

THE ATTITUDINAL INFLUENCE OF THE  
INTERACTION OF STATUS AND  
GENDER IN THE NONVERBAL  
ASPECTS OF A SALES  
PRESENTATION

By

DEBRA ANN HALEY

Bachelor of Science  
Kansas Newman College  
Wichita, Kansas  
1975

Master of Business Administration  
Emporia State University  
Emporia, Kansas  
1979

Submitted to the Faculty of the  
Graduate College of the  
Oklahoma State University  
in partial fulfillment of  
the requirements for the Degree of  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY  
December, 1986

Thesis  
1986D  
H168a  
Copied



THE ATTITUDINAL INFLUENCE OF THE  
INTERACTION OF STATUS AND  
GENDER IN THE NONVERBAL  
ASPECTS OF A SALES  
PRESENTATION

Thesis approved:

*James W. Denton*

Thesis Adviser

*John C. Mowen*

*Raymond P. Fisk*

*D. Dennis Middlemist*

*Norman N. Dunham*

Dean of the Graduate College

Copyright

by

Debra Ann Haley

1986

## PREFACE

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of nonverbal cues on a consumer's perception of the product and how those cues affect their attitude toward the salesperson. In addition, the appropriateness of the cues and the inherent sexual stereotyping as to cultural norms was an issue that needed to be examined as well. This work and the resulting contributions of this study would not have been completed without the aid of a good number of people who offered their encouragement, support and expertise in a number of areas.

My thanks to my dissertation committee Dr. James W. Gentry (adviser), Dr. John C. Mowen, Dr. Dennis Middlemist, and Dr. Raymond Fisk for their expertise and commitment to a quality dissertation. Special thanks to Dr. Robert Greer for his helpful advice on this work and other work in progress. My appreciation, in particular, to Jim Gentry for his speedy turnarounds and for the numerous comments on the earliest, roughest, and most incomplete drafts. The diverse viewpoints of the

committee members improved the quality of this dissertation considerably and the research skills that were developed in this cutting edge work (with few trails to follow) should serve me well in the years ahead.

A number of people here at the University of Northern Iowa deserve recognition for their support. My thanks to Dr. Steve Corbin and Dr. Bob Waller for their unceasing support and encouragement. My appreciation, also, to Dr. John C. Downey, Dean of the Graduate College, for the financial resources that were needed for this study. My thanks, too, to the word processing staff who labored over the tedious details and dozens of rough drafts, deciphering scribbles while following a maze of arrows and all the while hoping this draft would be the last one ... to Jill Lindeman and Sue Bartine.

Finally, to my personal support team, the folks who've seen me through the hills and valleys of some most trying times. My very special thanks to the duo, Dr. Dennis Clayson and Dr. James Handorf, who helped me maintain my sanity, reminded me of the funny side of life (the molehills I saw as insurmountable mountains) and with their insights gave new meaning to the word "perspective." My thanks to Madaline Harding for faith "in the things we cannot see." And most of all, my thanks to Mom and Dad ... for believing in me.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
Nonverbal Communication--Relevant Dimensions	2
Recent Research in Marketing . . . . .	3
Gender and Nonverbal Expressions of Status .	4
Attitude Towards the Product . . . . .	5
Methodology . . . . .	5
Plan of the Dissertation . . . . .	7
II. LITERATURE REVIEW . . . . .	8
Introduction and Overview of Topic . . . . .	8
Nonverbal Communication--An Overview . . . . .	9
Origins . . . . .	10
Classification Schema . . . . .	13
Single vs. Multiple Cues . . . . .	15
Importance of NVC in a Multiple Channel	19
Psychological Dimensions of NVC . . . . .	21
Evaluative/Attitude Dimension . . . . .	22
Status Dimension . . . . .	24
Operationalization of Status Variable .	26
Recent Nonverbal Research in Marketing . . . . .	27
Hulbert and Capon - Nonverbal Signs . . . . .	30
Schul and Lamb - Empirical Study . . . . .	32
Leigh - Industrial Buyers' Perception . . . . .	34
Gender and Nonverbal Expressions of Status .	35
Nonverbal Leadership Cues . . . . .	36
Gender and Deference . . . . .	39
Attractiveness . . . . .	41
Attitude Towards the Product . . . . .	44
Relationship Between NVC and Attitude	
Towards the Product . . . . .	44
Balance Theory . . . . .	45
Other Issues . . . . .	50

Chapter	Page
Summary . . . . .	52
Nonverbal Status Cues . . . . .	52
Gender of Salesperson . . . . .	52
Balance Theory . . . . .	53
Research Question . . . . .	53
General Hypothesis . . . . .	54
 III. METHODOLOGY AND ANALYSIS . . . . .	 55
Overview of Methodology . . . . .	55
Research Design . . . . .	56
Sex of Salesperson . . . . .	56
Status Cues . . . . .	56
Sex of Respondents . . . . .	58
Pretesting . . . . .	58
Attractiveness of Salesperson . . . . .	59
Videotape Pretesting for Equivalent Attractiveness . . . . .	59
Analysis of Pretest Attractiveness . . . . .	62
Nonverbal Status Cues . . . . .	63
Appearance . . . . .	70
Other Controlled Variables . . . . .	70
Scene/Environment . . . . .	70
Type of Product . . . . .	70
Script . . . . .	72
Procedures . . . . .	74
Selection Biases . . . . .	79
Disguising the Study . . . . .	80
Overview of Analysis . . . . .	80
Reliability . . . . .	82
Factor Analysis of the Entire Instrument . . . . .	83
Unidimensionality . . . . .	88
Manipulation Checks . . . . .	93
Analysis of Independent Variables . . . . .	94
Credibility Construct . . . . .	97
Attractiveness . . . . .	99
Status . . . . .	100
Respondent's Perception of Salesperson's View of Product . . . . .	102
Discussion of Manipulation Checks . . . . .	102
Analysis of Dependent Variables . . . . .	104
Discussion of Research Question . . . . .	104
Attitude of Consumer Toward Salesperson . . . . .	108
Intention to Purchase Product . . . . .	108
Product Quality Perception . . . . .	109
Attitude Toward the Product . . . . .	110



Chapter	Page
Covariate Analysis . . . . .	111
Purchase Intention . . . . .	112
Perception of Product Quality. . . . .	114
Consumer's Perception of Product . . . . .	115
Summary of Most Significant Effects . . . . .	117
Status . . . . .	118
Sex of the Salesperson . . . . .	118
Sex of the Respondents . . . . .	119
Interaction Effects . . . . .	119
Subsequent Follow-up Study . . . . .	120
IV. FOLLOW-UP STUDY . . . . .	121
Introduction to Study #2 . . . . .	122
Overview of Analysis - Study #2 . . . . .	123
Reliability . . . . .	123
Factor Analysis of Entire Instrument . . . . .	124
Unidimensionality - Study #2 . . . . .	130
Manipulation Checks . . . . .	134
Analysis of Manipulation Check. . . . .	135
Credibility Construct . . . . .	135
Attractiveness . . . . .	139
Status Construct . . . . .	141
Respondent's Perception of Sales - Person's View of the Product . . . . .	143
Discussion of Manipulation Checks . . . . .	145
Analysis of Dependent Variables . . . . .	147
Attitude of Consumer Toward Salesperson . . . . .	149
Intention to Purchase Product . . . . .	151
Product Quality . . . . .	152
Attitude Toward the Product . . . . .	153
Liking the Product . . . . .	154
Covariance Analysis . . . . .	155
Purchase Intention . . . . .	160
Product Quality . . . . .	161
Attitude Toward Product . . . . .	162
Discussion of Most Significant Findings . . . . .	163
V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS . . . . .	166
Introduction . . . . .	166
Purpose of the Study . . . . .	166

Chapter	Page
Limitations of the Study . . . . .	169
Levels of Cues Utilized . . . . .	169
Unintentional Comparison Basis . . . . .	170
Consumer's Perception of the S-->P Link	171
Issue of Credibility Status . . . . .	171
Further Analysis . . . . .	172
Guidance for Future Research in	
NVC studies . . . . .	172
Implications . . . . .	176
 SELECTIVE BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	 180
 APPENDIXES . . . . .	 188
APPENDIX A - SCRIPTS FOR STUDY #1 . . . . .	188
APPENDIX B - QUESTIONNAIRE . . . . .	194
APPENDIX C - FACTOR ANALYSIS . . . . .	197
APPENDIX D - MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS	
- STUDY #1 . . . . .	200
APPENDIX E - SCRIPT FOR INTRO VIDEOTAPE	
- STUDY #2 . . . . .	212
APPENDIX F - MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS	
- STUDY #2 . . . . .	215

## LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. The Units of Analysis Method: Two Examples	17
2. Nonverbal Communications and Psychological Dimensions . . . . .	23
3. Henley's Summary of Status and Power Gestures . . . . .	28
4. Mean Ratings in Pretest Analysis of Attractiveness . . . . .	64
5. Nonverbal Cues to be Used . . . . .	66
6. Semantic Differential Scales for Rating Nonverbal Cues . . . . .	69
7. Analysis of Script . . . . .	73
8. Constructs . . . . .	76
9. Factor Loading Using Varimax Rotation . . . . .	84
10. Varimax Rotation of Two Factors --> Study #1 . . . . .	87
11. Principle Component Analysis . . . . .	89
12. Varimax Rotation of Status --> Study #1 . . . . .	91
13. Manipulation Checks of Independent Variables - Study #1 . . . . .	95
14. Dependent Variables Table of Significance . . . . .	106
15. Analysis of Covariance - Study #1 . . . . .	113
16. Factor Loading Using Varimax Rotation - Study #2 . . . . .	125
17. Varimax Rotation of Two Factors - Study #2 . . . . .	129

Table		Page
18.	Principle Component Analysis - Study #2 . .	131
19.	Varimax Rotation of Attractiveness & Status - Study #2 . . . . .	133
20.	Manipulation Checks of Independent Variables - Study #2 . . . . .	136
21.	Dependent Variables Table of Significance - Study #2 . . . . .	148
22.	Analysis of Covariance - Study #2 . . . . .	156

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
A. A Balanced Triad . . . . .	45
B. Relationship Between New Product's Attributes and Endorser's NVC . . . . .	47
C. Change Toward Balance Within Existing Unbalanced Sentiment and Unit Relations . . . . .	49
D. Research Design 2 X 2 X 2 . . . . .	57
E. Videotape Combinations: Nonverbal Cues . . . . .	67

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The use of nonverbal cues in decision making and in the evaluation of a product, idea or service has been discussed in the popular literature for some time now. It is only recently that marketers have begun to examine seriously the impact of nonverbal cues in an effort to increase the predictability of exchange transactions in marketing and enhance communications between the marketer and his/her target segment (Hulbert and Capon 1972; Schul and Lamb 1982). Studying nonverbal communication cues may improve benefit segmentation in situations involving sensory, emotional, and affiliative benefits. Haley (1983) suggests that unless progress is made in developing research methods and measurement tools in nonverbal communication, further significant improvements in strategic research are unlikely.

A large number of nonverbal cues may be utilized in marketing transactions today. Haley (1983, 1984) is currently identifying the key nonverbal areas involved in television commercials and developing efficient ways to measure them. Although many nonverbal cues exist, it is important to limit this study to the manipulation of

a few important variables in order to examine their impact on advertising and personal selling. The premise of this study is that the analysis of the nonverbal aspects of a sales presentation by a salesperson will provide additional insight into a consumer's utilization of nonverbal cues as a component of the decision-making process.

The rest of the chapter will:

- 1) examine the relevant dimensions in nonverbal communications,
- 2) briefly review the recent nonverbal research in marketing,
- 3) review the relevant studies on the interaction between gender and nonverbal expressions of status,
- 4) address the relationship between the consumer's attitude towards the product and a salesperson's nonverbal cues, and
- 5) provide an overview of the methodology utilized in this study.

#### Nonverbal Communications- Relevant Dimensions

Extensive research in psychology by Mehrabian (1972, 1981) has identified two psychological dimensions, status and evaluation, for analyzing communications that have the most immediate

applicability to marketing. Status (one of the two dimensions) will be manipulated in this study in an attempt to discern its impact on the dependent variable--attitude towards the product. Status is likely to vary in a transaction in which customers are scarce and the product is one of high involvement (Bonoma and Zaltman 1979).

### Recent Research in Marketing

One of the first marketing works to address nonverbal aspects (Hulbert and Capon 1972) identified nonverbal categories and suggested a theoretical model of interpersonal communication to enhance marketing research. However, this study did not suggest a tool by which existing empirical relationships in verbal and nonverbal behavior might be examined. This task was undertaken by Bonoma and Felder (1977), but there still was no empirical research concerning the nonverbal aspects in marketing. It was left to Schul and Lamb (1982) to examine a multiple channel (verbal and nonverbal aspects) in an empirical marketing study. This study supported other researchers' findings (Havis, Rozelle, Baxter and Kimble 1981; Mehrabian 1972, 1981) that the nonverbal communication being transmitted is weighted more heavily than the verbal message. The question of which dimension of nonverbal communication



explains the most variance in personal selling and advertising is still unknown.

### Gender and Nonverbal Expressions of Status

Sexual stereotyping is another factor likely to influence nonverbal behavior. Status or power gestures for one sex may be inappropriate for the opposite sex and such behavior may be punished when nonverbal cues inappropriate to that sex are emitted (Costrich, Feinstein, Kidder and Pascale 1975; Faranda 1980; Feather and Simon 1975; Porter and Geis 1981; Siegfried and Hendrick 1973). Sexual stereotyping may be such an ingrained part of our social fabric that nonverbal cues appropriate to a male salesperson (and utilized successfully in a personal selling situation) may be rejected when presented by a female salesperson and vice versa. Henley (1977) and Mayo and Henley (1981) suggest that many high status cues are appropriate when emitted by men, but inappropriate when emitted by women.

If, as Bonoma and Zaltman (1979) suggest, low status cues are appropriate when customers are scarce and the product is highly involving and if, as Henley and Mayo (1981) suggest, low status cues are predominantly appropriate for females, then the gender

of the salesperson may be an important nonverbal cue that interacts with the psychological dimension of status. This issue has not been addressed in any empirical marketing study.

#### Attitude Towards the Product

Heider's (1958) balance theory will be utilized as the theoretical basis from which to examine the consumer's attitude toward the product. High or low status cues will be emitted by the salesperson in order to examine the nonverbal effects on the consumer's attitude toward the product presented. In addition, other measures of the consumer's perception of the salesperson's attitude toward the product as well as the consumer's attitude toward the salesperson will be assessed. Other dependent variables will include endorser effectiveness, intention to purchase, attitude toward the salesperson, and perceived product quality.

#### Methodology

This study employs a 2 X 2 X 2 full factorial, between subjects experiment in order to assess the impact of nonverbal status cues and gender on the consumer's attitude toward the product and the salesperson. A videotaped sales presentation, similar to a television commercial, will be utilized. This approach allows the researcher to manipulate the

independent variables in a controlled setting. A student sample was used because of the exploratory nature and its theory-testing application.

Four videotapes were developed, two featuring a female salesagent and two featuring a male salesagent. One high-status cue or one low-status cue videotape of a male or a female salesperson will be presented to the student subjects. Thus the variables to be examined are:

- 1) sex of salesperson (male or female), and
- 2) status cues (high or low).

By manipulating the independent variables in the study this way, gaps in the literature are addressed and the applicability of Mehrabian's (1972, 1981) nonverbal status dimension to marketing will be examined.

Mehrabian (1972, 1981) developed a semantic differential scale to examine the difference between high and low status cues. This instrument will be administered during the pre-tests in order to assure that there is a significant difference in the cues emitted. In order to avoid confounding the variables, pretesting the attractiveness of the salesperson will be conducted to assure equivalent attractiveness of both (male and female).

The primary dependent variables to be examined are the consumer's attitude toward the product and attitude toward the salesperson.

## Plan of the Dissertation

The rest of this dissertation is organized into five chapters. Chapter II presents a conceptual overview of nonverbal communication and the subsequent development of the relevant psychological dimensions, recent marketing literature involving nonverbal aspects, the theoretical basis for the interaction of gender, and the nonverbal expressions of status. Chapter III presents the experimental design of the study, the pretests of the variables, the procedures and instruments used in gathering the data and results of the first study. Chapter IV will present the analysis of the data of the follow-up study, and Chapter V the implications, limitations, and suggested directions for future research.

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### Introduction and Overview of Topic

Nonverbal cues in a personal selling or advertising situation have long been believed to be important in a consumer's evaluation (Schramm 1955). Indeed, strong evidence exists to support the hypothesis that nonverbal effects are important (Haley 1983). Nonverbal cues have been used to confirm or deny the spoken message (Argyle 1971; Mehrabian 1972, 1981) and other studies have found the nonverbal message being transmitted is weighted more heavily than the verbal message (Havis, Rozelle, Baxter and Kimble 1981; Mehrabian 1972; Schul and Lamb 1982).

It has been suggested in situations involving sensory, emotional, or affiliative benefits that the nonverbal effects may well be more important than the verbal and cognitive effects with which marketers have traditionally dealt in advertising, planning, and copy testing activities (Haley 1983). Because the nonverbal aspects through which commercials affect us have not been systematically enumerated, it is not surprising that marketers have no ready-made instruments to measure the effects (Haley 1983).

In order to clearly understand what needs to be done, it is necessary to examine the contributions to the nonverbal aspects from other disciplines--most notably psychology. Chapter II will:

- 1) present an overview of nonverbal communication--origins and classification schema;
- 2) discuss the emergence of the predominant psychological dimensions, status and evaluation, as developed by Mehrabian (1972, 1981) and develop the status variable as a central construct for this study;
- 3) review the recent nonverbal research in marketing and discuss the limitations of these works;
- 4) discuss the importance of gender (sex stereotypes) and the interaction of this variable with status;
- 5) examine the consumer's attitude toward the product (using balance theory) and the consumer's utilization of nonverbal cues as it affects the decision making process.

#### Nonverbal Communication--An Overview

The term "nonverbal" has many meanings. An examination of its earliest origins, the presentation of a generally recognized classification schema, a

discussion of the importance of single cue vs. multiple cue studies, and a review of the basic methodologies employed will provide an appropriate background to further develop this topic.

### Origins

Research in nonverbal communication (NVC) has been undertaken in a number of disciplines. Some of the earliest contributions in NVC emanated from Darwin's (1872) The Expression of Emotion in Man and Animals. This work has been very influential in the modern study of facial expressions. In addition, Efron's (1941) Gesture and Environment examined innovative ways of studying body language and the role culture plays in shaping our gestures and then constructed a framework for classifying nonverbal behaviors which influence researchers today.

Anthropologists such as Birdwhistell (1952) and Hall (1959) also have made contributions in the NVC literature. Birdwhistell suggested a typology to examine body motion and was mainly interested in specifying the intensity, duration, and range of movements of body parts as a part of nonverbal communication. Hall (1959) discussed proxemics and was one of the first researchers to examine the problems of communication between members of different cultures. He discussed the "territorial" bounds with which members

from different cultures feel comfortable. For example, someone from a Latin background may try to get physically closer to an American executive in a business presentation only to discover that the American keeps moving away in order to increase the distance between them (Hall 1959). This dance around the office is an illustration of a nonverbal behavior that is misinterpreted by both parties.

Most recent researchers in NVC come from the field of psychology. Argyle (1967, 1972), Ekman and Friesen (1969), Mehrabian (1972, 1981), and Rosenthal (1979) have made some of the most notable contributions.

The theme that is common to the various works which Argyle (1967, 1972) and his colleagues have examined (Argyle and Dean 1965; Argyle, Lalljee and Cook 1968) are the functions that relate either to situational management (synchronizing speech, providing feedback, and expressing intimacy) or to the support or replacement of verbal communication. Argyle and Dean's (1965) equilibrium model of interpersonal intimacy proposes that there is pressure to maintain involvement at a comfortable or equilibrium level. It provided a major stimulus for further research on nonverbal exchange and in doing so illuminated the need to recognize not only compensatory behaviors but reciprocatory behaviors as well (Capella 1981; Patterson 1973). The evidence is stronger for compensatory rather



than reciprocatory behaviors, but the need to incorporate reciprocatory behaviors led to further research and theoretical development in nonverbal exchange.

Other psychologists, such as Ekman and Friesen (1969a), began the task of categorizing and coding facial expressions, and later work examines clues of leakage and deception (Ekman and Friesen 1969b). Such detailed work on minute facial expressions was necessary in order to lay the foundation for later, more complex studies. Their contributions to categorizing nonverbal behaviors are noted in the section entitled "classification schemes," which will follow shortly.

Rosenthal (1979) conducted a number of studies measuring the perception of the decoder or judge. His work in conducting judgment studies has examined nonverbal behaviors both as independent and dependent variables. The units of measure may be either physical or psychological and may vary widely in reliability. Although the physical unit of measure (the movement of the corner of the mouth can be measured in millimeters) may be more reliable than the psychological unit of measure (feelings of happiness, anger, etc.), the latter may be higher in validity (Rosenthal 1979).

Since the research findings concerning NVC have come from such widely-diverse disciplines, perhaps the

best way of defining what exactly is nonverbal communication may be to examine various classification schema.

### Classification Schema

Knapp (1980) suggests that the taxonomy includes seven different categories. They are:

- 1) Body motion or kinesic behavior,
- 2) Physical characteristics,
- 3) Touching behavior,
- 4) Paralanguage (tonal qualities, pitch, voice characteristics),
- 5) Proxemics or territoriality,
- 6) Artifacts (clothing, jewelry, etc.), and
- 7) Environmental factors (furniture, architectural style, lighting, music, color, etc.).

Ekman and Friesen (1969) suggest that body motion (Knapp's first category) be further delineated by the following system:

- 1) Emblems: refers to a small class of nonverbal acts that can be accurately translated into words (i.e., a smile, a frown ).
- 2) Illustrators: serve the function of emphasis or added punctuation (i.e., pointing with a hand, tracing a contour of an object or person referred to verbally).

- 3) Affect Displays: primarily facial configurations that may be either intentional or unintentional (i.e., happiness, surprise, disgust).
- 4) Regulators: refers to acts that help to initiate or terminate the speech of individuals in a social interaction (head nodding may suggest that either the individual should keep on talking or hurry up and finish).
- 5) Adaptors: refers to acts that are related to satisfying needs. Self-adaptors may include rubbing, scratching, or otherwise touching one's self. Alter-adaptors have to do with our interpersonal relations (i.e. establishing closeness or withdrawing, attacking or flight). Object adaptors involve the manipulation of objects (i.e. smoking, writing with a pen, etc.)

Haley, Richardson and Baldwin (1984) suggest that in television advertising, additional categories may be pertinent in order to avoid missing potentially significant areas. They suggested:

- 1) Semiotics: signs and symbols that provoke specified types of associations (artifacts).
- 2) Setting: location of the commercial (environment).

- 3) Tonicity/Mood: the feelings projected by the commercial.

These various categories suggest the breadth and depth of nonverbal communications as they have emerged from rather diverse disciplines. These origins will be examined more closely in the following literature.

It is important to understand the origins of nonverbal communication in order to examine it in relation to the field of marketing. Many early studies were of the single cue variety. For example, much research has focused on the encoding and decoding aspects of minute facial movements (Ekman and Friesen 1969). Yet scholars have recognized the importance of understanding nonverbal communication in a situation fraught with complexities. A comparison of a few selected studies will serve to emphasize the importance of multiple cue studies while recognizing the difficulty in utilizing the appropriate methodology.

#### Single vs. Multiple Cues

Early research in nonverbal communication focused primarily on single cues. Although Birdwhistell (1970) suggests that no position, expression, or movement carries meaning in and of itself, the early researchers were forced to design single cue studies in order to examine the interaction of multiple cues in later studies. These studies tended to focus on one aspect of

nonverbal behavior as delineated within the given classification schema. That is, some researchers interested in body language examined eye behavior only--blinking, length of gaze, pupil dilation, etc. (Exline 1963; Argyle and Dean 1965) and then perhaps later facial expressions--anger, sadness, surprise, disgust, etc. (Ekman and Friesen 1972).

Although single cue studies are cleaner in that only one component of a major channel is being manipulated, the findings are less useful in terms of applicable insights for marketing. Two examples of the units of analysis method are shown in Table 1.

Birdwhistell (1970) suggests that the body movements be analyzed according to width, extent, velocity, intensity, duration, and range of movement. His analysis was an important contribution in laying the groundwork for many of the studies to follow. Other researchers, such as Branigan and Humphries (1972), examined kinesics from a different perception. These descriptive studies enabled later researchers, such as Mehrabian (1972, 1981), to utilize the insights and incorporate their findings into a more solidly based theoretical framework that can be used for marketing applications (Bonoma and Felder 1977).

Although the microscopic analysis of single cues is essential to developing the field of nonverbal behavior, it is the application of those findings in a broader

TABLE 1

## THE UNITS OF ANALYSIS METHOD: TWO EXAMPLES

Birdwhistell [6]. Movements of body parts are videotaped and noted according to:

- |             |                      |
|-------------|----------------------|
| 1. Width    | 4. Intensity         |
| 2. Extent   | 5. Duration          |
| 3. Velocity | 6. Range of movement |

Branigan and Humphries [11]. Units of nonverbal behavior:

<u>Mouth region</u>	26. Twist mouth	50. Droop
1. Simple smile	27. Lips forward	51. Wink
2. Upper smile	28. Open mouth	52. Stare
3. Broad smile	29. Spit	53. Widen
4. Compressed smile	30. Kiss	54. Pouch
5. Wry smile	31. Intention speak	55. Tears
6. Oblong smile	32. Chew	56. Open
7. Lip-in smile	33. Tongue between lips	<u>Gaze Direction</u>
8. Play face	34. Tongue out	57. Look at
9. Grin	35. Lick	58. Look away
10. Open grin	36. Mouth corners down	59. Look down
11. Mouth corners tremble	37. Scowl	60. Look up
12. Mouth corners back	38. Lower lip tremble	61. Look around
13. Squared mouth	39. Yawn	<u>Additional facial</u>
14. Mouth corners out	40. Basic mouth	62. Grimace
15. Oblong Mouth	<u>Eyebrows</u>	63. Screwface
16. Intention bite	41. Raise	64. Flare
17. Lip up	42. Flash	65. Twitch
18. Sneer	43. Angry frown	66. Sweat
19. Bite lips	44. Sad frown	67. Facial reddening
20. Tight lips	45. Sad raise	68. Blanch
21. Lips in	46. Low frown	69. Smooth face
22. Lower lip out	<u>Eyelids and eyes</u>	70. Normal face
23. Point	47. Shut	<u>Head movement</u>
24. Purse	48. Blink	71. Threat
25. Small Mouth	49. Narrow eyes	72. Head forward

TABLE 1 (continued)  
THE UNITS OF ANALYSIS METHOD: TWO EXAMPLES

---

73. Chin out	97. Cup	122. Hold
74. Head to side	98. Teeth	123. Punch
75. Head movement	99. Cover eyes	124. Touch
76. Jerk	100. Face	125. Single
77. Nod	101. Finger face	<u>Lower limb</u>
78. Shake	102. Offensive beating posture	126. Cross legs
79. Bob	103. Defensive beating posture	127. Shuffle
80. Chin in	104. Beat	128. Tap floor
81. Hang	105. Incomplete beat	129. Leg tremor
82. Head rock	106. Hand on neck	130. Foot
83. Evade	107. Arm over face	131. Foot rock
84. Level	108. Clap	132. Circle
<u>Hands and arms</u>	109. Pound	133. Swing
85. Shrug	110. Push gesture	<u>Trunk</u>
86. Sit on hands	111. Demonstrate	134. Slope
87. Scratch	112. Show	135. Crouch
88. Caress	113. Gesture	136. Hunch
89. Rub	114. Flat gesture	
90. Pick	115. Palms up	
91. Adjust	116. Akimbo	
92. Fumble	117. Fold	
93. Tap	118. Fist	
94. Hand flutter	119. Link	
95. Digit suck	120. Grasp	
96. Mouth	121. Hands behind back	

---

Source: Bonoma and Felder (1977)

context that is of far more value to marketers. For example, a number of studies concerning eye behavior have found that when a person likes another person there is greater eye contact (Exline 1963, 1972; Exline, Gray and Schuette 1965). More informative to marketers is the Exline and Eldridge (1967) study that found verbal communication was decoded as more favorable by a subject when it was associated with more eye contact.

Druckman, Rozelle, and Baxter (1982) suggest that not only do multiple nonverbal cues provide a more encompassing portrait, but they are also more useful to political analysts than single cues alone. While a single indicator may be an ambiguous symptom of a psychological state, several indicators are likely to bolster the analysts' confidence in their own judgment. These multiple nonverbal cues may serve to either enhance or detract from the message and thereby provide better information to the analyst.

#### Importance of NVC in a Multiple Channel

Since many products involving high risk are marketed via personal selling, the interactions of the salesperson with the consumer and the resulting consumer's perception of salesperson could influence the attitude toward the product, idea, or service. Further, since the consumer would expect the salesperson to speak well of the product (due to a vested interest),



nonverbal cues would serve as a check on the verbal message transmitted by the encoder. In fact, not only can the nonverbal channel dominate the verbal communication when the message is the same, but it may also dominate when the messages (nonverbal or verbal) are in conflict, and it is the nonverbal message that is believed (Argyle et. al. 1970; Harvis et. al. 1981; Mehrabian 1972, 1981; and Schul and Lamb 1982).

The importance of a multiple channel and the role it plays in communication was stressed by Schramm (1955) in the context of a political campaign. He suggested that few messages were transmitted via a single channel and that a multiple channel situation exists today in all media. He was convinced that the audio-visual media were especially rich in conveying a double meaning. He recalled a skillful but deadly job done entirely with secondary channels when a sidewalk interview program was filmed to run in local theaters and was supposed to be a completely impartial program. An equal number of supporters of each candidate were interviewed--first, one who favored Candidate A, then one who favored Candidate B. They were asked exactly the same question, and said about the same things, in support of their candidate. But there was an intriguing difference. The supporters of Candidate A were ordinary people, not outstandingly attractive or impressive, while the followers of Candidate B who were chosen to be

interviewed invariably had something slightly odd about them. They looked wild-eyed, or they stuttered, or they wore unpressed suits. The extra meaning was communicated. Candidate A won. This example illustrates the importance of a multiple channel communication where nonverbal communication can overwhelm the verbal message being transmitted. It is doubtful that viewers were aware of such negative subtleties being weighted against candidate B, yet the result of the election was most favorable for his opponent.

