas, values, and standards that govern conduct in the business environment and in interactions with customers are the definition of business ethics and the response to the question, "What is Business Ethics in Sales?" As it is the right way to do business in the long run and produces long-term sales outcomes for the firm and the sales team, ethics in sales has recently attracted a lot of attention. Character integrity and ethics are the cornerstones of long-term relationship building in sales, whereas unethical selling may result in short-term gains for the business and small or large spikes in sales, but over time, it usually spells doom for the business or the salesperson as trust is lost and sales become less frequent and much harder to come by as the customers don't believe in the salesperson and then also the business. Business ethics in sales may either originate from the firm itself, meaning that the ethical standards are spelt out in their rules and can thus be mirrored or duplicated via their sales team management and then the sales team as well. Instead, a salesperson's personal morals, which are a reflection of their whole personality, may influence their approach to business. In addition, ethics refers to the ongoing pursuit of knowledge on moral principles and behaviour, as well as the goal of ensuring that salespeople and the organisations they represent adhere to fair and well-founded norms [1], [2].

Thirdly, it may be a combination of the business and the salesperson, as a salesperson with high ethics who works for a business that shares their standards is a wonderful fit for both the client and the business and will ultimately yield the most sales over time. In any case, business and selling ethics go hand in hand and should be a major consideration when creating a plan for customer relationships that will enhance sales and allow for long-term commercial relationships. This must be advantageous for a firm that wishes to endure for a long period while maintaining and increasing revenues.

Important ethical concerns are continually present for management and enterprises in general. The importance of businesses acting ethically cannot be overstated. It should come as no surprise that businesses that constantly exhibit moral conduct and social responsibility perform better. At organisations that are successful, ethics are so deeply ingrained that every employee from the CEO to the entry-level worker understands how to act. Ethics is not a distinct subject but is integrated into business strategy. From strategic planning to operational execution, the organisation incorporates ethics into every action.

Obstacles to Ethical Sales Conduct

Sales is one of the ethically most prominent roles in any company. This is so because the salesman has direct touch with the consumer. The company and its ethics are directly reflected in what the salesman says and does. Selling on a daily basis involves both personal and professional ethics. Many businesses create unrealistic targets because they are under pressure to produce quick results, and workers are under tremendous pressure to reach these goals or risk losing their jobs. There is a "overemphasis on quick pleasure," according to Professor Neil Malhotra of the Stanford Graduate School of Management.

Sales managers have significant ethical obligations with respect to both their own behaviour and that of their salespeople. While recruiting, establishing quotas, assessing, and doing many other management activities, managers in the sales industry often encounter ethical issues. They include ensuring that management procedures are devoid of discrimination and that workers are accorded respect and dignity. The ethical standards that they expect their salespeople to uphold must also be established, communicated, and enforced.

Salespeople face more ethical demands than employees in many other occupations. They are often assessed based on short-term goals, they operate in settings with little supervision, they are largely in charge of creating the company's income, which may be highly stressful at times. They are also frequently confronted with difficulties that need for original solutions. Salespeople may advocate temporary fixes to consumers' issues that may not be in their best interests if the latter is present. Because of their work, salespeople confront particular ethical issues, such as how to respond to unethical demands from clients and ensuring sure they are aware of and abiding by all business guidelines for dealing with clients.

Ethical challenges salespeople face in their interactions with consumers

Many of the interactions that sales managers have with their salespeople, their businesses, and their clients entail ethical issues. Customer relations-related ethical issues may be the most pressing ones that sales managers must deal with. The main issue areas are information, gifts, entertainment, pricing discrimination, and unfair competition.

Information: It is crucial for salespeople to provide their clients with all the knowledge necessary for them to make wise selections. Salespeople may provide advice that is not in the best interests of their clients. For instance, they can fail to provide the consumers with all the necessary information. Sometimes salesmen willfully push a more expensive product when a less expensive one would have sufficed to meet the customer's needs.

Gifts: In American company, it is customary to provide clients with presents, particularly during the Christmas season. Nonetheless, the moral and ethical atmosphere of giving clients presents is closely scrutinised today possibly more so than ever before. Both the gift-givers and the recipients are reviewing the custom. Some companies set monetary limitations on the amount of business presents that workers are permitted to give and receive. Some businesses no longer provide holiday presents to consumers. Instead, several of these businesses offer to donate in sums comparable to their customary presents to the charity that their clients find most meaningful.

Entertainment: Sales job undoubtedly includes business entertainment, which often receives a significant amount of the budget allocated to expenses. Representatives who squander this money on accounts with little potential will lose time and incur excessive selling expenses. In fact, knowing the appropriate audience to amuse as well as the kind of entertainment required may help salesmen succeed.

Pricing Exclusion: For instance, sales managers cannot let employees of their sales staff to offer price reductions to anybody. Some clients can threaten to leave if their expectations are not satisfied and demand higher discounts than are normally permitted. If there is no equivalent cost difference to support the transaction, a seller who offers the extraordinary discount may be breaking the law along with the customer[3]–[5].

Unfair Rivalry: Generally speaking, unfair business tactics that endanger a customer or a rival are prohibited. Unfair competition practises including offering bribes and giving clients false information have been the target of several legal lawsuits against businesses and their workers.

Bribes: Bribery is the unlawful payment of cash or gifts to get or keep a client. It's also prohibited to use bribery to get information about rivals. Selling bribes is an unpleasant reality that seems to have existed from the beginning of time, in varied degrees. Even though they may seem obvious, outright bribes, payoffs, or kickbacks are obviously wrong. Regrettably, most bribery nowadays is carried out in a sophisticated way that makes it difficult to spot. Sometimes it's difficult to distinguish between a bribe, a token of gratitude, and a fair fee for work done. In sales, the request for a bribe could originate from the customer or the salesperson. A sensitive sales representative is required since the buyer's request is often made in a disguised manner. Bribery occurs often perhaps in all cultures and political structures. In many foreign nations, a corporation cannot even expect to generate sales without paying fees or "commissions" which are really really bribes to agents abroad. The ethical standards of sales managers and salespeople will undoubtedly continue to be put to the test by bribery. Sales leaders should understand that "everyone else is doing it" is not a defence, at the very least. Those who are found guilty of accepting or providing bribes may face harsh punishments.

Inaccurate Information: Making false, fraudulent, or misleading representations about a product or the services that go along with it is prohibited. A seller may also be held liable for any property damages or personal injuries resulting from a customer's abuse of a product if a salesperson makes excessive promises about it and those statements cause the consumer to use the goods improperly. Making false, misleading, or derogatory remarks about a rival company or its goods is likewise prohibited. However these habits are common. The falsehoods might range from exaggerations of the competitor's financial soundness to derogatory remarks about its sales representatives. Notwithstanding their characteristics, all of these measures have the same aim: to delegitimize the rival. This is unlawful and may result in legal action, penalties, and incarceration. Despite the fact that their clients aren't always honest, sales managers must train their staff that lying is never acceptable in the effort to close a deal. Between hiding your genuine thoughts towards your clients and hiding the truth about the benefits of your product, there is a big distinction.

DISCUSSION

Salespeople also deal with other problems than these. For instance, two fundamental principles of business are that everyone should have an equal chance to succeed and that the client should always have the freedom to make their own decisions. A buyer's capacity or chance to make a decision is unjustly diminished or eliminated via manipulation, a kind of unethical sales activity. Contrarily, persuasion may have an impact on a customer's choice, but that choice still belongs to the customer. Misrepresentation and product claims that are false are examples of manipulation, but it may also include concealing crucial information, using pressure-selling techniques, and utilising other unethical sales techniques [6]–[8].

Understanding values to establish ethical standards: Sales managers often have their own personal codes of ethics, which they generally uphold while managing their sales teams. Most of us think we uphold our own standards of ethics while acting. But, society as a whole, not the individual, establishes ethical norms. As a result, the group assesses your own definition of ethics.

What should I do? or "How should I act?" is for many of us the central ethical issue. Ethics is meant to provide us "moral principles" or general guidelines that direct our behaviour. But are moral principles the only thing that ethics entails? Some ethicists have lately questioned the distinction between rules and principles, claiming that the focus on rules neglects virtue, one of the core elements of ethics. Some ethicists argue that the "moral principles approach" overlooks the more crucial question of what people ought to be by concentrating on what people ought to do or how they ought to behave. In other words, according to Velasquez (1988), the central ethical dilemma is not "What should I do?" but rather "What type of person should I be?" Values serve as a person's compass and guide through life. Honesty, open communication, collaboration, integrity, prestige, security, assisting others, loyalty, social responsibility, effect on society, innovation, etc. are only a few examples of values that are listed below. Many individuals are very passionate about their ideals and want their surroundings to reflect those principles.

The legal protection of consumers is mostly a twentieth-century development. Before, the dominant mentality may be summed up by the Latin phrase *caveat emptor*, which means "let the buyer beware." Since 1970, when it was realised that sellers may have an unfair advantage over consumers when entering into a contract of sale, a significant portion of the

law has been developed. In addition to these Acts, a number of standards of conduct that address things like advertising, market research, and direct marketing provide further consumer protection. Trade organisations including the Society of Motor Manufacturers and Traders, Association of British Travel Agents, and Radio, Electrical and Television Retailers' Association have also created codes of conduct that have been certified by the Office of Fair Trading.

The Consumers' Association, which advocates for customers and offers product information, sometimes on a comparative basis, protects the interests of consumers as well. This allows consumers to choose goods and brands with more knowledge and objectivity. This data is available in its publication *Which?* In order to advocate consumers' interests at the federal level and to publish studies on different consumer-related issues, such as consumer credit, the National Consumer Council was founded in 1975.

The agreement

All of this activity revolves on the contract that is made when a seller agrees to part with an item or provide a service in return for cash. When a bargain is reached, a contract is formed. You may do this either orally or in writing. A legally binding contract is created after an offer has been accepted. Hence, if a builder makes a bid to construct a garage for £4,000 and that offer is accepted, the builder is required to do the job, and the homeowner is required to pay the agreed-upon fee when it is finished. Even though contracts, with the exception of those involving the purchase of a house, are not required to be in writing, placing an offer and acceptance in writing can reduce the possibility of misunderstanding the terms of the agreement reached and offer concrete evidence in the event of legal action. The terms and conditions that apply are critical in written contracts. Before looking at various business activities and how they are governed by law, this part of the contract will be taken into account.

One side must have made a definite offer in order for there to be a binding contract, and that offer must have been unequivocally accepted. It's important to differentiate between an offer and "an invitation to treat." A treat invitation is not an offer. For instance, a store's presentation of items priced a specific way does not constitute a sale offer from the store owner. Instead, it is a request for customers to submit a purchase offer. In the event that a product is unintentionally priced too cheap, the customer cannot insist on purchasing it at that price.

Restrictions and guidelines

Terms and conditions, as their name implies, provide the conditions under which both the buyer and the seller are willing to make a purchase or a sale. They outline the parameters of each party's liability. As a result, both the buyer and the seller are free to specify their terms and conditions. Typically, the vendor will include them on the back of the quote form, and the buyer will do the same. Your attention is brought to our usual terms and conditions on the back of this order, which is often printed in red ink on the front of the form. The following are examples of clauses often seen in purchase order conditions:

1. The firm will only honor orders that are written on its printed order form and are signed by an official company representative.
2. Order modifications must be acknowledged by a formal amendment and be signed.

3. Delivery must take place by the deadline. For late deliveries, there is a reserved right to cancel.
4. Costs associated with returning defective items to the supplier will be assessed.
5. The supplier is responsible for covering all insurance costs for items in transit.
6. This order is subject to a cash discount of 2.5% for payment within 28 days after delivery, unless otherwise specified. Any payment paid is without prejudice to our rights in the event that the delivered items are found to be subpar or do not match the agreed-upon specification or sample.
7. You may not use any of the tools that we provide for the execution of this order to work for another company without their authorization.

A contract's terms and conditions should be carefully drafted since they shield one party against claims made by the other should issues develop during contract fulfilment.

Conditions of sale

Sellers and buyers need to be aware of the terms of trade that are relevant when transacting internationally in addition to the tactical and strategic elements of international selling that have been highlighted. The unwary may suffer substantial financial implications as a result of differences in the conditions of trade. Conditions of trade are used to specify who is in charge of overseeing the movement of commodities between importer and exporter as well as who is liable for each portion of the costs associated with doing so.

These delivery and cost-related concepts are referred to by a variety of labels. The World Chamber of Commerce created official definitions in 1936 as a result of different meanings. They were released under the name INCOTERMS, and updates have subsequently been made. For instance, a new version of INCOTERMS was published in 1980 and included two new phrases that were necessary due to the growing significance of container shipping.

Terms of trade are helpful because they cover a variety of circumstances, from the case where exporters simply make their goods available for collection by importers or their agents at their factory to the case where the exporter agrees to deliver the goods to the importer's factory, taking responsibility for the costs and administration of that delivery. The most typical terms are included in the sections that follow.

Orders for services

The conditions under which the commodities were supplied to and accepted by the ship are stated in a bill of lading, which is a receipt for goods received on board a ship that is signed by the shipper. The following guidelines were established by the Bills of Lading Act of 1855: It upheld the shipper's ability to "stoppage in transit." Hence, during shipment, an unpaid exporter might recover the products. It established the transferability concept, which permitted the transfer of a bill of lading from its holder to a third party, who subsequently took ownership of the goods and any rights and obligations specified in the bill. It declared that the bill of lading served as conclusive proof that the items had been transported.

Hence, the bill of lading serves as documentation that the shipper has received the goods. Also, it may form a component of the agreement between the shipper and the person or entity paying for the shipment. A shipper may "clause" the bill of lading to the effect that the goods are damaged upon arrival at the port of departure, for instance. The following information is

typically included on a bill of lading: the name of the shipper, the ship's name, the description of the cargo, the payment information, such as whether freight has been paid or is payable at destination, the name of the consignee, the terms of the carriage contract, the date the goods were loaded into the ship, the person who will be notified when the shipment arrives at its destination, and the ports of departure and final destination. The bill of lading serves as a receipt for the transported goods, a transferable record of title that enables the holder to collect their goods, and proof of the conditions of the shipping contract.

