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„How Salespeople are stereotyped: An Analysis through the lenses of the Stereotype Content Model"

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Abstract

The purpose of the present study is to analyze stereotypes about sales professionals using the well-established Stereotype Content Model and to find out whether stereotype content translates into behavioral reactions of the customers.

It is assumed, that the stereotype content dimensions warmth, competence, and morality shape the customer´s behavior salespeople in form of positive word-of-mouth and that this relationship is mediated by the level of customer orientation that the customers perceive from the salesperson. It is further believed that the customer type influences this relationship.

By analyzing the outcomes of 546 respondents that took part in an online survey and by applying multiple regression analysis it was found that the stereotype content dimension warmth significantly influences a customer's likelihood to engage in positive WOM. It was further proven that perceived competence of the salesperson increases perceived customer orientation of said salesperson and that customer orientation itself positively impacts positive word-of-mouth by the customer and mediates the effect between competence and word-of-mouth. Regarding the two customer types that were being analyzed, interaction-oriented and task-oriented, it was found that interaction orientation negatively influences the relationship between warmth and word-of-mouth, but positively influences the relationship between customer orientation and positive word-of-mouth.

The findings of the study contribute to the interantional sales and stereotype literature by systematically analyzing salespeople and thereby extending the status-quo of salespeople research as well as by widening the field of application of the Stereotype Content Model. From a managerial view, it highlights the importance of stereotype content for sales managers as it generally broadens the knowledge about different kinds of salespeople. Beyond that it highlights the advantage of

customer oriented selling as it not only increases customer satisfaction but also the chance of supportive behavior by customers.

Keywords: salespeople stereotypes, Stereotype Content Model, warmth and competence stereotypes, morality, customer types, customer behavior

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Abbreviations

B2B – Business to business

B2C – Business to consumer

BCCR – bias corrected confidence interval(s)

BIAS – Behaviors from Intergroup Affect and Stereotypes

CSR – corporate social responsibility

DV – dependent variable

e.g. = exempli gratia – for example

et al. = et alii – and others

etc. = et cetera – and other similar things

FMCG – fast moving consumer goods

HC – high competence

HW – high warmth

i.e. = id est – that is

i.a. = inter alia – amongst others

LC – low competence

LW – low warmth

non-sign. – non-significant

resp. – respectively

SCM – Stereotype Content Model

sign. – significant / significantly

RV – television

WOM – word-of-mouth

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1. Introduction

The following chapter offers an introduction to the study and its main topics. Firstly, the motivation for the study and the reasons why this topic is a relevant one will be explained. Secondly the subsequent research problems will be examined. Following this the aim of the study will be explained and lastly there will be a closer look at the outline of the study.

1.1. Relevance of the topic

In their everyday life, most people encounter numerous kinds of salespeople. Whether it is when they are purchasing something in a store, or they are confronted with them via media and films, everybody has something to do with them. This consequently leads to the fact that people have opinions about salespeople, so-called stereotypes, and these stereotypes about salespeople are in most cases of negative nature (Lee, et al., 2007). Even though there are naturally various types of salespeople, differing in many aspects such as the product or the service they sell, but also in their style of selling, people tend to lump them together into one very broad and general type, “the salesperson”. Characteristics like forcefulness, persistence, an over-powering personality, and pushiness are oftentimes associated with salespeople (Lee, et al., 2007). These stereotypes may even be so strong, that people feel threatened by salespeople in buying situations, which obviously constitutes a great problem for salespeople and the companies they work for. Instead of seeing them as someone who can help them when finding the right product or generally a solution to their problem, people may shy away from or even avoid speaking to salespeople (Arndt, et al., 2018). These stereotypes that are pressed onto the social group of salespeople inevitably do not remain on this group level but are affecting all people belonging to this group on an individual level. This is due to the fact, that people stereotype other people according to the social group that they appear to belong to (Fiske & Taylor, 2017). These assumptions and opinions that people have about

certain social groups consequently have a strong impact on how they interact with them, for example how much they trust them or if they believe them (Fiske, et al., 2002).

Organizations and sales professionals are faced with numerous problems that proceed from the negative stereotypes that stick to salespeople. One of these problems, as already mentioned, is the fact that customers tend to shy away from salespeople, or even neglect them, rather than seeing them as someone to help them make the best choice or solve their problem (Arndt, et al., 2018). Another major problem lies in the field of education and employment. Due to the negative stereotypes that most students have about the sales profession, for one thing many of them decide not to pursue this career while they are in the midst of their university education and for another, people that are not actually suited for the job end up pursuing it for the wrong reasons and negative stereotypes about the profession may even be reinforced (Lee, et al., 2007). Stereotypes in general pose a risk for employers and employees alike. People that are hired must match the stereotype the job comes with and within that job, tasks will most likely be assigned to those people who fit the stereotypes of people usually carrying out these tasks. This can lead to the wrong people being hired for jobs or tasks being assigned to people that are not ideal for them (Cuddy, et al., 2011). Workman & Freeburg (1997, p.408) summarized this problem very accurately by stating that „*the first step in changing an existing stereotypic image is becoming aware of the contents of the stereotypes*".

It has been proven that customer emotions, especially positive ones, have a significant influence on customer satisfactions (Dolen & Ko de Ruyter, 2002). Emotions and affective responses in general themselves are often a result of stereotypes (Fiske, et al., 2002), though, and with customer satisfaction being one of the most important corporate goals for today`s businesses, this relationship between salespeople stereotypes and customer satisfaction is a very crucial one that is worth investigating.

No study to date has systematically analyzed the content of stereotypes surrounding salespeople in general. The Stereotype Content Model (SCM) by Fiske and Cuddy (2002) is one of the most used and well-known models for stereotype content analysis and structuring (Kervyn, et al., 2012) and has therefore been chosen as the model of choice for the purpose of this paper. The SCM examines the contents of stereotypes by dividing them based on two dimensions: perceived warmth and perceived competence. According to the model these two factors then elicit different kinds of reactions and behaviors such as purchase intention (DeCarlo & Barone, 2012) or WOM (Homburg, et al., 2011; Anderson, 1998).

The SCM has been applied to many different fields of research, some of which will be introduced during this paper. It has however never been applied to describe and analyze the existing stereotypes about salespeople, which constitutes a major research gap. This study aims to close this research gap.

Since a person´s morality is one of the strongest influences on other peoples´ evaluation of this person (Leach, et al., 2007), the dimension of morality in social judgement will also be added as the third stereotype content dimension alongside warmth and competence in the analysis of the salespeople stereotypes. Morality is especially critical when researching salespeople stereotypes, as salespeople tend to be perceived as immoral by people (Goodwin, 2015) and their suspected morality plays a great role in customer evaluation (Kirmani, et al., 2017).

Further indication for this study is the fact, that a person´s occupation is one, if not the most influencing, factor when stereotypes are being formed about this person. People in selling positions are therefore going to be stereotyped according to their job beyond their professional life and in their private life as well. (Koenig & Eagly, 2014).

Numerous researchers have called for a study on a topic like this one. Lee et al. (2007) mentions the need for research about stereotype content in field settings. They mention that research is particularly needed to find out if different types of selling elicit different stereotypes. Apart from

that, they point out that the majority of the research on salespeople stereotypes has been done in North America and that studies from different countries and cultures are urgently needed. Arndt et al. (2018) mentions the lack of stereotype research about different kinds of salespeople, as they suspect that there might be significant differences between them.

