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**U.S. Army Research Institute
for the Behavioral and Social Sciences**

Research Report 1589

Analysis of Army Recruiter Selling Techniques

**Lawrence B. Chonko, Charles S. Madden,
John F. Tanner, and Roger Davis**
Strategic Research Associates

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April 1991

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U.S. ARMY RESEARCH INSTITUTE FOR THE BEHAVIORAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

**A Field Operating Agency Under the Jurisdiction
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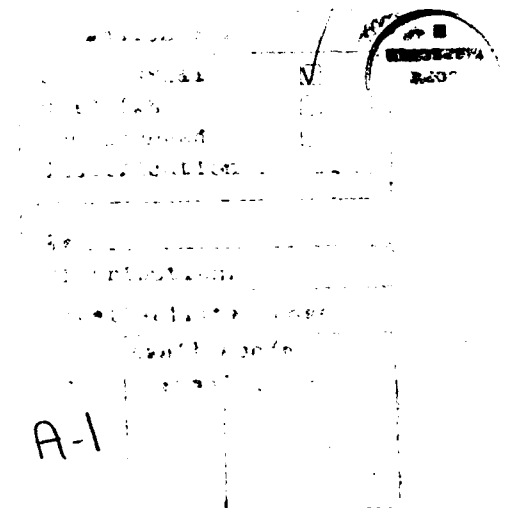
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Research Report 1589

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FOREWORD

In 1990, the U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences (ARI) conducted research on Army recruiter on-the-job training (OJT) programs. This report is one of a series of three reports that document the research efforts. This report contains the results of a selling skills techniques analysis of recruiter sales methods. It also addresses policy and training issues related to developing recruiters' skills and productivity. Lastly, the report offers recommendations for recruiting operations and for training policy makers to guide future research and development efforts in these areas.

ARI's participation in this cooperative effort is part of an ongoing research program designed to enhance the quality of Army personnel. This work is an essential part of the mission of ARI's Manpower and Personnel Policy Research Group (MPPRG) to conduct research to improve the Army's capability to effectively and efficiently recruit its personnel requirements. This research was undertaken in 1990 under a Memorandum of Agreement between the U.S. Army Recruiting Command (USAREC) and ARI, Research in Support of the U.S. Army Recruiting Command On-the-Job Training (16 October 1990). The sales techniques research results reported here were briefed to the USAREC Deputy Commander (East) in 8 February 1991 and the USAREC Chief of Staff on 6 March 1991. ARI was subsequently asked to provide the USAREC Chief of Staff with an organizational structure and staffing plan for the development of a Directorate of Training at USAREC headquarters.



EDGAR M. JOHNSON
Technical Director

ANALYSIS OF ARMY RECRUITER SELLING TECHNIQUES

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Research Requirement:

An effective selling model is essential to the success of the recruitment function. This research on U.S. Army recruiting sales practices was conducted to provide an analysis of the quality sales training program content provided at Fort Benjamin Harrison, Indiana, as demonstrated in on-the-job settings.

Procedure:

The research team observed sales training conducted at the U.S. Army Recruiting Command (USAREC) recruiter school, Fort Benjamin Harrison, Indianapolis, Indiana. In addition, the research team interviewed and observed approximately 60 U.S. Army recruiters at 14 recruiting stations around the United States.

Findings:

Recruiter sales effectiveness requires a knowledge of selling approaches, buyer behavior, competition, and adaptive effective behaviors. Eight alternative selling approaches were evaluated: (1) stimulus-response, (2) AIDAS, (3) behavioral-equation, (4) need satisfaction, (5) the Grid System, (6) social styles, (7) quadrant theory, and (8) SPIN selling.

Several theories of buyer choice--learning theory, psychoanalytic or personality theory, social conformity theory, and cognitive processing theory--were also examined. These buyer choice theories were merged with the approaches to selling in an effort to identify strategies recruiters can use with problem solving and goal seeking prospects.

The needs-satisfaction selling approach taught to Army recruiters in the school was modeled and evaluated with respect to types of buyers. The importance of prospecting to the needs-satisfaction sales approach was also examined. Deviations occurred during both the prospecting stage and the presentation stage of the sales process. Often, these deviations occur as recruiters make efforts to adjust their style to their own personality and that of the individual prospect.

Competition, objections, and listening were also analyzed. Recruiters, in many cases, rely too heavily on the scripted and one-directional TEAMS approach. Such sales approaches can cause recruiters to pay less attention to prospects who express concerns about alternatives and price. Recruiters may be less prone to listen to prospects if they are worried about not losing their place in a canned presentation.

In addition, the observed prospecting methods deviate from the objectives of doctrine. Deviance is due to several factors, including station management procedures, unclear prospecting training, and emphasis on short-term performance. A classification process of projects by successful recruiters was also observed. The results presented suggest sound alternatives to the prospecting process as currently implemented, as well as a process to classify prospects on the basis of interest in enlisting.

Utilization of Findings:

The results of the research provide valuable information about both recruiter sales effectiveness and the initial training provided. Eighteen specific recommendations were identified for action in improving recruiter selling. Some affect the selling process and others deal with the environment within which recruiters work.

Both recruiters and trainers will find ways to improve on what they do from the results of this research. Attention should be focused on providing recruiters with a broader range of sales skills taught in a more realistic environment.

ANALYSIS OF ARMY RECRUITER SELLING TECHNIQUES

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ANALYSIS OF ARMY RECRUITER SELLING TECHNIQUES

Introduction

The results presented in this report were developed during research directed by the Manpower and Personnel Research Laboratory of the U.S. Army Research Institute. The focus of the research was to examine the current sales techniques used by U.S. Army recruiters and compare them with state of the art sales techniques used by industry in the United States. Second, it was necessary to look at how U.S. Army recruiters are being trained to sell and how they are selling in the field. Third, this research report suggests how selling procedures used in the private sector might be offered as alternatives or additions to the present U.S. Army recruiters' sales training protocol.

Over a period of several months, the research team examined the selling procedures used by the U.S. Army in recruiting situations. The team visited field recruiting stations and interviewed USAREC Command staff to determine the presently accepted procedures for recruiting. A thorough examination of the present sales literature was undertaken to determine how the U.S. Army recruiting procedures of today would fit into the full range of alternatives for selling as seen by industry. An area of research interest that was not originally planned for this project but emerged as an area of need and interest was the examination of competing theories of how people buy, or in this case, how people comply with efforts to recruit them into the U.S. Army. Thus, the following stages in the procedure are described in this report:

1. Methodology used;
2. The current theories of selling that are used in industry;
3. The theories of how buyers or recruits would comply with selling procedures;
4. Approaches that could then result for recruiting;
5. The approach that the Army currently uses;
6. Deviances from the selling doctrine as taught at USAREC recruiter school that were found in the field;
7. Alternatives for changes in the selling procedure;
8. Other barriers found in the investigation to effective selling by recruiters, and;
9. Recommendations for the future.

Methodology

The research team, with the help of contacts at the U.S. Army Research Institute, identified 14 recruiting stations around the country that represented a variety of characteristics and

demographics of all U.S. recruiting stations. These characteristics included new versus experienced recruiters, successful versus average recruiters, and geographic dispersion of recruiting stations. Appendix A provides a listing of the recruiting stations that were visited by team members over a 45-day period. The stations visited represented a good mix of conditions and personnel that would generally be representative of the entire United States Army Recruiting effort.

During visits to the stations, observations of selling techniques and procedures as well as extensive interviews with station commanders, recruiters, and in some cases, prospects were conducted.

In addition to the field work, materials that are used at the USAREC recruiter school in Indianapolis, IN were examined and a follow-up discussion was held with selected personnel from that location.

The sales literature considered important by United States sales organizations was examined both for alternatives to the present system and for a correct classification of U.S. Army recruiting systems sales procedures. The buying behavior models on which selling procedures are usually based were examined to match recruiting behavior to the selling procedures.

The next section will address the findings of an investigation of the approaches to sales that have been used by industry in recent years. Included in these approaches are some that are very well suited to the recruiting effort and others are put in for the contrast to the process being examined here.

Current Theories of Selling

As most sales presentations consist of various types of communications, there are a number of different approaches that salespeople can take in their efforts to influence people to buy. No single communication approach is applicable to every sales situation. Rather, all have merit and can help salespeople develop better sales presentations. Although the discussion of the approaches to selling may be a bit theoretical, it is really intended to point out that there are many styles of selling and communication. Different buyers in different situations will not always respond to one style of communication. Salespeople must adapt their style of communication to fit the buyer's preferences.

Eight approaches to selling will be examined here. These are: 1) stimulus-response, 2) AIDAS, 3) behavioral-equation, 4) need-satisfaction, 5) the Grid System, 6) social styles, 7) quadrant theory, and 8) SPIN selling.

The Stimulus-Response Approach

The stimulus-response approach is the simplest of the sales theories. This approach suggests that a given stimulus (e.g., a product's attributes) would produce a given response (e.g., a purchase). Every salesperson sells a product that has a variety of attributes (stimuli). These attributes will produce some type of response from the prospect. The ultimate response is a purchase.

Stimulus-Response Presentations. Psychologists conducting research on learning behavior have probed extensively into stimuli and the responses to stimuli. A classic example is the application of an electric shock to a white rat to stimulate the rat to learn an activity such as running through a maze. Humans also respond to stimuli and, because of their higher capacity to reason the stimuli do not (fortunately) always have to be as obvious as electrical shocks. In most sales situations, these stimuli are words.

In stimulus-response presentations, a series of statements about the customer, the salesperson, the salesperson's company, and the product are created, and both words and phrases that are believed to be stimulating are inserted. The salesperson believes these stimuli will evoke positive responses from the customer.