An exporter may give an importer a price "ex works." As a result, the exporter's responsibility for the products' loss or damage is reduced to a minimum, and the exporter's obligations to deliver the items are likewise reduced to a minimum. As the items leave the plant, ownership transfers to the buyer, who is also responsible for covering any export expenses and taking on any associated risks. When the products are to be combined with those of another company to create a joint export cargo or when the customer has well-established transportation capabilities, such as when buying commodities like tea and coffee beans, quoting ex works may make sense. Some clients, on the other hand, could find it difficult to compare the real cost of such items to purchases made in their own country, where prices are listed with delivery, therefore offering an ex works price may not satisfy their demands.

Free on the Boat

As a result, the exporter now bears additional obligation, accountability, and delivery expenses up until the items are put into the ship. The importer is now responsible for covering the cost of the insurance and goods. In the event that the importer refuses to pay for such products, the exporter still has the option of a "stoppage in transit." The terms "free on rail" and "free on waggon" are variations for land transportation, respectively, and they signify that it is the seller's obligation and expense to deliver the products on board a railway transporter or waggon.

Free next to Ship

This phrase signifies that the exporter is in charge of and must cover all transportation expenses up to the point at which the products are loaded onto the ship. Before the items are actually put onto the ship, a clause defining who is accountable for any loss or damage should be created. As a result, the importer is responsible for paying for the cargo's loading, insurance, and freight costs.

Price, insurance, and Shipping

If a cost, insurance, and freight agreement is achieved, the exporter will be in charge of delivering the items to the ship and will be liable for paying the buyer's insurance against loss or damage while the products are in transit.

The buyer may file a claim against the ship owner or underwriter if any loss or damage occurs after the shipping firm has received the goods and issued a clean bill of lading for the cargo. As a result, although though the exporter is responsible for paying for transportation to the port of the importer, liability has now been transferred to the ship after the cargo has left shore. Cost and freight is comparable to CIF, with the exception that, as the name implies, exporters are not liable for shipping insurance. Instead, this insurance is paid for by the importer[9], [10].

Free Shipping

This lays the greatest amount of responsibility and expense on the exporter, who agrees to deliver the items to the importer while covering all associated expenses and completing all administrative tasks. From a marketing standpoint, quoting a delivered price has the benefit of reducing consumer uncertainty and burden since the seller is responsible for paying for transportation, collecting documents, organising delivery, etc. Moreover, it enables customers to contrast local pricing with genuine prices from international sources where shipping expenses are either included or minimal. Customers with effective importing systems may, however, elect to pay "ex works" or "free on board" and arrange their own transportation rather than paying the higher "free delivered" fee[11].

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, we looked at a few of the organisations and regulations put in place to safeguard the interests of consumers. Regrettably, a small number of dishonest people have made it essential to pass regulations that safeguard consumers. Understanding a contract and its corresponding terms and conditions is essential to the study of the sale. Afterwards, several business procedures and the legal safeguards that accompanied them were discussed. Lastly, questions of ethics in sales were looked at. The third section addresses selling strategies. In conclusion, moral and legal issues must be taken into account if an organisation wants to function morally, keep stakeholder trust, and ensure long-term sustainability. Addressing moral issues encourages moral decision-making and ethical business practises, while adhering to legal standards builds a foundation of legitimacy and accountability. Organisations can navigate difficult business environments, improve their reputation, and contribute to a more moral and sustainable business environment by incorporating legal and moral issues into their operations.

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CHAPTER 22

A STUDY ON BUSINESS PROCEDURES AND JUDICIAL OVERSIGHT

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ABSTRACT:

Judicial review is the ability of a nation's courts to look at the legislative, executive, and administrative activities of the government and assess if they are in accordance with the constitution. The Act protects both products and services. defective items, exclusionary clauses, the use of a credit card, the collusion of retailers, make a remote purchase, this chapter discusses ethical issues. Fair and open business practises within a legal framework are ensured through corporate procedures and judicial scrutiny, which is a critical component. This abstract examines the value of corporate procedures and the function of judicial review in fostering accountability, settling conflicts, and supporting the rule of law in the corporate setting. All of an organization's operations are carried out in accordance with a set of rules, regulations, and practises known as business procedures. These processes include a variety of topics, including governance frameworks, financial reporting, risk management, regulatory compliance, employee relations, and ethical standards. Organisations are able to uphold integrity, reduce risks, and promote stakeholder trust when procedures are clearly defined and consistently followed.

KEYWORDS:

Business, Consumer, Ethical, Market, Sales.

INTRODUCTION

Fake statements: Unreliable claims regarding the item or service they are offering may entice dishonest salespeople to deceive prospective customers. The Trade Descriptions Act of 1968 provides consumer protection in Britain against such practises. Both oral and written descriptions of products, prices, and services are covered under the Act. It is against the law for companies to provide fraudulent trade descriptions to their items and to sell them. The Act also protects "misleading" representations, although the inaccurate depiction must be materially untrue. Salespeople would also be guilty of using a deceptive trade description if they referred to an automobile as "beautiful" if it turned out to be unroadworthy. For example, if a car was advertised as getting 50 miles per gallon when in reality it only got. A clear disclosure of the real place of origin must be provided when items are labelled in a manner that suggests they were created somewhere other than where they were actually made, according to the Trade Descriptions Order of 1988.

The Consumer Protection Act of 1987 addresses false price indicators. Giving a deceptive indication of the price at which products, services, accommodations, or facilities are offered is against the law, according to this Act. The Act also applies to publishers, agents, and advertising in addition to the individual or business providing the products or services. When a price is implied to be lower than it actually is, when additional fees are implied to be included in the price when they are not, when it is implied that prices will rise, fall, or remain

the same, when it is implied that the price depends on specific circumstances or facts, and when consumers are encouraged to rely on the truth of the price indication by circumstances that do not apply, prices can be misleading [1].

Both goods and services are protected under the Act. The Consumer Protection from Unfair Trade Rules 2008 encompass deceptive acts and omissions. Advertising nonexistent goods or providing a limited number of things at the stated price without any expectation of satisfying a significant demand are examples of misleading behaviour. Also prohibited are sellers that misrepresent their goods or pass them off as another to seem more credible. For instance, violating this requirement would be saying that "we only fit authentic, branded components" while in fact non-branded parts were installed on an automobile. A deceptive scenario might sometimes arise not as a result of what was stated, but rather as a result of what was left out. The laws shield buyers against vendors who fail to provide them with crucial information that they need to make an educated choice.

Sellers who employ aggressive sales techniques, such as refusing to accept no for an answer, waiting to leave until a contract is signed, or acting threateningly, would be breaking the CPUT standards. When a consumer's freedom of choice or behaviour is considerably restricted, a practise is deemed aggressive. Certain actions that are seen to be unfair to consumers are prohibited under CPUT laws. These include aggressive doorstep selling, which involves making personal visits to the customer's home while disobeying the customer's requests to leave or not return, limited offers, which falsely claim that a product will only be offered on specific terms for a short period of time in order to prompt an immediate decision. Unit pricing, whereby packets are tagged with a price per litre or kilogramme, etc., helps alleviate confusion regarding value for money caused by different pack sizes. Certain supermarket items, for example, must be tagged with a unit price unless they are packaged in EU-approved pack sizes, according to an EU law that went into effect in full in 1994.

Faulty products

The Sale of Products Act of 1979 provides the buyer with the primary defence against the sale of defective goods. According to this Act, a product must be suitable for the purpose for which it is reasonable to anticipate it to be used and must adhere to its description in order to be of merchantable quality. A second-hand automobile that is discovered to be unroadworthy after purchase is an example; unless purchased for scrap, it is obviously not of merchantable grade. The goods must also be suitable for the purpose indicated by the customer and accepted by the seller, which is the last requirement. A shop may be breaking the law if they agree that the automobile is safe to use when, in reality, it is not because of the higher temperatures, for instance, if a customer purchased a car in this nation with the declared wish to use it in Africa. Private and commercial sales are both covered by the need that items match their descriptions, but only commercial sales are covered by the merchantability and fitness for purpose requirements. The latter two terms are applicable for a reasonable amount of time after the purchase in addition to at that time. The definition of "fair" is subjective and will vary depending on the nature of the product[2]–[4].

Some businesses provide guarantees in which they pledge to replace or fix those items should the issue become evident within a certain time period. This is done to safeguard the customer against faulty products. However, until the Supply of Products Act of 1973 was passed, these so-called assurances sometimes took away more rights than they granted. With the passage of

that Act, it is, however, illegal for a seller to contract out of the requirements that products must be marketable and suitable for their intended use. Now, buyers can be sure that signing a guarantee won't mean giving up their legal rights under the Sale of Products Act of 1979.

In response to a regulation from the EU, the Consumer Protection Act of 1987 went into effect. This safeguards customers in case they suffer harm. They must be able to demonstrate both the flaw in the product and how it contributed to the harm. Normally, the producer or importer of the final product, the flawed part, or the raw material is responsible. When a product does not provide the level of safety that a person has a right to anticipate, it is said to be faulty. The "development defence," where the maker demonstrates that the level of technical knowledge at the time the product was introduced prevented the presence of the defect from being recognised, is a significant defence against claims. The Consumer Safety Act of 1978, which forbids the selling of hazardous items, and several EU rules provide further consumer protection. For instance, aerosol canisters may only bear the EU mark if they meet all of the requirements for size, strength, etc. Momentum selling

Inertia selling is the practise of providing unsolicited products or services to those who may feel obligated to purchase them after receiving them. Someone may get a book, for instance, and be informed that they were picked especially to receive it. They would be requested to provide payment in exchange for the book or return it within a certain time frame, failing which they would be responsible for payment. Letters requesting payment, often in stern words, would be sent in response to non-payment and failing to return the item. When the usage of this approach increased in the 1960s, the Consumers' Association launched a campaign to call for laws to be passed restricting its use. As a consequence, the Unsolicited Products and Services Act 1971 and Unsolicited Goods and Services Act 1975 were both approved[5], [6].

DISCUSSION

While these Acts did not outright prohibit the method's usage, they did provide consumers certain rights that render it useless. If the sender has not claimed the unwanted items after six months from the date of delivery, they may be considered as a free gift. Moreover, the sender has 30 days to retrieve them if the receiver tells them that they were not requested, failing which the recipient will own them. The 30-day restriction was seen to be a fair middle ground between the rights of the receiver and the sender, who may be the target of a fraudulent order made by a third party.

Threats of legal action or the inclusion of names on a public list of defaulters have also been forbidden, as has the practise of sending threatening letters demanding payment. Unwanted services have also been subject to legal restrictions. For instance, it is now against the law to include a company's name in a business directory without their permission and then demand money. As a result, the legislation effectively grants consumers enough rights to discourage the practise of inertia selling. For the consumer's benefit, the hassle and expenses associated with employing this strategy now exceed the advantages to be achieved.

Clauses of exclusion

The inclusion of an exclusion clause is another tactic that some sellers have used to reduce their responsibility. For instance, a restaurant or nightclub may post a notice explaining that coats are left at the owner's risk, or a dry cleaner might post a statement disclaiming

responsibility for any damaged clothing. The Unfair Contract Conditions Act of 1977 presently governs this practise. A seller is not allowed to negotiate out of or restrict their obligation for wrongful death or personal damage brought on by negligence or other breaches of contract or duty. An exclusion clause is only acceptable in other circumstances, when loss does not entail death or harm, provided it complies with the criterion of "reasonability."

This indicates that it is reasonable in light of the conditions in place at the time the transaction was made. For determining "reasonability," the following pertinent variables are taken into consideration: the potency of the respective parties' negotiating stances; if the consumer was given a benefit in exchange for accepting the exclusion clause; if the consumer was aware of the exclusion clause or should have been aware of it; if the products were made in response to the customer's customised request; if it was practical to meet the criterion in the case of an exclusion clause that takes effect when a certain requirement is not satisfied [7]–[9].

Using a credit card

Prior to 1974, acquiring consumer credit via a hire-purchase arrangement was governed by different legal standards than obtaining consumer credit through a bank loan. Yet, from the perspective of the customer, there isn't much of a difference between paying for a thing in instalments or using a bank loan, which is also repaid in instalments, vs purchasing in cash. This difference was essentially eliminated by the Consumer Credit Act of 1974. The phrase "regulated agreements" refers to almost all consumer credit agreements up to £15,000, with a building society mortgage being a noteworthy exception. In 1985, regulations relating to the Act's "truth in lending" requirements went into effect. All previous credit-related legislation have been replaced by the Act. The Act's requirement that lenders reveal their genuine interest rates in ads and sales materials was a significant step towards protecting consumers. Consumers may now compare interest rates charged on a regular basis thanks to the genuine rate's appearance in ads as the annual percentage rate. Previous to the passage of this Act, deceptively written marketing and sales material might make the magnitude of charges seem considerably smaller than it really was.

A licence system under the control of the Director General of Fair Trade has allowed for the control of credit trading. Only those with a solid track record of trading are allowed to trade in credit thanks to this method. A licencing is required not just for financial institutions, but also for shops that set up credit to sell their goods. Weekly or monthly credit, however, is exempt from the Act. As complete payback is often needed at the end of each month, many credit card agreements are thus exempt. A minimum of one copy of the credit agreement must be provided to everybody entering one so they are aware of their rights and duties. Where an agreement is preceded by "oral statements" and was not signed on company property, the Act provides for a "cooling off" time. This clause aims to restrict doorstep sales via credit agreements. If a customer wants to cancel, they must do so within five days of the day they received a copy of the signed agreement. The minimum and maximum information that may be included in credit or hiring ads was set down in the Consumer Credit Rules of 1989. Simple, intermediate, and complete advertising are classified, and the informational content is controlled as such.

Complicity between merchants

In certain cases, it may be in the sellers' best interests to work together to limit supply, set pricing, or distribute the market in a manner that benefits both parties. Every such trade agreement must be registered with the Director General of Fair Trading, a position created by the Fair Trading Act of 1973, according to the Restrictive Trade Practices Act of 1979. The Registered Agreement may be referred to the Restrictive Practices Court by the Director General of Fair Trade if they believe it to be against the public interest. The agreement may be deemed invalid if the Court concurs. The EU Commission also has authority over collusion and has had substantial success in dismantling pricing cartels, such as in the plastics industry.