1.2. Aim of the study

The aim of the study is to **find out how salespeople are stereotyped by applying the Stereotype Content Model and how these stereotypes influence customers' behavior towards them** and consequently close the aforementioned research gap. The stereotype dimensions according to which the different kinds of salespeople stereotypes are being analyzed are warmth, competence, and morality.

The quantitative preliminary research that has been done for this study has shown, that salespeople are not all judged the same by customers but that there are significant differences between the different kinds of salespeople. In order to assure variance in the empirical assessment of these stereotypes and enhance the generalizability of the outcomes (Cuddy, et al., 2009; Micevski, et al., 2020), 12 different kinds of salespeople, which have been identified in prior research, will be used in the study.

Customer orientation (CO), the practice of customer-oriented selling, as opposed to purely sales-oriented selling, is the most widely positively accepted behavior of salespeople by customers. It has been shown to positively influence customers' loyalty and satisfaction as well as salespeople's performance and will therefore be included in the proposed model as a mediating factor (Homburg, et al., 2011; Kurtz & Dodge, 1991; Rieser, 1962). The attitudinal responses of the customers to the different kinds of salespeople will be measured in form of their willingness to engage in positive word-of-mouth (WOM) towards them. WOM refers to the informal exchange of information about

the evaluation of services and goods between people (Dichter, 1966; Fornell & Bookstein, 1982). This will be measured in form of the willingness of the customer to say positive things about the salesperson to others and recommend them to friends and family (Homburg, et al., 2011). Finally, the success of the selling process is largely influenced by the customer type (Homburg, et al., 2011; Williams & Spiro, 1985; Sheth, 1976). It will be distinguished between customers that are task-oriented, people who are rather goal- and efficiency driven in their buying behavior and customers that are interaction-oriented, people that seek to socialize with the salesperson during buying situations. These so-called "communication styles" of the customers are crucial to the selling process, as they affect the impact that the customer-oriented behavior, that the salesperson displays, has (Homburg, et al., 2011).

The resulting research questions of the thesis are the following:

1. How are salespeople being stereotyped in terms of warmth, competence, and morality?
2. How do these stereotypes translate into the customers behavioral responses towards them in form of perceived customer orientation of the salesperson and finally positive word-of-mouth?
3. Is the mediated link between stereotypes and consumer responses shaped by the customer type?

The study focuses on salespeople in the B2C context, leaving out salespeople in B2B contexts. The reason for this is firstly, that B2C salespeople "*experience a high degree of daily personal interaction"* with customers (Kadic-Maglajlic, et al., 2017, p. 54). This makes them an object of stereotyping by many different people each day and they are consequently heavily impacted by those stereotypes in their jobs and daily life in general (Homburg & Fürst, 2005, p. 100). Secondly, buying situations in a B2C context are much more transactional than relational in comparison to B2B contexts. They are usually over very quickly, and the people involved do not really invest the time or energy to think about the process in much detail. The stereotypes and their resulting

intentions and behaviors therefore cannot be controlled or influenced by the salesperson, and they could be a "victim" of them relatively easy (Verbeke, et al., 2011). The study further focuses on customers that are living in Austria or Germany. This is due to the need for research on this subject in European countries as called for by Lee, et al. (2007) and should broaden the knowledge about consumer behavior in Austria and Germany.

By answering these research questions this thesis contributes to theory and practice in the following way. This study is the first one to systematically analyze salespeople stereotypes by using a well-established concept such as the SCM. It further adds to the existing knowledge about customer orientation and its abilities to predict and influence customer behavior and the relationship between stereotypes and WOM. The study also provides theoretical implications by extending the application of the SCM which has never been applied to salespeople stereotypes before and by doing this, new possibilities of this model can be shown. Lastly the link between customer types, stereotype content and customer orientation is shown.

Managerial implications can be drawn in the fields such as recruitment, sales training, business strategy, and customer knowledge.

1.3. Outline of the study

The first chapter of the thesis is an introduction to the main topics, their background and relevance to current research as well as an overview of the outline of the study.

The second chapter contains the literature review. Its first part defines and explains the concept of stereotypes in general and occupational stereotypes about sales professionals specifically and lists some of the previous research that has been done in this area. The second part deals with the SCM, gives an explanation if the model as well as its extension, the BIAS map, and subsequently gives an overview of some of the recent applications of the SCM. The second chapter also explains the

concepts of morality, customer orientation, customer types, product involvement, empathy, and ulterior motive.

The third chapter introduces the hypotheses of the study, explains how they have been constructed and presents the conceptual research model.

The fourth chapter is about the methodology that was used for this study. The pre-test is being explained and it gives an overview of the method used to collect the data as well as a description of the research sample.

In the fifth chapter the preliminary analysis of the research is explained.

In the sixth chapter the main findings of the study are presented.

The seventh chapter contains the critical discussion of the outcomes of the study and puts them into context of current literature in the field of salespeople stereotypes and SCM.

The last chapter offers theoretical and managerial implications and sheds light on the limitations of the study as well as possible future research in this field.

2. Literature Review

In the following chapter firstly stereotypes as such and especially stereotypes about sales professionals will be explained and previous studies about salespeople stereotypes will be introduced. Secondly, there is a definition about the SCM and an overview of its applications.

2.1. Stereotypes

2.1.1. Definition of social stereotypes

Stereotypes can be defined as "*a set of beliefs about the personal attributes of a group of people*". They are "*pictures in the head that shape perception of a reality… [and] aid individuals in recognizing members of various social groups*" (Ashmore & Boca, 1981, p. 16). Hamilton and Rose (1980) define occupational stereotypes as consisting of expectations regarding certain traits, such as attributes and behaviors, of people on the basis of the occupational group they belong to. These traits that people expect from others belonging to certain stereotyped occupational groups "*are likely to rest upon stereotypes disseminated by popular literature, television, movies, advertising, and schools*" (Nilson & Edelman, 1979, p. 59). Stereotypes hardly ever consist of one single attribute. They usually consist of a combination of numerous observable characteristics and attributes, which is referred to as compound stereotyping (Schneider, 2005).

When thinking about stereotypes, first impressions usually also come to mind, as these two are undeniably linked to one-another. Every single encounter that someone experiences with a new person starts with a first impression like this and the timespan of this process is extremely short and will usually never even reach a person´s conscience. In fact, it only takes a human 100 milliseconds to form a lasting first impression of someone else (Willis & Todorov, 2006). While first impressions will fade quite quickly, stereotypes about a person or a group tend to stay for

much longer (Fiske & Taylor, 2017). Even if the roles within a social group change over time, for example the falling numbers of stay-at-home mothers and the rising numbers of mothers in paid occupations, those changes do not necessarily lead to a change in social stereotypes. If the stereotypes change, it usually takes a lot of time and is never happening at the same time as the actual changes in society (Koenig & Eagly, 2014).

As stereotypes are a highly complex cognitive, emotional, and behavioral phenomenon, there are many different explanations about their formation and purpose. The three guiding principles about stereotypes from social psychology will therefore be introduced following McGarty et al. (2002). Firstly, stereotypes serve humans as an aid to explaining what is being perceived. They help a person form a categorization of the people or social groups they see, which is a process to help distinguish between different social groups. This process is crucial not only to recognize a social group, but also to form an impression of it (Tajfel, 1969). Fiske, et al. (2002) even consider stereotypes to be fundamental in order to understand the social world.

