

# STEREOTYPING, AFFILIATION, AND SELF-STEREOTYPING OF UNDERREPRESENTED GROUPS IN THE SALES FORCE

Linyun W. Yang, Jared M. Hansen, Tanya L. Chartrand, and Gavan J. Fitzsimons

This study adds theoretical and managerial insights to the sales literature regarding the unfortunate but prevalent issue of stereotyping in sales by supervisors toward underrepresented groups of sales employees. Specifically, we examine (1) the self-evaluative, social, and emotional consequences of being stereotyped by a supervisor, and (2) the moderating role of employees' self-construal (i.e., the employee's level of independence versus interdependence) as it relates to their responses toward a supervisor who holds stereotypical expectations. The results suggest that when a sales supervisor endorses stereotypical views, more interdependent (versus independent) sales employees will likely affiliate more with, and experience fewer negative emotions toward, the supervisor. The results also suggest that sales employees' self-construal moderates the impact of intentions to affiliate with the supervisor on *positive* stereotypical traits (that are valued in the sales context) but not *negative* stereotypical traits. While not every sales employee comes from an underrepresented background, every company is interested in the success of their underrepresented sales employees. And, simply being interested in hiring underrepresented employees is not enough. Rather, firms need to understand how to effectively manage diversity and facilitate strong sales supervisor–employee relationships. This research provides such understanding.

The sales workforce is becoming increasingly diversified, with many firms interested in hiring additional underrepresented people to work in sales positions for many reasons, from innovation to corporate social responsibility to risk management (e.g., Dima 2008; Godfrey, Merrill, and Hansen 2010; Shepherd and Heartfield 1991; Turban and Greening 1997; Waddock and Graves 1997). However, group stereotypes continue to exist in the sales field (Beetles and Crane 2005; Comer and Jolson 1991; Comer, Nicholls, and Vermillion 1998; Jones et al. 1998; Lane and Crane 2002; Russ and McNeilly 1988). A stereotype is defined as “widely held beliefs concerning people based on their membership to a particular group” such that individuals are treated and judged in terms of their group memberships rather than as individuals in their own right (Comer, Nicholls, and Vermillion 1998, p. 5). Given the continued existence of stereotypes in sales, it is important

for organizational leaders to understand what the effects of stereotyping might be on salespeople. While prior research has established that sales supervisors' stereotypes can lead to unfair treatment of individuals in the sales force, most of the research approaches stereotypic thinking from the perspective of either a sales supervisor or a buyer. Thus, there remains a large gap, namely, considering the thinking of the stereotyped salespeople *themselves*—such as how they may respond emotionally or interpersonally (Roberson and Block 2001).

Thus, the purpose of this paper is to identify and examine (1) the psychological costs and social implications for potential salespeople stereotyped by a supervisor and (2) how potential salespeople might view themselves in terms of positive and negative stereotypes. While prior research has established that affiliation motives influence the extent to which individuals engage in self-stereotyping when interacting with someone who stereotypes them (Sinclair et al. 2005), this research contributes to sales management knowledge by identifying and examining an important antecedent—self-construal—to interpersonal intentions (e.g., affiliation desires). Furthermore, this research distinguishes between positive and negative stereotypical traits and finds that potential salespeople are selective in their self-stereotyping and take on only traits that are consistent with their interpersonal intentions toward the supervisor. In the next section, we provide logic and hypotheses regarding the possible relationships between sales supervisor stereotyping and the employee's self-construal, self-stereotyping, and affiliation with the supervisor. We then describe the results of three experimental studies and discuss implications of the findings for personal selling and sales management.

---

**Linyun W. Yang** (Ph.D., Duke University), Assistant Professor of Marketing, Belk College of Business, University of North Carolina–Charlotte, l.yang@uncc.edu.

**Jared M. Hansen** (Ph.D., Texas Tech University), Assistant Professor of Marketing, Belk College of Business, University of North Carolina–Charlotte, jared.hansen@uncc.edu.

**Tanya L. Chartrand** (Ph.D., New York University), Roy J. Bostock Professor of Marketing, Duke University, tanya.chartrand@duke.edu.

**Gavan J. Fitzsimons** (Ph.D., Columbia University), R. David Thomas Professor of Marketing, Duke University, gavan@duke.edu.

## CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND

Most research has examined the impact of stereotyping and prejudice on sales manager–employee relationships at the organizational level. Although this line of research has produced important insights, it has paid less attention to the individual responses of salespeople and assumes that all individuals are affected by and respond to discrimination in the same way (Roberson and Block 2001). However, in reality, sales supervisors and salespeople often interact on a one-to-one basis, and understanding how various stereotyping factors influence the way salespeople perceive and shape these one-to-one relationships is important (Smith, Andras, and Rosenbloom 2012; Smith, Larsen, and Rosenbloom 2009; Strutton, Pelton, and Lumpkin 1993; Yammarino 1997).

With regard to the one-to-one relationship between a sales supervisor and a sales employee, we define affiliation with the sales supervisor as the extent to which a salesperson has a personal bond with his or her supervisor. Affiliation with the sales supervisor involves taking the time to get to know him or her as a person, establishing common interests, and building a good working relationship. Research finds that greater affiliation is associated with increased employee loyalty (Smith, Andras, and Rosenbloom 2012). In turn, employee loyalty is associated with increased organizational commitment (DeConinck 2011; Joo 2010), customer-oriented selling (Martin and Bush 2006), employee sales performance (Gerstner and Day 1997), and decreased turnover intentions (Harris, Wheeler, and Kacmar 2009). Thus, motivating new sales employees to affiliate with their sales supervisors is important to establish in a sales force.

In the next section, we draw on self-construal theory (Markus and Kitayama 1991a) to predict how potential salespeople's self-perceptions in terms of their social environment may influence the extent to which these new employees wish to affiliate with supervisors who stereotype them. Then we draw on shared reality theory (Higgins 1992) to predict how different affiliation motives held by the potential salespeople influence their own self-stereotyping.

### Salesperson Self-Construal and Affiliation with the Supervisor

Self-construal is defined here as the extent to which sales employees view themselves as relatively interdependent or independent of their sales environment (see Markus and Kitayama 1991a). Interdependents are defined as individuals who see themselves as closely connected to the people in their sales environment. Interdependent sales employees feel that relationships are more important to them than personal accomplishments. They try to avoid arguments with supervisors, coworkers, or customers, and they will sacrifice their self-

interests to maintain harmony in the sales team. In contrast, independents are defined as individuals who see themselves as distinct and separate from others in the sales environment. Independent sales employees tend to focus on pursuing personal success rather than building rapport with others. They try to do what is best for them personally and are less likely to consider what their supervisor, other coworkers, and potential buyers might think or how their behavior may affect the sales organization. They prefer to be direct and forthright with coworkers and buyers, and they strive to develop and express their own unique values and preferences (see, e.g., Markus and Kitayama 1991a, 1991b).