Purchase from a distance

The Distance Selling Rules, which also provide protection whether purchasing through mail order, the phone, or a TV shopping channel, cover internet shopping in addition to the Sales of Products Act of 1979. These restrictions provide additional consumer protection since it might be problematic to buy anything without being able to see or touch it. A vendor is required by the distance selling regulations to provide the following information: a summary of the product or service; its cost; rights to delivery and cancellation; and identifying information about the vendor, including a location.

From the time an order is made until seven working days after the day the products are received, the buyer has the option to cancel it. The seller is responsible for paying the return shipping costs if the products are defective or an unacceptable replacement item is supplied. Customers who purchase items online have the same rights as those who purchase them in person when the products are defective.

Ethical concerns

Gaining client trust is crucial for the initiation and growth of profitable buyer-seller relationships, according to relationship marketing and personal selling research. Salespeople who exhibit competence, dependability, and client attention might help to build and maintain some trust. As important is the desire to act honestly, fairly, and without breaking the law. Salespeople must deal with a variety of moral dilemmas, such as bribery, deceit, the hard sell, and reciprocal purchasing. Most businesses follow a preset set of moral rules.

The moral beliefs and principles that direct a person or group's behaviour are known as ethics. They include principles of what is appropriate and inappropriate behaviour. The moral ideas and ideals that direct a company's behaviour are known as business ethics. Business ethics used to be mostly compliance-based, legally mandated rules and training that explicitly stated what workers could and could not do on things like conflicts of interest or unethical use of corporate resources. A growing number of businesses are now developing ethical programmes based on ideals that are congruent with their worldwide operations. The goal is to provide staff members a thorough awareness of ethical concerns that will aid them in making the right choices when confronted with novel ethical dilemmas and scenarios.

The moral tenets and ideals that govern conduct in the selling and sales management professions are known as selling ethics. Avoiding bribery, lying, the hard sale, reciprocal purchasing, using promotional inducements to the retail trade, slotting allowances, and

pyramid selling are only a few of the topics covered by selling ethics. The company culture has an impact on ethical selling. Organizational culture is a collection of common values and names that influence how members behave in making choices and solving issues. It has been shown that cultures that reward ethical behaviour have a favourable impact on salespeople's ethical ideals. Moreover, fostering an ethical environment makes salespeople more dedicated to providing excellent client value. The goal is to establish an ethical environment inside the sales organisation that, for instance, rejects sales presentations that make false claims and support a culture of lying. Since higher-performing salesmen are more likely to consider leaving their organisation when the ethical atmosphere is weak, it is crucial to foster one. Sales professionals need to understand the difference between ethical and legal selling tactics. Laws are the rules and principles of society that are upheld by the courts, while ethics is concerned with personal moral beliefs and values. A dishonest conduct could be entirely lawful. For instance, using genetically modified components in items sold at supermarkets is not prohibited. Yet, other organisations, like Greenpeace, think it is immoral to market GM goods without conclusive evidence of their negative effects on health. Several grocery companies have removed GM ingredients from their own-brand items due to these concerns.

The cultural values and social conventions of society are reflected in ethical principles. What should be done in a certain scenario is dictated by norms. For instance, telling the truth is valued highly. Selling behaviour may be influenced by this cultural norm. Deceptive, dishonest selling should be avoided since it is desirable to be truthful. Although immoral behaviour is often evident, sometimes it is difficult to determine what is morally right or wrong, which may create ethical conundrums. They often result from the tension between the goal to maximise earnings and the desire to make morally sound judgements. For instance, many businesses hire foreign subcontractors where labour is less expensive to reduce manufacturing expenses. Because to the low pay, unfavourable working conditions, and usage of underage labour, this has given rise to claims of unethical behaviour. Nike and Reebok are two companies that monitor the manufacture of sporting products abroad to look into working conditions and make sure no child labour is being utilised. This is done in an effort to resolve such problems.

Compared to other workforce categories, salespeople encounter a larger number of moral challenges. Secondly, there is a lot of pressure on salesmen to make deals, and this pressure leads to ethical problems. Second, if a salesman is successful, sales managers may be ready to overlook ethical failings. Finally, as salespeople serve as the intermediary between buying and selling businesses, ethical disputes are always going to develop when the salesman deals with conflicts between the objectives of the two organisations. Fourth, salesmen often engage in discussions that may promote deceit or exaggeration. Third, since salespeople often work alone, the influence of the company's ethical standards is diminished by the distance between salesperson and supervisor.

Research have indicated that salesforce culture, the usage of salary-based rather than commission-based payment schemes, sales managers serving as ethical role models, job stability, and the assessment of prospective salespeople prior to recruiting them are all connected with ethical actions. We will now go through a variety of important ethical concerns related to selling and sales management, starting with bribery. Giving money, presents, or other inducements in order to secure a sale is what this is. Such behaviour is seen as immoral since it goes against the idea of fairness in business negotiations. One issue is that

in certain nations, paying bribes is required just to compete for business. Organizations must determine whether to sell in these nations. While taking an ethical stand could be challenging in the short run, the long-term benefits of the potential favourable exposure may outweigh the challenges. In order to gain favour for its pharmaceutical goods in China, GSK is said to have bought physicians and hospital administrators. This came after the US was fined £1.8 billion for medication fraud. 15 Moreover, Rolls-Royce was charged with employing bribery to market aircraft engines. As a result, it implemented a training programme to support its anti-bribery code of conduct. The UK's Bribery Act of 2010 established regulations that strictly prohibit actions like paying foreign nationals to benefit commerce. The measure also included a corporate failing to prevent bribery offence.

Deception

The desire to deceive the client in order to get an order is a challenge that many salesmen encounter. Exaggeration, lying, or omitting crucial facts might all constitute deceit and drastically reduce the attraction of the product. Training, sales management advocating ethical behaviours by their own words and behaviour, and creating codes of conduct for their salespeople should all be used to prevent this kind of behaviour. Nonetheless, sometimes news of sales fraud makes it to the media. For instance, in Britain, it was claimed that certain financial services salesmen exaggerated the predicted profits on pension schemes in order to mislead them. Millions of pounds in compensation were paid by the corporations to their customers as a consequence of the incident. After this, UK banks paid out over £12 billion as a result of the improper sale of payment protection insurance.

By allowing its salespeople to engage in dishonest sales tactics, the Prudential Insurance Corporation of America in the United States was forced to take a \$2.6 billion charge against profits to cover policyholder losses. Financial consultants got compensation from businesses for advocating their goods, which might lead to such mis-selling. The UK's Financial Services Authority has, however, outlawed this practise. To make such payments more transparent, advisers must bill their customers directly. By dispelling the idea that investing advice is free, the goal was to increase confidence and trust in the selling of financial goods like pensions and life insurance plans.

Another business that has come under fire for misrepresentation is Nestlé. It used saleswomen disguised as nurses to promote their baby formula in the underdeveloped nations throughout the 1970s and 1980s.

Notwithstanding the fact that the medical community regularly recommends that "breast feeding is best," this produced the impression among a susceptible target demographic that the product was supported by the medical community and constituted a healthy and desirable alternative to breastfeeding. Nestlé decided to abide with a guideline created by the World Health Organization that regulates the sale of breast milk substitutes after a significant boycott of its goods.

In the UK, merchants of carpet and furniture were charged for misleading clients by raising prices for brief periods of time to make them think they were getting a deal during promotions. Exaggerated discount claims became the subject of an Office of Fair Trade inquiry as a result. Customers were advised to question employees how many sales they made at the higher price as well as when and for how long the reference price was applied.

The Sleazy Pitch

Using high-pressure sales techniques to close a transaction is a complaint that is sometimes levelled against personal selling behaviour. Several vehicle dealerships have been charged with using similar pressure tactics to compel consumers to make fast judgements about a difficult purchase that can include pricey credit facilities. As the boxed case discussion illustrates, porcelain dinner sets have also been sold using the hard sell.

Reverse Shopping

When a client agrees to buy from a supplier only if that supplier also agrees to buy from the consumer, this is known as reciprocal purchasing. If the activity is unfair to other rival suppliers who would refuse to enter into such an agreement or who may not be in a position to purchase from the client, this may be seen as immoral. Reciprocal purchasing proponents contend that it is legitimate for a customer to negotiate the best terms of a contract with a supplier, even if doing so necessitates agreeing to sell to the supplier. Moreover, they claim that counter-trade, in which items may be included as a partial payment for supplies, has long been a component of international sales and may help developing nations and businesses who are unable to pay in cash.

Manufacturers want that shops highlight their goods rather than those of their rivals. As a result, they sometimes provide incentives to shops so that they would emphasise their goods more. As a result, the salesperson is likely to attempt to offer the brand of trainers that provides the customer the additional incentive when the customer requests to view trainers, for instance. Since that the buyer can end up purchasing a brand that doesn't best suit their wants, this might be seen as unethical.

Salespeople think that most customers have a solid concept of their requirements and the kind of product they desire, despite the fact that they acknowledge that this method has the potential to be abused. They assert that the strategy will be most successful in product categories where there are several, generally undifferentiated brands from various suppliers, giving the customer a variety of alternatives to suit their demands. A cheaper competitor brand may be neglected in favour of a costlier option, say critics, meaning that the consumer's interests are still not being protected.

Slotting compensation

A producer will pay a store a charge known as a "slotting allowance" in return for the merchant agreeing to stock the goods on its shelves. Slotting allowances are frequent in the supermarket sector because to the significance of acquiring distribution and the expanding power of retailers. As they stifle competition and favour big suppliers who can afford to pay them over small suppliers who could really be making better goods, they can be seen as immoral. Salespeople contend that they are only reacting to market realities and that retailers' buying policies, not the salesperson, who is sometimes unable to resist such demands, should be held accountable for retailers' need for payment for display space.

Pyramid schemes: Pyramid selling schemes are mostly used to make money by recruiting new members. People are persuaded to sign up by the assurance that they would be compensated for referring further members. If, "despite pretending to provide business possibilities, the main goal of the plan is to gain money by recruiting additional participants,

rather than dealing in products or services," the Department for Business, Innovation & Skills in the UK refers to such schemes as illegitimate and unlawful. Similar to other nations, this is seen as a "bogus" method of marketing. As the supply will always be limited, the saturation point is often reached rapidly and subsequent recruits have little opportunity of making up any lost money. This is the major issue with pyramid marketing. It needs an unending supply of new participants in order for everyone to profit[10], [11].

CONCLUSION

This chapter discusses faulty items, exclusion clauses, credit card usage, complicity amongst merchants, remote purchases, and ethical issues. Better public and corporate governance may be ensured in large part through the legal system. Even though there may be several laws, guidelines, and processes, any disagreements must finally be resolved by a judge or jury. The Act protects both products and services. Effective business practises set standards for moral behavior, risk management, and compliance, encouraging openness and responsibility inside organizations. By assuring legal compliance, settling conflicts, and supporting the rule of law, judicial oversight offers a system of checks and balances. A just and sustainable business ecosystem is facilitated by judicial monitoring and business procedures, which support ethical corporate conduct and offer legal channels for redress.

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CHAPTER 23

RESPONSIBILITY AND PREPARATION FOR SALES

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ABSTRACT:

The effective completion of a deal is a sales representative's main duty. This job includes determining the requirements of the consumer, gathering information, presenting the product, negotiating, dealing with objections, and completing the sale. Most sales executives additionally carry out a number of child duties in order to produce profitable sales. The primary responsibilities of salesmen, database management, and knowledge. This chapter covers self-management, handling complaints, providing a service, and relationship control. Successful sales efforts within organisations depend on responsibility and preparedness. The necessity of accepting responsibility for sales outcomes and the value of careful planning in achieving sales success are both explored in this abstract. It emphasises the function of sales representatives in comprehending client requirements, developing rapport, and providing value-added services. Taking responsibility for the sales process and results is part of being a responsible salesperson. Salespeople are responsible for exceeding customer expectations, establishing and maintaining strong client relationships, and hitting sales goals. Understanding market dynamics, the competitors, and the organization's product or service offers are all part of this role. Salespeople who assume responsibilities show commitment, integrity, and a customer-centric outlook.

KEYWORDS:

Client, Market, Sales, Salesperson, Selling.

INTRODUCTION

The effective completion of a sale is a salesperson's main duty. This duty includes determining the requirements of the client, making a presentation and giving a demonstration, negotiating, dealing with objections, and making the sale. Most salespeople additionally do a variety of ancillary tasks in order to effectively create sales. Although being referred regarded as secondary, they are essential for long-term sales success. Prospecting, database and information management, self-management, resolving complaints, offering service, and relationship management are some of them. Salespeople are also in charge of carrying out marketing and sales plans. The main duties of salespeople are shown in Figure 1.

Prospecting

Prospecting is the process of looking for and contacting potential consumers who have not yet made a purchase from the business. Not all selling branches place equal value on this activity. It is obviously much more crucial in commercial selling than it is in retail selling. For instance, a salesperson for office equipment may approach a lot of new potential clients, whereas a salesperson for furniture is unlikely to do so because customers already know about the store and may even visit because of its high-traffic location. Lead generation is the process of finding prospects. One issue with salespeople who have been with the same firm

for a long time is that they often depend on repeat business from existing clients rather than aggressively seeking out new clients. While calling on familiar contacts is often more comfortable for the salesperson, the nature of most industrial selling dictates that finding and selling to new clients is essential for ongoing sales development because of the lengthy product life[1]–[3].

Prospective Sources: To find prospects and so provide leads, a variety of sources may be leveraged.

Current clients: Despite being a very efficient means of producing leads, many people tend to underutilize it. Just asking happy customers whether they know of anybody who may have a need for the sorts of goods or services being supplied can yield a multitude of new opportunities. This method has applicability in several other fields and has been effectively employed in the life insurance and commercial marketing industries. After the salesperson has the names of possible clients, he or she may, if it is acceptable, ask the client whether they may use the client's name as a reference. As reference selling lessens the perceived risk for a prospective consumer, it may be quite effective in industrial marketing.