Secondly, stereotypes serve as "energy saving devices". People perceive all other individuals that they see as members of a certain group, which makes it much easier and less energy consuming to categorize them and understand the intentions that they probably have (Allport, 1954). Humans have only limited cognitive capacities available to them when processing what they perceive. Yet the world around them is vastly complex and highly dynamic and they are constantly confronted with thousands of new impressions, some of them being the people that they see in their everyday life. Forming new and utterly unbiased opinions about everyone they see, would mean taking time and effort to get to know all of these people and learn about them as a person. This would obviously exceed all of a persons energy and time capacities by far and because of that, people tend to take shortcuts, also called heuristics. They connect what they see to something that they already know and infer other information about what they see, from the information they already have available, namely their stereotypes. Consequently, stereotypes save humans lots of time and effort when

finding their way around in everyday life (McGarty, 1999). People use group membership as a heuristic to categorize other individuals, which itself contributes to behaviors being interpreted as a confirmation of the stereotype (Taylor, 1981).

Thirdly, stereotypes are always "shared group beliefs". They could never exist, if they weren´t shared by a big group of people. If a stereotype is only held by a single person, then this stereotype would not be of interest to anyone else, but this person, and it would not impact anyone else´s life. Stereotypes only become interesting once they are shared by many people. They function as a kind of unspoken language and help people understand and predict the behavior of other people. On a group level, stereotypes can also be seen as normative belief. People that belong to the same social group tend to hold the same stereotypes, not just because of similar experiences and a need of belonging, but because the members of the group coordinate their behavior and by doing this, they also coordinate the stereotypes they hold. They differentiate between themselves and their ingroup members and members of other groups, which reinforces their shared stereotypes about other groups (McGarty, et al., 2002). In other words, stereotypes encourage inter-group differences and embrace intra-group cohesion" (Fiske, et al., 2002).

Stereotypes are further strongly connected to behaviors. When they are created in people´s minds, they consist of behaviors and traits that these people find particularly typical about a certain social group. That way, whenever people see someone of a social group that they have a stereotype about behave accordingly to the stereotype, it reinforces this stereotype in the person's mind (Koenig & Eagly, 2014).

Another important aspect is that stereotypes do not function in a one-way, but in a two-way process. Apart from forming opinions about other people, humans also spend a lot of time and effort on forming beliefs about how other people might stereotype them in return (Spencer & Quinn, 1999). When people form opinions about other individuals, they use one of two types of processes, namely category-based or attribute-based processes. In category-based processes

people use stereotypical information they have about a social group that matches the person they see. For example, a salesperson that looks very stereotypical, would be judged by other people according to the typical stereotypes they have about salespeople. On the other hand, when someone cannot be matched to a certain social group by her outer appearance, people will use attribute-based processes when forming an opinion about her, meaning that they will form opinions based on her salient attributes and not on stereotypical information. A salesperson that does not conform to the stereotypical appearance of a salesperson, will therefore not be affected by stereotypes as much as other salespeople that do conform to it (Fiske, et al., 1987).

Fiske (1998) describes stereotypes as a part of intergroup bias. According to them, intergroup bias consists of a cognitive component, namely stereotypes, an affective component, namely prejudices and a behavioral component, namely discrimination. Fiske and Taylor (2017) also distinguish between blatant and subtle stereotypes. Blatant stereotypes are the kind of notions that people are very aware of having and that heavily influence people´s lives. They are usually of extreme nature, meaning that they consist of extreme feelings towards other social groups. They are "explicit and deliberate" but also occur quite rarely. Only 10% of people in Western countries hold such extreme, blatant stereotypes. They mostly result from realistic conflicts between people, usually over scarce resources such as money, power, or prestige. Subtle stereotypes on the other hand are very implicit and automatic. People are for the most part not aware of having them, which makes them much harder to measure. They may not be as loud and visible as the blatant ones, they are very common and widespread, though, and virtually anyone is affected by them, either by holding them, or by being stereotyped themselves. Examples for these subtle stereotypes are racism and sexism. McArthur (1982) on this behalf argues that attributes need to be extreme and negative in order to be assertive. An attribute that is moderate in its nature would probably never constitute a stereotype.

2.1.2. Stereotypes about sales professionals

As mentioned earlier, most stereotypes about salespeople in Western countries are negative ones. It even starts as early as high school when people begin to have negative connotations to the sales occupation. These negative stereotypes are further reinforced by popular media, books, music and so on, during the rest of their lives (Lee, et al., 2007). In 2015 Dave Martin wrote in the American Banker that "*coyotes in the wild are far less feared than the people who work at cell phone kiosks at the mall*". It has been shown that the mere physical appearance of a stereotypical salesperson, can potentially elicit negative feelings and reactions in customers (Arndt, et al., 2018). A very typical negative salespeople stereotype is that of the "car salesman", which is very often referred to in the popular press such as comics in newspapers. This salesperson type is often described as a rather unattractive male, who is balding, wearing a cheap suit and talking in a very fast and conniving manner (Workman & Freeburg, 1997). Such typical attributes, that are commonly used to describe stereotypes, are referred to as "tabs of identity". Tabs of identity are symbols, or hieroglyphs, that are typical for a subject and unmistakably stand for a certain character. Examples for typical tabs of identity are the striped trousers and star-spangled vest of Uncle Sam, who is a characterization of the United States (Streicher, 1974). One of the most important factors for the formation of negative feelings towards salespeople is the fact that people believe that salespeople have ulterior motives, motives and goals that they do not show to the customer, but that guide their actions and that are mostly beneficial for themselves and not the customer (DeCarlo, 2005).

This negative connotation of salespeople is not the case everywhere in the world, though. Stereotypes are strongly culture bound, as they partially are a part of socialization themselves. In Eastern Asian countries, for example, salespeople are much less negatively connotated than in Western countries, there are even many positive stereotypes about sales professionals in countries like Taiwan (Lee, et al., 2010). Fournier, et al. (2014) have also paid attention to the aspect of

culture in stereotyping and have also come to the conclusion that the stereotypes about salespeople are heavily influenced by cultural values and differ substantially between different countries.

A phenomenon that is closely related to this subject is the so-called attribution error. It describes peoples´ tendencies to wrongfully attribute characteristics to a person because "*it is presumed that roles they undertake are demonstrative of what they are (i.e., aspects of their character) rather than what they do*". Humans then tend to make a strong distinction between members of their own group (i.e., ingroup members) and members of other groups (i.e., outgroup members). When an outgroup member behaves negatively, this will be traded back to this person´s inherent dispositions and character and will followingly be generalized across the whole social group. When an ingroup member behaves negatively on the other hand, this will be traced back to a situational cause, not to this individual´s persona. When looking at this problem from the perspective of salespeople stereotypes, this could lead to people attributing negative connotations they have about sales situations to the characters of salespeople and ultimately to salespeople as a social group (Lee, et al., 2007, p. 728). The attribution error is one of the most common and most documented biases in social perception (Heider, 1958).