As mentioned in the introduction, stereotyping occurs when supervisors view and evaluate salespeople not as individuals, but as members of a group in which all members share the same characteristics (Comer, Nicholls, and Vermillion 1998). Thus, when sales managers make decisions based on the assumption that all salespeople are the same, they likely ignore individual differences and exceptions (Czopp 2008; Lane and Crane 2002). Being stereotyped should be particularly unpleasant for independent salespeople, because their ability to be unique and autonomous is threatened by their supervisor's stereotypical expectations, which can lead to antisocial, hostile behavior and negative emotions (Butz and Plant 2006; Pinel 2002; Plant and Butz 2006). The opposite would likely occur for interdependent salespeople, because their primary focus is on building social bonds and finding ways to establish perceived commonalities with their coworkers and supervisors. Thus, interdependents may be more likely to work toward compensating for any negative stereotype-based expectations their supervisor may have (Miller et al. 1995; Shelton, Richeson, and Salvatore 2005). Thus, we hypothesize:

*Hypothesis 1: When stereotyped by a supervisor, interdependent salespeople are more likely than independent salespeople to make an effort to affiliate with the supervisor.*

*Hypothesis 2: When stereotyped by a supervisor, interdependent salespeople are less likely than independent salespeople to experience negative emotions toward the supervisor.*

### Salesperson Self-Stereotyping

Shared reality theory postulates that people take on the perspectives of others when trying to build relationships (Higgins 1992). The theory also proposes that the extent to which social bonds are established and maintained depends on whether those participating in the relationship hold similar experiences and beliefs (Sinclair et al. 2005). Thus, when individuals wish to affiliate with someone who views them stereotypically, they are more likely to see themselves (and behave) in a stereotypic manner. Applying the theory

to sales supervisor–sales employee relationships, we propose that interdependent salespeople who wish to build social bonds with their supervisor will try to shift their self-views to match the expectations of their supervisors, even if these expectations are informed by stereotypes. However, we note that interdependent salespeople may be aware that embodying all aspects of the stereotype might thwart their affiliation efforts because embodying negative traits could increase the prejudice of biased managers (see Comer and Jolson 1991). Thus, we posit that interdependents' self-views shift to be most consistent with traits that are both stereotype-congruent and also appreciated by the stereotype—meaning positive stereotypical traits.

In contrast, we believe that independent individuals wish to distance themselves from the sales supervisor who stereotypes them. Still, moving away from one's stereotype in its *entirety* may be viewed by the independents as counterproductive, because countering negative stereotypical traits might be received positively and bring one closer to the supervisor. Thus, independents may feel or have concluded that distancing oneself from only *positive* stereotypical traits may be the most effective way for independent targets to create distance between themselves and those who stereotype them. Thus, we predict the following:

*Hypothesis 3: When stereotyped by a supervisor, interdependent salespeople are more likely than independent salespeople to self-stereotype on positive (but not negative) traits.*

Furthermore, according to our conceptualization, the divergent responses of interdependent and independent salespeople are driven by their different affiliation motives, so we hypothesize:

*Hypothesis 4: Salespeople's intentions to affiliate with the supervisor mediate the effect of self-construal on positive self-stereotyping.*

### Salesperson Self-Stereotyping and Salience

Although outright stereotyping in the workplace might not occur in all sales departments, more subtle forms of stereotyping that are often disguised as compliments or benign concern may still be prevalent (see Lopez and McMillan-Capehart 2002; Roberson and Block 2001). Thus, there is a need to understand how *subtle* stereotyping by sales supervisors may influence salespeople. Research in social psychology has demonstrated that because individuals have multiple identities, only one's most salient social identity and its associations are likely to influence self-views (Shih, Pittinsky, and Ambady 1999; Sinclair et al. 2005). This concept is of particular importance to the sales context because research suggests that various organizational factors, such as tokenism (Cohen

and Swim 1995; Kanter 1977; Niemann and Dovidio 1998) or affirmative action (Heilman and Alcott 2001; Heilman, Simon, and Repper 1987), can make salespeople's stereotyped identity more salient. We propose that if perceived stereotyping motivates changes in self-ratings, then self-stereotyping should be more apparent in new sales employees whose stereotyped identity is activated than in those whose stereotyped identity is not activated. Stated formally, we predict:

*Hypothesis 5: The effect of self-construal on positive self-stereotyping is moderated by the extent to which salespeople's stereotyped identity is made salient.*

## EXPERIMENT 1A: AFFILIATION, SELF-VIEWS, AND EMOTIONS

### Sample and Data Collection Procedure

Given the impetus for this research—firms' interest in hiring a greater number of current or recently graduated students of underrepresented backgrounds to work in sales positions—participants in the experiment are female college students enrolled at the University of North Carolina who are near graduation. In a meta-analysis, King and He note, “the moderator analysis of user groups suggests that students may be used as surrogates for professional users, but not for ‘general’ users. This confirms the validity of a research method that is often used for convenience reasons, but which is rarely tested” (2006, p. 753). Given the similarity of the topic, in combination with the research goal, we assume the same holds for this paper.

The purpose of Experiment 1 is to examine how female participants, as an underrepresented group in sales, respond to a supervisor that holds stereotypical beliefs. To avoid potential bias resulting from recruiting only female participants, we invited both male and female college students to participate in a sales/marketing experiment for monetary compensation. Female participants completed the current study, while male participants completed an alternative, unrelated experiment.

The final sample of Experiment 1 consists of 92 female undergraduates who completed this study on an individual walk-in basis. The participants were first primed with gender to ensure they would detect the stereotyping from the supervisor. They were asked to indicate their gender and answer questions related to whether they lived in single-sex or coed environments (Shih, Pittinsky, and Ambady 1999). Then the participants were instructed to imagine that they were about to start their first job out of college and would be introduced to their new supervisor, who was portrayed as holding particularly stereotypic views of women. As indicated in the Appendix, the supervisor was described to be in his early fifties, conservative, and particularly concerned about the

safety of his female employees. After reading the description, participants were instructed to spend a few minutes describing their hypothetical new job.

Next, the participants completed the questionnaire. The questionnaire scale items and detailed psychographic measurement properties of all of the described constructs appear in Table 1. The self-stereotyping measures indicated the extent to which a number of stereotypically feminine traits were descriptive of the participants. Examining participants' self-evaluations on both positive stereotypical and nonstereotypical traits allowed us to distinguish between positive self-stereotyping and self-enhancement. If, on the one hand, our participants were motivated by self-enhancement concerns, then interdependent relative to independent participants should view both positive stereotypical and nonstereotypical traits as more descriptive of themselves. If, on the other hand, self-stereotyping is occurring due to efforts to affiliate as predicted by shared reality theory, then self-construal should affect participants' self-evaluations on only positive stereotypical and not nonstereotypical traits. The participants rated themselves on positive stereotypical, negative stereotypical, and positive nonstereotypical traits in random order.

