

OLAF PLÖTNER | ROBERT E. SPEKMAN (EDS.)

# BRINGING TECHNOLOGY TO MARKET

TRENDS

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CASES

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SOLUTIONS



European school  
of management  
and technology



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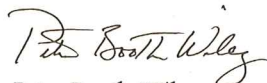
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## Bringing Technology to Market

*Trends, Cases, Solutions*

Edited by  
Olaf Plötner and Robert E. Spekman



WILEY-VCH Verlag GmbH & Co. KGaA

# Table of Contents

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Library of Congress Card No.:  
applied for

British Library Cataloging-in-Publication Data:  
A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library.

Bibliographic information published by the  
Deutsche Nationalbibliothek  
The Deutsche Nationalbibliothek lists this publication in the Deutsche Nationalbibliografie; detailed bibliographic data are available in the Internet at <http://dnb.d-nb.de>.

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KGaA, Weinheim

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Printed in the Federal Republic of Germany

Printed on acid-free paper

Typesetting Mitterweger & Partner, Plankstadt  
Printing and binding Ebner & Spiegel GmbH  
Cover Design init GmbH, Bielefeld

ISBN 978-3-527-50270-7

## Introduction

Olaf Plötner 7

- 1 **Market-Oriented Management in Global Markets** 11  
*Albrecht Söllner/Wulff Plinke*
- 2 **From Selling Goods to Marketing Services** 33  
*Olaf Plötner*
- 3 **New Value Chains** 47  
*Michael Kleinaltenkamp*
- 4 **Cost Decisions and Pricing Decisions in Times of Value-Based Management** 61  
*Mario Rese*
- 5 **Evolution of the Sales Force in a Global Economy** 77  
*Jagdish N. Sheth/Arun Sharma*
- 6 **Organizing the Sales Force** 87  
*Wesley J. Johnston/Brian N. Rutherford*
- 7 **Adjusting Corporate Customer Communication** 105  
*Olaf Plötner/Frank Jacob*
- 8 **Leading the Sales Force** 119  
*Robert E. Spekman/Benjamin Moor*
- 9 **Measuring Sales Force Performance** 135  
*Martin Kupp*

## Cases

- 1 **Creating a Competitive Edge in Global Markets** 147  
*Christoph Burger/Franziska Frank*  
Case: T-Systems  
**Interview with Lothar Pauly** 157  
*Franziska Frank*

<b>2</b>	<b>Creating New Business by Redefining the Value Chain</b>	159
	<i>Bülent Gögdün/Olaf Plötner</i>	
	Case: MAN Roland Druckmaschinen AG	
	<b>Interview with Peter Kuisle</b>	163
	<i>Bülent Gögdün/Olaf Plötner</i>	
<b>3</b>	<b>Value Selling</b>	167
	<i>Mario Rese/Richard Steiner</i>	
	Case: Leistriz Extrusion	
	<b>Interview with Richard Steiner</b>	173
	<i>Mario Rese</i>	
<b>4</b>	<b>The Services Shift in the IT Industries</b>	177
	<i>Olaf Plötner</i>	
	Case: IBM/SBS	
	<b>Interview with Friedrich Fröschl</b>	187
	<i>Olaf Plötner</i>	
<b>5</b>	<b>Advanced Sales Management for a Complex Industrial Portfolio</b>	191
	<i>Aubert Martin/Dale Wilson</i>	
	Case: Siemens A&D	
	<b>Interview with Aubert Martin</b>	211
	<i>Olaf Plötner</i>	
	<b>Outlook</b>	215
	<i>Robert E. Spekman</i>	
	<b>Acknowledgements</b>	221
	<b>Notes</b>	223
	<b>The Authors</b>	231
	<b>Index</b>	233

## 2 From Selling Goods to Marketing Services

*Olaf Plötner*

### **The Significance of the Services Industry in B2B Markets**

“That was no evolution – that was a revolution,” recalls an IBM manager who witnessed Lou Gerstner’s transformation of IBM in the mid-1990s. The CEO arrived at that firm in 1993. Instead of continuing to focus on the manufacture of high-quality computers, he decided to press ahead as energetically as possible in promoting the company’s servicing business. This decision meant the dismissal of 36,000 employees who, it was felt, were incapable of accompanying the company on its new course. The CEO who then took over at IBM in 1999, Ron Palmisano, continued to press ahead with this services-oriented strategy. At present more than half the company’s turnover of 47 billion dollars comes from the services sector, which is thus responsible for a significant portion of the company’s profits.