Another issue that plays a crucial role in customers´ negative image of salespeople is the so-called persuasion knowledge that they hold (DeCarlo, 2005). This refers to their knowledge of being persuaded by a salesperson during an interaction with them. Oftentimes people tend to think that they are being persuaded by a salesperson even if they are not and the salesperson is just trying to help them make their best buying decision, e.g., with their technical knowledge. This leads to most people expecting a salesperson to try to convince them of buying something that they might not even need or want, which obviously contributes strongly to the negative stereotypes about salespeople. To summarize this, it can be said that the main idea behind the concept of persuasion knowledge is that customers make inferences about salespeople and the motives that they allegedly have (Friestad & Wright, 1994). Persuasion knowledge of the customers are especially high, when

they suspect the salesperson to have ulterior motives, meaning that they do not have the motives and goals that they pretend to have (Campbell & Kirmani, 2000). The presence of persuasion knowledge of the customer in a sales situation consequently reinforces negative attributes of salespeople such as dishonesty, forcefulness, and persistence (Lee, et al., 2007). Stereotyping in sales contexts naturally does not happen in one direction only. Salespeople also use stereotypes they have about certain types of customers to adapt their selling behavior, which has been proven to be successful (Mallalieu, 2007).

The following table shows an overview of selected literature about salespeople stereotypes.

Study (Authors, year, title)	**Main purpose**	**Key findings**
Lee et al. (2007): The effect of salespeople stereotype activation on consumer emotional profiles and cognition	determine the effects of salespeople stereotypes on the information processing capacity of consumers	there were no significant outcomes in terms of whether stereotypical salespeople bring greater analytical processing to their customers; it was found that emotions vary systematically with different salespeople stereotypes
Hekman et al. (2010): An examination of whether and how ratial and gender biases influence customer satisfaction	examine whether and how various biases may influence customers´ satisfaction evaluations and produce discriminatory judgements for minorities and female service employees	employees that were female or belonged to minorities were rated sign. worse than male and white employees; females were rated worse than males; non-whites were not rated worse than whites; the store itself was rated worse when female or non-white employees were seen; this was even more significant when the rater held implicit biases about low-status groups (females and non-whites); the performance of organizations that employ more women and non-whites is rated worse

		than of those who employ less women and non-whites
Wang et al. (2016): Smile big or not? Effects of smile intensity on perceptions of warmth and competence	examine the effects of a broad smile and find out if a person with a broad smile is perceived warmer but less competent	salespeople who display a broad smile are perceived warmer than people with a slight smile, but also less competent than them
Kirmani et al. (2017): Doing well versus doing good: the differential effect of underdog positioning on moral and competent service providers	examine how consumers make trade-offs between highly competent, less moral service providers and highly moral, less competent service providers; examine a moderator of this effect: underdog positioning	in online reviews of service providers, attributes of competence are more frequently mentioned than attributes of warmth and morality; when choosing a service provider people prefer competent, less moral providers over more moral, less competent providers; when a less competent, more moral provider is positioned as an underdog, they are more likely to be chosen by the customer; in the absence of underdog positioning, competence dominates morality in the services context
Lee et al. (2007): An empirical study of salesperson stereotypes amongst UK students and their implications for recruitment	examine UK business student´s stereotypes of salespeople	UK business students tend to have negative stereotypes about salespeople
Lee et al. (2010): Stereotypes of Taiwanese salespeople at the service interface	examine the stereotypes of salespeople in Asian countries, specifically Taiwan	stereotype of salespeople in Taiwan are much less negative than in the US/UK, in fact a lot of them are even positive; this is believed to be so because of the Confucian culture in Taiwan / Eastern Asia
Houston et al. (2017): Who cares if "service with a smile"	examine if the reaction to a service employee´s display	service expectations are significantly lower for black

is authentic? An expectancy-based model of customer race and differential service reactions	authenticity may depend on the customer´s race and if white customers are more likely to expect friendly service that black customers	people than for white people; black people are more likely to have experienced service mistreatment;
Grandey et al. (2018): Fake it to make it? Emotional labor reduces the racial disparity in service performance judgements	examine if more emotional labor (i.e., more emotional display) is needed for blacks to lower negative racial stereotypes from customers	white employees are rated higher than black employees; emotional labor improves evaluations of black employees´ valuation; this was found for evaluation through both customers and supervisors
Fournier et al. (2014): A Cross-Cultural Investigation of the Stereotype for Salespeople: Professionalizing the Profession	investigate the image of salespeople and of the selling function as perceived by business students across cultures	students´ perceptions of salespeople are not extremely bad, but their perception of sales careers is rather negative; the stereotypes are influenced by culture
Arndt, et al. (2018): Competent or threatening? When looking like a "salesperson" is disadvantageous	investigate whether salespeople can avoid stereotype threat by differentiating from salespeople stereotypes	when stereotype threat is high, looking like a stereotypical salesperson has a negative impact on customer response; when stereotype threat is low, looking like a stereotypical salesperson has a positive impact on customer response; in an online context, looking like a stereotypical salesperson has a positive impact on customer response even if stereotype threat is high
Workman et al. (1997): A Method to Identify Occupational Stereotypes	develop a method to identify occupational stereotypes and use that method to investigate the content of one occupational stereotype (car salespeople)	the popular press reinforces the negative stereotypes about car salespeople; identity tabs are frequently used to depict these negative stereotypes in cartoons etc.

Bahhouth et al. (2014): Are Students Driven by Negative or Positive Perception About Sales Profession in France?	investigate student´s perceptions of personal selling as a career in France	French students have a biased perception about sales as a career; however only few dimensions are significant, and some findings contradict the outcomes of studies in other countries

Table 1: Selected literature review of salespeople stereotypes

To summarize the existing research of salespeople it can be said that there has been carried out a substantial amount of research about the stereotypes about salespeople and the biases that customers´ have about them. However, this topic has never been studied in a structured manner nor has been applied a theoretical underpinning such as the one presented in this study, namely the Stereotype Content Model (SCM), as one of the most used and applied models to examine stereotype content, can offer. This leads to the existing research gap between the SCM and salespeople stereotypes that has been mentioned earlier in this thesis. Apart from that, the subjects of the studies were usually certain types of salespeople, but there has hardly been a comparison of different kinds of them. The variety of different salespeople being represented in studies is of great importance though, as the stereotypes that adhere to them are likely to differ significantly. This belief can be inferred from the outcomes of the various studies about salespeople stereotypes mentioned above, which have shown how many factors influence and distinguish the stereotypes that people have towards salespeople, such as gender, clothes, ethnicity, display of emotions and smiling etc. Following this, a pre-test has been carried out for this study, which also supported the assumption of differences in stereotypes across different kind of salespeople.

Another important aspect is geographical coverage. Almost all the existing studies have been carried out in the United States, only two of them were conducted in France resp. in Great Britain, which makes Europe – among other regions – an extremely underrepresented geographical area in this field of research, especially Middle and Eastern Europe.

2.2. Stereotype Content Model

2.2.1. Definition of the Stereotype Content Model

The stereotype content model (SCM) is a model that makes it possible to analyze and structure the content of stereotypes. It has been developed by Susan Fiske and Amy Cuddy in the United States in 2002 and has since proven useful to reliably predict stereotype content in different social contexts (Cuddy, et al., 2008). The SCM defines all stereotypes using two dimensions that are fundamental to social perception: *warmth* and *competence*. These two dimensions both underlie and differentiate group stereotypes and result from interactions between individuals (interpersonal) and between groups (intergroup) (Fiske, et al., 2002). They reflect how humans as individuals or groups perceive the social world around them (Kervyn, et al., 2012). Leach, et al., (2007) name competence (i.e. wisdom) and sociablity (i.e. friendliness) as the two most important factors in the evaluation of social groups, which in principle describe the same aspects as competence and warmth.