As to other questionnaire scales, we measured affiliation intention using four scale items, as shown in Table 1. Negative emotional reaction to the supervisor was measured using two scale items from Plant, Butz, and Tartakovsky (2008). Self-construal was measured using the 30-item scale of Hardin, Leong, and Bhagwat (2004).

## Analysis and Results

Consistent with H1, ordinary least squares (OLS) regression analysis reveals that interdependent participants are more likely than independent participants to express intentions to affiliate with the sales supervisor ( $\beta = -0.17$ ,  $t(90) = -3.74$ ,  $p = 0.0003$ ), and consistent with their intentions, interdependents also evaluate the sales supervisor more favorably than independents do ( $\beta = -0.19$ ,  $t(90) = -3.56$ ,  $p = 0.0006$ ). Consistent with H2, interdependent participants are less likely than independent participants to experience negative emotions toward the sales supervisor ( $\beta = 0.23$ ,  $t(90) = 3.02$ ,  $p = 0.0033$ ).

H3 predicts that interdependent participants are more likely than independents to self-stereotype on positive but not negative traits. Consistent with H3, regression analysis reveals that interdependents are more likely than independents to rate positive stereotypical traits as descriptive of themselves ( $\beta = -0.18$ ,  $t(90) = -2.82$ ,  $p = 0.0059$ ). However, contrary to H3, interdependent participants are also more likely than independent participants to rate negative stereotypical traits as descriptive of themselves ( $\beta = -0.16$ ,  $t(90) = -2.28$ ,

$p = 0.0248$ ). Self-construal does not influence participants' ratings on positive nonstereotypical traits ( $\beta = 0.05$ ,  $t(90) = 0.87$ , n.s. [not significant]), confirming that the influence of self-construal on self-views is stereotype specific and does not reflect general self-enhancement.

Next, we conducted regression analyses to examine whether intentions to affiliate with the stereotyper predicted self-views. Analysis reveals that intentions toward the sales supervisor influences positive self-stereotyping ( $\beta = 0.61$ ,  $t(90) = 4.49$ ,  $p < 0.0001$ ). However, intentions are not related to ratings of either negative stereotypical ( $\beta = -0.04$ ,  $t(90) = -0.31$ , n.s.) or positive nonstereotypical traits ( $\beta = 0.11$ ,  $t(90) = 0.90$ , n.s.).

## Mediation Analysis

Given that both self-construal and intentions toward the supervisor influence positive self-stereotyping, we conducted a mediation analysis (Baron and Kenny 1986) to test Hypothesis 4 and determine whether the effect of self-construal on positive self-stereotyping is driven by intentions to affiliate with the supervisor. To do so, we examined the effect of self-construal on positive self-stereotyping, controlling for affiliation intentions. When affiliation intentions are controlled for, the effect of self-construal is significantly reduced ( $\beta = -0.10$ ,  $t(90) = -1.45$ , n.s.) while the effect of affiliation intentions remains significant ( $\beta = 0.53$ ,  $t(90) = 3.67$ ,  $p = 0.0004$ ; Sobel test:  $z = -2.90$ ,  $p = 0.0037$ ) (see Figure 1). Additional analysis using a bootstrapping technique (Preacher and Hayes 2004; Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes 2007) confirms the mediation analysis. Thus, we find support for H1 to H4.

In support of H1 and H2, the results show that interdependents relative to independents are more likely to express intentions to affiliate with and less likely to experience negative emotions toward a supervisor who stereotypes them. We found partial support for H3 in which interdependent participants are more likely to self-stereotype on positive (as predicted) but also negative traits. Interdependents' self-stereotyping on negative feminine traits is consistent with Cross and Madson's (1997) work proposing that the female stereotype and interdependent self-construal overlap on many traits. Importantly, the results indicate that intentions to affiliate with the supervisor predict ratings on only positive—and not negative—stereotypical traits. Furthermore, mediation analysis supports H4; it suggests that participants' affiliation intentions toward the stereotyper drive the effect of self-construal on self-stereotyping on positive but not negative stereotypical traits. Collectively, these findings suggest that factors other than the motivation to affiliate with the supervisor drive the effect of self-construal on negative self-stereotyping.

**Table I**  
**Multi-Item Constructs Exhibit Reliability and Convergent Validity**

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Standard Deviation</b>	<b>Loading</b>
Positive salesperson self-stereotyping <sup>2</sup> (reliability = 0.79, alpha = 0.70)			
Please rate the extent to which the following traits are descriptive of your personality: (1 = "not at all," 9 = "very much")			
Compassionate	7.30	1.24	0.81
Caring	7.60	1.02	0.74
Arrogant (RC)	3.38	1.69	0.56
Aggressive (RC)	4.30	1.95	0.50
Sweet	6.58	1.47	0.72
Negative salesperson self-stereotyping <sup>2</sup> (reliability = 0.84, alpha = 0.68)			
Please rate the extent to which the following traits are descriptive of your personality: (1 = "not at all," 9 = "very much")			
Insecure	4.81	1.80	0.81
Sad	3.32	1.84	0.60
Shy	4.37	1.95	0.51
Confident (RC)	6.56	1.38	0.84
Strong (RC)	6.40	1.46	0.54
Positive nonstereotypical trait <sup>2</sup> (reliability = 0.57, alpha = 0.50)			
Please rate the extent to which the following traits are descriptive of your personality: (1 = "not at all," 9 = "very much")			
Objective	5.71	1.54	0.50
Honest	7.20	1.22	0.56
Logical	6.74	1.31	0.64
Organized	5.89	1.78	0.50
Tactful	6.23	1.45	0.68
Negative emotional reaction to the supervisor (reliability = 0.71, alpha = 0.70)			
I would feel frustrated if I had to work with a supervisor like the one described	2.30	1.41	0.76
I would expect that interactions with the supervisor would be uncomfortable	2.79	1.24	0.76
Affiliation intention toward supervisor (reliability = 0.64, alpha = 0.70)			
Please rate the extent to which you agree that . . . (1 = "not at all," 7 = "very much")			
I would take the time to get to know my supervisor better as a person	5.14	1.07	0.82
I would try my best to build a good working relationship with my supervisor	6.21	0.84	0.71
I would try to get to know my supervisor better so we can bond over common interests	4.73	1.18	0.74
I would try to avoid interacting with the supervisor as much as possible (RC)	5.73	1.07	0.63
Self-Constraint I			
Interdependence subscale (reliability = 0.67, alpha 0.74)			
I go along with what others want, even when I would rather do something different <sup>1</sup>	3.77	1.35	0.58
It is important for me to maintain harmony within my group <sup>1</sup>	5.26	1.35	0.80
My happiness depends on the happiness of those around me <sup>1</sup>	4.20	1.27	0.62
I feel good when I cooperate with others <sup>1</sup>	5.51	1.11	0.62
I feel my fate is intertwined with the fate of those around me <sup>1</sup>	3.66	1.64	0.24
Even when I disagree with group members, I avoid an argument	3.89	1.59	0.40
I have respect for the authority figures with whom I interact	5.71	1.15	0.59
I respect people who are modest about themselves	5.56	1.22	0.49
I will sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of the group I am in	4.14	1.33	0.63
I should consider my parents' advice when making education/career plans	5.34	1.49	0.37
Relationships are more important than accomplishments	5.02	1.57	0.05
If my brother or sister fails, I feel responsible	3.58	1.71	0.15
I would offer my seat in a bus to my professor (or my boss)	4.70	1.82	0.15
I will stay in a group if they need me, even when I am not happy with the group	4.30	1.35	0.48
It is important to me to respect decisions made by the group	4.92	1.32	0.67