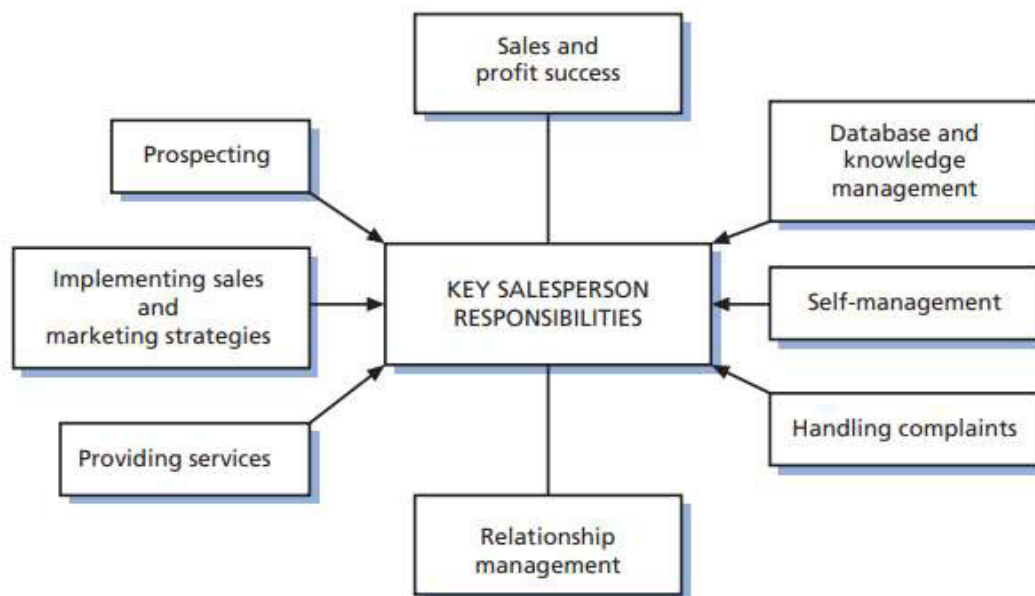


Figure 1: Outlines the main duties of salespeople.

Business Directories: Finding prospective industrial buyers might be facilitated by consulting a trustworthy trade directory like Kompass or Dun & Bradstreet. For instance, the Kompass directory is arranged by region and industry and offers such potentially helpful information as: name, address, and phone number of enterprises; names of board members; size of company, by turnover, and number of workers; kind of goods made or supplied. The Retail Directory offers data about prospective clients for trade sales, organised by different kinds of retail outlets. So, a salesman offering a product fit for newsagents and confectioneries may utilise the CTN heading listing of such merchants to find the appropriate names, locations, and phone numbers, as well as a sense of scale from the information provided about the number of branches[4]–[6].

Enquiries: Questions could come up naturally as a result of doing business. Via word-of-mouth, happy consumers may generate inquiries from "warm" prospects. Nonetheless, many

businesses use advertising, direct mail, and exhibits to encourage inquiries. The salesman should act quickly to reply to this important source of prospects. If there is a delay, the inquirer could have an urgent need for a solution and turn to the competition. Even if the customer's issue is not urgent, a sluggish response may encourage negative opinions against the salesperson and the goods offered by their business. Eliminating inquiries that are unlikely to result in a sale is the next goal. A telephone call offers the benefit of providing a personalised answer while yet being reasonably inexpensive and time-efficient. It may be used to determine the seriousness of the inquiry and to set up a personal visit if it turns out to have merit. Qualifying is the process of evaluating someone's qualifications in order to determine their potential. The internet may be valuable for prospective company clients in terms of customer qualification. To check on the prospect's financial resources, for instance, one may utilise internet financial rating agencies. Salespeople may also review the prospect's blogs and company website.

The Internet and Press: The press, although somewhat underutilised as a source of opportunities, is nonetheless significant. Advertisements and publications may include hints about prospective new business opportunities. In articles, diversification strategies may be discussed, which might suddenly make a corporation a viable client. Personnel postings may disclose growth ambitions, again pointing to possible new business. A huge resource for finding new prospective consumers is the internet. For instance, salespeople may utilise computerised product directories to find businesses that engage in certain processes and may need particular goods or services. Online databases may also be utilised to acquire thorough information on certain sectors as well as details on market trends.

1 Cold calling or canvassing. Both expressions are interchangeable and suggest contacting on possible new clients "cold," that is, without previous arrangement or even a scheduled appointment. Although though it is often utilised in various kinds of selling, such as "door-to-door" or "telephone selling," it may be a tedious strategy for making sales. In reality, only a tiny percentage of people can handle the pressures, strains, and difficulties of cold calling, making them very unique and important sorts of salesmen. Cold calling may be so stressful, in fact, that someone reportedly said it was "God's punishment" for the salesman. The primary challenge with cold calling is the customer's possible response or lack thereof[7], [8].

DISCUSSION

Cold-calling refers to addressing potential clients who, at the very least, have never heard of the business, its goods, or the salesperson. They may also have no reason to be interested in or in need of the product or service in question. Think about how tough it would be to attempt to sell in this circumstance. The consumer can also strongly object to being solicited without their consent or previous notification. This is especially true when clients are contacted at their convenience and/or in their homes, as is common with cold calling for consumer products. Yet, even business buyers, who undoubtedly have incredibly busy schedules and, let's face it, are flooded with cold calls from organisations trying to sell them anything, may vehemently dislike the practise.

In truth, there are significant potential ethical and legal difficulties with various forms of cold calling, particularly when the prospective consumer is approached through the phone or the internet. As a result, any marketer planning to utilise these means of contact for cold calling must be aware of and mindful to abide by all applicable laws, regulations, and industry

standards. It is clearly more harder for the salesman to start the selling process, much alone make a deal, when the buyer is resentful and maybe angry at being cold phoned. However, even if the consumer does not object to being contacted in this fashion, they may simply not require the product or service under any circumstances due to the seller's lack of pre-qualification of the customer's needs, desires, and circumstances. So it makes sense why cold calling is so unpleasant and possibly useless since the salesman who does it meets rejection, or often reprimand, far more often. As was previously said, it requires a very certain personality type to handle the pressure of cold calling. In particular, cold calling requires a salesman to be exceptionally self-motivated and ready to handle high percentages of rejection. Contrary to common belief, however, aggression or pushiness are not necessary traits. If anything, the risk of animosity and rejection from customers is increased by these characteristics in cold-calling salespeople[9], [10].

A business has the opportunity to grow its consumer base via cold phoning. Companies would find it considerably harder to expand if they just targeted their sales efforts towards current clients. Also, cold calling shows a company's proactive attitude to its markets. On the theory that someone will ask for something if they want it, some people contend that the marketer should wait for the consumer to approach the business before attempting to sell to them. We all know, however, that this is not always the case since shoppers often expect marketers to provide them answers to their shopping-related issues. The difficulty of cold calling, at least for some salespeople, is what keeps them motivated, particularly when they are appropriately rewarded for success.

In conclusion, it would be erroneous to discount cold calling as a strategy for increasing sales. Cold calling activity does, however, need proper planning and management. The following are a few strategies for improving the effectiveness of cold calling: Make cold calling to customers as unobtrusive as you can. For instance, avoid making a cold call when the client is likely to be busy or when it would be difficult for them. In keeping with the aforementioned, avoid cold phoning domestic consumers extremely early in the morning or very late at night. Always be considerate of the customer's privacy and their desire not to be harassed. Never attempt to intimidate a consumer into interacting with you or visiting you.

Instead of attempting to get an order right away, use cold contacting to set up a future appointment or to get permission to provide further information. A letter outlining the seller's line of work, followed by a call to set up an appointment, is far more likely to be welcomed by the business client in particular. Learn as much as you can about the potential client so that you can arrange your cold call strategy and content accordingly. When information is utilised to identify clients who are more likely to purchase due to some trait or characteristic that can be determined in advance, the efficacy of cold canvassing may be increased in particular. For instance, we may choose just businesses that are above a specific size, or perhaps people that fall into a given salary range or lifestyle category. This last idea creating customer databases and learning as much as you can about customers is plainly relevant to all kinds of prospecting. Nevertheless, it also applies to repeat-call salesmen, so let's focus on that today.

Administration of Databases and Knowledge

Databases and client information are crucial for more than simply prospecting. All repeat-call salespeople should be advised to maintain client records in a methodical manner. The following details should be noted by an industrial salesperson: Name and location of the

business; title and function of contact; kind of business; date and time of interview; potential; needs, issues, and purchasing patterns of the customer; dates of prior sales; issues or opportunities encountered; and subsequent actions on the part of the salesperson.

Due to the almost common usage of computers, salespeople are now able to capture important information and preserve it for later use. Customer database systems provide salespeople the chance to extensively study consumers and create sales presentations based on their unique requirements and preferences. Also, information that is pertinent to the promotion of the company's goods should be encouraged from salespeople to return to the corporate office. Information that may be helpful to management includes test-market activity by competitors, news of impending product launches, rumours of policy changes by trade and industrial customers and competitors, and feedback on company success with regard to product performance, delivery, and after-sales service.

Self-Management

Because that a salesman often works alone with little direct supervision, this component of the job is particularly crucial. A salesperson may be required to set up their own call schedule, which entails segmenting the territory into daily coverage areas and choosing the optimum path to take in between calls. Frequently, it makes appropriate to split a territory into sections that radiate outward from the residence of the salesman. Each section is sized such that a salesman may complete it in a single day's work.

Many salesmen think that travelling to the furthest client and then zigzagging back to home base is the most effective routing strategy. It can be shown, nevertheless, that using a round-trip strategy will often result in lesser mileage. Such factors are crucial for efficiency, since an alarming amount of time might be wasted travelling rather than speaking with customers directly. According to a poll on UK selling practises performed for the Chartered Institute of Marketing⁴, about 20 to 30 percent of a salesperson's typical working day is spent directly interacting with consumers. Even though this research was done more than 30 years ago, nothing has changed since then. Since salespeople are increasingly being asked to do auxiliary tasks like customer surveys, support work, and merchandising, this number is really closer to 20% than 30%. Several businesses prepare daily spreadsheets outlining who has to be called on and in what sequence, taking this burden off the salesperson's plate.

Choosing the call frequency is another aspect, which may fall within the salesperson's purview. It makes sense to rank clients based on their potential. For instance, salespeople for consumer durables could assign A, B, and C grades to the retail stores they are selling to. Grade A outlets may be visited once every two weeks, grade B outlets once a month, and grade C outlets once every three months. This is covered in more depth later under "sales journey cycle" concerns. Nonetheless, the idea is universal and may be used either at the salesperson's discretion or centrally as a function of sales management. The risk of giving salespeople control over decision-making is that rather than sales potential, "friendliness with the customer" or "easy of sale" variables are used to determine the number of visits. The best individual to determine how much time should be spent with each client, however, may be said to be a responsible salesman.

Addressing grievances

First impressions of complaints handling may lead a salesperson to believe that it is a time-consuming job that takes them away from their main goal of making sales. Nonetheless, an organization's objective must be to satisfy customers in order to make a profit, according to a marketing orientation for a salesforce. This essential need for long-term survival is obviously not being addressed when discontent manifests as a complaint.

The gravity of complaints and the level of power the salesperson has to handle them varies. Regardless of how unimportant the complaint may appear, the complainant should be respected and the situation should be taken seriously. In a way, handling complaints is a part of the after-sale services that suppliers provide. As a result, even if its primary goal is to reduce its requirement, it varies in essence from the other advantages a firm provides to its clients. Nonetheless, the capacity of the salesman to identify with the client and respond sympathetically to their issue may generate a great deal of goodwill and support the development of long-term connections.

In light of this, many businesses give the customer the benefit of the doubt when doing so does not come at a high cost, even though they suspect that the fault may be caused by improper use of the product by the customer. For instance, garden fork manufacturers may replace forks that break too soon, even though the break may have been brought on by work for which the fork was not intended. It is the salesperson's responsibility to provide the necessary information in writing to head office so that the matter may be further pursued when they lack the power to address the complaint right away.

Offering a Service

Salespeople are in a great position to provide their clients "consultancy" services. They learn how to solve common issues since they interact with so many consumers each year. Hence, a salesman for an industrial company could be able to provide consumers advice on increasing production or reducing expenses. In fact, the service component of industrial selling is sometimes included into the actual selling process. For instance, computer salesmen may offer to analyse client needs and generate a written report in order to close a deal. A salesman who is knowledgeable about solutions to frequent issues and gives their clients sound advice creates a strong defence against competition assaults and improves buyer-seller relationships.

Trade selling is another service that salesmen provide. For wholesalers and retailers, they could be asked to put up in-store displays and other kinds of promotions. Several businesses hire someone to undertake this work full-time. These individuals are known as merchandisers, and because to their work, conventional salesmen are able to spend more time really selling. Customer service is also provided by retail salespeople. Selling audio equipment, for instance, gives you the chance to assist the client in selecting the best option given their budget. A UK-based network of audio retailers called Richer Sounds takes great satisfaction in its top-notch customer support.

Customers may also need the services of salespeople for post-sale support. Sales engineers could be asked for guidance on how to use a recently purchased equipment or help in the case of a failure. They may be able to fix the issue themselves sometimes, but other times they may need the help of technical experts.

Relationship control

Relationship management is another crucial duty of salespeople. Yet, in today's complicated selling environment, there is another set of connections that a salesperson has to be proficient in: those with other individuals inside their organisation who are essential to ensuring a smooth sales process and effective product delivery and service. A squad of players does selling, especially with significant clients. Important account managers must be able to handle these interactions among the people in their organisations as well as between them and the customers' decision-making team[11], [12].

CONCLUSION

The duties of salespeople to generate sales, find new clients, keep track of past clients' feedback, manage their workload, respond to customer concerns, and offer service have been covered in this chapter. Preparation is thoroughly discussed as a key factor in managing their task. There is a contrast between pure selling, in which the salesman is not allowed any room to barter, and sales talks, when some level of negotiating may occur. In summary, accountability and planning are essential components of establishing sales effectiveness. Accepting accountability for sales results shows dedication and customer focus. Sales people who have done their homework are better equipped to engage consumers, meet their needs, and offer value-added solutions. Sales professionals improve their performance, develop solid client connections, and contribute to the organization's overall sales success by accepting responsibility and investing in rigorous preparation.