Not all product attributes will elicit a positive buyer response. Every product has disadvantages in the mind of the buyer. Thus, in the sales presentation, the salesperson should strive to discuss those product attributes that will trigger a positive buyer response. The salesperson's task is to dominate the sales presentation by discussing product attributes that are likely to be viewed favorably by the buyer. At the completion of the discussion of one of these attributes, the salesperson seeks to close the sales presentation. If, at this time, the buyer's response is positive, the salesperson would attempt to close the sale.

A salesperson using the stimulus-response approach might include words like profit, satisfaction guaranteed, convenient, luxurious, no money down, or training, education, adventure, money, and service in the presentation. Words like these are used on the assumption that they will elicit a positive response from customers and improve the likelihood that the customer will buy. Because these attributes are presumed to be of value to the customer, the attributes must be translated to sales statements that form the sales presentation.

One problem with the use of such words is that if a salesperson promises satisfaction, a customer simply has to say "prove it!" Salespeople are well advised to be able to provide

information that demonstrates the existence of the promised benefits. This is easier to do if a product is standardized and the benefits are generally the same from one situation to the next. But most customers demand customization of benefits perhaps for no other reason than they want to be treated as individuals. Consequently, salespeople would benefit by learning to tailor their presentation of words to the specific needs of the customer.

The AIDAS Approach

The AIDAS approach views that sale as the result of a series of steps: Attention, interest, desire, action, satisfaction. According to this view, the prospect passes through these five stages. The salesperson's task is to lead the prospect through these stages, in the right sequence, if a sale is to occur.

Attention. The salesperson's first goal is to gain the prospect's attention by placing him/her in a receptive state of mind. The salesperson, in order to reach this goal, must have a reason for approaching the prospect. The prospect knows that the salesperson is there to sell something. Thus, the salesperson must be prepared to handle any type of resistance in order to make a good first impression. Having an appointment with a prospect can help, but even this does not guarantee that the salesperson can gain the prospect's attention.

The first impression that a prospect receives from a salesperson is the salesperson! Therefore, neat attire, friendliness, and a sincere smile are necessary if the salesperson is to achieve a lasting first impression. Selecting the proper opening statements is also critical. An often used starting point is to mention something positive about the prospect or the prospect's business. Getting attention may seem trite, but no sale will ever be made if a prospect's attention is not gained.

Any distraction can cause a salesperson to lose a prospect's attention. Obviously, attention must be maintained throughout the presentation. Distractions and reminders of factors not previously considered can cause a prospect's purchase intentions to vanish.

Interest. The second goal of the salesperson's presentation is to sustain the prospect's interest. Salesperson enthusiasm, product demonstrations, visual aids, and the like are all techniques that salespeople can use to maintain prospect interest. People have different levels of interest in a particular topic, or they have varying levels of interest in ways of satisfying needs. These varying levels of interest affect their desire to know more about a topic. The strength of this desire often affects a person's readiness to respond.

During this part of the sales presentation, salespeople should gain prospect participation. When the prospect speaks, he/she is likely to provide valuable information to the salesperson regarding the product being sold. This information helps the salesperson tailor the sales presentation to the particular needs of the prospect. Through questions and answers, the salesperson can formulate a sales and closing strategy around the strongest product appeals.

Desire. Getting the prospect ready to buy is the third step of the sales presentation. It is usually during this stage of the presentation that the prospect will take the greatest effort to deter the sales presentation by raising objections. The salesperson must answer all objections to the buyer's satisfaction. As indicated earlier, salespeople can often improve their presentation quality if objections are anticipated and answers formulated prior to the sales interview.

Action. Buying is not automatic, regardless of the quality of sales presentation. Very few buyers will volunteer to buy a product. They have to be asked. The prospect must be completely convinced of the value of a product before the salesperson can close the sale with confidence. If the prospect is to buy, the salesperson must look for the proper time to close the sale.

Satisfaction. Making a sale is just the beginning of the relationship between the customer and the salesperson. The salesperson must do everything he/she can to build customer satisfaction.

The AIDAS formula should be viewed as a helpful easy-to-remember reminder. Taken too literally by inexperienced salespeople it can produce confusion and, perhaps, discouragement among the sales reps who believe that customers always behave in exactly the way the formula suggests. For example, attention can be disrupted at any time during a presentation. One of the worst things to happen is for the customer to receive a telephone call between the time the salesperson has asked the question "How many of these do you need?" and the customer's response. Distracted by other matters and perhaps reminded of factors not previously considered, the customer's intention to purchase may vanish. This situation tests the poise of a professional salesperson who must then try to revive the sale.

The salesperson has to be aware of the need to stimulate enough interest and desire to get a customer to take action and make the commitment to purchase. In much the same way that individuals have varying amounts of tolerance for pain, heat, cold, and so on, so also do people have varying amounts of interest and desire in a particular product or service. The salesperson obviously has to rapidly evaluate the most

effective way to help move a customer over a threshold into a condition closer to the action step.

Another challenge is to determine how much time and what kind of effort to expend before testing whether the customer is ready for action. This test (asking if the customer is ready to take action) is what salespeople refer to as a trial close. How does the salesperson detect that the customer has crossed one of these thresholds? Usually, by asking questions and listening carefully. Another, less direct route is observation of body language. As a relationship grows between the salesperson and a customer, an alert sales professional will learn which reactions are most revealing about a particular customer's thoughts.

The Behavioral-Equation Approach

The behavioral-equation approach explains the purchasing decision process in terms of learning theory (Howard, 1963). Four critical elements of the learning process are drive, cue, response, and reinforcement.

Drives are strong internal stimuli that impel the buyer's response. There are two kinds of drives. First, innate drives stem from the physiological needs, such as hunger, thirst, pain, cold, and sex. Second, learned drives, such as striving for status or social approval, are acquired when paired with the satisfying of innate drives, and they represent elaborations of the innate drives, serving as a facade that hides the functioning of the innate drives. Insofar as marketing is concerned, the learned drives are probably dominant in economically advanced societies.

Cues, the second element, are weak stimuli that determine when the buyer will respond. Triggering cues activate the decision process for any given purchase. Non-triggering cues influence the decision process but do not activate it, and may operate at any time even though the buyer is not contemplating a purchase. There are two kinds of triggering cues. First, product cues are external stimuli received from the product directly, for example, color of the package, weight, or price. Second, informational cues are external stimuli that provide information of a symbolic nature about the product. Such stimuli may come from advertising, conversations with other people (including sales personnel), and so on. Specific product and information cues may sometimes also function as triggering cues. This may happen when price triggers the buyer's decision.

The third element is the response, what the buyer does, to cues. Buyers may purchase or not purchase to put response in its simplest form. Finally, the fourth element, reinforcement, is any event that strengthens the buyer's tendency to make a particular response.

These four elements are incorporated into the following behavioral equation:

$$B = P \times D \times K \times V$$

B represents the buyer's response

P represents the buyer's predisposition, or response tendency

D represents the buyer's drive

K represents the value of the product to the buyer

V represents the intensity of all the cues

Salespeople can influence a buyer's predisposition to respond through the sales presentation. However, product use, and satisfaction derived through product use, will have the greatest impact on the buyer's predisposition. The salesperson also impacts the buyer's motivation by providing cues in the form of information about the product. The information provided is tailored to satisfy customer needs and wants. The purpose of the presentation is also to convince the prospect that the salesperson's product is the best one to satisfy customer needs. Citing competitive advantages helps to enhance the value of the product to the customer. Finally, throughout the sales presentation, the salesperson can vary the intensity of his/her effort (cues), emphasizing information according to buyer needs.

The Need-Satisfaction Approach

The need-satisfaction approach rests on the assumption that purchases are made to satisfy needs. This approach focuses on the sales presentation from the viewpoint of the customer. As opposed to the previous three selling approaches, the customer dominates the early stages of the sales interview in the need-satisfaction approach.

The first phase of this approach involves the development of a need. The salesperson's task is to ask questions that will identify and clarify a legitimate customer need. The key for the salesperson is twofold. First, considerable thought must be given to asking the right questions. Second, the salesperson must be a good listener.

To achieve the discovery, the salesperson must ask questions very skillfully. This is especially true in the first meeting with a new customer. A word of caution is justified, however. If the questions are too intrusive or blunt (for example, "How much money do you make?"), the customer may become irritated.

In the description of the stimulus-response presentation, we mentioned benefitizing a product or service. In that situation, the benefits were identified by the salesperson or someone in the sales office, and a standardized sales talk was developed. These

steps are taken in the absence of a customer. Contrast this to the need-satisfaction presentation where in the presence of the individual customer benefitting occurs. In the need-satisfaction situation, the salesperson finds out for that specific customer what the most important benefits are. Thus, each presentation is truly customized to the particular customer or client.

When the salesperson believes he/she has a clear definition of customer needs, the next step in the process is to match the customer needs with the firm's product. This matching process represents the second phase of the need-satisfaction approach, need awareness. This phase involves the salesperson communicating the prospect's needs to the prospect. It may even be a need that the prospect did not recognize. This is not need creation by the salesperson. It is more often a case of the buyer not being able to "see the forest for the trees." The salesperson simply brings an alternative perspective to the buyer's situation, helping the prospect to more clearly see the situation.

Once this has been achieved, the salesperson shows the prospect that he/she has a solution to the prospect's problem. This is the need fulfillment stage. The solution is a product or service that the salesperson's firm has to offer. In this stage, the salesperson's task is to emphasize the benefits the prospect can derive from using the salesperson's product.

Because of the value most companies place on being customer-oriented, the need-satisfaction presentation method would seem to be vastly superior to the three presentation methods mentioned earlier (especially stimulus-response). It will be superior if the following conditions exist:

1. Salespeople can be trained to ask the right questions to discover customer needs.
2. There is a significant enough difference among customers to warrant an in depth examination.
3. The revenue from making a sale is large enough to permit a salesperson to spend a lot of time with an individual customer to learn about his or her circumstances.

