

## Export Pricing in Business-to-business Market

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*The importance of pricing as a profit driver led to development of strategies and methods to improve pricing. Although pricing in business-to-business (B2B) and retail markets has the same goals, but the challenges of them are different.*

*Export pricing and its distinguishing features from retail point: the consumer is a firm, business-to business purchases are made by decision making unit, purchase decision have to satisfy different needs and objectives, business-to-business purchase has a formal dimension and the risk of a company's purchasing decision is greater than of consumers in retail.*

*Pricing in business-to-business market has to involve the following features evaluation: currency considerations, market share dynamic, financial factors, the need that the price has to be predetermined by the quality and price balance.*

*The currency choice has become a critical consideration in securing exporting contracts and maintaining or increasing market share and profitability. The potential profits of a transaction can be lost by currency fluctuations.*

*In globalization and the increased market accessibility, goods tend to be very close substitutes to the goods produced in other countries. Because of imperfect information and adjustment costs, customers tend to purchase from the same firm repeatedly. Since customers do not immediately switch to the firm with the lowest price, a price change will have a gradual effect to the customer stock. Following it the pricing decision in B2B market can be evaluated as an investment problem. The firm invests in the customer stock (market share) by charging a price which finally affects future profits.*

*The prices in B2B market are not changed every week. The firms typically change their prices once or twice per year. Thus it is essential to allow for prices in business-to-business market to be predetermined.*

*The concept of dynamic competitiveness focuses on technology and it relates to productivity of the leading country. The unite value can be used as complementary indicator for assessing the qualitative sides of competitiveness.*

*The factors underlying competitiveness can be felled into two parts. One part is the cost side while the growth of export sector increases when a country's costs and prices of exports are lower than its export competitors. On the other hand, the non-price competitiveness is usually expressed by qualitative factors in the export performance.*

*The results of investigation of popular in furniture production upholstery fabrics prices are presented. According to the research data managers consider pricing to be one of the most important element in the decision*

*making process with only product quality being given a higher priority than pricing. The other elements are ranked as follows: goods availability, delivery terms, goods assortment, payment terms, minimum quantity requirements and the company name or brand.*

*In export price setting decisions in B2B market have to be taken into account purchase currency stability, the total effect of price on the market share, purchase payment terms and price validity terms. Only the balance of price and quality enables goods to be competitive.*

Keywords: *export pricing, pricing in business-to-business market, export pricing distinguishing features.*

### Introduction

Price is the means for organization to cover the costs of research, manufacturing, marketing and other activities. As price directly determines the amount of profit (or loss) in an organization this makes important to approach to pricing in a reasonable scientific manner.

The academic research on pricing is quite intensive. Researches have tried to distinguish the main factors in export pricing. The most common divide is into internal and external factors mentioned by Armstrong (1993), Albaum (1989), Nessim (1995), Foglio (2000) and others. Like main external factors making influence to the export pricing they have distinguished consumer demand, competition, legal aspects, and political environment. Kuvykaite (1998) has added to this aspect goods ability to compete.

Other researchers have tried to investigate export pricing like a process. Clark, Kotabe, Rajaratnam (1999), Clague, Grossfield (1974) investigated pricing when exchange rate fluctuate, Cardinaels, Roodhooft, Warlop (2004), Buchheit (2004) investigated fixed costs and activity based costing influence on competitive pricing. Parsley (2004), Hall, Walsh, Yates (1997) export pricing behaviour in a small and in the large countries context. Bhardwaj (2002) analyzed the impact of competition on the decision delegation.

The literature also includes several qualitative models and approaches in overseas pricing situations (Farley, 1980, Walters, 1989). Much of the work in international pricing concerns transfer pricing in multinational corporations (Al-Eryani, 1990; Arpan, 1973). Gottfries (1999) offered a structural model of price and quantity dynamics and applied it to Swedish exports and export prices for manufactured goods 1972-1996. Global influences on manufacturing prices were investigated by Coutts and Norman (2002). Domestic competition influences to manufacturing prices analyzed Azam, Calmete, Lousta-

lan, Maurel (2000). Colin (2003) investigated the impact of price competitiveness on UK producer price behavior.

Swartz (2003) pricing in retail and business-to-business market described like having the same goals but different pricing complexity. Pricing can be thought of in any number of ways. In this article the main features of export pricing in business-to-business market will be extracted.

**Research aim** – is to distinguish the main export pricing features in business-to-business market and to base its application peculiarity.