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CHAPTER 24

A STUDY ON NEED OF SALES PRINCIPLES FOR MARKETING

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ABSTRACT:

Principles of marketing, often known as marketing principles, are accepted marketing concepts that businesses utilise to create successful marketing strategies. We base our strategy for promoting products on these guiding ideas. To effectively promote either products or services, we may employ marketing concepts. Knowing the benefits of the products, comprehending the benefits of the products of competitors, planning a sales presentation defining the sales process and objectives. Understanding customer behaviour, a power balance analysis, in this chapter, the objectives of the negotiation and an analysis of concessions are covered. Sales principles are essential in the realm of marketing because they help businesses connect with customers, make sales, and expand their operations. The importance of implementing sales principles into marketing strategies is examined in this abstract, which also discusses the main advantages and factors that organisations should take into account while doing so. Sales principles offer a methodical way to interact with customers and promote sales conversions. Organisations can improve their sales processes, better understand consumer needs, and provide value-added products that appeal to target groups by adopting these ideas into their marketing strategies. By using sales principles, marketers can strengthen customer relationships, improve sales funnels, and increase revenue creation.

KEYWORDS:

Company, Customer, Management, Market, Sales.

INTRODUCTION

The sales force is in responsible of carrying out the marketing and sales plans created by management. Misunderstandings in strategy have serious ramifications. A salesforce that is too ready to provide substantial price cuts, for instance, might severely erode the credibility of a premium pricing and high-quality position in the marketplace. The answer may lie in management decision-making on discount structure depending on the price sensitivity of specific market segments. The sales team would then be informed on the amount of price concessions available for each category of customers. In this approach, the positioning plan for the product would be maintained while yet giving the salesforce some leeway to provide discounts as needed. Gaining or losing new clients depends on the implementation process being successful. The distraction is a useful strategy for getting a client while up against established rivals. The goal is to divert a competitor's attention away from other accounts and onto one account's defence. The boxed case history is a real description of how a salesman for a computer business misled a stubborn competitor to protect one account while pursuing another[1], [2].

The stakes and expenses were substantial in this instance. The management at A thought that the expense of loaning a \$1 million computer system to the bank was justified by a strategically significant penetration of a large market and by the possibility of profit from selling to the insurance company. This was a management choice that clearly depended on judgement, but the story demonstrates the idea of employing "diversion" to gain important customers. The process: As salespeople must adapt their sales presentations to meet the unique wants and issues of their individual clients and act swiftly in the face of odd objections and difficult questions, the ability to think rapidly is very advantageous. The selling work may, however, benefit greatly from thorough preparation. Customers with identical issues may sometimes voice the same concerns and complaints. A salesman may consequently benefit from devoting time to strategizing the best way to handle these recurrent circumstances.

In this part, consideration will be given to planning not just for the selling work, in which the salesperson has little to no opportunity to haggle with the customer, but also for situations in which selling may include some discussion between the buyer and seller. Price, delivery date, product extras, payment and credit conditions, and trade-in values are all up to negotiation in various selling circumstances. We'll call these sales discussions. In other cases, the salesman may not have the opportunity for such conversations; the product may instead be presented on a take-it-or-leave-it basis. As a result, the bicycle salesman who deals with dealers may have a predetermined price list and delivery timetable and be prohibited from changing them. We'll call this pure selling [3], [4].

Being ready for pure sales and sales discussions. To increase the likelihood of a successful sale, both in sales talks and pure selling, a variety of elements may be looked at. Products' advantages and knowledge. For sales success, product feature knowledge is inadequate. Successful salespeople link product characteristics to customer benefits because benefits are what motivate consumers to purchase things in the first place. Product features are also the mechanism by which benefits are obtained. This may be accomplished by considering items from the perspective of the consumer.

Salespeople will speak in ways that are relevant to customers and so be more persuasive if they analyse the things they are selling in this manner. The salesman may be asked to serve as a consultant or advisor in the context of industrial selling and be tasked with offering answers to issues. In certain instances, in order to properly comprehend the difficulties and provide the best solution, this may need a pretty in-depth knowledge of the nature of the customer's company. As a result, the salesman has to be aware of both the advantages of their items as well as the several scenarios in which each might be useful. Successful selling, for instance, in the computer industry requires understanding which system is best given the demands and resources of the client. In order to address this, the vendor may need to carefully examine client wants using a survey. In certain cases, a potential client will cover the expenses of the survey, which will then be deducted from the price of the equipment should an order be placed.

Making up bonuses for sales shouldn't lead to a rigid sales strategy. As every consumer has a unique set of wants, it follows that they expect various things from the items they purchase. One high-earning office equipment salesman credited his success to the planning he did before each sales appointment. By encouraging his wife to put him to the test every evening

and on the weekends, he was able to match the demands of the customer with the product's capabilities.

Understanding the advantages of rivals' goods

Knowing about items from other companies has various benefits: It enables a salesman to balance the benefits of those items which prospective customers could mention—against the drawbacks of those same things. A salesman can respond, "Yeah, but these cost reductions are modest compared to the fuel savings you obtain with our machine," when a customer complains that competitor X's product has lower maintenance costs. Sales engineers may collaborate with a purchasing organisation in industrial selling to address a technical issue. This may lead to the sales engineers having a say in the creation of a product specification. It is plainly to their advantage that the specification highlights their goods' advantages over those of the competition. So, understanding the advantages and disadvantages of the rival items would be helpful in this case. Pricing lists and sales catalogues, conversations with customers, and direct observation are all good sources of information about rival items. It makes logical to have this information on file for easy access. Vauxhall provides a brief to its salesmen that summarises the benefits and drawbacks of its automobile lineup as well as those of its rivals. A salesman may obtain the internet's wealth of competitive information by visiting a rival's website.

Arranging a sales presentation

While adaptability, flexibility, and the capacity to "think on one's feet" are valuable qualities, preparation for presentations has several benefits. The salesperson is less likely to overlook crucial customer advantages linked to each item in the range of products they are offering. To emphasise the value the salesman is delivering, visual aids and demonstrations may be planned into the presentation at the most opportune moment. It gives salespeople especially those who are younger and less experienced more assurance that they are well-equipped to carry out their duties effectively and competently[5].

DISCUSSION

It is possible to foresee such inquiries and objections and develop strong counterarguments. Many salesmen who seem to be naturally witty to outsiders have really worked hard to hone this talent by carefully planning ahead, seeing themselves as potential customers, and formulating potential arguments. Several pricing concerns, for instance, may be disproved by pointing out improved product quality, increased product longevity, high productivity, and reduced offsetting life-cycle expenses, such as cheaper maintenance, fuel, or human resource costs.

Specifying Sales Goals

When defining goals, the temptation is to frame them in terms of the salesperson's actions. Setting call goals that focus on what the salesperson wants the customer to accomplish rather than what the salesperson will do is a crucial sales skill. The goal of a visit to a customer by an adhesives salesman may be to show the new product's simplicity of use and adhesive qualities. Even while this demonstration could be an important and useful component of the sales presentation, it is not the visit's main objective. This might be to order a quantity for immediate usage or to have the consumer evaluate the product over a four-week period.

The kind of goals that are defined should be derived from and complement the overall firm marketing objectives from the previously stated marketing planning process. Sales goals should, wherever feasible, meet the SMART criteria for the objectives that were discussed as with all other goals. The following are some examples of potential goals for sales calls: for the customer to clearly define their requirements; for the customer to visit the production site; for the customer to try the product, such as by flying on an aeroplane; for the customer to compare the product to rival products in terms of measurably measurable performance criteria, such as the number of metres driven per hour for pile-driving equipment. The so-called sales cycle is a significant component that influences the determination of sales goals.

Sales Process

The time span between the first point of contact with a client and the actual order placement is referred to as the sales cycle. Regarding the stages involved in the sales cycle, it is important to remember that they should always be seen from the viewpoint of the client rather than from that of the seller, even if it is obvious that the former should influence the latter. The length of the sales process may vary greatly, as can the intricacy of the processes throughout the customer's purchasing process. So, the sales cycle is brief and includes a limited number of phases in many retail purchases, and in the event of an impulsive buy, for instance, it occurs nearly instantly. Unless a transaction is made during the first visit, the consumer will often make their purchase elsewhere. It seems sense to establish a sales closing target in this circumstance. The sales cycle is quite lengthy and the stages and procedures are extensive and precise, perhaps lasting years, with capital items like aeroplanes, gas turbines, and oil rigs. It is obviously improper to establish a sales aim in terms of completing the deal [6]–[8].

As a result, it goes without saying that sales goals, as well as sales plans and tactics, must be founded on a thorough knowledge of the sales cycle relevant to the specific product market and, where feasible, relevant to the specific client. The salesperson may guide the consumer through the purchasing process and assist them place an order by having a thorough understanding of the sales cycle. So, one of the salesperson's main responsibilities is to facilitate the customer's decision-making process so that they may proceed with the purchase more easily. So, the salesperson has to have an understanding of, for instance, how clients hunt for answers to their buying demands, what kind of information they want, and what are their key selection criteria. Also, the salesperson must be aware of the forces and variables that influence each step of the customer's decision-making process, such as who is involved and what variables tend to slow down the decision-making process and lengthen the sales cycle.

We should strive to shorten the sales cycle wherever practicable and suitable. Others claim that the sales cycle is 30% longer than it needs to be on average. There are several strategies to shorten the sales cycle, but they should all centre on making the customer's purchase decision easier. By lowering the perceived risk for the consumer, you may do this in a strong manner. The fear of making a poor choice slows down the purchasing process often, particularly when costly or long-term commitment items and services are involved. Reducing the perceived risk for the consumer in this scenario is a vital duty for the salesman, and there are numerous methods to achieve this. Giving a client the opportunity to try a thing out before buying it, for instance, may help lower perceived risk. Another method is to provide

guarantee and/or return policies that make it easier to return things if they aren't completely satisfactory. As a last illustration, let's not overlook the important role that positive business and brand image and reputation play in a variety of purchase scenarios. Effective sales planning thus requires knowledge of the sales cycle, but this information is actually just a small component of a larger process of understanding client purchasing behaviour.

Recognizing Consumer Behaviour

The purchasing officer may have a minimal influence in choosing which supplier to choose, especially with really costly commodities, since many organisational purchasing choices are complex and include several persons whose evaluation criteria may vary. These truths have the practical effect that industrial salespeople may need to make cautious preparations, either when selling to new businesses or when selling to current clients when the nature of the product is changing. In both scenarios, spending time figuring out who the major decision- and influence-makers are will be well worth it. Different crucial individuals may be present in various firms, such as secretaries, production engineers, design engineers, and managing directors. The salesman must be conscious of the need to approach each organisation uniquely.

The names and positions of each important decision-maker and influencer, the best times for interviews, the kinds of competing products the buying organisation has previously purchased, potential threats to a successful sale, and any unique opportunities presented by the circumstance are additional useful data that a salesperson can collect. Examples of the latter group would include personal biases held by influential individuals against the salesperson, their business, or their goods, whilst examples of the former category would be favourable experiences with other product categories offered by the salesperson's firm.

The purchasing organisation may be seen online in great detail. Blogs, online product catalogues, and the buyer's website are all good places to get information. Salespeople may access client information maintained by their organisation online thanks to customer relationship management systems. The telecoms company Orange, for instance, allows its field salespeople to access its CRM databases using tablets. Social media platforms like Facebook and LinkedIn may be utilised to learn more about potential and current clients' backgrounds.

Getting ready for the Sales Discussions

A sales negotiator will gain by focusing on the following variables during preparation in addition to the ones mentioned in the previous section.

Evaluation of the Power Balance

Both the seller and the buyer will be hoping to come to a favourable agreement throughout the sales discussion. The strength of each party's negotiation position and the distribution of power between the parties will determine how successful each is. Four major elements will affect this balance: The number of alternatives each side has. A seller is in a strong position if a customer only has the choice of making a purchase from them. If the seller is independent of the buyer and has a large pool of desirable prospective buyers for the goods, they are also in a strong position. In contrast, a buyer should be able to negotiate a favourable price when a seller has few possible customers and numerous potential sources of supply. In an effort to

improve their negotiating position, many buyers may purposefully get in touch with many possible providers.

The amount and quality of information that each party is in possession of. A buyer is in a strong position to negotiate a lower price or at the very least to avoid paying an excessive price if they have access to the cost structure of the seller. A seller's position of power is enhanced if they are aware of the buyer's price range. The more the salesman understands the demands of the customer and is able to provide those needs, the more leverage they have in negotiations. In certain instances of industrial marketing, suppliers collaborate with purchasing organisations to address technical issues in the knowledge that doing so would give them a highly advantageous negotiation position. The buyer's negotiation position will be weaker the more they think that one firm can meet all of their wants. By specifically meeting these criteria, the vendor effectively has less alternatives for the customer. Any supplier who can address a technical issue that is crucial to a purchasing organisation, has high visibility, and is challenging to resolve will have a significant advantage in negotiations. On the other side, if the salesman is under pressure, say as a result of poor sales returns, a buyer should be able to get very favourable conditions during negotiations in exchange for doing business with them.

These factors that determine the balance of power have the consequence that salesmen will benefit by evaluating the relative strength of their power base prior to negotiations. This suggests that they need knowledge. An accurate assessment of the power balance should be possible if the seller is aware of the number of companies vying for the order, their likely positions, the criteria the buying organisation will use to choose between them, the level of pressure on the DMU's key players, and any formula they may use to determine price acceptability.

This procedure ought to reduce the likelihood of setting prices too low or unnecessarily making other compromises, such offering favourable payment conditions. At this point, wise negotiators will consider the future to evaluate potential shifts in the power dynamic. While the supplier may now have the upper hand, abusing that position or "negotiating too sweet a bargain" might lead to retaliation if the customer has other suppliers to choose from.

Establishing the Negotiation's Goals

It is good for negotiators to establish goals during the planning phase. This lessens the possibility of being influenced by the intensity of the negotiation and of accepting a bargain that, in retrospect, should have been refused. This practise is comparable to auction purchasers overspending because they allow themselves to get carried away by the bidding. Discussion of the goals aids in cooperation and teamwork while negotiating as a group. It is helpful to think about two categories of objectives: One "must have" goal. The "must have" goals specify a bargainer's minimal demands, such as the lowest price at which a seller would engage in trade. This prevents the negotiation from breaking down. "Would like" goals. These are the greatest results a negotiator may fairly hope to achieve; for instance, the highest price a seller believes they can receive in a reasonable amount of time. The starting positions of buyers and sellers are established by this.