But why did IBM undertake this radical change? From a short-term perspective, it may well have been the operative pressure to bring the company out of a loss-making zone and save it from threatened divestiture. But long-term strategic considerations also favored the new orientation, which was based on a recognition that even goods of a presumably sophisticated technical nature such as computers could be copied with ever more speed by less expensive firms. At the same time, it was grounded in a hope that at least for services with a high degree of complexity, this might not be the case to the same degree. People were convinced it would be possible to gain a lasting advantage over international competitors on the basis of the special qualifications of IBM employees in the new areas of business.

The assumption is in fact solid that fewer employees with especially high qualifications take part in producing IT hardware than in providing complex IT services. The decisive factor here is not only employees’ technical competence, but above all their social competence. In the IT services business they have more contact with customers, have to demonstrate a higher degree of intellectual flexibility, and must think more holistically. Importantly, when it comes to such competence many firms in western Europe and North America believe they will be able to maintain a lead over China or other “emerging countries” for some time to come.

This in any case only holds true for services in B2B markets that demonstrate a relatively high degree of complexity or difficulty. Hence this discussion

will focus on only these services: for instance, the customer-specific architecture of a telecommunication network, project management in the construction of a chip factory, operating a complex IT-system, inspecting and overhauling an airplane turbine, and so forth.

Researchers have offered a number of definitions meant to distinguish the sale of goods from the sale of services.<sup>26</sup> The following discussion will take a much-simplified approach to the distinction, the sale of services here being understood as a pendant to the sale of goods, with the central difference involving contact with the goods. Hence when goods are being sold the customer can physically handle what is being purchased, while when services are being sold this is precisely not the case.

At the same time, these two forms of business are closely connected in many ways. For example, when a customer acquires an industrial turbine – in our context, a transaction involving goods – this is usually tied to the purchase of a maintenance package, understood here as a service. In actuality, for providers the marketing of goods is not possible without services being supplied as well. This becomes even clearer when we note that transporting goods to a customer already represents a service. To this extent the “pure” sales of goods and the “pure” sales of services simply serve as polarized categories between which different firms can be classified. To be sure, when it comes to marketing questions the correct classification is very important; for – as will be shown – there are important differences depending on whether essentially goods-based or essentially service-based offerings are going to be marketed.

A pragmatic distinction between sales of goods and sales of services is also commonplace within companies. In this regard, many B2B companies are downright fascinated by the high profitability of domains they subsume under a “service business” rubric. The high economic attraction of services is underscored in fig. 1, which presents the results of a study comparing the profitability of goods-oriented and service-oriented business in selected B2B branches. It

**Profitability Comparison of Goods and Services Business**

**Margin differences of OEM- and services business**

Industry Examples	Margin in OEM-Business	Margin in Services
Power Plants	2–5%	15–20%
Locomotives	3–6%	8–10%
Machine Tools	1–12%	5–15%
Paper Machines	1–3%	10–15%
Metallurgical Plants	-3–+6%	15–20%

Fig. 1: Profitability Comparison of Sales of Goods and Services<sup>27</sup>  
Source: Monitor Study, Industrial Services Strategies

would appear from these results that in their strategic decisions many firms feel motivated to expand their service activity.

The separation of goods and services according to marketing logic can take very different form, depending on the range of services offered. The narrowest connection emerges when the services marketed by a firm are directly tied to the use of goods it is itself supplying. This is the case, for instance, with the marketing of one’s own machines. An expansion of this service offering takes place when competitors’ products are also being maintained. Siemens Medical Solutions thus maintains not only its own radiological equipment but that of General Electric and Philips and vice versa.

As the next stage in developing their services activity, providers can offer services with no direct relation to their established products that is perceptible to customers. For example, rather than marketing turbines and connected services, a manufacturer of gas turbines might supply energy to its customers. One output-oriented pricing concept frequently agreed on in such transactions, “power by the hour,” already makes clear that the input-relevant selection of goods is here of secondary importance for the customer.

