GUIDELINES FOR ADAPTIVE SELLING BEHAVIORS:

THE REGULATORY FIT AND

RELATIONAL QUALITY APPROACHES

By

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DECLARATION

I declare that this submission is my own work and to the best of my knowledge it contains no material previously published or written by another person, nor any material previously submitted for an award of any other degree or diploma at DPU or any other educational institution, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the thesis. Also I declare that the intellectual content of this thesis is the result of my own work, except where attributed and acknowledged in the thesis.

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ABSTRACT

The importance of adaptive selling is widely recognized in the sales literature. However, previous research has primarily focused on the degree to which salespeople change their tactics through developed scales (i.e., SOCO and ADAPTS), leaving the appropriateness of adaptations to rigorous academic questioning and study. Bringing individual differences to the fore, this study examines closely how regulatory focus theory, a theory of motivation and self-regulatory orientation that has been rapidly gaining prominence in the field of psychology, can be drawn from to explain a variety of buyer decision making phenomena. In this way the study extends the application of regulatory focus theory to business-to-business (B2B) service industries. This work finds that the regulatory focus orientation of buyers plays an important role in moderating the relationships between selling behaviors and regulatory fit outcomes. To be more specific,

this study suggests that inspirational appeal, collaboration, and service-oriented selling orientations are more effective when used with promotion-focused buyers, while collaboration tactics are more effective with prevention-focused buyers. The competitor-oriented selling orientation tends to be a universally selling behavior as it is effectively influencing both regulatory foci. The findings establish and illustrate a usable guideline for tailoring sales influence tactics and selling orientations to different buyer's regulatory orientations in a theoretically prescribed manner. By doing so, the study and its guideline enable salespeople to positively influence the regulatory fit outcomes and buyer's perceptions of relational quality.

Keywords: adaptive selling behaviors, sales influence tactics, selling orientations, regulatory focus theory, regulatory fit, regulatory fit outcomes, and relational quality

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"Each thing I do I rush through so I can do something else."

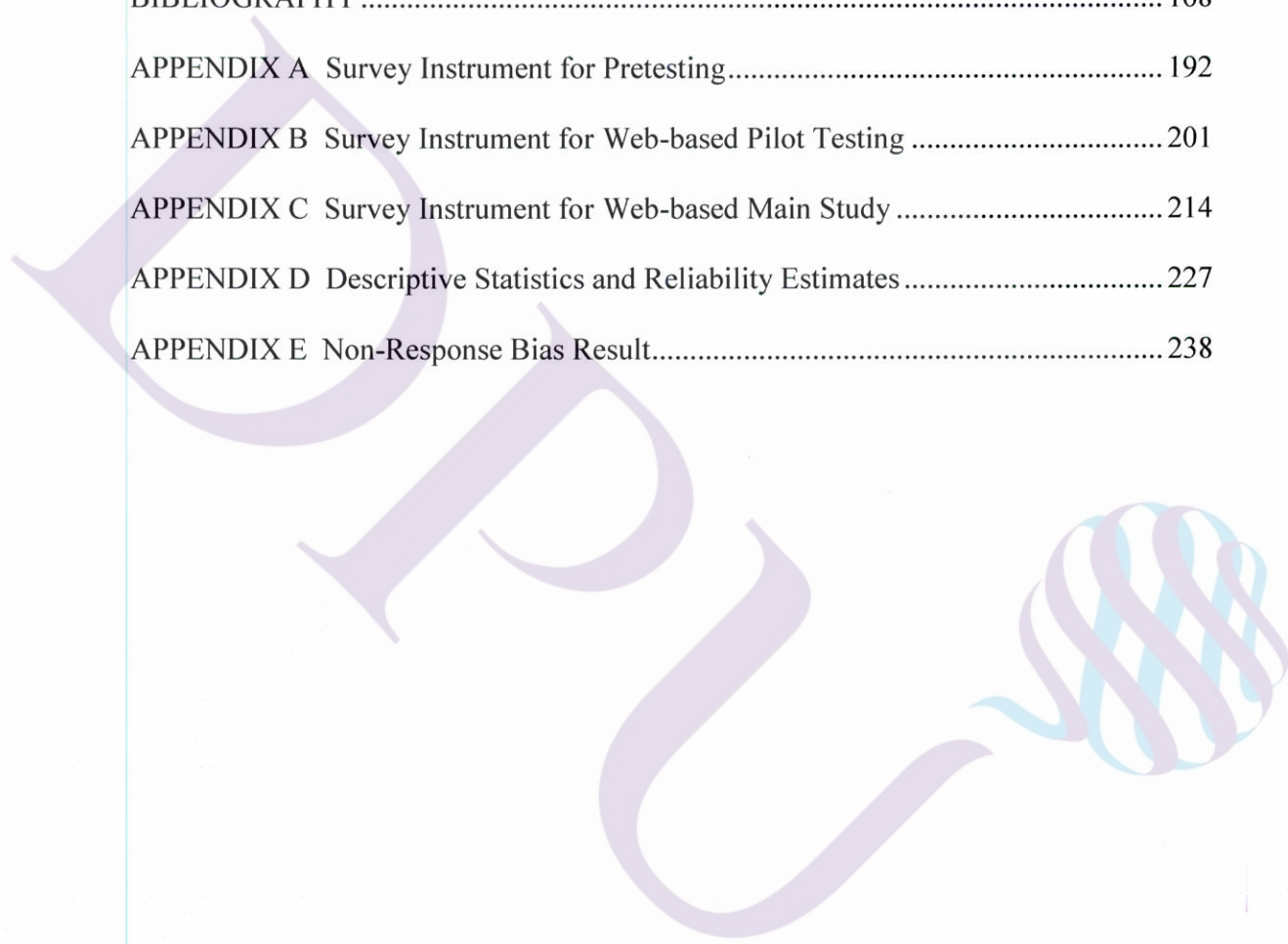-Stephen Dobyns

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Due to the consequences of globalization, companies that sell products and services to other businesses (business to business - B2B) operate in an extremely competitive environment. Purchasing managers are increasingly held accountable for reducing costs, preventing them the luxury of simply believing supplier claims of cost savings. A relatively easy and quick way for these managers to obtain savings is to focus on price by obtaining price concessions from suppliers. Consequently, to enhance negotiating power, purchasing managers attempt to convince suppliers that their offerings are the same as their competitors, or that the competitors can be easily replaced. Given this ultra-competitive atmosphere, many marketers in business believe they can sell their products/services only by deeply discounting them. However, this type of strategy is unaffordable for long-term business.

Suppliers often use three approaches to selling their products and services in the business marketplace, two of which, in their current form, jeopardize the stability and progressive development of long-term business. The first dangerous approach utilized by suppliers is to sell on the basis of price. The only way to sustain this strategy is to slash costs to the bone and to try to trade higher volume (if attainable) for lower margins. This

creates a dangerous balancing act between profit and volume that most firms cannot sustain. The second approach, which seldom works, is to claim exceptional value to realize higher prices. Unfortunately, salespeople cannot often substantiate these claims in any meaningful way. Purchasing managers are too sophisticated to fall for a "trust us, we have additional value" appeal. The third option is a customer relationship management approach, otherwise known as "relationship marketing."

In the past decades, relationship marketing, both in business practice and as a focus of academic research, has experienced explosive growth (Srinivasan & Moorman, 2005). Relationship marketing is defined by Morgan & Hunt (1994) as "all marketing activities directed towards establishing, developing, and maintaining successful relational exchanges" (p. 22). Most research and practice assumes that relationship marketing efforts, like Morgan & Hunt define, generate stronger customer relationships. These relationships are relied upon to enhance seller performance outcomes, including sales growth, share, and profits (Crosby, Evans, & Cowles, 1990; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Sirdeshmukh, Singh, & Sabol, 2002).

In following the relationship marketing approach, salespeople interact with customers for the purpose of understanding customer needs in order to design and offer a product or service to meet those needs. The goal of the interaction is to forge an understanding and contract that potentially meets the interests of both seller and buyer. From the point of view of the firm, this requires the salesperson to skillfully navigate negotiations through understanding customer perspectives so as to achieve a signed contract.

Since buyers segment the potential benefits of a potential contract into various categories (e.g., financial, product/service, social-political, and personal), seller awareness of and attention to the human factors in purchasing will produce higher percentages of completed sales and fewer unpleasant surprises for both in the selling process. Salespeople should thus realize that *"companies don't buy, people do"*, which means that it is crucial for salespeople to attune to the minds of buyers (Bonoma, 2006) in order to come to a successful contract negotiation. Recognizing the psychology of buying, which includes the adapting of selling behaviors to each individual and their perceptions of value, can improve account selection and selling results, it has been proposed that adaptive selling is a key to such effective customer relationship management. The practice of adaptive selling or "working smarter" is positively related to sales performance (Sujan, 1986).

Adaptive selling is widely recognized as important in the sales literature of the past few decades. A number of empirical studies investigate the relationship of adaptive selling behaviors and various personal selling variables, including salesperson characteristics and abilities, situational variables, buyer personalities and styles of communicating, and multiple measures of sales performance (e.g., Plouffe & Cote, 2008; McFarland, Challagalla, & Shervani, 2006; Verbeke, Belschak, & Bagozzi 2004; Porter, Wiener, & Frankwick 2003; Tanner Jr, 1994; Bodkin & Stevenson, 1993; Bello, 1992; Weilbaker, 1990; Spiro & Perreault, 1979). These previous studies concur that adapting selling behaviors to different buyers is important for superior sales performance (e.g., Spiro & Weitz, 1990; Sujan, 1986; Weitz, 1981); sellers who were more adaptive were

more likely to be successful at closing sales (Predmore & Bonnice, 1994). The primary emphasis of previous research has been on the degree to which salespeople change their tactics through developed scales (i.e. SOCO-sales orientation/ customer orientation scale developed by Saxe & Weitz, 1982 and revised by Periatt, Lemay, & Chkrabarty, 2004; and ADAPTS-Adaptive Selling scale developed by Spiro & Weitz, 1990; ADAPTS short version developed by Robinson, Marshall, & Moncrief, 2002), but whether the adaptive behaviors effectively worked with buyers, especially in B2B, is still left to the rigorous of academic questioning and study. The summary of adaptive selling and gap from the literature review is illustrated in Figure 1.1.
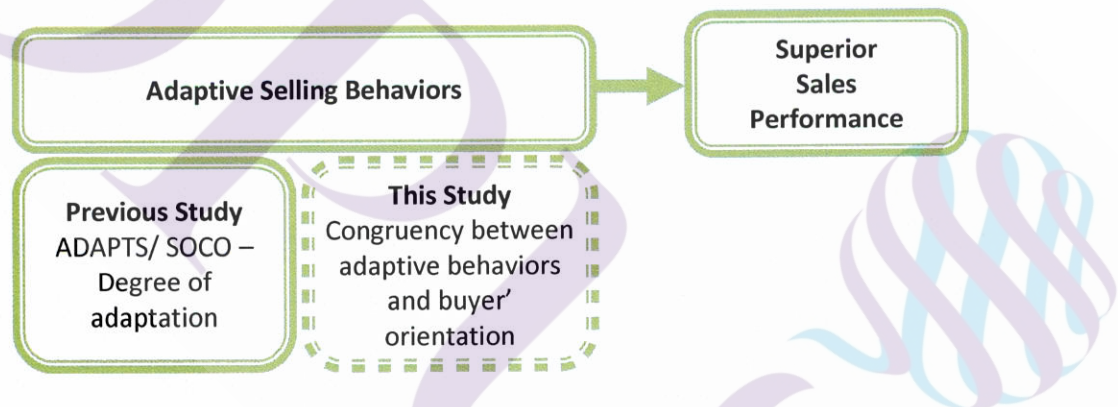
Figure 1.1 Adaptive Selling Behaviors and Gap

Source: developed for this research

1.2 Significance of Research

Salespeople should adapt their selling behaviors, and these adaptations should "suit" the buyers with whom they are dealing with (Szymanski, 1988; Weitz, Sujan, &

Sujan, 1986). Suggestions of the needs for selling behavior adaptation are insufficient unless a salesperson can pinpoint which selling behaviors should be used with different buyers (McFarland et al., 2006). In other words merely changing selling behaviors is insufficient if the adaptations do not appeal to buyers. Given this contextual dilemma, it is surprising that little guidance is provided to salespeople regarding what adaptive behaviors are most effective in combination with different types of buyers. Such a gap between knowledge and application strongly indicates that analysis and study in the area of adaptive selling behaviors is warranted for improvement of sales.

Supporting the possibility for improvement of sales through further research into adaptive selling behaviors is a recent empirical study that attempted to match successful sales influence tactics (a dimension of adaptive selling behaviors) with buyer orientations (e.g., task-oriented, self-oriented, and interaction oriented; McFarland et al., 2006). The findings justly confirmed the complexity of buyers by revealing that buyers may be clustered in a combination of orientations and, further, that salespeople can influence buyers as long as they use the theory recommended tactics for the reflected orientations of a buyer. This recent study shows that further investigation into different perspectives on buyer orientation level is essential in providing interesting insights to adaptive selling behaviors insomuch as analyzing and researching buyer orientation levels opens up an interesting and exciting avenue for probing deeper into the individual characteristics of buyers and the influence of selling behaviors on buying decisions. However, this study capitalizes on the information from the aforementioned one as it one of the very first attempts to shed the light into the gap between B2B sellers and buyers by

using a characteristic called Regulatory focus (Higgins, 1997), which builds upon hedonic approaches to understanding motivation and effort.

In understanding motivation and effort in the buyer-seller context, regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997) enhances the understanding of adaptive selling behaviors, elaborating on the means employed by individuals for regulatory orientation during goal pursuit and distinguishing between two regulatory orientations: promotion focus and prevention focus. A promotion focus emphasizes the "ideal" self, is reflected in an individual's hopes and aspirations, and favors strategic means that are eagerness-oriented. In contrast, a prevention focus emphasizes the "ought" self, is reflected in a person's duties and obligations, and supports strategic means that are vigilance-oriented. Thus, a promotion focus emphasizes the presence of positive outcomes and minimizes "errors of omission" (e.g., missing opportunities for making progress), whereas a prevention focus favors the absence of negative outcomes, minimizing "errors of commission" (e.g., by doing something which turns out to be a mistake; Higgins, 1997; Higgins, Freitas, Idson, Spiegel, & Molden, 2003).

Due in part to its identification of separate focuses; regulatory focus theory has experienced an increased use in consumer research and consumer psychology to explain a wide range of consumer phenomena (Pham & Higgins, 2005). A number of studies have found that a consumer's regulatory focus plays an important role in processes involving persuasion, categorization, judgment, and choice (Haws, Dholakia, & Bearden, 2010). For example, a previous study (Lee & Aaker, 2004) found that promotion focused consumers are more persuaded by appeals framed in terms of gains, and, alternatively,

that prevention focused participants are persuaded to a greater degree by appeals framed in terms of the minimization of losses. It is thus surmised that promotion and prevention focused participants react differently to negative versus positive frames in comparative brand advertising (Jain, Lindsey, Agrawal, & Maheswaran, 2007); advertisements (antismoking) are the most persuasive when a viewer's regulatory focus and the message's valence (positive or negative) are congruent (Zhao & Pechmann, 2007).

This study tests the tenets of regulatory focus theory against the backdrop of the B2B selling context, asking whether or not regulatory focus theory can provide an understanding as to why buyers are motivated by the adaptation of selling behaviors through the increase of salience in negative and positive outcomes for different buyers. By applying regulatory focus theory, then, this study fills the gap in understanding between the B2B buyer and seller by examining the adaptive selling behaviors that are successfully worked with buyers of both regulatory foci.

This study's examination of how to achieve regulatory focus consistency between adaptive selling behaviors and buyer's regulatory orientations results in a guideline on how salespeople can modify their selling behaviors for a given buyer's regulatory orientation. In short, such a guideline will show salespeople that using a buyer's regulatory orientation to effectively adapt their selling behaviors creates a regulatory fit which leads to improved selling effectiveness and sales.

1.3 Objectives of Research

This dissertation is guided by one question which provides two objectives: though adapting selling behaviors to different buyers is important for superior sales performance, the unanswered question is "how to make adaptive selling behaviors more effective." This study proposes that it can be done by examining consistencies between the regulatory orientation of buyers and selling behaviors.

By systematically examining buyer-seller interactions, the present study intends to accomplish the following research objectives:

1) To identify a potential method for determining how to adapt selling behaviors. This study proposes using a buyer's regulatory orientation as one possibility for method identification.

2) To examine if regulatory fit outcomes can be used to determine the most effective selling behaviors (e.g., influence tactics, selling orientation).

The conceptual framework of this study is illustrated in Figure 1.2 with further discussion in detail in Chapter 2.
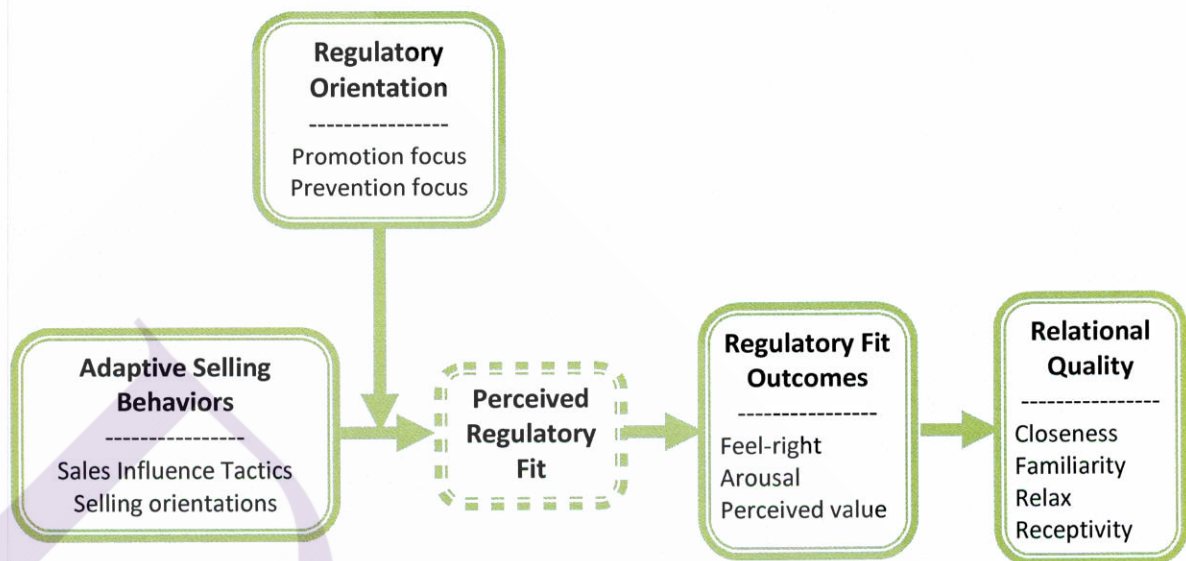
Figure 1.2 The Conceptual Framework

Source: developed for this research

1.4 Theoretical Contributions

This dissertation intends to make several contributions to the academic literature pertaining to adaptive selling behavior. First, past research has shown that adapting sales behaviors to different buyers is important for superior sales performance (e.g., Spiro & Weitz 1990; Sujan 1986; Weitz 1981). This research introduces an important dimension into the research of sales management, building upon it by examining the effects of buyer's regulatory orientations on sales behavioral attribute evaluations. This aspect of sales management has, as of yet, not been investigated in previous research, especially in business to business context. In this, there is an extension

of a specific conceptual basis for guiding adaptive selling behavior as called for by

Williams and Spiro (1985).

Secondly, this research also extends the application of psychology literature to

sales management, specifically sales influence tactics. Influence tactics were initially

developed for inter-organizational, firm-to-firm channel contexts in the marketing

channels literature and for intra-organizational, person-to-person levels of analysis in the

organizational behavior and sales literature. By investigating the relationship of buyer's

regulatory orientations and sales influence tactic preferences, which has not been

sufficiently investigated in previous research, this research proposes that this significant

aspect of selling behaviors be included in the research of influence tactics. This is done

by showing that influence tactics, as a style of communication adaptation besides

information adaptation (e.g., message framing), are another factor that affects regulatory

fit.

A third contribution this study makes to the existing literature is to expand on

studies of qualitative techniques, such as conceptual arguments, which were conducted in

the prior research of regulatory focus theory (e.g., Brockner, Higgins, & Low, 2004;

Meyer, Becker, & Vandenberghe, 2004; Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). While it is true that

some studies employed quantitative techniques, most of the empirical tests were

conducted under controlled laboratory conditions with college students or teachers as

participants (e.g., Liberman, Idson, Camacho, & Higgins, 1999; Leung & Lam, 2003;

Leone, Perugini, & Bagozzi, 2005; Markman, Baldwin, & Maddox, 2006; Wirtz & Lwin,

2009; Fransen, 2008) and general consumers as participants (e.g., Arnold & Reynolds, 2009).

This current non-experimental quantitative study thus expands necessarily on previous quantitative and qualitative studies by empirically testing a research model in the B2B business environment that examines the relationships among regulatory orientation, adaptive selling behaviors, and relational quality. Therefore, the study contributes to research on regulatory focus by showing that regulatory orientation can be used to address research questions relating to the behavior of individuals in the context of business to business service industries.

Of additional mention is the fact that this study also contributes to the literature of social psychology by showing how adaptive selling behaviors relate to regulatory focus.

1.5 Managerial Implications

The managerial importance of this work involves the interest managers have in knowing whether there are universally effective or, conversely, ineffective selling behaviors that should be followed or avoided. This study provides interesting insights into these questions by integrating the findings of several different analyses and perspectives on buyer orientations. Additionally the findings of this study will contribute to sales professionals and human resource development by providing a method, which can be possibly implemented, for guiding adaptive selling behaviors and identifying the

types of sales influence tactics that might be most effective for a given buyer based on differing regulatory orientations of different buyers.

1.6 Glossary of Terms & Acronyms

1. Adaptive selling behaviors: altering sales related behaviors during a customer interaction or across interactions based upon perceived information about the nature of the selling situation (Weitz et al., 1986, p. 175).

2. Selling behaviors: the seller's behaviors during a sales interaction (e.g., sales influence tactics, selling orientation).

3. Sales influence tactics: the mechanism through which salespeople persuade buyers in sales interactions (e.g., rational persuasion, consultation, inspirational appeals, personal appeals, collaboration, apprising, ingratiation, exchange, legitimating tactics, pressure, and coalition) (Yukl, Seifert, & Chavez, 2008)

4. Selling orientation: the degree to which a salesperson is oriented toward customers, competitors, and services orientation.

5. Regulatory focus: a personality related principle that builds further on the hedonic relation of pleasure/pain by distinguishing two different kinds of self regulatory orientation in relation to desired or undesired end states (Higgins, 1997).

6. Buyer's regulatory orientation: the degree to which an individual buyer is oriented toward the promotion or prevention foci (goal orientation).

7. Promotion focus: individual who attends to goals related to ideals and growth or advancement (Higgins, 1997).

8. Prevention focus: individual who tends to notice and recall information related to the costs of loss, failure, or punishment (Higgins & Tykocinski, 1992).

9. Perceived regulatory fit: the degree to which a buyer's regulatory orientation aligns with a seller's selling behaviors.

10. Regulatory fit outcomes: the perceived level of a buyer reaction to selling behaviors (e.g., feel-right, arousal, perceived value)

11. Feel-right: the degree to which the buyer's experience from interacting with the seller is pleasant, proper, appropriate and desirable /or induces a sense of acceptance, preference, or attraction (Camacho, Higgins, & Luger, 2003).

12. Arousal: the degree to which buyer experience emotional reactions when interact with salesperson (Avnet & Higgins, 2006).

13. Perceived value: the degree to which buyer assign higher values to or develop more positive attitudes toward the seller or seller's behaviors (Avnet & Higgins, 2006; Wang & Lee, 2006).

14. Relational quality: the extent to which buyers feel comfortable and are willing to rely on in dealing with sellers (e.g., closeness, familiarity, relax, receptivity).

1.7 Organization of this Dissertation

This dissertation will include five chapters. Chapter one provides a general introduction of the research area, the purpose of the study, and a discussion of the significance of the study.

Chapter two provides a review of the literature relevant to adaptive selling behaviors, regulatory focus, and relational quality that contributed to and provides support for the development of the conceptual framework and hypotheses. The relationships among constructs and previous empirical research findings relevant to this study are discussed as well. This chapter also includes the conceptual framework of the study and the research hypotheses.

Chapter Three discusses the methodology to be used in the dissertation, including the research design, the dependent and independent variable measures, data collection procedures, and the methodology to be used to test the conceptual model and its hypotheses.

Chapter Four describes the results of the statistical analyses that are used to test the hypotheses.

Chapter Five identifies the findings of the study concerning the hypotheses, the implications derived from the findings of the study, the limitations of the study, recommendations for future research, and the conclusions of the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter contains a review of the conceptualizations of major concepts and the discussions from various fields of research stream and theory. The review is designed to focus on the following aspects: adaptive selling behaviors from sales and marketing literature; regulatory focus theory and regulatory fit from consumer psychology and consumer behaviors; influence tactics from managerial psychology; selling orientation from organization behaviors; and relational quality from customer relationship management and relational communication. These aspects are reviewed with the intention of examining the effective ways that salespeople can implement adaptive selling behaviors between two foci of regulatory oriented buyers: promotion focus and prevention focus.

The review includes a discussion and critique of adaptive selling behaviors and their possible dimensions and facets in the sales interaction context. In considering whether influence tactics affect regulatory fit, examined in detail is the research on influence tactics (as one of the possible dimensions of adaptive selling behaviors) from marketing channels literature, and the research on interpersonal influence tactics from the organizational behavior and social psychology literature. In addition, research from consumer psychology and consumer behaviors literature on regulatory focus and

regulatory fit is investigated and utilized in defining buyer characteristics to explain a variety of buyer decision making phenomena on the basis of their regulatory orientation.

The selling orientation (e.g., competitor, customer, service orientation) of organizational behaviors is applied to the context of selling orientations and scrutinized to consider whether selling orientation has influence on regulatory fit outcomes.

Further, the perspective of relational communication is studied here in order to define the nature of the buyer and seller relationship and to further examine how to improve buyer-seller relational quality. The study of this perspective, contained herein, leads to regulatory fit outcomes like feel-right, arousal, and perceived value. Finally, a conceptual model based on the literature review is presented together with the hypotheses.

2.2 Overview of Sales Interaction – *"The Need for Adaptation"*

As a consequence of globalization, products and services across several industries face commoditization world-wide, forcing suppliers to rely on value propositions beyond their basic offerings to overcome intense competition (Tuli, Kohli & Bharadwaj, 2007). In a climate of such brutal competition, salespeople facilitate the success of firms by developing strong, healthy personal selling relationships with their customers and prospects (Behrman & Perreault, 1982). Hence, when it comes to building relationships with customers, salespeople are critical players on the front line. It is therefore beyond reasonable to surmise that a sales force is directly linked to the revenue

generation capabilities of almost all commercial enterprises. In sum, the interaction between the salesperson and the customer can make or break a company's bottom line.

Recognizing the critical role selling relationships play in their continued development, many organizations have discovered the value of a heightened focus on the customer and are moving to act as, or similar to, customer-centric organizations. Customer-centricity is particularly important for boundary-spanning employees such as salespeople. Salespeople need to adopt a strategic pro-customer vision because they directly interact with and serve customers, an integral component in the complexity of business.

Despite their obvious importance in the overall success of a business, many salespeople consider their selling efforts a "numbers game" (the more you sell the higher the closed sales), memorizing standardized scripts, approaches, and presentations to influence customers although many consumers are highly sophisticated individuals that are motivated by unseen goals and desires shaped by their unique personalities, life histories, and dynamic circumstances. In this, the overall landscape of the way salespeople and customers interact is constantly shifting as customers generally become more connected, sophisticated, and demanding over time (Day, 2000) while standardized script largely remain the same. Salespeople encounter a colorful spectrum of individuals who may respond quite differently to uniform selling behaviors and techniques, and thus standardized scripted selling and standard offerings are becoming increasingly ineffective. In achieving competitive differentiation, customer satisfaction and loyalty— the main purposes of customer relationship management— standardized techniques are

falling further and further away from the sometimes small mark of success . It is important to understand, then, that although uniform selling behaviors can be effective at times, the difference between having a selling interaction and an *"influential"* selling interaction is in the art of effectively adapting selling behaviors to each individual and his/her values. And, in the highly competitive globalized market of today, the difference between and a selling interaction and an *"influential"* selling interaction can have catastrophic effects.

2.3 Adaptive Selling Behavior (ASB) – *"The Art of Selling"*

Adaptive selling behavior is represented strongly and importantly in sales literature. A number of empirical studies over the past two decades investigate the relationship of adaptive selling behavior and various personal selling variables, including salesperson characteristics and abilities, situational variables, buyer personalities, styles of communication, and other multiple measures of sales performance (Plouffe & Cote, 2008; McFarland et al., 2006; Verbeke et al., 2004; Porter et al., 2003; Tanner Jr, 1994; Bodkin & Stevenson, 1993; Bello, 1992; Weilbaker, 1990; Spiro & Perreault, 1979). Similarly, previous studies find that adapting selling behaviors to different buyers is important for superior sales performance; sellers that are more adaptive are more likely to be successful at closing sales (Predmore & Bonnice, 1994).

Professional salespeople should conceptually understand customer preferences, and that flexible engagement with customers improves sales performance. Rather than use the same tactics for each customer, salespeople can and should adapt their tactics to

best fit customer preferences consistently in order to increase the rate of closing (Szymanski, 1988; Weitz et al., 1986). To properly understand such a dynamic first requires an understanding of adaptive selling behavior and how it can be best utilized.

Adaptive selling behavior (ASB) has been defined as altering sales related behaviors during interactions with buyers or across these interactions based upon perceived information about the nature of the selling situation (Weitz et al., 1986), which is one of the determinants of superior sales performance (Bodkin & Stevenson, 1993; Porter et al., 2003; Plouffe & Cote, 2008). Therefore, although understanding the characteristics of effective salespeople has been a long-standing goal of sales practitioners and researchers, prior research has mainly focused on the degree to which salespeople change their tactics through developed scales but not on whether these adaptations are appropriate.

To be specific, previous research on the measurement of adaptive selling has resulted in four scales, all of which use items drawn from the original ADAPTS scale developed by Spiro and Weitz (1990) to measure aspects of adaptive selling such as beliefs and preparatory knowledge. Further Marks, Vorhies, and Badovick examined the dimensionality of the ADAPTS scale, proposing a two-factor model consisting of beliefs and behaviors (1996). In 2002, Robinson et al. developed a shortened scale called ADAPTS-SV (short version), as a suitable and efficient measure of the original ADAPTS scale. Recently the ADAPTS short version (RMML) was proposed to assess the degree to which salespeople adapt their sales behaviors during the sales situation (Chakrabarty,

Brown, Widing, & Taylor, 2004). The original ADAPTS scale items are illustrated below

in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 The Original Scale Items of ADAPTS Scale

1. Each customer requires a unique approach.
2. When I feel that my sales approach is not working, I can easily change to another approach.
3. I like to experiment with different sales approaches.
4. I am very flexible in the selling approach I use.
5. I feel that most buyers can be dealt with in pretty much the same manner.
6. I don't change my approach from one customer to another.
7. I can easily use a wide variety of selling approaches.
8. I use a set sales approach.
9. It is easy for me to modify my sales presentation if the situation calls for it.
10. Basically I use the same approach with most customers.
11. I am very sensitive to the needs of most customers.
12. I find it difficult to adapt my presentation style to certain buyers.
13. I vary my sales style from situation to situation.
14. I try to understand how one customer differs from another.
15. I feel confident that I can effectively change my planned presentation when necessary.
16. I treat all of my buyers pretty much the same.

Source: Spiro & Weitz (1990)

Similarly, the SOCO (Sales Orientation/ Customer Orientation) scale (Saxe &

Weitz, 1982) and the SOCO short version (Thomas, Soutar, & Ryan, 2001) were

designed to measure the degree to which salesperson oriented toward customer or sales

orientation.

An issue here is that salespeople should not merely change behaviors as the

previous research suggests, but more importantly adapt their tactics to "suit" the buyers

with whom they are dealing with (Szymanski, 1988; Weitz et al., 1986). Simply changing behaviors is insufficient if the adaptations do not appeal to buyers, and little guidance has been provided for salespeople regarding what adaptive behaviors they should use with different types of buyers.

This study sheds light into this complex behavioral gap by pinpointing which elements of selling behaviors are to be adapted in the buyer-seller interaction according to the buyer specific regulatory orientation. By investigating and identifying selling behavior adaptations, this research provides a guideline to sales professionals for adaptive selling behaviors that are consistent with the given buyer's regulatory orientation precisely because it is insufficient to tell sales professionals to "be adaptive" without guiding them in the range of options they have for being adaptive. The following section presents the four possible dimensions of adaptive selling behaviors that can be used as a much needed compass to explore the varieties of adaptable selling behaviors and features in the buyer-seller relationship.

2.3.1 Possible Dimensions of Adaptive Selling Behaviors – *"the golden compass"*

The four adaptation categories identified by Eckert (2006) are designed to capture the range of possible selling adaptations available to the salesperson. These include adaptations of the (1) information shared, (2) the solutions suggested, (3) the communication approach utilized, and (4) the selling process used in a selling context. Although these four categories of adaptive behaviors are interconnected, each is sufficiently distinctive to represent a separate category of selling behaviors.

2.3.1.1 Information Adaptations

The first of Eckert's four categories of adaptation involves the information that a salesperson may or may not share in response to a particular selling situation. In practice, many salespeople give a "canned" presentation, presenting exactly the same information to every customer, yet not all customers need the same information. Although some salespeople might have taken into account the differentiation of sales context, the adaptation of selling practice needs more consideration. Within this dynamic there are two essential characteristics of the information that are ready and prime for customization – information content and focus, and information flow.

a) *Information content and focus* is the body of information selected to be shared with a customer. In the process of information selection, important decisions take place in regards to what topics should be addressed (Reid, Pullins, & Plank, 2002), what type of approach the information presentation should take (Fennis, Das, & Pruyn, 2004), and how deep or strategic the information shared should be (Schultz & Evans, 2002). Additionally, an important internal debate about whether or not the information should be focused on business needs or relationship building efforts occurs (Jacobs, Evans, Klein, & Landry, 2001). Perhaps more importantly is the fact that the relational communication approach suggests the intent of the message can substantially influence the norms of communication that develop between the parties, indicating these norms as capable of altering such factors as who controls the interaction and how positively or negatively the information is received (Comstock & Higgins, 1997; Soldow & Thomas, 1984).

b) *Information flow* – this element of adaptation deals with the quantity, frequency, and the timing of information sharing (e.g., Funkhouser, 1984). For instance, how often and how much information should be exchanged and when comes into play. Recent work indicates that information overload might be a detriment to a salesperson's performance, thus necessitating a thorough knowledge of the possible adaptations related to information flow. In short, if this element or concept of information flow is applied to addressing the problem of overloading the customer with information, some minimization of sales success can be avoided (Hunter, 2004).

2.3.1.2 Solution Adaptations

The second category of Eckert's adaption categories involve adapting the solution offered as a response to the needs and situation of a buyer in a "one size does not fit all" approach. The majority of product offerings are customizable, at least at some level, including alterations in the core product or service, and customized bundles or augmented components such as delivery, support, packaging, financing etc. For example, an IT company may offer different types of infrastructure and software packages to clients based on customer requirements, or a service provider may propose a longer credit term of payment to larger account customers while requesting cash or a 15-day credit term for smaller account customers.

2.3.1.3 Communication Adaptations

Selling is a two-way communication, and Eckert is keenly aware of such a fact. Communication adaptability in sales thus includes adapting current influence tactics

employed in a selling situation to beneficially change the various message source
elements. Such an approach or action customizes the message itself through an altering
of the delivery channel and presentation of the message.

a) *Influence tactics* are the mechanism through which salespeople persuade
buyers in interactions (e.g., Brown, 1990; Spiro & Perreault Jr., 1979). In the
selling context, a common distinction is made in influence tactics between
coercive and non-coercive strategies. It has been found that more coercive
strategies can compel compliance in the short run, but tend to hinder relationship
development between buyers and sellers (Boyle & Dwyer, 1995; Boyle, Dwyer,
Robicheaux, & Simpson, 1992). Spiro and Perreault Jr. (1979) identified five
different influence tactics (legitimate, expert, referent, integration and impression
management) that could be employed by a salesperson depending on different
situational factors in order to adapt profitably to various sales interactions.

Previous research (McFarland et al., 2006) matched buyer clusters (i.e.,
task-oriented, self-oriented, and interaction-oriented as defined by Sheth) with the
influence tactics modified from Frazier and Summers's taxonomy (1984) of
influence tactics in marketing (i.e. information exchange, recommendations,
requests, threats, promises, and legalistic pleas). This important change or
augmentation was done by adding two more tactics: ingratiation and inspirational
appeals. This empirical study intended to examine the sales influence tactics that
"work" with buyers of each of these three orientations, however, the findings
revealed that buyers are highly complex and may be clustered in a combination of

orientations. However, salespeople can inspire buyers as long as recommended tactics are used in accordance to buyer orientations. Such a revelation clearly necessitates further investigation into buyer orientation levels as essential to better understand effective adaptive selling behaviors.

Moreover, a positive relationship among influence tactics and sales performance has been found in contemporary research (Plouffe & Cote, 2008). Understanding that this relationship does in fact exist opens up an interesting and exciting avenue for probing more deeply into the individual characteristics of buyers and the influence of selling behaviors on buying decisions. Currently there is no known method for determining which types of influence tactics are more effective for a given buyer. In other words, if selling behavior adaptation is needed for superior sales performance, what is needed for salespeople to determine when or if a particular influence tactic is most/more appropriate based on the given buyer characteristics? Specifically, this current study will investigate how influence tactics impact buyer's perceptions on regulatory fit outcomes and relational quality.

b) *Style differences* – a multitude of models describing differing communication styles exist, and these can be used as guides for salespeople to alter their communication approaches with different customers. For instance, the social style model (Merrill & Reid, 1981) is often taught in sales practitioner training. According to the four distinct social styles presented in the model (i.e. controllers, analyzers, promoters, and supporters), individuals are considered to

have one or two styles that they manifest most regularly and become the patterns of behavior observable by other people. Altering communication styles (e.g., precise vs. friendly; task vs. social) also has been considered in the sales literature in general (e.g., Dion & Notarantonio, 1992; William & Spiro, 1985) and is specifically connected to the stage of the buyer-seller relationship (Comstock & Higgins, 1997; Miles, Arnold, & Nash, 1990). A previous study found that buyers prefer task-oriented sellers rather than social ones in these aspects of the buyer-seller relationship (Comstock & Higgins, 1997).

c) *Source factors* include the credibility, similarity, and physical attractiveness of the message sender. These have been considered as relevant in a selling context in the academic literature (e.g., Lichrenthal & Tellefsen, 2001; Liu & Leach, 2001; Dwyer, Richard, & Shepherd, 1998; DeShields, Kara, & Kaynak, 1996; Sharma, 1990). In addition to these traditional source elements, recent research studies cultural adaptations by the salesperson and their appropriateness and reception in the increasingly global business world (e.g., Pornpitakpan, 2005; Tsalikis, Deshields Jr., & LaTour, 1991).

d) *Message factor* – In traditional communication theory, message factor includes the order of the arguments presented, the sidedness of the arguments, and the basis for the appeal being made (O'Keefe, 2002). The sidedness of the argument has been considered in the adaptive selling context; Smith and Hunt (1987) find that two-sided arguments lead to increased message recall. In addition to these traditional message factors, non-verbal cues can be considered as part of

the message delivery by the salesperson (Stewart, Hecker, & Graham, 1987).

Non-verbal cues in the selling context have been recently explored by Leigh and Summers (2002), with mixed results as to their effect on the reception of the sales message. In each of these cases, it is sufficiently established that salespeople have control over these message factors, and thus could customize them to beneficially coincide with the selling situation.