If these conditions don't exist, the sales rep would be better advised to use one of the more traditional, structured presentations. By doing so, more customers or prospective customers can be contacted at less cost.

The Grid System Approach

The grid system approach represents an adaptation of the managerial grid to the selling situation (Blake and Mouton,

1976). The sales grid has two axes. One concerns the salesperson's ego drive and is labeled "Concern for the Sale." Salespeople who are very concerned about the sale are given a score of 9; salespeople who place the customer's needs ahead of the sale are given a 1 on this axis. The second axis concerns the salesperson's ability to empathize (high empathy receives a 9, low empathy a 1) with the buyer's situation and is labeled "Concern for the Customer." According to the concept, a salesperson who has a high level of both of these qualities is solution-oriented. That is, he/she will strive to match the needs of the prospect with product features and benefits.

A similar grid exists for customers. The buyer, like the salesperson, has two concerns: 1) concern for the purchase and concern for the salesperson. Five types of buyers can be identified (Ades, 1981):

1. The avoider/abdicator (1,1 on the customer grid) has the following characteristics:

- does not like conflict, trouble
- indecisive, insecure
- rarely takes chances
- afraid to fail
- require much data
- decisions take a long time
- want products, not pressure

2. The affiliation/pleaser (1,9 on the customer grid) has the following characteristics:

- needs people
- joiners, team players, followers, compromisers
- want to satisfy co-workers
- decisions very quick
- needs to feel liked and appreciated

3. The achiever/craftsman (5,5 on the customer grid) has the following characteristics:

- interested in the status of others who have purchased
- tentative, hesitant
- confident, analytical, independent, task oriented
- short-term goal oriented
- need much data
- lengthy decision-making

4. The power boss/commander (9,1 on the customer grid) has the following characteristics:

- littler concern for salespeople
- fear that salespeople will take advantage of them
- aggressive, intolerant, insensitive
- must win in negotiation
- never share credit
- decisions are quick: little data

5. The manipulation/gamesman (9,9 on the customer grid) has the following characteristics.

- wants facts, data, logic, reason
- use others to pursue goals
- opportunists
- perceptive
- sensitive to people
- require much data

The Social Styles Approach

This approach stresses that there are four basic social responsibility styles: 1) Analytical, 2) Amicable, 3) Expressive, and 4) Driver developed by Wilson Learning Corporation.

Analyticals. Analytical types are logical thinkers. They take a precise, deliberate and systematic approach to their work. Before acting, they will gather and evaluate a lot of information. Analyticals are usually industrious, objective, and well-organized. But taken to extremes, these strengths become weaknesses. Analyticals can be nitpickers--spending too much time on better-than-needed quality on a low-priority item. And their desire for order can snowball into inflexibility.

To sell to Analytical Type personalities, the salesperson must allow for a long sales presentation. The salesperson must study buyer needs in a logical, practical manner. Be systematic, exact, organized and prepared. Concentrate on facts. Document how the product has helped others. List the advantages and disadvantages of buying at this time. Be prepared to answer all their questions. There will be many. Analyticals are suspicious of anything that looks too good to be true. The more numbers that are presented, the more likely that the buyer will buy. The seller should send a follow up letter on service and benefits and not rush the close.

Amiables. Some people have a hard time making decisions. They think the way to stay out of trouble is to stay out of sight. Amiable types are outstanding when it comes to being empathetic and sensitive to what lies below the surface behavior of another person. Their trusting nature can bring out the best in customers, friends and subordinates. Carried too far, though, they can be overly conforming and permissive, refusing to challenge policies and actions they know will have a negative impact on their company.

Amiables are difficult sells. Again, the salesperson should plan for a long sales presentation. Amiables dislike change and therefore like to stick with what they have. Spend a lot of time building rapport with people of this type using a friendly, low key approach. The seller should show that he is interested in them as persons. Be supportive of their feelings. Offer them a personal assurance of support after the sales. Allay their fears of taking risks by being sympathetic to their feelings and needs. Offer guidance and don't rush the close but be definite when closing. Be prepared for many questions and reassure amiables frequently.

Expressives. Expressives, those flamboyant, spontaneous types, are terrific at seeing the "big picture." They'll take fresh, novel approaches to problems and will take risks to seize opportunities and realize their dreams. Their ability to charm, persuade, excite and inspire people makes them great motivators. Unfortunately, nitty-gritty details that require daily attention get left by the wayside. Furthermore, their need to fulfill their dreams can push them into becoming overbearing and unrealistic.

Expressives are easy to sell because they are comfortable with people and with themselves. But, the salesperson will need a dynamic presentation to be effective. Get them talking about themselves and the rest can be a coast to the close. Show them how the product can make their dreams come true. Expressives tend to forget details, discuss them later, and focus instead on the personality of the call. Expressives like new ideas, so the sales representative should be bold in the approach. Often Expressives will buy without even a formal contract or proposal. Close when the time feels ripe.

Drivers. Drivers are task-oriented; they know where they're going and what they want. They must "get to the point" quickly, express themselves succinctly, make independent decisions and get results. Their ability to take sound risks and get things done makes them valued workers. But all this emphasis on the short-term can undermine long-range gains. Taken too far, the Driver Style person becomes domineering and unfeeling.

The Driver does not want to waste his or her time. The salesperson must get to the point and keep the presentation short. The salesperson must also be precise, effective and organized, backing up statements with solid information and facts. Focus on the Driver's goals and the company's goals. The driver must be assured that the product can meet his goals. A salesperson must define pros and cons of a buying decision clearly and be definite about closing. The representative must be firm and sure with a Driver. Product demonstrations are particularly useful with Drivers.

The Quadrant Analysis Approach

A sales approach known as quadrant analysis will provide additional insight into why people behave as they do in relationship to salespeople. Quadrant analysis is a way of categorizing patterns of behavior according to basic underlying motivations (Sullivan, 1979). It has also been used to explain the varieties of sales behavior of salespeople (Buzzotta and Lefton, 1981). The model describes two dimensions of behavior. Dominance and submissiveness are the opposites of the second dimension.

Quadrant theory suggests that almost everyone can be described by these four qualities. The dominant individual has a need to control others. The submissive person is willing to be controlled by others. The hostile person is insensitive to the needs of others and has little regard for them. The warm person is sensitive and open to others.

Quadrant theory assumes that no one is completely at one pole (dominant or submissive, hostile or warm). However, people do tend to be predominantly one or the other.

There are four quadrants, representing the four major personality types: Q1, the dominant-hostile; Q2, the submissive-hostile; Q3, the submissive-warm, and; Q4, the dominant-warm.

Those high in dominance and warmth (the Q4s) make the best salespeople, because they deal with each buyer differently and according to individual needs. In terms of quadrant analysis, Q4s can tell which quadrant the buyer represents and respond accordingly. The following is a brief summary of ways to sell to the four personality types.

Selling to Q1s. Prospects in quadrant 1 (dominant-hostile) have great needs for esteem, recognition, and independence. They are assertive and see other people as opportunistic and self-serving. They are tough with salespeople, make poor listeners and are often argumentative and eager to haggle over small points. Archie Bunker is TV's version of the perfect Q1.

To handle Q1s effectively salespeople should not argue. They should listen and show that they are listening through body language. Good eye contact is essential. Interruptions or signs appear impatient.

Selling to Q2s. Prospects in quadrant 2 (submissive-hostile) are largely motivated by security needs. They see other people as threats that are ready to take advantage of their submissiveness. Such buyers are fearful. They take few risks and make decisions slowly. To be convinced of anything, they want logical proof.

An aggressive, forceful salesperson will overwhelm quadrant 2 buyers. Such buyers often refuse to speak, and this makes salespeople talk more to avoid an uncomfortable silence. Salespeople should not speak too fast with these buyers and should keep their distance physically. Salespeople should be patient and reassuring to these buyers because once trust has been established, Q2 buyers usually accept help willingly.

Selling to Q3s. Quadrant 3 buyers (warm-submissive) are highly motivated by social needs and to some degree by the needs of security and esteem. They are warm and friendly and they believe everyone is basically good-natured.

These buyers have a strong drive to make friends with salespeople. For them, a sales presentation is a social occasion. Buyers in this quadrant will not buy until salespeople first satisfy their social needs.

When attempting to close these buyers, salespeople must avoid boring details. If they believe in the salesperson, they will usually believe in the salesperson's statements as well.

Selling to Q4s. Quadrant 4 buyers (dominant-warm) make decisions based on logic, not emotions. They are businesslike and will be interested in specific data that support claims made in the sales presentation. They are pragmatic and skeptical and want to see proof. Salespeople can use testimonial statements, charts and graphs, or reprints of articles written by authorities to enhance the effectiveness of these sales presentations. Sales presentations should be well-organized and well-prepared and major ideas should flow smoothly and in a logical sequence.

The SPIN Selling Approach

The SPIN strategy of selling is a question-based approach to selling (Rackham, 1988). The approach is based on the difference between implied needs and explicit needs. Implied customer needs include statements of problems, difficulties and satisfactions. For example, a customer might say, "We are not satisfied with the processing speed of this microcomputer." Implied needs are

distinguished from explicit needs, that are defined as specific statements of wants and needs made by customer. For example, a customer might say, "We need a faster processing microcomputer."

Implied needs represent a starting point for a salesperson's needs assessment strategy. Uncovering implied needs is important, but translating them into explicit needs is critical. The difference can be illustrated by example. Suppose you own a cassette player-recorder based stereo system. You are not really satisfied with it (implied need) as you have heard music on your friend's Compact Disc (CD) player. Do you want a CD player? Probably, but if one is not available at the right price, and/or you cannot replace all your existing cassettes with CDs, your implied need may never turn into an explicit need. However, if CDs represented a significant price breakthrough, then your implied need might turn into an explicit need.