Beyond this, another possibility is that a provider very consciously prefers to avoid any external connection between selling goods and selling services. This is the case with, for example, so-called competence commercialization,<sup>28</sup> in which a provider wishes to market competencies gained in the goods sector as consultation services separate from that sector. Lufthansa Consulting GmbH thus offers other airlines its know-how regarding route optimization, and Siemens Business Services is interested in selling strategic consultation in the telecom and IT sectors. Frequently companies endow such service branches with an independent legal form, so as to work against possible suspicions by customers that the consultative activities are aimed at supporting the sale of one’s own goods.

In any event, the present euphoria shared by many Western B2B companies regarding that business needs to be considered critically. For it is by no means the case that all firms have arranged a shift from goods to services as successfully as IBM. Many have only managed to generate weak profit margins; others have entirely vanished from the market. Interestingly, degrees of success in providing services can even vary between branches of the same firm. Where, for instance, Siemens AG did not succeed as expected in the realm of IT services, it is nevertheless considered an important benchmark for all competitors through its similar activities in energy production and both medical and automation technology.

In analyzing the sources of success, one thing is repeatedly clear: it is not enough to simply supply more services to the customers or increase their range. This is underscored by the results of one study of the German machine-construction industry. This study is not completely up to date and was limited to German firms; but the problems it points to for B2B firms still exist in many countries.

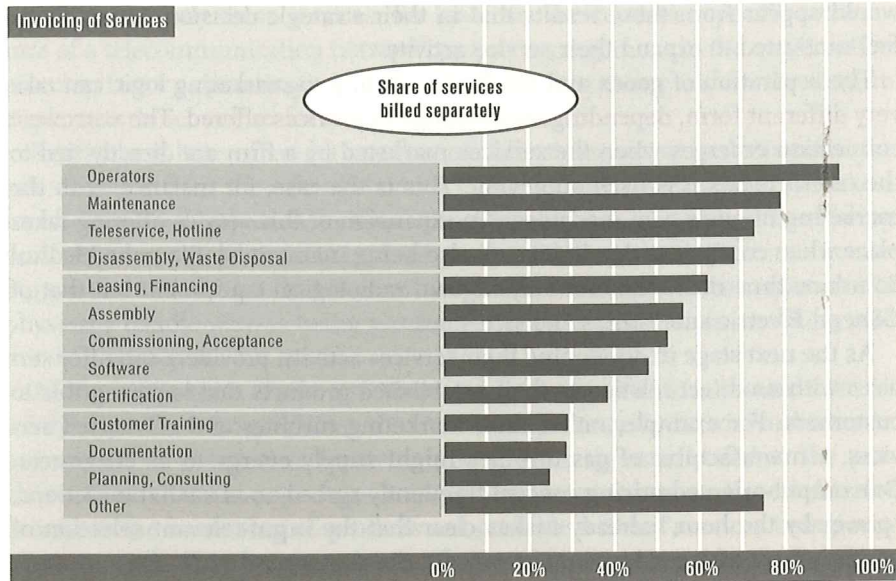


Fig. 2: Invoicing of Services<sup>29</sup>  
Source: VDMA-Study, Product-Related Services

First of all, these results confirm the correctness of the intention of many B2B firms to expand their service activity. But on the other hand, they make clear the great challenge accompanying this intention. It lies in being able to include suitable customer charges for services rendered. Put pointedly: services are very profitable – but only when customers are persuaded to pay for them.

It is striking that for firms whose roots lie in the sales of goods, this problem emerges above all in relation to services with a high growth prognosis, such as consulting. Precisely when such services are made use of by customers before a purchasing decision involving a large plant or machine, there is very little willingness to pay. Notably, at present this is even more the case for the Western European than for the North American market. Many customers define consultative services simply as part of a provider's acquisition activities, no matter how costly they may be. And in the end, it is customary to compare only the price of the goods in the offers for the plant or machine; the costs of the provider tied to the consultation are not at issue.