But perhaps it is Mehrabian's (1972, 1981) research in NVC that holds the greatest promise for immediate application in the field of marketing. The psychological dimensions of status and evaluation, which represent the thrust of Mehrabian's research, will be discussed further.

#### Psychological Dimensions of NVC

Mehrabian (1972, 1981) has identified the two psychological dimensions for analyzing communications that have the most immediate applicability to marketing. One dimension, that of attitude, includes the affective states of liking and disliking and good/bad evaluation. This dimension is a critical factor in product development, consumer testing, sales management, and advertising (Bonoma and Felder 1977).

The other dimension of status is central to sales interactions, management interactions, and advertising messages (Bonoma and Felder 1977). Status is defined by Mehrabian (1972, 1981) as relating to social control or potency. He suggests that the metaphor of power and fearlessness underlies the representation of status. Mehrabian (1972, 1981) has found that the status cues are conveyed largely through an individual's posture and position.

In light of the fact that two dimensions account for a major part of the variance in interactions of both verbal and nonverbal communications (Rosenberg and Felder 1974), the status and evaluative dimensions are basic to any work in marketing that seeks to increase our understanding of the communication process. These dimensions will be important elements in designing the experiment for this study and will be further developed in the following sections.

#### Evaluative/Attitude Dimension

The evaluative dimension refers to the emotional states of liking and disliking, as well as the more general good-bad category. As shown in Table 2, positive nonverbal attitudes or evaluations may take a variety of forms including head nods, close physical proximity, frequent gestures, forward lean, smiling, and touching. Other positive verbal evaluations include a

TABLE 2

## NONVERBAL COMMUNICATIONS AND PSYCHOLOGICAL DIMENSIONS

High status	Low status	Positive evaluation	Negative evaluation
Direct eye contact while speaking	Looking away before speaking	Head nods	Reclining position
Moderate eye contact when listening	Steady eye contact when listening	Uh-huh	Backward lean
Relaxed posture	Hesitations	Rythmic following	Avoiding or shifting eye contact
Arm-position asymmetry	Halting speech with shifting eye contact	Close proximity	Avoidance of close proximity
Sideways lean	High speech error rate	Touching	Closed arrangement of arms
Hand relaxation	Inactive communication actively rage	Eye contact	Torso orientation away from addressee
Neck relaxation	Depressed posture	Forward lean	Finger-tapping
Head nodding	Forward lean	Higher speech rate	n.d.
Gesticulation	Bowed head	Lengthier communication	n.d.
Increased facial activity	Dropping shoulders	Frequent verbal reinforcers	n.d.
Low speech error rate	Sunken chest	Gesticulation	n.d.
Halting speech with eye contact	Shifting body orientation	Smiling	n.d.
Active speech rate	n.d.	Less frequent self-references	n.d.
Strong speech volume	n.d.	Open arrangement or arms	n.d.
Chest expanded	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Backward lean	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Direct body orientation	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.

n.d. = no data

Source: Mehrabian (1972, 1981)

higher speech rate, lengthier communication, and frequent verbal reinforcers such as "yeah", "un-huh", and "me too" (Mehrabian 1972, 1981; Rosenfeld 1966). The implicit aspects of verbal content often lack direct references to feelings but rather convey the general emotional tone of the speaker.

Although evaluative cues are implicit and sometimes difficult to discern (particularly nonverbally since some facial expressions last 1/5 to 1/8 of a second and are "micromomentary"), Mehrabian (1972, 1981) found immediacy cues the key to evaluation. Immediacy cues relate to proxemics as well as verbal and nonverbal feedback. Cues such as head nods, uh-huh, forward lean suggest an immediate positive responsiveness.

### Status Dimension

The status dimension will be the central construct scrutinized in this study. Nonverbal indicators of status are numerous and have been the focus of considerable research. But most prominent of all is Mehrabian's (1972, 1981) work. He has a number of studies which show that posture and postural cues are important indicators of a person's status. A summary of his work is found in Table 2.

In general, the posture cues of a high status individual are more relaxed than a low status individual. One who is powerful (of higher status) may relax but the

weak must remain watchful and tense (Mehrabian 1972, 1981). Birdwhistell (1970), Goffman (1961), and Mehrabian (1972, 1981) suggest that when two strangers meet, it is the one with higher status who is relaxed and accepted by both as being of higher status. Goffman (1961) also noted this in observing high-status individuals at a psychiatric hospital in staff meetings. Overall, higher status (socially dominant) people determine the degree of approach permitted in interactions with others (Mehrabian 1972, 1981). In effect, a person of lower status has less right to approach and touch someone of higher status (Henley 1977) and conveys this impression through posture and position cues. Although the postural cues of a higher status individual are signaled by a high degree of body relaxation (posture, hands, neck, etc.), they also include direct eye contact while speaking and moderate eye contact when listening. In addition, the chest may be expanded while the torso has a backward lean. Such a stance is characteristic of a socially dominant individual emitting many indicants of power (higher status).

On the other hand, a person of lower status emits many cues of deference toward the individual of higher status. Deference will be defined here as an individual's nonverbal cues of yielding to one of more status. If an individual (A) exhibits a great number of

low status cues toward another individual (B), then individual A could be said to be treating B with considerable deference. Nonverbal cues of deference will connote an individual who is employing a number of lower status cues. The postural cues are the opposite of those emitted by a higher status person. An individual who is of lesser status (who defers to a higher status individual) may have a depressed posture, sunken chest, bowed head, dropping shoulders, forward lean, and in general exhibit bodily cues that are more tense. In addition, as noted in Table 2, the individual of lower status will "attend" to the higher status speaker by having steady eye contact when listening, looking away before speaking, hesitations (in speech and posture cues), etc. Such an individual seeks to appear less powerful than the higher status individual, thereby incurring the favor (at best) or at least not incurring the higher status individual's disfavor.

#### Operationalization of Status Variable

Bonoma and Zaltman (1979) believe that in a sales transaction where customers are scarce and the product involved is a "big ticket" (high dollar, high risk) item, a salesperson may emit nonverbal behaviors that show less status than the customer. They suggest that a rudimentary measurement of eye contact, head nodding, etc., as shown in Table 2, could be utilized to

establish different degrees of status. Further, although a salesperson may be expected to show signs of lesser status and emit many nonverbal indicators of deference, Mehrabian (1981) suggests that too much deference may be viewed in a negative fashion as ingrati-  
iation. Mehrabian (1981) goes so far as to say that high levels of pleasantness are unnecessary and may even have an adverse effect. At what point (degree, level of deference) does the sales person's nonverbal indicants of lesser status become detrimental to the sale and suggest a negative reaction to perceived ingratiation? Does the level of perceived ingratiation (in showing lesser status) differ for men and women due to sexual stereotyping and cultural norms? Considerable literature, as summarized in Table 3, suggests that nonverbal indicants of lower status are "proper" feminine behaviors (Frieze 1978; Henley 1977; Mayo and Henley 1981; Mehrabian 1972, 1981; Porter and Geis 1981).

#### Recent Nonverbal Research in Marketing

Little research concerning NVC in marketing has actually been done. There are various reasons for this (Bonoma and Felder 1977). The NVC literature, as a whole, is a piecemeal collection of studies, some of which offer insight and some that lead to deadends. Another reason is that much of the literature is not in



TABLE 3  
HENLEY'S SUMMARY OF STATUS AND POWER GESTURES

BEHAVIOR	BETWEEN STATUS EQUALS		BETWEEN STATUS NONEQUALS		BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN	
	Intimate	Nonintimate	Used by Superior	Used by Subordinate	Used by Men	Used by Women
Posture	Relaxed	Tense (less relaxed)	Relaxed	Tense	Relaxed	Tense
Personal space	Closeness	Distance	Closeness (optional)	Distance	Closeness	Distance
Touching	Touch	Don't touch	Touch (optional)	Don't touch	Touch	Don't touch
Eye gaze	Establish	Avoid	Stare, ignore	Avert eyes, watch	Stare, ignore	Avert eyes, watch
Demeanor	Informal	Circumspect	Informal	Circumspect	Informal	Circumspect
Emotional Expression	Show	Hide	Hide	Show	Hide	Show
Facial Expression	Smile*	Don't smile*	Don't smile	Smile	Don't smile	Smile

\*Behavior not known.

Table from: Nancy M. Henley, Body Politics: Power, Sex, and Nonverbal Communication, 1977, p. 181.

a form suitable for marketing application. Furthermore, there is a legitimate concern about the microfocus on single cues that may be either unreliable or ephemeral in complex marketing transactions.

Hulbert and Capon's (1972) work began the task of examining the relatively neglected topic of nonverbal communication and suggested a model of interpersonal communication that would enhance marketing research. Although Hulbert and Capon (1972) identified 11 marketing communicative categories referred to as nonverbal interactions, they did not suggest a mechanism by which specific existing empirical relationships in verbal and nonverbal behavior might be extended to marketing research and application. This task was undertaken by Bonoma and Felder (1977) in attempting to provide a theoretically integrated communicational analysis for marketing. The importance of a multiple channel of communication was now well established, but there was no empirical research focusing on the relationship between kinesic and vocal behavior expressed during interpersonal transactions. Schul and Lamb (1982) were the first in marketing to examine this multiple channel interaction in an empirical study. Leigh (1981) examined the effect of nonverbal cues on the perceptions of industrial buyers during the initial sales call, but the results were difficult to interpret due to the utilization of a one-fourth factorial design

and the confounding of some main effect variables. These major studies and their contributions are examined in greater detail in the sections that follow.

#### Hulbert and Capon (1972)--Nonverbal Signs

Their study was the first work in a major marketing journal to recognize, classify and examine a multiple channel encoder role. Their research begins the initial work of sifting through findings from various fields and organizing it in such a way as to form a taxonomic structure for understanding interpersonal communication in a multiple channel.

Hulbert and Capon (1972) chose to classify the channels via the five senses, excluding taste, and collapsing the tactile and olfactory systems into one category. They suggested that the tactile system is employed sparingly in interpersonal communication although recent literature on this topic suggests otherwise. Indeed, Hulbert and Capon's (1972) interest and main focus in the classification schema was in emphasizing the role played by nonverbal signs that had remained comparatively neglected in empirical research. Thus, the receiver's input channels were visual, auditory, and tactile and olfactory; the sender's role could be categorized via four dimensions. They are:

Static, uncontrollable: a function of hereditary characteristics such as sex, race and age.

Static, controllable: can be controlled between interactions, but is fixed for the duration of the interaction--such as hair, clothing.

Dynamic (low frequency): produced during the interaction with a low frequency of change--such as posture and interpersonal distance.

Dynamic (high frequency): produced during the interaction with a high frequency of change--such as gestures and facial expressions.

These dimensions are observable and provide the needed linkage to such hidden constructs as motive, attitude, and perception, as well as to the more static characteristics of demography, personality values, and knowledge.

These researchers suggest that the importance of nonverbal and verbal signs in interpersonal communications are observable, and problems of operationalization may be more easily solved than are the

problems of examining unobservable variables such as motives and attitudes. Hulbert and Capon (1972) believe that the examination of intervening and observable communication signs (nonverbal) may yield insights into consumer behavior and provide considerable methodological benefits applicable to market research and personal selling.

#### Schul and Lamb (1982) - Empirical Study

One other recent marketing study needs to be examined here. Schul and Lamb (1982) conducted the first empirical nonverbal behavior study in marketing. They investigated the relationship between kinesic and vocal behavior during interpersonal transactions. Their experiment supported the hypothesis that the kinesic component did dominate and was more effective at inferring attitudes than the vocal component. There were also limited findings that suggested support for the contention that nonverbal communication adds value to verbal communication. This empirical study is important because it examines the interactive relationship between nonverbal and vocal components of communication and the meanings conveyed via nonverbal behavior.

Schul and Lamb's (1982) study used two convenience samples (n=73) of sales personnel, all male, representing several different firms. In the first group of

47 subjects, the independent effects of kinesic and vocal communication were assessed. The second group of 26 subjects assessed the combined effects of kinesic and vocal components.

After pretesting the stimuli (both kinesic and vocal), 36 treatment conditions were examined: 3 X 3 X 2 X 2. These stimuli had been assessed by having the first group of subjects rate the communication cues on bipolar scales ranging from very negative (-2) to very positive (+2). The resulting variables were:

3 vocal communications--positive, neutral, negative  
(per actor)

3 kinesic communications--positive, neutral,  
negative (per actor)

2 speakers (actors voices)

2 actor interactions (nonverbal component).

The two speakers emitted three vocal communications and were then superimposed onto the videotaped presentations of each of the six kinesic communications of both actors resulting in 36 treatment combinations. After randomly ordering and presenting the stimuli to the second group of 26 sales people, a seven-point bipolar adjective scale ranging from "very positive" (+3) to "very negative" (-3) was used to assess the treatment conditions.

Schul and Lamb (1982) suggests, based on their findings, that salespeople with appropriate instruction

in basic kinesic behavior could increase their effectiveness in interpersonal transactions. In addition, they suggest that analysis of a consumer's kinesic behavior could provide more insight than verbal analysis alone.

#### Leigh (1981) - Industrial

##### Buyers' Perceptions

Another recent study by Leigh (1981) was designed to examine a number of nonverbal cues in a dyadic interaction. The independent variables manipulated for this study were eye gaze, postural orientation, gesturing, hesitations in speech, and appearance.

This study found that high eye gaze resulted in the perception that the salesperson was more empathetic, tactful and aggressive, while the sales presentation was seen as more appropriate, interesting, personal, and believable. The findings regarding appearance were mixed, possibly due to some unintentional confounding and partly due to an unexpected compromise due to the time and expense involved in filming the interactions.

Hesitation in speech led to reduced ratings of interestingness and persuasiveness of the sales presentation. Although posture and gesturing exhibited no significant effects, Leigh (1981) suggests a variety

of possible explanations. Primarily, he suggests that the particular "levels" of the cues utilized may have been inappropriate. Other reasons may have to do with the one-fourth fractional factorial design implemented in this exploratory study. Given the inherent confounding problems of a fractional factorial design and the other limitation just discussed, significant main effects on posturing and gesturing may be intrinsically confounded so as to render interpretation of the factors questionable.

Although research in marketing has begun to address the issue of nonverbal communication, there is no work in marketing that addresses the differing nonverbal cues, deemed appropriate by societal expectations, of male and female salespersons. The importance of this variable is examined in the following section.

#### Gender and Nonverbal Expressions of Status

Mehrabian (1972, 1981) suggests that a power metaphor is appropriate in examining status. Henley (1977) summarized status or power gestures between status equals, between status nonequals, and between men and women. Her summary, as noted in Table 3, shows the status and power gestures between men and women to be nearly identical to the nonverbal cues of status emitted between nonequals. Due to socialization and sex-



stereotyping, the high status nonverbal behaviors are far more often exhibited by men than by women. Hence, it is apparent that the nonverbal behaviors most commonly emitted and expected from women, due to socialization, are of a low status nature.

Henley (1977) and Mayo and Henley (1981) suggest that nonverbal behavior is resistant to change and poses barriers to change in several ways. They suggest that:

- 1) nonverbal behavior lies outside of awareness,
- 2) nonverbal behavior is learned,
- 3) gender-deviant behavior is punished,
- 4) women are nonverbally adaptive, and
- 5) nonverbal behavior encodes power well.

These barriers will be examined in the literature review that follows.

### Nonverbal Leadership Cues

Porter and Geis (1981) have presented evidence of nonverbal leadership cues and the perceptions of women as leaders. In their study, they build a case for the head of the table serving as a cue to leadership status. Photographic slides were taken of groups of five individuals seated at a rectangular table, two on each side and one at the head. Leadership attributions to males and females seated at the head of the table in same-sex and mixed-sex groups were detailed. Each subject observed one slide and rated each group member

in the slide. Subjects were assigned to slide conditions on the basis of androgyny scores. A feminism scale was administered after the photo ratings procedure. Half of the subjects received instructions from a male experimenter and half from a female experimenter.

The major hypothesis that sex-role stereotypes would override situational leadership cues for women was upheld. It had been predicted that the person seated at the head of the table would be perceived as a leader in single-sex groups and in mixed-sex groups with a male head, but not in mixed-sex groups with a female head. The study indicated that a woman presenting a nonverbal leadership cue in a mixed-sex group did not receive the same leadership recognition as when a man presents the same cue. The difference is due to both a cause and consequence of stereotyping (Porter and Geis 1981).

Indeed, the implicit assumption that women are of lower status and, hence not leaders, is so strong that the perceiver unconsciously discounts nonverbal information which suggests otherwise (Porter and Geis 1981) or may view women when seen as the leader as possessing unattractive personality characteristics (Feather and Simon 1975). Further, research has shown assertive women socially rejected (Costrich, Feinstein, Kidder and Pascale 1975; Faranda 1980; Siegfried and Hendrick 1973), and competent women excluded from task

groups in favor of either competent men or incompetent women (Hagan and Kahn 1975).

It is indeed possible that when high-status cues are emitted by women, the nonverbal behaviors may be viewed as inappropriate. Therefore, the nonverbal behavior cues as indicators of status may be perceived and valued differently from the viewpoint of the consumer depending upon the sex of the salesperson.

Other nonverbal research has shown that men generally use behaviors associated with dominance and higher status, whereas women show more liking and warmth (Frieze and Ramsey 1976; Henley 1977). Stereotypes of how men differ from women match almost exactly our cultural conceptions of how leaders differ from followers. Leadership is associated with high status, expertise, dominance, independence, and assertiveness--and all are traits of the traditional male stereotype. As noted in Table 3, traits attributed to women cluster around submissiveness, dependency, emotionality, and gentleness (Henley 1977; Mayo and Henley 1981; Porter and Geis 1981).

Fidell's (1975) study of hiring practices in university psychology departments shows how unaware the perceiver is of the implicit (stereotypical) assumption that women are not leaders, even when nonverbal literature suggests otherwise. She sent 147 chairpersons descriptive paragraphs of eight Ph. D.

candidates. Each description carried a male name half of the time and a female name the other half. The chairpersons were asked to indicate each candidate's desirability and appropriate hiring rank. Women were not rated significantly less desirable than men, but the hiring rank varied depending upon the sex of the individual. Descriptions were seen as assistant professor when carrying female names but associate professor level when carrying males names. The respondents could point to their beliefs in parity in hiring while practicing sexual discrimination. The Fidell (1975) study suggests that, although respondents may truly be well meaning, the nonverbal information is discounted due to ingrained cultural stereotyping.

#### Gender and Deference

As previously noted, stereotyped expectations due to the sex of an individual are an important variable to examine. Exline (1963), Exline, Gray and Schutte (1965), and Locksley and Colten (1979) found that the most powerful single variable in mediating visual interaction is sex. Thus, it is important to examine the influence of both traditional and non-traditional nonverbal cues presented by both male and female salespersons. Due to the ingrained stereotyping in our culture, nonverbal behavior that is appropriate for one sex is often inappropriate for the opposite sex and

gender- deviant behavior is punished in our society (Henley 1977; Mayo and Henley 1981).

Indeed Mehrabian (1972) finds that women who use nonverbal behaviors considered inappropriate to their sex are negatively evaluated by both men and women. Frieze (1978) finds that women's use of stronger, more direct power (high status) signals appears likely to incur rejection. Since the display of high status cues are considered primarily a "male" behavior and deference (the display of low status cues) an appropriate "female" behavior, it is possible that in a selling situation both sexes could be "punished" for inappropriate gender behavior, and the consumer would not purchase the product. Thus one is repeatedly "inundated" by the influence of sex-contingent expectations and norms.

Deference, one of two levels of status, is used here as a description of nonverbal behaviors emitted by a salesperson that do not indicate a higher status than the customer. Although deference can be verbal or nonverbal, it is the nonverbal aspect that will be the most important issue due to the relative importance of nonverbal channels (Argyle et. al. 1970; Mehrabian 1972, 1981; Schul and Lamb 1982).

Bonoma and Zaltman (1979) suggest that in a "big ticket" purchase, where customers are scarce, many nonverbal indicators of deference might be emitted by the salesperson. In low importance transactions, a

salesperson may exhibit high status nonverbal cues knowing that customers are numerous and easily replaced.

### Attractiveness

An important component of sex-stereotyping involves the perceived attractiveness of the individual. Early research in realm of attractiveness by Dion, Berscheid, and Walster (1972) suggested that the more attractive the individual, the more desirable characteristics others will attribute to him or her. This stereotypical view has been dubbed "what is beautiful is good" by the aforementioned researchers.

More recent research (Cash and Janda 1984) suggests that beauty has a sexist component. In a study designed to examine the impact of work situations that conflict with sexual stereotyping, good looks were a disadvantage for women. While attractive men were favored over their less attractive male competitors for stereotypically masculine, feminine, or neutral sex-typed occupations, attractive women were favored only for traditional female or neutral occupations. The less attractive female was preferred for occupations considered masculine or inappropriate to society's traditional sex roles.

Another study by Heilman and Saruwatari (1979) found attractive women were given lower salary recommendations when the women were viewed as stepping

into an out-of-sex-role position. Heilman (1979) goes so far as to say that her findings imply that women should strive to appear as unattractive and masculine as possible if they are to succeed in a traditionally masculine occupation.

The impact of attractiveness is not confined to the workplace but exists in academe as well. Early work in the area by Landy and Sigall (1974) suggests that beauty is talent and that an attractive woman's poor quality essay would be more favorably received than an unattractive woman's high quality essay. However, subsequent work (Cash and Janda 1984) in this area suggests that beauty is a double-edged sword. With essays equivalent in quality, attractiveness was an advantage for men regardless of whether the topic was masculine or feminine. But with women, attractiveness was an advantage only when they stuck to a feminine topic. As author of a masculine essay, attractive women were given lower scores relative to their less attractive peers. It may be that beauty is not good and beauty is not talent if the women aspire to occupations in which stereotypically masculine traits are thought to be required for success.

The research on attractiveness may be further complicated by a woman or man's hair color. Studies by Clayson and Maughan (1976, 1978) suggest that stereotyping by hair color occurs. Blondheaded males were

seen as happy, gentle, and rich, while redheaded males were stereotyped as the most feminine of all and were considered effeminate, ugly, timid, passive, and weak but as being safe and good. Blondhaired women were seen as beautiful, happy, rich, and feminine while redhaired women were seen as active executive types, no-nonsense, and rather physically unattractive but perhaps more intelligent and athletic than other hair colors. Dark-haired women were seen rather favorably as being good, intelligent, and familiar.

Subsequent research by Clayson (1981, 1983) in examining hair color stereotyping in advertising found that female models of differing hair colors were chosen for products dependent upon hair color societal stereotypes. Further, when students were asked to select appropriate models for advertisements, their selections reflected the same societal values.

Since hair color influences attractiveness and attractiveness influences stereotypical views in a variety of ways, any study in nonverbal communication will need to address these variables. This will be developed further in Chapter III.

A recent marketing study by Kahle and Homer (1985) underscores the importance of physical attractiveness as an independent variable. Their study suggests that the attractiveness of a celebrity endorser may overwhelm an "involvement effect", but they further state that the



physical attractiveness of a celebrity may often be central in attitude-change contexts. Although their study dealt with celebrities, a logical extension of this study may be applicable in a personal selling or advertising context.

### Attitude Towards Product

The relationship between nonverbal communication and the consumer's attitude towards the product may be best explained by the incorporation of Heider's (1958) balance theory. The importance of this linkage will be examined in the following section.

#### Relationship Between NVC and Attitude Towards the Product

Since many high involvement products have "hidden" attributes, and since considerable promotional effort and resources are committed to the personal selling aspect, extrinsic cues must include not only brand and store image but must extend to the "impression" conveyed by the salesperson. In line with Jun and Jolibert's (1983) work, when a consumer searches for extrinsic cues to evaluate a product's hidden attributes, it may be that a salesagent's nonverbal behavior will ultimately convey meaning to the consumer. The consumer will then evaluate the product's hidden attributes based on the meaning conveyed via nonverbal behavior.

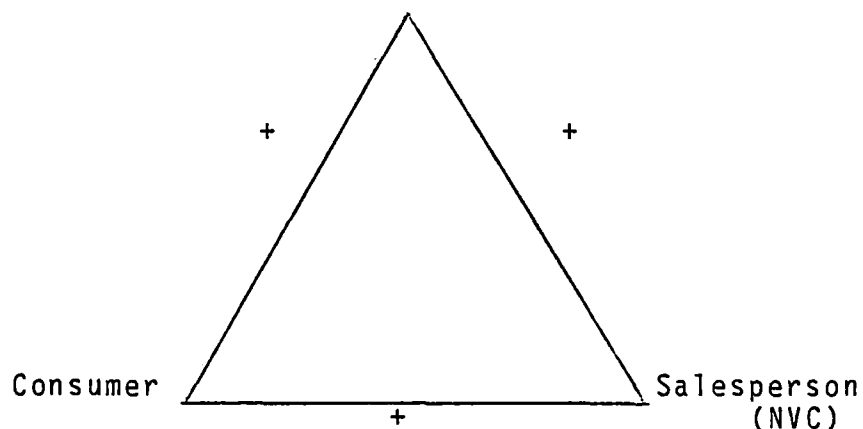


Heider (1958) indicates that a triad is balanced when all three of the relations are positive or when two of the relations are negative and one is positive. Imbalance occurs when two of the relations are positive and one is negative. In addition, there are two assumptions (Heider 1958) concerning balanced states that are crucial in explaining the relationship between NVC and the consumer's attitude toward the product and toward the salesperson as well as the consumer's perception that the product and the salesperson "fit" together. They are:

1. Sentiment relations and unit relations tend toward a balanced state. Thus, sentiment relations are not entirely independent of the perceptions of unit connections between entities and vice versa.
2. Sentiments and unit relations are mutually interdependent. Thus, if a balanced state does not exist, then forces toward this state will arise. If change is not possible the resulting disequilibrium will produce tension.

Hence the impact of a salesperson's NVC on a consumer's attitude toward the salesperson and the product as well as the consumer's perception that the product and salesperson "go together" may be viewed in a balanced state as in Figure B.

FIGURE B  
INFERRED RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NVC AND  
CONSUMER'S ATTITUDES  
New Product (Perception)



The importance of the relationship between nonverbal cues emitted by a salesperson (or endorser) and a consumer's attitude towards the product and/or salesperson may be inferred from Mowen's (1980) study of endorser effectiveness. He indicates that endorsers should be most effective with products whose important attributes are not easily verified objectively. Mowen (1980) suggests that a hidden attribute would be particularly appropriate for the use of endorsers.

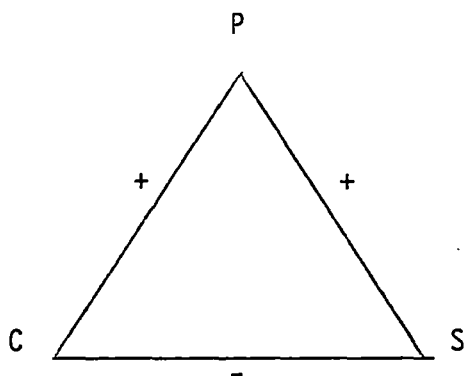
In examining assumption #2 (that sentiment and unit relations are mutually interdependent), let's suppose that the C-S sentiment reaction is negative, that is, the consumer has a negative attitude toward the

salesperson (due to nonverbal cues). Since the situation is unbalanced, three alternatives are possible as shown in Figure C. In the first alternative, positive change in the attitude toward the salesperson results in a balanced state. In the second alternative, the negative sentiment (C-S) relationship induces a negative attitude toward the product. In other words, it is possible that, if the salesagent is disliked by the consumer (due to inappropriate nonverbal cues), the dislike will be transferred to the product. This will bring about balance within the triad.

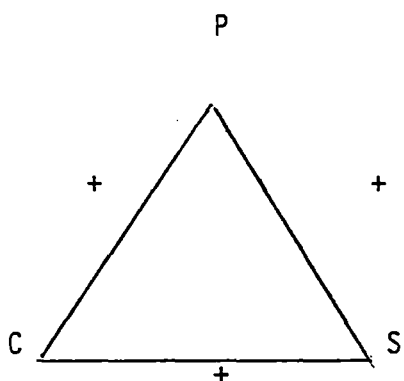
The third alternative suggests that a negative (C-S) sentiment relationship has a negative effect on the unit relationship which suggests that the product and the salesagent are mismatched and so do not belong together. The operationalization of these variables in a research design will be developed fully in Chapter III.

The relationship between NVC and the perception of the product is an implied unit relationship (P-S) between the product and the salesperson's belief in the product. According to Heider (1958), this unit relationship (P-S) has an impact upon, and is interdependent with, the sentiment relations between the customer and salesperson (C-S) and customer and product (C-P). Such an interdependent relationship involving nonverbal communication has not been empirically studied.

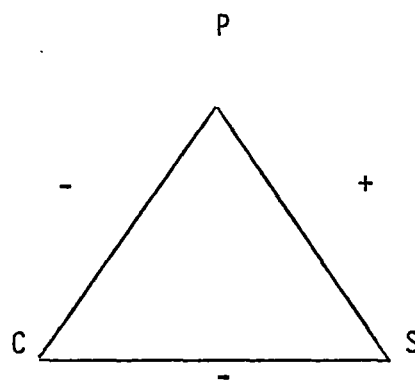
FIGURE C  
CHANGE TOWARD BALANCE WITHIN EXISTING UNBALANCED  
SENTIMENT AND UNIT RELATIONS



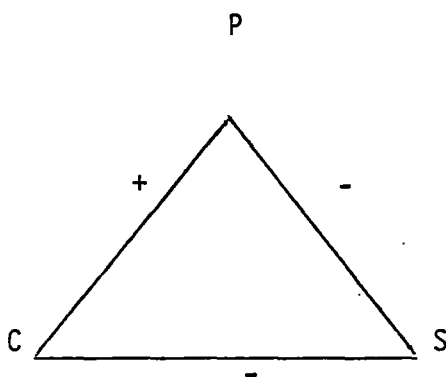
The given state is unbalanced.



Change in sentiment relations  
(positive attitude toward  
salesperson) results in a  
balanced state.



Change in sentiment relations  
(negative attitude toward  
product) results in a  
balanced state.



Changes in unit relations (the salesperson  
and the product do not appear to belong  
together) results in a balanced state.

In order to examine the relationship between the nonverbal status cues and the corresponding consumer's attitude toward the product (C-P), the impact on the consumer's attitude toward the salesperson (C-S), and the perception of the congruency between the salesperson and the product (S-P), it is crucial that both high and low status cues be manipulated. This will be discussed at length in Chapter III.