When encountering other social beings, people instantly – and subconsciously – ask themselves two principal questions: "*Do they intend to harm me?*" and "*Are they capable of harming me?*" (Cuddy, et al., 2009, p. 3). This stems back to humans' endeavor to estimate others´ intentions, specifically whether they are good or bad intentions. Following this, they judge the other on their ability to carry out their intentions. These two information gaps have consequently been translated into the two dimensions of the SCM. Warmth represents the nature of a person´s intent and competence their ability to carry out these intentions. A person that is perceived to have bad intentions will therefore not be considered warm and a person that seems to be unable to carry out their intention, e.g., due to a lack of resources, will probably not be considered competent (Fiske, et al., 2002).

The SCM functions under the premise that warmth and competence judgements stem from the social structural relations between individuals and groups. Members of a certain social group naturally judge their ingroup members more favorably than members of the outgroup. This is due to the fact that the two dimensions have their origin in the socio-structural variables competition and status. People or groups that are perceived as non-competitive are usually judged as warm and competitive people or groups are judged as not warm. Those that are perceived to have high-status are judged to be competent and those with low status are judged to be not so competent (Cuddy, et al., 2007; Eckes, 2002). The societal forces status and competence therefore lead to the creation of stereotypes in peoples´ minds. These stereotypes then translate into emotions, which in connection with the subject of stereotyping are called prejudices. Finally, prejudices elicit biased behavior, so-called discrimination (Caprariello, et al., 2009). Figure 1 shows this connection.

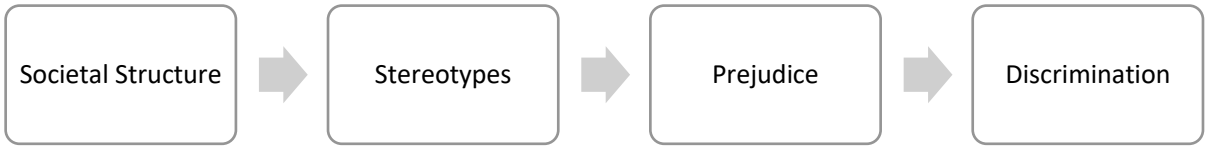

Figure 1: Causal links between societal structure and group bias (following Caprariello et al., 2009)

There are certain items that are in most cases utilized in order to measure perceived warmth and competence in empirical research. Warmth scales usually include characteristics such as *good-natured*, *trustworthy*, *tolerant*, *friendly*, and *sincere*. Competence scales include characteristics such as *capable*, *skillful*, *intelligent*, and *confident* (Fiske, et al., 2002).

Most stereotypes are not one-sided, but contain a combination of both scales, which leads to certain emotions towards the group or person being stereotyped, which subsequently lead to certain kinds of behavior. The warmth and competence dimensions are usually integrated into a theoretical matrix, where each of the dimensions´ distinctness is portrayed on one axis. The elements of analysis (groups, countries, people etc.) are then located on the matrix according to how they are being stereotyped by other people, as seen in figure 2 (Fiske, et al., 2002; Lee & Fiske, 2006).

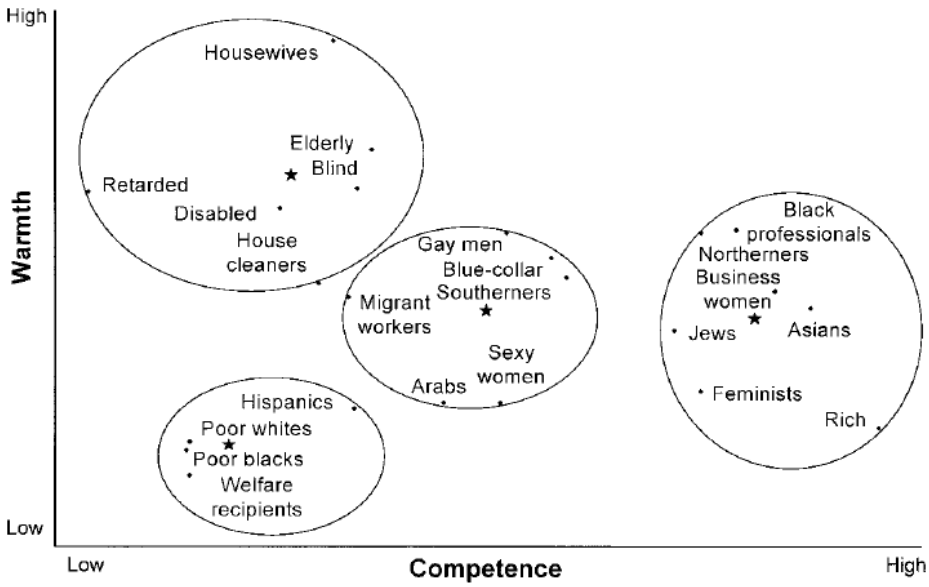

Figure 2: SCM: four cluster solution (Fiske et al. 2002)

Stereotypes are in most cases ambivalent, meaning that they are high on one and low on the other dimensions. For example, Asians are in Fiske´s study viewed as competent but not warm, whereas elderly people are viewed as warm but not competent. Univalent stereotypes that are high on both or low on both dimensions are rather rare (Fiske & Taylor, 2017).

As mentioned earlier, the perceived warmth and competence and the subsequent setereotypes elicit distinct affective responses in people that subsequently lead to behavioral outcomes. Fiske, et al. (2002) specify four different affective responses that are created by the four different combinations of warmth and competence: admiration (high competence / HC, high warmth / HW), contempt (low competence / LW, low warmth / LW), envy (high competence / HC, low warmth / LW), and pity (low competence / LW, high warmth / HW).

The four dimension-combinations of the SCM further point out different types of interpersonal social comparisons (Smith, 2000). Social groups that are stereotyped as warm and competent (e.g., ingroups) are perceived in an "*upward assimilative social comparison*" and elicit admiration and pride. Cold and incompetent social groups such as welfare recipients are perceived in a "*downward contrastive comparison*" and elicit feelings like contempt and disgust. Social groups stereotyped

as competent but cold (e.g., Asians) elicit envy through "*upward contrastive comparisons*" and warm but incompetent groups (e.g., the elderly) elicit pity through "*downward assimilative comparisons*" (Fiske, et al., 2002; Cuddy, et al., 2007, p. 632).

The two combinations of competence and warmth that are observed the most are HC x LW and LC x HW. The so-called paternalistic stereotypes are the stereotypes that fall in the LC x HW quadrant and that occur in race, age, dialect, and gender prejudices. People belonging to the social groups of the paternalized stereotypes find themselves to not be very respected, but rather pitied, with overtones of compassion, sympathy and (under the right circumstances) tenderness (Fiske, et al., 2002). Paternalistic stereotypes are often found in ambivalent racism, which is a combination of anti-Black attitudes and paternalistic pro-Black attitudes (e.g., people of color are in disadvantage and are therefore pitiful and in need of help) (Katz & Hass, 1986). Fiske, et al. (2002) summarize for groups that are mainly affected by paternalistic stereotypes: disadvantaged black people, elderly people, non-standard dialect speakers, and traditional women. The second group of frequent ambivalent stereotypes are called anvious stereotypes and belong to the HC x LW quadrant. People in these social groups are perceived to be competent in their tasks but not warm. Jews and Asians typically fall into this cluster, as well as nontraditional women (Cuddy, et al., 2009). Women, who do not follow traditional, conservative gender roles because they are e.g., career oriented, feminists or professional athetes are often confronted with hostile sexism and along with Asians and Jews are prejudiced to be too competitive and not sociable enough (Eagly, 1987).