It is helpful to take into account the Best Alternative to a Negotiated Agreement when deciding on "must have" goals. This entails deciding on a backup plan in case an agreement

cannot be achieved. It establishes a benchmark against which all offers may be evaluated and protects against agreeing to unfavourable conditions under duress from a more potent bidder. Higher "must have" goals may be established when there are appealing BATNAs available. For instance, someone trying to sell a property could decide that £90,000 is a "must have" goal. Nonetheless, it may become apparent that the property's rental value is equal to \$100,000 by taking into account their BATNA of renting it. This entails a \$10,000 increase in the "must have" goal. Its identification enables comparison with each potential proposal that arises with the BATNA throughout the actual negotiation process as well, enabling decision-makers to determine if a negotiated deal is preferable to the alternative.

The idea of a BATNA also motivates those without a viable alternative to develop one. For instance, the provider of services may improve their BATNA before engaging in compensation talks by looking for and accepting a favourable job offer elsewhere. A contract is conceivable in the negotiation situation because the greatest price the buyer is ready to pay and the lowest price the seller is willing to accept overlap. The final price will rely on the two sides' relative negotiation strengths and how much influence each has.

Analysis of concessions

As negotiation necessitates movement in order to reach an agreement, it is probable that at least one side will make concessions during the negotiating process. By analysing the kind of concessions that the opposing side could provide, preparation might help negotiators. The key to this study of potential concessions from the seller is to evaluate them from the perspective of the buyer. This may enable the identification of concessions that benefit the buyer much while costing the seller relatively little. Because of spare capacity, a seller, for instance, could be able to give far speedier delivery than is customary at very little cost; yet, if the buyer values this highly, the seller might be able to trade it in exchange for a timely payment arrangement. The following problem categories might be looked at during a concession analysis:

the product's specifications and optional extras; the price, such as the works price, the price at the buyer's factory gate, the installation price, and the in-service price; the payment, such as on despatch, on receipt, in working order, or credit terms; and the trade-in terms, such as for automobiles. Concession analysis seeks to prevent the buyer from receiving anything of value for free during negotiations. A skilled negotiator will make an effort to swap concession for concession in order to eventually find a resolution that is acceptable to both sides.

Proposal evaluation

Estimating the offers and requests the buyer is likely to make over the course of negotiation, as well as the seller's response to them, is another useful task during the preparation stage. When hasty judgements need to be taken in the heat of the negotiation, this is similar to anticipating objections in pure selling. It is also connected to the concession analysis since when a buyer submits a proposal, they are truly requesting a concession from the seller. A less demanding delivery schedule may be the concession the shrewd seller requests in exchange. The seller may anticipate the kind of counterproposals they want to make by predicting the types of proposals the buyer is likely to make. The "concession close" may be the best approach in certain circumstances[9], [10].

CONCLUSION

The following factors are crucial for preparation: Product knowledge and consumer benefits, familiarity with rivals' goods and their advantages, preparation for sales presentations, determination of sales and negotiating goals, comprehension of buyer behaviour, evaluation of the power dynamic, concession analysis, and proposal analysis.

Examines how to use this planning in the real selling environment as it relates to one's own selling abilities. For organisations looking to boost sales, cultivate solid client connections, and maximise revenue creation, the integration of sales principles into marketing strategy is crucial. Organisations can improve their sales performance and achieve sustainable business growth by integrating marketing initiatives with sales goals, taking a customer-centric approach, and optimising marketing tactics based on sales principles.

Organisations can use sales principles to close the gap between marketing and sales, leading to greater sales performance and general marketing success.

This can be done through collaboration, training, and an emphasis on data-driven optimisation.

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CHAPTER 25

A BRIEF DISCUSSION ON PERSONAL SALES ABILITIES

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ABSTRACT:

Personal selling is a face-to-face sales method where a salesman utilises their people abilities to convince a consumer to purchase a certain product. The salesman attempts to persuade the consumer that the product will only bring value by emphasising its different qualities. In this chapter, the determination of the problem and the need, as well as the speech and the exhibition, are covered. Personal sales skills are crucial for giving salespeople the ability to interact with consumers, establish bonds with them, and increase sales. The importance of enhancing one's own sales skills is examined in this abstract, along with how they affect both the success of sales and client pleasure. Personal sales talents are a collection of qualities, characteristics, and competences that enable salespeople to establish a personal connection with clients. Effective communication, attentive listening, empathy, adaptability, persuasion, product knowledge, and resilience are some of these skills. Sales professionals can build credibility, win client trust, and confidently go through the sales process by honing and utilising these skills. In personal sales, effective communication is a crucial ability. Salespeople must be able to persuasively and clearly communicate product features, benefits, and value propositions. By helping sales professionals to comprehend consumer wants, motivations, and concerns, active listening enhances communication. In order to establish trust and foster a pleasant customer experience, sales professionals must display true empathy for the problems and aspirations of their clients.

KEYWORDS:

Customer, Market, Product, Sale, Strategy.

INTRODUCTION

The fundamental tenet of the personal selling strategy used in this book is that selling should be a natural extension of the marketing idea. This suggests that identifying customer wants and assisting customers in making decisions by choosing from the available items those that best suit their demands are in the best interests of the salesperson and their firm for long-term survival. This sales attitude is consistent with Weitzl and the contingency framework, which contend that the sales interview provides a unique chance to tailor behaviour to the particular customer interactions that are experienced. When the salesperson adjusts their strategy to the particular circumstance, this is known as "adaptive selling," and it has been seen to be a developing method of managing sales interactions. Salespeople have the chance to develop distinctive sales presentations catered to specific clients and swiftly modify messaging in response to clients' responses. Research by Jaramillo et al., which shown that adaptive selling boosted salespeople's performance, supports its significance. This is not meant to minimise the value of interpersonal influence. It is very improbable that a product would consistently outperform its rivals in all areas of use, hence it is part of the salesperson's job to highlight the product's better features and advantages. But, the model for personal selling that

is favoured here is one in which the salesman fills both a need and a problem. In a world where the majority of sellers rely on repeat business and where a significant amount of selling is done with professional buyers, the idea of the salesman as a cunning, quick-witted confidence trickster is absurd[1]–[3].

Customer-oriented selling, according to Saxe and Weitz, is "the extent to which salespeople apply the marketing idea by attempting to assist their clients in making purchasing decisions that would meet customer demands." They defined customer-focused selling as:

1. The aim to assist clients in making wise buying choices.
2. Assisting clients in determining their requirements.
3. Providing goods that will meet such wants.
4. Accurately describing the items.
5. Steering clear of misleading or manipulative persuasion techniques.
6. Refraining from using high-pressure sales tactics.

Understanding and reading buyer emotions is a key component of customer-oriented selling. This entails being able to recognise, comprehend, and react to emotional cues presented via facial expressions. Salespeople who are able to read their clients' emotions might utilise that knowledge to their advantage when making a sale. For instance, if a salesperson notices that a customer is upset about how complicated some product features are, they can pause the product presentation and make an effort to put the customer at ease, perhaps by apologising for going into too much detail and encouraging the customer to ask questions. As a result, the salesperson may be able to modify the content and distribution methods to suit the emotional reactions of prospective customers.

Companies need to establish a corporate culture that prioritises understanding customers and adding value for them. They also need to use evaluation procedures that gauge how well customers are supported, how satisfied they are with their interactions with salespeople, and how much of an ethical attitude they have towards the salespeople they deal with. Employ sales managers that are eager to promote and uphold ethical standards and rules, as well as integrate ethics in sales training programmes. Sales managers serve as role models because, according to study, when salespeople believe that their supervisors are highly customer-focused and adaptable, they also become more like those traits. According to research, the following are linked to effective selling: having a deeper, more thorough understanding of customers; putting forth more effort; and having confidence in one's own abilities. asking questions; providing product information, making comparisons, and offering evidence to back claims; acknowledging the customer's viewpoint; agreeing with the customer's perceptions; supporting the customer; relieving tension.

Salespeople should keep these significant results in mind while conducting sales interviews. Moreover, they contend that sales training might boost sales performance by boosting trainees' self-confidence in their perceived capacity for excellence as much as by increasing abilities. Salespeople should be aware of the qualities that customers look for in a salesperson while honing their own selling techniques. The theoretical method outlined in this article has to be complemented with actual experience, just like with the development of other talents. Several businesses employ role-playing to provide novice salespeople the chance to hone their abilities in an environment where sales training may watch and offer behavioural corrections.

It is helpful to recognise the seven stages of the selling process, which are shown in Figure 1, in order to build personal selling abilities. These steps don't have to happen in the sequence shown. A trial closure may be undertaken at any time during the presentation if buyer interest is strong. Objections may be voiced during presentation or during negotiation. Moreover, negotiations could happen before, after, or even in the middle of a stage. According to Moncrief and Marshall, the phases of the developed selling process are assumed to be performed by the salesperson on a regular basis, but not necessarily during every sales call. Instead, they take place gradually across many different individuals inside the selling company, and not always in the same order[4], [5].

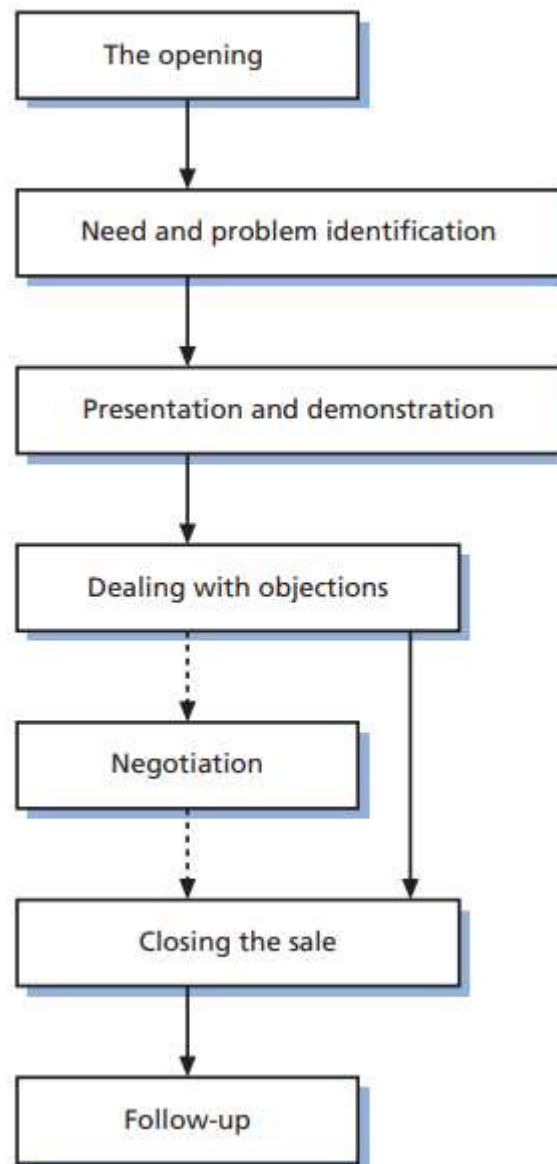


Figure 1: Demonstrates how to sell personally.

Systems selling is a common sales strategy in business-to-business markets. The approach shown in Figure 1 may seem to oversimplify actual practise since a successful sale may include several calls with numerous members of the purchasing organisation. Yet, by giving a

useful approach to convey many of the talents needed for a salesman, this framework helps to identify critical selling skills in a unified manner.

DISCUSSION

The start: It's crucial to think about how to elicit a positive first reaction since first impressions might skew subsequent judgements. Customers expect salesmen to conduct themselves professionally, both in terms of appearance and demeanour. Untidy hair and untidy attire might make someone feel unconfident. Also, the buyer may get irritated by the salesman if they disregard the reality that the customer is probably busy and has numerous demands made on their time[6], [7]. When approaching a potential customer who is unfamiliar with them, salespeople should shake hands, smile, and identify themselves as well as the business they work for. There should be common courtesy. For instance, they need should wait for the customer to signal that they may sit down or at the at least, inquire as to whether they may do so. The risk of an embarrassing moment when a briefcase is awkwardly shifted from right to left as the buyer extends their hand in welcome is eliminated by attention to detail, such as carrying one's bag in the left hand so that the right may be utilised for the handshake.

As they set the tone for the remainder of the sales interview, opening words are crucial. As this is the reason for the visit, they should typically be work-related and demonstrate to the customer that the salesman is not going to squander their time. The salesman will undoubtedly follow when the customer is well-known and shows a desire to discuss a wider societal issue via their own comments. This may help the salesperson build a strong connection with the customer, but they must be mindful of their objectives and refrain from becoming too sidetracked from doing business. opening statements might be:

Commercial Salesperson:Your window display is lovely. Has it gained more clients? a commercial salesman by the use of our stock control processes, we have assisted other businesses in the same line of work as yours in realising considerable savings. What techniques do you currently use to manage stock?I notice that you seem interested in our audio equipment, the salesman said.

Determination of the issue and the need

The majority of salesmen provide a variety of goods. A car salesman carries a wide variety of vehicles, from little budget automobiles to ultra-luxurious top-of-the-line vehicles. The computer salesman will have a variety of technologies to accommodate the requirements and financial capabilities of various clients. Customers may choose from models made by several manufacturers at a bicycle outlet. A drug salesman will be able to provide physicians with a variety of medications to treat different conditions. In each scenario, the seller's initial goal will be to identify the client's wants and difficulties. Before selling an automobile, a salesman must comprehend the customer's situation. What kind of automobile is necessary? Is the client seeking great performance or fuel efficiency? Is a hatchback or a boot preferred? What kind of pricing range is being taken into account? With this knowledge, the salesman may recommend the model that best meets the customer's requirements. Before recommending an acceptable computer system, a salesman for computers can first do an assessment of the customer's needs. Before providing logical recommendations on which model is most appropriate, a bicycle shop should enquire as to who the bicycle is for, what kind is wanted,

and the intended colour. A pharmaceutical salesman will talk to physicians about any issues that have come up during patient care; maybe an ointment hasn't worked or a negative side effect has been found. The salesman now has the chance to suggest a product from their business as a solution to these issues. This needs analysis technique recommends that the salesperson assume a question-and-listen posture early in the sales process. Salespeople often employ "open" inquiries as opposed to "closed" ones in order to urge the customer to communicate their requirements and issues. An open inquiry is one that calls for more information than can be provided in a single word or phrase, such as: "Why do you think a computer system is unsuitable for your business?"