### Other Issues

Much research has been done on consumer's perception of product quality. It is apparent that consumers are influenced by multiple cues in assessing a product's quality. In a variety of studies, researchers have discovered that price is not the dominant factor in assessing quality. Jacoby, Olson, and Haddock (1971) found that price served as an indicant of product quality when it was the only cue available but not when embedded in a multicue setting. In their study, brand image had a stronger effect upon quality perception. In addition, their data suggest that sensory observations (taste and aroma) may influence perceived quality. Since nonverbal behavior is also a "sensory observation", it too may well influence the perceived quality of the product.

Jun and Jolibert's (1983) recent study suggests that consumers assess the quality of a product via its revealed and its hidden attributes. This study finds

that when consumers evaluate a product on a revealed quality attribute, they are influenced only by physical product cues or revealed attributes. This may explain the many studies that found price to be an indication of product quality. Indeed, in summarizing the extensive literature on consumers' perception of price, Zaltman and Wallendorf (1979) find that consumers appear to rely more on price in situations in which there is high risk and low self-confidence or when other indicators of quality are absent. This would appear to suggest that price is an important indicator of product quality and particularly so in personal selling situations, but its importance varies in strength depending upon the presence or absence of other indicators. However, Jun and Jolibert (1983) found that extrinsic cues can influence consumers' product evaluations on a hidden quality attribute.

Since nonverbal behavior is an extrinsic cue that could be utilized in the development of consumer's attitude towards a hidden attribute such as quality, it is possible that nonverbal cues may play a role in the consumer's assessment of the product's quality. A logical extension of Jun and Jolibert's (1983) study suggests this is so while other studies suggest that the presence of multiple cues may overwhelm the impact of nonverbal cues. There are no empirical studies which address this issue concerning the relationship between a



salesperson's nonverbal cues and a consumer's subsequent evaluation of a product's perceived quality.

### Summary

A number of issues have been raised in this review of literature leading to conflicting conclusions regarding nonverbal status cues. A study is needed in order to address the appropriate nonverbal status cues to be emitted in a personal selling or advertising situation. In order to seek an answer and resolve the conflicts, both nonverbal status cues and the gender of the salesperson, as well as the interaction of these variables, must be examined.

### Nonverbal Status Cues

Mehrabian (1972, 1981) has identified status as an important dimension in nonverbal communication. Bonoma and Zaltman (1979) suggest that in a selling situation where customers are scarce low status cues would be appropriate. But the issue becomes more complex when the gender of the salesperson is considered:

### Gender of Salesperson

There is considerable research to support the contention that sex-stereotyping exists in our culture and is a deeply ingrained part of our social fabric. Henley (1977, 1981) suggests that low status cues are

appropriately "feminine" behavior while high status cues are typically masculine behavior. Other researchers suggest that gender deviant behavior is evaluated negatively (Mehrabian 1972) and may be punished in our society (Henley 1977; Mayo and Henley 1981).

### Balance Theory

Heider's (1958) balance theory suggests a conceptual framework for examining the impact of nonverbal status cues on a consumer's attitude toward the product. Other dimensions that nonverbal cues may alter include the consumer's attitude toward the salesperson and the perception that the product and the salesperson "go together".

In addressing these issues, it is expected that the findings will have an impact on advertising, personal selling situations, the sales training of men and women while simultaneously adding to our knowledge of nonverbal communications--referred to by Haley (1983) as the frontier in communications research today.

### Research Question

The study proposed in Chapter III will examine the issues raised here. The research question the experimental design is structured to answer is:

How do the nonverbal status cues emitted from male and female salespersonnel differentially influence consumer attitudes toward the product and the salesperson?

### General Hypothesis

The expected direction and relationship between the independent variables and their impact on the dependent variables is expressed in the following general hypothesis:

An interaction is predicted to occur between the status of the nonverbal cues emitted by a salesperson and the gender of the salesperson. Specifically, it is hypothesized that receivers of information will rate the product and the salesperson more highly when a male salesperson emits high status nonverbal cues. Conversely, receivers will rate the product and salesperson more highly when a female salesperson emits low status nonverbal cues.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY AND ANALYSIS

#### Overview of Methodology

Given that some researchers have found that the nonverbal component may have greater impact than the verbal message (Argyle 1971; Havis, Rozelle, Baxter, and Kimble 1981; Mehrabian 1972; Schul and Lamb 1982), it is likely in a sales situation that the nonverbal cues may dominate the message channel. Although there is some popular literature (Gschwandtner 1980) to suggest that nonverbal cues may dominate in a sales situation, empirical research in marketing has not been forthcoming. In part this is due to the topic's recent emergence in scholarly literature and also in part due to the difficulty of testing empirically a phenomenon that may be altered as people monitor and then change their behavior in order to avoid revealing information (Ekman and Friesen 1974).

In order to examine the consumer's utilization of nonverbal cues as a component in the decision making process, the following research design (based upon the variables examined in the preceding literature search) will be used.

### Research Design

A 2 X 2 X 2 between groups factorial design as noted in Figure D was used and the following independent variables examined: sex of the salesperson (male or female), status cues exhibited by the salesperson to the customer (high or low), and the sex of the respondent viewing the videotape (male or female).

Sex of the Salesperson. Because the literature has indicated that sex role and sex-stereotyping influence our nonverbal behavior toward others (Henley 1977; Mayo and Henley 1981; Mehrabian 1972, 1981), it is essential to examine the perceptions that the consumer has of the salesperson and subsequently how that affects the perception of the product. Subjects viewed a videotape of either a male or a female salesperson delivering a "canned" sales presentation. Both salespersons were of comparable "attractiveness," as determined in the pre-testing discussed later in this chapter. Attractiveness was controlled because it is a nonverbal variable that influences people's perceptions of competency, talent, and job qualifications and suitability (Cash and Janda 1984; Heilman and Saruwatari 1979; Landy and Sigall 1974).

Status Cues. Two different "sets" of status cues, either high or low, were exhibited by the salesperson toward the customer. The nonverbal cues to be varied

FIGURE D  
RESEARCH DESIGN 2 X 2 X 2

FEMALE SALEPERSON				MALE SALESPERSON			
High Status		Low Status		High Status		Low Status	
Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female

Salesperson--> male or female  
 Nonverbal Status Cues--> high or low  
 Sex of Respondent--> male or female

came from Mehrabian's (1972, 1981) research on status. The appropriate set of low or high status cues emitted by the salesperson were choreographed with the appropriate verbal message in order to appear "real." This process is discussed in further detail as a part of pretesting.

Sex of Respondents. There is considerable literature, as discussed in Chapter II, concerning the differing responses of male and female subjects to the same stimuli. Since it is probable that male and female subjects will react differently to the same stimuli, due to sexual stereotyping and cultural norms, their responses were analyzed separately. By examining their responses separately, variations due to the sex of the respondents could be addressed.

#### Pretesting

There are two main issues of concern in this study that need to be examined and controlled so that the independent variables of the study will not be confounded. The first issue is the attractiveness of the salesperson, and the second issue addresses the nonverbal cues used to manipulate status. In addition, other issues of lesser concern include controlling external environmental variables, pretesting the written script, selecting an appropriate product, minimizing primary and recency effects, discussing the inherent

selection biases, and providing an appropriate "cover" story for this study.

### Attractiveness of Salesperson

The literature suggests that an individual's perception of another's personal attractiveness influences task evaluation, the perceived level of competency, and the perception of personality characteristics (Cash and Janda 1984; Heilman and Saruwatari 1979; Landy and Sigall 1974; Miller 1970), and may overwhelm involvement effects (Kahle and Homer 1985). Indeed, conflicting evidence exists regarding attractiveness as an independent variable, as was discussed in detail in Chapter 2. In order to avoid confounding the results of this study, the male and female salespersons were to be of equal attractiveness. In light of Clayson's (1981, 1983) findings concerning hair color and its societal stereotypes, brunettes were used in the videotapes.

### Videotape Pretesting for Equivalent Attractiveness

Videotapes were developed in order to assess accurately the attractiveness of possible candidates. Photos were deemed inappropriate since videotaping would ultimately be utilized and voice qualities, camera presence, gestures, etc. may play a role in perceived attractiveness of the individual salespeople (actors and actresses). The candidates were viewed for about 15



seconds giving the same rather mundane information on camera. The script for pretesting is as follows:

I AM A (JUNIOR OR SENIOR) AT THE UNIVERSITY OF  
NORTHERN IOWA AND I AM MAJORING IN  
\_\_\_\_\_ IN THE DEPARTMENT OF \_\_\_\_\_.

I INTEND TO GRADUATE IN (NAME MONTH AND YEAR;  
EX., DECEMBER, 1985).

Sixteen candidates were videotaped (all had brown hair) in blue jeans with cream colored shirts and a V-necked navy blue long sleeved vest. The "sameness" of dress was used in order to minimize possible bias due to style or color of clothing. The candidates all faced the camera squarely, on the same mark, with the same background and spoke the same mundane phrase. Each time a different candidate was taped, the microphone was adjusted to within 36 inches of the candidates mouth (but outside of camera range), and the camera was raised or lowered so that there was the same amount of head room. Candidates were filmed from the knees up in order to minimize the different heights of the individuals. Males and females were filmed in a random order with the exception of the first three and last three individuals. Since only one group of subjects would view this tape, candidates who did not wish to participate in the actual filming of the sales presentation were assigned these positions in order to minimize primacy and recency effects.

In addition, several requirements were specified in the selection process in order to minimize the "familiarity" of the actors to the student subjects. This would enable us to avoid subsequent confounding and biasing in the experiment, as well as providing a taped sales presentation that would provide a sound basis for future studies. The following guidelines were applied:

1. If an actor/actress was a school of business student who had high visibility on campus (one that held an office or participated in a work/study program in the school of business), the subjects' familiarity with the individual might have an impact on the results of the study. The actors/actresses were originally screened for this potential problem and eliminated. The actors and actresses were primarily communication, public relations, and theatre arts majors.
2. If a student learned of an impending job offer or accepted a job offer in the school of business, after the taping, he or she was eliminated from the study so that the tapes could be used in the follow-up study to come. This was to insure that a different sample from the same population would be exposed to the same stimulus. In addition, total taping costs could be lessened.

Although a number of potentially good candidates were eliminated initially because of the first constraint, the second constraint was enforced to provide even greater control. In addition to these screening procedures, the pool of "available and willing participants" was considerably lower due to the fact that this taping occurred during a summer session, with all the attendant time conflicts.

#### Analysis of Pretest Attractiveness

Fifteen respondents in a summer Marketing Strategy class viewed the videotape on a big viewing screen in the conference room of the Management Development Center so that room bias could be minimized and atmospherics controlled during this pretest. After each candidate had been viewed for about 15 seconds, the pause button was struck and the students rated the salespeople on a multi-point scale as the following page shows:

Place an X in the space on the scale following the question that most clearly identifies your position.

Candidate #1

This salesperson is:

Appealing	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Not Appealing
Unattractive	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Attractive
Charming	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Not Charming
Ordinary	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Striking
Likable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Not Likable

The mean ratings of the pretest analysis of attractiveness attractiveness utilizing the continuum of unattractive-attractive are shown in Table 4. The highest scoring male candidate was chosen (#10). Female candidates #7 and #8 would have been a good match, but one received a job offer and the other would be leaving as an August graduate. Although both were willing originally to participate, their unavailability in the very near future could cause problems later if any retaping was necessary. Candidate #9 was chosen.

Nonverbal Status Cues

A semantic differential scale for rating non-verbal cues was used to assess the respondent's perception of high status and low status cues emitted by the salesperson. A combination of high (or low) status cues

TABLE 4  
 MEAN RATINGS IN PRETEST ANALYSIS OF ATTRACTIVENESS

Candidate Number	Sex	Means	
		Male	Female
1	M	2.6	
2	F		4.4
3	M	3.5	
4	F		5.4*
5	M	5.2*	
6	F		3.5
7	F		4.9
8	F		5.0
9	F		5.5
10	M	4.7	
11	F		4.5*
12	M	3.2	
13	M	4.0	
14	F		4.7*
15	M	4.5	
16	F		5.0

7 = attractive

1 = unattractive

\* = recognized by sample - omitted from consideration in order to control possible bias

was taken from Mehrabian's (Table 2) work in this area and supplemented by Henley's summarization (Table 3). The nonverbal cues used and the ones avoided so as to minimize confounding in this study are shown in Table 5. They were utilized and rehearsed by the actor/actress to simulate a realistic sales presentation and were then videotaped. For example, in the high status videotape, as shown in Figure E, the actor/actress will convey a powerful presence by a high degree of eye contact while speaking and a relaxed posture with an expanded chest. Frequent gestures and relaxed postural cues will enhance the perception of a high status individual.

On the other hand, the low status videotape presented an actor or actress who looked away before speaking and whose posture can best be described as depressed-- bowed head, drooping shoulders, sunken chest, with a shifting body orientation.

Certain nonverbal cues, such as gesticulation and a reclining position (as noted in Table 5) were kept to a minimum and were avoided whenever possible. These nonverbal cues are also found to be related to Mehrabian's (1972, 1981) evaluation or attitude construct examined in Chapter 2. Although it is believed that the status and evaluative dimensions are orthogonal (Bonoma and Felder 1977), considerable effort was put forth in order to keep possible confounding effects to a minimum. Since the actors were standing, torso orientation was

TABLE 5  
NONVERBAL CUES TO BE USED

High Status	Low Status
Direct eye contact while speaking	Looking away before speaking
Relaxed posture	Hesitations
Arm-position asymmetry	Halting speech with shifting eye contact
Sideways lean	Bowed head
Hand relaxation	Depressed posture
Neck relaxation	Sunken chest
Active speech rate	Dropping shoulders
Strong speech volume	Sunken chest
Chest expanded	Shifting body orientation
Direct body orientation	Avert eyes, watch
Informal	Tense
Stare	Circumspect
Don't smile	Smile

NONVERBAL CUES TO BE AVOIDED  
(or at least kept to a minimum)

Backward lean	Avoiding or shifting eye contact
Forward lean	Torso orientation away from addressee
Gesticulation	Finger-tapping
Reclining position	Uh-huh
Head nods	Higher speech rate

FIGURE E  
 VIDEOTAPE COMBINATIONS: NONVERBAL CUES

<u>Video Tape</u>	<u>Eye-Gaze</u>	<u>Posture</u>	<u>Body Orientation</u>	<u>Gestures</u>
V <sub>1</sub>	Direct while speaking	Relaxed, Chest expanded Backward lean or sideways lean	Direct	Open/ Free
V <sub>2</sub>	Direct while speaking	Relaxed, Chest expanded Backward lean or sideways lean	Direct	Open/ Free
V <sub>3</sub>	Looks away before speaking	Depressed, sunken chest, bowed head, drooping shoulders	Shifting	Inactive
V <sub>4</sub>	Looks away before speaking	Depressed, sunken chest, bowed head, drooping shoulders	Shifting	Inactive

V<sub>1</sub> = Female salesperson presents high status cues  
 V<sub>2</sub> = Male salesperson presents high status cues  
 V<sub>3</sub> = Female salesperson presents low status cues  
 V<sub>4</sub> = Male salesperson presents low status cues



squarely facing the unseen audience members. A reclining position was not possible and the actors were instructed not to lean either backward or forward. There were no "uh huhs" or head nods signifying agreement (an evaluative dimension) nor finger tapping. Two cues that overlapped in terms of status and evaluative dimensions did appear in the tapes. An "active" speech rate is a high status cue and a "higher" speech rate suggests a more positive evaluative dimension. Shifting eye contact is both a low status cue and a negative evaluative dimension. These cues will be examined more thoroughly in Chapter V - on the implications for future research.

The sales presentations were then viewed by respondents who completed the semantic differential scale for rating nonverbal cues. This scale, as shown in Table 6, was developed by Mehrabian (1972, 1981) and served as a check on the independent variable (status) that is being manipulated. Following the pretest, four different videotapes were developed to form the basis of this study:

- 1) A female salesperson exhibiting high status nonverbal cues during a sales presentation.
- 2) A female salesperson exhibiting low status nonverbal cues during a sales presentation.
- 3) A male salesperson exhibiting high status nonverbal cues during a sales presentation.

TABLE 6  
SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL SCALES FOR RATING NONVERBAL CUES

**Pleasure**

Happy	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Unhappy
Pleased	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Annoyed
Satisfied	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Unsatisfied
Contented	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Melancholic
Hopeful	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Despairing
Relaxed	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Bored

**Responsiveness**

Stimulated	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Relaxed
Excited	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Calm
Frenzied	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Sluggish
Jittery	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Dull
Wide-awake	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Sleepy
Aroused	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Unaroused

**Dominance**

Controlling	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Controlled
Influential	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Influenced
In control	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Cared-for
Important	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Awed
Dominant	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Submissive
Autonomous	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Guided

- 4) A male salesperson exhibiting low status nonverbal cues during a sales presentation.

### Appearance

The actor and actress wore deep blue business suits and cream colored shirts in order to minimize the impact of color on audience perceptions and most closely replicate appropriate business attire (Molloy 1975, 1977). Navy and cream are "safe" colors under studio lights.

### Other Controlled Variables

Three other variables must be controlled in order to avoid confounding the study. During pretesting, as well as during data collection, the environment (room decor, furnishings, etc.), the type of product, and the script must be the same in all tapes.

Scene/Environment. The setting/backdrop was a business office. All four videotapes used the same set and props so as to avoid confounding the study with room attractiveness and other symbolic or status objects.

Type of Product. In order to avoid the impact of an individual's prior belief and knowledge of a product or their assessment of the product's quality, it is important to utilize a new product. Without prior belief/knowledge of a product's attributes, the non-verbal cues will become even more salient as the

consumer searches in order to fill the information vacuum. This process could be further enhanced by a product that has both tangible and intangible qualities. A product such as Thinsulate (renamed Lightsulate to avoid evoking prior knowledge and beliefs) was selected as meeting these criteria. This product is a synthetic fiber replacement for down. It is presently used in ski clothes but has mass market potential for a variety of cold weather garments (coats, jackets, etc.) or bedding (quilts). It is superior to down in two ways. It is less bulky (a tangible characteristic) and warmer (an intangible attribute). A product that is less bulky is generally believed to be cooler. This quality of being "warmer than down" is not a characteristic that can be experienced until the product is purchased. This heightened risk is typical of a high involvement product. The "newness" of the product and financial outlay suggests a heavy emphasis on personal selling. The product (jacket) may be purchased by either a man or woman. In utilizing a neutral product, other confounding elements will be minimized (such as color, style, masculine/feminine appropriateness, etc.).

In addition to the product or service being new or primarily unknown, it is important to select one that has relatively high financial and social risk. In general, the greater the perceived financial and social risk associated with the product or service, the more

important is the information conveyed by the salesperson to the consumers.

Script. The script (see Appendix A) was pretested to determine whether the written communication avoided sex-typing the product while conveying the message that the product was new, was of high status and high involvement. Twenty-one undergraduate marketing students were given the script and then filled out the questionnaire shown in Appendix A. The analysis of the script data from the pretest is shown in Table 7. All of the following variables were as designed and in the direction intended. The product as described in the script was perceived as:

- 1) new,
- 2) high status,
- 3) non-sex typed,
- 4) involved relatively high financial risk, and
- 5) acceptable to my friends.

Only social risk was in the opposite direction as originally hypothesized. An individual, brief, but in-depth interview with several subjects revealed an interesting paradox. In essence, given that skiing is a high status sport and skiwear such a high status product, the subjects reported that there is little

TABLE 7  
ANALYSIS OF SCRIPT DATA

---

Please place an X on the space you believe best describes the script.

New Product	<u>18</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>    </u>	<u>1</u>	<u>    </u>	Old Product
High Status Product	<u>10</u>	<u>9</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>    </u>	<u>    </u>	Low Status Product
Masculine	<u>    </u>	<u>1</u>	<u>20</u>	<u>    </u>	<u>    </u>	Feminine
Low Financial Risk	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>10</u>	<u>3</u>	High Financial Risk
High Social Risk	<u>    </u>	<u>8</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	Low Social Risk

Please place an X on the space you believe best describes the product.

This product is:

High Priced	<u>6</u>	<u>13</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>    </u>	Low Priced
Feminine	<u>    </u>	<u>1</u>	<u>19</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>    </u>	Masculine
New	<u>19</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>    </u>	<u>    </u>	<u>    </u>	Old
**Acceptable to my friends	<u>13</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>    </u>	<u>    </u>	<u>    </u>	Unacceptable to my friends

---

\*Twenty-one subjects total

\*\*One omit

social risk associated with the purchase. Apparently, ownership of the product violates no social norms.

### Procedures

After the available actors and actresses had been pretested in order to assess equivalent attractiveness and the nonverbal status cues were written in to aid the actors in successfully differentiating between high and low status cues, four videotapes were created as depicted in Figure E. These videotapes portrayed the actor/actress in a simulated sales presentation much like the type of presentation that is made to a corporate board of directors or executive decision makers. There was no dyadic interaction, but rather a videotaped presentation (such as a commercial) was viewed. A total of 99 subjects viewed the videotapes.

Three classes of undergraduate business students were utilized as subjects in this experiment. In each class, the subjects were randomly assigned to one of the four treatment conditions (videotapes). Although the participation of only 10 male and 10 female subjects per treatment condition was necessary for this study, the availability of an additional 19 subjects suggested the possibility of increasing the power of the statistical test by increasing the sample size. Since this was the first study of two, an increase in the power of the test would provide a sounder basis on which to refine the

follow-up study. Unfortunately, there would not be an equal number of male and female subjects and this problem was compounded when three females in the last treatment cell were unable to finish due to time conflicts. (The experiment had run long.) This newly acquired experience was put to good use in the second study.

Following the viewing of the videotapes, the subjects completed the questionnaire composed of semantic differential scales as shown in Appendix B. At least three adjective pairs have been used to capture each construct and examine the effectiveness of the manipulations, as shown in Table 8. The instrument was designed to assess the subject's evaluation of the following constructs:

- 1) the subject's attitude toward the salesperson,
- 2) the perception of how well the product and the salesperson "fit together,"
- 3) the subject's intention to purchase the product,
- 4) product quality, and
- 5) the subject's attitude toward the product.

In addition, there are four manipulation checks included:







- 1) credibility of the salesperson,
- 2) attractiveness of the salesperson,
- 3) the perception of the nonverbal status cues, and
- 4) the salesperson's attitude toward the product.

The independent constructs of credibility, attractiveness and status and the salesperson's attitude toward the product consisted of several items each in order to be certain that the strength and magnitude of the manipulations could be assessed. Seven variables comprise the construct of credibility: believability, sincerity, trustworthiness, credibility, expertness, informativeness, and knowledgeable. Attractiveness is comprised of five variables: appealing, attractive, charming, striking and likable. Status is comprised of eleven variables, seven which had been utilized in Mehrabian's (1972, 1981) work (relaxed, controlling, influential, in control, important, dominant, and autonomous) and the other four were developed for this study in order to capture the construct of status in a less formal manner (courteous, respectful, listens, and deferential).

The dependent variables were assessed primarily on the adjective pairs labeled good/bad, favorable/unfavorable, and desirable/not desirable. The purchase intention was approached in three different ways: recommend purchases for a friend, recommend purchase as

a retail buyer, or purchase for myself if I skied. Since it was possible that the subjects might forget that they were to play the role of a buyer, the two other dependent variables were developed in order to assess the strength of the subjects' intention to buy. The fourth construct is comprised of three variables that were developed to assess the salesperson's attitude toward the product. The adjective pairs were labeled positive/negative, good/bad, and favorable/unfavorable. Ideally, the respondents should perceive no significant differences in the salesperson's attitude toward the product across treatment conditions.

#### Selection Biases

Given the nature of this study, student subjects are appropriate. The intent of this study is to test theory application, not effects application (Calder, Phillips, and Tybout 1981).

Another bias to be considered concerns the problem of a laboratory setting (Aaker and Day 1986). The artificiality of the settings and arrangements varies considerably from a subject's watching a commercial on television or interacting in a sales situation. This problem, admittedly real and substantial, was partially addressed by the cover story that follows this section.

On the other hand, the experimental setting does lend itself to the type of teleconferencing that has

been used at major universities and colleges across the nation (Fisk and Ivy 1985). Although some of the findings may not be directly applicable to teleconferencing where dyadic interactions are concerned, some inferences may be appropriate for this type of communication.

### Disguising the Study

Scherer and Ekman (1982) suggest that due to a wide distribution of popular body language books, researchers need to disguise the purpose of the investigation with any type of subject population. A cover story was used and the subjects were debriefed after the experiment.

The cover story read as follows:

Imagine that you are a buyer for a large chain of retail stores that specializes in ski clothes and equipment. You are seated in a room with other major buyers of ski clothes and are observing a sales presentation of a new product. Please observe the following tape and fill out the questionnaire which will be given to you at the end of the presentation.

### Overview of Analysis

A total of 54 males and 45 females (n=99) participated in the study and filled out the questionnaire shown in Appendix B. The subjects were randomly assigned to one of the four following treatment conditions and viewed the appropriate videotape.

## SUBJECTS

	<u>Males</u>	<u>Females</u>
High status cues emitted by female salesperson	12	12
Low status cues emitted by female salesperson	12	13
High status cues emitted by male salesperson	15	11
Low status cues emitted by male salesperson	15	9

The analysis which follows is organized into three major sections:

- 1) reliability measures,
- 2) manipulation checks, and
- 3) treatment effects.

The manipulation checks serve to examine the following constructs as shown in Table 8:

- 1) credibility of the salesperson,
- 2) attractiveness of the salesperson,
- 3) status cues emitted, and
- 4) the product --> salesperson link (how well the product and the salesperson "fit together").

The manipulation check analysis examined the respondent's perception of the manipulations of the independent variable. Factor analysis was used to identify the dimensions explaining the most variance and to confirm the constructs as developed.

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to analyze the multiple dependent variables that were interrelated. Univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA)

was used to examine the main effects of sex of salesperson, degree of status and sex of respondent, as well as to investigate the interaction effects on the following dependent variables:

- 1) attitude toward the salesperson,
- 2) intention to purchase the product,
- 3) assessment of product quality, and
- 4) attitude toward the product.

In addition, multivariate (MANCOVA) and univariate (ANCOVA) analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was performed in order to control statistically the variables of likability and attractiveness.

#### Reliability

Reliability coefficients for each construct were obtained in order to examine the stability of the variables. The Cronbach alpha's for each of the a priori constructs were as follows:

<u>Constructs</u>	<u>Reliability Constructs</u>
Credibility	.86
Attractiveness	.75
Status	.57
Sentiment Connection of Product/Salesperson	.96
Sentiment Connection of Consumer/Salesperson	.92
Purchase Intention	.89
Product Quality Assessment	.93
Sentiment Connection of Consumer/Product	.96

All constructs met the .5 measure deemed desirable (Nunnally 1967).

#### Factor Analysis of the Entire Instrument

Factor analysis of all variables was performed for two reasons: first, to examine the underlying constructs in the data to see if the variables cluster together as designed; second, to reduce the number of variables to a manageable set. Varimax rotation was used subsequently to improve the interpretability of the factors. Two rules of thumb may be applied in order to examine the appropriate number of factors (Aaker and Day 1986). First, using the heuristic that factors should explain at least as much variance as the "average variable," seven factors emerged, as shown in Table 9.

The second heuristic uses the scree approach in which one looks at the amount of variance explained by the factors. Since the third factor signifies a large drop in the variance explained between two factors, then perhaps the first two factors are the most meaningful.

In order to improve further the interpretability of the factors, the scree method was used and varimax rotation was performed on all variables specifying an NFACTOR=2. The results are displayed in Table 10 and indicate, via the factor loadings, that the Product Assessment is composed of the same variables that were represented in the original varimax rotation when the



TABLE 9  
FACTOR LOADING USING VARIMAX ROTATION

Constructs	Factors				Cronbach's Alpha	Communality
	I	II	III	IV		
<u>Product Assessment</u>					.96	
Would purchase for a friend	.62					.68
Would recommend as a buyer	.60					.74
Would purchase if I skied	.73					.67
High Quality	.77					.74
Desirable Quality	.85					.83
Good Quality	.76					.74
Favorable Quality	.89					.95
Viewed product positively	.82					.92
Viewed product favorably	.80					.87
Viewed product good	.80					.89
Liked product	.82					.80
<u>Perception of Salesperson</u>					.91	
Viewed Salesperson as likable		.77				.87
Viewed Salesperson as favorable		.79				.94
Viewed Salesperson as positive		.76				.82
Dominant/Submissive Salesperson		.63				.70
Relaxed/Tense Salesperson		.62				.57
Variance Explained by Each Factor	40.8	9.2	4.6	4.4		
Total Variance Explained	40.8	50.1	54.7	59.1		

TABLE 9 (continued)  
 FACTOR LOADING USING VARIMAX ROTATION

Constructs	Factors				Cronbach's Alpha	Communality
	I	II	III	IV		
<u>Salesperson Expertise</u>					.81	
Expert/Not Expert Salesperson			.60			.54
Information/Not informative			.52			.64
Salesperson						
Knowledgeable/Not knowledgeable			.67			.68
<u>Salesperson's View of Product</u>					.96	
Positive/Negative				.72		.87
Good/Bad				.79		.94
Favorable/Unfavorable				.79		.88
Variance Explained by Each Factor	40.8	9.2	4.6	4.4		
Total Variance Explained	40.8	50.1	54.7	59.1		

TABLE 9 (Continued)  
FACTOR LOADING USING VARIMAX ROTATION

Constructs	Factors			Cronbach's Alpha	Communality
	V	VI	VII		
<u>Politeness</u>				.62	
Courteous/Discourteous Salesperson	-.44				.59
Respectful/Disrespectful Salesperson	-.41				.67
Listener/Doesn't listen	-.42				.27
Deferential/Not Deferential	-.49				.32
<u>Believability of Salesperson</u>				.76	
Believable/Not Believable Salesperson		.52			.69
Sincere/Insincere Salesperson		.47			.53
Credible/Not Credible Salesperson		.61			.59
<u>Salesperson's Autonomy</u>				.72	
Controlling/Controlled Salesperson			.58		.37
Autonomous/Guided			.49		.48
Variance Explained by Each Factor	3.5	3.2	3.0		
Total Variance Explained	62.6	65.8	68.8		

TABLE 10  
 VARIMAX ROTATION OF TWO FACTORS --> STUDY #1

Constructs	Factors		Communality
	I	II	
<u>Product Assessment</u>			
Would purchase for a friend	.68		.65
Would recommend as a buyer	.65		.66
Would purchase if I skied	.75		.62
High Quality	.82		.71
Desirable Quality	.79		.63
Good Quality	.81		.68
Favorable Quality	.85		.74
Viewed product positively	.88		.85
Viewed product favorably	.85		.79
Viewed product as good	.88		.83
Liked product	.80		.69
<u>Perception of Salesperson</u>			
Viewed salesperson as likable	.70		.54
Viewed salesperson favorably	.79		.69
Viewed salesperson as positive	.79		.69
Dominant/Submissive	.78		.65
Influential/Influenced	.72		.60
Charming/Not Charming	.69		
Appealing/Not Appealing	.72		.53
Variance Explained by Each Factor	40.8	9.2	
Total Variance Explained	40.8	50.1	

number of factors were not specified. The second factor labeled Perception of Salesperson has four of the original five variables (viewing salesperson as likable, favorable, positive and dominant or submissive) found in the original varimax rotation. The variable labeled relaxed/tense dropped out. Three other variables influential/influenced, appealing/not appealing and charming/not charming appear to define further the second factor when the two factors were specified.