From fear of not achieving their ambitious sales goals, many sales managers accede to such an understanding by the customer. Many are not even aware of the value of the services that have been given away. Others hope to somehow cover the costs of the unpaid services through the sale of their product – when precisely in machine construction the high pricing pressure often reduces such hopes to nothing. This approach in terms of putative cross-subsidization is especially questionable when a provider, fully following the trend of the times, steadily increases his resources for performing services accompanying the sale

of goods. The rising costs for personnel in this realm then have to be covered by ever higher prices for goods, which, however, will be accepted by the customer with ever more difficulty.

For this reason it seems sensible to consider the customer value of *all* services performed, and to selectively accelerate their professional marketing on that basis. But often just those companies with roots in the sale of goods have difficulties in successfully marketing services as soon as they go beyond the normal maintenance and repair business. These firms quickly notice that the rules and experiences involved in selling goods cannot simply be transferred. Rather, the previous approaches have to be called into question and new marketing paths discovered. The following pages are meant to offer suggestions regarding possible directions for such paths.

### Specifics of the Services Industry

Before offering recommendations regarding company policies, it seems appropriate to more precisely consider the basic differences between marketing goods and marketing services. By way of example, two marketing processes from the realm of consumer goods will be considered here: selling goods in the form of a fountain pen and selling services in the form of a haircut. An assumption here is that the two transactions have comparable monetary value. The examples are meant to be understood as representing a goods-services polarity, in full awareness that in the B2B practice at issue here, these types of business are rarely found with such distinct characteristics. Rather, we here find mixed forms, which is to say that transactions have both material and immaterial dimensions. To this extent the two examples are not directly transferable to complex businesses in the B2B area. Nevertheless, they are highly useful in illuminating basic differences in patterns of sales and purchase – differences from which we can derive important insights for the complex marketing of goods and services in the B2B markets.

If we wish to purchase a half-way high-quality fountain pen, we normally go to a stationary store or corresponding section of a department store. We find there a wide range of models displayed behind glass; these have been manufactured by firms from all over the world. We consider the products and have the salesperson hand us those we find optically attractive, with an acceptable price. We test their "feel" and use a writing pad to see how each pen writes. Finally we choose the pen we like most, go to the register, and pay for the selected product.

When we wish to have a haircut, we usually go to a barber or hairdresser we know or at least one who has been recommended by a friend. We enter the barbershop or salon, take an assigned seat, and discuss with the haircutter how our more or less luxuriant hair should look at the end. The haircutter then begins to work, now and then asking us to tilt our heads in one or another direction, this request often taking the form of a marginal remark in a broader

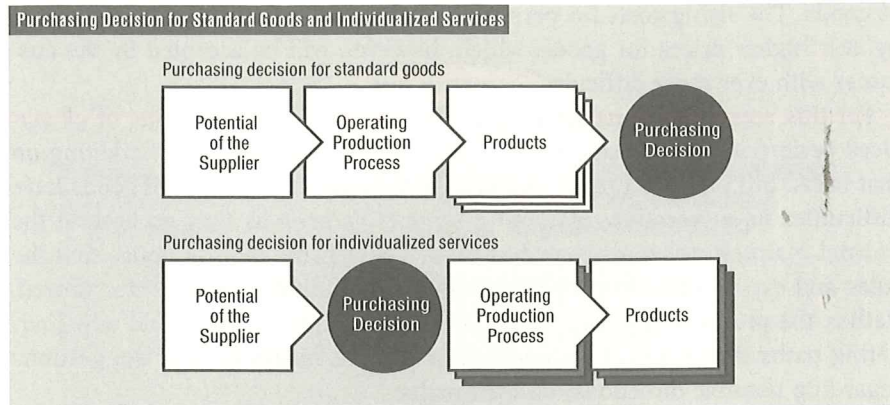


Fig. 3: Purchasing Decision for Standard Goods and Individualized Services

conversation about indifferent or significant matters of daily life. In the end, we are asked to scrutinize the previous minutes' results in a mirror. Most of us will then express our satisfaction, go to the register, and pay for the service we have received.