The SPIN strategy is based on four types of questions-- Situation, Problem, Implication, and Need-Payoff. Each is useful in the needs development process. Situation questions are particularly useful in just about all situations, although as customer circumstances change, they may also be useful with existing customers. Examples of Situation questions include the following:

- Do you make the buying decisions?
- What are your objectives for this product?
- Is your business growing?
- What is your household income?

Problem questions are probing questions, designed to uncover customers' implied needs. Examples include the following:

- Are you satisfied with your present supplier?
- Does the old equipment give you reliability problems?
- What disadvantages do you have in your current way of operating?

Implication questions are used to uncover the magnitude of implied needs. These questions attempt to uncover how an implied need really affects the customer and include the following types of questions:

- What effect does the difficulty of use of this piece of equipment have on your output?
- It sounds like the difficulty of using these machines leads to turnover. Is that correct?
- When you send work to other firms, doesn't that put you at the mercy of their delivery schedules?

Need-payoff questions address the value or usefulness of solving problems. Questions like, "Is it important to you to solve this problem?" and "Why would you find this solution useful?" are examples. Need-payoff questions focus on solutions. And they get customers talking about benefits to be derived from the solution.

The SPIN model, then, is based on asking questions that are important to the customer. It takes buyers through a progression from implied to explicit needs. Like the other approaches presented, SPIN is not a formula. Nor is it applicable in every selling situation. And like the other approaches, it represents a way for salespeople to organize their sales presentations.

Current Theories of Buyer Behavior

To fully understand how selling takes place, one must also look at the other side of the equation and how buyers make decisions. The following is an examination of the major competing theories of consumer choice that have been offered in literature over the past several decades. In the nearly 100 years of the development of studies of human choice processes, the four following general theoretical areas have been put forward (Mittelstaedt, 1971; Mittelstaedt and Madden, 1980).

First, learning theory has been offered as a way of dealing with how choices are made. The assumption is that behavior is learned by either attaching some type of learned stimulus to some innate stimulus-response combination (classical conditioning) or by selecting a behavior that is worthy of reinforcement and providing it with reinforcement until whatever stimulus is chosen elicits that response in most cases (operate conditioning).

Second, psychoanalytic or personality theory has been put forward suggesting that behavior is a symbolic representation of inner forces and inner mental activity. This is rooted in the work of Freud and has been useful to the advertising community by showing symbolic ideas that buyers can embrace as an outward projection of those inner needs they feel. It is typically shown by the notion that people have characteristic personalities that can be classified into certain groups. The theory holds that people will respond, more or less, in those groups.

Third, social conformity theory suggests that behavior results from a person's wish to be accepted and to conform to group norms. Although this is not as well explored as some of the other models of choice behavior, it can be demonstrated very easily and is also associated with behavior resulting from other theories of consumer choice in a group setting.

Fourth, cognitive processing theory, that has also been characterized as information processing theory in recent years,

evolved from some of the more theoretical learning work of the thirties and forties. The assumption is that buyers make rational choices and process information very much like a computer. They are seeking to meet needs that can be fully articulated and understood.

These four positions can account for most, if not all, of the psychological models that have been put forward in recent years to explain consumer choices and consumer behavior. Each of these will be explored in the following paragraphs by how one might predict their behavior under each model, how behavior can be changed under each model, the basis for identification through market segmentation under each model, how a product or a buying proposition is viewed, and how promotion, whether it be advertising or personal selling, would be viewed under each model.

Learning Theory Model

Learning theory holds that behavior occurs as a result of associating stimuli with some kind of chosen pattern of reinforced response. To predict an individual's behavior one would need to know their prior patterns of reinforcement. Knowing that, one would be able to offer stimuli that could then result in desired behavior. Behavior change under this model results from efforts to modify behavior through repetition or the selection of behaviors that are then reinforced repeatedly until the appropriate chosen behavior has been established. There is no general basis for segmenting markets through learning theory except by use of demographics. That is, those who are likely to behave in a particular way learned it as a result of the environment associated with where they lived, the age they are and the level of education they have. Although not impossible to segment, it is difficult to go beyond the basic characteristics of a group under this model's assumptions. Product, or in the case of this study the opportunity to enlist in the Army, would be a reinforcer of the joining behavior. That is, the recruiter might depict the Army as being a reinforcer of the behavior of "changing one's life." Advertisements for the Army must show stimuli that, if responded to in a correct way, would be reinforced by exciting or fulfilling careers. Learning theory manifests itself in the selling process by making frequent promissory messages that would be associated with a particular behavior, i.e., joining the Army.

Psychoanalytic (Personality) Theory

This model accepts the notion of symbolic behavior that manifests inner mental activity. To predict an individual's behavior, one would need to know their characteristic ego strategy, i.e., their personality type or traits and what kind of person they felt they were. To change their behavior, one could

depict an opportunity in terms of how it would symbolically play out their self image. One could segment recruiting markets by understanding personality types or psychographic categories and ask diagnostic questions that would enable recruiting prospects to be classified and dealt with by personality type. Joining the Army would be viewed as a symbol of one's adulthood or a symbol of independence, or a symbol of power...The variety of symbolic depictions might be endless but for this model, selected symbols would be very helpful. Personal selling and other promotion under this model would take the form of symbolic associations between the Army and those characteristics that would be seen as desirable or inspirational for the potential recruit.

Social Conformity Theory

Social conformity theory requires that norms of reference and interactive groups be known as predictors of individual behavior. Thus, if the group that the recruit most completely identifies with could be depicted in the recruiting message as accepting the Army as a positive career path, that recruit would feel they were joining something that would give them even greater standing within their reference group. Behavior change generally is not possible under the assumptions of this model though one could associate a particular recruiting opportunity with an existing group's norms to assure the recruit that they were gaining greater status by joining the Army. Segmentation of markets under the model is limited again to demographics and identification with particular existing groups. Joining the Army under this model would best be depicted as a socially visible activity. For example, joining the Army would need to be seen as something that was celebrated by one's peers as an important choice. Promotion and especially personal selling under the assumptions of this model would rely heavily on creating a positive image for joining the Army within a group and relying heavily on word of mouth reinforcement. Advertisements or even sales presentations should refer to the recruit's personal reference group's acceptance of the Army.

Cognitive Processing Model

Cognitive processing theory suggests that to predict an individual's behavior, one would need to know the person's evaluative criteria and attitudes toward a particular act or object. It would further require that one understand how a person viewed a particular situation. If they did not feel particular needs, it would be difficult to get them involved in a selling situation. Behavior change is difficult if the behavior is central to the individual but easier if it's not an ego-involved behavior. Highly involving choices like the choice to join the Army is more attune to the assumptions of cognitive processing theory. One can segment under the assumptions of this theory by identifying and using evaluative criteria of perceived

needs. The recruiting opportunity is seen as a cluster of attributes that potential recruits might value. Selling or other promotion under this theory might be viewed as attempts to change desired attributes or to identify and sell with present attributes.

Buyers in the cognitive processing state begin either with problems to solve or with goals to seek. The starting point determines how the selling process will be used to improve the chance of a positive choice. Goal seekers must have their goals clarified and then find help with obtaining their goals. Problem solvers must have their problems articulated in light of the salesperson's range of possible solutions.

Table 1 shows a comparison of these four models and summarizes the previous section. It is important to understand that product as used here would be the opportunity to join the Army. Promotion as used in the chart would include both personal selling and advertising.

Approaches to Selling and Buyer Behavior

This section merges the material of the past two into an overview of how various selling approaches have evolved out of the assumptions of various buyer choice models. As can be seen in Table 2, most approaches to selling are based on the assumptions of either cognitive processing models or personality models. Cognitive processing models are based on assumptions about the buyer and the steps buyers may go through in making a decision. The personality theory models are generally based on the type of traits or personality characteristics buyers have.

Table 2 suggests that relatively little in the selling literature is based either on the assumptions of the learning models or on the assumptions of social conformity models.

As will be discussed in the next section, the assumptions underlying the USAREC sales doctrine are based in one of the cognitive processing-based selling approaches. It is clear that there are a number of competing alternative approaches to selling that could be used to broaden the selling tool kits of Army recruiters.

Table 3 shows the strategies that might be used by recruiters (or any other salespeople) in dealing with goal seekers or problem solvers. Any sales model based in the highly involving cognitive processing theory should start by determining the buyer's (or prospect's) motivational state. A prospect can be either a problem solver, a goal seeker, both, or neither. Table 3 shows all possibilities with corresponding strategies.

Table 1
Comparison of Choice Behavior

	Social Conformity	Learning	Psychoanalytic Model	Cognitive Processing
Behavior is:	Conformity to Group Norms	Learned	Symbolic Representation of "Inner Forces"; Inner Mental Activity	Rationalistic
To Predict an Individual's Behavior One Would Need to Know:	Norms of Reference and Interactive Groups	Prior Patterns of Reinforcement	Characteristic Ego strategy-- i.e., Personality Type or Traits, What Kind of Person	Valuative Criteria and Attitudes, How Does That Person View the Situation
Behavior Change is:	Due to Forces Largely Outside Control of Market Manager (You Can't Change Everyone's Behavior)	Can be Changed by Forces Controlled by Market Manager (Behavior Modification May be Repetition)	Can be Subtly Influenced But Not Really Changed	Very Difficult if Behavior is Central to Individual; Easier if Non-Ego Involved
Basis of Segmentation	No Basis Except Demographics, etc.	No Basis Except Demographics, Etc.	Personality Type or Trait	Valuative Criteria i.e., Benefit Segmentation
Product	Socially Visible Products are Subject to Social Influence, Others Aren't	Products are Reinforcers in Buying/Learning Process	Products are Symbols	Products are Clusters of Attributes That People Value
Promotion	Word-of-Mouth is Most Effective, Ads Should Make Reference Group Connection	Promissory Messages Repeated Frequently	Messages of Assurance Conveyed Symbolically	Emphasis on Attributes of Importance to Change Attitudes, Trying to Change Valuative Criteria

Table 2
Classification of Selling Approaches by
Assumptions of Buyer Choice Models

SELLING APPROACH	Social Conformity Behavior	Learning	Psycho- Analytic	Cognitive Processing Model
Stimulus-Response		XX		
AIDAS				XX
Behavioral-Equation		XX		
Need-Satisfaction				XX
Grid System			XX	
Social Styles			XX	
Quadrant Theory			XX	
Spin Selling				XX
Seminar Selling*	XX			

* Seminar Selling is not a distinct approach but can be employed with any other approach used in a group setting.