Regarding the variables comprising the second construct, it may be that certain status variables (dominant/submissive and influential/influenced) are included here as attitude proxies. Indeed, the inclusion of the attractiveness variables (appealing/not appealing and charming/not charming) suggests that variables measuring the personal attractiveness of the salesperson function as attitude proxies for the measurement of the consumer's perception of the salesperson. This will be discussed further in the discussion section at the end of this chapter.

### Unidimensionality

A factor analysis of each construct was performed in order to examine its unidimensionality. The complete results are shown in Appendix C. A brief list of the variables explaining the greatest variance within each construct is shown in Table 11.

TABLE 11  
PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS

Construct/Variables	Factor I	Communality	Cronbach's Alpha
<u>Credibility</u>			.86
Believable	.73	.53	
Sincere	.59	.34	
Trusting	.71	.52	
Credible	.63	.39	
Expert	.67	.45	
Informative	.66	.43	
Knowledgeable	.78	.61	
<u>Attractive</u>			.75
Appealing	.74	.55	
Attractive	.49	.24	
Charming	.79	.63	
Striking	.44	.19	
Likable	.60	.34	
<u>Sentiment Connection Product --&gt; Salesperson</u>			.96
Positive	.93	.87	
Good	.97	.94	
Favorable	.92	.85	
<u>Sentiment Connection Consumer --&gt; Salesperson</u>			.92
Likable	.84	.71	
Favorable	.94	.88	
Positive	.89	.80	
<u>Purchase Intention</u>			.89
Friend	.90	.82	
Buyer	.86	.75	
Self	.79	.63	
<u>Quality</u>			.93
High	.83	.69	
Desirable	.88	.78	
Good	.86	.74	
Favorable	.96	.92	
<u>Sentiment Connection Consumer --&gt; Product</u>			.96
Positive	.99	.97	
Favorable	.97	.93	
Good	.94	.89	
Like	.84	.70	

All of the constructs were examined using principal component analysis because the constructs (with the exception of status) did not have enough factors to utilize rotation. Varimax rotation was needed to improve the interpretability of the three factors comprising the construct of status. The variables which comprise each of the three factors are shown in Table 12.

Mehrabian (1972, 1981) suggests that the construct of status may be captured with seven variables. The seven variables are represented by the combination of the first and third factors in Table 12. Five of the seven variables are represented by the first factor labeled Independence (relaxed/tense, influential/influenced, in control/cared for, important/awed, dominant/submissive). This is by far the most important factor as it explains 42% of the variance in the construct of status. The third factor labeled controlling is represented by the variables controlling/controlled and autonomous/guided. These variables in the third factor may be important variables when assessing the status of an individual in a dyadic interaction, but may not be relevant or important variables where this study is concerned. Since a dyadic interaction is not observed, it is possible the subjects did not see these

TABLE 12  
VARIMAX ROTATION OF STATUS - STUDY #1

Variables	Factors			Communality
	I	II	III	
<u>Independence</u>				
Relaxed	.69			.51
Influential	.76			.68
In control	.65			.76
Important	.62			.47
Dominant	.83			.75
<u>Politeness</u>				
Courteous		.77		.69
Respectful		.79		.72
<u>Controlling</u>				
Autonomous			.52	.46
Controlling			.50	.30
Variance				
Explained by				
Each Factor	42.1	12.8	9.9	
Total Variance				
Explained	42.1	54.9	64.8	



last two variables as being applicable. The low (9.9%) variance explained suggests the lack of importance too.

The second factor, labeled politeness, may be inappropriate to this study as well. Since "deference" was used by Mehrabian to describe the relative status of two individuals, the related items were to provide another way of capturing the construct of status. Given the possibility that deferential/not deferential would not be understood or interpreted properly, two synonyms (courteous and respectful) from Webster's dictionary were used. As these two variables explain only 12.8% of the variance, their inclusion was perhaps, inappropriate and confused the issue as to which variables comprise the construct of status. The concept of deference was either not understood by the subjects or deemed inappropriate to this study. As this is an exploratory study in nonverbal communication, such results are not surprising.

In summary, the first factor (labeled independence here) explained 42% of the variance and would appear to be most applicable to this study as it captures the meaning of the status construct.

An alternative explanation for these results might be that the subjects have responded positively to the status cues emitted by the salesperson, but perhaps in a differential way. Specifically, the first factor, labeled independence, is composed of primarily high

status cues to which subjects have responded positively. The second factor labeled politeness, has variables that are most often associated with low status cues. Both factors are viewed as positive by the subjects, but are composed of variables that relate to different treatment conditions (low vs high status cues). It is possible that subjects relate positively to different variables in different treatment conditions.

But the third factor, comprised of the variables labeled autonomous and controlling, suggest that certain high status cues may be viewed as manipulative actions on the part of the salesperson. These variables, may be assessed negatively by the consumer and may have a resulting negative impact on the consumer attitudes.

#### Manipulation Checks

It was essential that several constructs be successfully manipulated. Primary importance here is related to the strength of the level of nonverbal cues exhibited by the actors. Respondents should have perceived a significant difference in the high vs. low status videotapes. Ideally, the remaining constructs of credibility, attractiveness, and attitude of the salesperson towards the product should not be significantly different across treatment conditions. The results of these manipulation checks are examined separately in the sections that follow.

### Analysis of Independent Variables

Since the Cronbach's alpha's indicate that the constructs are stable and that the variables appear to capture the constructs, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed as shown in Table 13. When the MANOVA was significant, the variables that compose that construct are discussed as one unit with the strongest variable(s) being noted where appropriate. If MANOVA is not significant, but certain select variables are significant, they are shown in Table 13 using the univariate approach analysis of variance (ANOVA). These techniques were used to examine the manipulation of status cues by a male or female salesperson. Preliminary results suggest that the status cues were manipulated successfully. In addition, it appears that the variables measuring the salesperson's credibility were unintentionally manipulated. Since it is possible that the status and credibility variables overlap to some degree, these different variables may actually be measuring the same construct. Further, certain variables measuring the "personality" attractiveness of the salesperson (but not the physical attractiveness) appear to have been unintentionally manipulated. Since these variables appear to overlap with the consumer's view of the salesperson, their inclusion as controlled variables may be inappropriate. Although the status cues were

TABLE 13  
MANIPULATION CHECKS OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES - STUDY #1

Treatment Effects Constructs	Status	Sex of Salesperson	Sex of Respondent	Status by Sex of Salesperson	Status by Sex of Respondent	Status by Sex of Salesperson by Sex of Respondent
<u>CREDIBILITY</u>	.00*					
Believable	.00					
Sincere	.00					
Trusting	.00				.07	
Credible	.00				.01	
Expert	.00					.09
Informative	.00	.10	.09			
Knowledgeable	.00	.06				
<u>ATTRACTIVENESS</u>	.00*					
Appealing	.00					
Attractive			.08			
Charming	.00					
Striking	.04					
Likable	.01					

\*MANOVA

TABLE 13 (continued)

MANIPULATION CHECKS OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES - STUDY #1

Treatment Effects Constructs	Status	Sex of Salesperson	Sex of Respondent	Status by Sex of Salesperson	Status by Sex of Respondent	Status by Sex of Salesperson by Sex of Respondent
<u>STATUS</u>	.01*					
Courteous	.01					
Respectful	.00	.08		.06	.05	
Listens		.05		.07		
Deferential						
Relaxed	.00					
Controlling						
Influential	.00	.09	.05		.05	
In Control	.00					
Important	.00	.07	.06		.06	
Dominant	.00					
Autonomous	.04	.08			.09	
<u>PRODUCT ----&gt;</u>						
<u>SALESPERSON</u>	.00*					
Positive	.00			.09		
Good	.00		.09			
Favorable	.00		.08			

\*MANOVA

successfully manipulated, certain issues have emerged which are discussed in the section following the analysis.

Credibility construct. MANOVA indicates that only the main effect of status had a significant ( $p < .01$ ) impact on the respondent's perceptions of the salespersons credibility. An examination of the means in Appendix D indicate that when the respondents observed the high status tapes the means were about 4.4, whereas in the low status tapes the means of the seven variables comprising credibility averaged about 3.2. It appears that respondents perceived the salesperson in the high status tapes to be significantly more believable, sincere, trusting, credible, expert, informative, and believable than when low status cues were observed. An examination of the various univariate variables that were significant individually but not as a construct are shown in Table 13 and further analysis follows.

Respondents viewed the salesperson as being more ( $p < .01$ ) credible on all variables when emitting high status cues during a sales presentation than when emitting low status cues. Ideally, there were to be no significant differences on this construct with the low status sales presentations being viewed by the subjects as fully "credible" as the high status sales presentations. Since the "credibility" of presentations appeared to correlate strongly with the status cues

presented, there arises a question of causation. This issue is addressed in the discussion of manipulation checks at the end of this section and provides the impetus for the follow up study which was conducted.

The construct of credibility is composed of the variables believability, sincerity, trusting, credibility, expertness, informative, and knowledgeable, as shown in Table 13. It should be noted though that the means tended to cluster toward the neutral (4) point on the seven point scale, not at the extremes. Only on the adjective pair labeled expert/not expert did the average drop to 2.8, primarily across the low status treatments.

The significant main effects are superceded by the presence of significant interaction terms. Specifically, the interaction effect that emerged between the sex of the respondents and the status cues emitted by the salesperson ( $p < .05$ ). On the variable labeled credible/not credible, females rated the low status presentations as being far less credible ( $\bar{x} = 2.2$ ) than the male respondents ( $\bar{x} = 3.5$ ), particularly where the low status male presenter was concerned. On the other hand, the female respondents rated the high status presentations as being far more credible ( $\bar{x} = 4.7$ ) than did male respondents ( $\bar{x} = 3.9$ ), particularly again where the high status male salesperson was concerned.

Attractiveness. Both MANOVA and ANOVA were performed in order to see whether pretesting for physical attractiveness had been successful. That is, did the respondents view the male and female salesperson to be of equivalent attractiveness? Preliminary indications, using MANOVA and ANOVA, suggest that equivalent attractiveness was achieved. The main effect of sex of the salesperson was not significant on any of the variables within the construct of attractiveness.

When MANOVA was used to examine the effect of attractiveness, only the main effect of status was significant ( $p = .003$ ). A closer analysis of the data revealed an interesting result with four of the five variables being significant. The variable that was not significant was the variable labeled attractive/-unattractive.

The main effect of the sex of the respondent was only marginally significant ( $p = .08$ ) on the paired adjectives of attractive/unattractive. Females rated the salespeople only slightly more attractive ( $\bar{x} = 4.25$ ) than male respondents ( $\bar{x} = 3.84$ ). But of major importance is the fact that the subjects did not perceive a significant difference in the physical attractiveness between the male and female salespeople when the main effect of status cues was examined ( $p = .67$ ). Since it is crucial that the two presenters be perceived similarly by the respondents on this variable, this



particular manipulation check was fairly successful. But the construct of attractiveness is significant ( $p < .01$ ) on three other variables. The salesperson was perceived as more appealing, charming, and likable when emitting high status cues than when emitting low status cues. In addition, the salesperson appears to be more ( $p < .05$ ) striking when emitting high status cues than when low status cues are emitted.

It is possible that the adjective pairs appealing/unappealing, charming/not charming, and likable/not likable may be related more to "personality" characteristics than physical attractiveness. In retrospect, these variables may be more like the variables used to measure the consumer's attitude toward the salesperson (C --> S link) rather than a measure of physical attractiveness. Since this construct of attractiveness was intended to provide a measurement of physical attractiveness between the two sales presenters, the adjective pair labeled attractive/unattractive was the most important variable. The fact that there was not a significant difference between the presenters on this variable was precisely the desired result and the reason that the pretesting was essential to this study.

Status. The purpose of this study was to assess the impact of nonverbal cues on the consumer's view of the product and the salesperson. In order to do this,

it was essential for the status cues to be successfully manipulated. The results, shown in Table 13, indicate that the status cues were successfully manipulated.

When MANOVA was used to examine the data, respondents perceived a significant difference between the high and low status cues. Overall, the high status videotapes were assessed more favorably than were the low status videotapes, except where the variables of courteous and respectful were concerned. The means are noted in Appendix D and the variables are examined in greater detail using ANOVA.

Univariate analysis reveals that subjects perceived a significant difference ( $p < .01$ ) between high and low status cues when the variables of courteous, respectful, relaxed, influential, in control, important, and dominant were examined. The salesperson who emits high status cues is perceived as more courteous and respectful than the salesperson who emits low status cues. High status salespersons were viewed as significantly more relaxed, influential, in control, important, and autonomous as shown in Table 13. The adjective pairs labeled listens/doesn't listen, deferential/not deferential controlling/controlled were not significant where the construct of status was concerned. Since the tapes did not include a buyer-seller dyad, perhaps it was not possible for a singular sales presentation to be evaluated on this variable.

Respondent's Perception of Salesperson's View of Product. The purpose examining the respondent's perception of the salesperson's view of the product was to determine if significant differences due to the main effects existed. Ideally, the perception of the salesperson's attitude toward the product is constant across treatments, since the balance theory explanation given earlier assumes a constant positive link. An analysis was performed to investigate this assumption. MANOVA results indicate that when a salesperson emits high status cues, the respondent perceives the salesperson's attitude toward the product to be significantly ( $p < .01$ ) more positive, good, and favorable ( $x = 5.4$ ) than when low status cues are emitted ( $x = 4.3$ ). ANOVA results further indicate that female respondents viewed the high status male salesperson as having a better attitude toward the product (on the dimensions of good, positive, and favorable) than did the male respondents viewing the same sales presentation as shown in Table 13.

#### Discussion of Manipulation Checks

It was crucial that two major manipulations be successfully implemented before the dependent variables could be examined. First, the MANOVA's and ANOVA's had

to indicate a significant difference between the high and low status cues. Second, the perceived attractiveness of the actors (salespeople) had to be similar so that attractiveness would not be confounded with the status manipulations. The physical attractiveness of the two actors (male and female) appears to have been controlled and the status manipulations implemented successfully. However, several other a priori constructs (credibility and the respondent's perception of the salesperson's view of product) were inadvertently manipulated. The inadvertent manipulation of these a priori constructs poses an interesting dilemma with at least two possible explanations:

The a priori constructs are different and are inextricably confounded in this study,

or

certain a priori constructs (such as credibility) are subsets of other constructs (such as status), and the positive correlation between the constructs is to be expected.

In order to resolve these issues, a second study was developed in an effort to provide greater control and to eliminate possible confounding. This study is fully developed and examined in the next chapter.

### Analysis of Dependent Variables

Multivariate and univariate analysis of variance will be used to examine the main effects of the impact of nonverbal status cues, sex of the salesperson, and sex of the respondent, as well as the interaction effects on the following dependent variables:

- 1) attitude toward the salesperson,
- 2) intention to purchase the product,
- 3) product quality, and
- 4) attitude toward the product.

But first, perhaps it would be best to examine the findings as they relate to the research question in general and the hypothesis in particular.

### Discussion of Research Question

The research question which this study was designed to answer is as follows:

How do the nonverbal status cues emitted from male and female salespersonnel differentially influence consumer attitudes toward the product and toward the salesperson?

Support for the general research question is found as nonverbal status cues emitted by salespeople do appear to influence consumer attitudes differentially where product quality is concerned and the consumer's attitude toward the salesperson. In general, high status cues significantly affect the consumer's attitude

toward product quality and the salesperson in a positive direction. Conversely, low status cues have a negative impact on consumer attitudes towards the product and salesperson. These will be discussed more fully in the sections that follow.

On the other hand, support for the explicit hypotheses stated above was generally weaker. It appears that the gender of the salesperson emitting nonverbal cues is, overall, less important than whether those cues are of high or low status. Specifically, the sex of the salesperson appeared to be somewhat important in influencing the consumer's attitude towards the product, but was not at all significant in influencing the consumer's attitude towards the salesperson. Please note Table 14 for the levels of significance in examining the main effects of status and the sex of the salesperson. These effects will be examined in greater detail in the sections that follow.

Although the significant main effects will be discussed first, they are superceded by the presence of significant interaction terms that relate to the consumer's attitude towards the salesperson and perception of product quality. MANOVA and ANOVA were also used to examine the more explicit interaction effects that were hypothesized as follow:

An interaction is predicted to occur between the status of the nonverbal cues emitted by a salesperson and the gender of the salesperson. Specifically, it is hypothesized that receivers of information will rate

TABLE 14  
DEPENDENT VARIABLES TABLE OF SIGNIFICANCE

Main and Interaction Effects Dependent Variables	Status	Sex of Salesperson	Sex of Respondent	Status by Sex of Respondent
CONSUMER ---->				
SALESPERSON	.00*			
Likable	.00			
Favorable	.00			.07
Positive	.00			.05
PURCHASE				
INTENTION	.00*		.04*	
Friend	.00	.05	.02	
Buyer	.00	.02		
Myself	.01			
PRODUCT				
QUALITY				
High	.01	.05		.06
Desirable	.03	.09		
Good	.04	.07		.08
Favorable	.01	.04		
ATTITUDE TOWARD				
PRODUCT C---->P	.00*	.07*		
Positive	.00	.06	.03	
Favorable	.00	.03		
Good	.00		.03	
LIKING	.01			
SUMMED INDICES	.00*			

\*MANOVA

the product and the salesperson more highly when a male salesperson emits high status nonverbal cues. Conversely, receivers will rate the product and salesperson more highly when a female salesperson emits low status nonverbal cues.

While it is apparent that both sexes preferred the high status sales presentations, female respondents did so by a wider mean difference. Specifically, female respondents found the salesperson to be more favorable ( $p = .08$ ) and more positive ( $p = .05$ ) than male respondents, when high status cues were observed. Conversely, when low status cues were observed, female respondents viewed the salesperson as being significantly less positive and less favorable than in the high status tapes and they were significantly more negative in their appraisal than were the male respondents viewing the same tapes. This pattern was repeated with two adjective pairs (high/low and good/bad) measuring the consumer's perception of product quality.

The findings generated by ANOVA indicate that there were two constructs which had significant interaction effects that address the explicit hypothesis. Although these two constructs are significant on the status by sex of respondent interaction as generally hypothesized, the specific influence of a male or female salesperson on the respondents attitude towards the product or consumer as hypothesized was not supported.

Each construct and the variables which comprise that construct will be examined, in detail, for both main and interactive effects.



Attitude of Consumer Toward Salesperson. MANOVA indicates that there is a very significant difference ( $p < .01$ ) in the consumer's attitude toward the salesperson where status cues are concerned. When high status cues were emitted by the salesperson, he or she was viewed as significantly more likable, favorable, and positive ( $\bar{x} = 4.1$ ) than when low status cues were emitted ( $\bar{x} = 2.7$ ).

ANOVA results indicate that the sex of the respondent was significant on the adjective pairs labeled positive-negative and favorable/unfavorable. Female respondents viewed the salesperson emitting low status cues as significantly less positive than did the male respondents viewing the same tape. This is consistent with the literature cited in Chapter II, but it suggests that the male subjects did not find the presentation of low status cues to be as negative an influence on their attitude toward the salesperson as did female subjects.

Intention to Purchase Product. In order to capture a respondent's intention to purchase the product, three variables were utilized. They were:

- 1) considering the purchase for a friend,
- 2) as a buyer for a ski firm, and
- 3) purchasing for myself (if I skied).

Significant differences ( $p < .01$ ) were found on all three variables regarding purchase intentions. MANOVA

results indicate that a far stronger intention to purchase was apparent when high status cues were emitted ( $\bar{x} = 4.6$ ) rather than low status cues ( $\bar{x} = 3.2$ ). Subjects were more likely to recommend the purchase to a friend ( $p = .05$ ) or as a buyer ( $p = .02$ ) when viewing the female sales presentation. In addition, the female respondents were more likely to recommend the purchase to a friend than were male respondents regardless of which sales presentation had been viewed ( $p = .02$ ). There were no significant interaction effects on this construct.

Product Quality Perception. Significant main effects were found using ANOVA. There were no significant MANOVA effects. The main effect of status is the most significant ( $p < .05$ ). The product's quality is perceived by the respondents as significantly ( $p < .05$ ) higher, more desirable, good, and favorable when high status cues are emitted by the salesperson. In addition, the gender of the salesperson, while of lesser significance ( $p < .1$ ), appears to have an effect upon the product's quality. Generally, when the respondents viewed the taped presentation of the saleswoman, the product's quality was seen as higher ( $p = .05$ ), more desirable ( $p = .09$ ), good ( $p = .07$ ), and more favorable ( $p = .04$ ) than when the tapes of the salesman were viewed. The status and the sex of the salesperson, though significant separately, did not interact.

Marginally significant interaction effects of status by the sex of the respondent were found. In the high status tapes, female respondents viewed the product's quality as higher ( $p = .06$ ) and better ( $p = .08$ ) than did male respondents. Conversely, in the low status tapes, male respondents viewed the product as having higher and better quality than did female respondents viewing the same tapes. Although the interactions are not significant at the .05 level, they suggest a tendency that future studies may need to investigate more thoroughly.

Attitude Toward the Product. The respondent's attitude toward the product is very similar to their perception of the product's quality--only stronger. MANOVA results indicate that the high status cues emitted by a salesperson result in a significantly ( $p < .01$ ) more positive, favorable, and better attitude ( $\bar{x} = 4.9$ ) toward the product than when low status cues ( $\bar{x} = 4.2$ ) are emitted.

In addition, the saleswoman is perceived by respondents to have a more positive ( $p = .06$ ) and favorable ( $p = .03$ ) attitude toward the product than the salesman. Finally, the sex of the respondent was significant when the product is evaluated on the adjective pairs labeled positive-negative and good-bad. Female respondents tend to assess higher means across status levels than do the male respondents in all

treatment conditions, as shown in Appendix D. This finding suggests that female respondents are not as likely as male respondents to be as critical in their attitude toward the product, regardless of the status cues emitted by the salesperson.

### Covariate Analysis

After ANOVA had been performed on all dependent variables to assess the impact of status cues, sex of the salesperson and sex of the respondent, a covariate analysis was performed in order to control, statistically, the variables of likability and attractiveness. Although a pre-test was performed in order to control for the physical attractiveness of the salesperson, it is possible that the attractiveness of the individual could influence the consumer's perception of the product. This is possible since the construct of attractiveness appears to have split into two different aspects, one of "physical" attractiveness and the other of relating to personality characteristics. Since it is conceivable that the "likability" of the salesperson may have had an influence on the consumer's attitude toward the product, it is important to examine this source of variation and examine its correlation with the main effects, if any. Thus, both the variable attractive/unattractive and likable/not likable were covaried out of the analysis, using ANCOVA. The results

covaried out of the analysis, using ANCOVA. The results of the analysis are shown in Table 15 and the impact of the treatment conditions on the purchase intention, perception of product quality, and the consumer's attitude toward the product. In examining all three dependent variables, physical "attractiveness" is not at all significant. But the likable covariate is significant for all dependent variables.

Purchase Intention. The consumer's perception of the "likableness" of the salesperson covaries significantly ( $p < .005$ ) with recommending the product to a friend, as a buyer and purchasing the product for one's self. But still, MANCOVA and ANCOVA results indicate that the treatment effects of status significantly ( $p < .005$ ) influence the purchase recommendation to a friend and as a buyer. The purchase for one's self was less significant ( $p = .08$ ) than the other two measures. The respondents were more likely to recommend the purchase as a buyer ( $p = .05$ ) when viewing the female sales presentations. In addition, female respondents were more likely to recommend the purchase as a friend ( $p = .01$ ) and as a buyer ( $p = .05$ ) than were male respondents regardless of the treatment conditions. The MANCOVA and ANCOVA pattern of results mirrors the same findings as the previously discussed MANOVA and ANOVA. These findings suggest that, although the likability may covary significantly with the main

TABLE 15  
 ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE - Study #1  
 Attractiveness and Likable Covariates

Treatment Effects				Significance Level of "Likable"
Dependent Variable	Status	Sex of Salesperson	Sex of Respondent	
PURCHASE INTENTION	.00*		.02*	
Friend	.00		.01	.00
Buyer	.00	.05	.05	.00
Self	.08			.00
PRODUCT QUALITY				
High	.10	.06		.00
Desirable				.00
Good		.09	.06	.00
Favorable	.06	.06		.00
ATTITUDE TOWARD PRODUCT C-->P	.05*	.07*	.09*	
Positive	.01	.10	.02	.00
Favorable	.01	.04	.02	.00
Good	.01		.02	.00
Like	.06			.00

\*MANCOVA

effects, its statistical removal has virtually no impact on the treatment effects. No additional main effects are observed.

Perception of Product Quality. Although the "likableness" of the salesperson does appear to vary significantly ( $p < .005$ ) with the perception of quality, the treatment conditions still influence the consumer's perception of quality. Status cues have a somewhat weaker impact on the two variables labeled high/low ( $p = .1$ ) and favorable/unfavorable ( $p = .06$ ). Stronger effects are found when the impact of the sex of the salesperson is assessed. The respondents were more likely to view the product as having higher ( $p = .06$ ), better ( $p = .09$ ), and more favorable ( $p = .06$ ) quality when the female sales presentations were viewed. In addition, female respondents viewed the product as having significantly better quality ( $p = .06$ ) regardless of treatment conditions.

In comparing the ANCOVA and ANOVA results, when the effects of the uncontrollable variable "likability" are removed via ANCOVA, some of the previously significant main effects disappear and others are somewhat negligible. Specifically, the main effect of status is the most interesting in this regard. Adjective pairs (labelled desirable/undesirable and good/bad) measuring the importance of the status treatments on the dependent variable of product quality are not at all significant

when the likability variable is included in the model. Since as a purely statistical procedure, the ANCOVA makes no assumption about a causal relationship between the covariate and the dependent variable, caution must be exercised in the implicit use of this procedure that suggests that a causal relationship does exist (Ferguson 1981). With this in mind, the findings here suggest that the "likability" of the salesperson may have a significant impact on the consumer's perception of product quality. Specifically, because the consumer likes the salesperson, he/she has a positive perception of product quality. Conversely, if the consumer does not like the salesperson, he or she will be less likely to hold a positive attitude toward the product. The effects of removing the likability variable are far less pronounced when examining the impact of the sex of the salesperson and very nearly mirror the ANOVA findings. This suggests that the sex of the salesperson continues to exert the same influence on consumer attitudes toward the product quality even after the effects of the salesperson's likability are removed. It should be noted however that neither MANOVA nor MANCOVA were significant on this construct.

Consumer's Perception of Product. The attractiveness covariate is not significant while the likable covariate is strongly significant ( $p = .005$ ). The treatment effects still retain an impact on all



dependent variables measuring the consumer's perception of the product. The consumer's attitude toward the product is seen as more positive ( $p = .005$ ), more favorable ( $p = .01$ ) and more liked ( $p = .06$ ) when high status cues are emitted. The sex of the salesperson does appear to influence differentially the consumer's attitude on the variable labeled favorable/unfavorable ( $p = .04$ ). It appears that respondents are more likely to view the product more favorably when observing the female sales presentations. In addition, female subjects view the product as significantly more positive ( $p = .02$ ), favorable ( $p = .02$ ), and better ( $p = .02$ ) than do male respondents.

When MANCOVA and MANOVA results are compared, both the status and the sex of the salesperson remain significant. In addition, the MANCOVA findings suggest that when the attractiveness and likability covariates are removed from the analysis that the main effect of sex of the respondents is significant as well.

When comparing the ANCOVA and ANOVA results, the findings indicate that the likability of the salesperson may covary with the main effects, but that the removal of this source of variation has virtually no impact on the significance of the treatment effects, particularly where the status cues and the sex of the salesperson are concerned.

In summary, when the covariates of attractiveness and likableness are examined together, attractiveness does not covary significantly with any of the dependent variables while likableness covaries significantly with all the dependent variables. But the treatment effects on purchase intentions, and the consumer's attitude toward the product remain overall, quite significant.

Only the main effect of status on the consumer's perception of product quality gives a different pattern of results. Likability of the salesperson may have a direct influence on the consumer's attitude toward the quality that is equal to the influence of the status cues or it may be that they are intertwined.

#### Summary of Most Significant Effects

This study was designed to answer the following question:

How do the nonverbal status cues emitted from male and female salespersonnel differentially influence consumer attitudes toward the product and toward the salesperson?

The results from this study indicate that the nonverbal status cues emitted by a male or female salesperson do differentially influence the consumer's attitude towards the product's quality, purchase intention, general perception of the product, and attitude towards the salesperson. Specifically, the three main effects of status, sex of the salesperson,

and sex of the respondent do have a significant impact on the dependent variables. Their impact will be summarized briefly. In addition, a summary of the significant interaction effects will follow the summary of the main effects.

### Status

There is, overall, a considerably significant ( $p < .05$ ) impact of status on all dependent variables.

When high status cues are emitted:

1. the consumer perceives the salesperson as likable, favorable, and positive ( $p < .01$ ),
2. a stronger intention to buy is apparent ( $p < .01$ ),
3. product quality is perceived as higher, more desirable, good, and favorable ( $p < .05$ ), and
4. the consumer likes the product and perceives it as positive, favorable, and good ( $p < .01$ ).

Conversely, when low cues are emitted, the consumer's attitude changes and moves in the opposite direction.