1. What were the primary factors in purchasing the XYZ photocopier?
2. What aspects of the ABC ointment fell short of your expectations?

On the other hand, a closed inquiry only accepts answers that are one word or one sentence long. These may be used to get straight facts, but overuse can damage rapport and result in a discourse that is abrupt and lacks flow:

1. Can you please tell me what equipment you are now using?
2. "Does your business produce 1000cc marine engines?"
3. "What is your principal mechanical engineer's name?"

In reality, a sales interview may include asking a broad range of questions. thirteen different question categories, their goals, and examples. Salespeople should resist the urge to make a pitch without first learning about the demands of their clients. Without initially asking the consumer about their wants, it is all too simple to begin a sales presentation in the same inflexible manner, maybe by showcasing the current deal of the week.

Both The Speech and Display

The presentation comes naturally when the buyer's wants and challenges have been recognised. What should be presented first is the key question. The salesperson may now choose the product from their selection that best fits the needs of the client thanks to the information in the previous section. Second, the salesman is aware of the product advantages to emphasise after thoroughly discussing the customer's desires. Customers may benefit from a variety of features that come with a particular product, but different consumers may prioritise those features differently. In other words, the presentation gives the salesman the chance to persuade the customer that they can deliver the answer after identifying the wants and challenges of the buyer. Recognizing that customers buy benefits and are only interested in product characteristics to the extent that they give those benefits is essential to completing this assignment. examples of how specific product features and advantages relate to one another. Deriving the consumer advantages that their items confer should get special focus in training programmes and personal preparation for salespeople.

Advantages should be examined on two different levels: those that come with buying a certain kind of goods and those that come with buying that product from a specific supplier. For instance, salesmen for automated washing machines must take into account the advantages of an automatic washing machine over a twin-tub as well as the advantages of their brand's automatic washing machines over those of rival companies. This gives the salesperson the most freedom possible to handle varied sales scenarios. Due to the high level of technicality of many industrial goods and the propensity to deploy sales engineers rather

than salespeople, the risk of selling features rather than advantages is especially severe in the industrial selling context. After commissioning market research to identify the strengths and limitations of its sales and marketing operation, Perkins Diesels discovered this to be an issue with its sales staff, but it is by no means unique to this industry. No less guilty of this fault are hi-fi salesmen who frustrate and enrage clients with long explanations of the technological magic that goes into making their goods. In a sales presentation, it's easy to relate features and advantages by connecting them with the words "which implies that," "which results in," and "which allows you to."

An estate agent may claim, for instance, "The property is located four miles from the company where you work, which means that you can easily be at work within fifteen minutes of leaving home." The XYZ photocopier supports streamfeeding, which leads to speedier photocopying, an office salesman would claim. Lastly, a vehicle dealer may say, "This model comes with overdrive, allowing you to use less gas on highways." Salespeople should provide verifiable proof of the benefit claim whenever possible. This might include putting the goods on display or figuring out the cost to the consumer. Financial data that contrasts their offering with a rival's in terms of cost savings or increased revenue generation may be a potent instrument for supporting the value proposition that constitutes the benefit to the client.

The phrase "presentation" should not inspire a salesman to believe that they should speak exclusively throughout the presentation. The value of asking questions extends beyond the phase of identifying requirements and problems. Two purposes are served by asking questions during the lecture. The salesperson's comprehension of the sorts of advantages the customer is seeking is first verified. It is a good idea to follow up with the question, "Is this the type of thing you're searching for?" after outlining a benefit. Second, asking questions helps the salesperson know if the customer has absorbed what they have communicated. The buyer-unintelligible use of technical jargon is a significant barrier to comprehension. The salesman would be wise to halt sometimes during presentations that must be long and complicated and just ask if there are any questions. This allows the customer the chance to ask questions about anything that is unclear. The salesman may adjust the length and topic of their presentation to the situation by asking questions as they go along. The backgrounds, degrees of technical skill, and IQ of buyers vary. Asking questions enables the salesperson to communicate more successfully since it gives them the knowledge they need to adjust their sales pitch for various types of customers.

The presentation has benefited immensely from technological advancements. For instance, laptops make it possible to utilise internet resources like video content and to contact a sales office for a response during a presentation.¹⁸ Having access to corporate websites also makes it possible to carry a wealth of product information, including sound and animation. The buyer is at danger in many sales scenarios. No matter what advantages the salesman touts, the customer could be hesitant to switch from the current provider or model since doing so might result in unanticipated issues, such as uncertain delivery or an unreliable new model. As they would say that, wouldn't they, the salesperson's assurances are unlikely to be entirely convincing on their own. Risk is the covert cause of many sales failures. The salesperson properly ascertains the requirements of the client and connects the advantages of the product to those demands. The buyer shows little opposition, but for some reason chooses not to purchase. This is probably because the buyer plays it safe and sticks with the current provider

or model to reduce the possibility of annoyance should issues arise. So how does a salesman lower risk? There are four main approaches:

1. Mention selling;
2. Demonstrations;
3. Guarantees;
4. Order for trial.
5. Citation selling

With references from pleased customers, a salesman may persuade a potential client of the merits of their offering. During the planning phase, a list of pleased clients should be compiled and organised by product category. In order to inspire confidence, it is also advisable to save and utilise letters from happy clients in sales presentations. With the use of this strategy, a consumer may be persuaded that the product is the answer to their issue rather than just being interested in it.

Demonstrations

Chinese proverb: Explain to me and I'll forget, demonstrate to me and I may remember, and include me and I'll comprehend. Since demonstrations demonstrate the advantages of the product, they help lower risk. In order to convince training managers of the quality of their films, a large producer of sales training films arranges regional screenings of a selection. Manufacturers of industrial items will set up demonstrations to demonstrate the functionality of their products. Customers are welcome to take test drives from automobile salesmen.

The demonstration should be broken up into two parts for all but the simplest items. The product's advantages and characteristics are briefly described in the first stage, along with an explanation of how it operates. The demonstration itself is included in the second step. The salesman ought to handle this. This two-stage method was developed because it is sometimes quite difficult for people viewing a demonstration to comprehend the fundamentals of how a product operates while still witnessing it in action. This is due to the viewers' exposure to conflicting stimuli. The loudness of the equipment and the flashing lights may distract customers from the salesperson's speech.

The customers may be urged to operate the equipment themselves under the salesperson's supervision once it is operational. The demonstration may push the customers significantly closer to making a purchase if the appropriate equipment, tailored to the demands of the customers, has been selected for the presentation and functions dependably. Further concrete guidance on what must be seen as a crucial step in the personal selling process is given below. Without a demonstration, a salesperson is left without one of their main instruments for closing deals.

Pre-demonstration

Make the process as quick as you can, but not so quick that you can't achieve your sales goal of getting a purchase or opening the door for further talks. In essence, the issue is one of balancing since the salesman must assess each customer's unique situation and adjust the presentation appropriately. Some consumers could need longer or more complicated demos than others[8]. Keep things as easy as you can, keeping in mind that certain customers may not be as tech-savvy as others. Never "over-pitch" such a technicality since potential

customers would often act as if they understand rather than risk seeming foolish by feigning ignorance. After finishing the presentation, they'll undoubtedly come up with a reason to put off making a purchase. It is likely that they won't make a purchase. This topic is being emphasised on purpose since it is true that many prospective sales are lost as a result of highly technical demos.

Practice the response to potential concerns with coworkers. Determine how to respond to and overcome such concerns during the demonstration. The usage of interactive video is advantageous in this situation since you may practise a better demonstration and presentation while also reviewing your errors. Be aware of the benefits of the product and be ready to highlight them throughout the presentation. Yet, these selling elements must be articulated in terms of benefits to the client. So, it is necessary to determine customer behaviour in advance. It will be feasible to maximise the advantages that are euphemistically referred to as "you" or "u" benefits by doing this. If the demonstration has been sufficiently practised previously, it shouldn't go wrong. Nonetheless, equipment does malfunction sometimes, as do power sources. Be ready for such occurrences. The key is to avoid being taken off guard and to be ready to transition into a backup plan as easily as possible.

carrying out the demonstration

1. Start out by clearly stating what has to be done or proven.
2. Explain how prospective customers may take part in the demonstration procedure.
3. Make the presentation as fulfilling as exciting as you can.
4. Demonstrate to the prospective buyer how the characteristics of the product may meet their demands or resolve their issues.
5. Make an effort to convert these necessities into a desire to buy.
6. Remain with the customer until they express their entire satisfaction with the demonstration. Such fulfilment will lessen the intensity and frequency of any complaints that could surface after purchase and assist in justifying overall expense.
7. Reiterate the purchase advantages that were presented throughout the presentation as you summarise the important topics. Due to the fact that purchasing advantages are related to individual buying behaviour, we have stated them rather than sales benefits.
8. The goals of a demonstration should be to either allow the salesman to close a deal right away or open the door for further discussions.

Based on the aforementioned goal, you may ask for the order right away or you might set up a meeting, phone conversation, letter, extra presentation to other members of the decision-making unit, etc. for future communication. Multimedia product demonstrations of industrial goods at the buyer's workplace may be possible thanks to information technology. It's no longer required for customers to visit the supplier's location or to create spaces that may serve as video "show rooms" for salespeople who want to use projectors to showcase their products.

Positive aspects of Demonstrations

One helpful auxiliary in the selling process is demonstrations. By using more human senses than only verbal explanations or visual presentation, they make the sales process seem more realistic. While a prospective client is taking part in a presentation, it is simpler for the

salesperson to probe about their purchasing habits. As a result, the salesperson won't have to emphasise unsuitable buying motivations later on in the transaction.

By giving prospective customers such demonstrations, the salesman is able to highlight the advantages of the product. In other words, rather of focusing on a pre-planned sales routine, the salesperson may tie product advantages to the prospective buyer's purchasing behaviour and take a more creative approach. If customers can be convinced to participate in the demonstration process, their concerns are more likely to be overcome. As the demonstration procedure will render many possible objections moot, they may never ever be raised. Even if early concerns may be successfully dispelled, it is a truth that fewer objections can increase the likelihood that a sale will occur.

Customers benefit since it is simpler for them to pose more practical inquiries to determine the value of the product more precisely and promptly. Compared to face-to-face selling and buying scenarios, purchasers' purchase inhibitions are more easily overcome and they express their desire in buying sooner. As a result, the demonstration is a very effective sales tool. After taking part in a demonstration, there is reduced chance of "consumer regret." The buyer has really purchased the thing, as opposed to only being offered it, by participating in the presentation and implicitly accepting its outcomes [9], [10].

CONCLUSION

The technique of advertising and selling goods or services to consumers directly and personally is known as personal selling. Businesses are able to establish relationships with prospective clients and gain their trust via this face-to-face procedure. In this chapter, the determination of the problem and the need, as well as the speech and the exhibition, are covered. To sum up, personal sales skills are essential for sales professionals to succeed in their positions and boost sales. Building good customer connections and hitting sales targets involves effective communication, active listening, empathy, adaptation, persuasion, product expertise, and resilience. In order to empower sales professionals and promote overall sales excellence, organisations should give priority to the development of individual sales skills through training, support, and continuous skill enhancement activities.

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CHAPTER 26

NEGOTIATION STRATEGIES USED BY BUYERS

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ABSTRACT:

A predefined strategy or prepared action plan to accomplish a goal or aim in order to create a contract or agreement. Negotiation the Customer's Issues is a circumstance and mindset in consultative selling when the salesperson and the customer get down to come up with the best solution for both sides. Benefits must accrue to both parties, or someone loses. This chapter discusses the speech and the display, demonstrations, pre-demonstrations, and the benefits of demonstrations. Buyers' use of negotiation techniques during the procurement process is essential for them to obtain favourable terms, maximise value, and accomplish their purchasing goals. In order to navigate supplier relationships and improve the results of procurement, this abstract examines the significance of negotiation strategies used by buyers. Using effective negotiation techniques, purchasers can set favourable terms for pricing, delivery windows, contract conditions, and other concessions. Buyers use a variety of strategies to achieve their negotiation objectives, including in-depth market research, utilising industry expertise, and evaluating supplier capabilities and alternatives. These tactics give buyers the ability to increase supplier relationships, reduce risks, and create cost savings.

KEYWORDS:

Buyer, Customer, Market, Product, Sale.

INTRODUCTION

Guarantees of product dependability, post-sale assistance, and delivery backed by penalty clauses may increase consumer trust in the salesperson's promises and save expenses should anything go wrong. When supplied, the salesperson should not minimize their significance in the sales presentation since their establishment is a matter of business policy rather than their discretion. When confronted with a straight re-buy, salespeople should promote trial orders even if they can be unprofitable in terms of the firm and the salesperson's time in the near run. Customers who regularly buy items from the same provider may be aware that changing sources entails unjustified risk. A modest purchase that effectively allows the firm to show that it is capable of delivering consistently high-quality items on time may be the only way for a new supplier to break through this deadlock. Longer term, the confidence that has been established may result in a bigger percentage of the customer's business [1]–[3].

Addressing objections

Any worries or queries voiced by the customer are considered objections. Salespeople shouldn't always see objections with dismay, even when some objections are a sign of perplexity, scepticism, or disagreement with the claims or facts presented by the salesperson. Many complaints are only the buyer's indications of interest. The customer wants more information since they are curious about what the salesman is saying. The purchaser's lack of conviction is the issue. Objections draw attention to the problems that are significant to the

customer. Ford emphasises, for instance, that a customer's concerns are clues as to what is actually on their mind when educating salespeople.