Table 3
States of Buyers at the Beginning of the
Cognitive Choice Process and Strategies for Selling

		PROBLEM SOLVING STATE	
		YES	NO
GOAL SEEKING SALE	YES	Determining Dominant Goals or Problems and Selling Means of Resolution	Clarify Means to Goal Attainment as Purchase
	NO	Purchase is Part of the Problem Solution	Sharpening and Identifying Problems and/or Goals

Some of the characteristics and limitations of Army recruiters give rise to the need to have at least two and possibly more styles of selling available to them. Army recruiters, because of the process that selects them, are outstanding people. They are also very diverse. They come from a variety of fields, backgrounds and ranges of experience. Teaching a single approach to selling may simplify the process, but it also sows the seeds of failure for a number of recruiters as well as limiting the ways potential prospects can respond. As will be discussed in a later section, the typical Army prospect might respond very differently from that predicted by the assumptions of the very limited cognitive processing need satisfaction selling model. If a wider range of selling models could be taught, then the recruiter would be able to match selling style with buying style more successfully.

The next section depicts the currently used need satisfaction based selling process that is taught by USAREC recruiter school.

Current Selling Approach Taught to Army Recruiters

The Army currently employs the needs-satisfaction approach to selling. This section of the report is based on USAREC documents (PAMS 350-7, 350-8, 601-8-1, and 601-19). The needs-satisfaction approach requires the recruiter to identify prospects, to identify their dominant buying motive, to satisfy that motive with features and benefits of joining the Army, and to secure enlistment. Enlistment is accomplished over a five-step process consisting of:

1. Prospecting
2. Sales Presentations
3. Processing
4. Delayed Entry Program (DEP) Maintenance
5. Follow Up

The first two steps are the primary selling steps and are the focus of this section.

All sales calls, whether prospecting calls or complete sales presentations, can also be broken into five parts. As the Army classifies these as five sales skills, these are presented in the order that they are expected to occur during a sales call:

1. Establishing rapport and credibility
2. Determining goals, needs, and interests
3. Determining qualifications
4. Presenting features and benefits
5. Closing and handling objections

Prospecting

Prospecting calls, however, contain steps not present in later sales presentations. Although prospecting will be discussed later in greater detail, this section will integrate prospecting into the selling process. Whether the prospecting call is over the phone or face to face, the sales call begins with the recruiter identifying him or herself and the Army, and ends with confirming an appointment. Unlike a sales presentation, a prospecting call has the objective of gaining an appointment. Therefore, the process is:

1. Identify self and Army
2. Establish rapport
3. Ask fact-finding questions to determine needs and interests
4. Determine the prospect's qualifications
5. Present features and benefits
6. Close by asking for appointment and handling objections
7. Confirm the appointment

As the objective is simply to gain an appointment, the recruiter is not expected to go into as much detail as during a sales presentation. However, the doctrine provides no guidance as to how much detail is too much.

Identify Self and Army. The prospecting call is often the first direct communication between prospect and recruiter. As the purpose of the call is to gain an appointment for a sales presentation, the integrity of the Army requires that the recruiter identify himself or herself as a recruiter for the US Army. The prospect is immediately aware of the reason for the call.

Face-to-face prospecting calls also require the development of an ice-breaker. This ice-breaker should contain an element that allows for further conversation. Regardless of the form of prospecting, an interest-creating statement is needed to ensure continuation of the call.

Establish Rapport. The elements of establishing rapport during prospecting are to use information about the prospect and the community to show an interest in the prospect. The recruiter is encouraged to compliment the individual on any achievement because: 1) people like compliments, 2) it shows that the recruiter has taken time to know the individual, and 3) people like to hear their name mentioned. In addition, use of such knowledge creates a desire to hear more.

Identify Needs and Desires. Once rapport is established, the recruiter begins to identify the prospect's needs through the

use of open-ended fact-finding questions. Needs are then used to plan the sales message. Once the recruiter understands the prospect's desires for the future, the recruiter is encouraged to compliment the prospect on those plans. This compliment should reinforce rapport, if perceived as sincere.

Qualifying the Prospect. The recruiter is encouraged to pre-qualify the prospect as much as possible before setting an appointment in order to avoid wasting time with unqualified prospects. Although pre-qualification can minimize wasted time, it can also intimidate a prospect. The doctrine states that the amount of pre-qualification to be completed is up to the recruiter, and should be influenced by such factors as the distance one has to drive to hold the appointment.

Presenting a Sales Message. During a prospecting call, the recruiter should not discuss details of Army programs and features at a level that a prospect would expect promises to be made. Rather, the recruiter is expected to stress benefits, or how the features enable the prospect to satisfy his or her needs.

Closing and Handling Objections. Once the benefit statement has been delivered, the recruiter should close for the appointment, offering the prospect a choice of times, dates, and locations. The two-choice close (Would you prefer Monday or Tuesday?) is the suggested method of asking for an appointment.

Objections are most likely to come out when asking for the appointment. The doctrine treats objections as unanswered questions. The correct way to handle objections, then, is to identify the question and answer it. If an objection cannot be overcome, the recruiter is required to ask for referrals and to establish a date for a future call.

Confirm the Appointment. The recruiter may have gained an appointment earlier in the conversation. Therefore, at the end of the conversation, the recruiter confirms the appointment by restating the date, time, and location. In addition, the recruiter restates his or her name and asks the prospect to take down the recruiter's telephone number. The recruiter then asks for referrals. Regardless of the outcome of the call, the recruiter thanks the prospect for the time they have taken.

The prospecting call follows the same general outline as a sales presentation call. The objective, however, is to gain an appointment, not a contract to enlist. The recruiter is attempting to create enough interest in the prospect so that the prospect will want to attend the appointment. Therefore, although the steps are similar, the depth to which each step is taken is not as great.

Sales Presentations

As mentioned earlier, sales presentations follow a process similar to the process used in prospecting calls. Sales presentations build upon what took place in a prospecting call.

Rapport Building. Recruiters must use the information that was learned from the prospecting call and any other sources to demonstrate a personal responsibility and interest in the prospect. Getting and using this information is known as blueprinting. Additional suggestions are to offer a firm handshake, use the prospect's name as often as possible, maintain eye contact, and maintain rapport throughout the presentation.

Determining Goals, Needs, and Interests. The recruiter must seek out the Dominant Buying Motive (DBM). This DBM is viewed as crucial to success, and is the basis of the entire sales process. Open-ended fact-finding questions are used to determine the prospect's DBM, and the recruiter must probe until three things have been accomplished:

1. The prospect's goals have been determined, how they will be accomplished and whether a specific need or interest is important.
2. To gather enough information to deliver the sales message later during presentation of features and benefits.
3. To find out how exactly an Army enlistment can benefit the prospect.

Currently, DBMs have been categorized using the acronym TEAMS. This acronym stands for Training, Education, Adventure, Money, and Service to Country. The doctrine also discusses job security as a need.

Determining Qualifications. Before the DBM can be satisfied, the recruiter must determine the prospect's eligibility. Qualification is necessary so that the prospect is not sold an Army program for which the prospect is not qualified. In addition to age and education, the recruiter must also determine the prospect's physical status, marital status, legal status, Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB) test results, and dependents.

Presenting Features and Benefits. Up to this point, the recruiter has been listening and not selling. The sales message begins with a short review of the prospect's buying motives, from least to most important. These are addressed in turn by the recruiter in the following manner (the FEBA, or sales message):

Facts: statements of what the Army offers

Evidence: a form of proof that the Army feature does exist

Benefit: a statement concerning how the Army feature satisfies the buying motive

Agreement: asking the prospect if he or she agrees that the fact or feature is a benefit and met the need

Trial Close. A step that is not in prospecting calls is the trial close. The trial close does not necessarily follow the sales message, and can be used early in the sales call. The trial close performs three functions:

1. It prepares the prospect to make a decision.
2. Positive answers increase a recruiter's confidence.
3. Trial closes help the recruiter to determine where the prospect is in terms of making a commitment to the Army.

Closing and Handling Objections. No prospect will enlist unless asked to. Closing is the time where the prospect is asked to commit to enlisting in the Army. Timing is considered more important than technique; however, the doctrine does require that the recruiter leave no doubt in the prospect's mind as to what he or she is committing to. Assumptive closes, such as "When would you like to take a physical?" are not permitted.

Objections frequently occur at the close, although objections could happen any time. The "obviously you" and "just suppose" technique is the recommended technique for handling objections. This technique begins with the recruiter saying, "Obviously you have a reason for that. Would you mind telling me what it is?" The prospect should respond with the reason for the objection. The recruiter replies, "Just suppose that (the reason was eliminated). Would you enlist then?" This question ensures that the real objection has been identified. If so, the recruiter can then address the objection with a sales message (FEBA).

Summary. The sales presentation is based upon identifying the DBM and tailoring the sales message to satisfy that DBM. This is the traditional needs-satisfaction approach to selling and is a logic-based method of selling. Techniques of closing and objection-handling are suggested that fit this logic-based model.