Table 2 summarizes the 2 types of outgroup stereotypes, that stem from the different combinations of warmth and competence.

	Competence	
Warmth	Low	High
High	Paternalistic prejudice Low status, not competitive Pity, sympathy (e.g., elderly people, disabled people, housewives)	Admiration High status, not competitive Pride, admiration (e.g., in-group, close allies)
Low	Contemptuous prejudice Low status, competitive Contempt, disgust, anger, resentment (e.g., welfare recipients, poor people)	Envious prejudice High status, competitive Envy, jealousy (e.g., Asians, Jews, rich people, feminists)

Table 2: Four Types of Out-Groups (Fiske, et al., 2002)

Fiske and Taylor (2017) name three broad principles of intergroup bias that underlie the SCM and BIAS map:

1. Social groups and people are not stereotyped in a one-dimensional manner, but their stereotypes rather contain both negative and positive traits simultaneously, i.e., they are ambivalent.

2. There are three psychological components of bias: cognitions (stereotypes), affect (emotional prejudices), and behavior (discrimination) and these operate in synchrony with one another.

3. Emotions strongly mediate the effects of cognitions on discrimination.

The social role theory is an alternative concept of explaining the content of social stereotypes. It was established before the SCM and influenced its creation. The core principle of this concept is that stereotypes stem back to people's social roles, in particular their occupational roles (Eagly & Steffen, 1984). It was originally focused on the differences in stereotype content between men and women and their origin in the labor division between the two sexes, (Eagly, 1987) and was later on proven to be equaly true for social groups in general (Koenig & Eagly, 2014).

2.2.1. Excursus: Morality

Throughout all cultures in today´s world, both Eastern and Western ones, metaphysics and philosophy deal with the question what makes humans good and bad and what their virtues and vices are, in short, what makes them moral, with Nietzsche (1887/1967) being one of the most famous philosophers who engaged himself in this discussion. As one of the earliest philosophers, Aristotle named 14 virtuous characteristics that make a good person, including "righteous indignation", "the just", "sincerity", "wisdom", and "friendliness" (Robinson, 1989).

Contemporary research focuses on aspects such as competence and sociability (Leach, et al., 2007), competence and warmth (Fiske, et al., 2002), or social roles such as occupations (Koenig & Eagly, 2014) when examining how positive evaluation of social groups takes place.

Morality has been shown to play an important role in consumers´ perception of and reaction to salespeople (Kirmani, et al., 2017). Morality was therefore added as a third dimension of stereotype content, apart from warmth and competence as mentioned earlier, and will hence be discussed in this excursus.

Leach, et al., (2007) wanted to oppose the lack of morality as an influencing factor in current literature and have subsequently investigated what role morality plays in the evaluation of social groups in society. They used the traits "honest", "sincere", and "trustworthy" for evaluating people´s perceived morality and found out, that morality impacts the evaluation of in-groups much more than competence or sociability. They argue, that even though social role theory would theoretically allow morality to be the most important factor in the evaluation of peers, it has been widely excluded from the research of in-group evaluation so far. They further state, that it has been proven highly important to distinguish between sociability (e.g., friendly, kind) and morality (e.g., sincere, trustworthy) when analyzing the communion (i.e., warmth) elements of a stereotype, since they have been shown to be more interesting and are processed more rapidly than agency (i.e.,

competence) traits. Goodwin et al. (2014) have also argued, that morality traits should be separated from warmth and competence traits in stereotype content analysis. Kirmani, et al., (2017) however found out, that this superiority of morality in social evaluations does not hold up in all circumstances. They found out, that when choosing between different service providers, customers value competence more than morality. This effect is moderated when a moral service provider is positioned as an underdog, though, meaning that they have had to work harder to reach their position in life, for example if they grew up in very poor circumstances. Kirmani et al. (2017) have subsequently shown that humans treat the trait morality differently when evaluationg a salesperson than they would with other people. This shows the importance of the inclusion of moraliy as a separate dimension of stereotype content in the present study.

2.2.2. The BIAS Map

The BIAS (behaviors from intergroup affect and stereotypes) map is an extension to the SCM, adding the factor of behavioral outcomes of perceived warmth and competence combinations. It makes it possible to investigate how stereotypes and the resulting affective responses influence the behavioral tendencies of individuals or social groups towards others. It was established by Cuddy, Fiske and Glick in 2007 in the United States. Long before that Allport (1954) stated, that discriminatory behaviors, that different social groups face, are highy diverse and with that laid the foundations for future resarch in this area. These biased behaviors are the final product of the cycle that bias triggers in social structures: stereotypes (cognitive) → emotions (affective) → discrimination (behavioral) (Cuddy, et al., 2007).

The concept of the BIAS map was created on the basis of three connected principles (Cuddy, et al., 2007). Firstly, stereotypes about social groups often include mostly negative, but also subjectively positive components and they vary strongly across groups and situations (Mackie & Smith, 2002). Two of the several researchers that proved this were Cottrell & Neuberg (2005),

who examined different social groups that are traditionally strongly stereotyped and discriminated. They found out, that e.g., gay men and Mexicans received very different threats and elicited different, distinct emotions in other groups. Secondly, there are specific social situations, that "*synchronize the cognitive, affective, and behavioral components of bias*" (Cuddy, et al., 2007, p. 631). For example, when cognitive appraisal takes place, it is linked to interpersonal (Frijda, et al., 1989) and intergroup (Mackie, et al., 2000) emotional reactions. Lastly, emotions have a much stronger impact on behavior than cognitions. It has been found that affective behavior to certain social groups can predict discriminative behaviors such as social distance much better than stereotypes can (Stangor, et al., 1991).

Based on these principles, Cuddy, et al. (2007) define two dimensions, which allow it to capture most of intergroup behaviors. These are *active* and *passive*, which capture the intensity of actions, and *facilitation* and *harm*, which caption the valence of the actions. Active behaviors are actions that are carried out by a person or a group with a distinct effort to affect the target subject in mind. They can be aimed for or against the target subject. Passive behaviors are more reactive in their nature than actions and are more likely to be experienced by someone than actively carried out. They are not as deliberately aimed as active behaviors, but they still have the potential to be impactful forms of discrimination. Facilitation aims at positive effects or gains for other social groups and harm aims at negative effects or losses for other social groups. In order to illustrate the concept, the four combinations of the dimensions are integrated into the SCM, as shown in figure 3. It was found that the warmth dimension predicts both facilitative and harmful active behaviors and that the competence dimension predicts facilitative and harmful passive behaviors, which is the reason for their positioning in the illustrated map. The warmth dimension is seen as the leading aspect, as it gives information about the intent of another group or person. The competence dimension is therefore seen as the secondary aspect, as it "only" reflects the ability the carry out this intention. Social groups that are perceived to be warm, elicit active facilitation and those

perceived to be lacking warmth elicit active harm. On the other hand, groups that are perceived as competent elicit passive facilitation, whereas those that are perceived as low in competence elicit passive harm. The actual behaviors that the four combinations elicit are help (active facilitation), harassment (active harm), cooperation (passive facilitation), and neglect (passive harm) (Cuddy, et al., 2008).