In structurally comparing these two transactions, a simple model may be used to distinguish the *potential* to produce goods and services, the *process* of producing them, and the *results* of the process. The first category takes in the resources that a provider wishes to use in creating value, for example machines, materials, or employees. Following preparation of these resources, the process of providing the goods or services is initiated. Its results are, for example, the manufactured fountain pen or the paid-for haircut.

A first basic difference between transactions involving fountain pens and those involving haircuts becomes clear in relation to the question of time of purchase. In the above model, we see that in the pen transaction the production results are already present before the purchasing decision; the product has already been made somewhere before the customer knows he would buy it. The situation is different in the case of the haircut; here the buying decision takes place before the service-provision process is initiated. Fig. 3 clarifies this distinction.

The next difference emerges when we look at the execution of the process through which the goods or services are created. The above-mentioned pen is produced without the customer being involved in the process. In the case of haircuts, customers are involved – indeed actively so. They express their desires regarding the way the hairdo or haircut should look – that is, regarding the results. They hold their heads still or tilt them, according to the hairdresser's suggestion. Three additional important insights regarding the servicing business follow from this example. First, customers are involved in the service-provision process in a basic way. They are, so to speak, “co-producers” of the services they purchase. Second, the common production work of provider and

consumer always makes interaction between them necessary. And third, because of the customer's integration into the service-provision process, such services are always customer-specific. The results at work here are thus individualized in a basic manner.

The last characteristic of the classical service business to be discussed here emerges from the above-mentioned points. If customers participate in the service-provision process and the purchasing decision takes place before emergence of the process's results, it is only logical that they cannot test beforehand what they will receive later. With a pen, it is possible to judge whether its design is pleasing, it can be gripped comfortably, writes as one would like, and so forth. In contrast, when customers visit a hairdresser they cannot know how the haircut will really look before making the purchasing decision. In other words, it is impossible to test the quality of the results before deciding to purchase a service.

Since this facet of the service business has special significance for its marketing process, it merits a more detailed description in our context. The first thing we should note here is that no matter which type of business is in play, for customers every purchasing decision is bound up with risk. They are consistently faced with the question of whether what they are acquiring is in the end worth its price. The question arises because at the time of the purchase decision, much of what they expect to be the benefits of the product or services purchased still lies in the future. In this way a consumer cannot yet know if the wine he or she is buying today will taste of cork tomorrow. Similarly, a delivery firm must be in the dark over whether its newly purchased semi tractor trailer will actually display the expected longevity in the coming years. Since the future can never be predicted with certainty, customers feel insecure.

Normally customers wish to diminish this sense of uncertainty. For this reason, they seek information about the quality of the goods or services that may be purchased. Hence the delivery firm will obtain information on the quality of the truck's engine, ask other customers about their experience with this particular model, have an experienced driver take a test drive. Of course considered objectively, information collected in this way cannot generate any complete certainty concerning the truck's future reliability; but it can at least significantly reduce the uncertainty, to the point that customers are ready to “talk business.” Correspondingly, providers will do their best to furnish customers with information tending to diminish the uncertainty, which is to say anxiety at making a false decision. Specialists define this process of information searching and information transmitting between consumer and provider in the framework of a purchasing decision as screening and signaling.

Information transmitted to reduce this uncertainty can be related to each of the above-mentioned goods-and-services-related categories of potential, process, and results. Admittedly, customers do not have access to all information on a product or service before the sale. Rather, they have access to information related to so-called search qualities: the design of a fountain pen, easily assessed at that point by the customer, can here serve as an example.



Other qualities can, to the contrary, only be assessed after the purchase, for example whether a truck will chalk up the hoped-for mileage. Naturally, a prospective customer can sometimes draw on experience regarding the mileage of similar models. But an evaluation of the quality of the specific vehicle being eyed for purchase will only be possible after experiencing years of driving that very vehicle. Specialists thus here refer to “experience qualities.”