2.3.1.4 Process Adaptations

Eckert's fourth and final category of adaptation is that of process. This has to do with a salesperson's arrangement of the resources used during the selling process, including altering the people involved, the steps used, the time spent in any given stage, or the interaction environment. In addition, process adaptations can include altering the basic selling orientation utilized. Clearly, making alterations to facets like basic selling orientations are within the control of the seller and thus form or constitute the final category of customization options.

a) *Selling orientation* – Should a salesperson take a customer-oriented selling tactic? For instance, DelVecchio, Zemanek, McIntyre, and Claxton (2002) found that taking a customer-oriented selling orientation (the practice of the marketing concept at the level of the individual salesperson and customer – Saxe & Weitz (1982), p. 343) was most suited for situations in which the buyer had considerable levels of authority within the buying firm. Furthermore, questioning whether or not the approach should be focused on short-term gain or immediate results is important as well. Ink, Avila and Chapman (2004) concluded that approximately

half of a salesperson's customers preferred a transactional approach (although this result was self-reported by the salespeople). If some selling orientations are most/more appropriate than others, investigating and evaluating how a salesperson should adapt selling orientation based on a given buyer characteristics could improve sales performance.

Figure 2.1 illustrates the summary of four possible dimensions in adaptive selling behaviors.
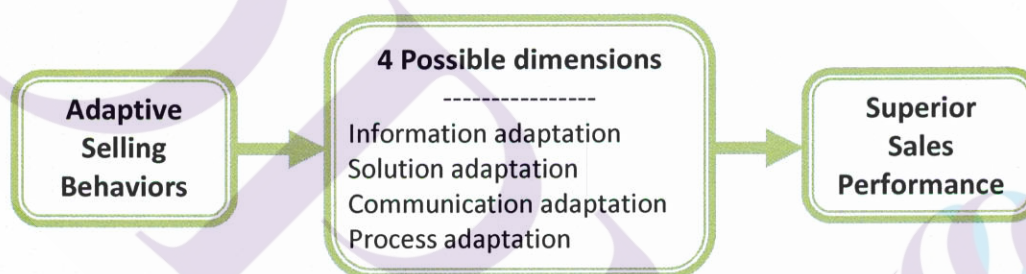
Figure 2.1 The Four Possible Dimensions of Adaptive Selling Behaviors

Source: Eckert (2006)

2.3.1.5 Dimensions of Adaptations Investigated in this Study

Although there are four possible dimensions of adaptive selling behaviors (i.e., information, solution, communication, and process adaptation), previous research on regulatory focus accentuated on information adaptation, specifically message framing and information processing (e.g., Micu & Chowdhury, 2010; Lee, Keller, & Sternthal, 2010;

Cesario & Higgins, 2008; Zhao & Pechmann, 2007). For example, recent research reveals that promotion and prevention focused participants react differently to negative versus positive frames in advertising (e.g., Jain et al., 2007; Zhao & Pechmann, 2007).

Given that the solution adaptation involves alterations in the core product/service, and customized bundles or augmented components, the adaptation of solution is not investigated to circumvent bias subjective to the attributes and features of product and/or service offerings. Therefore, this study emphasizes on investigating communication adaptation and process adaptation. By extending the application of regulatory focus to communication adaptation as one of the possible dimensions of adaptive selling behaviors, specifically influence tactics, this study investigates how influence tactics impact buyer's perceptions on regulatory fit outcomes and relational quality. By investigating the relationship of buyer's regulatory orientations and sales influence tactics, this study proposes that influence tactics are another factor that affects regulatory fit outcomes. This will be discussed in further details in section 2.6, entitled "Conceptual Framework".

Moreover, in this study, process adaptation, particularly selling orientation is examined by drawing from strategic orientation complexity, which is made up of the degree to which a salesperson is oriented toward customers, competitors, and services. These same dimensions are identified by Boulding and his colleagues (Boulding, Moore, Staelin, Corfman, Dickson, & Fitzsimons, 1994) as the cognitive framework for strategic decision-making.

A customer orientation highlights the interests of target buyers, while a competitor orientation, somewhat conversely, concentrates on current and potential competitors. The customer and/or competitor orientation measures used in this study are modified from validated scales based on research by Narver and Slater (1990). Product/service orientation is an orientation stressing quality and efficiency of product/service offerings. Prior research on product/service orientation has sought to examine its effect on strategic factors and organizational performance, particularly in the areas of quality (e.g., Jacobson & Aaker, 1987; Morgan & Piercy, 1998; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985) and efficiency (Piercy, 1998; Wright, Kroll, Peng, & Hamel, 1991). The discussion on selling orientation, in detail, will be in the Conceptual Framework section 2.6.

Considering the ever changing world of selling, adaptive salespeople are constantly learning. Early in a sales call, they attempt to identify a customer's signals and reactions to better understand how a sales message can be customized for the unfolding sales interaction. At a more rudimentary level, adaptive salespeople also assess customer personalities, personal values, and styles of communicating. Understanding customers at this deeper level can help salespeople manage the overall customer experience.

From a sales perspective, then, the goal of adaptations is to manage the experience beneficially, enabling greater influence with customers and ultimately earning their business. However, adaptive selling behaviors can only prove useful for influencing customers if salespeople can determine just how they should adapt. Unfortunately, there is a lack of evidence from previous research about the effectiveness of various

approaches across different types of customers. Without robust insights in this area, salespeople are left to trial-and-error and anecdotal evidence about how they should adapt. This gap between academic insight and anecdotal evidence from trial-and-error practices motivates the current study to explore questions like: What selling behaviors are effective for influencing various types of customers? Are there any selling behaviors that appear universally effective in buyer-seller interactions? Are there any selling behaviors that appear consistently detrimental in buyer-seller interactions? Exploring these areas can help uncover the psychological needs of customers and how they prefer to socially interact with salespeople as they progress toward their decision.

2.3.2 Buyer-Seller Interaction – *"companies don't buy, people do"*

Salespeople interact with customers for the purpose of understanding customer needs, in turn designing and offering a product or service to meet those needs. The goal in a sales interaction is to forge an understanding and a contract that potentially meets the interests of both seller and buyer. From the point of view of the firm, this requires that the salesperson be brought to understand customer perspectives to skillfully navigate negotiations so as to achieve a signed contract.

Seller awareness of, and attention to, the human factors in purchasing will produce higher percentages of completed sales, resulting in fewer unpleasant surprises in the selling process (Bonoma, 2006). Salespeople should realize that *"companies don't buy, people do,"* and that in is respect it is important for them to attune to the minds of buyers. The most advanced companies recognize the more advantageous incorporation of the psychology of buying as a major tenet in improving account selection and selling

results. In this light it is fundamentally imperative for salespeople to immerse themselves into the nuances of a customer's organization, paying special attention to subtle cues communicated by customers. Immersion in customer nuances allows salespeople to put themselves "into the shoes" of buying agents and mentally simulate what customers indicate (or say) they want and why they want to buy (Dawes, Lee, & Dowling, 1998).

The ability to engage with another human interpersonally, which is in essence reading the mind of the customer, can be linked to the adaptive selling concept. Adaptive selling behavior as a concept is a deliberative phenomenon, enabling salespeople to tailor their messages to fit the needs and preferences of individuals (Franke & Park, 2006; Szymanski, 1988; Spiro & Weitz, 1990). Therefore adaptive selling is analogous to "working smarter," which means pursuing the important task of planning to better determine the suitability of selling behaviors and activities that will be undertaken in upcoming selling encounters (Sujan, Weitz, & Kumar, 1994). As such, it logically follows that individual differences in personality traits are yet another force that reflects the degree to which individuals regulate their self-presentation by altering their actions in accordance with situational cues present in an interaction (Spiro & Weitz, 1990). The ability to see things from another person's perspective, or "mentalizing," involves understanding the actual motivational state of the interaction partner. Such motivations might change rapidly over time and thus require constant reinterpretation (Bonoma, 2006; Singer & Fehr, 2005) for a sales interaction to be successful.

To elucidate the motivational state of buyers, this study employs regulatory focus theory in order to better realize and identify buyer characteristics (e.g.,

personalities, beliefs, and motivational states) through their goal orientation. More specifically, this study proposes the idea that regulatory focus can be a useful technique for identifying buyer differences. In sum, this research attempts to identify the adaptive selling behaviors that will resonate with buyers on the basis of their regulatory orientation. The findings of this study will provide a guideline on how to improve the effectiveness of adaptive selling behaviors between groups of buyers who are dissimilar in their regulatory orientation.

2.4 Overview of Regulatory Focus Theory

The regulatory focus theory is a personality related principle that builds further on the hedonic relation of pleasure/pain by distinguishing two different kinds of regulatory orientation in relation to desired or undesired end states (Higgins, 1997). The major tenet of this theory proposes a fundamental distinction between two modes of regulatory orientation called promotion focus and prevention focus (Pham & Aaker, 2002). This study integrates regulatory focus theory and its growing importance in the study of consumers (Higgins, 1997; 1998; Aaker & Lee, 2001; Briley & Wyer, 2002; Pham & Avnet, 2004; Zhou & Pham, 2004), with an in-depth look at a variety of buyer decision making phenomena, and, in particular, explains how salespersons can adapt selling behaviors to better resonate with buyers from the basis of their regulatory orientation.

2.4.1 Evolution of Regulatory Focus Theory

Regulatory focus theory is based on the three conceptualizations of the self, as defined by self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987; 1989; 1999). Self-discrepancy theory identifies *the actual-self* or self-concept, *the ideal-self* in its representations of an individual's beliefs about his or her own self, or a significant other's hopes, wishes, or aspirations for the individual, and *the ought-self*, a representation of an individual's beliefs about his or her own self, or a significant other's beliefs about the individual's duties, responsibilities, or obligations.

According to self-discrepancy theory, throughout one's lifespan an individual precludes sudden, adverse events or punishments by learning to fulfill duties and obligations. Over time the consolidation of these forms an abstracted set of principles designated as an *ought-self guide* (Higgins, 1987). When individuals feel as if these duties or obligations are not fulfilled they experience an impending sense of punishment, experienced as agitation and anxiety (Strauman, 1989). Individuals also learn the achievements and aspirations they must realize in order to secure rewards, such as love and approval. These achievements and aspirations, similar to the formation of the *ought-self guide*, also coalesce to form an abstracted set of principles, referred to as an *ideal-self guide* (Higgins, 1987). When individuals feel that they might not be able to achieve these aspirations, they anticipate the withdrawal of these rewards – a gradual rather than an abrupt sense of loss – experienced as dejection, disappointment, and depression (Strauman, 1989).

Building upon and advancing self-discrepancy theory, Higgins (1997) suggests that the behaviors and goals associated with a focus on the actual/ ideal discrepancy are

different from the behaviors and goals associated with a focus on the actual/ought discrepancy. In reference to regulatory focus theory, Higgins (1997) then defines a promotion focus in which the individual reduces the discrepancy between the actual and ideal selves through specific types of actions. Higgins subsequently defines a prevention focus, in which the goal of the individual is the reduction of the discrepancy between the actual and ought self. Prevention focus is consistent with avoidance orientation in that the prevention focused individual steers away from undesired outcomes, resulting in increased motivation if failure is imminent. Somewhat counter to the prevention focus, promotion focus is consistent with an orientation towards desired outcomes, resulting in increased motivation if success is achievable (Higgins, 1997).

Whether individuals strive to fulfill their duties or aspirations (a striving designated here as regulatory focus), depends on both their disposition as well as the immediate context. For instance, some authority figures (such as parents or teachers), tend to apply punitive actions rather than withdrawal rewards in order to moderate the behavior of children. These same children will then evolve to become motivated to satisfy their ought-self guide, called a prevention focus (Higgins, 1997; 1998). When authority figures choose to not act punitively, withdrawing rewards instead, children largely gain a promotion focus, becoming driven toward realizing their ideal-self guide (Higgins, 1997, 1998). Thusly, individuals can adopt two distinct strategies or orientations when they pursue goals (Higgins, 1997; 1998; 1999). They can pursue aspirations in the future, striving to maximize gains in a promotion centered line of tact, or, alternatively, they can strive to fulfill their immediate duties and obligations,

attempting to preventatively minimize shortfalls. These two orientations significantly affect the behavior, emotions, cognitions, and preferences of individuals both in and out of the selling context. Research also suggests that an individual's regulatory focus has two components: a chronic component based on dispositional factors such as life events, and a situational component that can be manipulated or primed through situational cues (Higgins, 1987; Brockner et al., 2004).

Extant research utilizes regulatory focus in an effort to understand the behavior of individuals responded to manipulated situational cues, but almost exclusively works with student samples. Only a few empirical studies incorporating regulatory focus have been conducted with a sample of working professionals (Wallace & Chen, 2005; 2006). This lack of empirical fieldwork seriously limits applications of regulatory focus theory in marketing and sales management research. Such a deficiency may contribute to slow adoptions of regulatory focus in these fields. In contrast, scholars in psychology and consumer psychology have applied regulatory focus theory extensively.

This research into regulatory focus theory applications and adaptive selling behavior is important as it assists in understanding the influence of different selling behaviors upon a given buyer's regulatory orientation, or the idiosyncratic tendency of individuals to focus either on avoiding failure or on approaching success (Higgins, 1997; Higgins & Silberman, 1998). This foremost study utilizes regulatory focus theory to help understand how buyers can be influenced by various types of adaptive selling behaviors. More specifically, this research attempts to identify the adaptive selling behaviors that will resonate with buyers on the basis of their regulatory orientation.

2.4.2 Characteristics of Promotion vs. Prevention Focus

a) *Promotion focus*: Individuals with a promotion focus attend to goals related to ideals and growth or advancement (Higgins, 1997; 1998). As such, they tend to notice and recall information and emotions beneficial to success and positive outcomes, directing their actions toward promoting these desired outcomes (Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes, 1994; Higgins, Shah, & Friedman, 1997; Higgins & Tykocinski, 1992). Promotion-focused individuals pursue and engage in opportunities to grow, gain, or achieve aspirations while directing energy away from maintaining the status quo. This mindset likely manifests itself in cooperative and creative behaviors, going beyond minimum role expectations.

According to Fröster and his colleagues (Fröster, Higgins, & Bianco, 2003; Fröster & Higgins, 2005), the eagerness of a person in a promotion focus leads to a more risky goal achieving strategy and increased creativity. When people eagerly take risks in attaining certain goals, they usually respond quickly and efficiently. It logically follows that Promotion-focused people more likely adopt a rough and global method (closely related to the top-down method) of information search (Fröster, Grant, Idson, & Higgins, 2001; Fröster, Higgins, & Idson, 1998; Lee, 2003). All of these facets of the promotion focused mindset seem to lead to a more heuristic mode of information evaluation, in which a decision is taken rather quickly without a careful scrutinizing of all options. In this sense, promotion-focused individuals can be considered as "satisficers," people who do not go through the entire process of answering questions (Krosnick, 1991).

b) *Prevention focus*: Individuals with a prevention focus gravitate toward noticing and recalling information related to the costs of loss, failure, or punishment (Higgins & Tykocinski, 1992). Prevention-focused individuals thus likely value safety and follow rules (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007), approaching tasks with vigilance, and concerning themselves with accuracy (Fröster et al., 2003). Furthermore, prevention-focused individuals concern themselves with what they ought to do, acting out of obligation and in accordance with expectations (Higgins, 1997; 1998). Hence, individuals with prevention focus act in manners that avoid negative outcomes and comply with explicit expectations or policies (Higgins et al., 1994).

As they adhere to expectations and policies, prevention-focused individuals naturally employ a more systematic mode of evaluation (Pham & Higgins, 2005) in so much as they concentrate on loss avoidance. Their drive is to protect themselves against potential threats, creating a vigilance that is less willing to accept risks (Pham & Avnet, 2004). Therefore, they can be assumed to be accurate but slow (Fröster et al., 2003). Moreover, prevention-focused people possess risk-averse behaviors which lead to careful securitization of information. In other words, prevention-focused individuals rely on the substance of the message (Pham & Avnet, 2004).

Consider, for instance, two students with the same goal of receiving an "A" in a course (the same reference end-state). Assume further that they have similar expectations with respect to success versus failure (comparable anticipations of pleasant vs. painful outcomes). The difference between the promotion and prevention focuses would not reside in the students' desired end-state or expectations, but rather in their

strategic preferences for attaining the desired end-state. The promotion-focused student would be inclined to use eager approach strategies for obtaining the desired goal (e.g., reading non-required materials to gain extra credit), whereas the prevention-focused student would be inclined to use vigilant avoidance strategies for achieving the desired goal (e.g., being careful to finish all requirements on time). So, the students may still differ in whether they regard the goal as a matter of accomplishment or as a matter of security depending upon their focus orientation.

Similarly, two individuals could be equally apprehensive while choosing a gift, but one may be fearful that s(he) might not able to get "the perfect gift" (a failure to attain a desired end-state – promotion focus), whereas the other may be fearful that s(he) might end-up selecting "a totally inappropriate gift" (a failure to avoid an undesired end-state – prevention focus). In regulatory reference, then, approach and avoidance is conceptualized in terms of movement toward desired end-states (approach) or away from undesired end-states (avoidance). Accordingly, individuals who focus on a promotion approach are consistent with cultural adages such as: "nothing ventured, nothing gained" and "opportunity doesn't knock twice," while those who adhere to a prevention approach fall more in line with "better safe than sorry" and "look before you leap" (Taylor-Bianco & Schermerhorn, 2006).

The summary of fundamental differences between promotion focus and prevention focus is illustrated below in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Fundamental Differences between Promotion and Prevention Focus

	Promotion focus	Prevention focus
Individual's goals:	obtaining ideals (hope and aspirations)	fulfilling oughts (duties and obligations)
Motivational orientations:	approach advancements/gains	assure safety and non-losses
Goal pursuit:	avoid non-fulfillment/ non-gains	avoid danger/ losses
Approach strategies:	eagerness (eager to attain advancement and gains)	vigilance (vigilant to ensure safety and non-losses)
	ensure "hits" and minimizing "errors of omission"	ensure "correct rejections" and minimizing "errors of commission"
Response:	holistic fast and efficient feeling based strategy	analytic processing slow but accurate cognition based strategy
Information search:	rough and global way (top-down fashion)	local way (serial fashion)
Information evaluation:	heuristic mode	systematic mode
Emotional Responses to Success and Failure:	joy, cheerfulness, and satisfaction upon success, and dejection, discouragement, and disappointment upon failure	quiescence, calmness, and relaxation upon success, and agitation, tension, and unease upon failure
Characteristics:	satisficer, risk-taker	risk-avoider
Culture adages:	"Nothing ventured, nothing gained"*	"Better safe than sorry"*
	"Every cloud has a silver lining"*	"Look before you leap"*
	"Opportunity doesn't knock twice"*	"A stitch in time saves nine"*

Source: developed for this research (* from Taylor-Bianco & Schermerhorn, 2006)

Through these different perspectives of individuals focused on prevention vs. promotion, this study investigates imperative and pending questions of whether there are any selling behaviors that appear effective (higher preference) in promotion rather than

prevention focused buyers (and vice versa), and what the reactions of buyers (in the context of buyer's perception of relational quality) will be when the selling behaviors used are consistent with buyer preferences.

Using such unique perspectives as bringing individual differences to the fore in order to gain valuable insight into vital questions of effectiveness, it is arguable that individuals with a focus on prevention (e.g., preventing errors or punishment) behave differently from those with a focus on promotion (e.g., achieving growth or rewards) in the pursuit of a buying decision. Further, the study links regulatory focus theory to regulatory fit outcomes by proposing that the persuasiveness of adaptive selling behaviors (e.g., positive vs. negative framing information, various influence tactics, and selling orientations) can be enhanced by inducing a regulatory fit. By applying regulatory focus theory in an organizational buyer setting, business to business buyer's perceptions on different selling behaviors of salespersons in the purchasing task are properly addressed.

2.4.3 Regulatory Focus and Message Framing (Information Adaptation)

A number of studies have found that consumer regulatory focus plays an important role in processes involving persuasion, self-regulation, categorization, judgment, and choice (Haws et al., 2010). A variety of experimental protocols manipulate regulatory focus and highlight, in essence, that to activate a promotion or prevention focus researchers can increase the salience of gains or losses by emphasizing needs that relate to nurturance and achievement or safety and protection or priming either

aspirations or duties (Higgins et al., 1997; Cropanzano, Paddock, Rupp, Baggerd, & Baldwin, 2008).

To activate a prevention focus, researchers sometimes ask individuals to reflect upon their duties and obligations. To activate a promotion focus, researchers can ask individuals to reflect upon their hopes and aspirations (Leonardelli, Lakin, & Arkin, 2007; Vaughn, Baumann, & Klemann, 2008; Molden & Higgins, 2008). Since promotion focus is characterized by a strategy of approaching matches to the desired end-state, it should foster a preferential search for positive (rather than negative) signals about the available options. In contrast, prevention focus is characterized by a strategy of avoiding mismatches to the desired end-state, and it should thus conversely foster a search for negative signals about the options in the situation. Consistent with this prediction, earlier research in persuasion finds that promotion focused individuals are more influenced by positive affective cues than by negative affective cues. In contrast, prevention-focused individuals are more influenced by negative substantive information (weak product claims) than by positive substantive information (strong product claims) (Pham & Avnet, 2004).

In the context of information adaptation, specifically message framing, promotion and prevention focused participants react differently to negative versus positive frames in comparative brand advertising (Jain et al., 2007). Previous study found that promotion focused individuals are more persuaded by appeals framed in terms of gains, while prevention focused participants are persuaded to a greater degree by appeals framed in terms of losses (Lee & Aaker, 2004). These findings are consistent with the

previous research on advertisements; the antismoking advertisements are more persuasive when the viewers' regulatory focus and a message's valence (positive or negative) are congruent (Zhao & Pechmann, 2007). Similarly, positive framing advertisements are more persuasive to promotion focus individuals than negative advertisements (e.g., Schneider, Salovey, Pallonen, Mundorf, Smith, & Steward, 2001) and negative framing advertisements are more persuasive than positive advertisements when the advertisements are prevention focused, especially when the advertisements are targeted at prevention-focused viewers (e.g., Wong & McMurray, 2002).

While regulatory focus theory is increasingly used in consumer research and consumer psychology to explain a wide range of consumer phenomena (Pham & Higgins, 2005) and previous studies have found the influence of persuasive message valence (positive or negative) on customers in different regulatory foci, the current study is among the initial attempt to examine the influence of various sales influence tactics and selling orientations on B2B buyers in these different regulatory foci, proposing that proper use of adaptive selling behaviors will create regulatory fit, and, in turn, improve regulatory fit outcomes.

2.4.4 The Concept of Regulatory Fit

Regulatory focus shapes the preferences of individuals. When individuals adopt a promotion focus they prefer creative and exploratory activities in which they can achieve some form of gain, but shun tasks in which they need to identify and address shortfalls. When individuals adopt a prevention focus, however, they prefer to redress shortfalls rather than facilitate gains (Freitas & Higgins, 2002). These observations can be

ascribed to the principal of regulatory fit (Higgins, 2006; 2005; 2000), as regulatory fit

occurs when individuals derive value from using strategic means, during goal pursuit,

that align with their underlying regulatory orientations (Avnet & Higgins, 2006).

In the case of using strategic means to pursue a goal, regulatory focus theory

aims to explain the relationship between the way in which goals are pursued and

customer regulatory orientation toward the promotion or prevention focuses. Individuals

can adopt one of two means (eagerness or vigilance) to fulfill promotion or prevention

goals. Specifically, when customers engage in activities that are consistent with their

regulatory orientation, they experience heightened motivation and an "it just feels right"

sensation (Aaker & Lee, 2006). Eagerness refers to the inclination to enact behaviors that

maximize hits, as defined by signal detection theory – theory of how people make

decisions about uncertain events, rather than minimize false alarms. Conversely,

vigilance refers to the inclination to minimize false alarms (Crowe & Higgins, 1997).

Previous research has shown that individual regulatory focus is an important

determinant of customer behavior (Yeo & Park, 2006). People with distinct regulatory

goals, i.e. promotion and/or prevention goals, selectively pay attention to and rely on

information that helps them attain their goals (Pham & Avnet, 2004). Regulatory fit (non-

fit) occurs when the manner of goal pursuit sustains (disrupts) the individual's regulatory

orientation; as a result, their motivational intensity during goal pursuit is intensified

(diminished) (Idson, Liberman, & Higgins, 2004). Whenever individuals adopt a

promotion focus, they experience a sense of congruence, referred to as regulatory fit,

whenever they demonstrate eagerness. In contrast, when individuals adopt a prevention

focus, they experience this sense of fit whenever they demonstrate vigilance (Vaughn, Malik, Schwartz, Petrova, & Trudeau, 2006; Cesario et al., 2004; Freitas & Higgins, 2002). This affective experience promotes persistence and satisfaction (Higgins et al., 2003).

In relation to the effective experience, regulatory fit occurs when the context or situation uses an approach preferred by the individual's regulatory orientation; the individual "feels right," and this compatibility should have positive motivational consequences. When the situation and the individual regulatory orientation are in a state of misfit, the incompatibility should have negative motivational consequences as the individual feels "wrong" (Camacho et al., 2003). Other studies indicate that people react more positively to activities that can sustain their regulatory focus, as people are more discerning between strong and weak arguments when the message frame fits their regulatory focus (Lee & Aaker, 2004). People pay more attention to and base their product/service evaluation on information that is relevant to their regulatory concerns (Pham & Avnet, 2004). This value experienced from regulatory fit may in turn be transferred to a subsequent evaluation of an object (Higgins et al., 2003). For example, a previous study from Higgins and his colleagues (2003) found that participants gave the same coffee mug a higher price if they had chosen it with a strategy that fit their orientation (eager strategy/ promotion; vigilant strategy/ prevention) than a strategy that did not fit. They experienced the "feeling right" sensation due to the alignment of their orientations with the task at hand, and misattributed the source of feeling to a subsequent

product/service evaluation. Regulatory fit thus produces a sense of correctness and importance about what one is doing (Higgins et al., 2003).

A fit between one's regulatory focus and the manner in which a choice is made, then, increases the perceived value of products/services (Avnet & Higgins, 2006). Thus, and with obvious importance to the seller-buyer relationship, promotion-(prevention) focused people value a chosen product/service more when they are asked to use their feelings (reasons) to make a choice. The differences in the monetary values assigned to a product/service are a result of the positive feeling people experience when adopting a strategy that fits their regulatory focus. This is consistent with the earlier work of Pham and Avnet (2004), showing that promotion (prevention) focus is associated with an increase in reliance on affective (substantive) responses and a decrease in reliance on substantive (affective) responses.

In summary, regulatory focus plays an important role in processes involving persuasion, self-regulation, categorization, judgment, and choice (e.g., Zhao & Pechmann, 2007; Lee & Aaker, 2004). Recent studies on the application of regulatory focus theory emphasize the importance of regulatory fit in relation to outcomes. Prior research documents the consequences of the fit between these two factors. When the manner of goal pursuits fit customer regulatory focuses, they (1) place a higher value on their chosen objects, (2) are more motivated and enjoy more goal pursuits, and (3) feel-right about their goal pursuits (Hong & Lee, 2008; Avnet & Higgins, 2006; Wang & Lee, 2006; Zhou & Pham, 2004).

The summary of the consequences of regulatory fit is illustrated in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2 The Consequences of Regulatory fit

Source: developed for this research

Despite the aforementioned findings, regulatory fit theory is still "in the stage of discovering new ideas and discoveries" (Kruglanski, 2006, Avnet & Higgins, 2006). Thus, the current study attempts to mine regulatory fit theory for important "discoveries" and revelations by further examining the consequences of regulatory fit and regulatory fit outcome with a concentration on assessing the influence of various selling behaviors on regulatory fit outcomes.

The present research extends prior research by examining how regulatory fit outcomes influence buyer's perceptions of relational quality. In the framework used, "seller" refers to the party that implements the relational effort in the hope of strengthening its relationship with the "buyer," and the relational quality captures the buyer's perception of its relationship with the seller.

2.5 Overview of Relational Quality

Relationship marketing has experienced explosive growth in the past two or so decades – both in business practice and as a focus of academic research (Srinivasan & Moorman, 2005). Relationship marketing is defined as "all marketing activities directed towards establishing, developing, and maintaining successful relational exchanges" (Morgan & Hunt, 1994, p. 22). Most research and practice assumes that relationship marketing efforts generate stronger customer relationships that enhance seller performance outcomes, including sales growth, share, and profits (Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Crosby et al., 1990; Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002).

The abundant empirical research on relationship marketing attempts to understand better the relationship marketing strategies that are most effective for building strong relationships, the outcomes that are most affected by customer relationships, and the conditions in which relationship marketing is most effective for generating positive seller outcomes. Advancing understanding of the primary drivers of relationship marketing effectiveness can increase the return of firm investments dramatically, and provide researchers with insights into ways to build more comprehensive models of the influence of relationship marketing on performance (Reinartz & Kumar, 2003).

Previous studies on relationship marketing find that relational quality is one of the key variables influencing a successful long-term relationship (Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Crosby et al., 1990; Bejou, Wray, & Ingram, 1996). Building up from Dwyer, Schurr, and Oh's (1987) and seminal article on relationships by Crosby and colleagues (1990), for example, studied many aspects of relational quality, and perceive it as a buyer trust in a

salesperson and satisfaction in the relationship. Although a relationship is, by its very nature, two sided and both parties typically share in the benefits of a strong relationship, some antecedents and outcomes may have differential effects according to the measurement perspective (Palmatier, Dant, Grewal, & Evans, 2006).

However, the existing literature offers a wide range of antecedents for these relational mediators, and researchers disagree about which one best captures the characteristics of a relational exchange that influences performance. For example, Morgan and Hunt (1994) proposed that trust and commitment are both key to predicting exchange performance, whereas others suggest that either trust (Doney & Cannon, 1997; Sirdeshmukh et al., 2002) or commitment (Anderson & Weitz, 1992; Gruen, Summers, & Acito, 2000; Jap & Ganesan, 2000) alone are critical relational constructs. Given these important aspects of relationship marketing and the advantages of its application to the buyer-seller relationship, this research adopts terminology to identify the perspective of each construct relative to its relational quality.

2.5.1 Relational Quality through Relational Communication

From the relational communication perspective, communication is a negotiated process through which communicators reciprocally define their interpersonal relationships (Stohl & Redding, 1987). Relational communication theorists thus regard messages and relationships as interwoven (Millar & Rogers, 1987; Montgomery, 1992) in that messages convey not only referential meaning, but also relational meaning in relationship interpretation (Fairhurst, Rogers, & Sarr, 1987).

Consistent with social penetration theory (Taylor & Altman, 1987) and with Gabarro's (1987; 1990) relationship model, relational communication evolves from superficial to deeper levels as affiliation develops. Over time, interactants move from tentative, exploratory forms of communication through stages where individuals exercise less caution, reveal more personality, become more friendly and casual, and eventually come to predict and interpret each other's behavior rapidly and accurately with sensitivity to nuance. Relational message properties, then, are attributes of dyadic messages that define and signal the progress of relational development. Relational messages indicate how two or more people regard each other, their relationship, or themselves within the context of their relationship (Burgoon & Hale, 1987). Properties of relational messages are distinct continua along which relational communication can be classified.

Given the continuum of relational messages, relational communication research provides a number of measurable constructs addressing the relational content of exchanged messages. "Informality" refers to the verbal tone of exchanged messages, ranging from formal or decorous at one extreme to informal or casual on the other (Burgoon & Hale, 1987). "Composure" describes the extent to which messages are imbued with (or lack) signs of apprehension, anxiety, or worry about the communication encounter (Burgoon & Hale, 1987). "Empathy" is classified as an operation, the extent to which communication conveys emotional sensitivity and reflects accurate other-person perception (Buck, 1989, Miller & Steinberg, 1975). "Immediacy and affection" is the extent to which messages include explicit expressions of liking and attraction to the other dyad member (Burgoon & Hale 1987; Hinde, 1979). "Self-disclosure" refers to the

volume of information that is communicated to which the other party would not otherwise have access (Greenhalgh & Chapman, 1998; Miller & Steinberg, 1975). As relational attributes of messages, these features specify how buyers and sellers interpret and define their interpersonal relationships. All of which is crucial in understanding the complex relationships involved in the selling interaction, and for proper use of adaptive selling behaviors.

2.5.2 Buyer's Perception of Relational Quality

The exchange of relational messages between the buyer and seller defines the nature of their discourse (Burgoon, Buller, Hale, & deTurck, 1984), and sets the pattern for future buyer-seller interaction. One approach of this study is to investigate buyer's perceptions of the relational quality between buyer-seller. Relational quality will lead buyers and sellers to expedite decisions, search for value-added opportunities, and draw on their experiences to date as the basis for their expectations regarding future behaviors (Arino, Torre, & Ring, 2001). Based on perception-centered approaches, social interaction assumes that individuals treat others as they perceive them and not as they really are (Jones, 1990). Of special interest here are the relational quality perceptions, or cognitive appraisals, by individuals regarding the status and quality of the interpersonal relationship between dyad members. Relational quality perceptions are at once products of one's perceived social environment, and the basis for decisions regarding whether or not to participate in social situations, evaluations of others within those situations, and choices regarding communication strategy (Miller, Cody, & McLaughlin, 1994).

Initially, buyer-seller relational quality may be neutral, exhibiting neither positive nor negative levels of confidence. However, as the relationship unfolds, relational quality evolves in positive or in negative directions, which are identified here as four buyer's perception exemplars – closeness, familiarity, relax, and receptivity— that contribute to and are determined by relational messages and patterns:

a) *Closeness* to and interaction with sellers is enhanced by immediacy and affection behaviors since they reduce psychological distance and physical distance (or both) between communicators, increase overall sensory stimulation and arousal, and promote liking and attraction (Mehrabian, 1981). Brown (1990) notes that establishing a likable and attractive image is of significant importance for sellers. Nonverbal immediacy behaviors are useful in this regard because they display warmth and positive regard in a way that is likely not consciously interpreted by the buyer but felt. Therefore, buyers seldom see these subtle moves as self-aggrandizing or ingratiation.

Scholars have identified a range of these sometimes subtle nonverbal and other verbal behaviors that communicate immediacy (Baringer & McCroskey, 2000; Gorham, 1988; Andersen & Andersen, 1982; Mehrabian, 1981). Immediacy includes nonlinguistic approach behaviors, signals of availability for communication, and communication of interpersonal closeness. Nonverbal immediacy behaviors include reducing physical distance, displaying relaxed postures and movements, using gestures, smiling, using vocal variety, and engaging in eye contact during interactions. Verbal immediacy behaviors include

using personal examples, asking questions, using humor, addressing others by name, praising others, initiating discussion, and using inclusive pronouns (e.g., "we" vs. "I").

    b) *Familiarity or being alike* is derived from the degree to which communicators stress similarities. As relationships develop or grow, the communication of the partners becomes more similar and smoothes (Knapp, 1984). Depth of knowledge about personal information may increase, as is evidenced through self-disclosure. Therefore, self-disclosure is an example of similarity and depth in the relationship. Similarity and depth-superficiality are highly interrelated, and both are related to attraction. Similarity in this context refers to the extent to which buyers and sellers signal being alike; depth-superficiality refers to the degree of familiarity that is stressed. Similarity is attractive for both players because it reduces uncertainty and promotes trust (Busch & Wilson, 1976), which enhances affiliation (Spiro, Perreault, & Reynolds, 1977) and allows people to become more familiar. Buyer-seller similarity positively influences sales across four dimensions: (1) similarity of expertise in product use experience, (2) similarity in attitudes, (3) similarity of physical and demographic variables, and (4) similarity of affiliation characteristics or communicator style. Crosby and his colleagues (1990) do report that similarity in expertise and demographic variables may be most influential in retail settings and other discrete sales interactions, and relatively unimportant in an ongoing sales relationship. Nonetheless, salespeople are generally advised to

present themselves as similar to buyers by adapting to customer topic preferences (Micali, 1971), physical characteristics (Crosby et al., 1990; Evans, 1963), or communication styles (Dion & Notarantonio, 1992; Miles et al., 1990; Weitz, 1978). In fact, the wide-spread movement toward adaptive selling, and a contingency approach further illustrates the sales industry's belief that buyers prefer relational messages of similarity.

c) *Relax* manifests through formal/ informal forms of address communicator use (lexical surrogates such as "hmmmmm" or "yuck"), and by overall use of formal expressions. Applying Sheth's (1973) tripartite model of communication style, which differentiates between buyer's self, task, and interaction orientation, informal salespeople tend to be social interaction oriented while formal salespeople tend to be task oriented. Drawing further on Sheth's definition of task oriented sales people as those who are concerned with efficiency, controlling time, costs, effort, and making the sale, Williams and Spiro (1985) found that task oriented salespeople do not do well with any customer types (task, self, or interaction oriented). In contrast, Brown, Boya, Humphreys, and Widing (1993) found both low and high socializing buyers both focus on task-related issues and rate social issues as relatively unimportant in a sales call.

d) *Receptivity* results from key expression of self-disclosure. Non-competitive strategies that show rapport, openness, and the need to be trusted are additional indicators of this dimension. Self-disclosure is significantly related to vocational esteem for selling/closing as a salesperson that feels comfortable in the

selling/closing aspects of a sales job also appears to be more likely to disclose information about him/herself and the selling firm. This disclosure of information can lead to a stronger relationship between the salesperson and customer, and then obviously to superior sales performance. It may make it easier to ask for a sale as well, since the buyer and salesperson have developed some level of rapport through mutual disclosure (Boles, 2000).

This study proposes that regulatory fit outcomes (e.g., feel-right, arousal, and perceived value) are positively related to buyer's perceptions of relational quality (e.g., closeness, familiarity, relax, and receptivity). The following section establishes the conceptual framework of this study and the hypotheses that highlight the major elements of adaptive selling behaviors. The major research domains, adaptive selling behaviors, influence tactics, regulatory fit and relational quality, group the propositions and hypotheses in the model.

2.6 Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses

This study attempts to explore adaptation sales influence tactics and selling orientations in hopes of identifying adaptive selling behaviors that resonate with the regulatory orientations of buyers. The ultimate goal of this endeavor is to present a guideline that enhances the effectiveness of sales adaptive behaviors between groups of buyers who are dissimilar in their regulatory orientation. The model posits how different regulatory orientations are partial to different selling behaviors used by a salesperson.

2.6.1 Sales Influence Tactics and Buyer's Regulatory Orientation

The evolution of theory and research in interpersonal behavior began with the notion that people consciously manage the impressions they convey to others in interpersonal interactions. People act out roles, trying to establish the identities they wish to convey, which can result in personal gain. In addition, people modify their chosen image and the strategy used to present it, decisions which are primarily based on the situation they are in and the outcomes they hope to achieve (Goffman, 1955). This dramaturgical perspective strongly influenced the behavioral sciences and subsequent streams of related work on self-presentation, impression management, influence tactics, and organizational politics, of which remain dynamic research areas to date.

In the same vein or very similar to the dramaturgy of self-modification are influence tactics, which are the mechanisms through which salespeople persuade buyers in interactions (Brown, 1990; Spiro & Perreault, 1979). In order to be effective, a salesperson must influence buyers to be attentive in persuasion, engage in proposals, and make buying decisions. The success of an attempt by one person (the "agent") to influence another person ("the target") depends to a great extent on the influence tactics used by the agent, or the agent's ability to self-modify.

Given the need for self-modification in the sales interaction, it becomes valuable (if not necessary) to classify influence tactics according to their primary purpose and time frame. Proactive tactics are used in an attempt to influence someone to carry out an immediate request, and they are especially important in situations where the agent has little authority over the target(s). Influence tactics found in earlier research include

rational persuasion, exchange, ingratiation, pressure, coalition, and upward appeals (Erez, Rim, & Keider, 1986; Kipnis et al., 1980; Schriesheim & Hinkin, 1990). Yukl and his colleagues subsequently identified several additional tactics, including inspirational appeals, consultation, personal appeals, legitimating, collaboration, and apprising (Yukl, Chavez, & Seifert, 2005; Yukl, Falbe, & Youn, 1993; Yukl & Tracey, 1992; Yukl & Falbe, 1990).