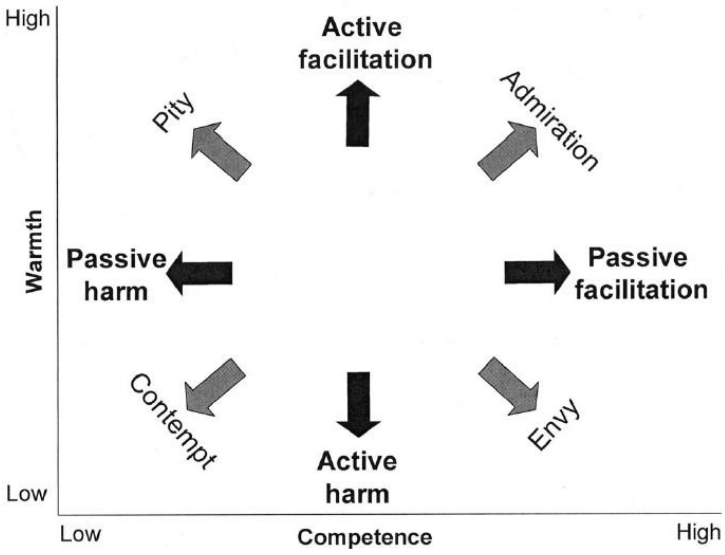

Figure 3: The BIAS map (Cuddy et al. 2007)

As can be seen in figure 3 the BIAS map consequently connects the four diffeerent affective responses, that are resulting from the warmth and competence combinations, with the four kinds of predicted biased behavior. Groups that are admired will receive either active or passive facilitation, which in this case is manifested in help and association. On the contrary, groups that elicit contempt, will be met with passive or active harm, manifesting in active attacks and passive neglect. Groups that are pitied, will elicit either active help or passive neglect, which is often manifested in patronizing behavior towards older or disabled people. Contrary to those, envied groups will be met with either passive association or active harm. An example for this behavior has been experienced by Koreans in Los Angeles, where people like to shop at Korean stores in order to demonstrate acceptance, but when societal breakdown occurs, the same shops will be

attacked and looted (Cuddy, et al., 2008). WOM, which refers to the passing of positive information about a service or product (Dichter, 1966), is consequently a form of facilitative behavior (Cuddy, et al., 2004) which is carried out usually by customers that are very satisfied with the service or product that they have received (Anderson, 1998). It has been shown to be influenced by warmth and competence perceptions of customers when evaluating brands (Hickman & Ward, 2013) as well as by warmth and competence judgements of tourists when evaluating tourism destinations (Micevski, et al., 2020). Salespeople, as already mentioned, are highly stereotyped groups of individuals (i.a. Lee, et al., 2007), and the behavior they elicit in customers will therefore often be influenced by these stereotypes. Following this, the idea of this study to investigate the connection between warmth, competence, and morality on the behavioral outcome variable WOM lies near.

2.2.3. Applications of the Stereotype Content Model and the BIAS map

The SCM and the BIAS map have been applied in studies across several research fields over the past years (Kervyn, et al., 2012). Stereotypes about countries and cultures have been one of the first applications (Cuddy, et al., 2009), and the analysis of the stereotype content of more specific cultural social groups such as Asians and Asian Americans (Lin, et al., 2005) and immigrants in general (Lee & Fiske, 2006) followed. The impact of national stereotypes on the country-of-origin effect was also examined using the SCM (Chattalas, et al., 2008). The concept was further applied to analyze stereotype content of several subgroups and subtypes of social groups, e.g., lesbian women (Brambilla, et al., 2011), gay men (Clausell & Fiske, 2005), women in professional occupations (Cuddy, et al., 2004; Eckes, 2002), linguistic groups (Yzerbyt, et al., 2005), the social distancing from employees with mental illness (Follmer & Jones, 2017), and mothers of sexually abused children (Toews, et al., 2018). In organizational and marketing research the concepts have been used to analyze the effect of sales peoples´ smile intensity on customers (Wang, et al., 2016),

the stereotypes of brands (Aaker, et al., 2012; Ivens, et al., 2015), the dynamics of warmth and competence in organizations (Cuddy, et al., 2011), the consumer responses to food safety scandals (Barbarossa, et al., 2016) , the choice of tourism destinations (Micevski, et al., 2020), as well as the role of the SCM in green CSR and brand attitude (Balqiah, 2018). In the field of e-commerce, the SCM has been used to analyze signals on e-commerce platforms (Guo, et al., 2020).
This list however does not claim to be a complete one, it just portrays a selection from academic literature, in order to demonstrate the variety of applications of the SCM and the BIAS map.

2.3. Moderator & mediator

In addition to examining the stereotypes of B2C salespeople and their resulting behavioral reactions in customers, a few other factors were considered in this study. The customer orientation of the salesperson, as perceived by the respondent, was included into the concept as the mediator between stereotype content and the behavioral outcome WOM. The customer type, that each respondent belongs to, is being considered as a moderating factor perceived customer orientation of the salesperson and the behavioral outcome WOM.

2.3.1. Customer orientation

The term customer orientation, in a sales context, stems from the practice of customer-oriented selling. This type of selling technique can be explained as a marketing concept on the level of an individual salesperson and a customer. Companies, whose salespeople engage in customer-oriented selling, direct all of their activities towards customer satisfaction and building long-term relationships with their customers (Kotler, et al., 2016). The focus lies on the behavior of the salesperson, who is not solely interested in increasing sales volume, but in meeting the customer´s needs and solving her problems the best way possible (Kurtz & Dodge, 1991). A trend towards

this kind of customer-centric selling has been observed and described more than 50 years ago by Rieser (1962).

Characteristics, that indicate that a salesperson is customer-oriented are amongst others (Saxe & Weitz, 1982, p. 345):

- Trying to help customers achieve their goals
- Influencing a customer by providing information rather than putting pressure on her
- Offering product choices that are best suited to the customer´s needs
- Willing to disagree with a customer in order to help her make a better decision

Saxe & Weitz (1982) developed the SOCO (Selling Orientation – Customer Orientation) scale, in which they define characteristics for both selling techniques. They accentuate that, even though successful in various cases, customer-oriented selling should only be the option of choice if the benefits of it outweight the costs (such time to gather information about the customer or to find different alternatives to offer). If this is not the case, traditional sales-oriented selling can be the better option.