### Sex of the Salesperson

Female sales presentations appear to have a more positive influence on the consumers than do the sales presentation by the male. Specifically:

1. the female sales presentations are more likely to influence the respondents to recommend the

purchase to a friend ( $p = .05$ ) and recommend the purchase as a buyer ( $p = .02$ ) than were the sales presentations by the male,

2. subjects viewed the product quality as being higher ( $p = .05$ ), more desirable ( $p = .09$ ), better ( $p = .07$ ), and more favorable ( $p = .04$ ) in the female sales presentations, and
3. the subjects' attitudes towards the product were more favorable ( $p = .03$ ) and positive ( $p = .06$ ) when they viewed the female sales presentations.

### Sex of the Respondents

It appears that not only do male and female sales presentations differentially influence the consumers, but male and female respondents view the same presentation differently. Specifically, female respondents:

1. are likely to be more favorably inclined to recommend the purchase to a friend ( $p = .02$ ) across all treatment conditions, and
2. view the product more positively and better ( $p = .03$ ) than do male respondents across all treatment conditions.

### Interaction Effects

The hypothesized interaction effects predicted to occur between the status of the nonverbal cues emitted

by a salesperson and the gender of the salesperson did not materialize. On the other hand, there were significant interaction effects between the status cues emitted by the salesperson and the sex of the respondents. These interaction effects were particularly significant on the dependent variables measuring the respondents attitude towards the salesperson and the perception of product quality. Under high status conditions, female respondents viewed the product as being more favorable ( $p = .07$ ) and more positive ( $p = .05$ ) than did male respondents. Conversely, female respondents viewing the low status tapes indicated they found the salesperson more unfavorable and had a more negative attitude than did male respondents when viewing the low status tapes.

#### Subsequent Follow-Up Study

A follow-up study was deemed appropriate in order to both replicate and extend the findings of this study so that greater confidence in the results could be warranted. Specifically, the issues involving possible confounding of the status and credibility constructs need to be resolved. In addition, an attempt to address the problem of the salesperson's attitude toward the product will be incorporated in the second study. These two major issues are developed in further detail at the beginning of Chapter IV.

## CHAPTER IV

### FOLLOW-UP STUDY

After examining the results of the first study, a follow-up study was deemed appropriate in order to address possible confounding of the status and credibility constructs as well as the inadvertent manipulation of the salesperson's attitude toward the product. Two major objectives must be met in order to clarify the results. They are:

- 1) to have the salesperson be seen as equally credible in both the high and low status tapes, and
- 2) to enhance the subject's belief that the salesperson's attitude toward the product was a positive one regardless of the level of status cues observed.

In order to replicate and extend the findings of this study, a brief video was created in order to influence the viewer's attitude. This antecedent variable was designed to influence the buyer's prior belief system by enhancing the credibility of the salesperson and assuring the viewer that the salesperson had a strong positive attitude towards the product. This technique

of creating preconceptions about a seller was used most recently in a study by Schurr and Ozanne (1985) in examining a buyer's preconceptions of a seller's trustworthiness.

### Introduction to Study #2

The scenerio in this follow-up study was designed so that the camera crew appeared to have eavesdropped on two audience members who were about to view a sales-presentation (one of the four treatment conditions). One of the audience members knew the presenter and suggested the presenter was most sincere and trustworthy by way of anecdotal evidence. Experience, either direct or vicarious, is one basis for a buyer's beliefs about a seller's trustworthiness (Schurr and Ozanne 1985). The script, shown in Appendix E, served as antecedent stimuli to create preconceptions about the salesperson's credibility and trustworthiness. This videotape preceded each of the four treatment conditions.

The experiment was conducted in a manner similar to the first one, with a slightly larger sample from the same population. The same questionnaire was used and the same analysis conducted in examining the results.

## Overview of Analysis - Study #2

A total of 52 males and 52 females (n=104) participated in the second study and filled out the same questionnaire used in study #1. The subjects were randomly assigned to one of the four following treatment conditions and they viewed the appropriate videotape. An equal number of male (n = 13) and female (n = 13) subjects viewed each videotape.

The analysis of the second study is organized, as was the first one, into three major sections:

- 1) reliability measures,
- 2) manipulation checks, and
- 3) treatment effects.

### Reliability

Reliability coefficients for each construct were obtained in order to examine the stability of the variables. The Cronbach alphas for each of the a priori constructs are shown below for the second study. In addition, the first study's reliability coefficients have been reproduced in order to compare the stability of the variables across both studies.



## Reliability Coefficients

<u>Constructs</u>	<u>Study #1</u>	<u>Study #2</u>
Credibility	.86	.86
Attractiveness	.75	.81
Status	.57	.55
Sentiment Connection of Product/Salesperson	.96	.94
Sentiment Connection of Consumer/Salesperson	.92	.92
Purchase Intention	.89	.89
Product Quality Assessment	.93	.94
Sentiment Connection of Consumer/Product	.96	.98

All constructs, in both studies, met the .5 measure deemed desirable (Nunnally 1967). The reliability coefficients appear to be stable across the two studies with little variation noted, although the status construct is by far the least reliable.

Factor Analysis of the Entire Instrument

A factor analysis was performed in order to identify the underlying constructs that would have both practical and theoretical significance (Acker and Day 1986). Using the heuristic that factors should explain at least as much variance as the "average variable," seven factors emerged, as shown in Table 16. The second heuristic, the scree approach, suggests that the first two factors are the most meaningful. The first factor

TABLE 16  
 FACTOR LOADING USING VARIMAX ROTATION - STUDY #2

Constructs	Factors				Cronbach's Alpha	Communality
	I	II	III	IV		
<u>Product Assessment</u>					.96	
Would purchase for a friend	.69					.74
Would recommend as a buyer	.49					
Would purchase if I skied	.79					.80
High Quality	.80					.71
Desirable Quality	.79					.74
Good Quality	.81					.74
Favorable Quality	.86					.84
Viewed product positively	.90					.92
Viewed product favorably	.89					.91
Viewed product as good	.90					.90
Liked product	.89					.85
<u>Status of Salesperson</u>					.77	
Deferential/Not Deferential		.56				.40
Relaxed/Tense		.48				.46
Controlling/Controlled		.61				.44
Influential/Influenced		.70				.75
In Control/Cared For		.51				.71
Important/Awed		.63				.60
Dominant/Submissive		.63				.73
Expert/Not Expert		.56				.66

TABLE 16 (continued)  
 FACTOR LOADING USING VARIMAX ROTATION - STUDY #2

Constructs	Factors				Cronbach's Alpha	Communality
	I	II	III	IV		
<u>Attractiveness</u>					.86	
Appealing/Not Appealing			.73			.81
Attractive/Not Attractive			.77			.70
Charming/Not Charming			.67			.73
Viewed salesperson as likable			.69			.74
<u>Politeness</u>					.85	
Courteous Discourteous				.73		.71
Respectful/Disrespectful				.75		.73
Variance Explained by each Factor	41.1	10.1	5.2	4.9		
Total Variance Explained	41.1	51.2	56.4	61.3		

TABLE 16 (continued)  
 FACTOR LOADING USING VARIMAX ROTATION - STUDY #2

Constructs	Factors			Cronbach's Alpha	Communality
	V	VI	VII		
<u>Salesperson's View of Product</u>				.94	
Salesperson viewed product positively	.74				.80
Salesperson viewed product as good	.83				.88
Salesperson viewed product as favorable	.85				.92
<u>Salesperson's Control</u>					
In Control/Cared For		.52			.72
<u>Credibility</u>					
Sincere/Insincere			.51		.42
Variance Explained by Each Factor	3.7	3.2	2.7		
Total Variance Explained	65.1	68.3	70.9		

(labeled product assessment) is composed of the same variables as the first factor in the first study. That is, after rotation to improve interpretability, the first factors in each study are composed of the same variables. Since the first factors explain 41% of the variance in both studies and are composed of the identical variables, it would appear that this factor is the most stable and meaningful. Both studies contain seven factors that resemble one another overall.

In order to examine the most meaningful results, the scree method was utilized and varimax rotation was performed on all variables specifying an NFACTOR=2. The results are displayed in Table 17. An inspection of the variables that comprise the factors labeled "Perception of Salesperson" and "Product Assessment" found that they are very nearly identical to those found in the first study when an NFACTOR = 2 was specified. In fact, the Product Assessment factor has the greatest consistency in that the same variables that comprise this factor invariably cluster together across both studies, both in the original varimax rotation when the numbers of factors were not specified and when an NFACTOR = 2 was specified.

In addition, the first factor, Perception of Salesperson, is remarkably consistent in terms of the variables which comprise the factor. In studies #1 and #2 when an NFACTOR = 2 was specified, seven variables

TABLE 17  
VARIMAX ROTATION OF TWO FACTORS - STUDY #2

Constructs	FACTORS		Communality
	I	II	
<u>Perception of Salesperson</u>			
Viewed salesperson as likable	.67		.49
Viewed salesperson as favorable	.79		.69
Viewed salesperson as positive	.77		.64
Dominant/submissive Salesperson	.74		.60
Influential/Influenced	.70		.54
Charming/Not Charming	.71		.52
Appealing/Not Appealing	.74		.61
Expert/Not Expert	.71		.55
<u>Product Assessment</u>			
Would purchase for a friend		.72	.70
Would recommend as a buyer		.52	.53
Would purchase if I skied		.81	.71
High quality		.82	.69
Desirable quality		.81	.69
Good quality		.84	.73
Favorable quality		.88	.81
Viewed product positively		.90	.89
Viewed product favorably		.90	.87
Viewed product as good		.90	.86
Liked product		.89	.83
Variance Explained by Each Factor	41.1%	10.1%	
Total Variance Explained	41.1%	51.2%	

form a common core. They are: the C --> S link (viewed salesperson as likable, favorable and positive), two status variables (dominant/submissive, influential/-influenced, and two attractiveness variables (charming/-not charming, appealing/not appealing). Only one additional variable contributes to the set in the second study and that variable measures the perception of the salesperson's expertise.

The findings in the first study appear to be replicated in the second study. The main factors appear to be comprised of variables that cluster together on two constructs. The first is related to "Product Assessment" and encompasses the variables measuring purchase intention, perception of product quality, and attitude towards the product. The second construct is related to the subjects' overall attitude towards the salesperson.

#### Unidimensionality - Study #2

A factor analysis of each construct was performed in order to examine its unidimensionality. A summary of the variables explaining each construct is shown in Table 18.

All of the constructs were examined using principal component analysis as the constructs (with the exception of attractiveness and status) did not have enough factors to utilize rotation. The variables that compose

TABLE 18  
 PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS - STUDY #2

Construct/Variables	Factor I	Communality	Cronbach's Alpha
<u>Credibility</u>			.86
Believability	.72	.56	
Sincerity	.51	.47	
Trusting	.64	.53	
Credible	.72	.56	
Expert	.71	.60	
Informative	.66	.73	
Knowledgeable	.82	.73	
<u>Sentiment Connection Product --&gt; Salesperson</u>			.94
Positive	.88	.77	
Good	.92	.80	
Favorable	.97	.85	
<u>Sentiment Connection Consumer --&gt; Salesperson</u>			.92
Likable	.82	.75	
Favorable	.95	.80	
Positive	.92	.77	
<u>Purchase Intention</u>			.89
Friend	.94	.50	
Buyer	.74	.51	
Self	.89	.72	
<u>Quality</u>			.94
High	.87	.99	
Desirable	.84	.64	
Good	.90	.77	
Favorable	.97	.85	
<u>Sentiment Connection Consumer --&gt; Product</u>			.98
Positive	.97	.99	
Favorable	.96	.92	
Good	.98	.93	
Like	.91	.82	



each construct appear to be quite reliable given the rather high coefficients shown in Table 18.

However, varimax rotation was needed to improve the interpretability of the attractiveness and status constructs. The variables which loaded most heavily on these constructs are shown in Table 19.

The construct of attractiveness is composed of two factors. However, the percentage of variance explained suggests that the first factor is the most important. The first factor is labeled Personable and is composed of the variables appealing/not appealing, attractive/unattractive, charming/not charming, and likable/not likable.

The construct of status is composed of three factors. But when the scree method is applied, the sizable drop in the variance explained by each factor suggests that the first factor is most important. Four of the seven variables which Mehrabian (1972, 1981) suggests comprise the construct of status are captured in the first factor. The first factor is by far the most important as it explains 42% of the variance in the construct of status. This factor is labeled Independence (influential/influenced, in control/cared for, important/awed, and dominant/submissive) and is nearly identical to the first factor in the original study; only the variable relaxed/tense was omitted due to a relatively low factor loading of .56.

TABLE 19  
 VARIMAX ROTATION OF ATTRACTIVENESS AND STATUS - STUDY #2

Constructs/Variables	FACTORS			Communality
	I	II	III	
<b>ATTRACTIVENESS:</b>				
<u>Personable</u>				
Appealing	.87			.80
Attractive	.68			.66
Charming	.80			.66
Likable	.73			.53
<u>Striking</u>				
Striking		.79		.63
Variance Explained by Each Factor	59.9	21.0		
Total Variance Explained	59.9	79.9		
<b>STATUS:</b>				
<u>Independence</u>				
Influential	.86			.75
In Control	.76			.60
Important	.72			.52
Dominant	.78			.70
<u>Politeness</u>				
Courteous		.88		.82
Respectful		.79		.69
<u>Listens</u>				
Listens			.82	.73
Variance Explained by Each Factor	42.2	14.4	9.2	
Total Variance Explained	42.2	56.6	65.8	

Although the first factor appears to capture the meaning of the status construct, the consistent reappearance of the factor labeled "Politeness" suggests that the alternative explanation presented in the first study may apply here as well. It is possible that the first factor labeled independence is viewed positively in the high status tapes while the factor labeled "Politeness" is viewed positively when low status cues are emitted. Given the exploratory nature of this study, perhaps the positive responses to different constructs should not be dismissed prematurely even though the scree method would suggest that the "Politeness" factor is of little importance here.

#### Manipulation Checks

Multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) and univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to examine the credibility of the salesperson, attractiveness of the salesperson, the effectiveness of the status cues manipulations, and the perception of the product and salesperson fitting together. Ideally, there should be a significant difference in the means when the status construct is examined, and no significant mean differences in the variables measuring the salesperson's credibility, attractiveness, and attitude towards the product.

### Analysis of Manipulation Checks

The MANOVA results indicate that high status cues were perceived by respondents as significantly ( $p < .001$ ) more credible, the salesperson more attractive, and the salesperson's overall attitude towards the product was viewed more favorably than when low status cues were emitted. An examination of the influence of the sex of the salesperson was found to differ significantly on a number of constructs. MANOVA results indicate that the female sales presentations were viewed by respondents as significantly ( $p < .01$ ) more credible and of higher status than were male sales presentations. In addition, females sales presentations were perceived by respondents more favorably in the low status tapes than were the corresponding low status male sales presentations ( $p = .09$ ). Further univariate analysis of the manipulation checks follows.

Credibility construct. Respondents viewed the salesperson as being more ( $p < .01$ ) credible on all variables when emitting high status cues, ( $\bar{x} = 4.4$ ), rather than low status cues ( $\bar{x} = 3.2$ ), during a sales presentation. The construct of credibility includes the variables of believability, sincerity, trusting, credibility, expertness, informative, and knowledgeable as shown in Table 20.

Respondents viewed the salesperson as being more credible and believable ( $p < .01$ ) when the presenter was

TABLE 20  
 MANIPULATION CHECKS OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES - STUDY #2

Treatment Effects Constructs	Status by Sex of Salesperson by Sex of Respondent						
	Status	Sex of Salesperson	Sex of Respondent	Status by Sex of Salesperson	Status by Sex of Respondent	Sex of Salesperson by Sex of Respondent	Status by Sex of Salesperson by Sex of Respondent
<u>CREDIBILITY</u>	.00*	.01*					
Believable	.00	.00					
Sincere	.00						
Trusting	.00						.09
Credible	.00	.00					
Expert	.00	.03					
Informative	.00	.09					
Knowledgeable	.00	.07					
<u>ATTRACTIVENESS</u>	.00*						
Appealing	.00	.04		.07			
Attractive	.06	.03		.09		.09	
Charming	.00	.04		.04			
Striking							
Likable	.00			.01			

\*MANOVA

TABLE 20 (continued)

MANIPULATION CHECKS OF INDEPENDENT VARIABLES - STUDY #2

Treatment Effects Constructs	Status	Sex of Salesperson	Sex of Respondent	Status by Sex of Salesperson	Status by Sex of Respondent	Sex of Salesperson by Sex of Respondent	Status by Sex of Salesperson by Sex of Respondent
<u>STATUS</u>	.00*	.00*		.09*			
Courteous	.00				.10		
Respectful	.00						
Listens		.01					
Deferential	.00				.07		
Relaxed	.00	.03		.03			
Controlling	.00		.09				
Influential	.00	.00				.04	
In Control	.00	.00	.02	.02			
Important	.00	.05		.03			
Dominant	.00	.00					
Autonomous	.09	.09			.01		.07
<u>PRODUCT ----&gt;</u>							
<u>SALESPERSON</u>	.00*						
Positive	.00	.09					
Good	.00						
Favorable	.00	.08					

\*MANOVA

female. The male sales presentations were seen as significantly less credible and believable. In addition, expertness, informativeness, and knowledge were variables that were affected by the salesperson's gender. The female salesperson was viewed as being somewhat ( $p = .03$ ) more expert, informative, and knowledgeable ( $p < .1$ ) than the male salesperson.

Only one variable on the credibility construct had a marginally significant ( $p = .09$ ) interaction effect. When viewing the high status tapes, male and female respondents were more likely to trust the female salesperson than the male salesperson. When viewing the low status tapes however, female respondents trusted the male salesperson ( $\bar{x} = 3.85$ ) more than the female salesperson ( $\bar{x} = 3.38$ ). On the other hand, male respondents trusted the female salesperson ( $\bar{x} = 3.92$ ) more than the male salesperson. It appears that when high status cues are emitted, the female salesperson is more trusting than the male salesperson. But when low status cues are emitted, the respective respondents find the salesperson of the opposite sex to be more trusting.

The results of the second study, undertaken in part to address possible confounding problems, leaves the dilemma unresolved. However, since the credibility of the salesperson is correlated with the level of status cues emitted, the question as to whether the credibility variables are a subset of status remains a distinct

possibility given the antecedent videotape designed to enhance the salesperson's credibility.

Attractiveness. The main effect of status was very significant ( $p < .01$ ) on the variables of appealing, charming, and likable. It appears that presenting high status cues are viewed more favorably. The variable of striking/ordinary is, evidently, not at all significant in this second study where main or interactive effects are concerned.

The salesperson was perceived as somewhat more ( $p=.06$ ) attractive if high status cues rather than low status cues were emitted. As it is desirable for the two presenters to be equally attractive, and much pretesting was done to assure this, it is interesting to note that the respondents' perception of attractiveness had changed from the first study. In the first study, where only the sales presentation was viewed, respondents did not perceive the variable of physical attractiveness to be at all significant. In addition, the first study contained no significant main effects when the sex of the salesperson was examined, while the second study indicates that the respondents perceived the saleswoman to be somewhat more ( $p < .05$ ) appealing, attractive, and charming than the salesman.

Interaction effects were seen on four of the five variables that comprise the attractiveness construct. The salesman was seen as more charming and likable



( $p < .05$ ) when emitting high status cues than the saleswoman. When emitting low status cues, however, the female salesperson was viewed as more charming and likable. This analysis lends support to the explicit hypothesis generated for this study. Of lesser significance ( $p < .1$ ) are the variables of appealing and attractiveness. Male respondents in the high status presentations found the salesman to be more appealing and attractive than the saleswoman. On the other hand, female respondents found the saleswoman to be more appealing and attractive in the high status tapes. But when viewing the low status tapes, both male and female respondents viewed the saleswoman as being more appealing and attractive than her male counterpart. These findings lend partial support to the interaction hypothesis. It appears that respondents do rate the saleswoman higher when low status cues are observed.

The implications of this second study suggest that there is considerable potential for antecedent variables, related to attractiveness, to have an effect upon the consumer's perception of the salesperson's attractiveness. In very pragmatic terms, the order in which a commercial is shown may affect the viewer's perception of attractiveness, depending upon the type of commercial that preceded it.

Status construct. There was a significant mean difference due to the status cues observed in the videotaped sales presentations. These findings support the results of the first study and indicate that the status cues were successfully manipulated. The variables of courteous, respectful, deferential, relaxed, controlling, influential, in control, important, and dominant were very significant ( $p < .01$ ) for the construct of status. High status presenters were viewed as possessing these qualities and low status presenters as lacking these same characteristics. Only the variable listens/doesn't listen was not at all significant where status cues were emitted. Perhaps the lack of a dyadic interaction prevented an assessment of this variable in this study. The respondents viewed the male salesperson to be less likely to listen ( $p = .01$ ) than the female salesperson. The sex of the salesperson also had an impact on the other status variables. Respondents viewed the saleswoman as being more ( $p < .01$ ) influential, in control, and dominant than the salesman. In addition, the saleswoman appeared to the respondents to be more ( $p < .05$ ) relaxed and important than the salesman. Female respondents viewed the actors in the sales presentations as being more in control ( $p = .02$ ) and more controlling ( $p = .09$ ) than did the male respondents.

The variable autonomous/not autonomous had extremely constricted and low means across all four

treatment conditions. Although female respondents perceived the high status sales presentation to be more autonomous than the male respondents, the exact reversal appeared in the low status tapes. Again, since the variable autonomy may be difficult to assess outside a dyadic interaction, the inclusion of the variable in this study may be inappropriate.

When the interaction effect of sex of salesperson by sex of respondent is examined only one variable, influential/not influential, appears to be significant ( $p = .04$ ). Female respondents appear to believe that the female sales presentations are more influential than do male respondents. The variables of courteous and deferential appear to be only marginally significant ( $p > .05$ ) when examining status by the sex of the respondents. When high status cues are observed, male respondents view the salesperson as being more courteous and deferential than do female respondents. Conversely, in low status tapes, the female respondents view the salesperson as being more courteous and deferential than do male respondents.

Significant interaction effects ( $p < .05$ ) were found for the variables of relaxed, in control, and important when the interaction of status by sex of the salesperson was examined. The high status female sales presentations were viewed as more relaxed, in control, and important than were the high status male sales

presentations. The significant MANOVA ( $p = .09$ ) on this interaction effect provides additional evidence that the status by sex of the salesperson is important. A closer examination of the means shows the greatest difference in the high status treatment conditions. The respondents viewed the high status female sales presentations ( $\bar{x} = 4.4$ ) as significantly more relaxed, in control, and important than were the high status male sales presentations ( $\bar{x} = 3.3$ ). Little difference in means was noted in the low status conditions with respective means of 2.5 and 2.6. This result was not desired as it suggests that perhaps equivalent effectiveness was not achieved. An alternative explanation is that respondents may view the same nonverbal cues emitted by a male or female in a different way due to gender stereotyping of appropriate sex-typed behavior. That is, males in our society may be expected to exhibit strong high status cues and when these cues are not at that level they are viewed more harshly than are females. This will be discussed further in Chapter V.

Respondent's Perception of Salesperson's View of Product. The purpose of examining the consumer's perception of the salesperson's view of the product is to see whether attempts to control this link were successful. However, the results of the second study (as in the first) suggest that when status cues are manipulated, the consumer's perception of the

salesperson's view of the product is inadvertently manipulated as well. In light of the added persuasive information in the videotape that preceded the sales presentation, it would appear that the preconceptions that the consumer may hold of the salesperson's view of the product are subject to the influence of the treatments.

It appears that, when a salesperson emits high status cues ( $\bar{x} = 5.4$ ), the respondent perceives the salesperson's attitude toward the product to be significantly ( $p < .01$ ) more positive, good, and favorable than when low status cues ( $\bar{x} = 4.3$ ) are emitted. The means for all of the variables exceed 4.0 and all the means are in the same direction (positive), but the strength may vary depending upon whether or not high status cues were emitted.

The only other main effect of any importance was the sex of the salesperson. It appears that there is a relationship ( $p < .05$ ) between the sex of the salesperson and the respondents perceptions of the product --> salesperson link. Respondents view the saleswoman as having a significantly more positive ( $p=.09$ ) and more favorable ( $p=.08$ ) attitude toward the product than does the salesman. There were no interactive effects.

### Discussion of Manipulation Checks

The status manipulations were successfully implemented in this second study. Only a few of the variables that appear to be related to a dyadic interaction do not appear to be highly significant ( $p < .01$ ).

The credibility construct does appear in the second study to be influenced by the sex of the salesperson as well as by the status cues. The first study suggested this possibility and there appears to be a stronger, more significant impact in the second study.

Since the newly created videotape that preceded the sales presentation was intended to persuade the consumer that the salesperson was credible (regardless of the treatment condition that followed), the correlation of the "credibility" of the salesperson with the status cues emitted leaves the issue of causation questionable. However, it would appear that even if the consumer believes that the salesperson is credible, when low status cues are observed credibility is lowered as well. This would support the contention that the variables measuring the salesperson's credibility are a subset of the status variables and do not constitute a separate construct. This contention becomes more viable when one considers that a neophyte salesperson may be observed emitting low status cues in order to close that initial "first" sale and as a result be perceived as less

credible due to the inherent vested interest in the situation. Since the majority of salespeople work on a commission basis, the consumer may discount what the salesperson says and rely more on an interpretation of nonverbal cues as an indication of the salesperson's credibility or lack thereof.

The product --> salesperson link appears to vary with status. This second study was developed in order to provide greater control on this variable. The most significant difference in this second study is related to the impact of the sex of the salesperson as the perception of the product --> salesperson link. Although it would have been desirable for the consumer's perception of the salesperson's view of the product to have remained unchanged despite the treatment effects, it may be that the status cues are so overwhelming that this is not possible. Indeed, when one considers again the neophyte salesperson, the incorporation of low status cues used to close a sale may suggest to the consumer that the salesperson's personal beliefs about the product are secondary to the desire to close the sale and not salient in this situation. In other words, a neophyte salesperson may exhibit low status cues because of a lack of selling experience, product knowledge, or pressure to make a sales quota. Although the salesperson may truly have a positive attitude toward the product, these other reasons may cause the

salesperson to exhibit low status cues with the resulting impact being a negative one on the consumer's perception of the salesperson-->product link. This contention is further bolstered by the fact that the midpoint (of indifference) was chosen on a seven-point bipolar adjective scale when the low status tapes were analyzed.

#### Analysis of Dependent Variables

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and analysis of variance (ANOVA) were used to examine status cues, sex of the salesperson, and sex of the respondent, as well as the interaction effects on the dependent variables:

- 1) attitude toward the salesperson,
- 2) intention to purchase the product,
- 3) product quality, and
- 4) attitude toward the product.

MANOVA results indicate that high status cues do significantly influence all the dependent variables. When high status cues are observed, the consumer has a significantly more favorable attitude toward the salesperson ( $p < .001$ ), indicates a much stronger buying intention ( $p = .001$ ), and has an overall more positive attitude towards the product ( $p = .04$ ). Note the MANOVA results in Table 21. In addition, the sex of the salesperson influences the consumer's attitudes on all the



TABLE 21

## DEPENDENT VARIABLES TABLE OF SIGNIFICANCE - STUDY #2

Main and Interaction Effects Dependent Variables	Status	Sex of Salesperson	Sex of Respondent	Status by Sex of Salesperson	Status by Sex of Respondent
	CONSUMER ---->				
SALESPERSON	.00*	.04*		.01*	
Likable	.00	.03	.07	.04	
Favorable	.00	.00			
Positive	.00	.02			
PURCHASE					
INTENTION	.00*	.04*			
Friend	.01	.00			
Buyer	.00	.04			
Myself	.02	.02			
PRODUCT					
QUALITY	.01*	.05*			
High	.03	.03			
Desirable	.06	.02	.06		
Good	.00	.01	.06		.06
Favorable	.00	.00			
ATTITUDE TOWARD					
PRODUCT C---->P	.04*	.02*			.02*
Positive	.00	.01	.05		
Favorable	.01	.00	.09		.08
Good	.01	.00			
LIKING	.03	.02	.05		
SUMMED INDICES	.02*	.02*	.07*		
*MANOVA					

dependent variables as well. The female sales presentations had a more favorable influence on the consumer's attitude toward the salesperson ( $p = .04$ ), buying intentions ( $p = .04$ ) assessment of product quality ( $p = .05$ ), and overall attitude towards the product ( $p = .02$ ) than did the male sales presentations. There were only two interaction effects apparent, using MANOVA, that were significant. Respondents perceive the female salesperson to be more likable than the male salesperson in the low status tapes while this is not true in the high status tapes. In addition, female respondents ( $\bar{x} = 4.5$ ) viewed the product as being more favorable in the low status videotapes than did male respondents ( $\bar{x} = 3.5$ ), while no such difference was noted in the high status treatments. No other significant MANOVA results were noted. A univariate analysis of each construct will now be examined.

#### Attitude of Consumer Toward Salesperson

There is a very significant difference ( $p < .01$ ) in the consumer's attitude toward the salesperson where status cues are concerned. The second study replicates the first in that a salesperson emitting high status cues is viewed as significantly more likable, favorable, and positive than when low status cues were emitted.

The main effect of the sex of the salesperson appears to be very significant ( $p < .01$ ) on the variable

of favorable/unfavorable and somewhat significant ( $p < .05$ ) on the variable of likable and positive as shown in Table 21. Thus, although the means are higher when high status cues are emitted, the saleswoman appears to be more likable, positive, and favorable than the salesman. This is true as well for the low status tapes. The literature surveyed in Chapter II suggests that the saleswoman's low status cues would be received more favorably than a salesman emitting low status cues. This provides partial support for the hypothesis that was developed for this study. But the significant mean difference (noted in Appendix F) between the male and female sales presentations were in the opposite direction hypothesized in the high status treatment conditions. In addition, male respondents viewed the salesperson in all treatment conditions as significantly ( $p = .07$ ) more likable, favorable, and positive than did female respondents.

The significant main effects are superceded by the presence of significant interaction terms. Specifically, there is only one variable (likable/not likable) that has a significant ( $p = .04$ ) interaction effect on the consumer's perception of the salesperson. The status and gender of the salesperson appear to affect the variable labeled likable/not likable. Respondents appear to find the saleswoman ( $\bar{x} = 4.0$ ) in the low status sales presentations as significantly more likable

than her male ( $\bar{x} = 2.7$ ) counterpart, while there was no difference in the high status conditions. The literature surveyed in Chapter II suggests that the saleswoman's low status cues would be received more favorably than a salesman emitting low status cues. This provides partial support for the hypothesis that was developed for this study.