Some types of influence tactics can clearly be used for more than one purpose, but some tactics may not be equally effective for different purposes (Yukl et al., 2005). Influence tactics can be studied with several research methods, including coding of qualitative descriptions of influence tactics; (e.g., from critical incidents or diaries), manipulation of influence tactics in laboratory experiments (e.g., with actors, role play exercises, or scenarios), and manipulation of influence tactic in field experiments (e.g., with feedback and training). Even so, only a relatively small number of studies have examined the relative effectiveness of different influence tactics (Barry & Shapiro, 1992; Yukl & Tracey, 1992; Yukl et al., 1996), and an even more minute number of studies explore the way salespeople use influence tactics to influence buyers in the business context (McFarland et al., 2006; Plouffe & Cote, 2008). Despite the fact that influence tactics have been widely studied, there is little agreement as to the exact labels to be used for each tactic. Therefore, in an effort to provide consistency throughout this study, the labels of rational persuasion, consultation, inspirational appeals, personal appeals, collaboration, apprising, ingratiation, exchange, legitimating tactics, pressure, and coalition tactics that are developed by Yukl and his colleagues (2008) have been

adopted. As these labels represent a broad segment of the influence tactic literature they are accepted widely and well used. The definitions of the eleven proactive influence tactics are provided in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Definition of Eleven Influence Tactics

1. Rational persuasion – The agent uses logical arguments and factual evidence to show that a request or proposal is feasible and relevant for important task objectives.
2. Consultation – The agent asks the target person to suggest improvements or help plan a proposed activity or change for which the target person's support is desired.
3. Inspirational appeals – The agent appeals to the target's values and ideals or seeks to arouse the target person's emotions to gain commitment for a request or proposal.
4. Personal appeals – The agent asks the target to carry out a request, support a proposal out of friendship, or asks for a personal favor before saying what it is.
5. Collaboration – The agent offers to provide assistance or necessary resources if the target will carry out a request or approve a proposed change.
6. Apprising – The agent explains how carrying out a request or supporting a proposal will benefit the target personally, or help to advance the target's career.
7. Ingratiation – The agent uses praise and flattery before or during an attempt to influence the target person to carry out a request or support a proposal.
8. Exchange – The agent offers something the target person wants, or offers to reciprocate at a later time, if the target will do what the agent requests.
9. Legitimating tactics – The agent seeks to establish the legitimacy of a request or to verify that he/she has the authority to make it.
10. Pressure – The agent uses demands, threats, frequent checking, or persistent reminders to influence the target to do something.
11. Coalition tactics – The agent enlists the aid of others, or uses the support of others, as a way to influence the target to do something.

Source: Yukl et al. (2008)

This study extends the existing research by examining sales influence tactics that resonate with buyer's regulatory orientation. It can be largely agreed that individuals with a promotion focus not only attend to goals related to ideals and growth or

advancement (Higgins, 1997; 1998), but tend to notice and recall information and emotions related to the benefits of success and positive outcomes as well, directing their actions toward promoting these desired outcomes (Higgins et al., 1997; Higgins et al., 1994; Higgins & Tykocinski, 1992). As such, promotion-focused individuals direct their energy toward pursuing opportunities to grow, gain, or achieve aspirations, while directing it away from maintaining the status quo. This mindset is likely to manifest itself in cooperative and creative behavior that goes beyond minimum role expectations.

The extents to which salespersons appeal to buyer values and ideals can be defined as inspirational appeal in these respects. When salespersons exhibit inspirational appeals they arouse buyer ideals and emotions in order to encourage commitment to sales interactions and purchasing decisions. Buyers with a promotion focus, therefore, should be motivated by inspirational appeal behaviors. Promotion-focused individuals pursue gain and aspirations, which include love and approval. These personal appeal behaviors should induce a promotion-focused buyer to pursue unconscious desires of social approval and affection. This type of case thus requires salespersons to employ personal appeals that demonstrate a close relationship with buyers by asking them to make purchasing decisions out of friendship, or by asking for a personal favor during such a sales interaction.

Promotion focused individuals are sensitive to the presence or absence of positive outcomes and attempt to minimize errors of omission (Crowe & Higgins, 1997). Buyers with promotion focus should be triggered by sales collaboration tactics as well as by apprising tactics. Buyers expect to gain a salesperson's assistance or necessary

resources with collaboration tactics, which will benefit a buyer's career advancement when making a buying decision. Buyers thus anticipate the opportunity for advancement has not been missed and/or rapid progress is being made toward their goal, resulting from apprising tactics.

Additionally, when salespersons use praise and flattery (ingratiation tactics) before or during sales interactions, they should be more attractive to promotion-focused buyers as the ingratiation tactic will increase buyer's perceptions of success, achievement, and social status. In the context of an exchange tactic, a salesperson offers something that the buyer wants at a later time. Promotion-focused individuals are sensitive to positive outcomes or gain; therefore, the offer of something in exchange should activate the promotion orientation of buyers.

In summary, this study proposes the idea that promotion-focused buyers prefer influence tactics that persuade the buyer of positive gain, achievement, inspiration, and cooperation, which are inspirational appeals, personal appeals, collaboration, apprising, ingratiation, and exchange tactics. This leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's (a) inspirational appeals, (b) personal appeals, (c) collaboration, (d) apprising, (e) ingratiation, and (f) exchange on regulatory fit outcomes (e.g., feel-right, arousal, perceived value).

In other words,

> *H1a: The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's inspirational appeals on regulatory fit outcomes.*

H1b: The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's personal appeals on regulatory fit outcomes.

H1c: The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's collaboration on regulatory fit outcomes.

H1d: The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's apprising on regulatory fit outcomes.

H1e: The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's ingratiation on regulatory fit outcomes.

H1f: The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's exchange on regulatory fit outcomes.

In reference to prevention focus, in many ways the counterpart to a promotion focus, individuals with a prevention focus tend to notice and recall information related to the costs of loss, failure, or punishment according to regulatory focus theory (Higgins & Tykocinski, 1992). Prevention focused individuals are therefore likely to value safety and to follow rules (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). As individuals with prevention focus act in ways that avoid negative outcomes and comply with explicit expectations or policies (Higgins et al., 1994), they employ a more systematic mode of evaluation (Pham & Higgins, 2005). Since they employ this type of mode evaluation, risk averse behavior leads them to carefully scrutinize information, or, in other words, to rely on the substance of a message in an attempt to minimize errors of commission (Pham & Avnet, 2004). Hence, when a salesperson uses logical arguments and factual evidence to show that a

purchasing decision is feasible and relevant for important task objectives, prevention-focused buyers should be moved by a salesperson's rational persuasion.

Prevention-focused buyers also tend to take all available information into consideration when making a decision, attempting to maximize the accuracy of a decision's outcome. Therefore, when a salesperson utilizes a consultation tactic by asking buyers to suggest improvements, changing details in a sales offer accordingly should minimize possible loss or failure in prevention-focused buying decisions.

Since prevention-focused buyers are likely to follow rules and regulations in a buying decision, a proposal presented by a salesperson as consistent with official rules and policies or with a prior contract employs legitimating tactics that comply with the risk-averse behavior of the prevention-focused buyer. When a salesperson uses pressure by demanding, threatening, frequent checking, or persistent reminding to influence buyers, prevention-focused buyers will tend to avoid negative outcomes by agreeing with this salesperson. The strength of an individual's prevention focus predicts their tendency to avoid "out-group" members (Shah, Brazy, & Higgins, 2004). When a salesperson asks someone to help influence buyers to make a purchase decision, these coalition tactics should activate the prevention-focused buyer sense of punishment or disapproval avoidance from disagreement with others.

In sum, this study proposes that prevention-focused buyers prefer influence tactics that avoid negative outcomes (e.g., loss or punishment) and comply with safety and rules. This leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2: The greater a buyer's prevention focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's (a) consultation, (b) rational persuasion, (c) legitimating tactics, (d) pressure, and (e) coalition tactics on regulatory fit outcomes (e.g., feel-right, arousal, perceived value).

Specifically,

H2a: The greater a buyer's prevention focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's consultation tactic on regulatory fit outcomes.

H2b: The greater a buyer's prevention focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's rational persuasion tactic on regulatory fit outcomes.

H2c: The greater a buyer's prevention focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's legitimating tactics on regulatory fit outcomes.

H2d: The greater a buyer's prevention focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's pressure tactic on regulatory fit outcomes.

H2e: The greater a buyer's prevention focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's coalition tactic on regulatory fit outcomes.

2.6.2 Selling Orientations and Buyer's Regulatory Orientation

A promotion focus emphasizes the presence or absence of positive outcomes, whereas a prevention focus emphasizes the presence or absence of negative outcomes (Higgins, 1997). Individuals with a promotion focus approach desired end-states by engaging in goal-relevant behaviors and flexible, explorative cognitive processing, whereas individuals with a prevention focus avoid undesired end-states by withdrawing from, avoiding and becoming particularly vigilant to relevant behaviors. In addition, they

engage in rigid and vigilant cognitive processing (Higgins et al., 1994). Research has also shown that promotion-focused individuals experience fit when they make decisions based on feelings, whereas prevention-focused individuals experience fit when they make their decisions based on reasons (Avnet & Higgins, 2006; Pham & Avnet, 2004).

Selling orientation is composed of the degree to which a salesperson is oriented toward customers, competitors, and services. Thus, a salesperson who adapts to emphasize customer orientation by focusing on customer needs should gain preference from promotion-focused buyers who pursue opportunities to gain or achieve positive outcomes. Similarly, a services-oriented salesperson who adapts or shifts focus to offering highest service quality and sharing information concerning offered services would increase attention from promotion-focused buyers. To avoid undesired end-states, individuals with a prevention focus take all available information into consideration in making a decision to ensure the accuracy of a decision's outcome. Therefore, the facts and features of competitor services that are emphasized by a competitor-oriented salesperson should be of interest to prevention-focused buyers.

From the above information, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 3: The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's customer-oriented and services-oriented selling orientation on regulatory fit outcomes (e.g., feel-right, arousal, perceived value).

Specifically,

H3a: The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's customer-oriented selling orientation on regulatory fit outcomes.

H3b: The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's services-oriented selling orientation on regulatory fit outcomes.

Hypothesis 4: The greater a buyer's prevention focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's competitor selling orientation on regulatory fit outcomes (e.g., feel-right, arousal, perceived value).

2.6.3 The Relationship between Regulatory Fit Outcomes and Relational Quality

When people pursue activities using strategies that fit with and sustain their current motivational orientation, they experience regulatory fit. Conversely, they experience regulatory non-fit when they pursue activities in manners that do not fit with and disrupt their current motivational orientation (Avnet & Higgins, 2006; Higgins, 2006; 2000). Given these facts, studies have illustrated that the subjective experiences arising from instances of regulatory fit are feelings of rightness about what one is doing, which are associated with perceptions of ease or fluency and feelings of confidence or correctness. In contrast, the subjective experiences arising from instances of regulatory non-fit cause feelings of wrongness about what one is doing, which are associated with perceptions of difficulty or hesitancy and the absence of confidence or feelings of

correctness (Camacho et al., 2003; Cesario et al., 2004; Freitas & Higgins, 2002; Higgins et al., 2003; Lee & Aaker, 2004).

Although these feelings of rightness or wrongness are positive or negative experiences, respectively, they are distinct from general moods in that they have specific implications for whether one's current feelings and evaluations are seen as valid or invalid by other people (Gawronski & Bodenhausen, 2006). Hence, whereas a positive mood may be typically blunt or counteract negative experiences (e.g., Raghunathan & Trope, 2002) because regulatory fit signifies the "rightness" of one's negative reaction, a fit experience can intensify a negative experience (e.g., Camacho et al., 2003; Cesario et al., 2004). Furthermore, many studies have empirically demonstrated that fit and non-fit experiences (and the effects they have on evaluative judgments), are empirically distinct from positive or negative moods, the pleasures of success or pains of failure, experiences of arousal, and perceptions of effectiveness (Cesario et al., 2004; Cesario & Higgins, 2008; Freitas & Higgins, 2002; Higgins et al., 2003; Vaughn et al., 2006; Vaughn, O'Rourke, Schwartz, Malik, Petkova, & Trudeau, 2006; Avnet & Higgins, 2006; Higgins, 2006). This research on the concept of regulatory fit (Higgins, 2000) indicates that the pursuit of a goal in a manner that "fits" a person's regulatory orientation creates a subjective experience of "feeling right" that increases the person's motivational engagement and enhances the perceived value of the goal pursuit (e.g., Avnet & Higgins, 2006; Wang & Lee, 2006).

Regulatory fit theory implies a broader conception of this notion of value. Whereas value has historically been associated with the hedonic experiences of pleasure

and pain, there is growing evidence that value also accrues from the strength of engagement (Higgins, 2006). Therefore a person's strength of engagement and the perceived value of an endeavor increase under conditions of regulatory fit.

Support for the prediction that fit between one's regulatory orientation and that the means of a goal pursuit leads to more favorable judgments has been found for a variety of responses, such as message persuasiveness (Cesario et al., 2004), liking of common objects (Higgins et al., 2003), and the willingness to pay for a chosen object (Avnet & Higgins, 2003). These results are explained by the meta-cognitive notion that fit leads to more favorable evaluations by prompting a positive subjective experience that is manifested as processing fluency (Lee & Aaker, 2004), feeling right (Higgins et al., 2003), and feeling confident (Cesario et al., 2004), which is transferred to the chosen object. Despite the abovementioned findings, regulatory fit theory is still in the stage of discovering new ideas and discoveries (Kruglanski, 2006; Avnet & Higgins, 2006).

The current study attempts to further examine the relationship between regulatory fit outcomes and relational quality. More specifically, this study proposed that regulatory fit outcomes (e.g., feel-right, arousal, and perceived value) are positively related to buyer's perception of relational quality (e.g., closeness, familiarity, relax, and receptivity). This paper defines relational quality as the extent to which buyers feel comfortable and are willing to rely on in dealing with sellers. This study identifies four buyer's perception exemplars –closeness, familiarity, relax, and receptivity— that are determined by relational quality. This leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 5: Regulatory fit outcomes (e.g., feel-right, arousal, and perceived value)

are positively related to buyer's perception on relational quality (e.g., closeness,

familiarity, relax, and receptivity).

The conceptual framework and hypotheses of this study are illustrated in Figure 2.3.
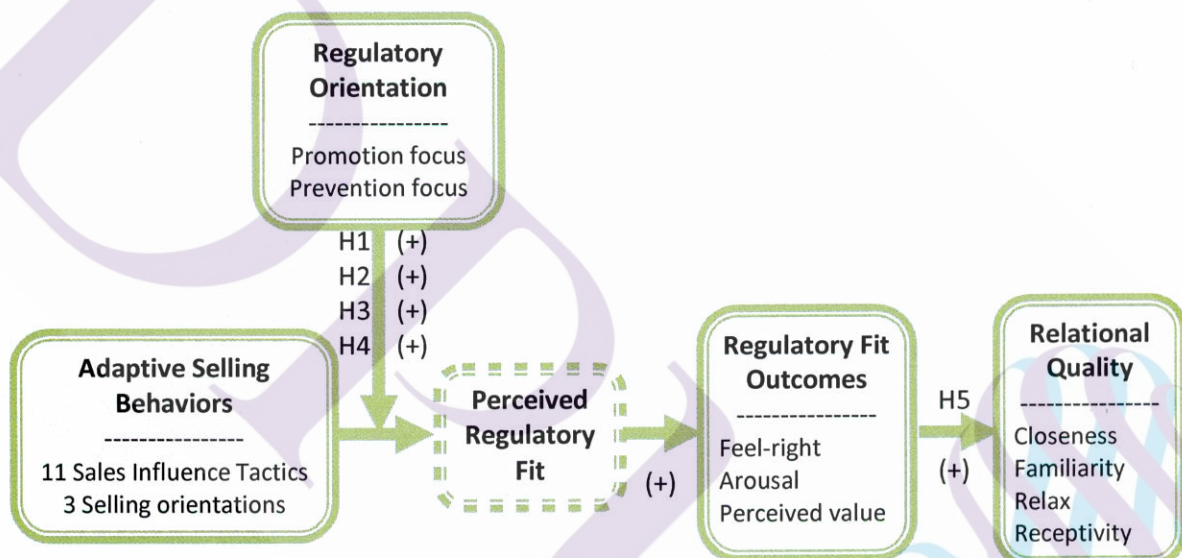
Figure 2.3 The Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses

Source: developed for this research

2.7 Summary

In this chapter, literature on adaptive selling behaviors is reviewed and explicated extensively to distinguish unanswered questions on how to effectively adapt

selling behaviors to different types of buyers. This line of investigation sheds light into this gap by pinpointing influence tactics and selling orientations which can be adapted in buyer-seller interactions. Additionally, by drawing on research from consumer psychology, literature on regulatory focus and regulatory fit is investigated and utilized in defining buyer characteristics. This study explains a variety of buyer decision-making phenomena on the basis of their regulatory orientation by these means.

Table 2.4 Summary of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1	The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's (a) inspirational appeals, (b) personal appeals, (c) collaboration, (d) apprising, (e) ingratiation, and (f) exchange on regulatory fit outcomes (e.g., feel-right, arousal, and perceived value).
Hypothesis 2	The greater a buyer's prevention focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's (a) consultation, (b) rational persuasion, (c) legitimating tactics, (d) pressure, and (e) coalition tactics on regulatory fit outcomes (e.g., feel-right, arousal, and perceived value).
Hypothesis 3	The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's customer-oriented and services-oriented selling orientation on regulatory fit outcomes (e.g., feel-right, arousal, and perceived value).
Hypothesis 4	The greater a buyer's prevention focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's competitor selling orientation on regulatory fit outcomes (e.g., feel-right, arousal, and perceived value).
Hypothesis 5	Regulatory fit outcomes (e.g., feel-right, arousal, and perceived value) are positively related to buyer's perception on relational quality (e.g., closeness, familiarity, relax, and receptivity).

Source: developed for this research

This chapter also further discusses how to improve buyer-seller relational quality, through regulatory fit outcomes like feel-right, arousal, and perceived value.

Finally, a conceptual model based on the literature review is presented (Figure 2.3) together with hypotheses summary (Table 2.4) which will be tested according to the methodology design in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODS

3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the conceptual framework and proposed hypotheses are presented based on review of literature of previous works. This chapter is a bridge leading to the achievement of this study's objectives (see chapter 1). It links the model, which is formed by evidence from the background of the study, literature reviews, and the proposed conceptual framework (chapter 2) with the results which will be presented in the following chapter (chapter 4).

With the intention to test the proposed hypotheses according to the conceptual framework, this chapter focuses on the research design and setting, measurement instrument preparation and testing, data collection, and data analysis issues regarding the study. Several stages of research design were used, which include pretesting to identify any ambiguous questions and terms or unclear direction, pilot testing to determine the validity and reliability of instruments used, and the main study to the test hypotheses in the context buyer-seller interaction.

In addition, data preparation and data analysis methodologies are described in detail.

3.2 Research Design and Setting

3.2.1 Critical Incident Technique

Gaining greater and more acute understanding of how the actions taken by buyers and sales representatives in the context of buyer's regulatory orientation and buyer's perceptions on regulatory fit outcomes when salespeople employed various selling behaviors signifies the importance of the study. The informants, all of whom are business individuals that interact with sales representatives, were asked to contemplate previous experiences with purchase decisions during the sales interaction in an application of critical incident technique.

The critical incident technique (Flanagan, 1954) is typically used for collecting direct observations of human behavior that have critical significance and meet methodically defined criteria. These observations are then tracked as incidents, which are subsequently used to solve practical problems and develop broad psychological principles. A critical incident can be described as one that makes a significant contribution—either positively or negatively—to an activity or phenomenon. Critical incidents are widely used in marketing research and can be gathered in various ways, but respondents are usually asked to tell a story about a previous experience (Gremler, 2004). For example, the critical incident technique is used to collect information about successful and unsuccessful upward and downward influence attempts by respondents in organizations (Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980) or to observe the evidence of tactics used by managers and professionals in business organizations (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl, Kim, & Falbe, 1996).

3.2.2 Population

The business of service is believed to be one of the main drivers of technical change and world economic progress (Czarnitzki & Spielkamp, 2003). For example, more than 97 percent of jobs added to U.S. payrolls between 1990 and 2002 were generated by the service-providing sector, including healthcare (Goodman & Steadman, 2002). From a more microcosmic perspective, buyer-seller relationship development within such rapidly growing service oriented business-to-business situations is very important due to extensive customization (Athanassopoulou, 2006) and greater information exchange. Evidence suggests that service business customers tend to remain with the same service provider if they are continually satisfied (Hong & Goo, 2004). The building and maintenance of such relationships nurtures greater financial performance, customer trust, commitment and satisfaction (Hsieh et al., 2002).

Compared with the large number of studies that have investigated regulatory focus in consumer markets, relatively few studies have investigated this subject in B2B. This empirical study serves to pioneer attempts to extend the context of regulatory orientation to business-to-business environment, specifically in B2B service companies. A B2B service company refers to a firm that provides services to any other firm (product or service). Not much research has addressed B2B service companies, though both academics and practitioners recognize that B2B buyer relationships are of critical importance as they are characterized by closer and deeper interfaces than consumer relationships. Customer service is likely to be especially crucial in seller-customer links wherein the core of what is exchanged is itself intangible (Parasuraman, 1998).

In this study, the purchasing agents in various industries that purchase services from the service providing companies are utilized. Because of the nature of service business, sales representatives from service-providing companies need to visit the client's location and interact with the client (buyers or purchasing agents) in order to present the available services and solutions the company provides. When this is done well, clients prefer a service provider, and research shows that once this is accomplished clients do not often change (Durvasula et al., 1999).

Since some large companies have buying centers or corporate policies involved in making purchasing decisions (Dawes et al., 1998), the population of this study is limited to small- and medium-sized companies. Inclusion criteria for this study included the following: participants had to be business individuals that interact with sales representatives employed by U.S. small- and medium-sized companies (fewer than 500 employees) who regularly contacted salespeople (at least once a week) from service-providing companies (e.g., logistic services – transportation & shipping, marketing services, meetings & accommodations).

3.2.3 Samples

For the pilot test and main study, business individuals who interact with sales representatives were recruited through an online survey service which provides a means of conducting online research by providing its clients with access to a database of over four million respondents worldwide. Panelists are recruited by the online survey service company only through invitation, allowing the control of demographics and the

maintaining of normal distributions of the sample characteristics. Upon enrollment, panelists earn rewards by participating in online research surveys. Panelist information is also validated upon enrollment in order to further ensure sample integrity. In terms of quality control, the panelists are checked for duplicate IPs (internet protocols) and domain spoofing. In addition, attention filters were added in the survey, which is very effective in removing "click-through" and people that are not paying attention to the survey.

The benefits of online surveys, including high data quality, fast collection, and low costs are well documented (Couper & Miller, 2008). In addition, online surveys often generate comparable or higher response rates as compared with post mail surveys, eliciting longer and more substantive qualitative answers than a post mail survey (Porter & Whitcomb, 2007). It is noted that there is concern about the potential response bias in online surveys because the intended population of research may not have equal access to computers and/or the internet. However, when the population of interest has easy access to the internet, which is the case in this study since participants are business to business agents, the results of the survey will not be biased by the online data collection method (Porter & Whitcomb, 2007).

3.3 Data Collection and Procedures

The study's data collection was organized into 3 stages; firstly, pretesting to identify any ambiguous questions and terms or unclear direction; secondly, pilot testing

to determine the validity and reliability of instruments used in this study; and thirdly, the main study to test hypotheses in the context of buyer-seller interaction.

Consistent with Podsakoff and colleagues' (2003) recommendations, the methodology and sample were specifically designed to reduce common methods biases. For instance, before administering the pretest, pilot test and main study questionnaire, participants were informed by cover letter that there were no correct or incorrect answers, and were further encouraged to respond as honestly as possible to reduce evaluation apprehension. This study also offered anonymity/confidentiality to reduce the chances of responses that were socially desirable, lenient, acquiescent, and consistent with how participants think researchers want them to respond.

To ensure that the decisions included in the study involved critical incident technique in buyer-seller interactions, informants were first asked to self-rate regulatory orientation and then asked to think about experiences of purchasing in which salesperson behaviors influenced the purchase or non-purchase decision. The respondents were asked to focus only on the sales interaction phase to minimize the contaminating effect of other elements and events which occur across the entire sales cycle and/or buyer-seller relationship as it evolves.

In each scenario, informants were asked to rate how often the salesperson employed various sales influence tactics and selling orientations. On the third step of the questionnaire the informants were asked to rate the degree to which they felt about a salesperson and/or sales interaction in a purchase/non-purchase situation, which is based

in buyer experiences of regulatory fit and perceptions of relational quality when a salesperson employs certain selling behaviors.

3.3.1 Pretest of Instrument

Pretesting and pilot testing are both essential for questionnaire design. These tests must always be conducted prior to the initial data collection phase in order to validate the instruments and to make sure that they work and are free of error (Compeau & Higgins, 1995). Accordingly, both a pretest and a pilot test were conducted to further enhance the content validity of this study. As for the pretest, the questionnaires were sent out via email to convenient samples consisting of companies currently involved in purchasing services and frequently interact (at least once a month) with sales representatives.

For pretesting, the questionnaire was divided into five sections (total 118 questions) with clear instructions in each part (see Appendix A). First, the informants were instructed to indicate how they typically perceive various aspects of their life when making purchasing decisions. In the second step, they were asked to think of interactions they had with salespeople during the past 6 to 12 months, and to choose one of two scenarios: when a) they did purchase, or b) they did not purchase services. The third step asked the participants to rate what tactics the salesperson used and then rate perceptions of the salesperson or their relationship in the fourth step. Finally, the participants were asked to give details on demographic information (e.g., gender, age, working experience, etc.).

The purpose of dividing the questionnaire into different sections was to garner a level of simplicity and to encourage the respondents to complete all that was asked of them. To shorten the length of the questionnaire, questions beginning with similar wordings were grouped together. To keep it easy to understand, technical terms, slang words, or jargon were not included and the language used was simple or more colloquial. To further refine the quality of the questionnaire the respondents were asked to identify any ambiguous questions and terms or unclear directions in each step. During this process wording was adapted as needed and ambiguous questions were clarified. For example, the definition of "ideal self" and "ought self" were added next to the corresponding items as a request from respondents for clarification of terms. The length of time for the respondents to complete the questionnaire was approximately 15-20 minutes.

A total of 22 questionnaires were received from a convenient sample who were currently involved in purchasing services and frequently interact (at least once a month) with sales representatives. The data obtained from the pretest was examined for completeness of responses. The descriptive analysis and Cronbach's alpha reliability were used to determine construct validity through the SPSS statistical program. Table 1 in Appendix D presents the profile of the respondents with regard to the number of employees, gender, age, and working experience.

Most of the measures included in the questionnaire showed adequate levels of internal consistency reliability, except apprising (.335) and coalition tactics (.481). The internal reliability for the measures ranged from .982 to .335. Appendix D (Table 2) reports the descriptive statistics for the measures used, including mean, standard

deviation, and internal consistency reliability for each measure. Of important note, however, is that although the respondents were asked to choose one of the two scenarios when a) there was a purchase and b) there was no purchase, all of the respondents in pretest chose the scenario "a".

To obtain more variation in the promotion and prevention measures, the pilot test and main study were redesigned to include both scenarios (when there was a purchase and when there was no purchase) in the survey. The five-step survey questionnaire in the pretest was extended into an eight-step survey questionnaire. This extension increased the length of the survey almost double (from 118 questions to 214 questions).

Based on internal consistency reliability and other criteria (e.g., ambiguity, jargon, duplicity), scale items were refined. Thus some items were deleted in the pilot test and main study (see Appendix A, B). For clarification, the scale for buyer's regulatory orientation was minimized from 18 items to 10 items and scale items for 11 sales influence tactics was decreased from 4 items for each influence tactic to 3 items. The modified questionnaire was further tested in the pilot study for its validity and reliability. The changes of scale items are discussed in the section 3.5.

3.3.2 Pilot Test

In the pilot test, 40 business individuals who interact regularly with sales representatives were recruited from an online survey service. In the cover letter, the participants were informed about the importance of the study and the confidentiality of the response. The respondents were also informed that there no "right" or "wrong"

answer to the questions existed, and were asked to provide information to the best of their knowledge (or closest to their opinion) to avoid non-response and missing data. At the very beginning of the survey, two screening questions were used to screen out the participants that work with large companies (employees more than 500) as some large companies have buying centers or corporate policies involved in making purchasing decisions. Moreover, participants who did not interact with a salesperson at least once a week were also screened-out as this study is particularly interested in incidents during the buyer-seller interaction.

The questionnaire was ultimately divided into 8 parts with a total of 164 questions, including two incidents of when there was a purchase and when there was no purchase. First, the participants were asked how they typically approached purchasing decisions, which is representative of self-rated regulatory orientation. Then the respondents were asked to recall interactions they had with a salesperson during the past 1 to 12 months from whom they did not purchase services. At this step, the participants were randomly assigned equally to begin with either a) the "did not purchase" scenario or b) the "purchase" scenario in an orderly fashion in order to case prioritize the questionnaire. Recent research reveals that case prioritization could help in minimizing non-response bias (PeytChev, Riley, Rosen, & Murphy, 2010). Later, the informants were asked to rate how often a salesperson employed various sales influence tactics and selling orientations. In the third step, the participants were asked to indicate what tactics the salesperson used to convince them of the purchase. While on the fourth step, the informants were asked to rate the degree to which they felt a salesperson and/or sales

interaction influenced them to make a purchase, which is based on buyer experiences of regulatory fit outcomes and perceptions of relational quality when the salesperson employed selling behaviors.

After finishing step four, respondents were asked to think of the interactions they had with a salesperson during the past 1 to 12 months from whom they did purchase services from. Then the informants were asked to rate how often the salesperson employed various sales influence tactics and selling orientations. On the sixth step, the participants were asked to indicate what tactics the salesperson used to convince them to make the purchase. At this step, a validity check question was added to assure that participants did not "click through" and had read all questions. For example, "*to show you are reading the questions, select "Tactic was used very often" as your answer to this statement.*" In the seventh step, the informants were asked to rate how they felt about the salesperson and/or sales interaction based on buyer experience of regulatory fit outcomes and perception of relational quality when the salesperson employed the selling behaviors when they did make a purchase decision. In step eight, the respondents were asked to identify their gender, age and working experience (see Appendix B).

The pilot test was completed by 40 business individuals employed by companies located in the U.S. who employ less than 500 people. These participants also interact with a salesperson at least once a week. The demographic characteristics were reported in Table 3 in Appendix D, presenting the profile of the respondents with regard to number of employees, gender, age, and working experience.

The gender of participants was 40% female and 60% male. Approximately 72.5% of the pilot test respondents are age ranged from 30 yrs old to 60 yrs old. More than half of the respondents (57.5%) had over 10 years of working experience. In sum, the samples for the pilot test constituted an experienced working age group who frequently interact with salespersons, which suits the study's purpose of examining the buyer-seller interaction.

Tests of internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) were conducted to assess the reliability of each scale used. The internal reliability for the measures ranged from .427 to .973. Most of the measures included in the questionnaire showed adequate levels of internal consistency reliability (> .7). However, prevention orientation (.427) and feel-right items showed inconsistencies. The descriptive statistics for the variables examined in the pilot test are presented in Appendix D (Table 4), including mean, standard deviation, and internal consistency reliability for each measure.

In order to properly address the inconsistencies in the prevention orientation and feel-right areas, additional changes were made to the main study questionnaire, such as some regulatory fit outcomes measures (e.g., feel-right). The changes of scale are discussed in detail in the section 3.5.

3.4 Data Analysis Method for the Main study

For the main study, two hundred and five (205) business individuals who interact with sales representatives were recruited from an online survey service. Following the pilot test survey, the questionnaire was divided into 8 parts with a total of

166 questions, and the step used in the main study followed the pilot test, which includes both incidents when there was a purchase and when there was no purchase. These two scenarios were randomly assigned equally to the respondents in orderly fashion.

The analytical approach involved three stages: (1) descriptive statistics and reliability analysis, (2) measurement analysis, and (3) multi-level analysis for hypotheses testing. The measurement analysis stage itself included exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, while the multi-level analysis stage also included moderator analyses and correlation analysis.

3.4.1 Descriptive Statistics and Reliability Analysis

The descriptive analysis is the most commonly used analysis in summarizing the collected data (Fink & Kosecoff, 1988). The statistics employed in this study included counts (frequencies), proportions (percentages), measures of central tendency (the mean), measures of variation (range, standard deviation), skewness, and kurtosis.

Skewness is a measure of symmetry, or, more precisely, the lack of symmetry. A distribution, or data set, is symmetric if it looks the same to the left and right of the center point. Kurtosis is a measure of whether the data are peaked or flat relative to a normal distribution. That is, data sets with high kurtosis tend to have a distinct peak near the mean, decline rather rapidly, and have heavy tails. Data sets with low kurtosis tend to have a flat top near the mean rather than a sharp peak. A uniform distribution would be the extreme case (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998).

In order to establish the reliability of pre-existing and newly developed measures the Cronbach's alpha coefficient or reliability criterion was employed. This is

regarded as the most commonly used estimator of the internal consistency or reliability of multi-item measures and is also appropriate for questionnaires using Likert-type scales (Oppenheim, 1992). When using Likert-type scales it is imperative to calculate and report Cronbach's alpha coefficient for internal consistency reliability for any scales or subscales one may be using (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). The reliability of a measure is defined as "the correlation between the variable as measured and another equivalent measure of the same variable" (Miles & Shelvin, 2001). Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient normally ranges between 0 and 1, with 0 translated into zero reliability, and 1 translated into 100% reliability. According to Nunnally (1978), the reliability of a scale is considered sufficient when Cronbach's alpha level is at least .70 or higher. However, there is actually no lower limit to the coefficient. The closer Cronbach's alpha coefficient is to 1.0 the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale.

George and Mallery (2006) provide the following rules of thumb: $\alpha > .9$ – excellent, $\alpha > .8$ – good, $\alpha > .7$ – acceptable, $\alpha > .6$ – questionable, $\alpha > .5$ – poor, and $\alpha < .5$ – unacceptable. While increasing the value of alpha is partially dependent upon the number of items in the scale, it should be noted that this has diminishing returns. It should also be noted that while a high value for Cronbach's alpha indicates good internal consistency of the items in the scale, it does not mean that the scale is unidimensional. Additional exploratory factor analysis can be performed to further examine the dimensionality of the measurement.

3.4.2 Measurement Analysis (Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis)

In this section, details are provided concerning the analyses of measures employed in the current study. The four core aims of factor analysis are: a) to provide a summary of patterns of correlations between variables, b) to reduce a large number of observed variables to a smaller number of factors, c) to provide an operational definition for an underlying process by using observed variables, and d) to test a theory about the nature of underlying processes (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

In the social sciences, factor analysis is customarily applied to correlations between variables. Accordingly, a factor is a dimension or construct which is a condensed statement of the relationships between a set of variables, and is therefore defined by its factor loadings, which in turn refer to the correlations of each variable with that factor (Kline, 2005). There are two main types of factor analysis: exploratory and confirmatory.

Following the methodological guidelines for scale development of Steenkamp and van Trijp (1991) and Gerbing and Hamilton (1996), a two-stage approach that deploys exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis was used to investigate the dimensionality of the scale items. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is useful in that it attempts to discover the nature of the constructs influencing a set of responses. It also aided in describing and summarizing data by grouping together variables that are correlated. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is used to test whether a specified set of constructs is influencing responses in a predicted way and to validate a theory about latent processes. In light of these advantages and functionalities, the scale items were subjected to an EFA with the traditional method of principal components extraction with

varimax rotation to gain initial insights as to item dimensionality (Comrey, 1988; Hattie, 1985). In the second stage, the scale items were entered into a CFA (with Maximum likelihood estimation) with the number of factors constrained to the number of variables and items allocated to each factor on the basis of the EFA results (Gerbing & Hamilton, 1996).

Confirmatory factor analysis was also used in a versatile way to estimate the adequacy of the measurement model for each construct. The purpose of a measurement model is to describe how well the observed indicators serve as a measurement instrument for the latent variables. In other words, the measurement model depicts the links between the latent variables and their observed measures. The adequacy of the model fit was determined by several goodness of fit statistics, including Chi-square, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) (also called non-normed fit index (NNFI), and Comparative Fit Index (CFI).

The primary task in the model-testing procedure is to determine the goodness-of- fit between the hypothesized model and the sample data. Chi-square has been the traditional measure used to test the closeness of fit between the unrestricted sample covariance and the restricted covariance matrix. Therefore, a non-significant Chi-square difference between the hypothesized model and the sample data indicates that the hypothesized model is well fitted to the sample data. The RMSEA takes into account the error of approximation in the population, and represents how well this sample data fits the population covariance matrix. Values less than .05 indicate a good fit, and values as

high as .08 represent a reasonable fit. The SRMR represents the average value across all standardized residuals, and ranges from zero to 1.00, values less than .05 indicate a good fit. The value of the SRMR represents the average discrepancy between the samples observed and hypothesized correlation matrices. The GFI is a measure of the relative amount of variance and covariance in the sample that is jointly explained by the sample. The GFI index ranges from zero to 1.00, with values close to 1.00 being indicative of a good fit. The CFI provides a measure of complete covariation in the data, a value of > .90 indicating an acceptable fit to the data (Byrne, 1998).

Convergent validity is established if the measurement of a construct with dependent measurement techniques demonstrates a high correlation among the measures (Kinnear & Taylor, 1987). Thus, each parameter estimate or standardized loading (reported in AMOS as standardized regression weight) was assessed. The cut-off point of correlation regarded as "high" is controversial. Bagozzi and Yi (1988) recommend a standard loading of .6 or more, whereas Litwin (1995) proposes that a correlation coefficient between two sets of data with the levels of .7 or more are generally accepted as representing good validity. Hair et al. (1998) argue that the acceptable level should be at least .5 and preferably .7 or higher. In this research, a reasonable benchmark was the value of greater than .6 because it was widely used in customer behavior research (e.g., Yousafzai, 2005; Lai & Li, 2005). Convergent validity was assessed with additional criteria, t-values or critical ratios, (the parameter estimate divided by its standard error), which were statistically significant on all factor loadings. T-values of greater than ±1.96 at .05 or ±2.57 at .01 level demonstrate statistical significance (Byrne, 2001; Kline,

2005). The results of convergent validity testing are discussed in the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of each measure in chapter 4.

In comparison to convergent validity, discriminant validity involves demonstrating a lack of or low correlation among different constructs (Kinnear & Taylor, 1987; Bryman & Cramer, 2005; Churchill & Lacobucci, 2002). If the correlations are too high, it suggests that the measure is not actually capturing distinctively. This study provides evidence of discriminant validity from the correlation index (Kline, 2005); discriminant validity exists when correlations among variables are low to moderate. Nonetheless, the threshold of high correlation was inconclusive depending on certain judgments. For instance, Hair et al. (1998) point out that correlations of greater than .8 indicate problems, and those of greater than .9 should be further investigated. Kline (2005) recommends a demarcation point at .85.

In conclusion, the reliability and validity of the measurement scales can be established if (a) the measurement model produces acceptable fit statistics ($\chi 2$, GFI, CFI, TLI, RMSEA), (b) factor loadings are significantly large, (c) factor reliabilities are large (Cronbach's $\alpha > .7$), (d) variance extracted by the factor solution is $> .5$, and (e) the correlation between the factors and the shared variance are low. It should however, be noted that, (i) as $\chi 2$ is sensitive to sample size, the analysis would rely on the incremental (e.g., GFI and CFI) and absolute goodness of fit indicators (e.g., RMSEA) to evaluate model fit; (ii) since factor reliabilities varies with scale length and scales used in this study are short with 2-5 items for each first order construct, it may appear to be less

reliable in this particular context. If needed, the report reliabilities based on a fixed length of scale items using transformational formulas may performed (Nunnally, 1978).

3.4.3 Multi Level Analysis (Hypotheses testing)

Given the relational characteristics of the hypotheses formulated in the present study, the research design is fundamentally of a correlational nature, thereby incorporating statistical procedures aimed at testing for the hypothesized relationships between variables as well as the magnitude of those relationships (Kerlinger, 1986). In particular, the hypothesized relationships were examined using correlational analyses. These included bivariate correlations and hierarchical multiple regressions with moderating effects.

The first step in examining the relationships between variables included the use of Pearson's product moment correlation or correlation coefficient. This estimates the strength and direction of a linear relationship between two variables. The values of correlation coefficient can range from -1 to +1. A positive correlation represents a direct relationship, indicating that two variables increase or decrease in the same direction, whereas a negative correlation represents an inverse relationship so that when one variable increases, the other decreases and vice versa. Bivariate correlation is symmetrical. In this sense, it cannot demonstrate whether changes in a dependent variable are accounted for by changes in one or more independent variables. Partial correlation can provide some evidence of the predictive effect that one independent variable can have on a dependent variable while controlling for a second or more independent variables. However, when the goal of the research is to assess the effect of two or more

independent variables on a dependent variable, partial correlation becomes redundant, thereby requiring the use of multiple regression analysis.