These ideas will be shown through an example. This kind of complaint is unmistakably an indication that the speaker wants further information. It is the job of the salesman to present it in a way that is both persuasive and avoids offending the customer. People do not want to be proven incorrect, hence it is a truth of human nature that the argument that is backed by the larger weight of evidence does not always prevail. The sheer act of switching suppliers may be rejected since it suggests disapproval of a prior choice on the buyer's side. A salesman risks failure if they ignore the emotional components of handling objections. The scenario that has to be avoided is one in which customers dig in their heels out of principle due to the salesperson's demeanor[4], [5].

The internet may help in the development of strong responses to concerns. The salesperson may direct customers to the company's website, where they can find testimonials and frequently asked questions. Another option is to point prospective clients towards positive internet testimonials on unbiased sources. The odds of a successful transaction may increase as a result of this enhanced communication between buyers and sellers. The preparation of compelling responses and the creation of a variety of approaches for addressing concerns in a way that allows the acceptance of these answers without the buyer losing face constitute the successful strategy for dealing with objections. We'll go through a few strategies in this section to show how the second goal could be achieved.

Seasoned salespeople are aware that when a customer is interrupted mid-sentence, it gives the appearance that the salesman considers that the customer's complaint is minor, plainly incorrect, or not worth their time. Interruptions deprive the consumer of the respect they are due and may cause them to misinterpret the true nature of the objection. The proper course of action is to listen intently, politely, and with attention. The customer will value the salesman's careful consideration of the issue, and the salesperson will benefit from having a thorough awareness of the real nature of the issue.

Accept and Refute

This strategy maintains the salesperson's regard for the customer. Before presenting a different viewpoint, the salesperson first acknowledges that what the customer is saying is logical and sensible. As a result, it lessens the impact of the criticism and fosters consensus rather than disagreement. The agree and counter approach may be used in conjunction with the reference selling strategy to offer a powerful response to an objection.

The Unequivocal Denial

This tactic has to be used very carefully since there is a chance that it will lead to the precise type of conflict the salesman is trying to avoid. It may be utilised, however, if the customer is obviously looking for genuine information.

Challenge the Objection

There are instances when an argument is made that is so broad that it is difficult to refute. A consumer could, for instance, complain that the product is of poor quality or that they do not like the way it looks. In this case, the salesman should probe the objection's nature to provide light on the precise issue at hand. Another advantage of challenging complaints is that, in

attempting to clarify their precise nature, consumers may come to the realisation that they are really rather insignificant.

Avoid the Criticism

This approach allows the salesperson to raise the issue as part of their sales presentation in addition to anticipating it and planning a response. The two benefits of doing this are as follows. First, the salesman has control over when the objection is made. As a result, it may be organised such that it is brought up at the best possible moment for it to be resolved. Second, since the salesman brought it up, the customer was not put in a situation where they felt like they had to justify their concern.

The drawback of this approach is that the salesman can draw attention to a problem that the customer had not considered. It is most often used when a salesman encounters the same complaint being expressed again. Maybe the fact that the salesperson represents one of the tiniest businesses in the sector is a persistent complaint from customers. By saying something like, "My firm is smaller than others in the industry, which means we react more promptly to our clients' demands and try that little bit more to ensure our customers are pleased," the salesman may anticipate the argument.

Transform the Protest into A Verdict

When a salesman uses a trial close, they try to complete the deal without harming their prospects of persuading the customer to purchase later if they change their mind. Perfect timing and strong judgement are necessary for a salesman to convert an objection into a trial close. It is often used while the selling process is well under way and the salesperson determines that there is just one objection left. They could respond as follows in these circumstances: "Would you purchase it if I can convince you that the fuel consumption of this automobile is no higher than that of the Vauxhall Vectra? Salespeople should keep in mind that intense debates are unlikely to result in closing deals since people prefer to do business with friends rather than foes.

Occult Objections

Not every client expresses their objections. They may choose to keep quiet since raising an issue might be offensive or make the sales contact last longer. Some individuals could assume that the ideal strategy in a no-buy scenario is to maintain good relations with the salesman and to say at the conclusion of the interview that they will consider the proposition. Asking inquiries in an effort to determine the nature of concealed objections is the proper salesperson's answer. If a salesman thinks that a customer is concealing their real objections, they should inquire as follows:

1. Is there anything you've learned so far that you're not sure about?
2. Is there anything you want to talk about?
3. How much would it take to persuade you?

Finding buried objections is essential to effective selling since, in order to persuade someone, one must understand what it is that they must be persuaded of. This could be challenging, however, with consumers who are difficult to reach. As a final option, the salesperson may need to "second guess" the hesitant customer and offer a problem they think is to blame. They

may do this by posing a question like, "I don't think you're entirely persuaded about the greater performance of our product, are you? "

Conciliation

The salesperson or sales team may have some influence over the specifics of the transaction in certain circumstances. As a result, negotiation may take place throughout the sales process. Price, financing conditions, delivery dates, trade-in values, and other elements of the business transaction are all up to negotiation by the seller. The agreement that is reached will rely on the parties' relative positions of strength and negotiation prowess. The significance of preparation has previously been touched upon. It is important to evaluate the demands of the buyer, the supplier's competitors, and the buyer's business and the pressures it is under. Some standards are available, however, to help the salesmen who are really negotiating[6]–[8].

DISCUSSION

Aim high yet remain grounded: The opening stance should be high for a number of reasons. The buyer could first accept it. It also offers opportunity for bargaining. A buyer could start to assume concessions in exchange for a purchase from a seller. The auto industry is rife with this problem. It is uncommon for a vehicle salesman to leave the quoted price of a car unchanged for a buyer paying with cash. The buyer's reasonable expectations must serve as the limiting element when determining how high to go; otherwise, they may not be willing to speak with the seller in the first place.

Try to exchange one concession for another. It could sometimes be essential to make a concession in order to close the transaction. A buyer can offer to purchase if the seller lowers the price by £100. This can be okay if the seller has given you some wiggle space in your negotiations. Yet, in some situations, particularly where the seller has some influence because they can better satisfy the buyer's requirements than the competitors, they could be able to negotiate concessions from the buyer. Using the 'if' is an easy method to do this. This is a useful weapon the negotiator has since it encourages progress towards an agreement while making sure that offers to make a concession to the buyer are matched by offers to make a concession in return.

During the planning stage, it seems sense to weigh potential compromises against their costs and benefits to both the seller and the buyer. The costs of delivery to the seller in the aforementioned case might be much greater than the expenses of pickup to the customer. Overall, the idea has the result that the seller incurs relatively little expense while the buyer receives a benefit.

Use Behavioural Techniques

Graham summarises studies on negotiating effectiveness done by the Huthwaite Research Group. The researchers discovered a set of behavioural traits that are connected to successful negotiating by contrasting competent, effective negotiators with their ordinary counterparts. They are as follows: Ask a lot of inquiries; questions elicit information and reveal the buyer's emotions. Also, they create a sense of control, allow the buyer to reflect before responding, and provide an alternative to direct conflict.

Preserve clarity through checking for comprehension and summarising. Checking for comprehension is a strategy for determining whether or not a prior contribution has been

understood. Summarizing is a behaviour that condenses the information from earlier conversations. Let me check to see if I've got this correct would be an example of this coupled behaviour. You're stating that you would make an order with us right now if we could deliver next week, equal the pricing of the competitors, and provide a day's worth of free training.

Deliver emotions: According to popular belief, savvy negotiators do not maintain a poker face. They convey their emotions, which humanises them, fosters trust, and may serve as an alternative to providing precise information. Avoid counter-proposing, which is any suggestion made in response to one made by the other party without first showing that you have given that idea some thought. Counter-proposing often makes people uncomfortable. Why should the buyer pay attention to the seller's proposition if the seller is unwilling to give it the proper consideration?

Refrain from engaging in behaviours that are likely to irritate the other person by being self-congratulatory or condescending. Listen, young guy, I believe you're going to find this a really enticing and generous offer, but statements like that are more likely to irritate than to persuade. I'm in the best position to evaluate your offer, so don't be patronising, will be the reaction. Do not weaken your arguments: logically, the best method to win support for a proposition is to put up as many reasons as possible in its favour. The issue is that when points are advanced, they often start to lose strength. This enables the buyer to target the weaker ones, which focuses the conversation. Presenting a limited number of powerful arguments as opposed to a comprehensive list of both stronger and weaker points is the proper strategy. By doing this, the danger of the weak arguments weakening the impact of the strong ones is avoided.

Buskirk and Buskirk recommend an additional behavioural skill in addition to these ones: Avoid personalising the conversation; personalization in negotiations is never appropriate. Labeling someone's argument "stupid" is an insult. Negotiators shouldn't use phrases like "You're being silly" or "Your pricing is too low." Speech patterns should stop using personal pronouns. Say "That price is too cheap" instead. Also, buyers have a variety of negotiating strategies at their disposal. Sellers should be aware of them since they sometimes have disastrous effects. A variety of strategies are described by Kennedy, Benson, and Macmillan in order to undermine the position of the unwary sales negotiator.

First, the shotgun strategy has the buyer declaring, "Unless you quickly agree to a price drop of 20%, we'll have to go elsewhere for a supplier." This is kind of the 'if. . . then' trick used on the seller, but in this case, the repercussions are more severe. The conclusion of the evaluation of the power balance carried out during preparation determines the appropriate reaction. The seller may have to give up if the buyer does have a variety of choices that all provide the same kinds of advantages as the seller's offering. The salesman may be able to withstand the challenge if the seller's product has obvious benefits over the competitors.

The "sell cheap, the future looks bright" fallacy is a second trick used by buyers. It goes like this: "We can't pretend that our offer meets your price, but the real payoff for you will come in terms of future sales." This may be a genuine statement, as the seller's own goal may have been to establish a foothold in the buyer's industry. Other times, it's a ploy to get the vendor to provide the biggest price reduction. The seller should want precise information and solid promises if they believe their position to be relatively strong.

A last method is referred to as "Noah's Ark" since it has been used for so long! With one finger tapping on a file, the buyer replies, "You'll have to do much better on the pricing." Depending on how confident they are, the salesman may respond, "I have quotes from your rivals that are substantially cheaper." The salesman might presume the customer wants them to explain the price, take the initiative by asking to examine the quotes, or, if they are feeling confident from previous successes, remark, "Then I urge you to accept one of them."

Complete the deal: For sustained sales success, the skills and methods covered up until this point are insufficient. The capacity to close the deal serves as the last component in the recipe. Some salesmen think that a persuasive presentation should encourage the customer to request the goods on their own, negating the need for the salesperson to complete the sale. Although this does sometimes occur, it is normally required for the salesman to make the first move. This is due to the fact that, regardless of how successfully the salesman pinpoints the requirements of the customer, aligns the advantages of the product with those needs, and disarms objections, the customer is still likely to have some level of scepticism. This uncertainty could seem as a desire to put off making a choice. Wouldn't it be preferable to give the matter some thought? Does it not make sense to check out what XYZ, a rival, has to offer? The simple fact is, however, that delaying a purchase until another day increases the likelihood that the customer would choose a competitor instead. As the seller has the upper hand over the competitors while the seller is present, one of the salesperson's responsibility is to make an effort to clinch the transaction[9], [10].

What makes some salesmen hesitant to complete a transaction, then? The issue is that the majority of people dread rejection. The buyer is prompted to respond with a yes or no before the deal is closed. Sometimes the answer is no, and the salesman is turned down. Sales do not increase if the deal is not closed, but refusal is less obvious. Hence, the most crucial idea to comprehend is to not be frightened to shut. Understand that some customers may unavoidably react adversely, but be certain that more customers will purchase as a result than if no close was utilised.

Timing is an important aspect. As a general guideline, you should try to seal the transaction when the customer shows increased interest or a clear willingness to buy. So, salespeople should be alert for these purchasing signals and react appropriately. It is doubtful that purchase intentions would increase steadily during the sales presentation. As the presentation goes on, they will probably rise and fall more often. Many peaks and troughs represent the actual situation. I'll provide an example to show why this is the case. Purchase intentions are likely to increase significantly when a salesperson emphasises a major feature that precisely meets the customer's wants. The level may subsequently drop as a result of the customer's concern, or the consumer may start to have second thoughts about the validity of the product's promises. This results in a decrease in buy intentions, which is then followed by an increase once the salesperson gets over the objection or supports the claim.

The salesman ought to aim to close at a high, in principle. It might be challenging to know when to close in practise. During a sales interview, it's possible that the customer is acting uninterested, and many peaks should happen. Which peak ought to be the close's choice? Experience has a role to play in the solution. Sales professionals with experience may tell instinctively whether intentions are favourable enough for a close to be profitable. Also, if need and issue identification has been effectively done, the salesperson is aware that a general

rule of thumb for when to close is when they have matched all of the product advantages to the demands of the consumer; ideally, intents should be at their highest at that point.

Nevertheless, not all customers follow this hypothetical schedule, therefore the salesperson has to be ready to clinch deals even if the scheduled sales presentation isn't completed. The trial close procedure should be used. By asking for the order in this manner, the presentation may proceed with the fewest possible interruptions even if the time is off. Maybe the client will remark, "Yeah, that's exactly what I'm looking for," early in the presentation, to which the salesman would respond, "Excellent, when do you think you would want delivery?" Even if the client states that they are still deciding, the salesman has the option of carrying on with the presentation or asking a question, whichever is most suitable for the circumstances. There will come a point in the sales interview when the salesperson has covered all of the advantages of the product and addressed all of the customer's inquiries. It is clearly decision time; the customer is eager yet cautious. The salesman has a variety of closing strategies at their disposal [11], [12].

CONCLUSION

This chapter has examined the personal selling skills involved. The focus of this chapter has been on identifying the needs and issues of a potential customer and then presenting a good or service as a way to address those issues. After identifying the abilities required for effective selling, we will look at the part key account management plays in the selling process. In conclusion, buyers' negotiation tactics are crucial for securing favourable results in the procurement process. Buyers can get favourable terms, reduce risks, and develop lasting supplier relationships by thoroughly planning, working together, identifying goals, and communicating effectively. Buyers can negotiate more effectively by using strategies like investigating alternatives and making use of data-driven insights. Buyers can boost their organization's competitive edge by using these tactics to optimise procurement outcomes, drive cost savings, and increase savings.

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