#### Intention to Purchase Product

The most significant variable of this construct, in regard to status cues emitted, appeared to be captured by the intention to purchase as a buyer ( $p < .01$ ). Perhaps the "audience members" provided a stronger reminder of the role the respondents were to envision. When high status cues ( $\bar{x} = 4.7$ ) were emitted, a stronger intention to purchase for a friend ( $p = .01$ ) and to purchase the product for myself ( $p = .02$ ) were noted (low status mean = 3.3).

The only other main effect noted was the sex of the salesperson. In this second study, it appears that respondents have a stronger intention to purchase for a friend ( $p < .01$ ), as a buyer, and for themselves ( $p < .05$ ) when the presentation featured a saleswoman rather than a salesman. There were no interactive effects noted. It appears that the female sales presentations are most influential with an aggregate mean of 4.7. The male sales presentations are less influential where purchase intentions are concerned with

an aggregate mean of 3.9. This is an unintended result that suggests equivalent effectiveness was not achieved. This issue will be dealt with more fully in Chapter V.

### Product Quality

Significant ( $p < .05$ ) main effects for status, sex of the salesperson and, of lesser significance ( $p = .06$ ), sex of the respondents were found. The product's quality is perceived by the respondents as significantly ( $p < .01$ ) better and more favorable as well as higher ( $p < .05$ ) and more desirable ( $p = .06$ ) when high status cues ( $\bar{x} = 4.9$ ), are emitted by the salesperson rather than low status cues ( $\bar{x} = 4.2$ ).

The perception of quality ( $p < .05$ ) appears to be influenced by the sex of the salesperson. Although the product quality is seen by respondents as superior when high status cues were observed (rather than low status), the mean difference, within the status treatments, indicated that respondents were likely to view the product as being higher, more desirable, better ( $p < .05$ ), and more favorable ( $p < .01$ ) when viewing the saleswoman's presentation rather than the salesman's.

The sex of the respondents were somewhat significant ( $p = .06$ ) when the variables of desirable and good were examined. Female respondents appeared to rate the product as more desirable and good than did male respondents.

Only one interactive effect was somewhat significant ( $p = .06$ ) on the variable labeled good/bad measuring the construct of product quality. It appears that female respondents perceived the product to be of better quality than the male respondents when the low status tapes were observed; while there was little difference in the respondents perceptions of the high status tapes.

#### Attitude Toward the Product

Three main effects were significant: status, sex of salesperson, and sex of respondent. The status and sex of the salesperson were the strongest main effects ( $p < .01$ ) where the three variables of positive, favorable, and good are concerned. The respondents viewed the product as being significantly ( $p < .01$ ) more positive, favorable, and good in the high status sales presentations ( $\bar{x} = 4.9$ ) than the low status videotapes ( $\bar{x} = 3.9$ ).

In addition, respondents viewed the product as being significantly ( $p < .01$ ) more positive, favorable, and good when viewing the female sales presentations rather than the male sales presentations.

The main effect of sex of the respondents was significant ( $p = .05$ ) on the variable labeled positive/negative. Female respondents in all treatment conditions viewed the product more positively than did

male respondents. Of lesser significance ( $p < .1$ ) was the variable labeled favorable/unfavorable. The greatest difference in the means appears to be concentrated in the low status sales presentations. It appears that female respondents ( $\bar{x} = 4.5$ ) are not as harsh in their product assessments as are male respondents ( $\bar{x} = 3.5$ ).

The significant interaction effects are superceded by the presence of significant interaction terms. Specifically, there is one variable that has a significant ( $p = .08$ ) interaction effect on the consumer's perception of the product. Female respondents ( $\bar{x} = 4.6$ ) appear to view the product more favorably than do male respondents ( $\bar{x} = 3.5$ ) when the low status treatment conditions were observed; no such results were found in the high status conditions. No other interactive effects were noted.

#### Liking the Product

There were no significant interactive effects on this variable, only main effects. Significant main effects were found due to status cues observed, sex of the salesperson, and sex of the respondents. The product was liked more ( $\bar{x} = 4.8$ ) when high status cues were observed rather than low status cues ( $\bar{x} = 4.2$ ). In addition, the findings indicate a significant difference in the means due to the sex of the salesperson. The

product was liked more when those respondents who viewed the female sales presentations ( $\bar{x} = 4.8$ ) were compared to those respondents who had viewed the male sales presentation ( $\bar{x} = 4.2$ ). Finally, in all four treatment conditions, female respondents were more ( $p = .05$ ) likely to indicate that they liked the product than were male respondents.

### Covariance Analysis

Both multiple and univariate analysis of covariance were performed in order to control statistically for the variables of attractiveness and likability. Since both covariates of attractiveness and likability are correlated significantly with the dependent variables, the findings are presented separately and then jointly for review in Table 22.

The MANCOVA results indicate that when the variables of attractiveness and likability are statistically removed the main treatment effects continue to exert the following influence:

- 1) high status cues result in a significantly ( $p = .04$ ) better assessment of product quality than do low status cues,
- 2) female sales presentations result in a significantly stronger intention to purchase ( $p = .05$ ), a higher assessment of product quality ( $p = .07$ ) and a better attitude towards



TABLE 22  
 ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE - Study #2  
 Attractiveness Covariate

Treatment Effects					
Dependent Variable	Status	Sex of Salesperson	Sex of Respondent	Status by Sex of Respondent	Significance Level of "Attractiveness"
PURCHASE INTENTION					
Friend	.05	.02			.00
Buyer	.00				.00
Self	.06	.05			.00
PRODUCT QUALITY					
High	.09			.10	.00
Desirable	.09	.03	.06		.06
Good	.00	.03	.05	.05	.00
Favorable	.01	.01			.00
ATTITUDE TOWARD PRODUCT C-->P					
Positive	.01	.03	.03		.00
Favorable	.02	.02	.05	.05	.00
Good	.03	.01	.07		.00
Like	.09	.08	.03		.00

TABLE 22 (continued)  
 ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE - Study #2  
 Likable Covariate

Treatment Effects Dependent Variable	Status	Sex of Salesperson	Sex of Respondent	Status by Sex of Salesperson	Status by Sex of Respondent	Significance Level of "Likable"
PURCHASE INTENTION						
Friend		.00				.00
Buyer	.01	.04				.00
Self		.01				.00
PRODUCT QUALITY						
High		.03		.06	.09	.00
Desirable		.01	.06			.00
Good	.01	.01	.07		.05	.00
Favorable	.02	.01		.08	.09	.00
ATTITUDE TOWARD PRODUCT C-->P						
Positive	.07	.01	.05			.00
Favorable	.09	.01	.09		.06	.00
Good		.01				.00
Like		.01	.05			.00

TABLE 22 (continued)  
 ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE - Study #2  
 Attractiveness and Likable Covariates

Treatment Effects Dependent Variable	Status	Sex of Salesperson	Sex of Respondent	Status by Sex of Salesperson	Status by Sex of Respondent	Significance Level of "Attractiveness"	Significance Level of "Likable"
PURCHASE INTENTION		.05*					
Friend Buyer	.02	.01				.08	.00
Self		.06					.00
Self		.02					.00
PRODUCT QUALITY	.04*	.07*					
High Desirable		.07		.05	.09	.04	.04
Good	.01	.01	.07			.04	.00
Favorable	.03	.02	.06			.04	.02
		.01		.07	.09	.08	.01
ATTITUDE TOWARD PRODUCT C-->P		.08*					
Positive Favorable	.07	.02	.04			.05	.00
Good	.09	.01	.06		.05	.01	.01
Like		.01	.09			.03	.01
		.04	.04			.05	.00

\*MANCOVA

- the product ( $p = .08$ ) than when respondents observe male sales presentations, and
- 3) female respondents view the product more favorably when viewing the low status conditions than do male respondents.

Unlike the first study, attractiveness does correlate significantly with the dependent variables. Although the antecedent videotape was created in order to influence the buyers' preconceptions of the seller's credibility and attitude towards the product, it may have inadvertently provided a comparison basis for respondents to evaluate the salesperson's attractiveness.

When the attractiveness covariate is examined separately, the findings indicate that although it covaries significantly with the main effects, its statistical removal has virtually no impact on the treatment effects. If the ANCOVA results on the attractiveness covariate are compared to the ANOVA results in Table 21, the pattern of results remains the same. The main effects continue to exert a significant influence when the attractiveness variable is included in the model.

On the other hand, when the likable covariate is examined separately, there is an impact on the treatment effects. This effect is replicated again when the attractiveness and likable covariates are combined in

Table 22. Since the findings of the first and second study must be compared by combining the covariates, the following analysis will focus on the impact of both covariates on each dependent variable examining intention to purchase, perception of product quality, and the consumer's attitude towards the product.

Purchase Intention. Only the variable measuring the buyer's recommendation to purchase the product remains significant ( $p = .02$ ) when the effect of status cues is examined after "likability" has been statistically removed. The other two variables measuring the purchase for self and recommending the purchase to a friend are no longer significant.

MANCOVA results indicate that only one main effect, sex of the salesperson, remains significant ( $p = .05$ ) when the purchase intention is examined. The impact of the main effect of the salesperson remains significant when the "likableness" is included in the model and the variables measuring purchase intention are examined. The sex of the salesperson continues to exert influence in recommending the purchase to a friend ( $p = .01$ ), as a buyer ( $p = .06$ ), and for myself ( $p = .02$ ). This pattern of results discovered by using ANOVA is replicated with ANCOVA. Although "likable" covaries with the main effects, its statistical removal has no impact on the treatment effects due to the sex of the salesperson.

Product Quality. MANCOVA results indicate that both status ( $p = .04$ ) and the sex of the salesperson ( $p < .07$ ) remain significant when the covariates of attractiveness and likability are removed. Further univariate analysis indicates that the likability of the salesperson covaries significantly ( $p = .05$ ) with the dependent variables measuring product quality. When this variable is included in the model the model some significant (but weaker) main effects disappear. Status cues are still significant when the adjective pairs labeled good/bad and favorable/unfavorable are examined, but high/low and desirable/undesirable no longer appear significant. The latter variables were weaker than the former in the ANOVA findings. When comparing ANOVA and ANCOVA findings, both main effects regarding the sex of the salesperson and sex of the respondent continue to exert influence on all dependent variables measuring the consumer's perception of product quality. The most surprising results in the ANCOVA are related to the interaction of status by sex of salesperson. This interaction was not at all significant when ANOVA was performed, but is significant in the ANCOVA findings. It appears that, when the effects of the salesperson's likability are removed from the model, the product's quality is seen by respondents as highest and most favorable in the female high status sales presentations while there is little difference in the low status

presentations. Please note the table of means in Appendix F. The status by sex of respondent interaction remains significant ( $p = .05$ ) when the adjective pair good/bad is examined. In addition, two other variables (high/low and favorable/unfavorable) are somewhat significant ( $p = .09$ ) when the attractiveness and likability covariates are removed.

Attitude Towards the Product. MANCOVA results indicate that only the main effect of sex of the salesperson remains significant ( $p = .08$ ) when the covariates of attractiveness and likability are statistically removed from the analysis. Only one significant interaction was found when using MANCOVA with all the dependent variables. It appears that female respondents ( $\bar{x} = 5.5$ ) view the product more favorably than do male respondents ( $\bar{x} = 4.2$ ) when the high status male sales presentation is observed; no such differences were found in the low status conditions.

The attractiveness and likability covariates are significantly ( $p < .05$ ) correlated with the dependent variables measuring the consumer's attitude towards the product and the results of the ANCOVA are largely patterned after the ANOVA findings. Specifically, status cues remain effective in influencing two of the four variables measuring the C-->P link, namely the adjective pairs labeled positive/negative and favorable/unfavorable. The variables labeled good/bad,

like/do not like had somewhat higher p values in the ANOVA and the status cues appeared to have little impact on them in the ANCOVA findings once the covariate "likable" was removed. But, in both the ANOVA and ANCOVA findings, the sex of the salesperson still exerts significant ( $p < .05$ ) influence on all the variables measuring the consumer's attitude towards the product. The main effect of sex of the respondent retains its influence in the ANCOVA analysis as well, with all four variables being significant (though with somewhat higher p-values). In addition, the interaction affect of status by sex of the respondent remains significant ( $p = .05$ ) when the adjective pair favorable/unfavorable is examined.

#### Discussion of Most Significant Findings

This follow-up study was designed to address possible confounding of the status and credibility constructs as well as the inadvertent manipulation of the salesperson's attitude toward the product. Since the technique of creating preconceptions about salespeople has been used successfully in other marketing research studies (Schurr and Ozanne 1985), the fact that the credibility of the salesperson continues to vary with the status cues emitted suggests support for the contention that the salesperson's credibility is a subset of the status cues.



On the other hand, it appears that the consumer's perception of the salesperson's attitude toward the product continues to vary with the status cues emitted. Even a strong antecedent stimulus (the "eavesdropping" videotape that preceded the sales presentation) was unable to control this variable. Additional research in this area is feasible and will be discussed at length in Chapter V.

However, an interesting and most unexpected result of the follow-up study that was conducted was related to the perceived attractiveness of the salesperson. Both the ANOVA and ANCOVA indicate that attractiveness of the salesperson was significant, in this second study. But the ANCOVA results indicate that although the attractiveness variable covaried significantly with the dependent variables, nearly all main effects retained their influence on the dependent variables. It appears that the antecedent videotape may have unintentionally provided a comparison basis that did not exist in the previous study.

Another interesting aspect to the perceived attractiveness of the salespersons was related to their likability. It appears that when the likableness of the salesperson is removed statistically (ANCOVA), the main treatment effects continue to exert influence, but their strength (p values) is reduced. This suggests that although the likability covariate may be significant, the

main treatments continue to be effective, even though their influence may be due in part to the likable covariate.

Overall, the follow-up study did replicate the findings of the original study and extended those findings for at least three different issues. First, the evidence might suggest support for the proposition that the credibility of the salesperson is perceived by the customer to be a subset of the status cues observed. Second, the attitude toward the product remains intertwined with the status cues emitted, despite additional controls in the follow up study. Finally, the issue of attractiveness appears to split into a personality and/or physical dimension that can be controlled (first study), or may covary significantly with the dependent measures of purchase intention, product quality, and attitude toward the product (both studies), especially when a basis for comparison is provided. However, the main treatment effects, overall, do manage to retain their significant impact on the dependent variables.

The implications that may be drawn from these studies for future research and their relationship to the original hypotheses will be discussed in Chapter V.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

#### Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to summarize the research objectives, empirical findings, limitations of the study, and the further analysis to be performed on the data. In addition, guidelines for future research will be suggested so that others considering nonverbal research in marketing might benefit from the knowledge gained in this study. Last, the implications of the findings for future research as well as the contributions to the marketing discipline will be discussed.

#### Purpose of the Study

The general objective of this study was to examine the impact of a number of select nonverbal cues on marketing transactions and communication processes. Specifically, the status cues were manipulated and their corresponding influence on the consumer's attitude towards the salesperson and product were examined. In addition, it was necessary to investigate the role that the gender of the salesperson plays in nonverbal

communications, as gender stereotyping was likely to influence the consumer's decision making process.

The general research question developed in order to examine the impact of the nonverbal cues on the consumer's attitude towards the salesperson, assessment of product quality, and general attitude towards the product was as follows:

How do the nonverbal status cues emitted from male and female salespersonnel differentially influence consumer attitudes toward the product and toward the salesperson?

In general, the overall results indicate that when high status cues are emitted, the attitude toward the salesperson and the product is significantly more positive than when low status cues were observed by the respondents. This finding, alone, provides an insight into how a consumer's decision making is influenced by nonverbal cues when the script was identical across the treatment cells. In addition, the findings regarding the influence of the sex of the salesperson were significant on a number of the dependent variables measuring the consumer's buying intention, assessment of product quality, and attitude towards the salesperson. The results of the MANOVA and summed indices in the second study were particularly strong in this regard. The results suggest that female sales personnel may exert a more favorable influence on the consumer's purchase intention, perceptions of product quality, and especially their overall attitude toward the product

than do male sales personnel. But the findings on this main effect should be qualified by the fact that it is possible that equivalent effectiveness may not have been achieved by the two actors. Somewhat surprising, and contrary to one of the original premises, was the finding that low status cues emitted by a female salesperson did not result in a more favorable attitude toward the salesperson and product than high status cues. High status cues do not appear to be appropriate for males only in a buying situation as inferences from Henley and Mayo's (1981) work might suggest. But when the low status tapes were compared, it was discovered that respondents generally had a more favorable response to the female salesperson than the male salesperson. These findings suggest it is acceptable and desirable in a buying situation for a female to adopt high status cues, but that an adoption of low status cues by males is inappropriate and the latter will result in a significantly less favorable attitude toward the salesperson and the product. This latter finding is consistent with the literature regarding male stereotyping in our society. However, these findings must be considered in light of a number of limitations within this study.

### Limitations of the Study

Several limitations are recognized in this study and thus the generalizations of the conclusions that can be drawn from it are somewhat suspect. The limitations are organized into the following topic areas:

- 1) the levels of cues utilized,
- 2) the unintentional comparison basis provided in the second study,
- 3) the consumer's perception of the salesperson's attitude (S-->P link) towards the product and,
- 4) the unresolved issue of credibility and status.

### Levels of Cues Utilized

Even though the nonverbal cues exhibited by the male or female salesperson in the videotape were the same, two major problems were apparent once the filming was complete. First was the timing of the cues. Perfect mirror images of the nonverbal cues were desired, but not entirely achieved due to the emphasis of trying to get two different individuals to appear "natural" with the better actor "mimicking" the other. Second was the problem of the duration or the frequency of the cue. For example, the stuttering or pause in the speech pattern was not identical across treatment conditions. While, controls were administered, more stringent controls and more rehearsals with a videotape (so that the actors could compare the tapes themselves)

would undoubtedly result in a better mirror-image effect desired. In addition, it is possible that the findings in this study may be constrained by the "level" of status cues utilized. The literature review clearly shows the difficulty in specifying "appropriate" levels of nonverbal cues in different situations. Another layer of complexity must be dealt with when the literature suggests that certain cue levels are more gender specific than others. This study attempted to address the latter question but the generalization of the findings of this study to other alternative cue levels may be limited.

#### Unintentional Comparison Basis

The equivalent physical attractiveness of the two different salespersons was achieved in the first study. But, in the second study, it appears that the antecedent videotape provided, unintentionally, a comparison basis that resulted in the respondents perception of a significant ( $p = .06$ ) difference in the attractiveness of the salespeople. Since the second sample was drawn from the same population as the first and the same sales presentations were used, it may be that the different perception was due to the antecedent videotape. Future studies should control for this possible source of confounding.

### Consumer's Perception of the S-->P Linkage

It would have been most desirable for the consumer to have perceived the salesperson's attitude toward the product as constant over treatment conditions. This did not occur in either study. There is a positive correlation between the level of status cues emitted and the consumer's perception of the S-->P linkage. When high status cues were observed, subjects believed the salesperson had a good attitude towards the product. Conversely, when low status cues were observed, the subjects believed the salesperson had a poorer attitude toward the product. Correlation of these two variables has been observed but inferences of causation cannot be drawn until further research is conducted in this area.

### Issue of Credibility and Status

One of the objectives in developing a follow-up study was to examine whether status and credibility are independent of each other. The antecedent videotape was developed in order to underscore and enhance the salesperson's credibility and to create positive preconceptions about the seller's attitude toward the product. The results of the follow-up study leave the issue of possible confounding unresolved. The replication of the findings in the second study, despite the antecedent tape developed to persuade the viewer that the seller is sincere and trustworthy, supports the contention that



credibility is a subset of status.

#### Further Analysis

Additional analysis will involve LISREL, a structural equation model, which can be used to both measure the hypothetical constructs and describe the causal effects among the variables. This analysis will enable the marketer to examine better the relationships between the constructs as well as their relative impacts on the dependent variables that measure the consumer's attitude toward the salesperson, the product, and buying intentions.

#### Guidance for Future Research in NVC Studies

Perhaps the greatest problem that is faced by researchers in the area is in trying to isolate the most salient nonverbal cues that affect consumer responses, so that their impact on consumer attitudes may be examined. Even when researchers are successful in this regard, it is not clear that the cues will still be salient when presented in a multiple cue setting. These issues remain to be addressed in future studies over time.

In order to continue the investigation of nonverbal cues and their impact on the consumer decision making processes, a number of additional controls in the experimental design used here would result in greater

equivalent effectiveness and perhaps more generalizability.

Since the results of this study indicate that subjects are sensitive to the nonverbal cues employed, future studies may be able to use the same cues but will not need to intensify the effects or maximize the variation of the treatment effects. As a "first" study, this technique was appropriate, but the results indicate that the nonverbal cues may be exhibited with greater subtlety in future studies. This could result in the stabilization of the salesperson's credibility across treatment conditions or conversely, if the salesperson's credibility remained positively correlated with the status cues described, would provide more evidence needed to clarify the status/credibility issue.

Additional controls that would have improved this study and future studies are related to the interpretation of "equivalent effectiveness." Although the mirror image effect would help bring about the desired effect, a panel of "judges" may be used to supplement and provide greater control over the stimuli. Both the video and audio portions could be assessed separately and then together in order to maximize equivalent effectiveness. It is doubtful whether two local actors could achieve identical nonverbal cues, voice inflections at the same time and to the same degree as the other, but this technique would result in

a much closer approximation of equivalent effectiveness and result in the researcher having greater confidence in the findings -- particularly those related to the main treatment effect of sex of the salesperson. In employing this control however, a number of practical considerations need to be kept in mind. First, this control will undoubtedly result in additional tapings. Time and money constraints as well as the availability of the studio and actors for future tapings are important consideration when trying to decide to what degree "mirror imaging" could be satisfactorily achieved. Certainly much greater lead time in developing the stimuli will be necessary to achieve this goal.

The instrument used to measure the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variables could be simplified by eliminating the redundancy of certain variables. Although the instrument appears to capture those constructs deemed appropriate in this study, a more simplified version may result in better consumer responses without loss of effectiveness. Haley (1983) has suggested that until progress is made in developing measurement tools that extend to the emotional, sensory, and affiliative benefits, further significant improvements in strategic research are unlikely. The instruments developed in this study are a step in the right direction, but there is always room for improvement.

But perhaps the greatest problem to be overcome in this area of research relates to the single cue vs. multiple cue issue. As shown by the literature search in Chapter II, it is not difficult to come up with an exhaustive list of high and low status nonverbal cues. The difficulty is in the combining of the nonverbals with the verbal message. For instance, if low status nonverbal cues are displayed at the same time that the actor is discussing product attributes - confounding is a likely result, as discovered in this study. While, the nonverbal cues were displayed throughout the entire script, it appeared that the timing of the cues resulted in a confounding problem that is difficult to remove. Although this may occur in "real life" and not just in a laboratory setting, it becomes very difficult for the researcher to draw definitive conclusions. One way of addressing this in another study would be to put the nonverbal cues in the script at points that are least crucial or furthest from the dependent variables being researched. Another means would be to keep the nonverbal cues as nondescript as possible, when for instance, the product attributes are being discussed. In addition, the cues that must be kept to a minimum are the most "natural" (i.e., smiling, head nods, and speech rate) and are also the most difficult nonverbals to control. But, once controlled, and made to appear natural, the process will hopefully provide the

researcher with better stimuli that may ultimately yield more definitive results.

Another technique that may be utilized effectively to delete confounding problems could be the use of different camera angles to achieve the effect of high and low status, and thus place less reliance on the nonverbal behaviors of the actors. If the camera is placed so that the actor has to gaze up (low status) or down (high status) to the unseen audience members, the status may be inferred strongly enough that the construct would be captured with the result of a much better equivalent effectiveness. This technique may be able to address some of the serious confounding problems that are likely to plague most any study that relies heavily on the "appropriate" display of nonverbal cues.

Considerable literature exists that addresses the importance of nonverbal communication, yet little study of this important channel has been examined in the marketing discipline. More studies in this area would enable marketers to understand how relatively subtle cues can have rather powerful effects and enable marketers to predict better the outcome of marketing transactions communications.

### Implications

The results of this study are significant to both marketing academicians and practitioners. It does

appear that nonverbal cues influence a consumer's attitude toward the salesperson and the product. Behavioral intentions to purchase the product do vary across levels of status cues observed, with the high status cues having a more favorable impact. The findings suggest that the time invested in aiding a neophyte salesperson to develop and to display the appropriate high status cues will result in a more favorable consumer perception of the product and of the salesperson, resulting in more effective and efficient sales presentations. As videotaping becomes more common place, the implications of these findings become more important. For instance, salespeople who excel in a dyadic interaction may find a camera to be unnerving and their nervousness over being videotaped could be translated by viewers as low status cues with all the corresponding negative attitudes towards the product and salesperson that this study has addressed. In addition, the MANCOVA and ANCOVA findings in the second study suggest that the illusive characteristics of a salesperson's "likability" may influence the strength of the nonverbal cues observed. It would appear that consumers respond favorably to a "likable" individual but do not find that the low status cues favorably enhance their attitudes towards either the salesperson or the product.

In part, this study has illuminated some findings related to gender stereotyping that had previously been untested. The empirical results of this study indicate that high status cues are appropriate for males or females and are viewed favorably by the consumer. High status cues are not a male-only domain, but may be exhibited by either sex and will be regarded as appropriate and effective. This does not hold for low status cues. Low status cues are generally viewed less favorably by consumers, but even more so when the salesperson is male. Females in our society appear to have been given greater latitude in their nonverbal behavior than males as the attitude toward the product and the salesperson was the least favorable in the treatment condition showing a salesman emitting low status cues. This finding suggests that, in training salespeople, the constraints on male behavior need to be pointed out so that they can be more effective in their sales presentations. On the other hand, it is probably an error to suggest that women exhibit low status cues in order to be "pleasing" as gender stereotyping might suggest. It appears that respondents, in general, found the high status cues more favorable than low status cues when evaluating their attitudes toward the salesperson and the product.

This study's original premise was to examine the impact of nonverbal cues on the consumer's attitude

towards the product and towards the salesperson. It appears that a product's quality may well be inferred from nonverbal behaviors that have been given scant attention in both marketing literature and practice. In addition, given our strong gender stereotyping in this culture, it appears that the same nonverbal cues may be assessed and interpreted differently depending upon the sex of the salesperson exhibiting the cues. Although equivalent effectiveness may not have been achieved, it is possible that the manipulations of the nonverbal cues were correct but that the consumer may interpret them differently. Specifically, it appears that women may adopt behaviors considered more "masculine" with less severe repercussions than men who adopt or display a "feminine" behavior. It appears that the stigma of low status cues exhibited by males in our society may be so predominant that society views deferent males as inept. Certainly the findings in this study suggest that women have greater freedom in selecting an array of nonverbal behaviors that men are prohibited from displaying.

Although this study has begun to shed some light on a few untested convictions, it has raised a number of interesting issues regarding the influence and interpretations of nonverbal cues in marketing communications. Much work remains to be done in order to develop a strong theoretical base from which marketing predictions can be made and from which more effective communication strategies can be developed.



## SELECTIVE BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Aaker, David A., and George S. Day (1986), Marketing Research, New York: John W. Wiley and Sons.
- Argyle, M. (1967), The Psychology of Interpersonal Behavior, Baltimore: Penguin Books.
- Argyle, M. (1972), "Nonverbal Communication in Human Social Interaction," in Non-verbal communication, ed. R. A. Hinde, Cambridge University Press, 243-268.
- Argyle, M. and J. Dean (1965), "Eye-contact, Distance and Affiliation," Sociometry, 28 (September), 289-304.
- Argyle, M., M. Lalljee, and M. Cook (1968), "The Effects of Visibility on Interaction in a Dyad," Human Relations, 21 (February), 3-17.
- Argyle, M., B. Salter, M. Williams, and P. Burgess (1970), "Communication of Inferior and Superior Attitudes of Verbal and Nonverbal Signals," British Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 9 (September), 222-231.
- Birdwhistell, R.L. (1970), Kinesics and Context, Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Bonoma, Thomas V. and Leonard C. Felder (1977), "Nonverbal Communication in Marketing Toward a Communicational Analysis," Journal of Marketing Research, 14 (May), 169-180.
- Bonoma, Thomas V. and Gerald Zaltman (1979), "Toward a Social Analysis of Consumer Behavior," Unpublished working paper, University of Pittsburgh.
- Branigan, Christopher R. and David A. Humphries (1972), "Nonverbal Behavior," in Ethological Studies of Child Behavior, ed. N. Burton Jones, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Cash, Thomas F. and Louis H. Janda (1984), "The Eye of the Beholder," Psychology Today, (December), 46-52.
- Clayson, Dennis E. (1979), "Newslines," Psychology Today, 13 (October), 72.
- Clayson, Dennis E. (1981), "Hair Color Stereotypes in Magazine Advertising," paper presented at the South Eastern Psychological Association, Atlanta, Georgia.
- Clayson, Dennis E. (1983), "Perceptual Expectations," paper presented to the Rocky Mountain Psychological Association, Salt Lake City, Utah.
- Clayson, Dennis E. and Micol Maughan (1976), "Blonde Is Beautiful: Status and Preference by Hair Color," paper presented to the Rocky Mountain Psychological Association, Phoenix, Arizona. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. Ed. ED136161).
- Clayson, Dennis E. and Micol Maughan (1978), "Female Executives and Beautiful Blondes: Person Perception by Hair Color," paper presented to the Rocky Mountain Psychological Association, Denver, Colorado.
- Cappella, J.N. (1981), "Mutual Influence in Expressive Behavior: Adult-adult and Infant-adult Interaction," Psychological Bulletin, 89 (January), 101-132.
- Costrich, H., J. Feinstein, L. Kidder, and L. Pascale (1975), "When Stereotypes Hurt: Three Studies of Penalties for Sex Role Reversals," Journal of Experimental and Social Psychology, 11 (November), 520-530.
- Darwin, C. (1965), The Expressions of the Emotions in Man and Animals, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Dion, Karen, Ellen Berscheid, and Elaine Walster (1972), "What is Beautiful is Good," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 24 (December), 285-290.
- Dittmann, A.T. (1971), "Review of Kinesics and Context," by R.L. Birdwhistell, Psychiatry, 34 (August), 334-342.