Finally, there are also qualities that cannot even be meaningfully assessed by a customer after the purchase. This is the case, for example, with the quality of recommendations regarding strategy that a consultant gives a client company. When the company then experiences economic success, this could have resulted from having received good strategic advice, but equally from the emergence of favorable factors in the national or international economy. Similarly, a lack of economic success could have been the result of bad strategic advice, but also of the flawed implementation of advice that was actually solid. Hence in the end, customers cannot conclusively confirm that the dearly purchased counsel was worth the money. Rather, they must put trust in its quality. Specialists here speak of “credence qualities.”<sup>30</sup>

Against this background, we can now further consider the fact that the quality of a service cannot be tested before a purchasing decision is reached. Using the above-cited terminology, this means that the results of the service provision process have no search qualities whose scrutiny might help customers reduce their uncertainty before the purchase. When it comes to experience and credence qualities, the possibility of assessing these results is absent by definition.

For this reason, in such transactions customers reduce their sense of uncertainty through something like detours, two approaches here being especially noteworthy. In the first place, there is increasing recourse to personal experiences, or the experiences of other customers, with providers of comparable services. Hence the quality of the purchasable service is deduced from the experience qualities of similar services. In the second place, customers inform

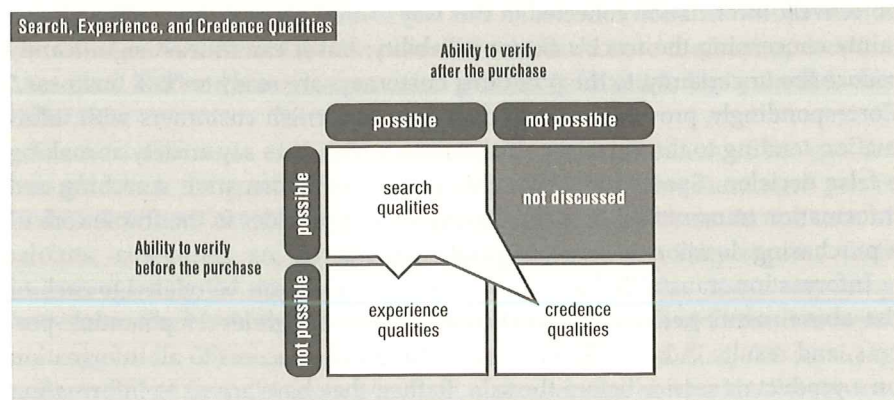


Fig. 4: Search, Experience, and Credence Qualities<sup>31</sup>  
Source: Plötner. Das Vertrauen des Kunden

themselves to a greater degree about the service provision process and provider’s potential in this respect in order to draw conclusions about credence qualities. Expressed simply, the customer reflects as follows: If the provider seems competent and trustworthy to me, then the results will be good; on the other hand, if I’m not convinced of the quality of the provider’s potential, the same applies to the results he will deliver.

These customer’s screening approaches can of course also play a role in the sale of goods. Here as well, customers can reduce their uncertainty by informing themselves about the seller’s potential. But notably, he usually obtains such information simply to supplement that about a product’s search qualities. Since just these are missing in the service business, customers have other focal points for reducing their uncertainty. We can thus summarize as follows: experience and credence qualities have a higher significance in the sales of services than in the sales of goods.

Understanding this point is particularly important for providers wishing to reduce the scope of their goods-related business and increase the scope of their services-related business. The point already makes clear that changes in the portfolio of what a firm offers force an entire series of changes in other marketing-relevant company areas. Communication policies have to be altered, along with sales organization, customer management, personnel policies, and a great deal more. The following section will discuss some concrete approaches for possible changes. It should be emphasized that these are not meant as a blueprint for unreflective acceptance but simply as an indication of the directions in which a company might best steer its transformation processes.

## Implications for Sales and Marketing

When it comes to the customer-related communication policies of B2B firms shifting their emphasis from goods to services, the above discussion suggests a number of measures. In the first place, we should note that as indicated, no results of the service provision process allowing a provider to reduce the customer’s perceived risk can be available before the service’s purchase. Hence by their very nature, search qualities cannot be presented in the framework of policy-determined measures designed to remove customer doubts *before* the purchase decision.

Customers have to be convinced of the experience and credence qualities of the service. These can themselves not be established on the basis of the specific service in which a prospective customer is interested. For experience qualities, the communicative use of references instead takes on salient importance. The service is thus promoted through the good experiences other customers have had with similar services from the provider. The more similar the service and credible the referring customer, the better the communicative effect on the target customer.