Since the goal of this research is to assess the effect of two or more independent variables on a dependent variable, the use of multiple regression analysis is required. This can be viewed as an extension of correlation analysis. It is used to determine the extent to which a set of independent variables explains the proportion of variance in one dependent variable and also demonstrates the relative predictive significance of each independent variable, employing different types of analysis for specific situations.

There are three major types of multiple regression analysis, namely standard regression, hierarchical or sequential regression, and stepwise or statistical regression (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In the present study, the second type was used for examining the hypothesized relationships. This is due to the fact that hierarchical regression models allow the researcher to control the advancement of the regression process according to a specified theoretical rationale, and a number of variables in the present study were hypothesized to act as moderators (e.g., regulatory orientation).

Since a number of the hypothesized relationships reflected moderated relationships between variables, regression analyses with interaction effects were also conducted. Moderator analyses evaluate whether or not a relation between two variables may differ in direction or magnitude across subpopulations or settings (Baron & Kenny, 1986). That is, moderator analyses test whether or not the relation between X and Y changes as a function of a third variable, Z (Aiken & West, 1991; Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Sharma, Durand, and Gur-Arie (1981) have described more specific conceptualizations of moderation, including whether or not Z serves as a predictor of Y that is independent of X, as a pure moderator of the X → Y relationship that has no independent effect on Y, or in both functions.

Table 3.1 Summary of Statistic Analysis for this Study

Groups	Types	Statistical techniques
Univariate	Descriptive	Frequency distribution, percentage, mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis, Validity and reliability assessment, discrimimant analysis, unidimensionality
Bivariate	Correlation	Pearson correlation coefficient
Multivariate	EFA	Factor analysis
	CFA	Goodness-of-fit indices, modification indices
	Regression	Multiple regression for hypothesis testing

Source: developed for this study

A moderator variable can be defined as a continuous or qualitative (e.g., categorical) variable that affects the direction and/or strength of a relationship between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Although previous studies recommended that in avoiding problems of collinearity caused by the interactions between independent and moderator variables, the variables should be "mean-centered" (Aiken & West, 1991; Jaccard & Turrisi, 2003; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), recent study shows that the mean-centering neither changes the computational precision of parameters, the sampling accuracy of main, simple, and

interaction effects, nor R^2 (Echambadi & Hess, 2007). Thus, mean-centering was not applied to the variables tested for interaction effects in this study. The results of the statistical analysis will be discussed in detail in chapter 4. The summary of statistic analysis is illustrated in Table 3.1.

3.5 Instrument Development for Construct Measurement

To empirically test the proposed hypotheses, multi-item scales are used for each construct. The following section discusses in detail the available measurements and the application of instruments based on prior research. This study applied three pre-designed instruments (e.g., General Regulatory Focus Measure – GRFM, Influence Behavior Questionnaire – IBQ, and Relational Message Scale) and a newly developed instrument for regulatory fit outcomes based on previous literature. The details discussion and justification of instruments used in this study are stated below.

Where appropriate, a series of factor analyses were conducted to verify the structure of newly developed and/or extensively modified measures (details of these analyses will be provided later in chapter 4). A summary of construct operationalization and scale source for the main study is provided at the end of the current chapter in Table 3.11. Also, a complete list of scale items can be found in the appendices A, B, C.

3.5.1 Instrument Development for Buyer's Regulatory Orientation

In the previous literature, two measures of regulatory focus have been frequently used: the regulatory focus questionnaire (RFQ, Higgins, Friedman, Harlow, Idson, Ayduk, & Taylor, 2001) and the general regulatory focus measure (GRFM,

Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda, 2002). The distinct conceptualizations between the two are presented below.

a) The Regulatory focus Questionnaire - RFQ

The regulatory focus questionnaire (Higgins et al., 2001) is derived from a factor analysis of items assessing the history of an individual's success at promotion and prevention tasks over the course of his/her life. The RFQ has been shown to predict emotional outcomes, such as guilt and coping (e.g., Camacho, Higgins, & Luger, 2003), and cognitive outcomes such as persuasion and language use (e.g., Semin et al., 2005).

In the RFQ design, scale items are conceptualized promotion and prevention success as promotion pride and prevention pride, respectively, or anticipatory reactions to new task goals, derived from the person's subjective history of past success in promotion and prevention goal attainment. The RFQ primarily centers on a self-guided conceptualization of ideals versus obligations, with a significant portion of items dealing with parental interaction and other past self-guided experiences, in effect capturing the obligation aspect of the prevention focus.

b) The General Regulatory Focus Measure - GRFM

The general regulatory focus measure (Lockwood et al., 2002), originating in research on motivation, is tailored to the participant population of undergraduate students and emphasizes success and failure at academic goals. The GRFM has primarily been used in investigations examining role models (e.g., Lockwood, Chasten, & Wong, 2005) and in applied research (e.g., Yeo & Park, 2006). The GRFM closely follows the reference-point definition, with items emphasizing academic achievement in the present.

Despite their differences in content, development, and applications, both scales share the limitation of being self-reporting measures and thus are limited by the degree to which participants possess insight into their own motivational state and experiences. Nonetheless, these scales represent the dominant approach to measuring regulatory focus on the trait level, and the range of findings with each scale suggests they possess adequate predictive validity.

c) Selection of Buyer's Regulatory Orientation Scale (for this study)

This study applies the GRFM to measure buyer's regulatory orientation for its saliency in emphasizing achievement of goals or tasks, rather than adolescent experience traced by the RFQ.

In an effort to provide relevancy to the buyer-seller context the present study adopted the reference-point definition of regulatory focus, and distinguishes promotion and prevention focus on the basis of which of two possible end-states is used in goal regulatory orientation. That is to say, promotion focus is defined here as regulatory orientation centering on the positive reference point of a "gain" (i.e., a goal to reach a desirable or pleasurable end-state and avoid the absence of these states), whereas prevention focus is defined as regulatory orientation centering on the negative reference point of a "loss" (i.e., a goal to steer clear of an undesirable or unpleasant end-state and attain an absence of these states). A promotion goal is thus accomplished when the current state matches the desired state of a gain, whereas a prevention goal is accomplished when a state of non-loss has been attained.

In the pretest, the original 18-item GRFM scale, composed of a nine-item measure of promotion focus and a nine-item measure of prevention focus (see Table 3.2), was modified to fit the context of buyer-seller interaction and their purchasing goals (because the original scale emphasizes success and failure at academic goals). For example, "*I frequently imagine how I will achieve my hopes and aspirations*" was changed to "*I frequently imagine how to achieve my hopes and aspirations in my purchasing tasks*" for promotion focus measures and "*In general, I am focused on preventing negative events in my life*" was changed to "*In general, I focus on preventing negative events in my purchasing tasks*" for prevention focus measures. The internal reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha) for the prevention and promotion focus are .809 and .839, respectively.

Based on the respondents' feedback received from the pretest, some items in the scale are redundant and irrelevant to the buyer-seller context investigated in this study. The questions may not accurately measure the construct of buyer's regulatory orientation; therefore, the 18 items were reduced to 10 items. For example, the following two items were deleted due to their redundancy and irrelevancy to the sales interaction context, "*I often think about the person I am afraid I might become in the future*" and "*My major goal in my career right now is to achieve my purchasing tasks*" Some items contain psychological jargons such as "idea self" and "ought self," which had made the respondents in the pretest confused were also deleted (e.g., "*I see myself as someone who is primarily striving to reach my ideal self - to fulfill my hopes, wishes, and aspirations*"

and "*I see myself as someone who is primarily striving to become the self I ought to be when fulfilling my duties, responsibilities, and obligations*").

Table 3.2 Original General Regulatory Focus Measure (GRFM)

1. In general, I am focused on preventing negative events in my life.
2. I am anxious that I will fall short of my responsibilities and obligations.
3. I frequently imagine how I will achieve my hopes and aspirations.*
4. I often think about the person I am afraid of becoming in the future.
5. I often think about the person I would ideally like to be in the future.*
6. I typically focus on the success I hope to achieve in the future.*
7. I often worry that I will fail to accomplish my academic goals.
8. I often think about how I will achieve academic success.*
9. I often imagine myself experiencing bad things that I fear might happen to me.
10. I frequently think about how I can prevent failures in my life.
11. I am more oriented toward preventing losses than I am toward achieving gains.
12. My major goal in school right now is to achieve my academic ambitions.*
13. My major goal in school right now is to avoid failure and becoming an academic failure.
14. I see myself as someone who is primarily striving to reach my "ideal self" – to fulfill my hopes, wishes, and aspirations.*
15. I see myself as someone who is primarily striving to become the self I "ought" to be to fulfill my duties, responsibilities, and obligations.
16. In general, I am focused on achieving positive outcomes in my life.*
17. I often imagine myself experiencing good things that I hope will happen to me.*
18. Overall, I am more oriented toward achieving success than preventing failure.*
Note: *Promotion focus items are 3, 5, 6, 8, 12, 14, 16, 17, 18 followed by an "*"*

Source: Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda, 2002

The retained items were chosen as they are appropriate for the sales interaction context. For example, "*I am more oriented toward achieving success than preventing failure when making purchasing decisions*" for promotion focus measures and "*I am*

more concerned about preventing losses than achieving gains when making purchasing decisions" for prevention focus measures.

Some of the remaining 10 items were as well modified to be more precise and specific. For example, "*I worry about falling short of my responsibilities and obligations in my purchasing tasks*" was changed to "*I worry I might fall short of my responsibilities during purchasing decisions*" for prevention focus measures and "*I frequently imagine how to achieve my hopes and aspirations in my purchasing tasks*" was changed to "*I consider how purchase decision will help me achieve my aspirations*" for promotion focus measures. For the pilot test, the internal scale reliability for the prevention and promotion focuses are .427 and .743, respectively.

The stated low Cronbach's alpha of prevention focus revealed inconsistency in the items. Thus, to better capture the context of prevention focus characteristics in the main study, some items of prevention focus measure were modified. For example, "*I focus on preventing negative events when making purchasing decisions*" was changed to "*I focus on preventing problems when making purchasing decisions*" and "*I worry I might fall short of my responsibilities during purchasing decisions*" was changed to "*I get concerned about potential difficulties making purchasing decisions.*"

In the main study, the 10 questions compose a five-item measure of promotion focus and a five-item measure of prevention focus, rating upon a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree; (2) disagree; (3) slightly disagree; (4) neutral; (5) slightly agree; (6) agree; (7) strongly agree. Table 3.3 presents the buyer's regulatory orientation measures for main study.

The initial scale reliability for the Prevention and Promotion focuses are .451 and .677, respectively. Based on exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses results (see chapter 4), the number of items was reduced from 10 to 8, consisting of 4 items for each regulatory focus. The fourth item of the prevention focus scale ("*I worry that my manager or partner might question my purchasing decision*") and the first item of promotion focus scale ("*I consider how purchase decision will help me achieve my aspirations*") were deleted as suggested by both reliability analysis and factor analyses results.

The remaining items were calculated to create two factor scores, buyer's prevention focus (4 items; $\alpha = .538$) and buyer's promotion focus (4 items; $\alpha = .759$), for using in hypotheses testing. The overall Cronbach's alpha for buyer's regulatory orientation is close to the acceptable level ($\alpha = .692$).

Table 3.3 Buyer's Regulatory Orientation Scale for the Main Study

1. I focus on preventing problems when making purchasing decisions.
2. I consider how purchase decision will help me achieve my aspirations.*
3. I get concerned about potential difficulties making purchasing decisions.
4. I think about what I ideally want to happen when making purchasing decisions.*
5. When making purchasing decisions I consider the problems that might occur.
6. I worry that my manager or partner might question my purchasing decision.
7. I am more concerned about preventing losses than achieving gains when making purchasing decisions.
8. I focus on achieving positive outcomes when making purchasing decisions.*
9. I imagine the good things that might happen when making purchasing decisions.*
10. I am more oriented toward achieving success than preventing failure when making purchasing decisions.*
Note: *Promotion focus items are 2, 4, 8, 9, 10 followed by an "*"*
Source: developed for this study

It is understandable that Cronbach's alpha for prevention focus is lower than normal acceptable level (α = .538), indicating a high level of error variance for these items to be considered reliable for a single construct scale, and this is for several reasons. First of all, this is simply due to the high dimensionality in the data, which is more often associated with low values for Cronbach's alpha, while not necessarily indicating that the questions are not adequate or reliable.

Secondly, in investigating the formula of Cronbach's alpha (see equation 1 above, parameterized by Cortina, 1993) it is noteworthy that if the number of items (N) increases, Cronbach's alpha will increase, and vice versa. This scale only has four items, which also decreases Cronbach's alpha.

$$\alpha = \frac{N\,\bar{c}}{\bar{v} + (N-1)\bar{c}} \tag{1}$$

where

N : the number of items in the scale

$\bar{c}$: (c-bar) the average inter-item covariance

$\bar{v}$: (v-bar) the average variance

Consistent to the previous research (Holler, Hoelzl, Kirchler, Leder, & Mannetti, 2008), the study reported low Cronbach's alpha when utilizing 10-item scale for regulatory orientation (5-item prevention focus measure α = .57, 5-item promotion focus measure α = .63).

Thirdly, Cronbach's alpha will generally increase as the intercorrelations among scale items increase, and the intercorrelations among scale items are maximized when all items measure the same attribute (George & Mallery, 2006). The buyer's regulatory orientation scale was designed to measures several characteristics of promotion and prevention focused buyer, low Cronbach's alpha value is comprehensible.

Finally, when constructing a measure, researcher has to reconcile the theory-driven conceptualization of the measure with the desired statistical properties of the items comprising the measure as revealed by empirical testing (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2006). Blindly eliminating items to improve reliability in a reflective scale or to reduce multicollinearity in a formative index may have adverse consequences for the content validity of the derived measure. Particularly, the research constructs for some of the items are formative. Thus, are not expected to load high using Cronbach's alpha unlike reflective constructs (MacKenzie, Podsakoff, & Jarvis, 2005). Reflective constructs are those, which have observable measures, which are all affected by the underlying unobservable construct. In contrast formative constructs are considered composites of several independent measures which together reflect or form the construct (Petter, Straub, & Rai, 2007). Their reliability is thus harder to measure as any change in the measures affects the overall construct (Diamantopoulos & Siguaw, 2006).

3.5.2 Instrument Development for Sales Influence Tactics

Several measures for influence tactics were developed for survey research, however two different behavior description questionnaires were used most frequently to study influence tactics: Profiles of Organizational Influence Tactics (POIS) developed by

Kipnis, Schmidt and Wilkinson (1980) and Influence Behavior Questionnaire (IBQ) designed by Yukl, Seifert and Chavez (2008).

a) Profiles of Organizational Influence Tactics (POIS)

Kipnis and his colleagues (1980) collected critical incidents that described successful and unsuccessful influence attempts by respondents and identified distinct influence tactics. Based on the findings, POIS, an agent self-report questionnaire, was developed to measure eight influence tactics. Schriesheim and Hinkin (1990) later conducted a factor analysis of the POIS using data from respondents who indicated how often they used each type of tactic in upward influence attempts with their boss. This study found support for six of the proposed tactics (i.e., rationality, exchange, ingratiation, assertiveness, coalition, and upward appeal), but not for the remaining two tactics (i.e., blocking and sanctions).

The revised agent POIS, with six tactic scales and three items per scale, was tested in a subsequent study of upward influence (Hochwarter, Harrison, Ferris, Perrewe & Ralston, 2000). The results provided only limited support for the tactic scales. Scale reliabilities were low for some samples, and some of the fit statistics for the confirmatory factor analysis were outside the acceptable range. A more accurate and comprehensive questionnaire was needed for research on interpersonal influence in organizations, leading to alternative measures for influence tactics called the "Influence Behavior Questionnaire – IBQ."

b) Influence Behavior Questionnaire (IBQ)

The early version of the IBQ included scales for six influence tactics that are similar to ones in the POIS (i.e., rational persuasion, exchange, ingratiation, pressure, coalition, and upward appeals), but new items were developed for these scales rather than merely revising items (in the POIS). In addition, the IBQ included scales to measure four influence tactics based on leadership and power literature (i.e., consultation, inspirational appeals, personal appeals, and legitimating). Early validation research provided support for nine of the ten influence tactics (Yukl, Lepsinger & Lucia, 1992). The factor analysis for target subordinates and peers indicated that a lack of sufficient justification for a separate scale on upward appeals since they were viewed as just another form of coalition tactics. Research with critical incidents provided evidence, from an entirely different method, that the remaining nine tactics are distinct and meaningful for managers and professionals in business organizations (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl, Kim & Falbe, 1996). The early version of the target IBQ was used in several studies on antecedents and consequences of proactive tactics (e.g., Barbuto & Scholl, 1999; Gravenhorst & Boonstra, 1998; Douglas & Gardner, 2004; Sparrowe, Soetjipto & Kraimer, 2006; Yukl & Falbe, 1990; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). Several years ago the IBQ was revised and extended to include two additional tactics, which are collaboration and apprising (Yukl, Chavez, & Seifert, 2005). The original IBQ scale items are presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4 Influence Behavior Questionnaires (IBQ) Target Version

I. Rational persuasion:
1. This person uses facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal.
2. This person explains clearly why a request or proposed change is necessary to attain a task objective.
3. This person explains why a proposed project or change would be practical and cost effective.
4. This person provides information or evidence to show that a proposed activity or change is likely to be successful.
II. Exchange:
5. This person offers something I want in return for help on a task or project.
6. This person offers to do something for me in exchange for carrying out a request.
7. This person offers to do a specific task or favor for me in return for help and support.
8. This person offers to do something for me in the future in return for help now.
III. Inspirational appeal:
9. This person says that a proposed activity or change is an opportunity to do something really exciting and worthwhile.
10. This person describes a clear, inspiring vision of what a proposed project or change could accomplish.
11. This person talks about ideals and values when proposing a new activity or change.
12. This person makes an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse enthusiasm for a proposed activity or change.
IV. Legitimating:
13. This person says that his/her request or proposal is consistent with official rules and policies.
14. This person says that a request or proposal is consistent with a prior agreement or contract.
15. This person verifies that a request is legitimate by referring to a document such as a work order, policy manual, charter, bylaws, or formal contract.
16. This person says that a request or proposal is consistent with prior precedent and established practice.
V. Apprising:
17. This person explains how the task he/she wants me to do could help my career.
18. This person describes benefits I could gain from doing a task or activities (e.g., learn new skills, meet important people, and enhance my reputation).
19. This person explains how a proposed activity or change could help me attain a personal objective.
20. This person explains why a proposed activity or change would be good for me.
VI. Pressure:
21. This person demands that I carry out a request.
22. This person uses threats or warnings when trying to do something.

Table 3.4 (continued)

23. This person repeatedly checks to see if I have made/carried out a request.
24. This person tries to pressure me to make/carry out a request.

VII. Collaboration:

25. This person offers to help with a task that he/she wants me to carry out.
26. This person offers to provide resources I would need to do a task for him/her.
27. This person offers to show me how to do a task that he/she wants me to carry out.
28. This person offers to provide any assistance I would need to make carry out a request.

VIII. Ingratiation:

29. This person says I have the special skills or knowledge needed to make carry out a request.
30. This person praises my past performance or achievements when asking me to make do a task for him/her.
31. This person praises my skill or knowledge when asking me to make/do something.
32. This person says I am the most qualified person for a task that he/she wants me to do.

IX. Consultation:

33. This person asks me to suggest things I could do to help him/her to achieve a task objective or resolve a problem.
34. This person consults with me to get my ideas about a proposed activity or change that he/she wants me to support or implement.
35. This person encourages me to express any concerns I may have about a proposed activity or change that he/she wants me to support or implement.
36. This person invites me to suggest ways to improve a preliminary plan or proposal that he/she wants me to support or help implement.

X. Personal Appeals:

37. This person appeals to my friendship when asking me to make/do something.
38. This person says he/she needs to ask for a favor before telling me what it is.
39. This person asks me as a friend to do a favor for him/her.
40. This person asks for my help in purchasing as a personal favor.

XI. Coalition:

41. This person mentions the names of other people who endorse a proposal when asking me to make support it.
42. This person gets others to explain to me why they support a proposed activity or change that he/she wants me to support or help implement.
43. This person brings someone along for support when meeting with me to make a request or proposal.
44. This person asks someone I respect to help influence me to make/carry out a request or support a proposal.

Source: Yukl et al., (2008)

c) Selection of Sales Influence Tactics Scale (for this study)

Although both the original and revised versions of the agent POIS have been used in many studies on the determinants and consequences of proactive tactics used to influence bosses (Deluga, 1988, 1991; Schmidt & Kipnis, 1984; Thacker & Wayne, 1995; Wayne, Liden, Graef & Ferris, 1997), there is no systematic validation evidence for the use of the POIS scales. Another limitation of the POIS is that self-reporting of behavior is usually not as accurate as ratings of a person's behavior by other people. Unlike the POIS, the IBQ was developed as a target questionnaire.

This study, in understanding of the dynamics surrounding the IBQ'S development, utilizes the latest IBQ target version designed by Yukl and his colleagues in 2008 to measure 11 influence tactics of salespeople for its ability to distinguish these 11 influence tactics and validity tests from previous research (e.g., Plouffe & Cote, 2008). The IBQ target version scale is composed of 44 questions distributed equally to 11 influence tactics.

In the pretest the original44-item IBQ scale, consisting of four-items for each influence tactic, was modified for the context of buyer-seller interaction. For example, *"This person uses facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal"* was changed to *"Salesperson used facts and logic to make a persuasive case for my purchase decision"* and *"This person explains why a proposed project or change would be practical and cost effective"* was changed to *"Salesperson explained why my purchase decision would be practical and cost effective"* for rational persuasion tactic (see Appendix A).

In this way, the modification allows for the buyer to indicate what tactics the salesperson used during the sales interaction using a five-point Likert scale anchored by 1 = I can't remember the salesperson ever using this tactic with me; 2 = The salesperson very seldom used this tactic with me; 3 = The salesperson occasionally used this tactic with me; 4 = The salesperson used this tactic moderately often with me; 5 = The salesperson used this tactic very often with me.

Specifically, buyers are asked to indicate, using five-point Likert scales, the frequency of 11 influence tactics of salespeople utilized during the interaction. The pretest results of internal reliabilities for the 11 sales influence tactics are ranged from .335 (apprising tactic) to .916 (ingratiation tactic) (see Table 2, Appendix D).

In the pilot test and main study, the 44 items were reduced to 33 items, distributed equally to 11 influence tactics, and questions were rewritten to be more concise. The modified scale items used in the pilot test and main study are presented in Table 3.5.

For the pilot test, the internal scale reliability for the 11 sales influence tactics ranged from .643 (apprising tactic) to .973 (personal appeal tactic) (see Table 4, Appendix D). This 33-item scale was also used in the main study with the scale reliability results ranged from .642 to .954. All of the measures for the 11 sales influence tactics showed adequate levels of internal consistency reliability, with the highest at .954 (personal appeal tactic) and lowest at .642 (apprising tactic) (see Table 5, Appendix D).

Table 3.5 Sales Influence Tactics Scale for the Main Study

I. Rational persuasion:

1. Salesperson made a detailed explanation of the reasons you should purchase.

2. Salesperson used facts and logic to make a persuasive case for purchasing.

3. Salesperson explained clearly why a request or proposed change was necessary.

II. Exchange:

4. Salesperson offered to do something for you in exchange for your purchase.

5. Salesperson offered to do a specific task in exchange for your purchase.

6. Salesperson offered to do something in the future in return for your purchase now.

III. Inspirational appeal:

7. Salesperson made an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse your enthusiasm for their services.

8. Salesperson described a clear, appealing vision of what their services could accomplish for you.

9. Salesperson described how their services could serve as an opportunity to accomplish exciting and worthwhile objectives for you.

IV. Legitimating:

10. Salesperson said that a proposed activity or change was consistent with official policies or legal statutes.

11. Salesperson said that his/her request or proposal was consistent with a prior agreement or contract.

12. Salesperson verified that a request was legitimate by referring to a document such as a work order, policy manual, charter, bylaws, or formal contract.

V. Apprising:

13. Salesperson explained how you could benefit from purchasing.

14. Salesperson explained how your purchase could help his/her career.

15. Salesperson explained why the purchase would be good for you.

VI. Pressure:

16. Salesperson pressured you to make a purchase.

17. Salesperson used threats or warnings when trying to get you to do something needed to complete the sale.

18. Salesperson repeatedly checked to see if you had carried out any requests he/she made.

VII. Collaboration:

19. Salesperson offered to provide any assistance you may need to make the purchase.

20. Salesperson offered to provide resources you would need to make the purchase.

21. Salesperson offered to help resolve any new problems created for you if you purchased.

VIII. Ingratiation:

22. Salesperson complimented you about something during the sales call.

Table 3.5 (continued)

23. Salesperson said that you have the unique skills and knowledge needed to make a good decision.
24. Salesperson praised your past performance or achievements during the sales call.
IX. Consultation:
25. Salesperson asked you to suggest things he/she could do to help you achieve a task objective.
26. Salesperson asked you to suggest ways he/she could support you.
27. Salesperson encouraged you to express any concerns about the purchase that he/she could address.
X. Personal Appeals:
28. Salesperson asked for your help as a personal favor.
29. Salesperson asked you to do something for him/her as a friend.
30. Salesperson said that he/she needed to ask you for a personal favor.
XI. Coalition:
31. Salesperson asked someone you respect to help influence you to make the purchase.
32. Salesperson brought someone else along to support him/her when meeting with you on the sales call.
33. Salesperson got someone with higher authority to help influence you to purchase.

Source: developed for this study by modified from IBQ (Yukl et al., 2008)

According to Yukl and his colleagues (2008), the confirmatory factor analyses are not very useful for analyzing data from the IBQ scale as the scale includes a wide variety of behavior examples, particularly when the items describe alternative ways to use a tactic. IBQ scale was designed to have the items from each type of influence summed and that factor analysis or other reflective measurement techniques were inappropriate (Yukl et al., 2008). To test the hypotheses, this study calculates average summated scores using three items for each of 11 influence tactics.

3.5.3 Instrument Development for Selling Orientation

For the selling orientation measurement, this study draws from the context of market orientation, composed of the degree to which an organization (salesperson) is oriented toward its customers, competitors, and product/service (Neill & Rose, 2006). A customer orientation emphasizes the interests of target buyers, while a competitor orientation focuses on current and potential competitors. Service orientation is therefore an internal orientation emphasizing quality and efficiency of value offerings. The customer and competitor orientation measures apply from the validated scales based on research by Narver and Slater (1990). Based upon these pretenses, the Market Orientation Scale items (Neill & Rose, 2006) were modified in the pretest for the context of buyer-seller interaction. For example, the item *"Our business strategies are driven by our beliefs about how we can create greater value for customers"* was changed to *"Salesperson presented how he/she can provide greater value for you and make you satisfied"* and *"We give close attention to after-sales service"* was changed to *"Salesperson paid close attention to after-sales service"* for customer-oriented selling orientation (see Appendix A).

The new selling orientation scale, developed for the study, is made up of 9 questions distributed equally to competitors, customers, and service orientations. When responding, the buyer is essentially indicating what types of selling orientations the salesperson used during the sales interaction using a five-point Likert scale anchored by 1 = I can't remember the salesperson ever using this tactic with me; 2 = The salesperson very seldom used this tactic with me; 3 = The salesperson occasionally used this tactic with me; 4 = The salesperson used this tactic moderately often with me; 5 = The

salesperson used this tactic very often with me. In short, buyers are asked to specify, using five-point scales, the frequency of selling orientation that salespeople utilized during the sales interaction. The original market orientation scale items and modified selling orientation scale items are presented in Tables 3.6 and 3.7, respectively.

In the pretest, the internal reliabilities of the three selling orientations are all acceptable (competitor-oriented = .878, customer-oriented = .817, and service-oriented = .651) (see Table 2, Appendix D). This 9 item selling orientation scale was further used in the pilot test and main study.

Table 3.6 Original Market Orientation Scale Items

I. Competitor orientation:
1. We target customers in whom we have an opportunity for competitive advantage.
2. We rapidly respond to competitive actions that threaten us.
3. Our salespeople regularly share information within our business concerning competitor strategies.
4. Top management regularly discusses competitor strengths and strategies.
II. Customer orientation:
5. We constantly monitor our level of commitment to serving customer needs.
6. Our strategy for competitive advantage is based on our understanding of customer needs.
7. Our business strategies are driven by our beliefs about how we can create greater value for customers.
8. We give close attention to after-sales service.
9. Our business objectives are driven primarily by customer satisfaction. We measure customer satisfaction systematically and frequently.
III. Product/service orientation:
10. We are always seeking ways to improve the delivery of our services.
11. Our organization is constantly seeking process improvements.
12. Our business objectives are driven towards producing the highest quality services.

Source: Neill & Rose (2006)

The results of internal consistency reliability for selling orientation scale in both the pilot test and main study reported highly acceptable levels (> .75) (see Table 4 and 5, Appendix D). Although, the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses results (see chapter 4) suggested that the selling orientation construct is comprised of two variables; the competitor-oriented and the combination of service-oriented and customer-oriented; lacking theoretical support and being consistent with the conceptual framework, this study proposes a computed average of summated scores using three items for each of 3 selling orientations; competitor-oriented ($\alpha = .839$), customer-oriented ($\alpha = .810$), and service-oriented ($\alpha = .772$) for the hypotheses testing.

Table 3.7 Selling Orientation Scale for the Main Study

I. Competitor orientation:
1. The salesperson presented how his/her company had a competitive advantage over other competitors.
2. The salesperson shared information concerning the services of competitors.
3. The salesperson discussed competitor strengths and strategies.
II. Customer orientation:
4. The salesperson said they were committed to serving your needs.
5. The salesperson presented how he/she can provide greater value for you and make you satisfied.
6. The salesperson paid close attention to after-sales service.
III. Service orientation:
7. The salesperson shared information concerning offered services.
8. The salesperson discussed how the offered services can be improved.
9. The salesperson presented how the offered services are made with the highest quality.

Source: developed for this study

3.5.4 Instrument Development for Regulatory Fit Outcomes

Research on the concept of regulatory fit (Higgins, 2000) indicates that the pursuit of a goal in a manner that "fits" a person's regulatory orientation creates a subjective experience of "feeling right" that increases a person's motivational engagement and enhances the perceived value of a goal pursuit (e.g., Avnet & Higgins, 2006; Wang & Lee, 2006). Regulatory fit theory implies a broader conception of the notion of value, however. That is to say, that while value has historically been associated with the hedonic experiences of pleasure and pain, there is growing evidence that value also accrues from the strength of engagement (Higgins, 2006). A person's strength of engagement and perceived value thusly increases under conditions of regulatory fit.

This study, carefully taking into account the above regulatory fit concept, designs the regulatory fit outcome scale items based on new and growing evidence and applies it to the context of the buyer-seller interaction. The new regulatory fit outcome scale is composed of 8 questions distributed to the feel-right and arousal and perceived value items. The buyer rates attitudes toward the regulatory fit outcome when a salesperson employed selling behaviors, using seven-point Likert scales arrayed by (1) strongly disagree; (2) disagree; (3) slightly disagree; (4) neutral; (5) slightly agree; (6) agree; (7) strongly agree. Put more simply, buyers are asked to indicate, using seven-point scales, the extent to which they feel the specified regulatory fit outcomes when a salesperson used those behaviors. The newly developed regulatory fit outcome scale based on previous literature is demonstrated in Table 3.8.

In the pretest, then, the regulatory fit outcome scale consisted of 7 items (without the 3rd item of feel-right measure). The 2nd item of feel-right measure was a reversed item. The internal scale reliabilities of regulatory fit outcomes are all acceptable (feel-right = .718, arousal = .856, and perceived value = .880) (see Table 2, Appendix D). This seven item regulatory fit outcome scale was further used in the pilot test; however, the internal scale reliabilities of feel-right measure revealed inconsistency (see Table 4, Appendix D). To avoid misreading responses in the main study, the reverse item was modified to a no-reverse item and the 3rd item was added to better capture the context of feel-right (for more details see Appendix B, C).

Table 3.8 Regulatory Fit Outcomes Scale

I. Feeling Right: (based on Camacho et al., 2003; Cesario et al., 2004)
1. My interactions with that salesperson "felt right."
2. I felt proper when interacting with that salesperson.
3. I feel that interacting with that salesperson was the "right thing to do."
II. Arousal: (based on Avnet & Higgins, 2006)
4. It was interesting interacting with that salesperson.
5. It was enjoyable to interact with that salesperson.
6. It was exciting to interact with that salesperson.
III. Perceived value: (based on Avnet & Higgins, 2006; Wang & Lee, 2006)
7. The services provided by that salesperson are of value.
8. I felt confident when making the purchasing decision.

Source: developed for this study

The results of internal consistency reliability for the main study reported highly acceptable levels; feel-right (α = .940), arousal (α = .893), and perceived value (α

= .818) (see Table 5, Appendix D). The exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses results (see chapter 4) revealed high correlation among all three variables and one factor loading. In testing the hypotheses, this study calculated average summated scores using all items combined into one variable called "regulatory fit outcomes" (α = .947).

3.5.5 Instrument Development for Relational Quality

The interpersonal communication discipline became popular in the 1960s and 1970s. This popularity came about particularly with one of its earliest attempts to distinguish between the content and relational aspects of communication, providing a disciplinary identity for research into relational components in a variety of settings (Watzlawick & Beavin, 1967). In 1984, Burgoon and Hale identified 12 fundamental dimensions to interpersonal behavior, which developed into a 68 item measure named the Relational Message Scale (Burgoon & Hale, 1987; 1984). These 12 dimensions address the "how" of interpersonal communication, in which relational partners are presumed to exchange interpersonal messages and "define" their relationship. After further research and refinement, the relational message scale was validated and re-categorized into six themes: similarity/receptivity, dominance, task vs. social orientation, non-immediacy (distance), honesty, intimacy, arousal, and formality (Burgoon & Hale, 1987).In the context of buyer-seller interactions, this study selects four applicable relational themes from this previous research and modifies them to buyer's perceptions of relational quality exemplars —closeness, familiarity, relax, and receptivity— that contribute to and are determined by relational messages and patterns.

In the pretest, the relational message scale (Burgoon & Hale, 1987) was modified into the context of buyer-seller interaction. For example, the item "*He/She was intensely involved in our conversation*" was changed to "*I felt intensely involved in the sales interaction*" and "*He/She tried to develop a deeper relationship between us*" was changed to "*There was a strong relationship between the salesperson and me*" for closeness (see Appendix A).

The new relational quality scale for the study contains 16 questions distributed equally to four contexts of closeness, familiarity, relax, and receptivity. It accomplishes this in that the buyer rates attitudes toward perceptions of closeness, familiarity, relax, and receptivity when salespeople use preferable behaviors. Rating is based on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from (1) strongly disagree; (2) disagree; (3) slightly disagree; (4) neutral; (5) slightly agree; (6) agree; (7) strongly agree. In specific, buyers are asked to indicate their perception, using seven-point scales, of the extent to which they feel the specified relational quality when a salesperson uses those behaviors. The original relational message scale and modified relational quality scale items are presented in Tables 3.9 and 3.10 respectively.

Table 3.9 Original Relational Message Scale

I. Immediacy/ affection (Intimacy I):
1. He/She was intensely involved in our conversation.
2. He/She tried to develop a deeper relationship between us.
3. He/She was attracted to me.
4. He/She found the conversation stimulating.
5. He/She communicated warmth rather than coldness.

Table 3.9 (continued)

6. He/She created a sense of closeness between us.

7. He/She was interested in talking to me.

8. He/She showed enthusiasm while talking to me.

II. Similarity/ depth (Intimacy II):

1. He/She made me feel he/she was similar to me.

2. He/She tried to move the conversation to a deeper level.

3. He/She acted like we were good friends.

4. He/She tried to have further communication with me.

5. He/She seemed to care if I liked him.

III. Receptivity (Intimacy III):

1. He/She was sincere.

2. He/She was interested in talking with me.

3. He/She convinced me to trust him.

4. He/She was willing to listen to me.

5. He/She was open to my ideas.

6. He/She was honest in communicating with me.

IV. Composure:

1. He/She was calm and poised with me.

2. He/She felt very relaxed talking to me.

3. He/She was comfortable interacting with me.

V. Formality:

1. He/She made the interaction very formal.

2. He/She made the discussion to be casual.

3. He/She wanted the discussion to be informal.

VI. Dominance:

1. He/She attempted to persuade me.

2. He/She tried to control the interaction.

3. He/She tried to gain my approval.

4. He/She had the upper hand in the conversation.

VII. Equality:

1. He/She considered us equals.

2. He/She tried to cooperate with me.

VIII. Task orientation:

1. He/She focused to the main purpose of the interaction.

2. He/She was more interested in social conversation than the task at hand.

3. He/She was very work-oriented.

4. He/She was more interested in working on the task at hand than having social conversation.

Source: Burgoon & Hale (1987)

In the pretest, the internal scale reliabilities of relational quality are all highly acceptable (closeness = .817, familiarity = .836, relax = .944, and receptivity = .982) (see Table 2, Appendix D). This 16 item relational quality scale was further used in the pilot test and main study, and the internal scale reliabilities of all measures revealed high consistency (see Table 4, Appendix D). The results of internal consistency reliability for the main study reported highly acceptable levels as well; closeness (α = .866), familiarity (α = .807), relax (α = .944), and receptivity (α = .957) (see Table 5, Appendix D).

Table 3.10 Buyer's Perception of Relational Quality Scale

I. Closeness:
1. I felt intensely involved in the sales interaction.
2. There was a strong relationship between the salesperson and me.
3. I felt attracted to that salesperson.
4. There was a sense of closeness between the salesperson and me.
II. Familiarity:
5. The salesperson is similar to me.
6. The salesperson is a good friend.
7. The salesperson wants to have further communication with me.
8. The salesperson cares if I like him/her.
III. Relax:
9. The salesperson was calm and poised with me.
10. I felt very relaxed when talking to the salesperson.
11. I felt comfortable when interacting with the salesperson.
12. The salesperson made the discussion feel casual.
IV. Receptivity:
13. The salesperson was sincere with me.
14. I trust that salesperson.
15. The salesperson was willing to listen to me.
16. The salesperson was honest when communicating with me.

Source: developed for this study

The exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses results (see chapter 4) revealed high correlation among all four variables and suggested two factor loadings. In testing the hypotheses, this study calculated two factor scores, using closeness combined with familiarity called "friendship" ($\alpha = .902$), and relax combined with receptivity called "comfortable" ($\alpha = .967$).

A summary of constructs, measures, and measure sources is provided in Table 3.11. Also, a complete list of scale items can be found in Appendices A, B, C.

Table 3.11 Summary of Construct Operationalization and Scale Source for Main study

Variable name	Operational Definition	Scale Source	Number of Item
Buyer's regulatory orientation	Degree to which individual buyer oriented toward promotion or prevention focus (goal orientation)	Applied from Lockwood et al., 2002	10 items
Sales influence tactics	Degree to which salesperson used 11 influence tactics during interaction with buyers	Applied from Yukl et al., 2008	33 items
Selling orientation	Degree to which salesperson used 3 selling orientations during interacting with buyers	New, based on Neill & Rose, 2006	9 items
Regulatory fit outcomes	Perceived level of regulatory fit outcome (e.g., feel-right, arousal, perceived value)	New, based on Camacho et al., 2003; Avnet & Higgins, 2006; Wang & Lee, 2006	8 items
Relational quality	Perceived level of buyer's perception of relational quality with salesperson (e.g., closeness, familiarity, relax, receptivity)	Adapted from Burgoon & Hale, 1987	16 items

Source: developed for this study

3.6 Summary

This chapter has provided an analytic overview of the research process by identifying the target population, samples, and the instruments by which quantitative data are collected.

In conclusion, the buyer's regulatory orientation is operationalized with a ten-item scale adapted from Lockwood, Jordan, & Kunda (2002). Eleven sales influence tactics are measured on a 33-item scale modified from Yukl, Seifert, & Chavez (2008). Three selling orientations scales are newly developed for this study using a nine-item scale based on Neill and Rose (2006). For regulatory fit outcomes, an eight-item scale is also newly developed. Buyer's perceptions of relational quality are measured by a 16-item scale adapted from Burgoon and Hale (1987).