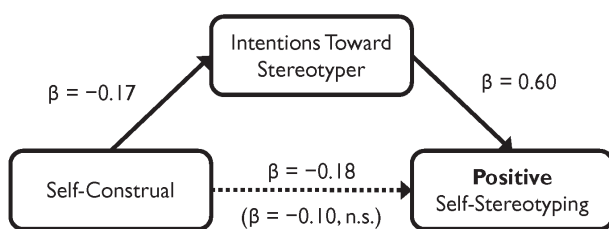
(continues)

**Table I**  
**Continued**

Construct	Mean	Standard Deviation	Loading
Independence subscale (reliability = 0.74, alpha 0.70)			
I try to do what is best for me, regardless of how that might affect others <sup>1</sup>	3.60	1.53	0.30
I enjoy being unique and different from others in many respects <sup>1</sup>	5.46	1.12	0.64
I'd rather say "no" directly than risk being misunderstood <sup>1</sup>	4.29	1.50	0.32
I act the same way no matter who I am with <sup>1</sup>	4.00	1.57	0.27
I am comfortable with being singled out for praise or rewards <sup>1</sup>	4.49	1.68	0.22
I feel comfortable using someone's first name soon after meeting	4.36	1.85	0.35
I do my own thing, regardless of what others think	4.43	1.38	0.63
I feel it is important for me to act as an independent person	5.95	0.90	0.73
Having a lively imagination is important to me	5.40	1.32	0.27
I prefer to be direct and forthright with people I've just met	4.19	1.35	0.36
Speaking up during a class (or a meeting) is not a problem for me	4.51	1.93	0.17
I value being in good health above everything	4.27	1.40	0.18
Being able to take care of myself is a primary concern for me	5.45	1.16	0.52
Personal identity, independent of others, is very important to me	5.76	1.16	0.78
I act the same way at home that I do at school	3.91	1.78	0.19

*Notes:* The two subscales were standardized, and then interdependence was subtracted from independence to construct an overall index of self-construal, following Holland et al. (2004) and Pohlmann et al. (2007). RC = reverse coded. <sup>1</sup> Denotes the ten self-construal items that are used in Experiment 2. <sup>2</sup> These traits were selected through previous pilot testing in which a separate group of female participants ( $n = 35$ ) rated on seven-point scales the extent to which they believed each trait was stereotypically associated with men (1) versus women (7) and negative (1) versus positive (7). The pilot study indicated that all of the feminine traits were rated significantly greater than the neutral point (4) while the positive nonstereotypical traits did not differ from the neutral point. Furthermore, all the positive traits were rated significantly greater than the neutral point, and all the negative traits were rated significantly less than the neutral point.

**Figure 1**  
**Affiliation with the Supervisor Mediates the Relationship**  
**Between Salesperson Self-Construal and**  
**Salesperson Positive Self-Stereotyping**



*Notes:* All  $\beta$  values are significant at  $p < 0.01$  unless otherwise noted. n.s. = not significant.

### EXPERIMENT 1B: SALESPERSON ETHNICITY AND SELF-STEREOTYPING

Given a desire to understand how underrepresented salespeople more generally respond to being stereotyped, we sought to replicate the aforementioned findings with another underrepresented group sample—Asian Americans. Comer, Nicholls, and Vermillion (1998) posit that Asian-American

salespeople, although knowledgeable in technical fields, are often stereotyped as lacking the assertiveness needed to close deals. Thus, we ran a follow-up study to test the external validity of Experiment 1a (which uses a gender focus) to other underrepresented groups such as minorities by examining whether Asian Americans (versus Caucasian Americans) would also engage in selective self-stereotyping. Thirty Asian-American and 64 Caucasian-American undergraduate students completed stimuli similar to that used in Experiment 1a, with only a few adjustments. The participants were primed with ethnicity instead of gender, and they answered questions regarding the languages they spoke at home with their family (Shih, Pittinsky, and Ambady 1999).<sup>1</sup> As in Experiment 1a, participants in the replication study were instructed to imagine that they were about to start their first job out of college. However, they were introduced to a supervisor that held stereotypic views of Asians. In the scenario, the supervisor described a recent trip he had taken to Asia and applauded the hardworking values of the people there. All the participants rated themselves on positive, stereotypically Asian traits (family oriented, self disciplined, intelligent, modest, reserved, and arrogant [reverse coded]) and negative stereotypically Asian traits (antisocial, shy, socially awkward,

timid, weak, and athletic [reverse coded]). These traits were selected from Ho and Jackson's (2001) and Lin et al.'s (2005) conceptualizations of the Asian-American stereotype. Finally, the participants completed the same self-construal scale used in Experiment 1a.

Our analysis found a three-way interaction between ethnicity, self-construal, and trait valence ( $F(1, 90) = 7.52, p = 0.0074$ ). To better understand the interaction, we analyzed Asian-American and Caucasian-American participants separately, with the results shown in Figure 2. An analysis of Asian-American participants' trait ratings revealed a significant two-way interaction between self-construal and trait valence ( $F(1, 28) = 8.90, p = 0.0058$ ). Simple slopes analysis (Aiken and West 1991) revealed that interdependents were more likely than independents to see themselves as having positive ( $\beta = -0.31, t(28) = -3.02, p = 0.0053$ ) but not negative stereotypical traits ( $\beta = 0.19, t(28) = 1.40, n.s.$ ). An analysis of Caucasian-American participants' self-views did not find an interaction between self-construal and trait valence ( $F(1, 62) = 0.21, n.s.$ ), suggesting that the effect of self-construal on self-views holds for only those who are targeted by the stereotype. Thus, consistent with our hypotheses, we find that when stereotyped by their supervisor, interdependent Asian Americans are more likely to engage in positive but not negative self-stereotyping, supporting the notion that our research has implications for not only gender stereotypes but also stereotypes related to other underrepresented groups, such as ethnic stereotypes.