For credence qualities, which in principle are removed from any result-related control, the provider's communication will not refer to the service itself. Instead, information can be given the customer concerning the potential of the provider firm, for example the qualifications of its employees. Professional consulting firms thus normally inform their customers of the career histories of the consultants meant to take part in a prospective project. The intention here is to convince the customer of the employee's competence and thus gain trust in the high quality of the work to be offered.

For many providers of industrial services, such a pronouncedly employee-oriented communicative structure is not yet standard. But in fact, there are few if any reasons why informing operators of, say, technically complicated machines about the competence of those to be responsible for repairing and maintaining the expensive equipment would be anything other than a confidence-building measure – one of great benefit to the equipment's provider.

Over recent years, certification has been increasingly used as a tool of communication policy – for instance by indicating that a given service conforms to the EN ISO 9000 series of quality-management norms. In this way the customer receives information about the capabilities of the service provision process. The information is meant to demonstrate that the work is careful and well organized, and that there is corresponding process management know-how. It is the case that in this approach the employees are not directly thematized; but in terms of substance, here as well we find a positive description of a firm's potential to provide services. And here as well, the description is meant to reduce the customer firm's sense of risk and convey that with this provider, it is in good hands.

Naturally, for service-oriented firms there are a number of communicative options in addition to supplying information about service provision potential. Especially noteworthy in this context are the possibilities referred to in the specialized literature under the rubrics of branding and corporate identity. It is the case that in view of the limited possibilities for communicating about specific results in the service-oriented business, creating a general company image has relatively higher priority than in businesses focused on goods.

At the same time, in the service business it is especially important not to reduce communication policies to advertising or PR. Rather, a more comprehensive approach has to be developed – one taking in all phases of sales and after-sales activities. We can here simply note that the integration of customers into the service provision process so necessary in the services sector poses special communicative challenges for the provider's employees. They have to become customer advisers, and they need to be able to work with customers in an intense and convivial manner – without, to be sure, losing sight of the firm's economic interests.

Precisely in firms in the process of shifting from goods to services, employees often lack these communicative skills. For this reason, special demands

often emerge here for personnel management – most so in relation to proper choice of personnel, but also requiring further training. Experience tells us that special efforts are essential not only to impart the necessary skills but even simply to create an openness for the necessary learning process on the part of employees. In this regard, it cannot be assumed that the efforts by the employees always culminate in the desired success: one important reason for the above-mentioned development at IBM being accompanied by a dramatic change of employees.

The strong role that credence and experience qualities play in complex services is not only decisive for a provider's communication policies. At the same time, it has important consequences for policies regarding pricing and conditions. In classical goods-centered businesses, performance can be more clearly specified and results more easily reviewed. This is the basis for agreeing on prices for the results and establishing clear regulations for dealing with shortcomings. But what specifications are suitable for a consultant's strategic project? How effective can warranty provisions be if performance quality cannot be validly measured? And why is the per diem rate of one consulting firm actually twice that of another such firm?

The non-verifiability of the service provision results before and even after the purchase leads to agreements that can be markedly different from those at work in the classical approaches to fees of goods-oriented businesses. One approach that has become particularly common over recent years is to set prices not for the actual performance result but for what is supposed to be created through this result. IT-service companies thus no longer sell their repair and maintenance services on the basis of working hours but on that of the network's subsequent availability.

With such developments, providers of complex services are often following market pressures; but the developments can be tied to risks that are not negligible. In the first place, these providers cannot be the sole parties influencing the quality of results of the service provision process. Rather, they are dependent on the contributions made by customers during the process. If these contributions do not meet the providers' requirements, this will have an effect on the entire results and the provider firm runs the risk of not being suitably paid for its own service outlays. The risk is all the greater when providers tie their prices to the client company's economic success. Their influence on such success is usually very limited. Although customers are here offered the great advantage of their costs being variable, providers may not be able to cover their own costs if the client company makes marketing errors.

In general, close and often convivial relations between provider and customer emerge in business with complex services. Nevertheless, a provider will only push through such pricing models if this is tied to the chance – very rarely at present in industrial enterprises – for especially high returns, or when the competition situation absolutely demands it. If this is not the case, there will be an effort to market the services without taking commercial risks – for instance

to charge on the basis of employees' work time. To be sure, high daily or hourly rates presuppose complete trust by the customer in the provider's skills and efforts.