Finally, the statistical analysis techniques are presented, focusing on the different levels of statistical analysis (e.g., univariate, bivariate, and multivariate) aimed at testing the proposed conceptual model and research hypotheses.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the design and setting of this research, measurement development, data collection procedures, and data analysis methodology. This chapter, chapter 4, follows the order of steps in chapter 3 by illustrating the results of the statistical analysis of the data obtained from the pretest, pilot test and main study.

This chapter begins with a discussion of the sample characteristics and the descriptive statistics of the variables. A discussion of reliability and validity of the measures used in this research is reported by using the SPSS program. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the study are also presented using the AMOS program. Finally, the results of the multiple regressions for hypotheses testing are examined.

4.2 Sample Characteristics and Descriptive Statistics

This section seeks to explore, summarize and interpret the data gained from the study in hopes of establishing a clear understanding of its focus on the descriptive statistical analysis of the data collected from the pretest, pilot test and main study in using the SPSS statistical software. Included as well is the use of more advanced statistical

analyses, such as exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, for measurement analyses, and hierarchical multiple regression for hypotheses testing.

For the main study, the participants are 205 business individuals employed by companies that have less than 500 employees located in U.S. These participants are at least interacting with salespeople once a week. In Table 4.1, the demographic characteristics were reported presenting the profile of the respondents with regard to number of employees, gender, age, and work experience.

The gender of participants was almost equal, with 47.8% male and 52.2% female. The majority age range of the respondents is between 30 to 60 years old (78.06%). More than half of the respondents (60.97%) had over 10 years of work experience. In the area of sales interaction experience, the frequency was high (e.g., "at least once a week" (24.39%), "2-3 times a week" (28.78) and "daily" (46.83%), which is excellent for examining buyer-seller interaction. In integration of all of the above descriptions or values, the main study sample can be described as an experienced working age group who frequently interacts with salespeople, an appropriate sample for this study.

The descriptive statistics for the variables examined in the main study are presented in Table 4.2 which includes mean, standard deviation, and internal consistency reliability for each measure (see Appendix D - Table 5 for more details on min, max, skewness, and kurtosis).

Table 4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Participants in Main Study (N=205)

		Frequency	%
Number of employees	a. less than 25	138	67.32
	b. 25-100	37	18.05
	c. 101-500	30	14.63
	d. more than 500	0	0.00
	Total	205	100.00
Sales interact frequency	a. Never	0	0.00
	b. Less than Once a Month	0	0.00
	c. Once a Month	0	0.00
	d. 2-3 Times a Month	0	0.00
	e. Once a Week	50	24.39
	f. 2-3 Times a Week	59	28.78
	g. Daily	96	46.83
	Total	205	100.00
Gender	a. Male	98	47.80
	b. Female	107	52.20
	Total	205	100.00
Age	a. under 30	15	7.32
	b. 30-40	43	20.98
	c. 41-50	56	27.32
	d. 51 - 60	61	29.76
	e. over 60	30	14.63
	Total	205	100.00
Working experience	a. less than 2 years	10	4.88
	b. 2 to 5 years	30	14.63
	c. 6 to 10 years	40	19.51
	d. 11-15 years	35	17.07
	e. 16-20 years	30	14.63
	f. more than 20 years	60	29.27
	Total	205	100.00

Source: developed for this study

The initial tests of internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) were conducted to assess the reliability of each of the scales used. The internal reliability for the measures ranged from .451 to .957. Most of the measures included in the questionnaire showed adequate levels of initial internal consistency reliability (> .7) except buyer's prevention focus (.451) and buyer's promotion focus (.677) (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2 Descriptive Statistics and Reliability Estimates for Main Study (N = 205; Responses = 410)

Variable	Mean	SD	Cronbach's Alpha
Buyer's Regulatory Orientation			
Prevention focus	4.828	1.495	0.451
Promotion focus	5.560	1.172	0.677
11 Sales Influence Tactics			
Rational Persuasion	3.410	1.183	0.813
Exchange	2.310	1.362	0.877
Apprising	3.133	1.204	0.642
Consultation	2.933	1.361	0.822
Legitimating	2.187	1.350	0.857
Collaboration	3.047	1.387	0.841
Personal Appeal	1.693	1.173	0.954
Coalition	1.917	1.259	0.832
Ingratiation	2.590	1.428	0.893
Pressure	1.947	1.208	0.731
Inspirational Appeal	3.113	1.314	0.836
3 Selling Orientations			
Competitor-Oriented	2.773	1.359	0.839
Customer-Oriented	3.263	1.311	0.810
Service-Oriented	2.987	1.378	0.772
Regulatory Fit Outcomes			
Feel-right	4.453	1.649	0.940
Arousal	4.340	1.634	0.893
Perceived Value	5.030	1.605	0.818
Relational Quality			
Closeness	3.540	1.760	0.866
Familiarity	3.593	1.739	0.807
Relax	4.855	1.627	0.944
Receptivity	4.560	1.725	0.957

Source: developed for this research

4.3 Non-Response Bias

A non-response bias test was performed to confirm the generalization of results. Lambert and Herrington (1990) recommend testing non-response bias by assuming the last quartile of respondent response to be most similar to those of non-respondents. In this study, the non-response bias was done alternatively by an approximate selection of a random 50% of usable respondents as being the first quartile

representative of respondents. This was then compared the mean of all variables with the non-selected group, which was the second quartile representative of non-respondents. This comparison was considered a valid assessment of non-response bias used in several studies (e.g., Kapasuwan, 2004; Baker & Sinkula, 1999; Hult et al., 2000). Performing this type of non-response bias testing involved examining the homogeneity of variance between the two groups. By using Levene's test for equality of variances based on F-statistic, it is hypothesized that:

H_0 : *Variances of the two groups are equal.*

H_1 : *Variances of the two groups are unequal.*

2-tailed test

Theoretically, if p-value (significance) is less than .05 (p <.05), then Levene's test indicates that variances between the two populations are not equal (reject H_0), in which case the t-test assuming unequal variances can be used. In contrary, if p>.05, Levene's test indicates that equal variances can be assumed (accept H_0) or the homogeneity of variance exists, in which case the t-test assuming equal variances can be used.

Having run the test five times by randomly selecting around 50% of respondents (the results are shown in Table 1 - Appendix E) it is indicated that t-tests on demographics and key constructs of the study showed no significant difference between respondents and non-respondents for both data generated from randomly selected respondents and non-selected respondent groups.

Therefore, H_0 cannot be rejected at a five per cent level of significance. In other words, equal variances can be assumed. Thus, it may be implied that respondents were not different from non-respondents. As a result, non-response bias was not considered to be a serious limitation in this research.

4.4 Measurement Analyses Results (exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis)

In this study, there is a two-scenario manipulation (when there was a purchase and when there was no purchase); the responses of both scenarios were combined given a total of 410 observations for the measurement analyses except for the buyer's regulatory orientation scale (N = 205).

A combination of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses was utilized to assess the reliability, convergent and discriminant validity of the measures. First, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was utilized to analyze the items, identify problem items, if any, and purify the proposed scales. Followed the majority of previous social science research, this study analyzed EFA with the principal components extraction and varimax rotation methods (Costello & Osborne, 2005).Thereafter, the purified measures were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with maximum likelihood estimation, wherein the items were hypothesized to load only on their corresponding factor. Where appropriate, a series of factor analyses were conducted to verify the structure of newly developed and/or extensively modified measures.

4.4.1 Factor Analyses for Buyer's Regulatory Orientation

The initial measurement model of regulatory orientation is a two-factor model comprised of ten indicators (five indicators each for promotion focus and prevention focus). The ten items were factor analyzed by using the traditional principal components analysis with varimax rotation and Kaiser criterion (all factors with eigenvalues greater than one) for deciding the number of factors to be retained for rotation. To purify the proposed scales, the problematic items with low-loading, cross-loading or freestanding were deleted during the factor analyses rerunning. The EFA with varimax rotation results show three factors for buyer's regulatory orientation scale. After purification by eliminating Buyer_Prevent_4 and Buyer_Promo_1, the final results of the EFA analysis provide support for the discriminant validity of both measures (promotion and prevention focus) (see Table 4.5).

In the confirmatory factor analysis for buyer's regulatory orientation scale, the initial measurement estimation did not fit well compared to recommended fit indices and acceptable thresholds (Table 4.3). The Chi-square value of 437.270 with 35 degrees of freedom was statistically significant at $p < .01$. The other fit statistics indicated that the model was not acceptable (GFI = .828; NFI = .577; TLI = .477; CFI = .593; RMSEA = .168; Standardized RMR = .1664). The poor fit of the model was revised by investigating modification indices or the standard residuals (Hair et al., 1998). Thus, the model was modified according to the recommendation of the modification indices.

Table 4.3 Fit Indices and Acceptable Thresholds

Fit Index	Acceptable Threshold Levels	Description
Absolute Fit Indices		
Chi-square $\chi2$	Low $\chi2$ relative to degrees of freedom with an insignificant p value (p > .05)	
Relative $\chi2$ ($\chi2$/df)	2:1 (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007) 3:1 (Kline, 2005)	Adjusts for sample size.
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	Values less than .07 (Steiger, 2007)	Has a known distribution. Favors parsimony. Values less than .03 represent excellent fit.
GFI	Values greater than .95	Scaled between 0 and 1, with higher values indicating better model fit. This statistic should be used with caution.
SRMR	SRMR less than .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999)	Standardized version of the RMR. Easier to interpret due to its standardized nature.
Incremental Fit Indices		
NFI	Values greater than .95	Assesses fit relative to a baseline model which assumes no covariances between the observed variables. Has a tendency to overestimate fit in small samples.
TLI (NNFI)	Values greater than .95	Non-normed, values can fall outside the 0-1 range. Favors parsimony. Performs well in simulation studies (Sharma et al., 2005)
CFI	Values greater than .95	Normed, 0-1 range.

Source: developed for this research

In order to improve the model, indicators which were related to problematic standard residuals (2.5 as a cut-off, Anderson & Gerbing, 1988) or larger reductions of Chi-square were identified and eliminated one by one. After removing 3 indicators, an

acceptable model was achieved ($\chi 2$ $_{(11, N=205)}$ = 13.445, p = .265, GFI = .991; NFI = .977; TLI = .992, CFI = .996; RMSEA = .023). Parameter estimates of the final model were inspected and no problematic occasions were found. Table 4.4 presents the modified indicators in each run of CFA and the evidence of model fit.

Table 4.4 CFA Fit Indices of Buyer's Regulatory Orientation Scale

CFA	Modified Item	Evidence of model fit after item modifications
1st	none (run 2 latent variables with 10 indicators)	Chi-square = 437.270; df = 35; p = .000; Relative Chi-square = 12.493 GFI = .828; NFI = .577; TLI = .477; CFI = .593; RMSEA = .168; Standardized RMR = .1664
2nd	add correlation error Prevention 2<->4; Prevention 4<->5; add correlation between promotion and prevention; delete Promotion 1 (run 2 latent variables with 9 indicators)	Chi-square = 115.537; df = 24; p = .000; Relative Chi-square = 4.814 GFI = .946; NFI = .869; TLI = .837; CFI = .891; RMSEA = .097; Standardized RMR = .0634
3rd	add correlation error Prevention 3<->4; Prevention 3<->5; delete Promotion 2 (run 2 latent variables with 8 indicators)	Chi-square = 29.491; df = 15; p = .014; Relative Chi-square = 1.966 GFI = .982; NFI = .955; TLI = .957; CFI = .977; RMSEA = .049; Standardized RMR = .0309
4th	delete Prevention 5 (run 2 latent variables with 7 indicators)	Chi-square = 13.445; df = 11; p = .265; Relative Chi-square = 1.222 GFI = .991; NFI = .977; TLI = .992; CFI = .996; RMSEA = .023; Standardized RMR = .0226

Model Fit Criteria: p > .05; .95< GFI, NFI, TLI, CFI <1.0; RMSEA <.07; SRMR < .08

Source: developed for this research

Table 4.5 Factor Analysis Results of Buyer's Regulatory Orientation Scale

Items (N = 205)	Variables	EFA (varimax)			Final EFA		CFA	
		1	2	3	1	2	1	2
I focus on preventing problems when making purchasing decisions.	Buyer_Prevent_1	0.360	0.417	**0.489**	0.364	**0.606**		
I get concerned about potential difficulties making purchasing decisions.	Buyer_Prevent_2			**0.836**	0.189	**0.471**		
When making purchasing decisions I consider the problems that might occur.	Buyer_Prevent_3	0.268	**0.676**	0.263	0.176	**0.743**		0.855
I worry that my manager or partner might question my purchasing decision.	Buyer_Prevent_4		**0.548**	-0.639				0.782
I am more concerned about preventing losses than achieving gains when making purchasing decisions.	Buyer_Prevent_5	-0.119	**0.629**		-0.274	**0.654**		0.449
I consider how purchase decision will help me achieve my aspirations.	Buyer_Promo_1		**0.759**	-0.156			0.743	
I think about what I ideally want to happen when making purchasing decisions.	Buyer_Promo_2	**0.668**	0.247	0.275	**0.650**	0.395	0.417	
I focus on achieving positive	Buyer_Promo_3	**0.863**			**0.835**	0.163	0.522	

outcomes when making purchasing decisions.						
I imagine the good things that might happen when making purchasing decisions.	Buyer_Promo_4	**0.810**	0.148	**0.767**	0.254	-0.041
I am more oriented toward achieving success than preventing failure when making purchasing decisions.	Buyer_Promo_5	**0.639**	-0.148	**0.653**	-0.104	
Eigenvalue				2.950	1.283	

EFA - standardized factor loading; CFA - standardized regression weight

Source: developed for this research

In comparison (see Table 4.5), results of the CFA suggests three indicators for buyer's prevention focus and four indicators for promotion focus while EFA results show two factors (promotion and prevention) with four items in each factor. This study decided to use the items suggested in the EFA results as these items reveal high factor loadings and reserve the theoretical content of regulatory orientation. Four items for each buyer's regulatory orientation, prevention (4 items; α = .538) and promotion focus (4 items; α = .759) were calculated using factor scores which will be further tested with multiple regression analyses for hypotheses testing.

4.4.2 Factor Analyses for Sales Influence Tactics

The measurement model for sales influence tactics is a eleven-factor model comprised of 33 indicators (three indicators for each factor). As recommended by Yukl

and his colleagues (2008), IBQ scale was designed to have the items from each type of influence summed and that factor analysis or other reflective measurement techniques were inappropriate, the EFA for each tactics were analyzed instead of all 33 items in the scale. The EFA results reveal high factor loading for all three items in each subscale of which show unidimensionality of each influence tactic subscale (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.6 Factor Analysis Results: Sales Influence Tactic Scale

Items (N = 410)	Variables	EFA
I. Rational persuasion:	*Eigenvalue*	*2.189*
1. Salesperson made a detailed explanation of the reasons you should purchase.	Rational_Persuasion_1	**0.873**
2. Salesperson used facts and logic to make a persuasive case for purchasing.	Rational_Persuasion_2	**0.895**
3. Salesperson explained clearly why a request or proposed change was necessary.	Rational_Persuasion_3	**0.791**
II. Exchange:	*Eigenvalue*	*2.409*
4. Salesperson offered to do something for you in exchange for your purchase.	Exchange_1	**0.917**
5. Salesperson offered to do a specific task in exchange for your purchase.	Exchange_2	**0.911**
6. Salesperson offered to do something in the future in return for your purchase now.	Exchange_3	**0.859**
III. Inspirational appeal:	*Eigenvalue*	*2.267*
7. Salesperson made an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse your enthusiasm for their services.	Inspirational_Appeal_1	0.789
8. Salesperson described a clear, appealing vision of what their services could accomplish for you.	Inspirational_Appeal_2	**0.905**
9. Salesperson described how their services could serve as an opportunity to accomplish exciting and worthwhile objectives for you.	Inspirational_Appeal_3	0.908
IV. Legitimating:	*Eigenvalue*	*2.336*
10. Salesperson said that a proposed activity or change was consistent with official policies or legal statutes.	Legitimating_1	**0.887**
11. Salesperson said that his/her request or proposal was consistent with a prior agreement or contract.	Legitimating_2	**0.911**
12. Salesperson verified that a request was legitimate by referring to a document such as a work order, policy manual, charter, bylaws, or formal contract.	Legitimating_3	**0.848**
V. Apprising:	*Eigenvalue*	*1.826*
13. Salesperson explained how you could benefit from purchasing.	Apprising_1	**0.899**
14. Salesperson explained how your purchase could help his/her career.	Apprising_2	**0.426**
15. Salesperson explained why the purchase would be good for you.	Apprising_3	**0.915**

Table 4.6 (continued)

VI. Pressure:	*Eigenvalue*	*1.961*
16. Salesperson pressured you to make a purchase.	Pressure_1	**0.704**
17. Salesperson used threats or warnings when trying to get you to do something needed to complete the sale.	Pressure_2	**0.856**
18. Salesperson repeatedly checked to see if you had carried out any requests he/she made.	Pressure_3	**0.856**
VII. Collaboration:	*Eigenvalue*	*2.275*
19. Salesperson offered to provide any assistance you may need to make the purchase.	Collaboration_1	**0.862**
20. Salesperson offered to provide resources you would need to make the purchase.	Collaboration_2	**0.874**
21. Salesperson offered to help resolve any new problems created for you if you purchased.	Collaboration_3	**0.877**
VIII. Ingratiation:	*Eigenvalue*	*2.472*
22. Salesperson complimented you about something during the sales call.	Ingratiation_1	**0.879**
23. Salesperson said that you have the unique skills and knowledge needed to make a good decision.	Ingratiation_2	**0.930**
24. Salesperson praised your past performance or achievements during the sales call.	Ingratiation_3	**0.913**
IX. Consultation:	*Eigenvalue*	*2.213*
25. Salesperson asked you to suggest things he/she could do to help you achieve a task objective.	Consultation_1	**0.849**
26. Salesperson asked you to suggest ways he/she could support you.	Consultation_2	**0.896**
27. Salesperson encouraged you to express any concerns about the purchase that he/she could address.	Consultation_3	**0.830**
X. Personal Appeals:	*Eigenvalue*	*2.746*
28. Salesperson asked for your help as a personal favor.	Personal_Appeal_1	**0.951**
29. Salesperson asked you to do something for him/her as a friend.	Personal_Appeal_2	**0.960**
30. Salesperson said that he/she needed to ask you for a personal favor.	Personal_Appeal_3	**0.959**
XI. Coalition:	*Eigenvalue*	*2.247*
31. Salesperson asked someone you respect to help influence you to make the purchase.	Coalition_1	**0.834**
32. Salesperson brought someone else along to support him/her when meeting with you on the sales call.	Coalition_2	**0.861**
33. Salesperson got someone with higher authority to help influence you to purchase.	Coalition_3	**0.900**

EFA - standardized factor loading; CFA - standardized regression weight

Source: developed for this research

According to the recommendation from Yukl personally, the confirmatory factor analyses are not very useful for analyzing data from the IBQ scale as the scale includes a wide variety of behavior examples, particularly when the items describe

alternative ways to use a tactic. All of the measures for the 11 sales influence tactics showed adequate levels of internal consistency reliability, with the highest at .954 (personal appeal tactic) and lowest at .642 (apprising tactic) (see Table 5, Appendix D).

4.4.3 Factor Analyses for Selling Orientations

The measurement model for selling orientation is a three-factor model comprised of nine indicators (three indicators for each factor). The EFA result shows one factor for selling orientations scale while the EFA with varimax reveals two factors for competitor-oriented and a combination of customer-oriented and service-oriented selling orientations.

The initial measurement estimation of the selling orientation model did not fit well. The Chi-square value of 685.920 with 27 degrees of freedom was statistically significant at $p<0.01$. The other fit statistics indicated that the model was not acceptable (RMSEA = .244; SRMR = .3555; GFI = .753; TLI = .558; CFI = .668). Thus, the model was modified according to the recommendation of the modification index.

The modification indices reveal high correlation among all three variables. After adding a correlation among three factors and removing three indicators (Competitor_Oriented 1, Customer_Oriented 3, and Service_Oriented_2), an acceptable model was achieved as shown in Table 4.6 ($\chi2_{(6, N=410)}$ = 4.528, p = .606, GFI = .996; TLI = .996, CFI = 1.000; RMSEA = 0.000). Parameter estimates of the final model were inspected and no problematic occasions were found. Table 4.7 presents the modified indicators in each run of CFA and the evidence of model fit.

Table 4.7 CFA Fit Indices of Selling Orientations Scale

CFA	Modified Item	Evidence of model fit after item modifications
1st	none (run 3 latent variables with 9 indicators)	Chi-square = 685.920; df = 27; p = .000; Relative Chi-square = 25.404 GFI = .753; NFI = .661; TLI = .558; CFI = .668; RMSEA = .244; Standardized RMR = .3555
2nd	add correlation among 3 latent variables (run 3 latent variables with 9 indicators)	Chi-square = 231.246; df = 24; p = .000; Relative Chi-square = 9.635 GFI = .881; NFI = .886; TLI = .844; CFI = .896; RMSEA = .145; Standardized RMR = .0751
3rd	delete Competitor_Oriented 1 (run 3 latent variables with 8 indicators)	Chi-square = 137.663; df = 17; p = .000; Relative Chi-square = 8.098 GFI = .922; NFI = .919; TLI = .881; CFI = .928; RMSEA = .132; Standardized RMR = .0598
4th	delete Customer_Oriented 3 (run 3 latent variables with 7 indicators)	Chi-square = 56.308; df = 11; p = .000; Relative Chi-square = 5.119 GFI = .963; NFI = .960; TLI = .938; CFI = .968; RMSEA = .100; Standardized RMR = .0496
5th	delete Service_Oriented 2 (run 3 latent variables with 6 indicators)	Chi-square = 4.528; df = 6; p = .606; Relative Chi-square = .755 GFI = .996; NFI = .996; TLI = 1.003; CFI = 1.000; RMSEA = .000; Standardized RMR = .0135

Model Fit Criteria: p > .05; .95< GFI, NFI, TLI, CFI <1.0; RMSEA <.07; SRMR < .08

Source: developed for this research

After comparing the EFA and CFA results (see Table 4.8), the CFA suggests only two indicators for each selling orientation and the EFA results show two factors out of three variables with three items in each selling orientation variable. As all three selling orientations are theoretically distinguished and independent, this study combines three items of each selling orientation to calculate the average summated scores which were further tested with multiple regression analyses for hypotheses testing. The Cronbach's alpha of three selling orientations are highly acceptable; competitor-oriented (α = .839), customer-oriented (α = .810), and service-oriented (α = .772).

Table 4.8 Factor Analysis Results of Selling Orientations Scale

Items (N = 410)	Variables	EFA		EFA (varimax)		CFA		
		1	2	1	2	1	2	3
Presented how his/her company had a competitive advantage over other competitors.	Competitor_ Oriented_1	**0.742**	0.290	0.412	**0.682**			
Shared information concerning competitors' services.	Competitor_ Oriented_2	**0.696**	0.608	0.182	**0.906**	0.866		
Discussed the competitors' strengths and strategies.	Competitor_ Oriented_3	**0.686**	0.574	0.195	**0.873**	0.863		
Said they were committed to serving your needs.	Customer_ Oriented_1	**0.771**	-0.208	**0.738**	0.305		0.831	
Presented how he/she can provide greater value for you and make you satisfied.	Customer_ Oriented_2	**0.806**	-0.190	**0.755**	0.340		0.887	
Paid close attention to after-sales service.	Customer_ Oriented_3	**0.709**	-0.368	**0.787**	0.140			
Shared information concerning the offered services.	Service_ Oriented_1	**0.757**	-0.365	**0.823**	0.172			0.795
Discussed how the offered services can be improved.	Service_ Oriented_2	**0.695**		0.531	0.450			
Presented how the offered services are made with the highest quality.	Service_ Oriented_3	**0.750**	-0.273	**0.761**	0.240			0.757
Eigenvalue				4.873	1.207			

EFA - standardized factor loading; CFA - standardized regression weight

Source: developed for this research

4.4.4 Factor Analyses for Regulatory Fit Outcomes

The original measurement model of regulatory fit outcomes is a three-factor model comprised of eight indicators (i.e., feel-right – 3 items, arousal – 3 items, and perceived value – 2 items). The EFA results show one factor for regulatory fit outcome scale of which show that all three variables are highly correlated (see Table 4.10).

The measurement estimation of model fit well with a Chi-square value of 11.425 with 11 degrees of freedom, $p = .408$. The other fit statistics indicated that the

model was acceptable after adding correlation among three factors and deleting Feel_Right 3 (RMSEA = .010; SRMR = .0142; GFI = .992; NFI = .993; TLI = 1.000; CFI = 1.000) (see Table 4.9).

After examining the EFA and CFA results (see Table 4.10), both suggest one factor with high factor loading. This study combines all eight items to calculate the average summated score for one variable called "regulatory fit outcomes" (α = .947) which was further tested with multiple regression analyses for hypotheses testing.

Table 4.9 CFA Fit Indices of Regulatory Fit Outcome Scale

CFA	Modified Item	Evidence of model fit after item modifications
1st	delete Feel_Right 3 add correlation among 3 latent variables (run 3 latent variables with 7 indicators)	Chi-square = 11.425; df = 11; p = .408; Relative Chi-square = 1.039 GFI = .992; NFI = .993; TLI = 1.000; CFI = 1.000; RMSEA = .010; Standardized RMR = .0142
Model Fit Criteria: p > .05; .95< GFI, NFI, TLI, CFI <1.0; RMSEA <.07; SRMR < .08		

Source: developed for this research

Table 4.10 Factor Analysis Results of Regulatory Fit Outcome Scale

Items (N = 410)	Variables	EFA 1	CFA 1
My interactions with that salesperson "felt right."	Feel_Right_1	0.892	0.933
I felt proper when interacts with that salesperson.	Feel_Right_2	0.908	0.490
I feel that interacting with that salesperson was the "right thing to do."	Feel_Right_3	0.876	
It was interesting interacting with that salesperson.	Arousal_1	0.835	0.829
It was enjoyable to interact with that salesperson.	Arousal_2	0.915	0.970
It was exciting to interact with that salesperson.	Arousal_3	0.814	0.302
The services provided by salesperson are of value.	Perceived_Value_1	0.833	0.884
I felt confident when making purchasing decision.	Perceived_Value_2	0.762	0.783
Eigenvalue		5.859	
EFA - standardized factor loading; CFA - standardized regression weight			

Source: developed for this research

4.4.5 Factor Analyses for Relational Quality

The initial measurement model for relational quality is a four-factor model comprised of sixteen indicators (four indicators for each factor). The EFA with varimax shows two factors with low factor loading on Closeness_1. The final EFA without Closeness_1, reveals high factor loading on all items (see Table 4.11).

The initial measurement estimation of the relational quality model did not fit well. The Chi-square value of 515.411 with 98 degrees of freedom was statistically significant at p<.01. The other fit statistics also indicated that the model was not acceptable (RMSEA = .102; SRMR = .630; GFI = .860; NFI = .924; TLI = .923; CFI = .937). Thus, the model was modified according to the recommendation of the modification index.

The modification index shows high correlation among factors and recommends for added correlation among closeness, familiarity, relax and receptivity. Moreover, the indicators related to problematic standard residuals or larger reductions of Chi-square were identified and deleted one by one. After adding a correlation among four factors and removing 4 indicators (Closeness_1, Familiarity_2, Closeness_2, Relax_4), an acceptable model was achieved as shown in Table 4.9 ($\chi2_{(35, N=410)}$ = 49.497, p = .052, GFI = .979; NFI = .989; TLI = .995; CFI = .997; RMSEA = .032). Parameter estimates of the final model were inspected and no problematic occasions were found. Table 4.11 presents the modified indicators in each run of CFA and the evidence of model fit.

Table 4.11 CFA Fit Indices of Relational Quality Scale

CFA	Modified Item	Evidence of model fit after item modifications
1st	add correlation among 4 latent variables (run 4 latent variables with 16 indicators)	Chi-square = 515.411; df = 98; p = .000; Relative Chi-square = 5.259 GFI = .860; NFI = .924; TLI = .923; CFI = .937; RMSEA = .102; Standardized RMR = .0630
2nd	delete Closeness 1; add correlation between errors of Familiarity 1-3, 3-4; errors of Relax 3-4; errors of Receptivity 2-3 (run 4 latent variables with 15 indicators)	Chi-square = 293.999; df = 80; p = .000; Relative Chi-square = 3.675 GFI = .915; NFI = .954; TLI = .956; CFI = .966; RMSEA = .081; Standardized RMR = .0468
3rd	delete Familiarity 2 delete Relax 1 (run 4 latent variables with 13 indicators)	Chi-square = 173.345; df = 55; p = .000; Relative Chi-square = 3.152 GFI = .945; NFI = .969; TLI = .970; CFI = .979; RMSEA = .073; Standardized RMR = .0383
4th	delete Closeness 2 (run 4 latent variables with 12 indicators)	Chi-square = 123.501; df = 44; p = .000; Relative Chi-square = 2.807 GFI = .957; NFI = .976; TLI = .976; CFI = .984; RMSEA = .066; Standardized RMR = .0295
5th	delete Relax 4 (run 4 latent variables with 11 indicators)	Chi-square = 49.497; df = 35; p = .052; Relative Chi-square = 1.417 GFI = .979; NFI = .989; TLI = .995; CFI = .997; RMSEA = .032; Standardized RMR = .0238

Model Fit Criteria: p > .05; .95< GFI, NFI, TLI, CFI <1.0; .05< RMSEA <.07; SRMR < .08

Source: developed for this research

After examining the EFA and CFA results (see Table 4.12), both suggest two factors with high factor loading. In testing the hypotheses, this study calculated two factor scores, using closeness combined with familiarity calling it "friendship", and relaxes combined with receptivity called "comfortable."

Table 4.12 Factor Analysis Results: Relational Quality Scale

Items (N = 410)	Variables	EFA (varimax)		Final EFA		CFA			
		1	2	1	2	1	2	3	4
I felt intensely involved in the sales interaction.	Closeness_1	0.570	0.434						
There was a strong relationship between the salesperson and me.	Closeness_2	0.477	**0.726**	0.468	**0.722**				
I felt attracted to that salesperson.	Closeness_3	0.139	**0.794**	0.136	**0.794**	0.698			
There was a sense of closeness between the salesperson and me.	Closeness_4	0.401	**0.797**	0.399	**0.800**	0.940			
The salesperson is similar to me.	Familiarity_1	0.471	**0.716**	0.472	**0.720**		0.892		
The salesperson is a good friend.	Familiarity_2	0.197	**0.816**	0.197	**0.820**				
The salesperson wants to have further communication with me.	Familiarity_3	0.114	**0.588**	0.114	**0.590**		0.461		
The salesperson cares if I like them.	Familiarity_4	0.334	**0.669**	0.333	**0.672**		0.674		
The salesperson was calm and poised with me.	Relax_1	**0.838**	0.166	**0.838**	0.170				
I felt very relaxed when talking to the salesperson.	Relax_2	**0.881**	0.245	**0.882**	0.250			0.959	
I felt comfortable when interacting with the salesperson.	Relax_3	**0.894**	0.242	**0.895**	0.246			0.976	
The salesperson made the discussion feel casual.	Relax_4	**0.857**	0.261	**0.856**	0.264				
The salesperson was sincere with me.	Receptivity_1	**0.848**	0.331	**0.849**	0.336				0.931
I trust that salesperson.	Receptivity_2	**0.810**	0.423	**0.810**	0.427				0.944
The salesperson was willing to listen to me.	Receptivity_3	**0.854**	0.302	**0.853**	0.305				0.892
The salesperson was honest when communicating with me.	Receptivity_4	**0.828**	0.357	**0.828**	0.361				0.930
Eigenvalue				*9.257*	*1.850*				

EFA - standardized factor loading; CFA - standardized regression weight

Source: developed for this research

4.5 Multi Level Analysis (hypotheses testing)

A series of hierarchical regression analyses were performed to test the hypothesized relationships proposed in chapter two, section 2.6 "Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses."

4.5.1 The Interaction Effect of Buyer's Regulatory Orientation and Adaptive Selling Behaviors on Regulatory Fit Outcomes

The relation between two variables may also depend on another variable, called a moderator variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Moderator variables affect the strength of a relation between two variables and are typically tested with interaction effects (Morgan-Lopez & MacKinnon, 2006).

In light of this, to test the proposed hypotheses 1 to hypotheses 4, this study utilized a hierarchical regression model approach. This approach allows for simultaneous modeling of interactions among variables at different levels of analysis while accounting for their different sources of variance. The standard hierarchical regression model approach is to test a series of models for hypotheses that relate to different levels.

At level 1 analysis, a regression equation is estimated for each selling behavior to regulatory fit outcomes in the study. Further, interactions between each selling behaviors and buyer's regulatory orientation (promotion or prevention focus), according to the proposed hypotheses, are included in level 2 analysis. At level 3 analysis, the reverse interaction terms between each selling behaviors and the other type of buyer's regulatory orientation are included as alternative testing. The idea here is that a promotion consistent selling behaviors should be more effective for a promotion-focused

buyer, but it could alternatively be that a buyer with a promotion focus would react negatively to a prevention focus selling behaviors. In short, there might be good reason to expect that an inconsistent selling behavior (negative fit) would produce unfavorable outcomes.

Level 1: Main variables

$$Y_i = \beta_o + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 X_5 + \cdots + \beta_{16} X_{16} + \varepsilon \qquad (1)$$

where

Y_i	: Regulatory fit outcomes
X_1	: Inspirational appeals
X_2	: Personal appeals
X_3	: Collaboration
X_4	: Apprising
X_5	: Ingratiation
X_6	: Exchange
X_7	: Consultation
X_8	: Rational persuasion
X_9	: Legitimating tactics
X_{10}	: Pressure
X_{11}	: Coalition tactics
X_{12}	: Customer-oriented selling orientation
X_{13}	: Service-oriented selling orientation

X_{14} : Competitor-oriented selling orientation

X_{15} : Buyer's promotion focus

X_{16} : Buyer's prevention focus

ε : Random Error or residual

Level 2: Interaction terms

$$Y_i = \beta_o + \beta_1 X_1 + \cdots + \beta_{16} X_{16} + \beta_{17} X_{17} M_1 + \beta_{18} X_{18} M_1 + \cdots + \beta_{30} X_{30} M_2 + \varepsilon \quad (2)$$

where

Y_i : Regulatory fit outcomes

$X_{17} M_1$: Inspirational appeals x Promotion focus

$X_{18} M_1$: Personal appeals x Promotion focus

$X_{19} M_1$: Collaboration x Promotion focus

$X_{20} M_1$: Apprising x Promotion focus

$X_{21} M_1$: Ingratiation x Promotion focus

$X_{22} M_1$: Exchange x Promotion focus

$X_{23} M_2$: Consultation x Prevention focus

$X_{24} M_2$: Rational persuasion x Prevention focus

$X_{25} M_2$: Legitimating tactics x Prevention focus

$X_{26} M_2$: Pressure x Prevention focus

$X_{27} M_2$: Coalition tactics x Prevention focus

$X_{28} M_1$: Customer-oriented selling orientation x Promotion focus

$X_{29} M_1$: Service-oriented selling orientation x Promotion focus

$X_{30}M_2$: Competitor-oriented selling orientation x Prevention focus

M_1 : Buyer's promotion focus

M_2 : Buyer's prevention focus

ε : Random Error or residual

Level 3: Reverse interaction terms

$$Y_i = \beta_o + \beta_1 X_1 + \cdots + \beta_{16}X_{16} + \beta_{17}X_{17}M_1 + \cdots + \beta_{30}X_{30}M_2 + \beta_{31}X_{31}M_2 +$$

$$\beta_{32}X_{32}M_2 + \cdots + \beta_{44}X_{44}M_1 + \varepsilon \tag{3}$$

where

Y_i : Regulatory fit outcomes

$X_{31}M_2$: Inspirational appeals x Prevention focus

$X_{32}M_2$: Personal appeals x Prevention focus

$X_{33}M_2$: Collaboration x Prevention focus

$X_{34}M_2$: Apprising x Prevention focus

$X_{35}M_2$: Ingratiation x Prevention focus

$X_{36}M_2$: Exchange x Prevention focus

$X_{37}M_1$: Consultation x Promotion focus

$X_{38}M_1$: Rational persuasion x Promotion focus

$X_{39}M_1$: Legitimating tactics x Promotion focus

$X_{40}M_1$: Pressure x Promotion focus

$X_{41}M_1$: Coalition tactics x Promotion focus

$X_{42}M_2$: Customer-oriented selling orientation x Prevention focus

$X_{43}M_2$: Service-oriented selling orientation x Prevention focus

$X_{44}M_1$: Competitor-oriented selling orientation x Promotion focus

M_1 : Buyer's promotion focus

M_2 : Buyer's prevention focus

ε : Random Error or residual

Specifically, in order to test hypotheses 1 to hypotheses 4, a series of moderated regression analysis with interaction effects were conducted (Aiken & West, 1991; Jaccard & Turrisi, 2003). First, the interaction terms between independent variables (11 sales influence tactics and 3 selling orientations) and the moderator variable (buyer's regulatory orientation) were calculated. Secondly, the data was split into two groups representing purchase and non-purchase scenarios before running through hierarchical regression. The regression of reverse hypotheses testing is also calculated by using the alternative buyer's regulatory orientation as moderator (other than buyer's regulatory orientation used in the first step) in order to compare the regression results. The hierarchical regression was analyzed separately by using regulatory fit outcomes as dependent variables. The results are presented below.

Hypothesis 1 stated that "the greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's (a) inspirational appeals, (b) personal appeals, (c) collaboration, (d) apprising, (e) ingratiation, and (f) exchange on regulatory fit outcomes." Figure 4.1 illustrates the moderating effect of buyer's promotion focus and six influence tactics in hypothesis 1.

Figure 4.1 The Moderating Effect of Buyer's promotion Focus and six Influence Tactics on Regulatory Fit Outcomes in Hypothesis 1

Source: developed for this research

For the purchase scenario (Table 4.13), the results shown in equation 1 indicate that the main independent variables along with buyer's regulatory orientation explain 33.4% of the variance in regulatory fit outcomes ($F_{16, 188} = 5.897$, p<.001). The inclusion of the interaction terms in equation 2 resulted in a significant increase in the total variance in the perceived comfortable. In particular, the interaction term explained an extra 8.8% of the variance in the regulatory fit outcome variable ($\Delta F_{14, 174} = 1.885$, p<.05) above and beyond the rest of the variables included in the equation. The inclusion of the reverse interaction terms in equation 3 shows no significant results.

Among six sub-hypotheses (H1a to H1f), the regression results indicate that only H1c is supported. The interaction term between collaboration and buyer's promotion focus (H1c) is found to be positive and significant (B = .22, p<.05). However, the interaction term between apprising and buyer's promotion focus (H1d) is found to be negative and marginally significant (B = -.21, p<.1) (see Table 4.13). There is theoretical value in the "negative" relationships if the lack of a fit lowered outcomes. This would indicate partial support for H1a thru H1f. In other words, while fit does not increase regulatory fit outcomes, the lack of fit decreased regulatory fit outcomes.

For the non-purchase scenario (Table 4.14), results shown in equation 1 indicate that the main independent variables along with buyer's regulatory orientation explain 46.7% of the variance in regulatory fit outcomes ($F_{16, 188}$ = 10.286, p<.001). The inclusion of the interaction terms in equation 2 resulted in a significant increase in the total variance in the regulatory fit outcomes. In particular, the interaction term explained an extra 7.1% of the variance in the regulatory fit outcomes variable ($\Delta F_{14, 174}$ = 1.894, p<.05) above and beyond the rest of the variables included in the equation. The inclusion of the reverse interaction terms in equation 3 shows no significant results.

Among six sub-hypotheses (H1a to H1f), then the regression results indicate that H1a is supported. The interaction term between inspirational appeal and buyer's promotion focus (H1a) is found to be positive and significant (B = .21, p<.05) while the interaction term between apprising and buyer's promotion focus (H1d) is found to be negative and significant (B = -.28, p<.05) (see Table 4.14).