**Research object** – export pricing in business-to-business market.

### Pricing in retail and business to business markets

Price importance varies according to market conditions and the type of product or service being marketed. It is important to divide retail and B2B pricing markets. According to Swartz (2003), both of them have the same goals - improved profit, market share, competitive position, but the challenges in B2B require a combination of strategy, business processes, technology.

Retail companies have a high transaction volume, but a relatively simple pricing calculation. Typically, the price is simply “the price,” although sometimes there may be discounts, bundles, rebates, or other adjustments. Price optimization in retail involves processing large amounts of data to set a list price and to decide if and when to discount and by how much.

In the B2B exchange, the consumer is the firm. Organizational buyer behavior theorists (Moriarty, 1983; Heide, John, 1990) posit that organizational buying is distinct from consumer buying behavior in that:

1. organizational purchases are made in group form, typically by decision-making unit;
2. an organizational decision to purchase must satisfy differing need or objectives of participants;
3. certain types of organizational buyer information, including proposals, price quotes, and purchase contracts, add to the organizational purchase a formal dimension not found in consumer buying;
4. the personal and organizational risk of a company’s purchasing decision is greater than that of individual consumers (Cavusgil, 2002).

Given these parameters, organizational buying is seen as more rational in nature than consumer purchasing, and as a result more homogeneous. When the purchasing entities are importers, however, heterogeneity in the pricing decision models is enhanced by diverse economic conditions across the markets. In these exchange relationships, information deficiency still exists, yet this deficiency enhances problems beyond what is experienced in domestic exchange. For instance, the search costs of importers compared with domestic buyers will be considerably higher. Furthermore, transaction costs associated with travel, commercial risk and capital significantly exceed that of domestic exchange (Aulakh, Kotabe, 1997). Transaction volumes may be lower in B2B market, but the level of pricing complexity is considerably higher. Pricing has many more dimensions. There is not a single

list price or a single discounting step, but multiple types of discounts, additional pricing information for services and financing, complex contractual and channel pricing agreements, off-invoice rebates, and so on (Figure 1).

In B2B market the pricing problem involves a lot of dimensions making the search for an “optimal” price extremely difficult and perhaps irrelevant. “Improved” pricing means pricing more effectively, which not only benefits the bottom line, but also lies within the realm of the possible. While improving pricing in manufacturing is more complex and multifaceted than retail price optimization, the opportunity is just as great, and those who can capitalize ahead of their competitors and gain tremendous competitive advantage.

Factor	Retail	Business-to-Business
Transaction volume	High	Low to High
Pricing data	Accurate info	Many reside in many systems
Pricing calculation	Simple	Complex
Price authority	Centralized	Distributed, especially if sales team determines discounts
Pricing levels	Few	Many reside in many systems
Pace of change	Low	Medium to high

Figure 1. Key pricing factors in retail and business-to-business

### Distinguishing features of export pricing in business-to-business market

**Currency considerations.** As global sourcing of raw materials, components, and finished products has become routine practice, suppliers increasingly are compelled to consider pricing their products in non-domestic conditions. Industrial pricing schemes do not incorporate currency considerations explicitly, and industrial marketing and pricing literature are virtually void of any discussion pertaining to currency issues. Currency consideration in industrial pricing literature is a critical component of pricing that will gain importance as global competition among exporters intensifies and importers become more knowledgeable and demanding.

Export Evidence from international literature suggests that currency choice has become a critical consideration in securing exporting contracts and maintaining or increasing market share and profitability (Donnenfeld and Zilcha, 1991). The notion of working with stable prices during the purchase decision process demands that exports be priced in the buyer’s currency. Consequently, both exporters and importers seek to minimize their foreign exchange exposure to retain their company profit margins. The pursuit of a customer-oriented philosophy mandates that export currency convenience and simplicity will be negotiated. Export pricing is an inherently complex phenomenon, and the potential profits of a transaction can be wiped out by currency fluctuations. Other challenges also influence the negotiation of the terms of export transactions:

1. products might be used in unpredictable circumstances (e.g., climate, maintenance), and the firm can not account and price for every contingency.
2. Information regarding markets and customer’s

creditworthiness is not readily available or, if available at all, is expensive to obtain.

3. Long lead times (12 to 18 months) between order and delivery are common for larger and special orders such as machinery.
4. Importers may delay payment as long as possible, particularly for high-priced transactions.