Additional General Information

Two additional pieces are added to the selling picture, and are taken from USAREC information (PAM 350-7). These are the notion of market segmentation and community involvement. The two

concepts are important for recruiters to understand in order to develop useful sources of prospecting leads.

Market Segmentation. The Army has loosely divided the market into two segments. The first segment is employment oriented and seeks service to country, immediate employment, job security, skill training, competitive wages, family benefits, and a long tour. The second segment seeks service to country, a hiatus for adventure, deferred reward (Army College Fund), independence, and a short tour. The doctrine, however, does suggest that the recruiter take time to learn the individual market.

Community Involvement. The recruiter's field of operation is the community. The community is likened to the recruiter's former unit. The recruiter must be completely identified as part of the community. To accomplish community membership, the recruiter must:

1. Make friends.
2. Join community activities, such as church and youth organizations.
3. Talk about the Army to everyone.

The goal is to develop centers of influence who can supply the names of prospects.

The Army uses a needs-satisfaction approach to selling. This particular form of the needs-satisfaction approach is logic-based, in that it assumes that people buy because they need the product or service. Therefore, success hinges on determining buying motives and needs, then tailoring the presentation of the product or service to satisfying those motives and needs. Techniques for closing and handling objections are also logic-based, in keeping with the needs-satisfaction approach.

Deviance From USAREC Recruiter Selling Model

In almost any sales force, there will be deviation from the training model taught. Salespersons tend to adapt the model to their own personality and capabilities. They also learn to adapt to the prospects with whom they come into contact. This is also true of Army Recruiters. Based on our observations, deviation is the rule rather than the exception.

Basic Sales Model

As stated before, the basic model taught at USAREC is the following:

1. Establishing rapport and credibility

2. Determining goals, needs and interests
3. Determining qualifications
4. Presenting features and benefits
5. Closing and handling objections

Recruiters appear to follow this basic model in sales presentations. Of course, there is variance across and within recruiters as to how each step is carried out.

Prospecting

Because USAREC measures almost everything the recruiter does, often, the recruiter emphasis is on achieving an appointment. This often means that qualifying the prospect is delayed until the appointment. Though this increases the number of non-qualified prospects who are given appointments, it is counted as an appointment.

In some instances recruiters do not identify themselves immediately when making phone contact. This is particularly true when someone other than the prospect answers the phone. The recruiter simply asks if John is in. Identification will occur somewhat later. This is apparently done to increase the chances of speaking to the prospect.

Most recruiters make an effort in their telephone prospecting to gather some facts that will help in determining the prospect's needs. Questions such as, "What are you planning to do after graduation?" are common. This often leads into a brief description of some of the benefits offered by the Army (Army College Fund (ACF), location choice, or MOS). At this point, quite a few prospects begin to voice excuses and objections in anticipation of the request for an appointment. Most recruiters will still ask for an appointment to further explain what the Army has to offer.

One recruiter showed a great deal of creativity in generating appointments. He had put together some videotapes on the Army and offered to lend these out to prospects. This gave an excuse to see the prospect when he picked up the tape. Along with the tape, he provided a map showing how to get to the recruiting station. If the prospect did not return the tape, the recruiter would be by the house to pick up the tape and often used that opportunity to make a sales presentation.

Sales Presentation

When a prospect comes in for an appointment, recruiters spend time reestablishing rapport and trying to put the prospect at ease. This includes offering coffee or a soda. In station presentations make some use of the sales book, but these have typically been modified. Recruiters use the sales book mainly

for presenting facts and showing evidence. In order to accomplish this, they include pages showing pay scales, rearrange the book, include other pictures, articles, and letters.

The laser disc is also used by some recruiters, though not by all. Some feel it is a good tool but others feel it is not that useful during the sales presentation. At a number of stations, the main use of this equipment is in prospecting. It will be taken to a high school or a mall and set up to attract attention and give the recruiter an opportunity to establish contact with prospects.

The recruiter, in setting up the appointment, has already identified some of the prospect's needs, and will typically proceed on the assumption that one of those is the DBM. Based on their own past experience, recruiters often assume a DBM and after qualifying, tend to push benefits that match the DBM. Sometimes this is acceptable and the assumption was a good one. Other times, the recruiter has made a poor assumption about the DBM.

The Recruiting Process

The USAREC model of how recruiting happens (the process from prospecting to signing to actual entry) is based on the belief that someone is out there who will buy. All one needs to do is contact enough people.

Based on Army internal training material, out of 750,000 appointments made 51,000 will contract with the Army. This is a hit rate of 6.8%. But only .5% to 1% of all contacts made eventually access.

This model may be an appropriate one for selling accident policies, but it may not be appropriate for selling the Army. The decision to join the Army or any other branch of the service is not one to be taken lightly. It involves many other persons than just the prospect. The recruiters recognize this and attempt to speak with parents, girlfriends, and others who might influence an individual's decision.

Of necessity, the Army's current method of selling requires someone who can handle rejection well. Ninety-nine percent of the time, the recruiter will be told no. How well a recruiter handles this will likely be one of the most important determinants of his/her success. Recruiters often mentioned that a part of training that could be dramatically improved was on dealing with rejection.

USAREC's response to the recent Mid East related decline in new recruits relative to mission is a typical one that many organizations might take: "What we were doing worked in the

past, so the solution is to do more of the same." The new work and phone call requirements and increased emphasis on micro-management infer a belief on the part of USAREC command that more calls and more paperwork will improve results. If the market were the same as it was six months ago, this might work. However, the market seems different.

The recruiters recognize this. Although they follow the rules about work hours and prospecting, they resent being treated like privates. Their belief is that less structure and less micro-management could improve their own recruiting efforts.

As community involvement and relationship establishment are both important aspects of successful recruiting, recruiters feel that USAREC's new requirements are counterproductive; they reduce time available for development of community roots.

Few recruiters joined the service with plans to be a recruiter and few requested transfer to recruiting. Thus, the more onerous the job becomes, the less successful they will be as recruiters. If they dislike recruiting and resent their command, it is difficult to sell someone else on joining.

Recruiter unhappiness with their task may be shown in many ways. The following is an abbreviated list of counterproductive activities observed:

1. Recruiter avoids making phone calls through excessive attention to administrative details.
2. Recruiter follows the letter, but not the spirit of the rules.
3. Recruiter bad-mouths Battalion, Brigade, and other upper-level Officers and Non-Commissioned Officers (NCOs) in front of other recruiters.
4. Recruiter thinks and speaks negatively of USAREC.
5. Recruiter spends excessive time sharpening pencils and taking smoke breaks.
6. Recruiter reaches four wrong numbers in a row.
7. Recruiter calls back people who have not said no, but have strongly indicated no.
8. Recruiter counts on call-backs to make mission.

These actions are typical of a sales rep who is avoiding. USAREC has encouraged some of these. The current market has probably increased the number of recruiters behaving in the above

manner.

Our conclusion is that the sales presentation model (need-satisfaction) is an appropriate model. However, TEAMS is not all-inclusive. Prospecting creates difficulties. Better training and more creative methods need to be developed.

USAREC needs to determine a way to increase closing rather than simply increasing the number of prospects contacted.

Prospecting Concepts in Business

A key element of any sales process is identifying prospects for the product or service. The first step in understanding this process is for the firm to define what a prospect is (Fulmer and Goodwin, 1988). Five qualifications are often used to determine if a person is a prospect (Marks, 1991; Pederson, Wright, and Weitz, 1988):

1. Does the person have a need for the product or service?
2. Does the person have the authority to buy the product or service?
3. Can the person afford the product or service?
4. Is the person eligible for the product or service?
5. Can the person be approached?

Many businesses are now adding another dimension when qualifying prospects. Those individuals or organizations that meet the five criteria above are often termed suspects. Prospects are only those suspects who have also indicated an interest or willingness to consider the product or service (Schiffman, 1989).

Businesses have added the interest criterion for several reasons. For example, suppose that closing ratios suggested that a salesperson must identify 20 new prospects each month in order to meet quota. Salespeople could easily find 20 who fit the first five criteria and would quit looking for more prospects, concentrating on the prospects they had identified. Closing ratios would then decline because of a lack of interest on the part of many so-called prospects. Near the end of a month, two behaviors would emerge, neither of which were positive. Some salespeople were frantically searching for last minute prospects because the prospects they had would not buy. Other low performers pushed their prospects harder to the point where there was no hope for any business. In either case, performance was not up to par.

Many corporations have further developed systems of classifying prospects on the basis of likelihood of buying. Such systems vary widely given the nature of each corporation's business and selling cycle, but each is based on the probability of closing that prospect.

Army Prospecting: Doctrine Versus Observed

The doctrine encourages recruiters to locate prospects through five methods. These methods are 1) endless chain, or asking each prospect for a referral, 2) using centers of influence as a source of prospects, 3) telephoning seniors and grads, 4) getting referrals from DEPs, and 5) participating in special events. In addition, the doctrine encourages recruiters to join the community, to become a part of that community, and to treat the community as they did their unit in their prior field.

Currently, regulations classify prospects only on the basis of projected mental category but not on any basis related to probability of joining. A prospect is anyone who has made an appointment with a recruiter.

Grad prospects are terminated only when the station commander is certain that the individual will not process, usually after telephoning the prospect and confirming a lack of interest. Termination of a prospect cannot occur until after 30 days from the original appointment. Seniors are not terminated until after graduation.

The seeds of a very effective prospecting plan are in place in the regulations. However, several difficulties appear to be manifested in deviance from the desired objective. First, although regulations suggest that recruiters become a part of the community, regulations and orders concerning the operations of recruiting stations prohibit any participation in community activities with the exception of Sunday church and an occasional special event. For example, current orders are, in some stations, to conduct telephone prospecting from 5 p.m. to 9 p.m. With recruiters in the station until 9 each evening, they are unable to meaningfully participate in any community activities.