Table 4.13 Multiple Regression Results for Selling Behaviors and Buyer's Regulatory
Orientation: Purchase Scenario with Regulatory Fit Outcomes as Dependent Variable

Dependent Variables: Regulatory Fit Outcomes

Purchase Scenario Independent Variables	Equation 1 B		Sig	Equation 2 B		Sig	Equation 3 B		Sig
Main Variables									
(Constant)	3.93	****	0.000	3.90	****	0.000	3.97	****	0.000
1. Inspirational Appeal	-0.09		0.360	0.02		0.826	0.03		0.750
2. Personal Appeal	-0.10		0.357	-0.12		0.257	-0.16		0.162
3. Collaboration	0.19	**	0.020	0.11		0.187	0.06		0.460
4. Apprising	-0.16		0.137	-0.17		0.123	-0.11		0.348
5. Ingratiation	-0.06		0.415	-0.06		0.470	-0.03		0.676
6. Exchange	-0.01		0.921	0.02		0.785	0.00		0.989
7. Consultation	0.07		0.415	0.08		0.371	0.05		0.573
8. Rational Persuasion	-0.01		0.938	-0.02		0.813	-0.04		0.720
9. Legitimating	0.13		0.105	0.13		0.111	0.15	*	0.073
10. Pressure	-0.17		0.152	-0.26	**	0.036	-0.35	**	0.011
11. Coalition	0.16		0.111	0.20	**	0.046	0.20	*	0.055
12. Customer Oriented	0.11		0.244	0.19	*	0.061	0.21	**	0.049
13. Service Oriented	0.23	**	0.036	0.15		0.157	0.18		0.110
14. Competitor Oriented	0.01		0.864	0.02		0.781	-0.02		0.830
15. Buyer Promotion focus	0.16	**	0.015	0.88	***	0.004	1.07	****	0.001
16. Buyer Prevention focus	0.13	**	0.044	-0.21		0.450	-0.21		0.476
Interaction Terms									
H1a: Inspirational appeal x Promotion				-0.12		0.218	-0.09		0.418
H1b: Personal appeal x Promotion				0.01		0.906	0.14		0.268
H1c: Collaboration x Promotion				0.22	**	0.012	0.20	**	0.043
H1d: Apprising x Promotion				-0.21	*	0.078	-0.20		0.148
H1e: Ingratiation x Promotion				0.03		0.758	0.06		0.562
H1f: Exchange x Promotion				-0.02		0.766	0.01		0.917
H2a: Consultation x Prevention				-0.01		0.914	0.12		0.281
H2b: Rational persuasion x Prevention				0.08		0.305	0.15		0.119
H2c: Legitimating x Prevention				-0.01		0.908	-0.05		0.617
H2d: Pressure x Prevention				0.07		0.516	0.10		0.504
H2e: Coalition x Prevention				0.01		0.891	-0.07		0.523
H3a: Customer-oriented x Promotion				-0.31	***	0.006	-0.27	*	0.051
H3b: Service-oriented x Promotion				0.19	**	0.034	0.10		0.371
H4: Competitor-oriented x Prevention				-0.01		0.937	-0.01		0.911
Reverse Interaction Terms									
H1a: Inspirational appeal x Prevention							-0.03		0.751
H1b: Personal appeal x Prevention							0.19	*	0.082
H1c: Collaboration x Prevention							-0.19	*	0.076
H1d: Apprising x Prevention							-0.17		0.195
H1e: Ingratiation x Prevention							-0.01		0.927
H1f: Exchange x Prevention							0.07		0.373
H2a: Consultation x Promotion							-0.14		0.235
H2b: Rational persuasion x Promotion							0.09		0.433
H2c: Legitimating x Promotion							-0.13		0.289
H2d: Pressure x Promotion							-0.27	*	0.072
H2e: Coalition x Promotion							-0.08		0.457
H3a: Customer-oriented x Prevention							0.11		0.274
H3b: Service-oriented x Prevention							0.01		0.967
H4: Competitor-oriented x Promotion							0.21	*	0.064
R Square	0.334			0.422			0.478		
Adjusted R Square	0.278			0.322			0.334		
R Square Change	0.334			0.088			0.056		
F Change	5.897	****		1.885	**		1.221		
df1	16			14			14		
df2	188			174			160		
Durbin-Watson							2.002		

B = unstandardized beta weight; SE = standard error; df = degree of freedom
****p<.001; ***p<.01; **p<.05; *p<.1

Table 4.14 Multiple Regression Results for Selling Behaviors and Buyer's Regulatory Orientation: non-Purchase Scenario w/ Regulatory Fit Outcomes as Dependent Variable

Dependent Variables: Regulatory Fit Outcomes

Non-Purchase Scenario	Equation 1		Equation 2		Equation 3	
Independent Variables	B	Sig	B	Sig	B	Sig
Main Variables						
(Constant)	2.91 ****	0.000	3.12 ****	0.000	3.26 ****	0.000
1. Inspirational Appeal	0.04	0.669	-0.04	0.695	-0.04	0.686
2. Personal Appeal	0.11	0.262	0.11	0.271	0.08	0.439
3. Collaboration	-0.09	0.336	-0.15	0.108	-0.10	0.356
4. Apprising	-0.21	0.145	-0.15	0.298	-0.19	0.222
5. Ingratiation	0.02	0.809	-0.01	0.913	0.04	0.645
6. Exchange	0.08	0.352	0.10	0.211	0.08	0.394
7. Consultation	0.24 **	0.018	0.23 **	0.028	0.22 **	0.042
8. Rational Persuasion	0.17	0.162	0.09	0.454	0.11	0.419
9. Legitimating	0.12	0.187	0.11	0.222	0.12	0.276
10. Pressure	-0.70 ****	0.000	-0.67 ****	0.000	-0.73 ****	0.000
11. Coalition	0.22 **	0.029	0.20 **	0.046	0.24 **	0.044
12. Customer Oriented	0.30 **	0.013	0.39 ***	0.002	0.41 ***	0.002
13. Service Oriented	0.28 **	0.011	0.28 **	0.015	0.23 *	0.071
14. Competitor Oriented	-0.19 **	0.029	-0.20 **	0.021	-0.22 **	0.022
15. Buyer Promotion focus	0.04	0.616	0.18	0.517	0.04	0.907
16. Buyer Prevention focus	0.13 *	0.086	-0.49 *	0.074	-0.65 **	0.031
Interaction Terms						
H1a: Inspirational appeal x Promotion			0.21 **	0.037	0.22 *	0.066
H1b: Personal appeal x Promotion			0.00	0.993	0.05	0.681
H1c: Collaboration x Promotion			0.04	0.734	0.02	0.884
H1d: Apprising x Promotion			-0.28 **	0.046	-0.20	0.217
H1e: Ingratiation x Promotion			-0.01	0.932	-0.08	0.506
H1f: Exchange x Promotion			-0.02	0.799	0.00	0.994
H2a: Consultation x Prevention			-0.02	0.827	-0.03	0.783
H2b: Rational persuasion x Prevention			0.01	0.923	0.04	0.800
H2c: Legitimating x Prevention			-0.02	0.858	-0.09	0.418
H2d: Pressure x Prevention			0.19 *	0.088	0.13	0.307
H2e: Coalition x Prevention			-0.10	0.361	-0.16	0.215
H3a: Customer-oriented x Promotion			-0.10	0.395	-0.06	0.706
H3b: Service-oriented x Promotion			0.14	0.211	0.12	0.309
H4: Competitor-oriented x Prevention			0.19 **	0.034	0.12	0.297
Reverse Interaction Terms						
H1a: Inspirational appeal x Prevention					0.06	0.614
H1b: Personal appeal x Prevention					0.24 **	0.044
H1c: Collaboration x Prevention					-0.10	0.402
H1d: Apprising x Prevention					0.21	0.186
H1e: Ingratiation x Prevention					-0.11	0.255
H1f: Exchange x Prevention					0.00	0.997
H2a: Consultation x Promotion					0.08	0.555
H2b: Rational persuasion x Promotion					-0.13	0.328
H2c: Legitimating x Promotion					-0.05	0.638
H2d: Pressure x Promotion					0.15	0.224
H2e: Coalition x Promotion					-0.14	0.249
H3a: Customer-oriented x Prevention					-0.06	0.685
H3b: Service-oriented x Prevention					0.07	0.580
H4: Competitor-oriented x Promotion					0.06	0.529
R Square	0.467		0.537		0.570	
Adjusted R Square	0.421		0.458		0.452	
R Square Change	0.467		0.071		0.033	
F Change	10.286	****	1.894	**	0.882	
df1	16		14		14	
df2	188		174		160	
Durbin-Watson					1.842	

B = unstandardized beta weight; SE = standard error; df = degree of freedom

****$p<.001$; ***$p<.01$; **$p<.05$; *$p<.1$

Hypothesis 2 stated that "the greater a buyer's prevention focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's (a) consultation, (b) rational persuasion, (c) legitimating tactics, (d) pressure, and (e) coalition tactics on regulatory fit outcomes." Figure 4.2 illustrates the moderating effect of buyer's prevention focus and five influence tactics in hypothesis 2.
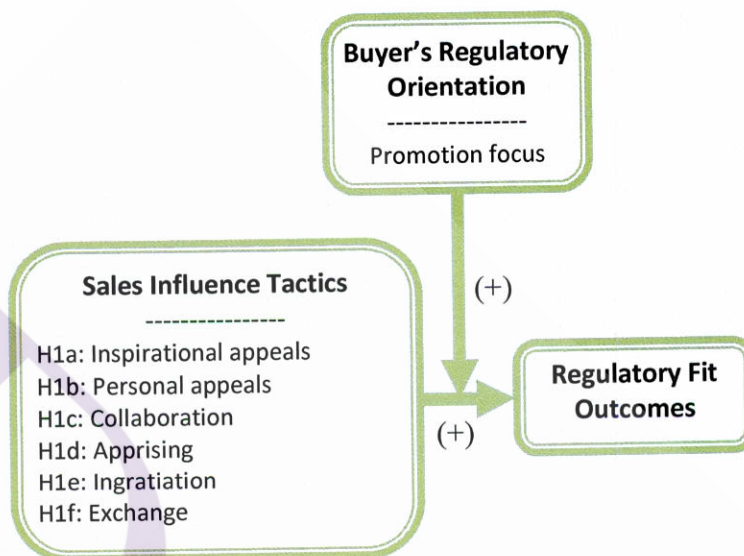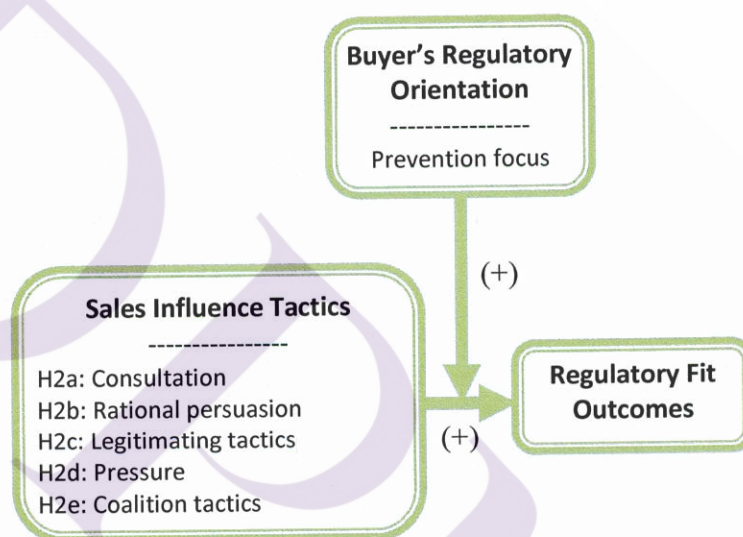

Figure 4.2 The Moderating Effect of Buyer's prevention Focus and five Influence Tactics on Regulatory Fit Outcomes in Hypothesis 2

Source: developed for this research

For the purchase scenario (Table 4.13), the regression results indicate that H2a to H2e are not supported while the regression results for the non-purchase scenario (Table 4.14) shows support for H2d. The interaction term between pressure and buyer's prevention focus (H2d) is found to be positive and marginally significant (B = .19, p<.1).

Hypothesis 3 stated that "the greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's customer and services selling orientation on regulatory fit outcomes." Figure 4.3 illustrates the moderating effect of buyer's promotion focus and 2 selling orientations on regulatory fit outcomes in hypothesis 3.
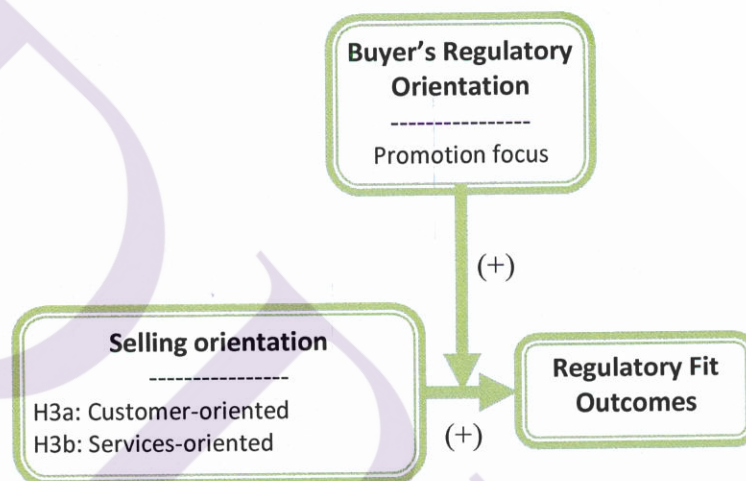
Figure 4.3 The Moderating Effect of Buyer's promotion Focus and two Selling Orientations on Regulatory Fit Outcomes in Hypothesis 3

Source: developed for this research

In the purchase scenario (Table 4.13), the regression results indicate that H3b is supported. The interaction term between service-oriented and buyer's promotion focus (H3b) is found to be positive and significant (B = .19, p<.05). However, the interaction term between customer-oriented and buyer's promotion focus (H3a) is found to be

negative and significant (B = -.31, p<.01). For the non-purchase scenario, the results indicate no support to neither H3a nor H3b (Table 4.14).

Hypothesis 4 stated that "the greater a buyer's prevention focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's competitor selling orientation on regulatory fit outcomes." Figure 4.4 illustrates the moderating effect of buyer's prevention focus and competitor selling orientation on regulatory fit outcomes in hypothesis 4.
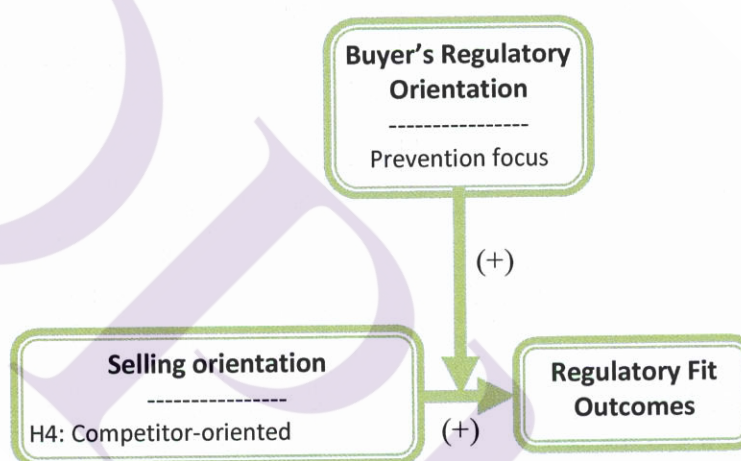
Figure 4.4 The Moderating Effect of Buyer's prevention Focus and Competitor-Oriented Selling Orientation on Regulatory Fit Outcomes in Hypothesis 4

Source: developed for this research

For the purchase scenario (Table 4.13), the regression results show no support for H4. However, H4 is supported by regression results from the non-purchase scenario,

and the interaction term between competitor-oriented and buyer's prevention focus (H4) is found to be positive and significant (B = .19, p<.05) (Table 4.14).

4.5.2 The Relationship between Regulatory Fit Outcomes and Relational Quality

To test proposed hypothesis 5, this study utilized a correlation analysis to find the relationship between relational quality (comfortable and friendship) and regulatory fit outcomes.

$$Y_i = \beta_o + \beta_1 X_1 + \varepsilon \qquad (1)$$

where

Y_i : Relational quality (comfortable + friendship)

X_1 : Regulatory fit outcomes (e.g., feel-right, arousal, and perceived value)

ε : Random Error or residual

Hypothesis 5 stated that "regulatory fit outcomes (e.g., feel-right, arousal, and perceived value) are positively related to buyer's perception of relational quality (e.g., closeness, familiarity, relax, and receptivity)." Figure 4.5 illustrates relationship between regulatory fit outcomes and relational quality in hypothesis 5.

Figure 4.5 Relationship between Regulatory Fit Outcomes and Relational Quality

Source: developed for this research

Hypothesis 5 is supported by the results as shown in equation 1 (Table 4.15), which indicate that the regulatory fit outcomes are positively related to relational quality and explain 76.0% of the variance in relational quality ($F_{1, 408} = 1291.353$, p<.001).

Table 4.15 Correlation Results for the Relationship between Regulatory Fit Outcomes and Relational Quality

Dependent Variables: Relational Quality			
	Equation 1		
Independent Variables	**B**		Sig
(Constant)	-4.263	****	0.000
Regulatory Fit Outcomes	.936	****	0.000
R Square	0.760		
Adjusted R Square	0.759		
F Change	1291.353	****	
df1	1		
df2	408		
Durbin-Watson			
B = unstandardized beta weight; df = degree of freedom			
****p<.001; ***p<.01; **p<.05; *p<.1			

Source: developed for this research

4.6 Key Findings

The findings suggest that buyer's regulatory orientation plays an important part in moderating relationships between selling behaviors and regulatory fit outcomes. That is to say, buyers with promotion focus experience higher regulatory fit outcome (e.g., feel-right, arousal, perceived value) when salespeople use inspirational appeal (H1a) and collaboration tactics (H1c). Consistent with regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1997; 1998), promotion-focused buyers not only attend to goals related to ideals and growth or advancement, but also tend to notice and recall information and emotions related to the benefits of success and positive outcomes as well. When salespeople exhibit

inspirational appeals they arouse promotion-focused buyer ideals and emotions in this way, encouraging commitment to sales interactions and positive purchasing decisions. Similarly, when a salesperson utilizing collaboration tactics offers promotion-focused buyers special assistance or necessary resources in return a positive purchasing decision more than likely results. Promotion-focused individuals, who are sensitive to the presence or absence of positive outcomes (Crowe & Higgins, 1997), also experience higher regulatory fit outcomes. The summary of selling behaviors that work/not work with promotion-focused buyers is illustrated in Figure 4.6.
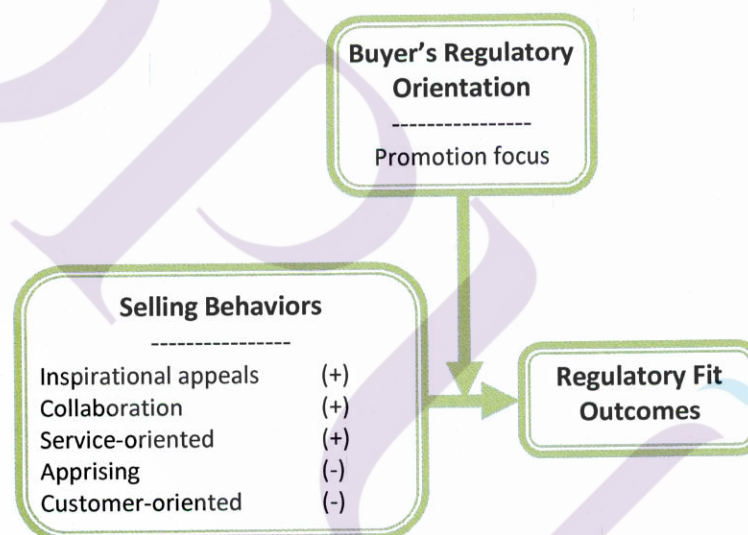
Figure 4.6 Selling Behaviors that work/not work with Promotion-Focused Buyer

Source: developed for this research

On the contrary, collaboration tactics lower regulatory fit outcomes if used with prevention-focused buyers. The hypotheses testing results suggest that pressure has effectively worked with prevention-focused buyers. When a salesperson uses pressure tactics by demanding, threatening, frequent checking, or persistent reminding, prevention-focused buyers tend to avoid "out-group" members (Shah et al., 2004) in course avoiding negative outcomes by complying with the salesperson.

With the reverse hypotheses testing, the results display that prevention-focused buyers experience higher regulatory fit outcomes when salespeople use personal appeals like asking them to make purchasing decisions out of friendship. The reason behind these may be because prevention-focused individuals by nature tend to avoid negative outcomes, including rejection from friendliness offered by personal appeal tactics.

The evidence also exposes interesting insights about sales influence tactics that should be avoided. Although the theory suggests that apprising should be effective with promotion-focused buyers, apprising negatively affects regulatory fit outcomes for both regulatory foci. Since salespeople may have limited opportunity to explain how a purchase could help or benefit a buyer career advancement (or the reverse), apprising tactic should be avoided.

The analyses results also disclose that buyer's regulatory orientation plays an important role in moderating the relationship between selling orientations and regulatory fit outcomes. Particularly, buyers with a promotion focus would experience higher regulatory fit outcomes when salespeople use service-oriented selling orientation (H3b).

In contrast, buyers with promotion focus would experience lower regulatory fit outcomes when salesperson used customer-oriented selling orientation (H3a).

Likewise, when salespeople use competitor-oriented selling orientation (H4), buyers of both regulatory foci experience higher regulatory fit outcomes, and are specifically more effective with prevention-focused buyers. When a salesperson shares information concerning a competitor's strengths and services, it is consistent to buyers with prevention focus who carefully scrutinize information in an attempt to minimize errors of commission (Pham & Avnet, 2004) as well as buyers with promotion focus who are interested in gaining advantages over their purchasing decisions. When a salesperson approaches with a service orientation, emphasizing the high quality of their services, it persuades promotion focused buyers who tend to focus on positive outcomes. The summary of selling behaviors that work/not work with prevention-focused buyers is illustrated in Figure 4.7.

Another purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between regulatory fit outcomes and relational quality. The analyses results reveal that regulatory fit outcomes are positively related to relational quality. This finding is consistent with previous research in relationship marketing (e.g., Crosby et al., 1990; Morgan & Hunt, 1994), as relational quality is considered one of the key variables influencing long-term relationships between buyers and sellers.
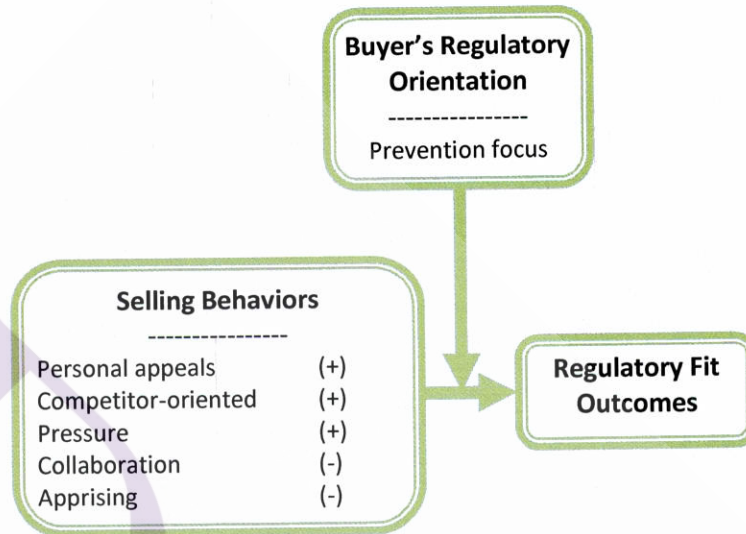
Figure 4.7 Selling Behaviors that work/not work with Prevention-Focused Buyer

Source: developed for this research

4.7 Summary

Further, from the descriptive data analysis, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were performed to validate the measures in terms of unidimensionality, reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. A series of hierarchical regression analyses were performed to test the hypothesized relationships proposed in chapter two. The multiple regression analysis results support all five main hypotheses; however, seven out of thirteen sub-hypotheses are not supported. A summary of the results of hypothesis testing is provided in Table 4.16.

The next chapter will discuss the findings presented in this chapter. The first section focuses on the discussion of research findings, while the second section presents the implication of the findings together with directions for future research.

Table 4.16 Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses	Purchase scenario	Non-purchase scenario
H1a: The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's inspirational appeals on regulatory fit outcomes.	X	supported
H1b: The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's personal appeals on regulatory fit outcomes.	X	X
H1c: The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's collaboration on regulatory fit outcomes.	supported	X
H1d: The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's apprising on regulatory fit outcomes.	*	*
H1e: The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's ingratiation on regulatory fit outcomes.	X	X
H1f: The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's exchange on regulatory fit outcomes.	X	X
H2a: The greater a buyer's prevention focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's consultation on regulatory fit outcomes.	X	X
H2b: The greater a buyer's prevention focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's rational persuasion on regulatory fit outcomes.	X	X
H2c: The greater a buyer's prevention focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's legitimating tactics on regulatory fit outcomes.	X	X
H2d: The greater a buyer's prevention focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's pressure on regulatory fit outcomes.	X	supported
H2e: The greater a buyer's prevention focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's coalition tactics on regulatory fit outcomes.	X	X
H3a: The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's customer-oriented selling orientation on regulatory fit outcomes.	*	X
H3b: The greater a buyer's promotion focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's services-oriented selling orientation on regulatory fit outcomes.	supported	X
H4: The greater a buyer's prevention focus, the stronger the positive effect of a salesperson's competitor selling orientation on regulatory fit outcomes.	X	supported
H5: Regulatory fit outcomes (e.g., feel-right, arousal, and perceived value) are positively related to buyer's perception of relational quality (e.g., closeness, familiarity, relax, and receptivity).	supported	

* - a significant negative effect was observed; X - not supported

Source: developed for this research

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter includes a discussion of research findings and implications. First, research results will be summarized. Second, the theoretical contributions and managerial implications will be presented. Finally, limitations of this research and the directions for future research will be discussed.

5.2 Discussion

Regulatory focus theory has become extremely influential in psychology, marketing (and beyond), and will likely continue to have a strong presence in the future. The current research furthers the presence of this prominent theory by observing a variety of selling behaviors and regulatory orientations of business to business buyers in an attempt to bring greater understanding not only to the aspects of buyer's regulatory orientation, but to a deeper knowledge of the extent to which salespeople can effectively adapt their selling behaviors. The goal in doing so is to extend the conceptual development in the area of adaptive selling behaviors and regulatory focus theory and to provide a guideline to sales professionals regarding the employment of well aimed selling behavior adaptations to create a regulatory fit which will lead to improved selling effectiveness and sales.

5.3 Theoretical Contributions

This dissertation makes several contributions to the academic literature surrounding the exploration of adaptive selling behaviors and regulatory focus theory. First, this study extends a specific conceptual basis for guiding adaptive selling behaviors as called for by Williams and Spiro in 1985. Although the importance of adaptive selling is widely recognized in the sales literature, and that some past research has shown that adapting selling behaviors to different buyers is important for superior sales performance (e.g., Spiro & Weitz 1990; Sujan, 1986; Weitz, 1981), much prior research largely focused on the degree to which salespeople change their tactics rather than whether the adaptations have any impact on specific selling situations. The current study makes a contribution to this literature by developing such a theoretically grounded framework, presenting advancement in understanding the suitability of selling behaviors to different types of buyers based on their regulatory orientation. This study confirms that using buyer's regulatory orientation (promotion vs. prevention focus) salespeople can effectively adapt their behaviors to create perceived regulatory fit and regulatory fit outcomes. And, clearly, higher regulatory fit outcomes increase relationship quality, leading to selling success and improved selling effectiveness.

Moreover, this study shows that buyer's regulatory orientation can serve as an important building block in the formation and grouping of product/services attribute preferences for future research. For example, to prevention-focused buyers, the safety features of newly developed products are more important than the innovative features, and vice versa, so selling strategies can be tailored to highlight these qualities for these

people. Service offerings may not be so attractive to promotion-focused buyers who if an emphasis is placed only on cost-saving and assurance without presenting the benefits and advantages gained from the services being sold.

Second, previous research on regulatory focus accentuates message framing (e.g., Micu & Chowdhury, 2010; Lee, Keller, & Sternthal, 2010; Cesario & Higgins, 2008; Zhao & Pechmann, 2007). However, this present research extends message framing to the application of regulatory focus to organizational psychology literature, specifically in the realm of influence tactics. Influence tactics were developed for inter-organizational, firm-to-firm channel contexts in the marketing channels literature and for intra-organizational, person-to-person level of analysis in the organizational behavior and sales literature (e.g., Kipnis et al., 1980; Erez et al., 1986; Yukl & Falbe, 1990; Yukl & Tracey, 1992; Douglas & Gardner, 2004). By investigating the relationship of buyer's regulatory orientations and sales influence tactics in these contexts, this research asserts that influence tactics are another factor that affects regulatory fit.

Third, most of the prior research on regulatory focus theory conducted studies using qualitative techniques, such as conceptual arguments (e.g., Brockner et al., 2004; Meyer et al., 2004; Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). It is true that some studies employed quantitative techniques; however, most of the empirical tests were conducted under controlled laboratory conditions with college students or teachers as participants (e.g., Liberman, Idson, Camacho, & Higgins, 1999; Leung & Lam, 2003; Leone, Perugini, & Bagozzi, 2005; Markman, Baldwin, & Maddox, 2006; Wirtz & Lwin, 2009; Fransen, 2008) and general consumers as participants (e.g., Arnold & Reynolds, 2009). This non-

experimental quantitative study is set apart in that it extends the laboratory findings of previous research to a business-to-business service industries context, suggesting that the effects of regulatory focus and fit are robust across a variety of contexts.

Fourth, by examining the relationship between regulatory fit outcomes and relational quality, this study illustrates that regulatory fit outcomes are positively related to relational quality. This research extends the application of regulatory fit (Higgins, 2000) to the relationship marketing literature by indicating that the use of selling behaviors in a manner that "fits" a buyer's regulatory orientation not only creates regulatory fit outcomes (feel-right, arousal, perceived value) (e.g., Avnet & Higgins, 2006; Wang & Lee, 2006), but also positively influences relational quality (e.g., closeness, familiarity, relax, receptivity) between buyers-sellers. Such a development leads to the enhancement of an ability to nurture long-term relationships, the main focus of relationship marketing (Crosby et al., 1990; Morgan & Hunt, 1994).

5.4 Managerial Implications

Sales and marketing practitioners are interested in knowing whether there are universally effective selling behaviors to be used, and, conversely, whether there are universally ineffective selling behaviors that should be avoided. This study provides insights into these questions by integrating the findings of several different analyses and perspectives of buyer's regulatory orientation. The findings of this study contribute to sales professions with managerial implications in that it provides an implementable method for guiding adaptive selling behaviors through identifying the types of sales

influence tactics and selling orientations most effective for a given buyer based on a buyer's regulatory orientation. This is consistent with the adaptive selling literature, suggesting that buyer orientation should really drive the use of influence tactics (e.g., Weitz et al., 1986).

Based solely on the analytic results of the study, it appears that when dealing with promotion-focused buyers, salespeople who employ inspirational appeal, collaboration, and service-oriented selling orientations tends to gain an increased amount of buyers experiencing regulatory fit outcomes and relational quality, while customer-oriented selling orientations and pressure tactics tend to lower buyer experiences with regulatory fit outcomes and relational quality in people with the same focus.

On the contrary to promotion-focused buyers, collaboration tactics should be avoided when approaching prevention-focused buyers; personal appeal tends to be more appropriate with the prevention-focused. The competitor-oriented selling orientation can be used universally, as it effectively influences both regulatory foci, working especially well with prevention-focused buyers.

The results of this study, in addition to helping to educate on how to direct adaptive selling behaviors for appropriateness, also provide insights into selling behaviors that should be avoided. For example, apprising negatively affected regulatory fit outcomes for both regulatory foci, although the theory suggests that apprising should be effective with only promotion-focused buyers. Since influence tactics were originally developed for organizational contexts, some tactics might work in the intra-firm context but might be "less effective" in the inter-firm context. Similar to apprising tactics,

salespeople may have limited opportunities to explain how a purchase can help or benefit a buyer career or have less influence on a buyer career advancement.

In practice, salespeople can employ this new knowledge about influence tactics by asking a few indicative questions to identify the degree to which a buyer is oriented towards the promotion or prevention focuses. For example, asking about a buyer concern with purchasing tasks and/or expected outcomes from the purchasing decisions can reveal the regulatory focus orientation of a buyer. Using the answer to the question, a salesperson could modify the arguments and information they give to that buyer's regulatory focus. This means that salespeople can influence buyers as long as they use the selling behaviors recommended by this research for a given buyer based on a buyer's regulatory orientation.

The findings also contribute to organizational top management by demonstrating that the regulatory orientation of individual purchasing agents has influence on the purchase decision making process. The dominant in either promotion-focused or prevention-focused members in the purchasing department, may lead to bias in decision-making. For example, if the majority of the purchasing agents in the purchasing department are oriented toward the promotion focus, the safety concerns of the products or services might be unimportant. The proper mix of purchasing agents with both regulatory foci in the purchasing department would minimize purchasing task bias and maximize organizational benefits.

5.5 Limitations

Several limitations of this study should also be mentioned. Although the buyer-seller dyadic is a prime sample for exploring the relationships between buyers and sellers during sales interactions, a limitation of this research design resides in the fact that the reported information is self-reported from buyers. Future research using buyer-seller dyads could make an important comparison between buyer's regulatory orientation and seller regulatory orientation. Such a closer examination of both buyer and seller regulatory orientations might add to the current understanding of how the regulatory orientations of both buyers and sellers influence adaptive selling behaviors, regulatory fit, regulatory fit outcomes, buyer's perceptions on relational quality and purchasing decisions.

While the respondents in this study all work for a variety of different firms, they all work in the service industry. To improve generalizability, future research should examine the conceptual model of this study across a variety of industries including manufacturing business.

Moreover, previous research found that some influence tactics might be more effective in western than eastern cultures (Yukl, Fu, & McDonald, 2003). Since the current study is conducted using nationwide U.S. samples, the same investigation conducted in other cultural settings will delineate how individual and cultural differences may affect sales influence tactics, buyer's regulatory orientation and experience.

Lastly, a limitation of regression techniques is the number of variables, given the large number of variables included in the model, the question of multicollinearity may arise. Future studies with focus on fewer variables could address this issue.

5.6 Conclusion

The purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of buyer's regulatory orientation in buyer-seller interactions. This study empirically examines how regulatory orientation can be used to determine the most effective selling techniques (e.g., influence tactics, selling orientation) which create regulatory fit and lead to regulatory fit outcomes (e.g., feel-right, arousal, and perceived value).

The findings identify the specific sales influence tactics and selling orientations that salespeople use with buyers and the relative effectiveness of these selling behaviors across different buyers based on regulatory orientation. Specifically, inspirational appeal, collaboration, and service-oriented selling orientations are more effective when used with promotion-focused buyers, while collaboration tactics are more effective with prevention-focused buyers. The competitor-oriented selling orientation tends to be a universally applicable selling behavior as it effectively influences both regulatory foci.

In conclusion, the present study advances knowledge of the use of regulatory orientation in buyer–seller interactions. Moreover it grounds this advancement in real-world applications by, suggesting a guideline for salespeople to determine the most profitable matches between sales influence tactics and selling orientations with different

buyer's regulatory orientations in a theoretically prescribed manner. By doing so, this study enables salespeople are to positively influence the purchase decision making of buyers.

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APPENDIX A

COVER LETTER AND SURVEY INSTRUMENT FOR PRETESTING

Cover Letter

Dear Sir/Madam

Thank you for agreeing to participate in the research project. You are among a select group of purchasing professionals whom we invited to participate in this study. Your contribution is critical to the success of this study. We want to assure you that your responses will be kept to the highest level of confidentiality and that the results will only be reported at an aggregate level (no individual will be identified in any way).

The survey should take about 10-15 minutes to complete. There is no right or wrong answers to questions on this survey and as such we ask that you provide us information to the best of your knowledge. The survey has 5 parts as follows:

STEP #1: The perception of various aspects in your life and/or when making purchasing decisions

STEP #2: The experience during interactions you had with salespeople who sold you the logistic services (e.g., courier services, transport services, import & export freight services)

STEP #3: Sales tactics that appealed to your emotions

STEP #4: Your perceptions towards the salesperson and/or relationship with the salesperson

STEP #5: General information

Please read the directions carefully in the beginning of each section before answering the questions. It is noteworthy that some of the questions might sound similar or have equivalent meaning, please be certain that there are some scientific reasons for every question asked and step used in this questionnaire. Please answer all the questions that best indicate how you feel about each question. If none of the options is exactly right for you, choose the option that is closest.

Thank you for helping us in this important research project. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact us via e-mail.

STEP #1: Please carefully read and answer each of the following statements. Indicate the extent to which each statement reflects how you TYPICALLY perceive various aspects in your life and/or when making purchasing decisions.

Please SELECT ONE of the following 7 choices (by tick in a box) when answering each statement:

        1 = Strongly disagree
        2 = Disagree
        3 = Slightly disagree
        4 = Neutral
        5 = Slightly agree
        6 = Agree
        7 = Strongly agree

1. In general, I focus on preventing negative events in my purchasing tasks.
2. I worry about falling short of my responsibilities and obligations in my purchasing tasks.
3. I frequently imagine how to achieve my hopes and aspirations in my purchasing tasks.
4. I often think about the person I am afraid I might become in the future.
5. I often think about the person I would ideally like to be in the future.
6. I typically focus on the successes I hope to achieve in my purchasing tasks.
7. I often worry about failing to accomplish my goals in my purchasing tasks.
8. I often think about how to achieve in my purchasing tasks.
9. I often imagine myself experiencing bad things I fear might happen to me.
10. I frequently think about how I can prevent failures in my purchasing tasks.
11. I am more oriented toward preventing losses than I am toward achieving gains.
12. My major goal in my career right now is to achieve my purchasing tasks.
13. My major goal in my career right now is to avoid failure in my purchasing tasks.
14. I see myself as someone who is primarily striving to reach my "ideal self" - to fulfill my hopes, wishes, and aspirations. ("ideal self" means someone you desire or prefer to be)
15. I see myself as someone who is primarily striving to become the self I "ought" to be when fulfilling my duties, responsibilities, and obligations. ("self ought" means someone you should or ought to be)
16. In general, I am focused on achieving positive outcomes in my purchasing tasks.
17. I often imagine myself experiencing good things that I hope will happen to me.
18. Overall, I am more oriented toward achieving success than preventing failure.

STEP #2: Before beginning STEP #2, spend a few minutes thinking of interactions you had with salespeople who sold you the logistic services (e.g., courier service, transportation services, freight forwarder services, inbound or outbound transportation services) during the past 6 to 12 months.

Next, select ONLY ONE of the following two scenarios based on your perception of the salesperson's behavior:

       a. You DID purchase services.

       b. You DID NOT purchase services.

Based on your selection in STEP #2, indicate what tactics the salesperson used on you when answering the following statements.

Please SELECT ONE of the following 5 choices (by tick in a box) when answering each statement:

       1 = I can't remember the salesperson ever using this tactic with me

       2 = The salesperson very seldom used this tactic with me

       3 = The salesperson occasionally used this tactic with me

       4 = The salesperson used this tactic moderately often with me

       5 = The salesperson used this tactic very often with me

1. Salesperson used facts and logic to make a persuasive case for my purchase decision.
2. Salesperson explained clearly why my purchase decision was necessary to attain a task objective.
3. Salesperson explained why my purchase decision would be practical and cost effective.
4. Salesperson provided information or evidence to show that my purchase decision was likely to be successful.
5. Salesperson offered something I want in return for my purchase decision.
6. Salesperson offered to do something for me in exchange for my purchase decision.
7. Salesperson offered to do a specific task or favor for me in return for my purchase decision.
8. Salesperson offered to do something for me in the future in return for my purchase decision.
9. Salesperson said that my purchase decision was an opportunity to do something really exciting and worthwhile.
10. Salesperson described a clear, inspiring vision of what my purchase decision could accomplish.
11. Salesperson talked about ideals and values when proposing my purchase decision.
12. Salesperson made an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse enthusiasm for my purchase decision.
13. Salesperson said that their request or proposal was consistent with official rules and policies.
14. Salesperson said that a request or proposal was consistent with a prior agreement or contract.