Examples of these dyadic diseconomies are easily made. For instance, market volatility, particularly in the form of foreign currency volatility and inflation rates, are characteristics of economic fluctuations, which result in risk and uncertainty in overseas markets (Aulakh, Kotabe, 1997). Frequent volatility of currency rates suggests that exporters may find themselves benefiting from weak currency one month and struggling with an over-valued currency the next. These exporters must be vigilant in their pricing by concentrating on the market's ability to purchase during exchange rate fluctuations. It should be stated that according to cost based pricing theories the degree of market power and the discretion it confers on firms is to set prices as a mark-up on some (unit) cost base, with demand and the prices of competitors playing a minor role or none at all. It is important to emphasise the competition in "customer markets" which trade in differentiated products.

**Market share dynamic.** In a customer market, each firm has a *stock of customers*. Because of imperfect information and adjustment costs, customers tend to purchase from the same firm repeatedly. Since customers do not immediately switch to the firm with the lowest price, a price change will have a gradual effect to the customer stock. Thus the firm faces inelastic demand for its products in the short run, but in the long run the elasticity may be very large. The customer market model has interesting implications for the specification and estimation for export equation. It implies that the lag in adjustment of exports will not be the same with respect to all explanatory variables: a change in foreign market demand will have an immediate effect on exports while the effect of a price change takes time.

Long term contracts at known prices, plus the uncertainty in supply availability at the expected prices may very well prevent purchaser from switching suppliers. Besides, relative prices do not have always to go in the same direction. Thus, switching B2B partners may not lead to the desired and expected decreases.

Gottfries defines that the pricing decision is an investment problem. By charging a low price, the firm invests in the customer stock (market share) which affects future profits. This opens the possibility for financial factors to affect directly pricing decisions. Fitoussi and Phelps (1988) and Phelps (1994) have emphasized the role of interest rates for pricing decisions and Gottfries (1991) showed that if firms are financially constrained, markups will be countercyclical.

According to Gottfries (1999), it seems reasonable to allow the possibility that goods produced by different firms (in different countries) are imperfect substitutes. Then according to Halpern (2004) and Koren (2004) the elasticity of substitution for variants from the same country has to be greater than the elasticity of substitution for variants from different countries. But in globalization and the increased market accessibility goods tend to be very close substitutes to the goods produced in other countries as it is assumed by

Phelps and Winter. Thus the firm faces inelastic demand for its products in the short run, but in the long run the elasticity may be very large. So, setting export price must be evaluated possible effects to the stock of customers, because pricing is like an investment decision.

**Financial factors.** An important implication of customer market theory is that *financial factors* may affect prices. Financially constrained firms may be forced to set high prices although this has negative long run effects on the market share. According to Gottfries (1999), if a firm wants to borrow more money it will either have to convince the existing lenders to invest more money in that particular firm or convince new lenders to invest in the firm. Rising new outside capital implies a loss of control for those who currently control the firm. Thus, raising new capital is typically costly. When the firm is borrowing at a high rate, it is expected to raise the price so as to raise current profits and reduce borrowing, although this occurs at the expense of investment in the market share (Gottfries, 1999).

**Price predetermination.** Much macroeconomic theory about price and wage adjustment is based on the notion of infrequent price adjustment. There is also considerable microeconomic evidence that prices are not changed every week. Questionnaire studies such as Assarsson (1989) and Blinder (1998) suggest that firms typically change their prices once or twice per year. Thus it is essential to allow for prices being set in advance. If prices are predetermined they do not reflect the most recent information about costs, exchange rates etc.

The most common approach in the modern industrial-pricing literature is to derive price setting behaviour from imperfect competition assumptions, including perfect information. Standard results give prices as a mark-up above marginal cost. The size of the mark up can be determined by the elasticity of the demand. While this approach does not enable to introduce cost factors through assumptions about technology, demand pressure through its impact on the elasticity of demand, and the influence of competitors through cross-demand effects, but it has significant limitations of pricing behaviour. First, the approach is static and assumes that the decision-maker has full information about all relevant responses of customers and rivals. Given that the price-making firms are assumed to face stable and well-defined demand curves, given technology and other cost conditions, price is uniquely determined by the usual marginal conditions. This approach neglects the pricing strategies that arise in reacting to rival producers, the uncertainties in knowing consumer for the product, and the dynamics of how firms change prices over time. Martin (1992) defines industrial economics as covering everything with except of perfect competition. As standard international economics relies predominantly on perfect competition assumptions, the derived hypotheses are potentially inconsistent and the task of reconciliation is considerable.

A number of surveys have been carried out for UK and US manufacturing firms. Coutts and Norman (2001) using survey for the UK by Bank of England summarised the main findings of surveys:

1. Manufacturing firms install capacity on a scale that permits them to produce with spare capacity in most situations. Competitive pressure is insuffi-

cient to force them to lower prices until capacity is fully utilised.