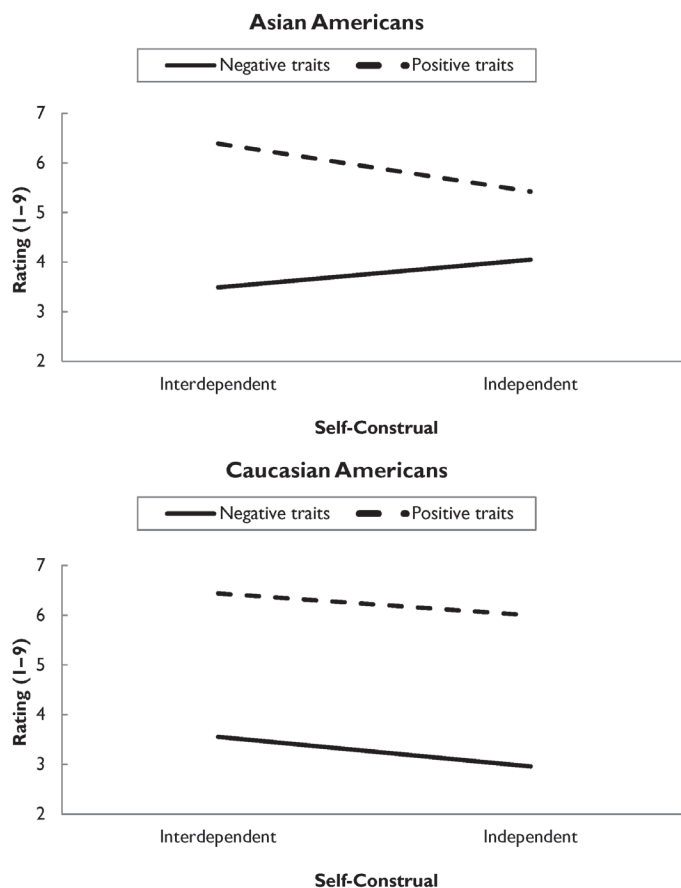
It is interesting to note that for Asian-American participants, we found no effect of self-construal on negative self-stereotyping (as predicted by H3). Collectively, these findings suggest that factors other than the motivation to affiliate with the supervisor drive the effect of self-construal on negative self-stereotyping for female participants. We provide more evidence that the effect of self-construal on negative self-stereotyping follows a different process in Experiment 2. We also test H5 in Experiment 2 and demonstrate that self-construal influences positive self-stereotyping only when participants' stereotyped identities are made salient.

## EXPERIMENT 2: SELF-STEREOTYPING AND CONTEXT

### Sample and Data Collection Procedure

The design and participants of Experiment 2 are consistent with Experiment 1. For example, we invited both male and female participants to complete a survey for monetary compensation to avoid biasing the study. Male participants completed an unrelated, alternative experiment while female participants completed the current study, with the final sample of participants being 94 females. The only exceptions from Experiment 1 in the procedure are as follows. First, only half

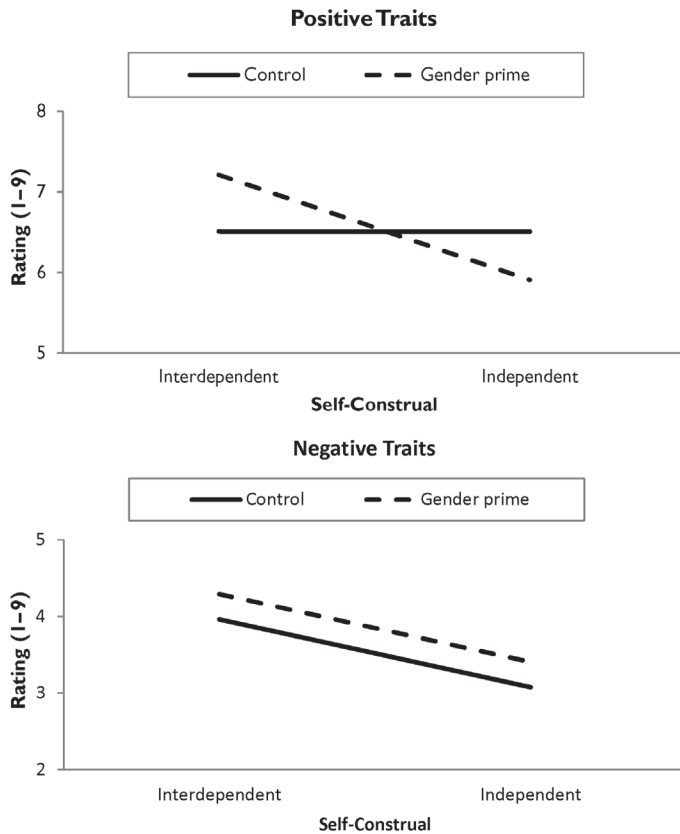
**Figure 2**  
Asian American and Caucasian Americans' Self-Views on Stereotypically Asian Traits as a Function of Trait Valence and Self-Construal



of the participants ( $n = 47$ ) were primed with gender and answered questions related to their single-sex or coed living environment. The other half ( $n = 47$ ) served as a control group, completing similar questions about their telephone service. Otherwise, the procedure of Experiment 2 is consistent with Experiment 1a; participants were introduced to a hypothetical supervisor that held stereotypic views of women. Because of time constraints, the participants rated themselves on only positive and negative stereotypical traits and completed a ten-item adaptation of the self-construal scale (Hardin, Leong, and Bhagwat 2004). The ten scale items for Experiment 2 are noted in Table 1. Factor analysis confirmed that the five interdependent and five independent scale items loaded on two separate factors. The same method implemented in Experiment 1a was used to calculate the self-construal index score.

Finally, we included items at the end of the personality questionnaire to make sure that we achieved the desired effects for the supervisor description and the gender salience task. For each item, the participants rated the extent to which they agreed with each statement on a seven-point scale (1 = "not

**Figure 3**  
Salespeople's Self-Views on Stereotypically Feminine Traits as a Function of Trait Valence, Self-Construal, and Gender Identity Salience



at all,” 7 = “very much”). The two manipulation check items were “the supervisor seems to value gender-traditional people” and “the supervisor seems to value gender-nontraditional people.”

## Analysis and Results

### Manipulation Check

To ensure that the description of the supervisor adequately communicated to participants that the supervisor held stereotypical views of women, we tested whether the ratings of the two manipulation check items differed significantly from the neutral point (4). Analysis confirms that participants perceived the supervisor to value gender-traditional people ( $M$  [mean] = 5.34,  $SD$  [standard deviation] = 1.24,  $t(94) = 10.48, p < 0.001$ ) and not value gender-nontraditional people ( $M = 3.24, SD = 1.66, t(94) = -4.42, p < 0.001$ ). To assess whether the manipulation of gender salience was successful, we entered the two manipulation check items into an OLS regression model using self-construal, gender prime, and their interaction as the independent variables.

As expected, the participants primed with gender perceive the supervisor to value gender-traditional people ( $M = 5.68, SD = 1.12$ ) more than those not primed with gender ( $M = 4.81, SD = 1.24, F(1, 91) = 12.11, p < 0.001$ ). The participants primed with gender also perceive the supervisor to value gender-nontraditional people ( $M = 2.88, SD = 1.52$ ) less than those not primed with gender ( $M = 3.81, SD = 1.71, F(1, 91) = 8.53, p < 0.01$ ). There are no main or interaction effects of self-construal. Thus, self-construal does not influence the extent to which participants perceive the supervisor to hold stereotypical beliefs about women, which permits us to turn our focus to H5.