15. Salesperson verified that the request was legitimate by referring to a document such as a work order, policy manual, charter, bylaws, or formal contract.
16. Salesperson said that a request or proposal was consistent with prior precedent and/or established practice.
17. Salesperson explained how the task they wanted me to do could help my purchase decision.
18. Salesperson described benefits I could gain from my purchase decision.
19. Salesperson explained how my purchase decision could help me attain a personal objective.
20. Salesperson explained why my purchase decision would be good for me.
21. Salesperson demanded that I carry out my purchase decision.
22. Salesperson used threats or warnings when trying to get my purchase decision.
23. Salesperson repeatedly checked to see if I have made my purchase decision.
24. Salesperson tried to pressure me to make my purchase decision.
25. Salesperson offered to help with my purchase decision.
26. Salesperson offered to provide resources I would need to do my purchase decision.
27. Salesperson offered to show me how to do my purchase decision.
28. Salesperson offered to provide any assistance I would need to make my purchase decision.
29. Salesperson said I have the special skills or knowledge needed to make my purchase decision.
30. Salesperson praised my past performance or achievements when asking me to make my purchase decision.
31. Salesperson praised my skill or knowledge when asking me to make my purchase decision.
32. Salesperson said I am the most qualified person to make a purchase decision.
33. Salesperson asked me to suggest things I could do to help them to make my purchase decision.
34. Salesperson consulted with me to get my ideas about my purchase decision that they wanted me to support.
35. Salesperson encouraged me to express any concerns I may have about my purchase decision that they wanted me to support.
36. Salesperson invited me to suggest ways to improve my purchase decision that they wanted me to support.
37. Salesperson appealed to my friendship when asking me to make my purchase decision.
38. Salesperson said they needed to ask for a favor from me before they actually told me what the favor was.
39. Salesperson asked me as a friend to make my purchase decision for them.
40. Salesperson asked for my help in purchasing as a personal favor.
41. Salesperson mentioned the names of other people who endorse a proposal when asking me to make my purchase decision.
42. Salesperson got others to explain to me why they support my purchase decision that they wanted me to support.

43. Salesperson brought someone along for support when meeting with me to make my purchase decision.
44. Salesperson asked someone I respect to help influence me to make my purchase decision.
45. Salesperson presented how their company had more competitive advantage than the other competitors.
46. Salesperson shared information concerning competitors' services.
47. Salesperson discussed the competitors' strengths/weaknesses or strategies.
48. Salesperson committed to serving customer's needs.
49. Salesperson presented how he/she can create greater value for customers and fulfill customer satisfaction.
50. Salesperson agreed to provide good after-sales service.
51. Salesperson shared information concerning the offered services.
52. Salesperson discussed how the offered services could/would be improved.
53. Salesperson indicated how the offered services are produced with the highest quality.

STEP #3: Based on your selection in STEP #2, indicate what tactics the salesperson used that appealed to your emotions when answering the following statements.

Please SELECT ONE of the following 5 choices (by tick in a box) when answering each statement:

> 1 = I can't remember the salesperson ever using this tactic with me
> 2 = The salesperson very seldom used this tactic with me
> 3 = The salesperson occasionally used this tactic with me
> 4 = The salesperson used this tactic moderately often with me
> 5 = The salesperson used this tactic very often with me

1. Salesperson made me feel that my buying decisions would prevent negative events in my purchasing tasks.
2. Salesperson made me feel that I had responsibilities and obligations related to my purchase tasks.
3. Salesperson made me feel that my buying decisions would help me achieve my hopes and aspirations related to my purchasing tasks.
4. Salesperson made me think about the person I am afraid I might become in the future.
5. Salesperson made me think about the person I ideally would like to become in the future.
6. Salesperson made me think about the successes I hope to achieve in my purchasing tasks.
7. Salesperson made me feel I could prevent failures when accomplishing my goals in my purchasing tasks.
8. Salesperson made me think about how I could achieve in my purchasing tasks.
9. Salesperson made me think about how I could prevent bad things that I fear may happen.
10. Salesperson made me think about how I could prevent failures in my purchasing tasks.
11. Salesperson made me focus more on how I could prevent losses than achieving gains.
12. Salesperson made me focus on how I could achieve my purchasing tasks.
13. Salesperson made me focus on how I could avoid failure in your purchasing tasks.
14. Salesperson made me think about my "ideal self" to show me how to fulfill my hopes, wishes, and aspirations.
15. Salesperson made me think about someone you "ought" to be and how to fulfill your duties, responsibilities, and obligations.
16. Salesperson made me focused on how I could achieve positive outcomes in my purchasing tasks.
17. Salesperson made me feel that good things could happen to me when I made a purchasing decision.
18. Salesperson made me focus more on how I could achieve success than preventing failure.

STEP #4: Based on your selection in STEP #2, indicated your perceptions towards the salesperson or your perceptions towards your relationship with the salesperson when answering the following statements.

Please SELECT ONE of the following 7 choices (by tick in a box) when answering each statement:

> 1 = Strongly disagree
> 2 = Disagree
> 3 = Slightly disagree
> 4 = Neutral
> 5 = Slightly agree
> 6 = Agree
> 7 = Strongly agree

1. I feel that I have trust in that salesperson.
2. I feel I can rely on that salesperson's offers.
3. I feel-right to interact with salesperson.
4. I feel interacting with the salesperson made me feel wrong.
5. I felt it was interesting interacting with salesperson.
6. I feel that it was enjoyable to interact with that salesperson.
7. I feel it was exciting to interact with salesperson.
8. I feel the services provided by salesperson are of value.
9. I feel confident when making purchasing decision.
10. I feel intensely involved in the sales interaction.
11. I feel a deeper relationship between the sales person and myself.
12. I feel attracted to that salesperson.
13. I feel a sense of closeness between the salesperson and myself
14. I feel salesperson was similar to me.
15. I feel salesperson is a good friend.
16. I feel salesperson wants to have further communication with me.
17. I feel salesperson cares if you liked them.
18. I feel salesperson was calm and poised with me.
19. I feel very relaxed when talking to salesperson.
20. I feel comfortable when interacting with salesperson.
21. I feel salesperson made the discussion casual.
22. I feel salesperson was sincere with me.
23. I feel I trust that salesperson.
24. I feel that salesperson was willing to listen to me.
25. I feel salesperson was honest when communicating with me.

STEP #5: This last section will help us identify similarities and differences in response based on gender, age, working experience, and number of employees. This information will remain confidential.

1. Gender
      a. Male
      b. Female

2. Age
      a. under 30
      b. 30-40
      c. 41-50
      d. above 50

3. Your working experience in purchasing
      a. less than 10 years
      b. 10-15
      c. 16-20
      d. more than 20 years

4. Number of employees at your company
      a. less than 25
      b. 25-100
      c. 101-500
      d. more than 500

APPENDIX B

COVER LETTER AND SURVEY INSTRUMENT FOR
WEB-BASED PILOT TESTING

Screening Questions:

1. Number of employees at your company
    a. less than 25
    b. 25-100
    c. 101-500
    d. more than 500

2. How often do you interact with salespeople?
    a. Never
    b. Less than Once a Month
    c. Once a Month
    d. 2-3 Times a Month
    e. Once a Week
    f. 2-3 Times a Week
    g. Daily

Cover Letter

Dear Sir/Madam

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research project. You are among a selected group of individuals that interact with sales representatives whom we invited to participate in this study. Your contribution is critical to the success of this study. We want to assure you that your responses will be kept to the highest level of confidentiality and that the results will only be reported at an aggregate level (no individual will be identified in any way).

The survey should take about 15 minutes to complete. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers to questions on this survey and as such we ask that you provide us information to the best of your knowledge. The survey has 8 parts as follows:

STEP #1: How you typically approach purchasing decisions.
STEP #2: Your experience interacting with salespeople who whom you DID NOT purchase logistic services from them (e.g., courier services, transport services, import or export freight services).
STEP #3: Sales tactics that that the seller used to influence you (based on scenario in STEP#2).
STEP #4: Your perceptions towards the salesperson and/or relationship with the salesperson (based on scenario in STEP#2).
STEP #5: Your experience interacting with salespeople who whom you PURCHASED logistic services from them (e.g., courier services, transport services, import or export freight services).
STEP #6: Sales tactics that that the seller used to influence you (based on scenario in STEP#5).
STEP #7: Your perceptions towards the salesperson and/or relationship with the salesperson (based on scenario in STEP#5).
STEP #8: General information.

Please read the directions carefully in the beginning of each section before answering the questions. It is noteworthy that some of the questions might sound similar or have equivalent meaning, please be certain that there are scientific reasons for every question asked, and step used in this survey questionnaire. Please answer all the questions and best indicates how you feel about each question. If none of the options is exactly right for you, choose the option that is closest.

Thank you for helping us with this research project. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact us via e-mail.

STEP #1: Indicate how you TYPICALLY approach making purchasing decisions.

Please SELECT ONE of the following 7 choices (by tick in a box) when answering each statement:

        1 = Strongly disagree
        2 = Disagree
        3 = Slightly disagree
        4 = Neutral
        5 = Slightly agree
        6 = Agree
        7 = Strongly agree

1. I focus on preventing negative events when making purchasing decisions.
2. I worry I might fall short of my responsibilities during the purchasing decisions.
3. I consider how purchase decision will help me achieve my aspirations
4. I think about what I ideally want to happen when making purchasing decisions.
5. When making purchasing decisions I consider the bad things that might happen.
6. I think about preventing failures during the purchasing decisions.
7. I am more concerned about preventing losses than achieving gains when making purchasing decisions.
8. I focus on achieving positive outcomes when making purchasing decisions.
9. I imagine the good things that might happen when making purchasing decisions.
10. I am more oriented toward achieving success than preventing failure when making purchasing decisions.

STEP #2: Before beginning STEP #2, spend a few minutes thinking of interactions you had with a salesperson from whom <u>you DID NOT purchase services</u>, during the past 1 to 12 months. Try to pick a very memorable sales call.

(Please take 30 seconds to recall an experience. You will be automatically moved ahead to the next question after 30 seconds)

Please indicate what tactics the salesperson used on you when answering the following statements.

Please SELECT ONE of the following 5 choices (by tick in a box) when answering each statement:

      1 = I can't remember the salesperson ever using this tactic with me
      2 = The salesperson very seldom used this tactic with me
      3 = The salesperson occasionally used this tactic with me
      4 = The salesperson used this tactic moderately often with me
      5 = The salesperson used this tactic very often with me

The Salesperson:
1. Made a detailed explanation of the reasons you should purchase.
2. Used facts and logic to make a persuasive case for purchasing.
3. Explained clearly why a request or proposed change was necessary.
4. Offered to do something for you in exchange for your purchase.
5. Offered to do a specific task in exchange for your purchase.
6. Offered to do something in the future in return for your purchase now.
7. Explained how you could benefit from purchasing.
8. Explained how your purchase could help his/her career.
9. Explained why the purchase would be good for you.
10. Asked you to suggest things he/she could do to help you achieve a task objective.
11. Asked you to suggest ways he/she could support you.
12. Encouraged you to express any concerns about the purchase that he/she could address.
13. Said that a proposed activity or change was consistent with official policies or legal statutes.
14. Said that his/her request or proposal was consistent with a prior agreement or contract.
15. Verified that a request was legitimate by referring to a document such as a work order, policy manual, charter, bylaws, or formal contract.
16. Offered to provide any assistance you may need to make the purchase.
17. Offered to provide resources you would need to make the purchase.
18. Offered to help resolve any new problems created for you if you purchased.
19. Asked for your help as a personal favor.
20. Asked you to do something for him/her as a friend.
21. Said that he/she needed to ask you for a personal favor.

22. Asked someone you respect to help influence you to make the purchase.
23. Brought someone else along to support him/her when meeting with you on the sales call.
24. Got someone with higher authority to help influence you to purchase.
25. Complimented you about something during the sales call.
26. Said that you have the unique skills and knowledge needed to make a good decision.
27. Praised your past performance or achievements during the sales call.
28. Pressured you to make a purchase.
29. Used threats or warnings when trying to get you to do something needed to complete the sale.
30. Repeatedly checked to see if you had carried out any requests he/she made.
31. Made an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse their enthusiasm for their services.
32. Described a clear, appealing vision of what their services could accomplish for you.
33. Described how their services could serve as an opportunity to accomplish exciting and worthwhile objectives for you.
34. Presented how his/her company had a competitive advantage over other competitors.
35. Shared information concerning competitors' services.
36. Discussed the competitors' strengths and strategies.
37. Said they were committed to serving your needs.
38. Presented how he/she can provide greater value for you and make you satisfied.
39. Paid close attention to after-sales service.
40. Shared information concerning the offered services.
41. Discussed how the offered services can be improved.
42. Presented how the offered services are made with the highest quality.

STEP #3: Based on your selection in <u>STEP #2</u>, indicate what tactics the salesperson used to convince you when answering the following statements.

Please SELECT ONE of the following 5 choices (by tick in a box) when answering each statement:

1 = I can't remember the salesperson ever using this tactic with me
2 = The salesperson very seldom used this tactic with me
3 = The salesperson occasionally used this tactic with me
4 = The salesperson used this tactic moderately often with me
5 = The salesperson used this tactic very often with me

1. The salesperson emphasized how the purchase could minimize my losses.
2. The salesperson suggested their service was the safest choice for me.
3. The salesperson presented a lot of negative information about the competitors' services.
4. The salesperson provided a lot of details about the offer.
5. The salesperson focused on how the services would improve my business.
6. The salesperson spent most of the time talking about the positive attributes of their services.
7. The salesperson made broad claims and summarized the value of their services rather than talking about specific details.

STEP #4: Based on your selection in <u>STEP #2</u>, indicated your perceptions towards the salesperson or your perceptions towards your relationship with the salesperson when answering the following statements.

Please SELECT ONE of the following 7 choices (by tick in a box) when answering each statement:

        1 = Strongly disagree
        2 = Disagree
        3 = Slightly disagree
        4 = Neutral
        5 = Slightly agree
        6 = Agree
        7 = Strongly agree

1. I can trust that salesperson.
2. I can believe claims the salesperson makes.
3. My interactions with that salesperson "felt right."
4. My interactions with that salesperson made me feel wrong. (R)
5. It was interesting interacting with that salesperson.
6. It was enjoyable to interact with that salesperson.
7. It was exciting to interact with that salesperson.
8. The services provided by salesperson are of value.
9. I felt confident when making purchasing decision.
10. I felt intensely involved in the sales interaction.
11. There was a strong relationship between the salesperson and me.
12. I felt attracted to that salesperson.
13. There was a sense of closeness between the salesperson and me.
14. The salesperson is similar to me.
15. The salesperson is a good friend.
16. The salesperson wants to have further communication with me.
17. The salesperson cares if I like them.
18. The salesperson was calm and poised with me.
19. I felt very relaxed when talking to the salesperson.
20. I felt comfortable when interacting with the salesperson.
21. The salesperson made the discussion feel casual.
22. The salesperson was sincere with me.
23. I trust that salesperson.
24. The salesperson was willing to listen to me.
25. The salesperson was honest when communicating with me.
    (R) – reversed item

STEP #5: Before beginning STEP #5, spend a few minutes thinking of interactions you had with the salesperson from whom <u>you PURCHASED services</u> during the past 1 to 12 months. Try to pick a very memorable sales call.

Please indicate what tactics the salesperson used on you when answering the following statements.

Please SELECT ONE of the following 5 choices (by tick in a box) when answering each statement:

1 = I can't remember the salesperson ever using this tactic with me
2 = The salesperson very seldom used this tactic with me
3 = The salesperson occasionally used this tactic with me
4 = The salesperson used this tactic moderately often with me
5 = The salesperson used this tactic very often with me

The Salesperson:
1. Made a detailed explanation of the reasons you should purchase.
2. Used facts and logic to make a persuasive case for purchasing.
3. Explained clearly why a request or proposed change was necessary.
4. Offered to do something for you in exchange for your purchase.
5. Offered to do a specific task in exchange for your purchase.
6. Offered to do something in the future in return for your purchase now.
7. Explained how you could benefit from purchasing.
8. Explained how your purchase could help his/her career.
9. Explained why the purchase would be good for you.
10. Asked you to suggest things he/she could do to help you achieve a task objective.
11. Asked you to suggest ways he/she could support you.
12. Encouraged you to express any concerns about the purchase that he/she could address.
13. Said that a proposed activity or change was consistent with official policies or legal statutes.
14. Said that his/her request or proposal was consistent with a prior agreement or contract.
15. Verified that a request was legitimate by referring to a document such as a work order, policy manual, charter, bylaws, or formal contract.
16. Offered to provide any assistance you may need to make the purchase.
17. Offered to provide resources you would need to make the purchase.
18. Offered to help resolve any new problems created for you if you purchased.
19. Asked for your help as a personal favor.
20. Asked you to do something for him/her as a friend.
21. Said that he/she needed to ask you for a personal favor.
22. Asked someone you respect to help influence you to make the purchase.
23. Brought someone else along to support him/her when meeting with you on the sales call.

24. Got someone with higher authority to help influence you to purchase.
25. Complimented you about something during the sales call.
26. Said that you have the unique skills and knowledge needed to make a good decision.
27. Praised your past performance or achievements during the sales call.
28. Pressured you to make a purchase.
29. Used threats or warnings when trying to get you to do something needed to complete the sale.
30. Repeatedly checked to see if you had carried out any requests he/she made.
31. Made an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse their enthusiasm for their services.
32. Described a clear, appealing vision of what their services could accomplish for you.
33. Described how their services could serve as an opportunity to accomplish exciting and worthwhile objectives for you.
34. Presented how his/her company had a competitive advantage over other competitors.
35. Shared information concerning competitors' services.
36. Discussed the competitors' strengths and strategies.
37. Said they were committed to serving your needs.
38. Presented how he/she can provide greater value for you and make you satisfied.
39. Paid close attention to after-sales service.
40. Shared information concerning the offered services.
41. Discussed how the offered services can be improved.
42. Presented how the offered services are made with the highest quality.

STEP #6: Based on your selection in <u>STEP #5</u>, indicate what tactics the salesperson used convince you when answering the following statements.

Please SELECT ONE of the following 5 choices (by tick in a box) when answering each statement:

1 = I can't remember the salesperson ever using this tactic with me
2 = The salesperson very seldom used this tactic with me
3 = The salesperson occasionally used this tactic with me
4 = The salesperson used this tactic moderately often with me
5 = The salesperson used this tactic very often with me

1. The salesperson emphasized how the purchase could minimize my losses.
2. The salesperson suggested their service was the safest choice for me.
3. The salesperson presented a lot of negative information about the competitors' services.
4. The salesperson provided a lot of details about the offer.
5. The salesperson focused on how the services would improve my business.
6. The salesperson spent most of the time talking about the positive attributes of their services.
7. The salesperson made broad claims and summarized the value of their services rather than talking about specific details.
8. *To show you are reading the questions, select "Tactic was used very often" as your answer to this statement. (response validation)*

STEP #7: Based on your selection in <u>STEP #5</u>, indicated your perceptions towards the salesperson or your perceptions towards your relationship with the salesperson when answering the following statements.

Please SELECT ONE of the following 7 choices (by tick in a box) when answering each statement:

       1 = Strongly disagree
       2 = Disagree
       3 = Slightly disagree
       4 = Neutral
       5 = Slightly agree
       6 = Agree
       7 = Strongly agree

1. I can trust that salesperson.
2. I can believe claims the salesperson makes.
3. My interactions with that salesperson "felt right."
4. My interactions with that salesperson made me feel wrong. (R)
5. It was interesting interacting with that salesperson.
6. It was enjoyable to interact with that salesperson.
7. It was exciting to interact with that salesperson.
8. The services provided by salesperson are of value.
9. I felt confident when making purchasing decision.
10. I felt intensely involved in the sales interaction.
11. There was a strong relationship between the salesperson and me.
12. I felt attracted to that salesperson.
13. There was a sense of closeness between the salesperson and me.
14. The salesperson is similar to me.
15. The salesperson is a good friend.
16. The salesperson wants to have further communication with me.
17. The salesperson cares if I like them.
18. The salesperson was calm and poised with me.
19. I felt very relaxed when talking to the salesperson.
20. I felt comfortable when interacting with the salesperson.
21. The salesperson made the discussion feel casual.
22. The salesperson was sincere with me.
23. I trust that salesperson.
24. The salesperson was willing to listen to me.
25. The salesperson was honest when communicating with me.
(R) – reverse item

STEP #8: This last section will help us identify similarities and differences in response based on gender, age, working experience, and number of employees. This information will remain confidential.

1. Gender
   a. Male
   b. Female

2. Age
   a. under 30
   b. 30-40
   c. 41-50
   d. 51 – 60
   e. over 60

3. Your working experience in purchasing
   a. less than 2 years
   b. 2 to 5 years
   c. 6 to 10 years
   d. 11-15 years
   e. 16-20 years
   f. more than 20 years
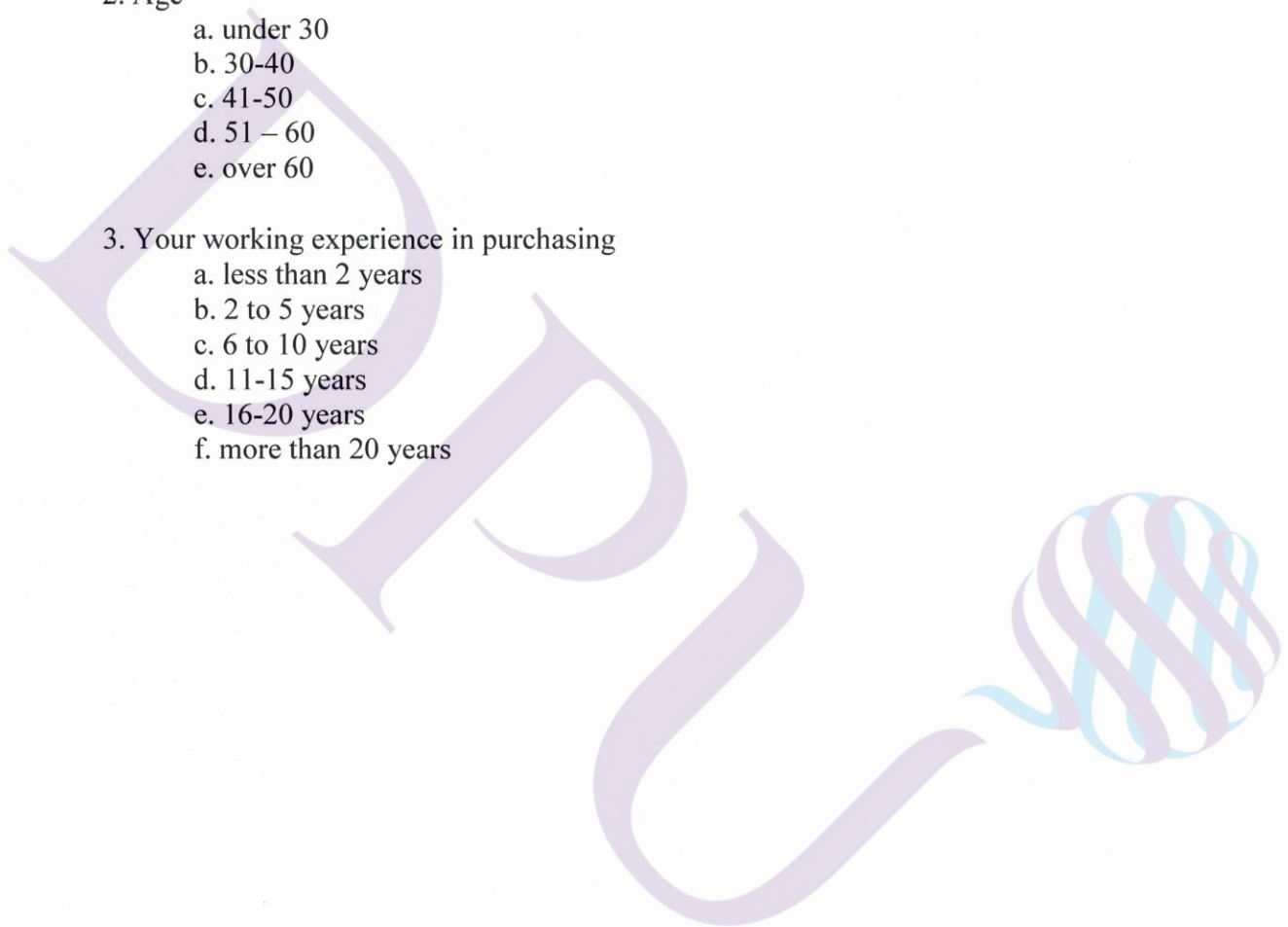
APPENDIX C
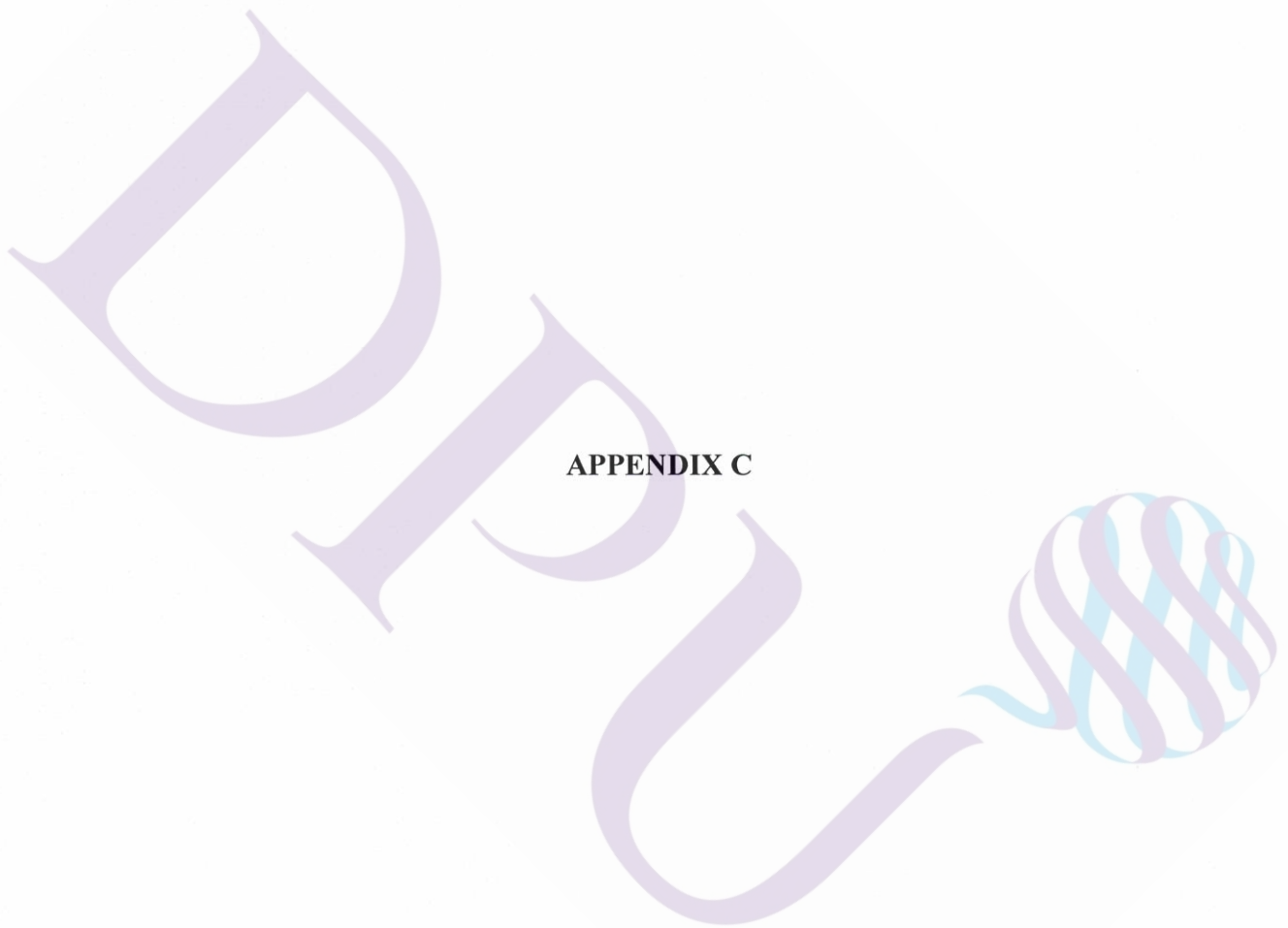
COVER LETTER AND SURVEY INSTRUMENT FOR
WEB-BASED MAIN STUDY

Screening Questions:

1. Number of employees at your company
    a. less than 25
    b. 25-100
    c. 101-500
    d. more than 500

2. How often do you interact with salespeople?
    a. Never
    b. Less than Once a Month
    c. Once a Month
    d. 2-3 Times a Month
    e. Once a Week
    f. 2-3 Times a Week
    g. Daily

Cover Letter

Dear Sir/Madam

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research project. You are among a selected group of individuals that interact with sales representatives whom we invited to participate in this study. Your contribution is critical to the success of this study. We want to assure you that your responses will be kept to the highest level of confidentiality and that the results will only be reported at an aggregate level (no individual will be identified in any way).

The survey should take about 15 minutes to complete. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers to questions on this survey and as such we ask that you provide us information to the best of your knowledge. The survey has 8 parts as follows:

STEP #1: How you typically approach purchasing decisions.
STEP #2: Your experience interacting with salespeople who whom you DID NOT purchase logistic services from them (e.g., courier services, transport services, import or export freight services).
STEP #3: Sales tactics that that the seller used to influence you (based on scenario in STEP#2).
STEP #4: Your perceptions towards the salesperson and/or relationship with the salesperson (based on scenario in STEP#2).
STEP #5: Your experience interacting with salespeople who whom you PURCHASED logistic services from them (e.g., courier services, transport services, import or export freight services).
STEP #6: Sales tactics that that the seller used to influence you (based on scenario in STEP#5).
STEP #7: Your perceptions towards the salesperson and/or relationship with the salesperson (based on scenario in STEP#5).
STEP #8: General information.

Please read the directions carefully in the beginning of each section before answering the questions. It is noteworthy that some of the questions might sound similar or have equivalent meaning, please be certain that there are scientific reasons for every question asked, and step used in this survey questionnaire. Please answer all the questions and best indicates how you feel about each question. If none of the options is exactly right for you, choose the option that is closest.

Thank you for helping us with this research project. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact us via e-mail.

STEP #1: Indicate how you TYPICALLY approach making purchasing decisions.

Please SELECT ONE of the following 7 choices (by tick in a box) when answering each statement:

          1 = Strongly disagree
          2 = Disagree
          3 = Slightly disagree
          4 = Neutral
          5 = Slightly agree
          6 = Agree
          7 = Strongly agree

1. I focus on preventing problems when making purchasing decisions.
2. I consider how purchase decision will help me achieve my aspirations.
3. I get concerned about potential difficulties making purchasing decisions.
4. I think about what I ideally want to happen when making purchasing decisions.
5. When making purchasing decisions I consider the problems that might occur.
6. I worry that my manager or partner might question my purchasing decision.
7. I am more concerned about preventing losses than achieving gains when making purchasing decisions.
8. I focus on achieving positive outcomes when making purchasing decisions.
9. I imagine the good things that might happen when making purchasing decisions.
10. I am more oriented toward achieving success than preventing failure when making purchasing decisions.

STEP #2: Before beginning STEP #2, spend a few minutes thinking of interactions you had with a salesperson from whom <u>you DID NOT purchase services</u>, during the past 1 to 12 months. Try to pick a very memorable sales call.

(Please take 30 seconds to recall an experience. You will be automatically moved ahead to the next question after 30 seconds)

Please indicate what tactics the salesperson used on you when answering the following statements.

Please SELECT ONE of the following 5 choices (by tick in a box) when answering each statement:

> 1 = I can't remember the salesperson ever using this tactic with me
> 2 = The salesperson very seldom used this tactic with me
> 3 = The salesperson occasionally used this tactic with me
> 4 = The salesperson used this tactic moderately often with me
> 5 = The salesperson used this tactic very often with me

The Salesperson:
1. Made a detailed explanation of the reasons you should purchase.
2. Used facts and logic to make a persuasive case for purchasing.
3. Explained clearly why a request or proposed change was necessary.
4. Offered to do something for you in exchange for your purchase.
5. Offered to do a specific task in exchange for your purchase.
6. Offered to do something in the future in return for your purchase now.
7. Explained how you could benefit from purchasing.
8. Explained how your purchase could help his/her career.
9. Explained why the purchase would be good for you.
10. Asked you to suggest things he/she could do to help you achieve a task objective.
11. Asked you to suggest ways he/she could support you.
12. Encouraged you to express any concerns about the purchase that he/she could address.
13. Said that a proposed activity or change was consistent with official policies or legal statutes.
14. Said that his/her request or proposal was consistent with a prior agreement or contract.
15. Verified that a request was legitimate by referring to a document such as a work order, policy manual, charter, bylaws, or formal contract.
16. Offered to provide any assistance you may need to make the purchase.
17. Offered to provide resources you would need to make the purchase.
18. Offered to help resolve any new problems created for you if you purchased.
19. Asked for your help as a personal favor.
20. Asked you to do something for him/her as a friend.
21. Said that he/she needed to ask you for a personal favor.

22. Asked someone you respect to help influence you to make the purchase.
23. Brought someone else along to support him/her when meeting with you on the sales call.
24. Got someone with higher authority to help influence you to purchase.
25. Complimented you about something during the sales call.
26. Said that you have the unique skills and knowledge needed to make a good decision.
27. Praised your past performance or achievements during the sales call.
28. Pressured you to make a purchase.
29. Used threats or warnings when trying to get you to do something needed to complete the sale.
30. Repeatedly checked to see if you had carried out any requests he/she made.
31. Made an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse their enthusiasm for their services.
32. Described a clear, appealing vision of what their services could accomplish for you.
33. Described how their services could serve as an opportunity to accomplish exciting and worthwhile objectives for you.
34. Presented how his/her company had a competitive advantage over other competitors.
35. Shared information concerning competitors' services.
36. Discussed the competitors' strengths and strategies.
37. Said they were committed to serving your needs.
38. Presented how he/she can provide greater value for you and make you satisfied.
39. Paid close attention to after-sales service.
40. Shared information concerning the offered services.
41. Discussed how the offered services can be improved.
42. Presented how the offered services are made with the highest quality.

STEP #3: Based on your selection in <u>STEP #2</u>, indicate what tactics the salesperson used to convince you when answering the following statements.

Please SELECT ONE of the following 5 choices (by tick in a box) when answering each statement:

        1 = I can't remember the salesperson ever using this tactic with me
        2 = The salesperson very seldom used this tactic with me
        3 = The salesperson occasionally used this tactic with me
        4 = The salesperson used this tactic moderately often with me
        5 = The salesperson used this tactic very often with me

1. The salesperson emphasized how the purchase could minimize my losses.
2. The salesperson suggested their service was the safest choice for me.
3. The salesperson presented a lot of negative information about the competitors' services.
4. The salesperson provided a lot of details about the offer.
5. The salesperson focused on how the services would improve my business.
6. The salesperson spent most of the time talking about the positive attributes of their services.
7. The salesperson made broad claims and summarized the value of their services rather than talking about specific details.

STEP #4: Based on your selection in <u>STEP #2</u>, indicated your perceptions towards the salesperson or your perceptions towards your relationship with the salesperson when answering the following statements.

Please SELECT ONE of the following 7 choices (by tick in a box) when answering each statement:

> 1 = Strongly disagree
> 2 = Disagree
> 3 = Slightly disagree
> 4 = Neutral
> 5 = Slightly agree
> 6 = Agree
> 7 = Strongly agree

1. I can trust that salesperson.
2. I can believe claims the salesperson makes.
3. My interactions with that salesperson "felt right."
4. I felt proper when interacts with that salesperson.
5. I feel that interacting with that salesperson was the "right thing to do."
6. It was interesting interacting with that salesperson.
7. It was enjoyable to interact with that salesperson.
8. It was exciting to interact with that salesperson.
9. The services provided by salesperson are of value.
10. I felt confident when making purchasing decision.
11. I felt intensely involved in the sales interaction.
12. There was a strong relationship between the salesperson and me.
13. I felt attracted to that salesperson.
14. There was a sense of closeness between the salesperson and me.
15. The salesperson is similar to me.
16. The salesperson is a good friend.
17. The salesperson wants to have further communication with me.
18. The salesperson cares if I like them.
19. The salesperson was calm and poised with me.
20. I felt very relaxed when talking to the salesperson.
21. I felt comfortable when interacting with the salesperson.
22. The salesperson made the discussion feel casual.
23. The salesperson was sincere with me.
24. I trust that salesperson.
25. The salesperson was willing to listen to me.
26. The salesperson was honest when communicating with me.

STEP #5: Before beginning STEP #5, spend a few minutes thinking of interactions you had with the salesperson from whom <u>you PURCHASED services</u> during the past 1 to 12 months. Try to pick a very memorable sales call.

Please indicate what tactics the salesperson used on you when answering the following statements.

Please SELECT ONE of the following 5 choices (by tick in a box) when answering each statement:

        1 = I can't remember the salesperson ever using this tactic with me
        2 = The salesperson very seldom used this tactic with me
        3 = The salesperson occasionally used this tactic with me
        4 = The salesperson used this tactic moderately often with me
        5 = The salesperson used this tactic very often with me

The Salesperson:
1. Made a detailed explanation of the reasons you should purchase.
2. Used facts and logic to make a persuasive case for purchasing.
3. Explained clearly why a request or proposed change was necessary.
4. Offered to do something for you in exchange for your purchase.
5. Offered to do a specific task in exchange for your purchase.
6. Offered to do something in the future in return for your purchase now.
7. Explained how you could benefit from purchasing.
8. Explained how your purchase could help his/her career.
9. Explained why the purchase would be good for you.
10. Asked you to suggest things he/she could do to help you achieve a task objective.
11. Asked you to suggest ways he/she could support you.
12. Encouraged you to express any concerns about the purchase that he/she could address.
13. Said that a proposed activity or change was consistent with official policies or legal statutes.
14. Said that his/her request or proposal was consistent with a prior agreement or contract.
15. Verified that a request was legitimate by referring to a document such as a work order, policy manual, charter, bylaws, or formal contract.
16. Offered to provide any assistance you may need to make the purchase.
17. Offered to provide resources you would need to make the purchase.
18. Offered to help resolve any new problems created for you if you purchased.
19. Asked for your help as a personal favor.
20. Asked you to do something for him/her as a friend.
21. Said that he/she needed to ask you for a personal favor.
22. Asked someone you respect to help influence you to make the purchase.
23. Brought someone else along to support him/her when meeting with you on the sales call.

24. Got someone with higher authority to help influence you to purchase.
25. Complimented you about something during the sales call.
26. Said that you have the unique skills and knowledge needed to make a good decision.
27. Praised your past performance or achievements during the sales call.
28. Pressured you to make a purchase.
29. Used threats or warnings when trying to get you to do something needed to complete the sale.
30. Repeatedly checked to see if you had carried out any requests he/she made.
31. Made an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse their enthusiasm for their services.
32. Described a clear, appealing vision of what their services could accomplish for you.
33. Described how their services could serve as an opportunity to accomplish exciting and worthwhile objectives for you.
34. Presented how his/her company had a competitive advantage over other competitors.
35. Shared information concerning competitors' services.
36. Discussed the competitors' strengths and strategies.
37. Said they were committed to serving your needs.
38. Presented how he/she can provide greater value for you and make you satisfied.
39. Paid close attention to after-sales service.
40. Shared information concerning the offered services.
41. Discussed how the offered services can be improved.
42. Presented how the offered services are made with the highest quality.

STEP #6: Based on your selection in <u>STEP #5</u>, indicate what tactics the salesperson used convince you when answering the following statements.

Please SELECT ONE of the following 5 choices (by tick in a box) when answering each statement:

1 = I can't remember the salesperson ever using this tactic with me
2 = The salesperson very seldom used this tactic with me
3 = The salesperson occasionally used this tactic with me
4 = The salesperson used this tactic moderately often with me
5 = The salesperson used this tactic very often with me

1. The salesperson emphasized how the purchase could minimize my losses.
2. The salesperson suggested their service was the safest choice for me.
3. The salesperson presented a lot of negative information about the competitors' services.
4. The salesperson provided a lot of details about the offer.
5. The salesperson focused on how the services would improve my business.
6. The salesperson spent most of the time talking about the positive attributes of their services.
7. The salesperson made broad claims and summarized the value of their services rather than talking about specific details.
8. *To show you are reading the questions, select "Tactic was used very often" as your answer to this statement.*

STEP #7: Based on your selection in STEP #5, indicated your perceptions towards the salesperson or your perceptions towards your relationship with the salesperson when answering the following statements.