2. The existence of spare capacity allows most demand changes to be accommodated by changing utilisation to adjust production, rather than to adjust prices. The response of price to demand changes associated with the business cycle is likely to be small. When they occur, price responses to demand changes may be asymmetric. Strong demand may result in rationing rather than “charging what the market will bear”. If the demand pressure is sustained, it may lead to higher prices, but also to a rise in investment to expand capacity. In conditions of low demand, firms may try to simulate sales and raise utilisation of capacity by cutting prices (e.g. sales, special offers). But if the fall in demand is prolonged, firms are under pressure to cut capacity (especially to reduce labour costs) in order to rebuilt profit margins at a lower level of output and capacity.
3. Firms are not the static creatures of elementary economic theory that set their location, product specification and technology once and for ever. They are constantly ready to implement some changes.

**Quality and price balance.** The concept of dynamic competitiveness focuses on technology and it relates to productivity of the leading country. According to Aiginger (1998) it is possible to use the unite value as complementary indicator for assessing the qualitative sides of competitiveness. It increases with quality, consumer evaluation, marketing, customer orientation and etc. Thus higher unite values immunize products from low cost competition. Firms and consequently countries climbing up the quality ladder can afford higher wages by offering higher quality. The unit value is complementary to technology indicators. It helps to evaluate the success of countries in this respect. If unit values reflect costs and the product is homogeneous, then countries with lower costs should be net exporters in quantities and countries with higher costs should be net importers. If a country is a net exporter in quantities despite the fact that it has higher unit values, then this must be due to quality differences. Using this is possible to split industries/goods into those which are dominated by price competition and those, with revealed quality competition.

The factors underlying competitiveness can be felled into two parts. One part is the cost side. The growth of export sector increases when a country’s costs and prices of exports are lower than its export competitors. On the other hand, the non-price competitiveness is usually expressed by qualitative factors in the export performance.

Quality Elastic Segments	Price Elastic Segments
Segment 1. Successful Quality Competition Trade Surplus in volume and Higher price	Segment 3. Successful Price Competition Trade Surplus in volume and Lower price
Segment 2. Structural Problem Area Trade Deficit in volume and Lower price	Segment 4. Deficit in Price Competition Trade Deficit in volume and Higher price

**Figure 2.** Market segments according to quality and price competitions (Aiginger, 1998).

Trade performance is likely to be sensitive to a lot of determinants. Some of them are directly concerned with the environment and economic situation. As the example may be used the unit labour cost, which is considered as a key determinant of the cost competitiveness. The other factors are referred to as „exogenous“. They are related to the economic and social climate.

Trade performance is evaluated according to the approach in which we use information on trade balance in quantities and „quality premium“. The evaluation of quality premium is carried out using the relative unite values defined as unit value of countries exports divided by unit value of its imports. Aiginger (1998) identifies four market segments according to quality and price competition (Figure 2):

- Segment 1 combines the industries in which exported quantity exceed imports despite a higher unit value. This has to be the consequence of a quality lead which is appreciated by demand or signals successful specialization in the dearest market segment. This sector is the very target for an advanced country (successful quality competition).
- Segment 2 is a hopeless sector. An industry runs a trade deficit despite low prices. In this sector there have to be some exit barriers (structural problem area).
- Segment 3 contains price elastic goods in which the home country has a low unit value. This sector yields a trade surplus (successful price competition).
- Segment 4 contains price elastic goods in which the home country has a high unit value and consequently faces a trade deficit. Industries in this sector have lost price competitiveness in a market in which prices are important. This part of the deficit can said to be the consequence of high production costs (deficit in price competitiveness).

This classification is a country specific; the same industry at least theoretically can be in different sectors in different countries. A country with high costs is well prepared for future competition, if a large part of its industry is located in the sector where high unit values are consistent with an export surplus.

The key determinants expected to reduce the selling prices and increase competitiveness are:

- *a lower unit labour cost* which can be the result of a high labour productivity and low labour cost per employee;
- *a free access to the foreign markets*, which could be reinforced by eliminating trade barriers, non-trade barriers, minimizing the degree of market collusion, and finally increasing the transparency of information systems on the foreign markets.
- *restructuring of the labour market*, intensifying the degree of competition, stimulating mobility of employees between sectors and regions, reducing tax rate on capital and labour income, investing more on education and human qualifications.