For building such trust, it is very helpful if the person in the provider-firm who has promised something to the customer is the same person responsible for eventually providing that service. This represents a basic difference with classical goods-centered business, in which production and marketing are rarely in the same hands. This is acceptable for clients since they can reduce their uncertainty through, for example, the product-control process. With complex services that possibility has to be replaced through trust in the provider or its employees.

This has important implications for the provider's sales organization. We can here return to the example of consulting firms such as McKinsey or Boston Consulting: how large is the sales division of such firms? The answer is: there is no sales division. In fact the firms' partners are responsible for both the sale of the projects and their subsequent successful realization. This means that after the customer has confided in one of the partners – i.e. explained the company problems to be hopefully solved through the purchase of external support – the partner is available for the project's duration as the responsible contact person. In this way consulting firms have no function-specific organizational forms providing for heads of sales and production. Rather, the structures best suited for providers of complex services are customer-oriented and project-oriented.

In this respect it is characteristic of consulting firms to have partners – in other words employees on the highest step of the hierarchy – responsible for the sales function. Typically, the competence for taking over project responsibility has accumulated in the course of their consulting careers, involving years of work in the service-provision process. Only those who were most successful in mastering these years will have a chance to profile themselves in that function. With some exaggeration, we can say that only the best people in production advance to sales agent positions, and it is self-evident that reaching this career goal is tied to a significant increase in the already high salary received at a consulting firm.

This approach is at least untypical of the company structure of classical goods-centered businesses. It is the case that over recent years the status of sales managers in these businesses may have improved. Nevertheless, now as before, in the technically oriented B2B firms it is customary for those with the highest rank and respect to be located in research and development rather than in sales.

It is just as rare to find structures established in which the responsibility for production, sales, and even subsequent customer service are assigned to a single position – let alone that of board chairman or managing director. Rather, various divisions are responsible for these activities; although their work is meant to be coordinated in practice, not insubstantial interface problems arise.

Undeniably, such function-related structures have often proved their value for goods-oriented firms; they can be entirely sensible and well-grounded. Nevertheless, the more companies have developed their complex-services business, the more necessary it seems for them to call these structures into question. With such development, internal structures need to be rendered more flexible and, thinking in terms of functional division, increasingly replaced by customer-oriented project responsibility.

## Conclusion

The above observations first focused on the significance of business with complex services in B2B markets and reviewed the essential market-relevant differences between the provision of goods and services. This was followed by a description of approaches to developing sales and marketing in B2B companies shifting their business orientation from goods to the marketing of complex services. In relation to this development, five important points are underscored once again below:

1. In the contents of marketing communication, both the description of service provision potential (especially on the part of the firm's own employees) and firm-related branding gain in importance.
2. The stronger integration of the customer into the service provision process requires special capacities for personal communication by committed employees; these capacities should be closely considered in personnel development.
3. If a service provider is risk-averse, the firm's pricing policies should be oriented around use of its resources, not around the service provision results. (Since both provider and customer are involved in the service-provision process, the results are not influenced by the provider alone.)
4. With complex services, responsibility for sales and production should be in the same hands (more project-specific or customer-specific instead of function-specific organizational forms).
5. This clustering of responsibility demands a high degree of competence and authority from the various employees; sales tasks thus become an executive matter.

These points are meant to simply suggest the direction of changes in sales and marketing tied to changes in what a firm offers. It is clear that one particular question, of interest to many firms, cannot be answered in this context: how strongly, for instance, communications policies and the sales organization should be altered in what stage of these changes. In this regard, there are an endless number of options whose practical realization must always also be viewed in connection with general conditions specific to a firm. It is in any case

certain that other marketing-relevant areas need to adapt when a provider-firm shifts its focus from goods to services. Although this insight is banal, the adapting is either absent in practice or comes too late. For in this thematic realm as well, resistance to innovation is often greater than willingness to change. It is the job of management to mastermind suitable developmental steps and counteract any such reluctance to move forward.

OLAF PLÖTNER | ROBERT E. SPEKMAN (EDS.)

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