H5 predicts that participants with interdependent orientations rate themselves more stereotypically—relative to those with independent orientations—when gender is primed and participants are likely to detect the supervisor’s stereotypical expectations. One implication of H5 is that if negative self-stereotyping is not affected by the experience of being stereotyped as proposed in H3, then identity salience moderates the effect of self-construal on only positive but not negative self-stereotyping.

To test these predictions, participants’ trait ratings were subjected to regression analysis with self-construal (measured), prime (control versus gender), and trait valence (positive versus negative) as predictors. Trait valence was a within-subjects factor while the other two variables were between-subjects. OLS regression analysis reveals main effects of self-construal ( $F(1, 91) = 25.66, p < 0.0001$ ) and trait valence ( $F(1, 91) = 354.96, p < 0.0001$ ) and a two-way interaction between self-construal and prime ( $F(1, 91) = 4.41, p = 0.0384$ ). These effects are qualified by a significant three-way interaction between self-construal, prime, and trait valence ( $F(1, 91) = 5.00, p = 0.0277$ ). To better understand this three-way interaction, we examined ratings on positive and negative stereotype traits separately, with the results shown in Figure 3.

For positive stereotypical traits, there is a significant two-way interaction between self-construal and prime ( $F(1, 91) = 9.57, p = 0.0026$ ). A simple slopes analysis (Aiken and West 1991) shows that ratings differ by self-construal when gender is primed ( $\beta = -0.40, t(91) = -4.43, p < 0.0001$ ). Consistent with H3 and the results from Experiment 1a, we find that interdependent females are more likely and independent females are less likely to self-stereotype when gender is primed. We note, however, that self-construal has no effect when gender is not primed ( $\beta = -0.0009, t(91) = -0.01, n.s.$ ). A spotlight analysis (Irwin and McClelland 2001) conducted at one standard deviation above and below the mean self-construal level reveals that independent individuals are *less* likely to view themselves as stereotypically feminine when gender is salient than when it is not ( $t(91) = -2.47, p = 0.0153$ ), while interdependent individuals are *more* likely to view themselves



as stereotypically feminine when gender is salient than when it is not ( $t(91) = 2.63, p = 0.0101$ ).

For negative stereotypical traits, there is a main effect of self-construal on negative self-stereotyping such that independent individuals rated themselves lower on these traits than their interdependent counterparts did ( $F(1, 91) = 17.21, p < 0.0001$ ). Importantly, the interaction between self-construal and prime is not significant ( $F(1, 91) = 0.001, n.s.$ ).

In addition to replicating the findings from Experiment 1a, the results of Experiment 2 also support our hypothesis that perceived stereotyping is what drives the divergent self-views of interdependents and independents—since we found these effects only when gender was primed. Importantly, gender salience influences self-stereotyping for positive but not negative stereotypical trait ratings. Furthermore, we find that relative to the control condition, interdependents *increase* their positive self-stereotyping while independents *decrease* their positive self-stereotyping, suggesting that the effect of self-construal on self-stereotyping is driven by both interdependent and independent individuals.

## DISCUSSION

The results have several implications for sales management research and practice. First, our findings suggest that whether a new salesperson has a predominantly interdependent or independent self-construal will influence the effort put into building a positive relationship with the sales supervisor. This suggests that, in addition to reducing the prevalence of prejudice and stereotyping in the sales organization, assessing the self-construal levels of targeted salespeople may also be a useful way to facilitate cooperation and minimize conflict, especially when stereotyping is difficult to eliminate. We note that the studies presented here show meaningful differences in self-construal among females in our samples, which is in contrast to previous research that assumes that women generally are more interdependent and men more independent (Cross and Madson 1997; Guimond et al. 2006). Thus, future research is needed to determine when differences in self-construal between groups may lead to divergent responses.

A second implication for sales management theory and practice from our studies relates to sales force culture and incentives. Self-construal can vary depending on the situation and an individual's mind-set (see Oyserman and Lee 2008 for review). In particular, an interdependent self-construal can be activated by asking people to focus on one's relationships and the benefits of cooperation, while an independent self-construal can be activated by asking people to focus on the importance of personal goals and achievements (e.g., Mandel 2003; Zhang and Shrum 2008). Thus, firms that want to enhance the personal bonds between sales supervisors and

sales employees or minimize sales employees' negative emotions toward their supervisor (who is stereotyping them) can strategically induce the desired effects by focusing on sales culture and incentives promoting teamwork—given that cooperation should activate an interdependent self-construal. In contrast, a sales culture focused on competition should activate an independent self-construal.

Third, the results of the studies indicate that the divergent interpersonal motives held by sales employees influence their self-stereotyping. This is particularly important in the sales context because salespeople are closely monitored and compensation is closely linked to performance (Rouzies et al. 2009). If female and minority salespeople are at a disadvantage because of the stereotypes their managers hold, it is important to understand how targeted salespeople's own self-views and behavior are altered by their manager's stereotypical perceptions. We find that when (1) self-stereotyping is consistent with sales employees' interpersonal goals for *positive* stereotypes and (2) the individuals are likely to detect the stereotyping (i.e., the stereotyped identity is salient), then (3) interdependent sales employees are more likely to engage in self-stereotyping, while independent sales employees are less likely to engage in self-stereotyping. Furthermore, our findings suggest that the self-stereotyping observed in the experiments reflects genuine changes in self-views rather than self-presentational efforts targeted at the supervisor (see Sinclair et al. 2005). Even though the participants knew they would never meet the hypothetical supervisor described in our scenarios, their self-views shifted according to their interpersonal intentions toward that supervisor.

Thus, if changes in self-views reflect true changes in how individuals see themselves, then these self-views are likely to influence a wide range of behaviors and have interesting implications for how salespeople may actually behave and perform. Positive self-stereotyping by salespeople could potentially encourage sales supervisors to rely more heavily on their stereotypical views when evaluating these salespeople. This could be a double-edged sword for the future of salespeople. Using the example of female sales employees, on one hand, as managers have moved toward a less transaction-based and more relationship-focused view of sales and marketing, being perceived to have stereotypical feminine traits (e.g., empathy, compassion, valuing relationships) may give women an advantage in the sales domain (Beetles and Crane 2005). On the other hand, the relationship-based selling approach also makes objective assessments of individual performance difficult, so sales managers' performance evaluations are likely to be biased by stereotypes, which may ultimately make it difficult for salespeople to distinguish themselves and succeed based on their individual merits (Lane and Crane 2002). The same applies for stereotypes related to other underrepresented groups.

## FUTURE RESEARCH

In reference to future sales and marketing research, a key strength of this research is the direct examination of individuals' responses to being stereotyped and manipulating individuals' mind-sets to establish causality, which would be difficult to determine had these variables been measured within an organization, because actual stereotyping would be difficult to measure and observe. However, while using a scenario paradigm provides more control in exploring this topic, it also limits the ability to examine actual sales behavior. Future research could examine how salespeople may deal with being stereotyped in the workplace and explore how the shifts in emotions, self-evaluations, and interpersonal intentions observed in our experiments are related to performance.