### Export pricing in furniture industry

**Export pricing variables.** The results of investigation of popular in upholstery furniture production upholstery fabrics prices are presented in Table 1. Research has been done of 7 firms selling 100% PES microsuede fabric.

Upholstery fabric (microsuede) sale conditions in B2B, 2007 (EUR)

Company	Location	Product quality		Price	Min order	Availability	Delivery	Payment terms
		Colors	Width, m					
Company A	Spain	49	1,6	2,95 EUR	50 m	4 weeks	7 days	60 days after INV date
Company B	Spain	Any	1,6	3,00 EUR	No	2 weeks	7 days	30 days after INV date
Company C	Belgium	65	1,52	1,20 EUR	No	8 weeks	2 days	30 days after INV date
Company D	China	Any	1,55-1,65	1,00 \$	500 m	20 days	30-40 days	100% prepayment
Company E	Poland	20	1,6-1,62	1,18 EUR	1000 m	4 weeks	1 day	14 days after INV date
Company F	Israel	15	1,55-1,65	1,69 \$	No	8 weeks	30-35 days	100% prepayment

To determine what are the most important variables in B2B pricing managers were asked to consider the relative importance of 8 different variables which define the price of the same products offers from different suppliers.

Seeking to evaluate the relative importance of separate price offers elements, buying managers were questioned. Managers' responses to the question "consider the relative importance of each of the following elements in making decision to buy" were revised. The most important element has been ranked with 1 and the least important with 8. The results of this questioning are shown in Table 2.

Table 2

#### The relative importance of pricing to export managers

Category	Mean	Rank
Company / Brand	7.4	8
Assortment	4.9	5
Product quality (technical data)	1.4	1
Price	2.3	2
Min order requirements	5.8	7
Availability	3.9	3
Delivery terms	4.8	4
Payment terms	5.5	6

According to the research data managers consider pricing to be one of the most important element in the decision making process with only product quality (technical data) being given a higher priority than pricing. After these the other elements are ranked: goods availability, delivery terms, goods assortment, payment terms, minimum quantity requirements and the company name or brand.

**Currency considerations.** Fluctuation of USA dollar exchange rates changes the situation in the market making supplier's from China and Israel positions stronger or weaker (Figure 3).

100% PES fabric (microsuede) sales price in B2B market  
2007 year data (EUR)

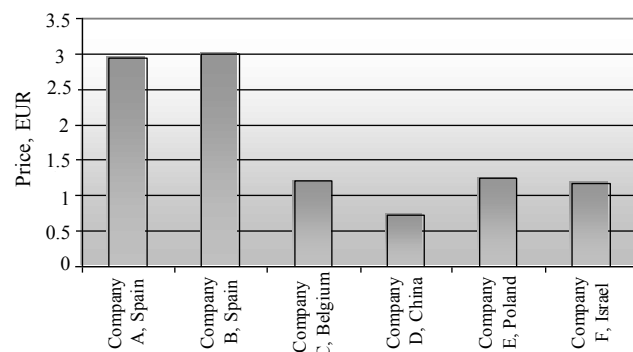


Figure 3. Suppliers offers for upholstery fabric price in EUR (2007 April data)

**Market share dynamic.** Market globalization, international standards for fabric technical information description, colours according to International Pantone – all this help producers from different countries produce very similar fabrics which might easily be changed into other supplier's products. So it is possible to assume, that upholstery fabrics in B2B market are perfect substitutes. But the existence of big price difference shows, that there is no perfect information in the market. It helps for the suppliers to have different price levels for the same products. Consequently, customers do not immediately switch to the supplier with the lowest price in the market, but tend to purchase from the same firm repeatedly and changes in the market may be done in the longer run.

**Financial factors.** Financial factors affect not only the final price of fabric, but also influence to the terms of payment. For buyers the terms of payment are very important, because it makes direct influence to buyer's flows of money. Also great influence has minimum required quantity (Table 3).

Table 3

#### The frequency of price setting for upholstery fabric, 2002-2007 (1st quarter) data

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007 (1-IV)
Company A, Spain	3.25 EUR	3.20 EUR	3.10 EUR	3.00 EUR	2.95 EUR	2.95 EUR
Company B, Spain	No sales	3.20 EUR	3.00 EUR	3.00 EUR	3.00 EUR	3.00 EUR
Company C, Belgium	No sales	1.60 EUR	1.50 EUR	1.20 EUR	1.2 EUR	1.2 EUR
Company D, China	No sales	No sales	1.30 \$	1.30 \$	1.16 \$	0.9 \$
Company E, Poland	No sales	No sales	No sales	1.00 EUR	1.18 EUR	1.18 EUR
Company F, Israel	No sales	No sales	1.69 \$	1.69 \$	1.69 \$	1.69 \$

**The frequency of price setting.** As we can see from the Table 3, prices in B2B market tend to be predetermined. Price changes in companies A and C were made once per year, company B reviewed price during certain circumstances (company enlargement), company F kept the same price level (Table 3).