Please SELECT ONE of the following 7 choices (by tick in a box) when answering each statement:

        1 = Strongly disagree
        2 = Disagree
        3 = Slightly disagree
        4 = Neutral
        5 = Slightly agree
        6 = Agree
        7 = Strongly agree

1. I can trust that salesperson.
2. I can believe claims the salesperson makes.
3. My interactions with that salesperson "felt right."
4. I felt proper when interacts with that salesperson.
5. I feel that interacting with that salesperson was the "right thing to do."
6. It was interesting interacting with that salesperson.
7. It was enjoyable to interact with that salesperson.
8. It was exciting to interact with that salesperson.
9. The services provided by salesperson are of value.
10. I felt confident when making purchasing decision.
11. I felt intensely involved in the sales interaction.
12. There was a strong relationship between the salesperson and me.
13. I felt attracted to that salesperson.
14. There was a sense of closeness between the salesperson and me.
15. The salesperson is similar to me.
16. The salesperson is a good friend.
17. The salesperson wants to have further communication with me.
18. The salesperson cares if I like them.
19. The salesperson was calm and poised with me.
20. I felt very relaxed when talking to the salesperson.
21. I felt comfortable when interacting with the salesperson.
22. The salesperson made the discussion feel casual.
23. The salesperson was sincere with me.
24. I trust that salesperson.
25. The salesperson was willing to listen to me.
26. The salesperson was honest when communicating with me.

STEP #8: This last section will help us identify similarities and differences in response based on gender, age, working experience, and number of employees. This information will remain confidential.

1. Gender
       a. Male
       b. Female

2. Age
       a. under 30
       b. 30-40
       c. 41-50
       d. 51 – 60
       e. over 60

3. Your working experience in purchasing
       a. less than 2 years
       b. 2 to 5 years
       c. 6 to 10 years
       d. 11-15 years
       e. 16-20 years
       f. more than 20 years

APPENDIX D

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND RELIABILITY ESTIMATES

Table 1 Demographic Characteristics of Participants in Pretest (N = 22)

		Frequency	%
Number of employees	a. less than 25	6	27.27
	b. 25-100	3	13.64
	c. 101-500	7	31.82
	d. more than 500	6	27.27
	Total	**22**	**100.00**
Gender	a. Male	15	68.18
	b. Female	7	31.82
	Total	**22**	**100.00**
Age	a. under 30	2	9.09
	b. 30-40	12	54.55
	c. 41-50	6	27.27
	d. above 50	2	9.09
	Total	**22**	**100.00**
Working experience	a. less than 10 years	10	45.45
	b. 10-15	7	31.82
	c. 16-20	3	13.64
	d. more than 20 years	2	9.09
	Total	**22**	**100.00**

Source: developed for this research

Table 2 Descriptive Statistics and Reliability Estimates for Pretest (N = 22)

	Variable	Mean	SD	Cronbach's Alpha
Buyer's Regulatory Orientation				
	Prevention Orientation	**4.011**	**1.901**	**0.809**
1	Prevention_1	4.900	2.049	
2	Prevention_2	4.200	1.936	
3	Prevention_3	3.500	1.762	
4	Prevention_4	3.600	2.062	
5	Prevention_5	4.000	1.919	
6	Prevention_6	4.350	1.725	
7	Prevention_7	3.800	1.673	
8	Prevention_8	3.350	2.134	
9	Prevention_9	4.400	1.847	
	Promotion Orientation	**5.050**	**1.570**	**0.839**
1	Promotion_1	4.750	1.803	
2	Promotion_2	4.650	1.785	
3	Promotion_3	5.600	1.095	
4	Promotion_4	5.300	1.455	
5	Promotion_5	3.950	2.038	

6	Promotion_6	5.000	1.777	
7	Promotion_7	6.000	1.026	
8	Promotion_8	4.700	2.003	
9	Promotion_9	5.500	1.147	
11 Sales Influence Tactics				
	Rational Persuasion	**3.425**	**1.032**	**0.796**
1	Rational_Persuasion_1	3.550	0.999	
2	Rational_Persuasion_2	3.600	0.995	
3	Rational_Persuasion_3	3.350	1.182	
4	Rational_Persuasion_4	3.200	0.951	
	Exchange	**2.113**	**1.241**	**0.892**
1	Exchange_1	2.500	1.235	
2	Exchange_2	1.850	1.137	
3	Exchange_3	2.050	1.234	
4	Exchange_4	2.050	1.356	
	Apprising	**3.225**	**1.213**	**0.335**
1	Apprising_1	2.700	1.261	
2	Apprising_2	3.750	0.967	
3	Apprising_3	3.050	1.395	
4	Apprising_4	3.400	1.231	
	Consultation	**2.575**	**1.332**	**0.846**
1	Consultation_1	2.350	1.348	
2	Consultation_2	2.500	1.433	
3	Consultation_3	2.800	1.322	
4	Consultation_4	2.650	1.226	
	Legitimating	**2.688**	**1.152**	**0.834**
1	Legitimating_1	2.700	1.218	
2	Legitimating_2	2.750	1.070	
3	Legitimating_3	2.650	1.137	
4	Legitimating_4	2.650	1.182	
	Collaboration	**2.763**	**1.292**	**0.873**
1	Collaboration_1	2.850	1.182	
2	Collaboration_2	2.600	1.501	
3	Collaboration_3	2.500	1.192	
4	Collaboration_4	3.100	1.294	
	Personal Appeal	**1.888**	**0.969**	**0.787**
1	Personal_Appeal_1	2.300	0.979	
2	Personal_Appeal_2	2.100	1.071	
3	Personal_Appeal_3	1.600	0.940	
4	Personal_Appeal_4	1.550	0.887	
	Coalition	**1.575**	**0.891**	**0.481**
1	Coalition_1	2.000	1.338	
2	Coalition_2	1.400	0.598	
3	Coalition_3	1.500	0.946	

4	Coalition_4	1.400	0.681	
	Ingratiation	**2.125**	**1.386**	**0.916**
1	Ingratiation_1	2.450	1.605	
2	Ingratiation_2	2.100	1.410	
3	Ingratiation_3	2.050	1.317	
4	Ingratiation_4	1.900	1.210	
	Pressure	**2.163**	**1.291**	**0.842**
1	Pressure_1	2.100	1.410	
2	Pressure_2	1.500	1.147	
3	Pressure_3	2.800	1.196	
4	Pressure_4	2.250	1.410	
	Inspirational Appeal	**2.438**	**1.094**	**0.695**
1	Inspirational_Appeal_1	1.950	0.999	
2	Inspirational_Appeal_2	2.600	1.095	
3	Inspirational_Appeal_3	2.900	1.252	
4	Inspirational_Appeal_4	2.300	1.031	

3 Selling Orientations

	Competitor-Oriented	**2.717**	**1.350**	**0.878**
1	Competitor_Oriented_1	2.800	1.399	
2	Competitor_Oriented_2	2.650	1.348	
3	Competitor_Oriented_3	2.700	1.302	
	Customer-Oriented	**3.783**	**1.115**	**0.817**
1	Customer_Oriented_1	3.950	0.999	
2	Customer_Oriented_2	3.750	1.164	
3	Customer_Oriented_3	3.650	1.182	
	Service-Oriented	**3.167**	**1.141**	**0.651**
1	Service_Oriented_1	3.700	0.979	
2	Service_Oriented_2	2.650	1.137	
3	Service_Oriented_3	3.150	1.309	

Regulatory fit outcomes

	Feel-right	**4.875**	**1.361**	**0.718**
1	Feel_Right_1	5.100	1.373	
2	Feel_Right_2	4.650	1.348	
	Arousal	**3.917**	**1.485**	**0.856**
1	Arousal_1	4.050	1.395	
2	Arousal_2	4.350	1.565	
3	Arousal_3	3.350	1.496	
	Perceived Value	**5.000**	**1.673**	**0.880**
1	Perceived_Value_1	4.800	1.642	
2	Perceived_Value_2	5.200	1.704	

Relational Quality

	Closeness	**3.288**	**1.675**	**0.817**
1	Closeness_1	4.500	1.670	
2	Closeness_2	3.350	1.872	

3	Closeness_3	2.400	1.353	
4	Closeness_4	2.900	1.804	
	Familiarity	**3.500**	**1.749**	**0.836**
1	Familiarity_1	2.600	1.635	
2	Familiarity_2	3.250	1.585	
3	Familiarity_3	4.250	1.970	
4	Familiarity_4	3.900	1.804	
	Relax	**4.663**	**1.618**	**0.944**
1	Relax_1	4.350	1.663	
2	Relax_2	4.700	1.525	
3	Relax_3	4.800	1.673	
4	Relax_4	4.800	1.609	
	Receptivity	**4.338**	**1.847**	**0.982**
1	Receptivity_1	4.350	1.785	
2	Receptivity_2	4.150	1.899	
3	Receptivity_3	4.600	1.789	
4	Receptivity_4	4.250	1.916	

Source: developed for this research

Table 3 Demographic Characteristics of Participants in Pilot Test (N = 40)

		Frequency	%
Number of employees	a. less than 25	25	62.5
	b. 25-100	8	20.0
	c. 101-500	7	17.5
	d. more than 500	0	0.0
	Total	40	100.0
Sales interact frequency	a. Never	0	0.0
	b. Less than Once a Month	0	0.0
	c. Once a Month	0	0.0
	d. 2-3 Times a Month	0	0.0
	e. Once a Week	8	20.0
	f. 2-3 Times a Week	15	37.5
	g. Daily	17	42.5
	Total	40	100.0
Gender	a. Male	16	40.0
	b. Female	24	60.0
	Total	40	100.0
Age	a. under 30	4	10.0
	b. 30-40	6	15.0
	c. 41-50	14	35.0
	d. 51 - 60	9	22.5
	e. over 60	7	17.5
	Total	40	100.0

Working experience	a. less than 2 years	3	7.5
	b. 2 to 5 years	11	27.5
	c. 6 to 10 years	3	7.5
	d. 11-15 years	7	17.5
	e. 16-20 years	8	20.0
	f. more than 20 years	8	20.0
	Total	**40**	**100.0**

Source: developed for this research

Table 4 Descriptive Statistics and Reliability Estimates for Pilot Test (N = 40; Responses = 80)

	Variable	Mean	SD	Cronbach's Alpha
Buyer's Regulatory Orientation				
	Prevention focus	**4.840**	**1.335**	**0.427**
1	Prevention_1	5.930	0.854	
2	Prevention_2	3.580	1.589	
3	Prevention_3	5.130	1.479	
4	Prevention_4	5.730	1.147	
5	Prevention_5	3.830	1.605	
	Promotion focus	**5.632**	**1.253**	**0.743**
1	Promotion_1	5.430	1.290	
2	Promotion_2	6.000	1.006	
3	Promotion_3	5.980	1.180	
4	Promotion_4	5.700	1.316	
5	Promotion_5	5.050	1.475	
11 Sales Influence Tactics				
	Rational Persuasion	**3.410**	**1.190**	**0.788**
1	Rational_Persuasion_1	3.540	1.113	
2	Rational_Persuasion_2	3.550	1.090	
3	Rational_Persuasion_3	3.140	1.366	
	Exchange	**2.397**	**1.380**	**0.869**
1	Exchange_1	2.410	1.375	
2	Exchange_2	2.380	1.363	
3	Exchange_3	2.400	1.402	
	Apprising	**3.150**	**1.247**	**0.643**
1	Apprising_1	3.710	1.138	
2	Apprising_2	2.130	1.325	
3	Apprising_3	3.610	1.278	
	Consultation	**3.000**	**1.323**	**0.765**
1	Consultation_1	2.910	1.380	
2	Consultation_2	2.780	1.321	
3	Consultation_3	3.310	1.269	
	Legitimating	**2.240**	**1.392**	**0.863**
1	Legitimating_1	2.180	1.339	

2	Legitimating_2	2.180	1.367	
3	Legitimating_3	2.360	1.469	
	Collaboration	**3.173**	**1.339**	**0.845**
1	Collaboration_1	3.310	1.218	
2	Collaboration_2	3.060	1.315	
3	Collaboration_3	3.150	1.485	
	Personal Appeal	**1.680**	**1.201**	**0.973**
1	Personal_Appeal_1	1.730	1.232	
2	Personal_Appeal_2	1.660	1.190	
3	Personal_Appeal_3	1.650	1.181	
	Coalition	**2.117**	**1.398**	**0.839**
1	Coalition_1	1.930	1.367	
2	Coalition_2	2.380	1.426	
3	Coalition_3	2.040	1.400	
	Ingratiation	**2.833**	**1.464**	**0.895**
1	Ingratiation_1	3.130	1.418	
2	Ingratiation_2	2.780	1.441	
3	Ingratiation_3	2.590	1.532	
	Pressure	**2.090**	**1.338**	**0.806**
1	Pressure_1	2.850	1.576	
2	Pressure_2	1.560	1.168	
3	Pressure_3	1.860	1.270	
	Inspirational Appeal	**3.263**	**1.307**	**0.844**
1	Inspirational_Appeal_1	2.890	1.359	
2	Inspirational_Appeal_2	3.560	1.231	
3	Inspirational_Appeal_3	3.340	1.331	
3 Selling Orientations				
	Competitor-Oriented	**2.737**	**1.376**	**0.857**
1	Competitor_Oriented_1	3.250	1.355	
2	Competitor_Oriented_2	2.580	1.348	
3	Competitor_Oriented_3	2.380	1.426	
	Customer-Oriented	**3.373**	**1.368**	**0.855**
1	Customer_Oriented_1	3.730	1.331	
2	Customer_Oriented_2	3.590	1.328	
3	Customer_Oriented_3	2.800	1.444	
	Service-Oriented	**3.047**	**1.402**	**0.798**
1	Service_Oriented_1	3.500	1.378	
2	Service_Oriented_2	2.290	1.361	
3	Service_Oriented_3	3.350	1.468	
Regulatory fit outcomes				
	Feel-right	**4.000**	**1.789**	
1	Feel_Right_1	4.300	1.789	
2	Feel_Right_2	3.700	1.789	
	Arousal	**4.307**	**1.683**	**0.905**

1	Arousal_1			4.660	1.509			
2	Arousal_2			4.410	1.805			
3	Arousal_3			3.850	1.736			
	Perceived Value			**5.105**	**1.574**		**0.873**	
1	Perceived_Value_1			5.100	1.472			
2	Perceived_Value_2			5.110	1.676			
Relational Quality								
	Closeness			**3.445**	**1.812**		**0.841**	
1	Closeness_1			4.580	1.756			
2	Closeness_2			3.530	1.855			
3	Closeness_3			2.390	1.872			
4	Closeness_4			3.280	1.764			
	Familiarity			**3.515**	**1.795**		**0.792**	
1	Familiarity_1			3.260	1.770			
2	Familiarity_2			2.390	1.695			
3	Familiarity_3			4.310	1.933			
4	Familiarity_4			4.100	1.783			
	Relax			**4.745**	**1.791**		**0.954**	
1	Relax_1			4.880	1.554			
2	Relax_2			4.700	1.865			
3	Relax_3			4.710	1.877			
4	Relax_4			4.690	1.866			
	Receptivity			**4.553**	**1.748**		**0.950**	
1	Receptivity_1			4.540	1.728			
2	Receptivity_2			4.210	1.770			
3	Receptivity_3			4.910	1.773			
4	Receptivity_4			4.550	1.720			

Source: developed for this research

Table 5 Descriptive Statistics and Reliability Estimates for Main Study (N = 205; Responses = 410)

	Variable	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's Alpha
Buyer's Regulatory Orientation								
	Prevention focus	**4.828**	**1.495**					**0.451**
1	Prevention_1	5.830	1.049	1	7	-1.135	2.131	
2	Prevention_2	5.360	1.534	1	7	-1.095	0.723	
3	Prevention_3	5.370	1.254	2	7	-0.623	-0.169	
4	Prevention_4	3.580	2.005	1	7	0.152	-1.317	
5	Prevention_5	4.000	1.634	1	7	0.149	-0.687	
	Promotion focus	**5.560**	**1.172**					**0.677**
1	Promotion_1	4.730	1.576	1	7	-0.612	-0.260	
2	Promotion_2	5.970	0.873	2	7	-0.785	1.377	
3	Promotion_3	6.040	0.945	2	7	-1.206	2.512	
4	Promotion_4	5.740	1.073	2	7	-0.617	-0.168	
5	Promotion_5	5.320	1.392	1	7	-0.668	-0.052	

11 Sales Influence Tactics

		Mean	SD	Min	Max	Skew	Kurt	α
	Rational Persuasion	**3.410**	**1.183**					0.813
1	Rational_Persuasion_1	3.520	1.160	1	5	-0.523	-0.469	
2	Rational_Persuasion_2	3.590	1.100	1	5	-0.503	-0.401	
3	Rational_Persuasion_3	3.120	1.288	1	5	-0.213	-1.005	
	Exchange	**2.310**	**1.362**					0.877
1	Exchange_1	2.390	1.364	1	5	0.562	-0.962	
2	Exchange_2	2.270	1.353	1	5	0.665	-0.867	
3	Exchange_3	2.270	1.369	1	5	0.679	-0.873	
	Apprising	**3.133**	**1.204**					0.642
1	Apprising_1	3.780	1.105	1	5	-0.814	0.078	
2	Apprising_2	2.020	1.317	1	5	0.993	-0.348	
3	Apprising_3	3.600	1.191	1	5	-0.708	-0.250	
	Consultation	**2.933**	**1.361**					0.822
1	Consultation_1	2.850	1.386	1	5	-0.016	-1.269	
2	Consultation_2	2.740	1.357	1	5	0.109	-1.263	
3	Consultation_3	3.210	1.339	1	5	-0.354	-1.007	
	Legitimating	**2.187**	**1.350**					0.857
1	Legitimating_1	2.210	1.323	1	5	0.710	-0.753	
2	Legitimating_2	2.140	1.328	1	5	0.833	-0.631	
3	Legitimating_3	2.210	1.400	1	5	0.739	-0.893	
	Collaboration	**3.047**	**1.387**					0.841
1	Collaboration_1	3.240	1.292	1	5	-0.348	-0.936	
2	Collaboration_2	2.840	1.431	1	5	0.038	-1.348	
3	Collaboration_3	3.060	1.437	1	5	-0.168	-1.291	
	Personal Appeal	**1.693**	**1.173**					0.954
1	Personal_Appeal_1	1.720	1.185	1	5	1.522	1.097	
2	Personal_Appeal_2	1.680	1.167	1	5	1.561	1.145	
3	Personal_Appeal_3	1.680	1.168	1	5	1.598	1.305	
	Coalition	**1.917**	**1.259**					0.832
1	Coalition_1	1.750	1.187	1	5	1.421	0.847	
2	Coalition_2	2.090	1.324	1	5	0.833	-0.668	
3	Coalition_3	1.910	1.266	1	5	1.163	0.101	
	Ingratiation	**2.590**	**1.428**					0.893
1	Ingratiation_1	2.790	1.398	1	5	0.083	-1.267	
2	Ingratiation_2	2.550	1.439	1	5	0.330	-1.280	
3	Ingratiation_3	2.430	1.447	1	5	0.477	-1.204	
	Pressure	**1.947**	**1.208**					0.731
1	Pressure_1	2.660	1.518	1	5	0.280	-1.435	
2	Pressure_2	1.430	0.967	1	5	2.410	5.123	
3	Pressure_3	1.750	1.139	1	5	1.427	1.046	
	Inspirational Appeal	**3.113**	**1.314**					0.836
1	Inspirational_Appeal_1	2.700	1.347	1	5	0.132	-1.169	
2	Inspirational_Appeal_2	3.360	1.288	1	5	-0.495	-0.776	
3	Inspirational_Appeal_3	3.280	1.306	1	5	-0.423	-0.913	

3 Selling Orientations

		Mean	SD	Min	Max	Skew	Kurt	α
	Competitor-Oriented	**2.773**	**1.359**					0.839
1	Competitor_Oriented_1	3.290	1.286	1	5	-0.414	-0.869	
2	Competitor_Oriented_2	2.650	1.393	1	5	0.236	-1.232	
3	Competitor_Oriented_3	2.380	1.399	1	5	0.549	-1.022	
	Customer-Oriented	**3.263**	**1.311**					0.810
1	Customer_Oriented_1	3.600	1.269	1	5	-0.680	-0.559	
2	Customer_Oriented_2	3.500	1.263	1	5	-0.626	-0.557	

3	Customer_Oriented_3	2.690	1.401	1	5	0.219	-1.275	
	Service-Oriented	**2.987**	**1.378**					0.772
1	Service_Oriented_1	3.340	1.340	1	5	-0.470	-0.931	
2	Service_Oriented_2	2.390	1.354	1	5	0.496	-1.077	
3	Service_Oriented_3	3.230	1.441	1	5	-0.332	-1.215	
Regulatory Fit Outcomes								
	Feel-right	**4.453**	**1.649**					0.940
1	Feel_Right_1	4.420	1.727	1	7	-0.436	-0.749	
2	Feel_Right_2	4.380	1.650	1	7	-0.321	-0.701	
3	Feel_Right_3	4.560	1.570	1	7	-0.532	-0.291	
	Arousal	**4.340**	**1.634**					0.893
1	Arousal_1	4.690	1.524	1	7	-0.615	-0.066	
2	Arousal_2	4.500	1.726	1	7	-0.542	-0.511	
3	Arousal_3	3.830	1.653	1	7	-0.032	-0.598	
	Perceived Value	**5.030**	**1.605**					0.818
1	Perceived_Value_1	4.960	1.516	1	7	-0.851	0.363	
2	Perceived_Value_2	5.100	1.694	1	7	-0.916	0.083	
Relational Quality								
	Closeness	**3.540**	**1.760**					0.866
1	Closeness_1	4.550	1.721	1	7	-0.505	-0.580	
2	Closeness_2	3.710	1.840	1	7	-0.011	-0.999	
3	Closeness_3	2.620	1.744	1	7	0.805	-0.398	
4	Closeness_4	3.280	1.733	1	7	0.239	-0.897	
	Familiarity	**3.593**	**1.739**					0.807
1	Familiarity_1	3.420	1.794	1	7	0.120	-1.099	
2	Familiarity_2	2.550	1.734	1	7	0.890	-0.324	
3	Familiarity_3	4.370	1.780	1	7	-0.486	-0.743	
4	Familiarity_4	4.030	1.647	1	7	-0.205	-0.588	
	Relax	**4.855**	**1.627**					0.944
1	Relax_1	5.040	1.439	1	7	-0.802	0.293	
2	Relax_2	4.780	1.702	1	7	-0.731	-0.300	
3	Relax_3	4.810	1.726	1	7	-0.767	-0.305	
4	Relax_4	4.790	1.642	1	7	-0.644	-0.301	
	Receptivity	**4.560**	**1.725**					0.957
1	Receptivity_1	4.570	1.702	1	7	-0.488	-0.577	
2	Receptivity_2	4.180	1.828	1	7	-0.280	-1.003	
3	Receptivity_3	4.870	1.714	1	7	-0.682	-0.422	
4	Receptivity_4	4.620	1.657	1	7	-0.439	-0.566	

Source: developed for this research

Table 6 Correlation Matrix of Variables

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1	Inspirational Appeal	1.000																		
2	Personal Appeal	0.228	1.000																	
3	Collaboration	0.552	0.276	1.000																
4	Apprising	0.621	0.464	0.500	1.000															
5	Ingratiation	0.516	0.504	0.495	0.592	1.000														
6	Exchange	0.325	0.520	0.417	0.529	0.485	1.000													
7	Consultation	0.512	0.308	0.648	0.536	0.499	0.420	1.000												
8	Rational Persuasion	0.656	0.202	0.537	0.674	0.418	0.405	0.555	1.000											
9	Legitimating	0.382	0.543	0.443	0.526	0.538	0.563	0.559	0.441	1.000										
10	Pressure	0.293	0.619	0.137	0.441	0.442	0.414	0.146	0.238	0.416	1.000									
11	Coalition	0.345	0.686	0.284	0.465	0.545	0.438	0.311	0.306	0.520	0.648	1.000								
12	Customer Oriented	0.610	0.249	0.670	0.577	0.520	0.361	0.660	0.587	0.424	0.203	0.303	1.000							
13	Service Oriented	0.663	0.272	0.669	0.591	0.561	0.358	0.655	0.576	0.497	0.205	0.328	0.750	1.000						
14	Competitor Oriented	0.516	0.469	0.447	0.559	0.554	0.398	0.415	0.472	0.466	0.409	0.485	0.555	0.559	1.000					
15	Buyer Promotion Focus	0.205	0.024	0.127	0.168	0.173	0.029	0.096	0.173	0.080	0.038	0.079	0.142	0.205	0.184	1.000				
16	Buyer Prevention Focus	0.132	0.187	0.182	0.161	0.140	0.159	0.169	0.140	0.180	0.150	0.130	0.122	0.174	0.206	0.323	1.000			
17	Regulatory Fit Outcome	0.313	0.066	0.458	0.215	0.234	0.175	0.499	0.326	0.286	-0.207	0.108	0.460	0.500	0.176	0.163	0.157	1.000		
18	Comfortable	0.214	-0.166	0.343	0.062	0.009	-0.019	0.294	0.211	0.000	-0.379	-0.126	0.346	0.340	-0.033	0.154	0.018	0.769	1.000	
19	Friendship	0.188	0.417	0.294	0.239	0.412	0.349	0.404	0.217	0.490	0.238	0.398	0.294	0.339	0.357	0.027	0.246	0.464	0.000	1.000

Source: developed for this research

APPENDIX E

NON-RESPONSE BIAS RESULT

Table 1 Non-Response bias result (Levene's Test for Equality of Variances) for Main Study

Scale Items	1st test		2nd test		3rd test		4th test		5th test	
	F	Sig.	F	Sig.	F	Sig.	F	Sig.	F	Sig.
Prevention_1	.839	.361	.283	.595	.016	.898	1.159	.283	.077	.782
Promotion_1	.260	.611	1.734	.189	.613	.435	.165	.685	.060	.808
Prevention_2	.032	.859	.280	.597	11.757	.001	.247	.620	1.588	.209
Promotion_2	.189	.665	1.614	.205	1.198	.275	.253	.615	3.504	.063
Prevention_3	.258	.612	.133	.716	1.592	.209	1.966	.162	.226	.635
Prevention_4	.094	.759	.772	.381	.953	.330	.054	.816	.508	.477
Prevention_5	2.583	.110	1.633	.203	.041	.840	.088	.767	.508	.477
Promotion_3	1.258	.263	.432	.512	.001	.977	.246	.621	.063	.803
Promotion_4	.680	.411	.065	.798	1.937	.165	1.957	.163	.264	.608
Promotion_5	1.472	.226	.655	.419	1.922	.167	3.333	.069	.611	.435
No_Rational_Persuasion_1	.021	.884	1.810	.180	.476	.491	.052	.820	.224	.637
No_Rational_Persuasion_2	.139	.709	3.394	.067	.000	.999	.031	.861	3.029	.083
No_Rational_Persuasion_3	1.820	.179	.012	.913	.446	.505	2.334	.128	2.971	.086
No_Exchange_1	4.932	.027	.209	.648	.000	.982	2.341	.128	5.268	.023
No_Exchange_2	1.392	.239	.038	.845	.008	.931	3.025	.083	26.444	.000
No_Exchange_3	.787	.376	.427	.514	2.095	.149	.205	.651	2.201	.139
No_Apprising_1	1.570	.212	.687	.408	.353	.553	.508	.477	.149	.700
No_Apprising_2	.183	.670	1.245	.266	1.543	.216	.224	.637	.472	.493
No_Apprising_3	.121	.729	.713	.399	.000	.986	1.126	.290	.016	.900
No_Consultation_1	2.012	.158	.005	.942	1.391	.240	.833	.362	.199	.656
No_Consultation_2	.010	.920	.142	.707	.895	.345	.004	.952	4.181	.042
No_Consultation_3	1.395	.239	.001	.970	.353	.553	.307	.580	2.124	.147
No_Legitimating_1	2.448	.119	2.141	.145	1.807	.180	3.278	.072	1.138	.287
No_Legitimating_2	1.775	.184	.896	.345	1.334	.250	1.453	.229	5.097	.025
No_Legitimating_3	.132	.717	.075	.784	.018	.892	1.037	.310	16.943	.000
No_Collaboration_1	.160	.689	.010	.921	.004	.950	.431	.512	.066	.798
No_Collaboration_2	.509	.476	.556	.457	.312	.577	.333	.564	2.265	.134
No_Collaboration_3	.157	.692	.490	.485	.582	.446	.212	.645	.005	.942
No_Personal_Appeal_1	.154	.695	.015	.904	9.072	.003	.942	.333	1.135	.288
No_Personal_Appeal_2	.054	.817	1.018	.314	17.557	.000	.788	.376	5.386	.021
No_Personal_Appeal_3	.006	.937	.596	.441	8.447	.004	.025	.874	1.239	.267
No_Coalition_1	1.895	.170	1.544	.215	1.763	.186	.012	.913	4.595	.033
No_Coalition_2	.008	.930	.290	.591	12.586	.000	1.141	.287	.236	.628
No_Coalition_3	1.326	.251	.854	.356	6.101	.014	5.302	.022	3.461	.064
No_Ingratiation_1	2.444	.120	.200	.656	.004	.947	.111	.740	1.208	.273
No_Ingratiation_2	2.022	.157	1.479	.225	.865	.354	.428	.514	3.224	.074
No_Ingratiation_3	1.095	.297	2.546	.112	.473	.492	.850	.358	6.330	.013
No_Pressure_1	4.962	.027	.745	.389	2.575	.110	.019	.889	.328	.568
No_Pressure_2	.811	.369	3.338	.069	.109	.742	.040	.841	5.306	.022
No_Pressure_3	.011	.918	.234	.629	1.336	.249	.283	.596	.581	.447
No_Inspirational_Appeal_1	2.579	.110	.003	.957	.068	.794	.533	.466	.089	.766
No_Inspirational_Appeal_2	.307	.580	1.724	.191	.185	.668	2.612	.108	.239	.626
No_Inspirational_Appeal_3	.114	.736	.374	.542	.280	.597	2.282	.132	2.537	.113
No_Competitor_Oriented_1	.710	.400	.267	.606	.306	.581	.071	.790	.591	.443
No_Competitor_Oriented_2	.743	.390	.033	.855	.182	.670	.013	.908	.320	.572
No_Competitor_Oriented_3	.008	.930	2.144	.145	2.006	.158	.566	.453	1.591	.209
No_Customer_Oriented_1	.451	.503	.003	.957	1.067	.303	.070	.792	.515	.474
No_Customer_Oriented_2	.005	.944	.429	.513	.183	.669	.050	.823	.399	.528
No_Customer_Oriented_3	4.583	.033	.359	.550	.001	.971	.383	.537	7.744	.006
No_Service_Oriented_1	2.883	.091	2.748	.099	.626	.430	.700	.404	.150	.699
No_Service_Oriented_2	.264	.608	.012	.914	3.319	.070	.348	.556	.910	.341
No_Service_Oriented_3	4.751	.030	.398	.529	.124	.725	.249	.618	.094	.760

No_Feel_Right_1	.628	.429	.303	.583	.759	.385	1.063	.304	1.489	.224
No_Feel_Right_2	.236	.628	1.584	.210	1.056	.305	.026	.873	.795	.374
No_Feel_Right_3	.116	.734	8.282	.005	1.035	.310	.024	.878	.379	.539
No_Arousal_1	.014	.905	1.161	.283	.186	.667	.493	.483	1.643	.201
No_Arousal_2	.588	.444	.011	.915	.220	.639	1.766	.185	.189	.664
No_Arousal_3	.571	.451	.126	.723	.037	.848	.547	.460	2.732	.100
No_Perceived_Value_1	.131	.718	1.660	.199	3.013	.084	1.994	.159	.000	.994
No_Perceived_Value_2	.975	.325	.971	.326	3.397	.067	1.494	.223	.161	.688
No_Closeness_1	.319	.573	.909	.342	1.132	.289	2.295	.131	.031	.861
No_Closeness_2	1.025	.313	.741	.391	.159	.690	1.690	.195	2.534	.113
No_Closeness_3	2.455	.119	.747	.388	.026	.871	1.505	.221	.105	.747
No_Closeness_4	.006	.939	4.472	.036	.080	.777	.562	.454	.274	.601
No_Familiarity_1	.008	.928	.111	.740	.770	.381	.984	.323	.815	.368
No_Familiarity_2	.481	.489	1.119	.291	2.224	.137	.240	.624	1.187	.277
No_Familiarity_3	.241	.624	.200	.655	.779	.378	.008	.929	.242	.623
No_Familiarity_4	.009	.924	.235	.629	4.347	.038	3.048	.082	.377	.540
No_Relax_1	.321	.572	.063	.802	1.036	.310	.001	.972	.709	.401
No_Relax_2	1.977	.161	1.713	.192	.499	.481	.076	.782	3.342	.069
No_Relax_3	1.215	.272	.764	.383	.285	.594	.062	.803	4.748	.030
No_Relax_4	1.034	.310	1.603	.207	2.109	.148	.454	.501	.133	.716
No_Receptivity_1	.625	.430	.011	.917	5.186	.024	.036	.850	.092	.762
No_Receptivity_2	.351	.554	.009	.924	.360	.549	1.064	.303	.831	.363
No_Receptivity_3	.013	.908	1.095	.297	.432	.512	.360	.549	1.582	.210
No_Receptivity_4	.001	.970	.216	.643	2.347	.127	.129	.719	.212	.646
Rational_Persuasion_1	.217	.642	.043	.836	.016	.899	2.306	.130	.713	.400
Rational_Persuasion_2	.445	.506	.215	.643	.190	.664	.693	.406	2.855	.093
Rational_Persuasion_3	1.065	.303	.454	.501	.212	.646	.069	.794	1.137	.288
Exchange_1	.046	.831	2.761	.098	.027	.868	.442	.507	2.088	.150
Exchange_2	.287	.593	2.626	.107	.081	.777	.558	.456	2.778	.097
Exchange_3	.002	.964	2.601	.108	.066	.798	4.962	.027	7.573	.006
Apprising_1	5.886	.016	.362	.548	.227	.634	.186	.667	1.381	.241
Apprising_2	.410	.523	3.592	.059	.106	.745	3.250	.073	.717	.398
Apprising_3	.001	.979	.018	.895	.013	.909	4.508	.035	.681	.410
Consultation_1	.385	.536	.043	.836	.156	.693	.926	.337	.062	.803
Consultation_2	1.236	.267	.421	.517	1.518	.219	.174	.677	1.488	.224
Consultation_3	4.996	.026	.880	.349	1.627	.204	1.582	.210	.626	.430
Legitimating_1	1.005	.317	1.330	.250	2.367	.125	.934	.335	2.183	.141
Legitimating_2	4.102	.044	.000	.985	.917	.339	.346	.557	4.350	.038
Legitimating_3	3.162	.077	.963	.328	.968	.326	1.786	.183	3.704	.056
Collaboration_1	.005	.941	.088	.767	2.725	.100	.092	.762	.566	.453
Collaboration_2	.167	.684	.014	.907	.543	.462	.191	.662	.051	.821
Collaboration_3	1.198	.275	1.857	.175	1.372	.243	.057	.811	.123	.726
Personal_Appeal_1	2.412	.122	.085	.771	2.860	.092	.030	.862	4.983	.027
Personal_Appeal_2	.170	.680	1.324	.251	6.199	.014	.145	.704	8.894	.003
Personal_Appeal_3	.818	.367	2.307	.130	21.893	.000	.027	.869	16.497	.000
Coalition_1	.061	.806	1.626	.204	3.672	.057	.892	.346	11.025	.001
Coalition_2	.014	.904	.000	.983	.227	.634	.653	.420	1.400	.238
Coalition_3	3.051	.082	.610	.436	1.872	.173	.334	.564	6.504	.011
Ingratiation_1	3.481	.064	1.909	.169	1.815	.179	.146	.703	.171	.680
Ingratiation_2	.004	.952	.203	.653	.046	.830	.572	.450	1.017	.314
Ingratiation_3	1.186	.277	2.821	.095	2.185	.141	2.543	.112	6.185	.014
Pressure_1	.397	.529	.497	.481	2.348	.127	.229	.633	.487	.486
Pressure_2	.025	.874	5.451	.021	.002	.961	.023	.880	3.879	.050
Pressure_3	.671	.414	4.153	.043	.559	.455	1.766	.185	1.544	.215
Inspirational_Appeal_1	.007	.931	.528	.468	.971	.326	3.445	.065	.008	.931
Inspirational_Appeal_2	3.663	.057	2.045	.154	.173	.678	.062	.803	.000	.994
Inspirational_Appeal_3	.781	.378	.612	.435	.719	.397	2.417	.122	.395	.530
Competitor_Oriented_1	.847	.358	.462	.497	.004	.947	1.129	.289	.003	.957

Competitor_Oriented_2	.056	.813	.553	.458	1.080	.300	.340	.560	.027	.869
Competitor_Oriented_3	.033	.857	.494	.483	5.826	.017	.780	.378	.000	.983
Customer_Oriented_1	1.569	.212	1.057	.305	.609	.436	.328	.568	2.072	.152
Customer_Oriented_2	.442	.507	.002	.968	1.541	.216	1.060	.304	.088	.767
Customer_Oriented_3	.200	.655	.076	.783	.002	.967	.575	.449	.192	.662
Service_Oriented_1	.398	.529	5.400	.021	1.721	.191	2.918	.089	4.878	.028
Service_Oriented_2	.516	.473	.408	.524	.239	.625	1.064	.303	.021	.884
Service_Oriented_3	3.154	.077	.804	.371	1.613	.206	1.158	.283	.682	.410
Feel_Right_1	.091	.763	3.153	.077	.604	.438	.986	.322	.320	.572
Feel_Right_2	1.665	.198	.323	.570	.002	.962	.017	.897	1.869	.173
Feel_Right_3	.215	.644	3.152	.078	1.462	.228	.931	.336	1.767	.186
Arousal_1	4.117	.044	2.547	.112	4.728	.031	.284	.594	.946	.332
Arousal_2	2.314	.130	1.446	.231	3.960	.048	1.253	.264	3.091	.080
Arousal_3	1.628	.203	.561	.455	.234	.629	.580	.447	3.566	.060
Perceived_Value_1	.001	.975	1.562	.213	5.986	.015	1.129	.289	3.241	.073
Perceived_Value_2	.609	.436	1.377	.242	3.648	.058	1.865	.174	2.127	.146
Closeness_1	.002	.962	3.841	.051	8.647	.004	1.373	.243	.013	.908
Closeness_2	.018	.893	2.115	.147	2.423	.121	.250	.618	.744	.389
Closeness_3	.085	.771	1.485	.224	1.749	.187	.318	.573	1.578	.211
Closeness_4	.360	.549	8.374	.004	6.240	.013	2.624	.107	1.286	.258
Familiarity_1	.489	.485	10.946	.001	1.170	.281	.277	.599	.603	.438
Familiarity_2	.001	.971	.763	.383	1.430	.233	.623	.431	.758	.385
Familiarity_3	.000	.990	1.901	.169	1.775	.184	.065	.799	.039	.844
Familiarity_4	1.283	.259	1.945	.165	.438	.509	.321	.572	.379	.539
Relax_1	.568	.452	3.192	.075	4.610	.033	.377	.540	.100	.752
Relax_2	1.233	.268	10.919	.001	7.963	.005	.853	.357	2.321	.129
Relax_3	4.360	.038	8.680	.004	2.340	.128	.482	.488	2.392	.124
Relax_4	.185	.668	5.259	.023	12.043	.001	3.366	.068	.800	.372
Receptivity_1	.007	.931	3.182	.076	2.149	.144	.239	.626	.010	.919
Receptivity_2	.520	.472	2.218	.138	.835	.362	.047	.828	.003	.960
Receptivity_3	.001	.970	7.599	.006	6.894	.009	.282	.596	1.409	.237
Receptivity_4	.000	.985	1.413	.236	.846	.359	.181	.671	.365	.546

Note: If p (sig) > .05, Levene's test indicates that equal variances can be assumed (accept H$_0$) or the homogeneity of variance exists; in which case the t-test assuming equal variances can be used.

Source: developed for this research

ไม่มีเอกสารจากต้นฉบับ
หน้าประวัติผู้แต่ง