This leads to a second issue, that of treating centers of influence (COIs) as sources of prospects. Though the regulations would encourage recruiters to become partners with COIs, partners in developing young adults, the observed behavior was more akin to pressuring COIs for names of prospects. And, support personnel for COIs are completely ignored in the process.

A final deviant behavior was only observed with successful recruiters. These recruiters often terminate prospects more quickly than allowed by the station commander or classify

prospects in a way that enables them to spend more time with candidates more likely to join the Army. These deviances from Army regulations are the basis for several recommendations that are discussed in the next section.

Field Observations Concerning Prospecting

Orders concerning station operations and prospecting are usually short-term responses to shortages in mission achievement. However, it is often the short-term perspective in prospecting that led to the shortfall. These recommendations are based upon observations of successful recruiters that have managed to adopt a longer perspective. These recruiters are just as worried about their mission for December as they were for January, and they are more confident than their counterparts with a shorter-term perspective. That is because they began working on January recruits last fall, and are already working on December's recruits (as well as all of the other months in-between).

Community

USAREC's sales book (PAM 350-7) suggests that recruiters become a part of their community. One observation from the field and is supported by research in industry (Tanner, 1990), is that it can take a year before a recruiter is treated as a member of the community and a partner in the development of the youth of that community. All too often, the need for short-term achievement has not allowed the recruiter to invest the time that is necessary to become a part of the community. That time is often after school and early evening time, time that is often set aside as red time for telephone prospecting or appointments. Thus the recruiter is not available to invest in the community.

When a recruiter finds a way to invest that time, the recruiter is starting from scratch because nothing had been done previously. But when a recruiter can inherit a community where the previous recruiter was active, the integration process is much shorter.

Several important skills and characteristics are necessary for a recruiter to successfully become accepted by the community. The first is already in place, the integrity of the recruiting system. Others, however, are not present. These include rapport building and partnering skills, listening skills, and community management skills.

Community management skills can be acquired once the recruiter learns what a community is. A community is a small world (Galaskiewicz, 1985; Tanner, Chonko, Dunn, and Easley, 1991). It contains opinion leaders and role models, communicators, gatekeepers, and followers. It is the social world in which the prospect operates (Reingen and Kernan, 1986).

Centers of influence in current Army terminology are similar to role models. Opinion leaders are different in that they may be sources of information in a specific area of expertise but do not influence behavior or opinion outside that area. Role models, on the other hand, are behavior exemplars in a broader sense.

Communicators spread information through the community; gatekeepers can keep information, and people, from entering the community (Pederson, Wright, and Weitz, 1988). Often, the same person may take on all four of those roles: opinion leader, role model, communicator, and gatekeeper, but some people may only fulfill one of those functions. For example, a gossip is a communicator but not necessarily an opinion leader. A pastor's secretary is a gatekeeper in that she determines who sees the pastor. According to our observations, a recruiter is often seen as a role model by prospects, not as a buddy or peer.

What the recruiter needs to know is that the recruiter can only become a part of the community by contributing to the welfare of the community (Swan and Nolan, 1985; Swan, Trawick, and Roberts, 1988). Because COIs are seen as sources of prospects and not as offering opportunities to serve the community, the ability to generate prospects is lost. The recruiter often only asks, without first giving. Members of the community that need the support and services that can be offered by an Army recruiter include Boys Club and Girls Club directors, local Scouting leaders, pastors and priests, sports association leaders, and school counselors, teachers, and principals. When recruiters (or salespeople) deliver value (Jackson, 1985) in the development of the community's youth, then these community leaders will direct prospects to the recruiters. This was observed in several successful stations.

Recruiters deliver value by participating in the programs offered by those community leaders. Churches, Boys and Girls Clubs, Scouting, and sports can offer alternatives to schools when educators are uncooperative, and recruiters can fill the volunteer gap that many of these organizations are experiencing. These organizations need leaders for today's youth and, in most cases, would be thrilled to secure support from recruiters. Regulations recognize this and suggest that recruiters join these local organizations.

Recruiters derive many benefits from such support. These include supportive sources for prospects and other benefits directly related to achieving mission. Improved DEP management is another benefit from community participation. Involving DEPs in assisting the recruiter increases contact with the DEPs and gives DEPs opportunities to share their enlistment decision with others. Sharing their decision reinforces it and enables them to serve as a role model. DEP loss is improved and DEPs can

contribute more effectively to the recruiting process.

Other benefits will accrue directly to the recruiter and indirectly to the Army. Recruiters are able to release stress in some situations through the physical exertion that accompanies such activities, as well as through the change of focus. Recruiters will be required to change their attention from the pressures of recruiting to the job of leading youth. This change should help relieve stress. And, as they see youth develop, recruiters will feel a sense of accomplishment. Even when mission is not currently made, they will have positive feelings of self-worth and accomplishment, feelings that will emanate and give prospects the confidence they need to enlist with that recruiter. Finally, there is less stress on the family when recruiters can participate in such activities with their own children. When recruiting, they can then concentrate on recruiting and not worry about pressure from home.

Ways that recruiters are doing this include simply playing basketball with DEPs and all comers at a Boys Club once a week, attending and participating in a church every Sunday, coaching Little League teams and involving high school athletes as guest or clinic coaches, leading a Girl Scout troop, and participating in a literacy program. Although church attendance can easily be directed by regulation, other community participation and obligations cannot. Our research indicated that these activities were often chosen due to individual interests and only occasionally purposely chosen as a prospecting tool. But successful prospecting by these same recruiters and recruiting stations were observed by members of the research team.

In addition to supporting community leaders first, recruiters must be aware of the influence of other members of the community (Reingen and Kernan, 1986). As mentioned earlier, secretaries are gatekeepers for many community leaders. DEPs (or customers) are also members of the community as well (Levitt, 1983). A recruiter cannot present one face to a community leader and another to other community members. USAREC's integrity already supports this concept of a uniform presentation of concern for the welfare of the potential recruit. In addition, stronger rapport building skills would enable the recruiters to take advantage of the position these other members of the community occupy (Dwyer and Lagace, 1986).

Rapport building requires active listening skills and a desire to satisfy, when possible, the needs of other people (Swan and Nolan, 1985). The recruiter that understands that others have needs such as the need to be appreciated and liked will have an advantage when attempting to generate rapport with those other members of the community. The sales book, reviewed earlier in this report, discusses how to build rapport. What is missing from the current model is a recognition of the importance of all

the members of the community.

In summary, the community method of prospecting is a long-term method by which a recruiter becomes a member of the community. A recruiter can join a community only by first contributing to that community. When the community trusts the recruiter and when members accept the recruiter as partners in the development of the community's youth, the community will provide the recruiter with a steady stream of prospects. Although the regulations currently suggest that recruiters become involved in the community, short term requirements often force the recruiter to abandon those efforts.

Prospect Definition

The current definition of a prospect is anyone who has made an appointment with the recruiter. The premise is that someone who makes an appointment is interested and this definition has resulted in a certain historical conversion rate. When demands shift--for example, when mission must be increased due to the needs of war--there are two methods of increasing performance levels.

One method is to assume the conversion rate will hold and simply identify more prospects (make more appointments) (Weitz, 1978). The result is a management process that encourages the recruiter to make appointments, not put people into the Army. Appointments are made with disinterested suspects who make the appointment only to get rid of the recruiter. The appointment is then skipped. The conversion rate declines and is no longer an appropriate guideline for prospecting activity.

The second method is to improve the conversion rate (Weitz, 1978; Weitz, Sujan, and Sujan, 1986). The conversion rate can be improved one of two ways; either improve the sales process or change the definition of a prospect. In the current situation, both are necessary and the previous section dealt with one method of improving the sales process.

Changing the definition of a prospect has several advantages. First, when prospects are more realistically defined, time can be allocated to appropriate activities, appropriate measurement is conducted, and performance can be assessed more accurately. Second, recruiters are not as likely to become complacent due to a large prospect list that will not fulfill mission. Third, the results of activities are easier to define. Therefore, improvements to the individual's sales process can be made more quickly and with greater assurance. And fourth, forecasting is more accurate. Accurate forecasting can pinpoint shortfalls, with necessary corrections made before the shortfalls occur.

Any definition of a prospect should include degrees of a prospect. A common method in industry is to classify prospects as 30, 60, and 90 days out, or by forecasting the time that the prospect will close. This classification is based upon degree of interest, how far the sales process has gone, and type of decision making structure. For example, a highly interested high school diploma graduate who has taken the ASVAB and seen a JOIN presentation could be classified as a 30-day prospect at the same time that a senior whose parents will be involved and has yet to settle on a general area of interest may be a 90 day prospect.

A method that was observed in the field is based on how much the prospect talks. A talkative prospect, one who carries the conversation, is considered a hot prospect. If the recruiter carries the conversation, the prospect is cold, and if the recruiter feels that neither person is dominating the conversation, the prospect is rated as lukewarm.

We recommend that prospects be defined on the basis of interest only after an appointment has been conducted and interest determined. If the recruiter has identified the dominant buying motive, decision process, and developed a relationship with that recruit, then a person that has shown interest can be considered a prospect.

Four levels are recommended. The bottom level is the suspect; anyone in the target market who has been identified. A level C prospect is someone who has made and kept an appointment and has been determined to be eligible to join. If a level C does not move to level B in thirty days, the prospect should be moved back to the suspect list.

A level B prospect is someone for whom the dominant buying motive has been well determined, even to the point of selecting a range of possible jobs in the Army. However, the prospect has not progressed far enough through the decision process to make a decision in the current month. If a prospect does not move to level A in thirty days, then the prospect should be move back to level C. A level A prospect is someone who should process in the current month.