**Quality and price balance.** It is essential to find the optimum composition of price and quality of certain goods. As analysis had proved, 100% PES fabric called "microsuede" has very similar technical characteristics from all suppliers. They conform to the standards of such quality fabrics. For upholstery furniture producers are important these points:

- the quality checks system in supplier's warehouse;
- refund system in case of inferior quality fabric de-

livery;

- the real width of fabrics: does it tend to change with deliveries;
- availability of standard colours and fabrics;
- period of transportation time, costs of transportation.

## Conclusions

Pricing in B2B market is very complex, but it can help to go ahead of competitors and gain tremendous competitive advantage.

In B2B market the pricing problem involves a lot of dimensions making the search for an “optimal” price extremely difficult and perhaps irrelevant.

The customer market model implies that the pricing decision is an investment problem. In globalization and with the increased market accessibility goods produced in one country tend to be very close substitutes for the goods produced in other countries. Thus, the firm faces inelastic demand for its products in the short run, but in the long run the elasticity may be very large.

Financially constrained firms may be forced to set higher prices although this has negative long run effects on the market share.

In B2B market prices tend to be predetermined. They do not reflect the newest information about costs, exchange rates, etc.

The relative importance of pricing was detected after the survey of furniture business managers on 8 different elements of the standard offer to buy upholstery fabric. The results of the survey of upholstery fabric pricing in furniture industry show that stock of customers, financial factors, frequency of price setting, quality and price balance are most important for export price formation in business-to-business market. Companies which have higher fabrics price in the market still have their customers, because of their fabrics better availability, variety of colours, good payment terms.

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## Eksperto kainodara verslas-verslui aplinkoje

Santrauka

Kaina tiesiogiai veikia galimą gauti įmonės pelno dalį, todėl mokslininkai pagrįstas jos nustatymas tampa labai aktualus.

Šiame straipsnyje nagrinėjama eksporto kainodara bei išskirtiniai eksporto kainodaros elementai verslas-verslui aplinkoje.

Kainodara verslas-verslui aplinkoje bei mažmeninėje rinkoje turi tuos pačius tikslus, tačiau pačios kainodaros kompleksiskumas skiriasi. Keletas kainodaros modelių buvo sukurta remiantis valiutos kurso pokyčiais; tai Clague, Grossfield (1974) bei Choi (1986) darbai. Pasak Walters (1989), tarptautinė kainodara yra neatsiejamai susijusi su transferine kainodara (Al-Eriani, 1990; Arpan, 1973). Gottfries (1999) pasiūlė struktūrinę kainos ir kiekio modelį, kurį sukūrė, nagrinėdamas Švedijos eksporto kainodarą 1972 - 1996 metais. Pasaulinė įtaka gaminamų prekių kainoms buvo tirta Coutts ir Norman (2002). Hall, Walsh ir Yates (1997) tyrė kainodaros nustatymo principus, remiantis 654 D.Britanijos įmonių apklausos rezultatais.

**Tyrimo tikslas** – išskirti pagrindinius eksporto kainodaros aspektus verslas-verslui aplinkoje ir išskirti jos taikymo ypatumus.

**Tyrimo objektas** – eksporto kainodara verslas-verslui aplinkoje.

Kainodaros sudėtingumas labai daug priklauso ne tik nuo prekių ar paslaugų tipo, bet ir nuo sąlygų rinkoje. Labai svarbu išskirti kainodarą, taikomą mažmenoje, ir kainodarą verslas-verslui aplinkoje, kai galutinis prekės ar produkto vartotojas yra įmonė. Pasak Swartz (2003), abu kainodaros tipai turi tuos pačius tikslus – didesnę prekių pelningumą, siekimą užimti didesnę rinkos dalį bei norą būti konkurentiškam, tačiau

verlas-verslui aplinkoje kainodara reikalauja detalaus strategijos numatymo. Moriarty (1983), Heide bei Jonh (1990) išskyrė šiuos pagrindinius bruožus kainodaros verlas-verslui aplinkoje:

- sprendimas pirkti priimamas grupėje;
- sprendimas pirkti turi būti priimtas įsitikinus, kad tenkins skirtingų suinteresuotų grupių organizacijoje poreikius bei tikslus;
- suformuojami pasiūlymai pirkti, sudaromi kontraktai, nustatomos kainos ir t.t. T.y. ši savybė yra būdinga tik verlas-verslui aplinkoje;
- verlas-verslui aplinkoje susiduriama su didesne sprendimo priėmimo rizika nei individualaus sprendimo pirkti priėmimo metu.