Also, future research could examine whether our prescribed implications for sales management have any boundaries. For example, in drawing upon the results of the experiments, we suggest that when firms strategically align culture and strategy to emphasize teamwork to activate interdependent self-construals or align culture and strategy to emphasize individual competition to activate independent self-construals, this has implications for underrepresented salespeople's motivation to affiliate with their supervisors and their level of self-stereotyping. Are there boundary conditions that may influence when these strategies will lead (versus not lead) to the predicted results?

## CONCLUSIONS

Given that the quality of sales supervisor–employee relationships are linked to effort, performance, and turnover, it is important to understand how firms might increase salespeople's motivation to affiliate with their sales supervisors. This research examines how being stereotyped by a supervisor may affect sales employees both emotionally (e.g., anger and anxiety), interpersonally (e.g., affiliation with the supervisor), and intrapersonally (e.g., self-views). In doing so, this research also opens up many avenues for future sales research. It describes not only how salespeople may be treated based on stereotypes but also how these salespeople may react to supervisors that hold these stereotypes. The findings carry implications for when a firm should emphasize teamwork versus individual performance in sales culture and reward systems.

## NOTE

1. A manipulation check confirms that Asian-American participants (87 percent) are more likely than Caucasian-American participants (3 percent) to speak a language other than English at home ( $\chi^2 = 35.72, p < 0.0001$ ).

## REFERENCES

- Aiken, Leona S., and Stephen G. West (1991), *Multiple Regression: Testing and Interpreting Interactions*, Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Baron, Reuben M., and David A. Kenny (1986), "The Moderator-Mediator Variable Distinction in Social Psychological Research: Conceptual, Strategic, and Statistical Considerations," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51 (6), 1173–1182.
- Beetles, Andrea, and Andrew Crane (2005), "Mapping Out the Field of Gender and Buyer–Seller Relationships: Developing a New Perspective," *Journal of Marketing Management*, 21 (1–2), 231–250.
- Butz, David A., and E. Ashby Plant (2006), "Perceiving Outgroup Members as Unresponsive: Implications for Approach-Related Emotions, Intentions, and Behavior," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 91 (6), 1066–1079.
- Cohen, Laurie L., and Janet K. Swim (1995), "The Differential Impact of Gender Ratios on Women and Men: Tokenism, Self-Confidence, and Expectations," *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 21 (9), 876–884.
- Comer, Lucette B., and Marvin A. Jolson (1991), "Perceptions of Stereotypic Behavior: An Exploratory Study of Women in Selling," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 11 (1), 43–59.
- , J.A.F. Nicholls, and Leslie J. Vermillion (1998), "Diversity in the Sales Force: Problems and Challenges," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 18 (4), 1–20.
- Cross, Susan E., and Laura Madson (1997), "Models of the Self: Self-Construals and Gender," *Psychological Bulletin*, 122 (1), 5–37.
- Czopp, Alexander M. (2008), "When Is a Compliment Not a Compliment? Evaluating Expressions of Positive Stereotypes," *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 44 (2), 413–420.
- DeConinck, James B. (2011), "The Effects of Leader-Member Exchange and Organizational Identification on Performance and Turnover Among Salespeople," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 31 (1), 21–34.
- Dima, Jamali (2008), "A Stakeholder Approach to Corporate Social Responsibility: A Fresh Perspective into Theory and Practice," *Journal of Business Ethics*, 82 (1), 213–231.
- Gerstner, Charlotte R., and David V. Day (1997), "Meta-Analytic Review of Leader–Member Exchange Theory: Correlates and Construct Issues," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82 (6), 827–844.
- Godfrey, Paul C., Craig B. Merrill, and Jared M. Hansen (2009), "The Relationship Between Corporate Social Responsibility and Shareholder Value: An Empirical Test of the Risk Management Hypothesis," *Strategic Management Journal*, 30 (4), 425–445.
- Guimond, Serge, Armand Chatard, Delphine Martinot, Richard J. Crisp, and Sandrine Redersdorff (2006), "Social Comparison, Self-Stereotyping, and Gender Differences in Self-Construals," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 90 (2), 221–242.