- Druckman, Daniel, Richard M. Rozelle, and James C. Baxter (1982), Nonverbal Communication: Survey Theory and Research, Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Duncan, Starkey, Jr. (1969), "Nonverbal Communication," Psychological Bulletin, 72 (August), 118-137.
- Efran, J.S. (1968), "Looking for Approval: Effects on Visual Behavior of Approbation from Persons Differing in Importance," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 10 (September), 21-25.
- Efron, D. (1941), Gesture and Environment, New York: King's Crown Press.
- Ekman, Paul and Wallace V. Friesen (1969), "The Repertoire of Nonverbal," Semiotica, 1 (January), 49-98.
- Ekman, Paul and Wallace V. Friesen (1969), "Nonverbal Leakage and Clues to Deception," Psychiatry, 32, 88-106.
- Ekman, Paul, Wallace V. Friesen, and P. Ellsworth (1972), Emotion in the Human Face: Guidelines for Research and an Integration of Findings, New York: Pergamon Press.
- Exline, R.V. (1963), "Explorations in the Process of Person Perception: Visual Interaction in Relation to Competition, Sex, and Need for Affiliation," Journal of Personality, 31 (March), 1-20.
- Exline, R.V. (1972), "Visual Interaction - the Glances of Power and Preference" in J.K. Cole (ed.) Nebraska Symposium on Motivation, Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press.
- Exline, R.V. and C. Eldridge (1967), "Effects of Two Patterns of a Speaker's Visual Behavior Upon the Perception of the Authenticity of His Verbal Message," paper presented at the Eastern Psychological Association, Boston, MA.
- Exline, R.V., D. Gray, and D. Schuette (1965), "Visual Behavior in a Dyad as Affected by Interview Content and Sex of Respondent," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1 (March), 201-209.

- Faranda, J. (1980), "Negative Evaluation of Female Leaders," paper presented at the Eastern Psychological Association, Hartford, Connecticut.
- Feather, N.T. and J.G. Simon (1975), "Reactions to Male and Female Success and Failure in Sex-Linked Occupations: Impression of Personality, Causal Attributions, and Perceived Likelihood of Difference Consequences," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 31 (January), 20-31.
- Fidell, L. S. (1975), "Empirical Verification of Sex Discrimination in Hiring Practices in Psychology," in Women: Dependent or Independent Variable?, eds. Unges and Denmark, New York: Psychological Dimensions, 774-785.
- Fisk, Raymond P., and Lana G. Ivy (1985), "Eight University Marketing Departments Are Testing Educational Teleconferencing," Marketing Journal, 4, (Spring), 6.
- Frieze, I.H. (1978), "Being Feminine or Masculine--Nonverbally," in Women and Sex Roles: A Social Psychological Perspective, eds. I.H. Frieze, J.E. Parsons, P.B. Johnson, N. Ruble, and G.L. Zellman, New York: Norton, 321-334.
- Frieze, I.H. and S.J. Ramsey (1976), "Nonverbal Maintenance of Traditional Sex Roles," Journal of Social Issues, 32 (March), 133-141.
- Goffman, Erving (1961), Encounters, Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill.
- Gschandtner, Gerald (1980), "Non-Verbal Selling Power," Training and Development Journal, (November), 62-66.
- Hagen, R.L. and A. Kahn (1975), "Discrimination Against Competent Women," Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 5, 362-376.
- Haley, Russell I. (1983), "Benefit Segmentation - 20 Years Later," Journal of Consumer Marketing, Vol. 1, #2, 5-13.
- Haley, Russell I., Jack F. Richardson and Beth M. Baldwin (1984), "The Effects of Non-Verbal Communications in Television Advertising," Journal of Advertising Research, 24 (August/September), 11-18.

- Hall, E.T. (1959), The Silent Language, New York: Doubleday.
- Hall, Judith A. (1979), "Gender, Gender Roles, and Nonverbal Communication Skills," in Skill in Nonverbal Communication, ed. Rosenthal, Massachusetts: Oelgeschlager, Gunn and Hain, Publishers, Inc., 32-67.
- Havis, J.G., R.M. Rozelle, J.C. Baxter, and J.P. Kimble (1981), "A Comparison of the Effects of Positive and Standard Nonverbal and Verbal Behaviors on Impression Formation During a Police-Citizen Encounter," Unpublished manuscript, Department of Psychology, University of Houston.
- Heider, Fritz (1958), The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations, New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Heilman, Madeline E. and Lois R. Saruwatari (1979), "When Beauty is Beastly: The Effects of Appearance and Sex on Evaluations of Job Applicants For Managerial and Nonmanagerial Jobs," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 23 (June), 360-372.
- Henley, N.M. (1977), Body Politics: Power, Sex, and Nonverbal Communication, Engelwood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall.
- Homans, G.C. (1950), The Human Group, New York: Harcourt, Brace.
- Hulbert, James, and Noel Capon (1972), "Interpersonal Communication in Marketing: An Overview," Journal of Marketing Research, 9 (February), 27-34.
- Jacoby, Jacob, Jerry Olson, and Rafael Haddock (1971), "Price, Brand Name and Product Composition Characteristics as Determinants of Perceived Quality," Journal of Applied Psychology, 55 (December), 570-579.
- Jun, Won-Jae, and Alain J.P. Jolibert (1983), "Revealed Versus Hidden Attributes as Determinants of Perceived Product Quality," Journal of Economic Psychology, 4, 263-272.
- Kahle, Lynn R. and Pamela M. Homer (1985), "Physical Attractiveness of the Celebrity Endorser: A Social Adaptation Perspective," Journal of Consumer Research, 11 (March), 954-961.

- Knapp, Mark L. (1978), Nonverbal Communication in Human Interaction, New York: Holt, Rhinehart and Winston.
- Knapp, Mark L. (1980), Essentials of Nonverbal Communication, New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.
- Landy, David and Harold Sigall (1974), "Beauty is Talent: Task Evaluations as a Function of the Performer's Physical Attractiveness," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 29 (March), 299-304.
- Leigh, Thomas Walter (1981), "The Effect of Nonverbal Cues on Industrial Buyers' Perceptions During the Initial Sales Call," unpublished dissertation, Marketing Department, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN.
- Locksley, A. and M.E. Colten (1979), "Psychological Androgyny: A Case of Mistaken Identity?", Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37 (June), 1017-1031.
- Mayo, Clara and Nancy Henley (1981), Gender and Nonverbal Behavior, New York: Springer-Verlag.
- McCaskey, Michael B. (1979), "The Hidden Messages Managers Send," Harvard Business Review, 57 (November-December), 135-148.
- Mehrabian, Albert (1972), Nonverbal Communication, Chicago, Illinois: Aldine-Atherton.
- Mehrabian, Albert (1981), Silent Messages, Belmont, California: Wadsworth, Inc.
- Miller, Arthur G. (1970), "The Role of Physical Attractiveness in Impression Formation," Psychonomic Science, 19, 241-243.
- Molloy, John T. (1975), Dress for Success, New York: P.H. Wyden.
- Molloy, John T. (1977), The Woman's Dress for Success Book, Chicago: Follet Publishing Co.
- Mowen, John C. (1980), "On Product Endorser Effectiveness: A Balance Model Approach," Current Issues and Research in Advertising, 41-57.

- Nunnally, J. (1967), Psychometric Methods, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Olson, Jerry C. and Jacob Jacoby (1972), "Cue Utilization in the Quality Perception Process," in Proceedings of the Third Annual Conference of the Association for Consumer Research, ed. M. Venkatesan, Iowa City, IA: Association for Consumer Research, 167-179.
- Patterson, M.L. (1973), "Compensation in Nonverbal Immediacy Behaviors: A Review," Sociometry, 36 (June), 237-252.
- Porter, Natalie and Florence Geis (1981), "Women and Nonverbal Leadership Cues: When Seeing Is Not Believing," in Gender and Nonverbal Behavior, eds. Mayo and Henley, New York: Springer-Verlag, 39-61.
- Rosenberg, N. and Thomas V. Bonoma (1974), "A Social Influence Rating Method for Group Interaction and Some Pilot Results on Group Therapy Process," Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 1 (September), 259-263.
- Rosenfeld, Howard (1966), "Instrumental Affiliative Functions of Facial and Gestural Expressions," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 14 (July), 65-72.
- Rosenthal, Robert (1979), Skill in Nonverbal Communication, Cambridge, Massachusetts: Oelgeschlager, Gunn and Hain, Publishers, Inc.
- Rosenthal, Robert and Bella M. DePaulo (1979), "Sex Differences in Accommodation in Nonverbal Communication," in Skill in Nonverbal Communication, ed. Rosenthal, Massachusetts: Oelgeschlager, Gunn and Hain, Publishers, Inc., 68-99.
- Scherer, Klaur R. and Paul Ekman (1982), Handbook of Methods in Nonverbal Behavior Research, Cambridge University Press.
- Schramm, Wilbur (1955), The Process and Effects of Mass Communications, Urbana: The University of Illinois Press.

- Schul, Patrick L. and Charles W. Lamb (1982), "Decoding Nonverbal and Vocal Communications: A Laboratory Study," Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 10 (Spring), 154-164.
- Siegfried, B.A. and C. Hendrick, (1973), "When Do Opposites Attract? When They Are Opposite in Sex and Sex-Role Attitudes," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 25 (January), 15-20.
- Weitz, S. (ed.) (1974), Nonverbal Communication: Readings With Commentary, New York: Oxford University Press.
- Zaltman, Gerald and Melanie Wallendorf (1979), Consumer Behavior: Basic Findings and Management Implications, New York: John Wiley and Sons.



APPENDIX A

PLEASE READ THE FOLLOWING SCRIPT:

THANK YOU FOR COMING TODAY. WE HERE AT ALPINE DESIGNERS, APPRECIATE THE CHANCE TO SHOW YOU OUR NEW LINE OF SKI WEAR.

WE ARE ESPECIALLY EXCITED ABOUT INTRODUCING "LIGHTSULATE" ... A TECHNOLOGICALLY SUPERIOR FABRIC FOR SKI WEAR.

LIGHTSULATE IS WARMER THAN DOWN BUT IS FAR LESS BULKY. WARMTH IS AN IDEAL CHARACTERISTIC FOR THE SLOPES WHILE LIGHTSULATE'S INHERENT LIGHT WEIGHT ALLOWS FOR FASHIONABLE COMFORT BACK AT THE LODGE.

AS YOU CAN SEE, THIS NEW FABRIC IS SO THIN ... YOUR CUSTOMERS MAY HAVE DIFFICULTY BELIEVING THAT IT'S WARMER THAN DOWN. WE HAVE INCLUDED AN INFORMATION TAG TO HELP ILLUSTRATE THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN DOWN AND LIGHTSULATE.

NATURALLY, THIS NEW PRODUCT COSTS A BIT MORE THAN TRADITIONAL DOWN JACKETS MANUFACTURED BY ALPINE DESIGNERS. BUT WE HONESTLY BELIEVE IT'S WORTH THE PRICE AND THAT SATISFIED CUSTOMERS WILL RETURN TO YOUR STORE FOR ADDITIONAL ALPINE SKIWEAR.

THANK YOU FOR COMING TODAY. WE APPRECIATE YOUR TIME. ADDITIONAL LITERATURE IS AVAILABLE AT THE DOOR.

PLEASE GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE...

PLEASE PLACE AN X ON THE SPACE YOU BELIEVE BEST  
DESCRIBES THE SCRIPT.

NEW PRODUCT	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	OLD PRODUCT
HIGH STATUS PRODUCT	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	LOW STATUS PRODUCT
MASCULINE	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	FEMININE
LOW FINANCIAL RISK	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	HIGH FINANCIAL RISK
HIGH SOCIAL RISK	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	LOW SOCIAL RISK

PLEASE PLACE AN X ON THE SPACE YOU BELIEVE BEST  
DESCRIBES THE PRODUCT.

THIS PRODUCT IS:

HIGH PRICED	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	LOW PRICED
FEMININE	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	MASCULINE
NEW	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	OLD
ACCEPTABLE TO MY FRIENDS	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	UNACCEPTABLE TO MY FRIENDS

HIGH STATUS SCRIPT

(LOOK DIRECTLY INTO CAMERA...FACE SQUARELY...DIRECT BODY ORIENTATION.)

Thank you for coming today. we here at Alpine Designers, appreciate the chance to show you our new line of ski wear. (PAUSE HERE AND PICK UP JACKET.)

We are especially excited about introducing (EMPHASIZE LIGHTSULATE) "Lightsulate"...a technologically superior fabric for ski wear. (LOOK DIRECTLY INTO CAMERA WITH CONFIDENCE, KEEP POSTURE RELAXED AND CHEST EXPANDED.)

(SPOKEN WITH A STRONG AND ACTIVE SPEECH RATE AND VOLUME.)

Lightsulate is warmer than down but is far less bulky. (EMPHASIZE WARMTH.)

Warmth is an ideal characteristic for the slopes while lightsulate's inherent light weight allows for fashionable comfort back at the lodge.

(KEEP POSTURE RELAXED AND FACE CAMERA SQUARELY.)

As you can see, this new fabric is so thin ... (PAUSE) your customers may have difficulty believing that it's warmer than down. We have included an information tag (PICK UP TAG) to help illustrate the differences between down and Lightsulate.

(STRONG SPEECH VOLUME SPOKEN RATHER MATTER OF FACTLY, PUT HAND ON TABLE AND LEAN SIDEWAYS A BIT, MAINTAIN DIRECT EYE CONTACT) Naturally, this new product costs a bit more than traditional down jackets manufactured by Alpine Designers. But we honestly believe it's worth the price and that satisfied customers will return to your store for additional Alpine skiwear.

(LOOK DIRECTLY INTO CAMERA AND KEEP CHEST EXPANDED BUT POSTURE RELAXED.) Thank you for coming today. We appreciate your time. Additional literature is available at the door.

LOW STATUS SCRIPT

(LOOK AWAY BEFORE SPEAKING AND SHIFT BODY ORIENTATION.)

Thank you for coming today. We here at Alpine Designers, appreciate the chance to show you our new line of ski wear. (PAUSE HERE AND PICK UP JACKET.)

(HESITATION) We are especially excited about introducing (EMPHASIZE LIGHTSULATE) "Lightsulate ... a technologically superior fabric for ski wear. (SHIFT EYE CONTACT, DEPRESSED POSTURE, SUNKEN CHEST)

(HALTING SPEECH) Lightsulate is warmer than down but is far less bulky. (EMPHASIZE WARMTH) Warmth is an ideal characteristic for the slopes while Lightsulate's inherent light weight allows for fashionable comfort back at the lodge. (BODY POSTURE TENSE ... CIRCUMSPECT)

As you can see, this new fabric is so thin ... (PAUSE) your customers may have difficulty believing that it's warmer than down. We have included an information tag (PICK UP TAG) to help illustrate the differences between down and Lightsulate.

(AVERT EYES, KEEP BODY POSTURE TENSE, SHIFTING BODY ORIENTATION)

Naturally, this new product costs a bit more than traditional down jackets manufactured by Alpine Designers. But we honestly believe it's worth the price and that satisfied customers will return to your store for additional Alpine skiwear.

(HESITATE BEFORE SPEAKING)

Thank you for coming today. We appreciate your time. Additional literature is available at the door.

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

Place an X in the space on the scale following the question that most clearly identifies your position.

I find the salesperson to be:

- Believable \_\_\_\_\_ Not Believable
- Insincere \_\_\_\_\_ Sincere
- Trusting \_\_\_\_\_ Not Trusting
- Not Credible \_\_\_\_\_ Credible
- Expert \_\_\_\_\_ Not Expert
- Informative \_\_\_\_\_ Not Informative
- Knowledgeable \_\_\_\_\_ Not Knowledgeable

This salesperson is:

- Appealing \_\_\_\_\_ Not Appealing
- Unattractive \_\_\_\_\_ Attractive
- Charming \_\_\_\_\_ Not Charming
- Ordinary \_\_\_\_\_ Striking
- Likable \_\_\_\_\_ Not Likable
- Courteous \_\_\_\_\_ Discourteous
- Respectful \_\_\_\_\_ Disrespectful
- Listens \_\_\_\_\_ Doesn't Listen
- Deferential \_\_\_\_\_ Not Deferential
- Relaxed \_\_\_\_\_ Tense
- Controlling \_\_\_\_\_ Controlled
- Influential \_\_\_\_\_ Influenced
- In Control \_\_\_\_\_ Cared For
- Important \_\_\_\_\_ Awed
- Dominant \_\_\_\_\_ Submissive
- Autonomous \_\_\_\_\_ Guided



Please evaluate how you perceived the salesperson's view of the product:

Positive	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Negative
Good	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Bad
Favorable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Unfavorable

My view of the salesperson is:

Likable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Unlikable
Favorable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Unfavorable
Positive	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Negative

For a friend who may need a product like this I would recommend that he or she:

Consider	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Consider
Purchasing	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Not Purchasing

As a buyer for a ski firm I am likely to recommend:

Consider Not	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Consider
Purchasing	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Purchasing

If I skied, I would:

Consider	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Consider Not
Purchasing	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Purchasing
This Product	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	This Product

With respect to product quality, I would rate this product:

High	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Low
Not Desirable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Desirable
Good	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Bad
Unfavorable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Favorable

My view of the product is:

Positive	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Negative
Favorable	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Unfavorable
Good	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	Bad

I Like	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	I Do Not Like
This Product	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	This Product

Please provide the following information for statistical purposes.

Your sex:	_____ Male	Your class level:	_____ Freshman
	_____ Female		_____ Sophomore
			_____ Junior
Your age:	_____ 20 or under		_____ Senior
	_____ 21-23		_____ Graduate or other
	_____ 24 and over		

APPENDIX C

PRINCIPAL FACTORS --> STUDY #1

Construct/Variables	Factor I	Communality	Cronbach's Alpha	Eigenvalues	% of Variance
<u>Credibility</u>			.86		
Believable	.73	.53		3.81	54.4
Sincere	.59	.34		.96	13.7
Trusting	.71	.52		.69	9.9
Credible	.63	.39		.56	8.0
Expert	.67	.45		.44	6.3
Informative	.66	.43		.30	4.3
Knowledgeable	.78	.61		.25	3.5
<u>Attractive</u>			.75		
Appealing	.74	.55		2.50	50.0
Attractive	.49	.24		.98	19.5
Charming	.79	.63		.73	14.5
Striking	.44	.19		.43	8.5
Likable	.60	.34		.37	7.5
<u>Sentiment Connection Product --&gt; Salesperson</u>			.96		
Positive	.93	.87		2.78	92.5
Good	.97	.94		.14	4.6
Favorable	.92	.85		.09	2.8
<u>Sentiment Connection Consumer --&gt; Salesperson</u>			.92		
Likable	.84	.71		2.59	86.2
Favorable	.94	.88		.26	8.6
Positive	.89	.80		.15	5.2

PRINCIPAL FACTORS --> STUDY #1

Construct/Variables	Factor I	Communality	Cronbach's Alpha	Eigenvalues	% of Variance
<u>Purchase Intention</u>			.89		
Friend	.90	.82		2.46	82.1
Buyer	.86	.75		.33	10.9
Self	.79	.63		.21	7.0
<u>Quality</u>			.93		
High	.83	.69		3.34	83.5
Desirable	.88	.78		.39	9.8
Good	.86	.74		.20	4.9
Favorable	.96	.92		.07	1.7
<u>Sentiment Connection Consumer --&gt; Product</u>			.96		
Positive	.99	.97		3.61	90.3
Favorable	.97	.93		.25	6.3
Good	.94	.89		.09	2.2
Like	.84	.70		.04	1.2

APPENDIX D

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS --&gt; STUDY #1

Constructs Treatment Conditions	C R E D I B I L I T Y							
	Believable/ Not Believable		Sincere/ Not Sincere		Trusting/ Not Trusting		Credible/ Not Credible	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	4.58	(1.17)	4.77	(1.03)	4.54	(1.14)	4.23	(1.11)
Male Respon.	4.40	(1.30)	4.67	(1.05)	4.20	(1.15)	3.87	(1.13)
Female Respon.	4.82	(.98)	4.91	(1.05)	5.00	(1.00)	4.73	(.90)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	4.63	(1.25)	5.08	(1.18)	4.58	(1.10)	4.50	(1.41)
Male Respon.	4.42	(1.38)	4.92	(1.08)	4.58	(1.08)	4.25	(1.48)
Female Respon.	4.83	(1.11)	5.25	(1.28)	4.58	(1.16)	4.75	(1.36)
HIGH STATUS	4.60*	(1.20)	4.92*	(1.10)	4.56*	(1.11)	4.36*	(1.26)
Low Status Male Salesperson	3.08	(1.28)	4.04	(1.65)	3.46	(1.53)	3.04	(2.01)
Male Respon.	3.07	(1.10)	4.20	(1.52)	3.60	(1.50)	3.53	(2.17)
Female Respon.	3.11	(1.62)	3.78	(1.92)	3.22	(1.64)	2.22	(1.48)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	3.28	(1.72)	3.72	(1.49)	3.56	(1.33)	2.56	(1.50)
Male Respon.	3.42	(1.68)	3.92	(1.44)	3.92	(1.56)	2.83	(1.64)
Female Respon.	3.15	(1.82)	3.54	(1.56)	3.23	(1.01)	2.31	(1.37)
LOW STATUS	3.18*	(1.51)	3.88*	(1.56)	3.51*	(1.42)	2.80*	(1.77)
TOTAL	3.90	(1.53)	4.40	(1.44)	4.04	(1.37)	3.59	(1.71)

\*Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS --&gt; STUDY #1

Constructs Treatment Conditions	C R E D I B I L I T Y					
	Expert/ Not Expert		Info/ Not Info		Knowledgeable/ Not Knowledgeable	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	3.12	(1.51)	4.15	(1.59)	4.04*	(1.59)
Male Respon.	3.27	(1.67)	3.67	(1.50)	3.87	(1.85)
Female Respon.	2.91	(1.30)	4.82	(1.54)	4.27	(1.19)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	3.63	(1.77)	5.08	(1.28)	4.50*	(1.59)
Male Respon.	3.00	(1.71)	4.75	(1.29)	3.83	(1.58)
Female Respon.	4.25	(1.66)	5.42	(1.24)	5.17	(1.34)
HIGH STATUS	3.36*	(1.64)	4.60*	(1.51)	4.26*	(1.59)
Low Status Male Salesperson	2.42	(1.84)	3.33	(1.40)	2.63*	(1.44)
Male Respon.	2.20	(1.74)	3.13	(1.30)	2.53	(1.51)
Female Respon.	2.78	(2.04)	3.67	(1.58)	2.78	(1.39)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	2.12	(1.30)	3.36	(1.50)	3.32*	(1.52)
Male Respon.	2.17	(1.19)	3.50	(1.31)	3.42	(1.44)
Female Respon.	2.07	(1.44)	3.23	(1.69)	3.23	(1.64)
LOW STATUS	2.27*	(1.58)	3.35*	(1.44)	2.98*	(1.51)
TOTAL	2.82	(1.69)	3.98	(1.60)	3.63	(1.67)

\*Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS --&gt; STUDY #1

Constructs Treatment Conditions	A T T R A C T I V E N E S S									
	Appealing/ Not Appealing		Attractive/ Not Attractive		Charming/ Not Charming		Striking/ Not Striking		Likable/ Not Likable	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	3.27	(1.19)	4.19	(1.02)	3.04	(1.11)	2.69	(1.12)	4.35	(1.06)
Male Respon.	3.07	(1.10)	4.13	(1.06)	3.07	(1.10)	2.93	(1.03)	4.27	(.96)
Female Respon.	3.55	(1.29)	4.27	(1.00)	3.00	(1.18)	2.36	(1.21)	4.45	(1.21)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	3.46	(1.35)	4.00	(1.29)	3.33	(1.31)	2.67	(1.13)	4.42	(1.18)
Male Respon.	3.50	(1.17)	3.75	(1.14)	3.08	(1.31)	2.75	(1.29)	4.33	(.49)
Female Respon.	3.42	(1.56)	4.25	(1.42)	3.58	(1.31)	2.58	(1.00)	4.50	(1.62)
HIGH STATUS	3.36*	(1.26)	4.10	(1.15)	3.18*	(1.21)	2.68*	(1.12)	4.38*	(1.11)
Low Status Male Salesperson	2.13	(1.08)	3.71	(1.08)	2.38	(1.06)	2.00	(.93)	3.75	(1.29)
Male Respon.	2.20	(1.01)	3.73	(1.10)	2.40	(1.12)	2.00	(.93)	3.93	(1.03)
Female Respon.	2.00	(1.22)	3.67	(1.11)	2.33	(1.00)	2.00	(1.00)	3.44	(1.66)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	2.52	(1.36)	4.28	(1.31)	2.60	(1.11)	2.40	(1.23)	3.76	(1.20)
Male Respon.	2.42	(1.51)	3.75	(1.36)	2.67	(1.30)	2.50	(1.24)	3.75	(1.29)
Female Respon.	2.62	(1.26)	4.77	(1.09)	2.54	(.97)	2.31	(1.25)	3.77	(1.17)
LOW STATUS	2.33*	(1.23)	4.00	(1.23)	2.49*	(1.08)	2.20*	(1.10)	3.76*	(1.23)
TOTAL	2.85	(1.34)	4.05	(1.18)	2.84	(1.19)	2.44	(1.12)	4.07	(1.21)

\*Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level



## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS --&gt; STUDY #1

Constructs Treatment Conditions	S T A T U S							
	Courteous/ Not Courteous		Respectful/ Not Respectful		Listens/ Doesn't Listen		Deferential/ Not Deferential	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	3.04	(.92)	3.39*	(.94)	4.77*	(1.21)	4.15	(1.12)
Male Respon.	3.00	(.93)	3.47	(.99)	4.87	(1.36)	3.87	(.99)
Female Respon.	3.09	(.94)	3.27	(.90)	4.64	(1.03)	4.55	(1.21)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	2.42	(.93)	2.25*	(1.02)	3.83*	(1.58)	4.00	(.93)
Male Respon.	2.58	(.79)	2.83	(.94)	3.92	(1.73)	4.16	(.83)
Female Respon.	2.25	(1.05)	2.17	(1.03)	3.75	(1.48)	3.83	(1.03)
HIGH STATUS	2.74 *	(.97)	2.96*	(1.07)	4.32	(1.46)	4.08	(1.03)
Low Status Male Salesperson	3.38	(1.17)	3.58*	(1.21)	3.95*	(1.12)	4.00	(1.10)
Male Respon.	3.47	(.99)	3.47	(.99)	4.20	(.56)	4.00	(1.13)
Female Respon.	3.22	(1.48)	3.78	(1.56)	3.56	(1.67)	4.00	(1.11)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	3.36	(1.29)	3.64*	(1.22)	3.92*	(.91)	4.56	(1.33)
Male Respon.	3.00	(1.35)	3.42	(1.44)	3.75	(1.22)	4.67	(1.56)
Female Respon.	3.69	(1.18)	3.85	(.99)	4.08	(.49)	4.46	(1.12)
LOW STATUS	3.37 *	(1.22)	3.61*	(1.20)	3.94	(1.01)	4.29	(1.24)
TOTAL	3.05	(1.14)	3.28	(1.18)	4.13	(1.27)	4.18	(1.14)

\*Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS --&gt; STUDY #1

Constructs Treatment Conditions	S T A T U S							
	Relaxed/ Not Relaxed		Controlling/ Not Controlling		Influential/ Not Influential		In Control/ Not In Control	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	2.65	(1.52)	3.00	(1.47)	3.15	(1.26)	3.50	(1.24)
Male Respon.	2.53	(1.30)	2.67	(1.54)	3.00	(1.20)	3.33	(1.35)
Female Respon.	2.82	(1.83)	3.45	(1.29)	3.36	(1.36)	3.73	(1.10)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	3.04	(1.23)	3.33	(1.58)	3.71	(1.37)	3.88	(1.39)
Male Respon.	3.00	(1.28)	3.17	(1.40)	3.08	(1.08)	3.75	(.96)
Female Respon.	3.08	(1.24)	3.50	(1.78)	4.33	(1.37)	4.00	(1.76)
HIGH STATUS	2.84 *	(1.39)	3.16	(1.52)	3.42*	(1.33)	3.68*	(1.32)
Low Status Male Salesperson	1.21	(.66)	2.96	(2.07)	1.92	(.83)	2.38	(.92)
Male Respon.	1.33	(.82)	2.80	(2.14)	2.00	(.93)	2.33	(.73)
Female Respon.	1.00	(.00)	3.22	(2.05)	1.78	(.67)	2.44	(1.23)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	1.40	(.91)	2.52	(1.56)	2.28	(.89)	2.60	(.87)
Male Respon.	1.58	(1.16)	3.00	(1.91)	2.25	(.62)	2.92	(.67)
Female Respon.	1.23	(.60)	2.08	(1.03)	2.31	(1.11)	2.31	(.94)
LOW STATUS	1.31*	(.80)	2.74	(1.82)	2.10*	(.87)	2.49*	(.89)
TOTAL	2.08	(1.37)	2.95	(1.68)	2.77	(1.30)	3.09	(1.27)

\*Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS --&gt; STUDY #1

Constructs Treatment Conditions	S T A T U S					
	Important/ Not Important		Dominant/ Not Dominant		Autonomous/ Not Autonomous	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	3.62*	(.98)	3.12	(1.07)	2.54*	(1.17)
Male Respon.	3.40	(.99)	3.13	(1.19)	2.47	(1.35)
Female Respon.	3.91	(.94)	3.09	(.94)	2.64	(.92)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	4.04*	(.81)	3.46	(1.35)	3.21*	(1.62)
Male Respon.	3.67	(.49)	2.92	(.90)	2.67	(1.37)
Female Respon.	4.42	(.90)	4.00	(1.53)	3.75	(1.71)
HIGH STATUS	3.82*	(.92)	3.28*	(1.21)	2.59*	(1.38)
Low Status Male Salesperson	2.58*	(1.01)	1.92	(.58)	2.13*	(1.26)
Male Respon.	2.53	(.92)	1.93	(.60)	2.20	(1.26)
Female Respon.	2.67	(1.23)	1.89	(.60)	2.00	(1.32)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	2.96*	(.79)	2.16	(.98)	2.48*	(1.30)
Male Respon.	3.08	(.52)	2.17	(.84)	2.67	(1.61)
Female Respon.	2.84	(.98)	2.15	(1.14)	2.31	(.95)
LOW STATUS	2.78*	(.92)	2.04*	(.82)	2.31*	(1.28)
TOTAL	3.30	(1.05)	2.67	(1.20)	2.59	(1.38)