Verlas-verslui aplinkoje kainodara apima daugelio veiksnių įvertinimą, o tada tampa labai sunku nustatyti „optimalią“ prekę kainą.

Išskirtiniai nagrinėjami eksporto kainodaros bruožai verlas-verslui aplinkoje yra: valiutos pasirinkimo svarba, rinkos dydis, esanti įmonės finansiniai įsipareigojimai, kainos keitimo/peržiūrėjimo dažnumas, prekių kainos ir kokybės santykis.

Valiutos pasirinkimas pateikiant komercinį pasiūlymą verlas-verslui rinkoje yra vertinamas kaip labai svarbus veiksnys, galintis veikti būsimos sandėrio pelningumą bei užimamą rinkos dalį.

Dėl globalizacijos proceso daugelis prekių turi analogus, gaminamus įvairiose šalyse. Tačiau dėl informacijos trūkumo trumpuoju laikotarpiu pirkėjai yra linkę pirkti tos pačios firmos produkciją, t.y. firmos susiduria su neelastinga paklausa. Tačiau ilguoju laikotarpiu paklausos elastingumas gali būti labai didelis. Todėl susiduriama su tokia situacija – užsienio rinkoje bet koks paklausos pasikeitimas iš karto veikia eksporto apimtį, tuo tarpu kainos pasikeitimo poveikis juntamas ne iš karto. Gottfries (1999) kainodaros sprendimus prilygina investicijoms – žemų kainų politika - tai kaip investicija į rinką ir jos dydį, kuris veiks būsimus įmonės pelnus. Todėl kainodara yra vertinama kaip investicinis sprendimas duodantis rezultatus ateityje.

Finansinių įsipareigojimų turinčios įmonės gali būti priverstos nustatyti aukštesnes kainas nei įsipareigojimų neturinčios. Ilguoju laikotarpiu tai taip pat gali neigiamai veikti užimamą rinkos dalį.

Verlas-verslui aplinkoje kainos nustatomos iš anksto tam tikram laikotarpiui, todėl jos iš tiesų neatspindi naujausios informacijos apie kaštų, valiutos kursų ir kt. pasikeitimus. Pagal tyrimo, atlikto Assarsson (1989) ir Blinder (1998), rezultatus galime teigti, kad įmonės dažniausiai kainas keičia 1-2 kartus per metus. Todėl labai svarbu prieš nustatant kainas iš anksto įvertinti galimas būsimas išlaidas.

Coutts and Norman (2001) atliko D.Britanijos Banko tyrimų D.Britanijos bei JAV gamyklose apibendrinimą ir priėjo prie šių išvadų:

1. Gamyba užsiimančios įmonės susikuria tokius gamybinius pajėgumus, kad sustiprėjusi konkurencija rinkoje nepajėgia jų priversti nuleisti produkcijos kainas tol, kol nėra panaudoti visi įmonės pajėgumai.
2. Nepanaudoti gamybiniai pajėgumai leidžia prisiderinti prie paklausos pokyčių. Gamintojai yra linkę verčiau keisti gamybos apimtį nei keisti kainų politiką. Išaugus paklausai ilguoju laikotarpiu, kainų lygis gali pakilti. Tai taip pat gali veikti didesnį poreikį investicijoms į gamybos pajėgumų plėtrą. Jei yra maža prekių paklausa trumpuoju laikotarpiu, įmonės gali siekti padidinti pardavimus, sumažindamos prekių kainas ir dalyvaudamos išpardavimuose bei akcijose. Bet jei paklausa sumažėja ilguoju laikotarpiu, įmonės yra priverstos mažinti gamybinius pajėgumus (ypač sumažinti darbo jėgos kaštus) ir grąžinti ankstesnę pelno normą esant mažesniems gamybiniais pajėgumams.
3. Įmonės nėra statiški ir nekintantys ekonomikos elementai. Jos keičia technologijas, gaminamos produkcijos savybes ir net savo geografinę vietą.

Pasak Aiginger (1998), prekių kainos ir kokybės santykis parodo galimybes konkuruoti pasirenkant kainą ar kokybę kaip lemiamą ir

išskirtinį veiksnių. Tada aukštesnės vertės prekė nesusidurs su žemo kokybinio lygio ar žemos kainos konkurencija.