Note that suspects can be returned to the prospect list some time later. For example, if a level C makes no decision due to a potential scholarship, the recruiter should place that prospect on the suspect list until after the scholarship decision has been made. If the scholarship is not forthcoming, then that suspect could once again become a prospect.

This prospect grading system is one possible method. Another possible method is determine the percentage likelihood of processing the prospect. New recruiters, however, may find it difficult to predict specific prospect's behavior with any degree

of accuracy. The advantages to the recommended system is that it is based on stage of the sales cycle and actual behavior of the prospect. Unlike the present system, however, the recommended system does require the recruiter to judge the level of interest and the strength of the relationship with the prospect.

Context Issues Affecting Recruiter Selling

In interviews with recruiters and station commanders, several concerns were voiced on issues that affect the ability of recruiters to effectively carry out their assigned tasks. These context issues are as important as many of the more central selling issues.

Army Recruiter Course

The Army Recruiter Course had mixed reviews. General consensus among recruiters and station commanders was that basic selling skills and knowledge of the official selling process were well taught. Recruiters learned and were able to follow the sales presentation format taught in the school. New recruiters who have been on-station for short periods appeared more likely to follow the taught format more religiously than those who had been in recruiting for longer periods. It is possible that recruiters become sloppy or forget what was taught. However, recruiters and some station commanders suggested that much of the divergence was a result of adaptation by the individual recruiter to his/her market or adaptation to the individual recruiter's style.

Recruiters who were successful in meeting mission on a regular basis did not attribute their success to strict adherence to the taught process, but to their adaptation of said process. Adaptations included changing the sales book, changing the prospecting process (telephone approach) and included some changes that could be considered hard sell.

Checking-out a video tape to reluctant prospects (prior to the appointment) and using the check-in as an opportunity to make a presentation. If the prospect did not bring the tape back, the recruiter would drop by the recruit's home to pick it up and make the presentation.

Though no first-hand evidence is available, some recruiters said that others used questionable tactics to enlist prospects.

1. Inference on the part of the recruiter that led prospects to believe some things that were not true.
2. Pressure to speed enlistment by indicating MOS choice could only be achieved by signing quickly (when that was not

true).

3. Use of the maximum figure for the Army College Fund without clarifying what is required to receive that amount.

A number of suggestions for changes in the Army Recruiter Course (ARC) were made. All involve trade-offs.

1. Inject realism into ARC training through some sort of OJT.

2. Teach how to deal with rejection.

3. Teach stress management. The job requirements create tension with family, friends, and co-workers.

4. Teach only administrative skills at the ARC. Allow the station commander to teach how to sell.

5. Teach more about relationship building and networking. Few recruiters begin benefitting from their work until they have been in an assignment for six months to a year.

6. Teach situations. What is the recruiter likely to encounter on station? How should it be dealt with?

Of the above suggestions, certainly not all should be implemented. On-the-job training would be an expensive addition to the ARC and already occurs on-station. Allowing each station commander to do all sales training would reduce control too much. New recruiters would learn about the types of situations to be encountered from tales told by more experienced recruiters. However, it would be beneficial to develop a section of training on stress management. New recruiters should be aware of the likelihood that personal relationships will be strained under the responsibility of their job. It is possible that video training combined with counseling on methods of coping with and reducing stress would be beneficial. A recruiter unable to cope reasonably well with stress is unlikely to present a positive image and will be more likely to make mistakes in recruiting.

Given the frequency that recruiters mentioned a lack of knowledge about relationship building and networking (sometimes under other names), it would make sense to spend more time at school on how a recruiter should go about these activities. This will likely lengthen the ARC's training time.

Rejection, inevitable for any sales representative, is compounded for Army recruiters. A salesperson selling a product has an easier task in dealing with rejection. The prospect is not rejecting the salesperson but is rejecting the product. For an Army recruiter, the rejection is more personal. The prospect

is rejecting the Army, but is also directly rejecting the recruiter's chosen career--in many cases as a career not worthy of consideration. How is this type of rejection likely to affect the recruiter in his/her performance? Avoidance is one possible response. A recruiter may attempt to make as few contacts as possible. USAREC has dealt with this through management procedures and required calling times. However, the expectation of failure increases the probability of failure and makes it more acceptable. The recruiter may accept a no too easily or may fail to ask for the sale.

Along with fear of rejection, dissatisfaction with recruiting as an assignment is also likely to be reflected in how the recruiter carries out his/her task. If a member of the Army who is in a non-recruiting position is unhappy, he/she may communicate this to those outside the service. This negative word-of-mouth may prevent a small number of prospects from considering the Army as an option. If a recruiter is unhappy, he/she is likely to reflect this in his/her approach to prospects and in the presentation. It is difficult to sell a product one does not fully believe in. Based on many comments by recruiters, at this time dissatisfaction with recruiting is high.

Prospect Decision Process and the Army Recruiting Model

How does a prospect make a decision to enlist in the Army? Is that decision made in a manner similar to the way other decisions are made? If so, what types of decisions are those and what are the characteristics of the decision making process and what can influence it? In the past twenty years, a marketing literature has developed on the marketing of services. Some of the literature deals with characteristics of the decision making process for purchasing services.

Enlistment in the Army is much like the purchase of a high perceived risk service. A prospect's decision to postpone or avoid the enlistment decision is heavily influenced by perceived risk. He/she cannot be sure about how the decision will be viewed by others or what the outcome of the enlistment will be. This produces anxiety. The amount of perceived risk varies with the amount of money at stake, the attractiveness of other available options, the amount of uncertainty and the amount of prospect self-confidence.

Consumers (prospects) develop certain routines for reducing risk, such as decision avoidance, information gathering, preference for certain brands, warranties, and trial of the product before purchase (Kotler, 1988; Zeithaml, 1981). Enlistment in the Army is not available on a trial basis. There is no warranty. The prospect is limited in his/her ability to evaluate the outcome of a decision to enlist ahead of time. This means that the decision to enlist will be heavily influenced by

peers, family, and hopefully, the recruiter.

Research has shown that in the communication area, word-of-mouth references often take on increased importance over organization-controlled communication (George and Berry, 1981). A reference from a friend takes on more importance when the decision to be made has greater risk (Zeithaml, 1981). The implication of this for Army recruiters emphasizes the increased importance of the development of trust by the recruiter through community involvement and networking.

Although the Army recruiter is expected to become a part of the community in which he/she is recruiting, this integration does not happen overnight. It requires time and effort on the part of the recruiter. However, one would have a difficult time measuring the level of trust or integration into the community of any recruiter. Because of the emphasis placed on measurable aspects of the recruiting job (number of telephone calls, contacts, appointments) the recruiter is naturally pushed to accomplish these measurable tasks. Often this is likely to be to the detriment of relationship building.

Recommendations

The following areas have been identified as needing attention in making the recruiter selling process more effective:

1. USAREC recruiter training must incorporate a change in the FEBA (Facts, Evidence, Benefits, Agreement) approach. It is currently too mechanical in training and in practice. Recruiters must be taught to adapt to prospects in differing selling situations.

2. Recruiters must be able to go beyond a simple needs satisfaction approach; understand and build relationships with prospects. This recognizes the much more complex and lengthy process prospects go through in choosing their futures.

3. Recruiters must be equipped with a broader range of selling approaches that meet the needs of the diverse selling situations they encounter.

4. Recruiters must understand the differing underlying approaches used by prospects, including goal seeking and problem solving.

5. Training of recruiters must emphasize that the use of TEAMS is a convenient tool in the selling process, but not a comprehensive representation of prospect needs nor should it be used in an inflexible script.

6. Although recruiters were told in school that TEAMS could be used adaptively, many still use it in a fixed order and in a monolithic manner.

7. Recruiters should be encouraged and trained to creatively deviate from basic sales doctrine. This should be circumscribed by the integrity contained within recruiting standards, but it is also imperative that recruiters be able to employ their strengths in the recruiting process.

8. The recruiting system must be able to seek out, understand, and teach creative approaches to selling that have been developed in the field. This should be a continuing process.

9. The community method of prospecting must be taught and managed at both the school and the station. This will require that recruiter management recognize that the selling process requires an investment of time to develop community relationships.

10. A procedure for classifying prospects must be developed and implemented so that recruiters can spend time with prospects more likely to join and on activities more likely to identify real prospects.

11. Recruiter management procedures should encourage measurement of the overall recruiting process rather than specific activities. A longer term perspective of the overall process is necessary. In addition, management procedures should not discourage creative deviance.

12. Recruiter work hours should be kept to some reasonable maximum including, but not limited to, the number of consecutive days worked.

13. Recruiter reward policies should be amended to reward recruiters for successfully developing good community relations.

14. Recruiter school would be more valuable following a month on station. The ability of most recruiters to integrate material learned in school is hampered by lack of field context.

15. In order to develop a recruiter force capable of achieving mission with integrity, it may be necessary to allow the failure rate to rise in USAREC school. This would offer a more cost effective way of eliminating potentially unsuccessful recruiters prior to station assignment.

16. To improve productivity and reduce failure in the field, an effective stress management curriculum must be incorporated into USAREC school. This follows a trend in

industry. This must include, but not be limited to, handling rejection by prospects and dealing with often strained family relationships.

17. Problems identified in the field suggest the need for increased feedback by way of videotape role playing as a learning tool in the development of prospect interaction.

18. To develop an effective recruiter force, buyer behavior and choice process must be included in the training of USAREC recruiters.

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APPENDIX A
RECRUITING STATIONS OBSERVED

Wheaton, MD
Carlisle, PA
Liverpool, NY
Columbus, GA
Raleigh, NC
Beaverton, OR
Columbus, OH
Fargo, ND
Des Moines, IA
Rock Hill, MO
Overland Park, KS
New Orleans, LA
Fair Oaks, CA
Los Angeles, CA