- Hardin, Erin E., Frederick T.L. Leong, and Aditya A. Bhagwat (2004), "Factor Structure of the Self-Construal Scale Revisited: Implications for the Multidimensionality of Self-Construal," *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 35 (3), 327–345.
- Harris, Kenneth J., Anthony R. Wheeler, and K. Michele Kacmar (2009), "Leader-Member Exchange and Empowerment: Direct and Interactive Effects on Job Satisfaction, Turnover Intentions, and Performance," *Leadership Quarterly*, 20 (3), 371–382.
- Heilman, Madeline E., and Victoria B. Alcott (2001), "What I Think You Think of Me: Women's Reactions to Being Viewed as Beneficiaries of Preferential Selection," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86 (4), 574–582.
- , Michael C. Simon, and David P. Repper (1987), "Intentionally Favored, Unintentionally Harmed: Impact of Sex-Based Preferential Selection on Self-Perceptions and Self-Evaluations," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 72 (1), 62–68.
- Higgins, E. Tory (1992), "Achieving 'Shared Reality' in the Communication Game: A Social Action That Creates Meaning," *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 11 (3), 107–131.
- Ho, Colin, and Jay W. Jackson (2001), "Attitudes Toward Asian Americans: Theory and Measurement," *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 31 (8), 1553–1581.
- Holland, Rob W., Ute-Regina Roeder, Rick B. Van Baaren, Aafje C. Brandt, and Bettina Hannover (2004), "Don't Stand So Close to Me: The Effects of Self-Construal in Interpersonal Closeness," *Psychological Science*, 15 (4), 237–242.
- Irwin, Julie R., and Gary H. McClelland (2001), "Misleading Heuristics and Moderated Multiple Regression Models," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 38 (1), 100–109.
- Jones, Eli, Jesse N. Moore, Andrea J.S. Stanaland, and Rosalind A.J. Wyatt (1998), "Salesperson Race and Gender and the Access and Legitimacy Paradigm: Does Difference Make a Difference?" *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 18 (4), 71–88.
- Joo, Baek-Kyoo (2010), "Organizational Commitment for Knowledge Workers: The Roles of Perceived Organizational Learning Culture, Leader-Member Exchange Quality, and Turnover Intentions," *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 21 (1), 69–85.
- Kanter, Rosabeth M. (1977), *Men and Women of the Corporation*, New York: Basic Books.
- King, William R., and Jun He (2006), "A Meta-Analysis of the Technology Acceptance Model," *Information & Management*, 43 (6), 740–755.
- Lane, Nikala, and Andrew Crane (2002), "Revisiting Gender Role Stereotyping in the Sales Profession," *Journal of Business Ethics*, 40 (2), 121–132.
- Lin, Monica H., Virginia S.Y. Kwan, Anna Cheung, and Susan T. Fiske (2005), "Stereotype Content Model Explains Prejudice for an Envid Outgroup: Scale of Anti-Asian American Stereotypes," *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 31 (1), 34–47.
- Lopez, Tara, and Amy McMillan-Capehart (2002), "How Outgroup Salespeople Fit In or Fail to Fit In: A Proposed Acculturation Effects Framework," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 22 (4), 297–309.
- Mandel, Naomi (2003), "Shifting Selves and Decision Making: The Effects of Self-Construal Priming on Consumer Risk-Taking," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 30 (1), 30–40.
- Markus, Hazel R., and Shinobu Kitayama (1991a), "Cultural Variation in the Self-Concept," in *The Self: Interdisciplinary Approaches*, George R. Goethals and Jaane Strauss, eds., New York: Springer, 18–48.
- , and ——— (1991b), "Culture and the Self-Implications for Cognition, Emotion, and Motivation," *Psychological Review*, 98 (2), 224–253.
- Martin, Craig A., and Alan J. Bush (2006), "Psychological Climate, Empowerment, Leadership Style, and Customer-Oriented Selling: An Analysis of the Sales Manager-Salesperson Dyad," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 34 (3), 419–438.
- Miller, Carol T., Esther D. Rothblum, Diane Felicio, and Pamela Brand (1995), "Compensating for Stigma—Obese and Nonobese Womens Reactions to Being Visible," *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 21 (10), 1093–1106.
- Niemann, Yolanda F., and John F. Dovidio (1998), "Relationship of Solo Status, Academic Rank and Perceived Distinctiveness to Job Satisfaction of Racial/Ethnic Minorities," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83 (1), 55–71.
- Oyserman, Daphna, and Spike W.S. Lee (2008), "Does Culture Influence What and How We Think? Effects of Priming Individualism and Collectivism," *Psychological Bulletin*, 134 (2), 311–342.
- Pinel, Elizabeth C. (2002), "Stigma Consciousness in Intergroup Contexts: The Power of Conviction," *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 38 (2), 178–185.
- Plant, E. Ashby, and David A. Butz (2006), "The Causes and Consequences of an Avoidance-Focus for Interracial Interactions," *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 32 (6), 833–846.
- , ———, and Margarita Tartakovsky (2008), "Interethnic Interactions: Expectancies, Emotions, and Behavioral Intentions," *Group Processes and Intergroup Relations*, 11, 555–574.
- Pohlmann, Claudia, Erica Carranza, Bettina Hannover, and Sheena S. Iyengar (2007), "Repercussions of Self-Construal for Self-Relevant and Other-Relevant Choice," *Social Cognition*, 25 (2), 284–305.
- Preacher, Kristopher J., and Andrew F. Hayes (2004), "SPSS and SAS Procedures for Estimating Indirect Effects in Simple Mediation Models," *Behavior Research Methods Instruments & Computers*, 36 (4), 717–731.
- , Derek D. Rucker, and Andrew F. Hayes (2007), "Addressing Moderated Mediation Hypotheses: Theory, Methods, and Prescriptions," *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 42 (1), 185–227.
- Roberson, Loriann, and Caryn J. Block (2001), "Racioethnicity and Job Performance: A Review and Critique of Theoretical Perspectives on the Causes of Group Differences," in *Research in Organizational Behavior*, vol. 23, Barry M. Staw and Robert I. Sutton, eds., Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, 247–325.

- Rouzies, Dominique, Anne T. Coughlan, Erin Anderson, and Dawn Iacobucci (2009), "Determinants of Pay Levels and Structures in Sales Organizations," *Journal of Marketing*, 73 (6), 92–104.
- Russ, Frederick A., and Kevin M. McNeilly (1988), "Has Sex Stereotyping Disappeared? A Study of Perceptions of Women and Men in Sales," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 8 (3), 43–54.
- Shelton, J. Nicole, Jennifer A. Richeson, and Jessica Salvatore (2005), "Expecting to Be the Target of Prejudice: Implications for Interethnic Interactions," *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 31 (9), 1189–1202.
- Shepherd, C. David, and James C. Heartfield (1991), "Ethical and Legal Issues in Selling and Sales Management," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 11 (4), 67–75.
- Shih, Margaret, Todd L. Pittinsky, and Nalini Ambady (1999), "Stereotype Susceptibility: Identity Salience and Shifts in Quantitative Performance," *Psychological Science*, 10 (1), 80–83.
- Sinclair, Stacey, Jeffrey Huntsinger, Jeanine Skorinko, and Curtis D. Hardin (2005), "Social Tuning of the Self: Consequences for the Self-Evaluations of Stereotype Targets," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 89 (2), 160–175.
- Smith, Brent, Trina Larsen Andras, and Bert Rosenbloom (2012), "Transformational Leadership: Managing the Twenty-First Century Sales Force," *Psychology & Marketing*, 29 (6), 434–444.
- , Trina Larsen, and Bert Rosenbloom (2009), "Understanding Cultural Frames in the Multicultural Sales Organization: Prospects and Problems for the Sales Manager," *Journal of Transnational Management*, 14 (4), 277–291.
- Strutton, David, Lou E. Pelton, and James R. Lumpkin (1993), "The Relationship Between Psychological Climate and Salesperson–Sales Manager Trust in Sales Organizations," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 13 (4), 1–14.
- Turban, Daniel B., and Daniel W. Greening (1997), "Corporate Social Performance and Organizational Attractiveness to Prospective Employees," *Academy of Management Journal*, 40 (3), 658–672.
- Waddock, Sandra A., and Samuel B. Graves (1997), "The Corporate Social Performance–Financial Performance Link," *Strategic Management Journal*, 18 (4), 303–319.
- Yammarino, Francis J. (1997), "Models of Leadership for Sales Management," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 17 (2), 43–56.
- Zhang, Yinlong, and L.J. Shrum (2008), "The Influence of Self-Constraint on Impulsive Consumption," *Journal of Consumer Research*, 35, 838–850.

## APPENDIX SCENARIO FOR EXPERIMENTS 1 AND 2

Imagine that you will be starting your first job out of college tomorrow. You will be meeting your supervisor first thing in the morning to go over your duties and responsibilities at the firm.

You met him briefly before when you interviewed for your job, and he seemed like a very nice person. He looked to be in his early fifties and more on the conservative side. He was very courteous and opened the door for you and encouraged you to ask his secretary for help with any administrative issues.

He was also concerned about the safety of his employees and discussed how the company was starting up a new late-night ride service. He also encouraged his female employees to make sure they had escorts to their cars late at night. He mentioned that though the job may be very challenging at times, the people at the company were always very friendly and willing to help new hires.

Copyright of Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management is the property of M.E. Sharpe Inc. and its content may not be copied or emailed to multiple sites or posted to a listserv without the copyright holder's express written permission. However, users may print, download, or email articles for individual use.