Konkurencingumą veikiančius veiksnius galima suskirstyti į 2 dalis. Viena dalis yra kaštai. Kita dalis - nekaininė konkurencija, kuri pagrįsta kokybiniais rodikliais.

Tarptautinė prekyba priklauso nuo daugelio veiksnių. Kai kurie jų yra tiesiogiai susiję su aplinka ir ekonomine situacija. Pavyzdžiui, darbo jėgos kaštai. Kiti veiksniai susiję su ekonominiu ir socialiniu šalies klimatu.

Tarptautinė prekyba gali būti vertinama remiantis eksportuotų prekių kiekiu ir prekių verte ar kokybe. Aiginger (1998) išskiria keturis rinkos segmentus, remiantis kokybės ir kainos santykiu:

- 1 segmentas. Nepaisant aukštesnių prekių kainų, eksportuotų prekių kiekis viršija importuotų prekių kiekį. Tokia situacija gali būti, jei yra aukšta prekių kokybė bei tinkamai pasirinkta veiklos specializacija.
- 2 segmentas. Kai, nepaisant žemų produkcijos kainų, yra fiksuojamas prekybos deficitas, tai iškyla struktūrinė problema. Tikėtina, kad šiame sektoriuje esančios įmonės susiduria su tam tikrais išėjimo iš rinkos barjerais.
- 3 segmentas. Sėkminga kainos konkurencija – tai žemos kainos ir eksportuotų prekių kiekis, viršijantis importuotų prekių kiekį.
- 4 segmentas. Aukštos produkcijos kainos ir tarptautinės prekybos deficitas. Tokia situacija gali susidaryti, kai susiduriama su aukštais gamybos kaštais.

Ši klasifikacija yra gana specifinė, nes ta pati pramonės šaka net ir teoriškai gali priklausyti keliems segmentams. Šalis su aukštais gamybos kaštais gali būti konkurencinga, jei didžioji dalis jos pramonės įmonių yra išsidėsčiusios segmente, kur, nepaisant aukštų produkcijos gamybos kaštų, yra pastebimas eksporto perteklius.

Pagrindiniai veiksniai, galintys sumažinti produkcijos kainas ir padidinti konkurencingumą, yra:

- Žemesni darbo jėgos kaštai;
- Laisva rinka – tai tarifinių ir netarifinių prekybos barjerų pašalinimas;
- Darbo rinkos suformavimas – darbuotojų mobilumo tarp sektorių ir regionų didinimas, investavimas į mokslą bei darbuotojų kvalifikacijos kėlimą.

Siekiant išskirti svarbiausius eksporto kainodaros elementus verlas-verslui aplinkoje, buvo apklausti baldų pramonėje pirkimo sprendimus priimančios vadybininkai prašant įvertinti pirkimo pasiūlymo elementų svarbą apsisprendžiant pirkti baldinį audinį. Atlikto tyrimo rezultatai parodė, kad vadybininkai kainą priskiria prie svarbiausių po prekės techninių savybių ir charakteristikų elementui. Tyrimas taip pat parodė, kad pirkimo pasiūlymo patrauklumas priklauso nuo pasirinktos sandėrio valiutos, nes po tam tikro laiko gali būti patirta nuostolių dėl valiutos kurso pokyčių.

Globalizacijos procesas nulėmė, kad tas pats baldinis audinys gali būti gaminamas skirtingose šalyse. Tačiau skirtinga siūloma gaminio kaina įrodo, kad informacija rinkoje yra ribota ir nepasiekia visų rinkos dalyvių. Galiausiai kainos ir kokybės santykis padeda atsirinkti pasiūlymus ir priimti galutinį sprendimą.

Kainodara verlas-verslui aplinkoje yra labai daug veiksnių įvertinimo reikalaujantis procesas, tačiau kartu tai yra ir galingas konkurencinės kovos ginklas. Mūsų siūlomas požiūris į eksporto kainodarą verlas-verslui aplinkoje siūlo atsižvelgti ir įvertinti svarbiausius elementus priimant kainos sprendimus - valiutos pasirinkimo svarbą, galimą rinkos dydį, esamus įmonės finansinius įsipareigojimus, kainos keitimo ar peržiūrėjimo galimybę bei prekių kainos ir kokybės santykį.

Raktažodžiai: *eksporto kainodara, kainodara verlas-verslui aplinkoje, eksporto kainodaros elementai.*

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