\*Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS --&gt; STUDY #1

Constructs Treatment Conditions	SENTIMENT CONNECTION OF PRODUCT ---> SALESPERSON					
	Positive/ Negative		Good/ Bad		Favorable/ Unfavorable	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	5.39	(1.24)	5.39	(1.27)	5.30	(1.29)
Male Respon.	4.93	(1.28)	4.93	(1.33)	4.87*	(1.30)
Female Respon.	6.00	(.89)	6.00	(.89)	5.90*	(1.04)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	5.50	(1.14)	5.63	(1.13)	5.42	(1.56)
Male Respon.	5.17	(1.19)	5.33	(1.15)	5.08*	(1.38)
Female Respon.	5.83	(1.02)	5.91	(1.08)	5.75*	(1.71)
HIGH STATUS	5.44*	(1.18)	5.50*	(1.27)	5.36*	(1.41)
Low Status Male Salesperson	4.33	(1.66)	4.42	(1.47)	4.29	(1.66)
Male Respon.	4.33	(1.63)	4.40	(1.29)	4.13*	(1.50)
Female Respon.	4.33	(1.80)	4.44	(1.81)	4.56*	(1.94)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	4.12	1.20	4.52	(1.19)	4.36	(1.52)
Male Respon.	4.17	(1.11)	4.50	(1.38)	4.33*	(1.56)
Female Respon.	4.08	(1.32)	4.54	(1.05)	4.38*	(1.56)
LOW STATUS	4.22*	(1.43)	4.47*	(1.32)	4.33*	(1.57)
TOTAL	4.83	(1.44)	4.99	(1.36)	4.85	(1.57)

\*Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS --&gt; STUDY #1

Constructs Treatment Conditions	SENTIMENT CONNECTION OF CONSUMER ---> SALESPERSON					
	Likable/ Not Likable		Favorable/ Unfavorable		Positive/ Negative	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	4.19	(1.42)	3.89	(1.51)	3.89	(1.56)
Male Respon.	4.07	(1.28)	3.60	(1.35)	3.67	(1.35)
Female Respon.	4.36	(1.63)	4.27	(1.68)	4.18	(1.84)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	4.13	(1.36)	4.08	(1.28)	4.54	(1.41)
Male Respon.	3.63	(1.12)	3.58	(1.08)	4.25	(1.60)
Female Respon.	4.58	(1.44)	4.58	(1.31)	4.83	(1.19)
HIGH STATUS	4.16*	(1.38)	3.98*	(1.39)	4.20*	(1.51)
Low Status Male Salesperson	3.54	(1.38)	2.58	1.38	2.42	(1.25)
Male Respon.	3.47	(1.30)	2.47	(1.18)	2.47	(1.06)
Female Respon.	3.67	(1.58)	2.78	(1.71)	2.33	(1.58)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	2.88	(1.24)	2.40	(1.35)	2.16	(1.10)
Male Respon.	2.92	(1.44)	2.67	(1.78)	2.50	(1.38)
Female Respon.	2.85	(1.07)	2.15	(.80)	1.84	(.69)
LOW STATUS	3.20*	(1.34)	2.49*	(1.36)	2.29*	(1.18)
TOTAL	3.68	(1.43)	3.24	(1.56)	3.25	(1.66)

\*Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS --&gt; STUDY #1

Constructs Treatment Conditions	INTENTION TO PURCHASE					
	Recommend to friend		Recommend as a buyer		Consider if I skied	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	4.46*	(1.14)	4.42*	(1.30)	4.65	(1.32)
Male Respon.	4.13*	(1.06)	4.13	(1.35)	4.47	(1.19)
Female Respon.	4.90*	(1.14)	4.81	(1.16)	4.91	(1.51)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	4.83*	(1.52)	4.88*	(1.60)	4.79	(2.13)
Male Respon.	4.25*	(1.66)	4.25	(1.60)	4.75	(2.09)
Female Respon.	5.42*	(1.16)	5.50	(1.38)	4.83	(2.25)
HIGH STATUS	4.64*	(1.34)	4.64*	1.45	4.72*	(1.74)
Low Status Male Salesperson	3.08*	(1.38)	2.17*	(1.09)	3.33	(1.52)
Male Respon.	2.93*	(1.33)	2.20	(.94)	3.20	(1.47)
Female Respon.	3.33*	(1.50)	2.11	(1.36)	3.56	(1.67)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	3.84*	(1.72)	3.08*	(1.82)	4.16	(1.65)
Male Respon.	3.58*	(1.93)	3.00	(1.91)	4.25	(1.42)
Female Respon.	4.08*	(1.56)	3.15	(1.81)	4.07	(1.89)
LOW STATUS	3.47*	(1.60)	2.63*	(1.56)	3.76*	(1.63)
TOTAL	4.06	(1.58)	3.65	(1.81)	4.24	(1.74)

\*Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS --&gt; STUDY #1

Constructs Treatment Conditions	Q U A L I T Y							
	High/ Low		Desirable/ Not Desirable		Good/ Bad		Favorable/ Unfavorable	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	4.65*	(1.13)	4.89	(1.14)	4.65	(1.06)	4.84*	(1.22)
Male Respon.	4.27	(.80)	4.67	(.98)	4.33	(.82)	4.53	(1.19)
Female Respon.	5.18	(1.32)	5.18	(1.33)	5.09	(1.22)	5.27	(1.19)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	5.13*	(1.39)	5.08	(1.72)	5.04	(1.27)	5.13*	(1.60)
Male Respon.	4.83	(1.64)	4.75	(1.71)	4.58	(1.44)	4.92	(1.78)
Female Respon.	5.42	(1.08)	5.41	(1.72)	5.50	(.90)	5.33	(1.43)
HIGH STATUS	4.88*	(1.27)	4.98*	(1.43)	4.84*	(1.17)	4.98*	(1.41)
Low Status Male Salesperson	3.92*	(1.17)	3.83	(1.71)	4.04	(1.20)	3.75*	(1.35)
Male Respon.	4.00	(1.07)	3.80	(1.47)	4.13	(.83)	3.73	(1.09)
Female Respon.	3.78	(1.39)	3.89	(2.14)	3.88	(1.69)	3.77	(1.79)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	4.52*	(1.56)	4.72	(1.67)	4.56	(1.47)	4.68*	(1.55)
Male Respon.	4.67	(1.23)	5.00	(1.60)	4.50	(1.68)	4.92	(1.62)
Female Respon.	4.38	(1.85)	4.46	(1.76)	4.62	(1.32)	4.46	(1.50)
LOW STATUS	4.22*	(1.40)	4.29*	(1.73)	4.31*	(1.36)	4.22*	(1.52)
TOTAL	4.56	(1.37)	4.63	(1.62)	4.58	(1.29)	4.60	(1.50)

\*Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS --&gt; STUDY #1

Constructs Treatment Conditions	Sentiment Connection of Consumer --> Product							
	Positive/ Negative		Favorable/ Unfavorable		Good/ Bad		Like/Do Not Like	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	4.73*	(1.25)	4.73*	(1.34)	4.85	(1.19)	4.69	(1.35)
Male Respon.	4.20*	(1.08)	4.20	(1.21)	4.33*	(1.05)	4.33	(1.23)
Female Respon.	5.45*	(1.13)	5.45	(1.21)	5.55*	(1.04)	5.18	(1.40)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	5.17*	(1.58)	5.17*	1.55	5.17	(1.52)	4.75	(1.57)
Male Respon.	4.83*	(1.70)	5.00	(1.60)	4.83*	(1.58)	4.50	(1.56)
Female Respon.	5.50*	(1.44)	5.33	(1.56)	5.50*	(1.44)	5.00	(1.59)
HIGH STATUS	4.94*	(1.42)	4.94*	(1.45)	5.00*	(1.35)	4.72*	(1.44)
Low Status Male Salesperson	3.50*	(1.41)	3.42*	(1.35)	3.75	1.45	3.58	(1.28)
Male Respon.	3.40*	(1.40)	3.40	(1.30)	3.60*	(1.29)	3.60	(1.18)
Female Respon.	3.67*	(1.50)	3.44	(1.50)	4.00*	(1.73)	3.56	(1.51)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	4.16*	(1.63)	4.28*	(1.60)	4.20	(1.60)	4.20	(1.53)
Male Respon.	4.00*	(1.76)	4.08	(1.73)	4.08*	(1.73)	4.16	(1.59)
Female Respon.	4.31*	(1.55)	4.46	(1.51)	4.30*	(1.05)	4.23	(1.54)
LOW STATUS	3.84*	(1.55)	3.86*	(1.52)	3.98*	(1.56)	3.90*	(1.43)
TOTAL	4.40	(1.58)	4.40	(1.58)	4.50	(1.54)	4.31	(1.49)

\*Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level



APPENDIX E

(Two technicians are heard chatting, but are not seen. The camera is focusing in and out, sound goes up and down as if they were making early adjustments. The early sound from the two people in the audience might vary in volume.)

(Irrelevant chatter, then . . .)

Joe, let's focus on some audience members so that we can make certain that it will be OK for the presentation.

(Camera pictures focuses on two buyers--gradually becoming clearer.)

Buyer #1: . . . and then Lynn said, "If you do that again, clean up the mess yourself." (Both laugh)

Buyer #2: That's a good story. (Pause--grinning) Say, I noticed you talking to the person who's presenting this product. Are you two acquainted?

Buyer #1: Yes, Terri and I go back about three years. We used to work for the same company.

Buyer #2: Do you know anything about this new product? I'm not familiar with it. Is it any good?

Buyer #1: No, not directly I don't. Terri seems to be sold on it. And, I'll tell you, whatever Terri says about it I'd believe. I told you that we used to work for the same company. I remember once Terri sure got into trouble

telling a customer that our product wasn't as good as one of our competitors. The boss sure got upset about that. Anyway you can trust Terri to level with us.

(Technicians take it back)

OK--it looks good for the presentation.

APPENDIX F

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS - STUDY #2

Constructs Treatment Conditions	C R E D I B I L I T Y							
	Believable/ Not Believable		Sincere/ Not Sincere		Trusting/ Not Trusting		Credible/ Not Credible	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	3.92*	(1.35)	4.85	(1.16)	4.15	(1.29)	3.73*	(1.40)
Male Respon.	4.31	(1.38)	5.23	(.93)	4.31	(1.03)	3.69	(1.49)
Female Respon.	3.54	(1.27)	4.46	(1.27)	4.00	(1.53)	3.77	(1.36)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	4.58*	(1.42)	5.15	(1.22)	4.65	(1.20)	4.92*	(1.06)
Male Respon.	4.46	(1.80)	5.31	(1.11)	4.54	(1.39)	4.62	(.96)
Female Respon.	4.69	(.95)	5.00	(1.35)	4.77	(1.01)	5.23	(1.09)
HIGH STATUS	4.25*	1.41	5.00*	(1.19)	4.40*	(1.26)	4.33*	(1.37)
Low Status Male Salesperson	2.81*	(1.33)	4.35	(1.29)	3.54	(1.30)	3.00*	(1.67)
Male Respon.	2.85	(1.52)	4.15	(1.28)	3.23	(1.42)	2.54	(1.45)
Female Respon.	2.76	(1.17)	4.54	(1.33)	3.85	(1.14)	3.46	(1.81)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	4.08*	(1.13)	4.19	(1.06)	3.70	(1.26)	3.81*	(1.47)
Male Respon.	3.92	(1.26)	4.15	(1.07)	3.92	(.95)	3.92	(1.44)
Female Respon.	4.23	(1.01)	4.23	(1.09)	3.38	(1.50)	3.69	(1.55)
LOW STATUS	3.44*	(1.90)	4.27*	(1.17)	3.60*	(1.27)	3.40*	(1.61)
TOTAL	3.85	(1.45)	4.63	(1.23)	4.00	(1.32)	3.87	(1.56)

\* Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS - STUDY #2

Constructs Treatment Conditions	C R E D I B I L I T Y					
	Expert/ Not Expert		Info/ Not Info		Knowledgeable/ Not Knowledgeable	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	2.77*	(1.39)	4.65	(1.38)	4.19	(1.55)
Male Respon.	3.15	(1.21)	4.85	(1.21)	4.31	(1.25)
Female Respon.	2.38	(1.50)	4.46	(1.56)	4.08	(1.85)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	3.62*	(1.60)	4.92	(1.41)	4.54	(1.53)
Male Respon.	3.23	(1.54)	4.85	(1.46)	4.00	(1.35)
Female Respon.	4.00	(1.63)	5.00	(1.41)	5.08	(1.55)
HIGH STATUS	3.19*	(1.55)	4.79*	(1.39)	4.37*	(1.53)
Low Status Male Salesperson	1.96*	(1.11)	3.27	(1.49)	2.77	(1.39)
Male Respon.	1.92	(1.11)	(2.69)	(1.25)	2.62	(1.45)
Female Respon.	2.00	(1.15)	(3.85)	(1.52)	2.92	(1.38)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	2.27*	(1.19)	4.00	(1.63)	3.50	(1.58)
Male Respon.	2.23	(.93)	3.77	(1.83)	3.38	(1.71)
Female Respon.	2.31	(1.44)	4.23	(1.43)	3.62	(1.50)
LOW STATUS	2.12*	(1.15)	3.64*	(1.59)	3.14*	(1.52)
TOTAL	2.65	(1.46)	4.21	(1.59)	3.75	(1.64)

\* Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS - STUDY #2

Constructs Treatment Conditions	A T T R A C T I V E N E S S									
	Appealing		Attractive		Charming		Striking		Likable	
	Not Appealing		Not Attractive		Not Charming		Not Striking		Not Likable	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	3.54*	(1.66)	3.85*	(1.46)	3.42*	(1.33)	2.39	(1.42)	5.03	(1.22)
Male Respon.	4.08	(1.50)	4.15	(1.28)	3.62	(1.12)	2.69	(1.49)	5.00	(1.22)
Female Respon.	3.00	(1.68)	3.54	(1.61)	3.23	(1.54)	2.08	(1.32)	5.08	(1.26)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	3.62*	(1.44)	3.96*	(1.37)	3.42*	(1.27)	2.42	(1.27)	4.46	(1.39)
Male Respon.	3.46	(1.66)	3.69	(1.60)	3.38	(1.50)	2.69	(1.49)	4.38	(1.45)
Female Respon.	3.77	(1.24)	4.23	(1.09)	3.46	(1.05)	2.15	(.99)	4.54	(1.39)
HIGH STATUS	3.58*	(1.54)	3.90	(1.40)	3.42*	(1.29)	2.40	(1.33)	4.75*	(1.33)
Low Status Male Salesperson	1.92*	(1.02)	2.89*	(1.37)	1.96	(.95)	2.30	1.26	3.50	1.36
Male Respon.	1.92	(1.32)	3.08	(1.26)	2.15	(1.14)	2.77	(1.24)	3.38	(1.39)
Female Respon.	1.92	(.64)	2.69	(1.49)	1.77	(.73)	1.84	(1.14)	3.61	(1.39)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	3.00*	(1.39)	3.92*	(1.20)	2.92*	(1.20)	2.39	(1.24)	4.27	(1.08)
Male Respon.	3.00	(1.53)	3.77	(1.30)	3.23	(1.17)	2.08	(.64)	4.31	(.95)
Female Respon.	3.00	(1.29)	4.08	(1.11)	2.62	(1.19)	2.69	(1.60)	4.23	(1.24)
LOW STATUS	2.46*	(1.32)	3.40	(1.38)	2.44*	(1.18)	2.35	(1.23)	3.89*	(1.29)
TOTAL	3.02	(1.53)	3.65	(1.41)	2.93	(1.32)	2.38	(1.28)	4.32	(1.37)

\* Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS - STUDY #2

Constructs Treatment Conditions	S T A T U S							
	Courteous/ Not Courteous		Respectful/ Not Respectful		Listens/ Doesn't Listen		Deferential/ Not Deferential	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	2.58	(1.07)	2.89	(1.11)	4.03*	(1.40)	4.04	(1.04)
Male Respon.	2.85	(1.14)	2.85	(1.14)	3.85	(1.34)	4.08	(1.26)
Female Respon.	2.31	(.95)	2.92	(1.12)	4.23	(1.48)	4.00	(.82)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	2.62	(.90)	2.73	(.83)	3.85*	(1.19)	3.92	(.84)
Male Respon.	2.54	(.87)	2.69	(.63)	4.00	(.71)	4.08	(.86)
Female Respon.	2.69	(.95)	2.77	(1.01)	3.69	(1.55)	3.77	(.83)
HIGH STATUS	2.60*	(.98)	2.81*	(.97)	3.94	(1.29)	3.98*	(.94)
Low Status Male Salesperson	3.62	(1.17)	3.92	(1.44)	4.77*	(1.18)	4.77	(1.07)
Male Respon.	3.46	(1.33)	3.92	(1.61)	4.54	(.97)	4.54	(.88)
Female Respon.	3.76	(1.01)	3.92	(1.32)	5.00	(1.35)	5.00	(1.22)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	3.42	(1.07)	3.42	(.99)	3.77*	(.82)	4.46	(1.07)
Male Respon.	3.08	(.95)	3.31	(.95)	3.85	(.90)	4.15	(.80)
Female Respon.	3.77	(1.09)	3.54	(1.05)	3.69	(.75)	4.77	(1.24)
LOW STATUS	3.52*	(1.11)	3.67*	(1.25)	4.27	(1.12)	4.62*	(1.07)
TOTAL	3.06	(1.14)	3.24	(1.19)	4.11	(1.21)	4.30	(1.05)

\* Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level



## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS - STUDY #2

Constructs Treatment Conditions	S T A T U S							
	Relaxed/ Not Relaxed		Controlling/ Not Controlling		Influential/ Not Influential		In Control/ Not In Control	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	2.77*	(1.58)	3.23	(1.61)	3.08*	(1.32)	3.58*	(1.30)
Male Respon.	2.54	(1.27)	3.46	(1.45)	2.92	(1.19)	3.38*	(1.39)
Female Respon.	3.00	(1.87)	3.00	(1.78)	3.23	(1.48)	3.77*	(1.24)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	3.89*	(1.66)	3.69	(1.57)	4.31*	(1.35)	5.00*	(1.23)
Male Respon.	3.92	(1.66)	3.00	(1.22)	3.92	(1.55)	4.46*	(1.33)
Female Respon.	3.85	(1.72)	4.38	(1.61)	4.69	(1.03)	5.53*	(.87)
HIGH STATUS	3.33*	(1.70)	3.46*	(1.59)	3.69*	(1.46)	4.29*	(1.45)
Low Status Male Salesperson	1.42*	(1.07)	2.73	(1.37)	1.96*	(1.00)	2.85*	(.88)
Male Respon.	1.77	(1.42)	2.62	(1.33)	1.84	(1.14)	2.69*	(.85)
Female Respon.	1.08	(.28)	2.85	(1.46)	2.07	(.86)	3.00*	(.91)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	1.42*	(.58)	2.35	(1.24)	2.46*	(.86)	3.23*	(.91)
Male Respon.	1.31	(.48)	2.00	(.71)	2.46	(.78)	3.08*	(.86)
Female Respon.	1.54	(.66)	2.77	(1.54)	2.46	(.97)	3.38*	(.96)
LOW STATUS	1.42*	(.85)	2.56*	(1.30)	2.21*	(.96)	3.04*	(.91)
TOTAL	2.38	(1.64)	3.01	(1.52)	2.95	(1.44)	3.66	(1.36)

\* Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS - STUDY #2

Constructs Treatment Conditions	S T A T U S					
	Important/ Not Important		Dominant/ Not Dominant		Autonomous/ Not Autonomous	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	3.50*	(1.18)	3.23*	(1.14)	2.96	(1.25)
Male Respon.	3.46	(1.39)	3.46	(1.05)	2.92	(.95)
Female Respon.	3.54	(.97)	3.00	(1.22)	3.00	(1.53)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	4.23*	(.86)	4.27*	(1.21)	3.15	(1.59)
Male Respon.	4.00	(1.08)	3.85	(1.41)	2.46	(.88)
Female Respon.	4.46	(.52)	4.69	(.85)	3.85	(1.86)
HIGH STATUS	3.87*	(1.09)	3.75*	(1.28)	3.06	(1.42)
Low Status Male Salesperson	3.19*	(.63)	1.81*	(.84)	2.23	(1.24)
Male Respon.	3.15	(.55)	1.85	(.99)	2.38	(1.55)
Female Respon.	3.23	(.73)	1.77	(.73)	2.08	(.86)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	3.15*	(.78)	2.42*	(.99)	2.96	(1.53)
Male Respon.	3.15	(.80)	2.46	(.66)	3.46	(1.90)
Female Respon.	3.15	(.80)	2.38	(1.26)	2.46	(.88)
LOW STATUS	3.17*	(.71)	2.16*	(.96)	2.60	(1.43)
TOTAL	3.52	(.98)	2.93	(1.40)	2.83	(1.44)

\* Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS - STUDY #2

Constructs Treatment Conditions	SENTIMENT CONNECTION OF PRODUCT ---> SALESPERSON					
	Positive/ Negative		Good/ Bad		Favorable/ Unfavorable	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	5.19	(1.10)	5.42	(1.10)	5.39	(1.13)
Male Respon.	5.15	(.99)	5.38	(1.19)	5.54	(1.05)
Female Respon.	5.23	(1.24)	5.46	(1.05)	5.23	(1.23)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	5.89	(.82)	5.85	(.97)	5.89	(1.03)
Male Respon.	5.92	(.95)	5.69	(1.11)	5.84	(1.21)
Female Respon.	5.85	(.67)	6.00	(.82)	5.92	(.86)
HIGH STATUS	5.54*	(1.02)	5.64*	(1.05)	5.64*	(1.10)
Low Status Male Salesperson	4.42	(1.33)	4.69	(1.19)	4.46	(1.24)
Male Respon.	4.62	(1.19)	4.69	(1.25)	4.54	(1.19)
Female Respon.	4.23	(1.48)	4.69	(1.18)	4.38	(1.32)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	4.54	(1.33)	4.73	(1.31)	4.81	(1.33)
Male Respon.	4.31	(1.31)	4.69	(1.32)	4.62	(1.39)
Female Respon.	4.77	(1.36)	4.77	(1.36)	5.00	(1.29)
LOW STATUS	4.48*	(1.32)	4.71*	(1.24)	4.64*	(1.28)
TOTAL	5.01	(1.28)	5.17	(1.23)	5.13	(1.29)

\* Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS - STUDY #2

Constructs Treatment Conditions	SENTIMENT CONNECTION OF CONSUMER ---> SALESPERSON					
	Likable/ Not Likable		Favorable/ Unfavorable		Positive/ Negative	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	4.19*	(1.72)	3.50*	(1.58)	3.69*	(1.62)
Male Respon.	4.38	(1.76)	3.77	(1.64)	3.85	(1.62)
Female Respon.	4.00	(1.73)	3.23	(1.54)	3.54	(1.66)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	4.23*	(1.31)	4.39*	(1.30)	4.54*	(1.50)
Male Respon.	4.38	(1.19)	4.46	(1.33)	4.85	(1.63)
Female Respon.	4.07	(1.44)	4.31	(1.32)	4.23	(1.36)
HIGH STATUS	4.21*	(1.51)	3.94*	(1.50)	4.12*	(1.61)
Low Status Male Salesperson	2.73*	(1.22)	2.39*	(1.44)	2.42*	(1.39)
Male Respon.	3.00	(1.41)	2.76	(1.74)	2.62	(1.71)
Female Respon.	2.46	(.97)	2.00	(1.00)	2.23	(1.01)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	3.96*	(1.40)	3.27*	(1.71)	3.04*	(1.54)
Male Respon.	4.38	(1.26)	3.31	(1.80)	3.15	(1.63)
Female Respon.	3.54	(1.45)	3.23	(1.69)	2.92	(1.50)
LOW STATUS	3.35*	(1.44)	2.83*	(1.63)	2.73*	(1.48)
TOTAL	3.78	(1.53)	3.38	(1.66)	3.42	(1.69)

\* Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS - STUDY #2

Constructs Treatment Conditions	INTENTION TO PURCHASE					
	Recommend to friend		Recommend as a buyer		Consider if I skied	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	4.23*	(1.58)	4.42*	(1.58)	4.46*	(1.61)
Male Respon.	4.15	(1.57)	4.38	(1.50)	4.15	(1.46)
Female Respon.	4.31	(1.65)	4.46	(1.71)	4.77	(1.74)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	5.04*	(1.25)	5.07*	(1.35)	5.04*	(1.61)
Male Respon.	5.08	(1.44)	5.00	(1.58)	5.15	(1.72)
Female Respon.	5.00	(1.08)	5.15	(1.14)	4.92	(1.55)
HIGH STATUS	4.64*	(1.47)	4.75*	(1.49)	4.75*	(1.62)
Low Status Male Salesperson	3.42*	(1.50)	3.23*	(1.75)	3.50*	(1.73)
Male Respon.	3.46	(1.45)	3.46	(1.85)	3.00	(1.47)
Female Respon.	3.38	(1.61)	3.00	(1.68)	4.00	(1.87)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	4.35*	(1.52)	3.92*	(1.74)	4.50*	(1.58)
Male Respon.	4.31	(1.60)	3.92	(1.71)	4.31	(1.70)
Female Respon.	4.38	(1.50)	3.92	(1.85)	4.69	(1.49)
LOW STATUS	3.89*	(1.57)	3.58*	(1.76)	4.00*	(1.72)
TOTAL	4.26	(1.56)	4.16	(1.73)	4.38	(1.70)

\* Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS - STUDY #2

Constructs Treatment Conditions	Q U A L I T Y							
	High/ Low		Desirable/ Not Desirable		Good/ Bad		Favorable/ Unfavorable	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	4.62*	(1.24)	4.46	(1.42)	4.89*	(1.18)	4.54*	(1.50)
Male Respon.	4.69	(1.25)	4.15	(1.46)	4.85	(1.28)	4.62	(1.50)
Female Respon.	4.53	(1.27)	4.77	(1.36)	4.92	(1.11)	4.46	(1.56)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	5.42*	(.95)	5.15	(1.26)	5.50*	(1.03)	5.62*	(.70)
Male Respon.	5.46	(.97)	5.08	(1.60)	5.54	(.66)	5.62	(.65)
Female Respon.	5.38	(.96)	5.23	(.83)	5.46	(1.33)	5.62	(.77)
HIGH STATUS	5.02*	(1.16)	4.81	(1.37)	5.19*	(1.14)	5.08*	(1.28)
Low Status Male Salesperson	4.31*	(1.44)	3.96	(1.43)	4.04*	(1.37)	3.89*	(1.58)
Male Respon.	4.08	(1.11)	3.62	(1.33)	3.62	(1.12)	3.69	(1.38)
Female Respon.	4.54	(1.71)	4.31	(1.49)	4.46	(1.51)	4.08	(1.80)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	4.62*	(1.47)	4.62	(1.42)	4.69*	(1.23)	4.50*	(1.53)
Male Respon.	4.15	(1.63)	4.31	(1.43)	4.23	(1.24)	3.92	(1.55)
Female Respon.	5.08	(1.19)	4.92	(1.38)	5.15	(1.07)	5.08	(1.32)
LOW STATUS	4.46*	(1.45)	4.29	(1.45)	4.37*	(1.33)	4.19*	(1.57)
TOTAL	4.74	(1.34)	4.55	(1.43)	4.78	(1.30)	4.63	(1.49)

\* Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level

## MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS - STUDY #2

Constructs Treatment Conditions	Sentiment Connection of Consumer ---> Product							
	Positive/ Negative		Favorable/ Unfavorable		Good/ Bad		Like/Do Not Like	
	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD	Means	SD
High Status Male Salesperson	4.65*	(1.65)	4.58*	(1.60)	4.58*	(1.58)	4.46*	(1.39)
Male Respon.	4.62*	(1.71)	4.62	(1.66)	4.54	(1.56)	4.38*	(1.50)
Female Respon.	4.69*	(1.65)	4.54	(1.61)	4.62	(1.66)	4.54*	(1.33)
High Status Fem. Salesperson	5.35*	(1.09)	5.19*	(.98)	5.35*	(1.06)	5.12*	1.24
Male Respon.	5.00*	(1.29)	5.15	(1.06)	5.23	(1.36)	4.77*	(1.42)
Female Respon.	5.69*	(.75)	5.23	(.93)	5.46	(.66)	5.46*	(.97)
HIGH STATUS	5.00*	(1.43)	4.89*	(1.35)	4.96*	(1.39)	4.79*	(1.35)
Low Status Male Salesperson	3.65*	(1.57)	3.54*	(1.50)	3.73*	(1.56)	3.85*	(1.54)
Male Respon.	3.23*	(1.48)	3.08	(1.32)	3.46	(1.51)	3.62*	(1.50)
Female Respon.	4.08*	(1.61)	4.00	(1.58)	4.00	(1.63)	4.08*	(1.61)
Low Status Fem. Salesperson	4.50*	(1.50)	4.62*	(1.44)	4.69*	(1.38)	4.56*	(1.42)
Male Respon.	4.08*	(1.60)	4.07	(1.50)	4.25	(1.48)	4.08*	(1.56)
Female Respon.	4.92*	(1.32)	5.15	(1.21)	5.23	(1.09)	5.00*	(1.15)
LOW STATUS	4.08*	(1.58)	4.08*	(1.56)	4.21*	(1.54)	4.20*	(1.51)
TOTAL	4.56	(1.57)	4.49	(1.51)	4.59	(1.50)	4.50	(1.45)

\* Asterisk indicates significant at the .05 level

VITA<sup>2</sup>

Debra Ann Haley

Candidate for the Degree of  
Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: THE ATTITUDINAL INFLUENCE OF THE INTERACTION OF  
STATUS AND GENDER IN THE NONVERBAL ASPECTS OF A  
SALES PRESENTATION

Major Field: Marketing

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Wichita, Kansas on June 14,  
1953, daughter of Bob and Ann Haley. Catholic.

Education: Completed requirements for the Doctor  
of Philosophy degree at Oklahoma State  
University in December 1986; received a Master  
in Business Administration degree from Emporia  
State University in May, 1979; received a  
Bachelor of Science degree in Business  
Administration from Kansas Newman College in  
May, 1975; graduated from Valley Center High  
School in May, 1971.

Professional Experience: Assistant Professor,  
University of Northern Iowa, from August 1984  
to present; Graduate Teaching Assistant,  
Oklahoma State University, August 1981 to May  
1984; Instructor of Marketing and Management,  
Wichita State University, August 1979 to May  
1981; Graduate Teaching Assistant, Emporia  
State University, August 1978 to May 1979;  
Accountant, Koch Oil Company, August 1975 to  
May 1978; News Reporter KFH Radio, Wichita  
Kansas, internship program the summer of 1974.

Professional Organizations: Member of American  
Marketing Association from 1982 to present;  
member of Marketing and Advertising Club of  
Northeast Iowa from 1984 to present.