The effect of customer orientation on sales performance has been studied by various authors, finding both positive effects (Boles, et al., 2001; Siders, et al., 2001), or no effects (Johnson, et al., 2009). It has further been found, that there are trade-offs between the pre work that has to be done for customer-oriented selling and the time lost that the salesperson could have used otherwise (Homburg, et al., 2011) and that the relationship between customer orientation and salesperformance is u-shaped, which means that sales performance firstly decreases with increased customer orientation, but eventually increases again with higher customer orientation (Kadic-Maglajlic, et al., 2017). Another field of interest in current academic literature is the relationship between customer orientation and customer reactions (Homburg & Fürst, 2005; Homburg, et al., 2011; Homburg, et al., 2011). In an optimal case, increased customer orientation would be universally effective and automatically lead to increased positive reactions by the customer, as

customer orientation should lead to satisfied customers and customer satisfaction has been shown to translate into customer loyalty, which positive WOM is a form of. It has been found however, that the level of positive reactions of the customers to customer oriented selling are highly affected by other factors such as the sales situation, the procust or service itself, and the communication style of the customer (i.e. the customer type) (Homburg, et al., 2011). Furthermore, the attitude of the customer towards the salesperson plays a crucial role in the way the customer will respond to the selling behavior (Homburg, et al., 2011). This attitude the customer holds is itself influenced by the stereotypes this customer has about this certain kind of salesperson (Fiske, et al., 2002).

2.3.2. Customer type

In the field of sales research, it has proven to be very important to acknowledge the different types of customers as they react different to salesperson behavior. It has been shown that different customer types have different expectations in sales situations which depend on their individual characteristics (Sheth, 1976). Following Homburg, Müller and Klarmann´s (2011, p.789) "*facets of a customer's communication style*" customer types are split in two groups, interaction-oriented and task-oriented customers. Interaction-oriented customers are those that are looking for a salesperson, with whom they can have a personal relation. In general, interaction orientation is distinguished for seeking a strong relationship in social interactions (Williams & Spiro, 1985). Both, buyer and seller, that fall into this category, will not start a selling situation with an aggressive aim of selling, but will pursue a personal connection first (Sheth, 1976). These customers will highly value a salesperson that acts like a friend, seems interested in their personal life and has, above all, the customer´s personal wellbeing in mind. If these aspects are fulfilled, the customer will probably show high levels of loyalty towards the salesperson and the company (Macintosh & Lockshin, 1997). Customers with a low level of interaction-orientation on the other hand will not be receptive to sellers´ attempts to build a relationship with them, they will probably

be rather annoyed by it. They want the salesperson to only fulfill the role of their professional occupation (Fournier, et al., 1998). Task-oriented customers tend be as goal-oriented and efficient as possible in their sales conversations and sales tasks (Mcfarland, et al., 2006). These customers expect a salesperson to know exactly what they are looking for product wise and provide relevant product-related facts that help the customer make the best buying decision (Homburg, et al., 2011).

2.4. Control variables

Control variables are variables, that can possibly influence the outcomes of an empirical study as they can lead to omitted variable bias. To ensure that the variable of interest is not biased by these factors, they are being controlled for in the analysis, which means that they are separated from the dedicated independent and dependent variables (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010).

Product involvement, the level of empathy of the respondent and the perceived ulterior motive of the salesperson, were included as important factors that could possibly have an effect on the outcomes in this study and therefore, apart from variables such as age, education etc., controlled for during the statistical analysis in SPSS.

2.4.1. Product involvement

Since the salespeople types chosen for this study differ significantly in the nature of the products, that they sell, the customers´ product involvement has also been chosen to be included as a control variable.

Product involvement describes the level of involvement a customer has for a product. This involvement stems from the personal relevance a particular product has for the customer. If the relevance is high, the customer is more likely to be affected by an advertisement about this product for example (Petty & Cacioppo, 1979). Purchase decision research adds the aspect that if the relevance of a product for the customer is high, the customer will probably want to make a very

careful decision before buying it (Clarke & Belk, 1978). Zaichkowsky (1985) consequently defined the spectrum of product involevment ranging from low to high. Low product involvement is usually seen in cheap everyday-life goods like FMCGs. People do not invest a lot of time, energy, and consideration in the decision making process before buying these products. High product involvement is mostly seen in goods that are expensive and that are long-term investments, meaning that they are not bought often, such as cars or houses. Customers engage in extensive information-seeking before deciding to buy these products. The involvement a customer has with a certain product or service is of special interest in the current study as it has been shown that the product has great impact on the effectiveness of customer oriented behavior of the salesperson and consequently on the response of the customer in form of positive WOM (Homburg, et al., 2011). As the level of involvement a person has with a product highly influences the time and thought this person is willing to invest in the buying process (Clarke & Belk, 1978), it is assumed that this will infuence the likelihood of this person to engage in supportive behavior such as WOM as well.

2.4.2. Empathy

The stereotype content analyzed in the course of this paper is a highly personal and subjective element, that is always created by a person´s personal perception. Sheth (1976) has stated that the expectations and reactions a customer brings to a sales situation are highly dependent on the person´s individual characteristics. These expaectations and reactions to salesperson behavior shape the resulting satisfaction with the salesperson, which consequently impacts the customer´s likelihood of engaging in positive WOM (Homburg, et al., 2011). This led to the decision to include empathy as another factor that should be controlled for in the analysis.

The Merriam-Webster dictionary defines empathy as "*the action of understanding, being aware of, being sensitive to, and vicariously experiencing the feelings, thoughts, and experience of another of either the past or present without having the feelings, thoughts, and experience fully*

communicated in an objectively explicit manner" (Merriam-Webster, kein Datum). Many authors argue, though, that there is no commonly accepted definition of the concept of empathy (Reniers, et al., 2011; Konrath, et al., 2011).

Something that is widely agreed upon, is the finding that empathy consists of two components, affective and cognitive empathy (Decety & Jackson, 2004; Eisenberg & Eggum, 2009). Affective empathy refers to a person´s ability to recognize another person´s emotion based on visual and auditive cues such as body language, facial expressions, or voice intonations. These observations trigger an emotional response in the observing person herself (Davis, 1983). Affective empathy furthermore refers to the ability to be sensitive to and experience another person´s feelings by emotional contagion (Reniers, et al., 2011). Cognitive empathy on the other hand stands for actively taking in the other person´s perspective and therefore imagining what the other must feel like (Reniers, et al., 2011).

2.4.3. Ulterior motive

The ulterior motives that a customer suspects a salesperson to have strongly impact the attitude this customer has towards this salesperson, which then translates into their behavioral reactions such as positive WOM (Homburg, et al., 2011), which is why this variable has been tested for and included as a control variable as well in this study.

A salesperson that a customer suspects to have ulterior motives will be met with significantly more negative persuasion inference by the customer. This has been shown by Campbell & Kirmani in 2000. A few years later DeCarlo (2005) studied the effects of salesperson ulterior motives on customer suspicion more extensively.

When a customer suspects ulterior motives in a salesperson, it means that this person questions the underlying motives of the salesperson and her authenticity (Hilton, et al., 1993). This can manifest in the customer´s belief that the salesperson wants to sell something at any cost without

having the customer´s best interest in mind or looking for the best suited solution for her problem (Campbell & Kirmani, 2000). Suspicious customers then have a tendency to create alternative explanations for the salesperon´s behavior, which can be negative as well (Fein, et al., 1990), whereas unsuspicious customers usually believe the salesperson´s actions and words and that they reflect this person´s true personality (Jones & Davis, 1965).

DeCarlo (2005) found that a perceived ulterior motive of the salesperson in connection with how strong the message that they use negatively impacts the customer´s attitude towards this salesperson and their willingness to buy from them.

3. Research model & hypotheses

In the following chapter the research model will be introduced, and the hypotheses of the study as well as their development will be explained.

3.1. Research Model

The guiding research questions of this thesis are as mentioned earlier:

1. *How are salespeople being stereotyped in terms of warmth, competence, and morality?*
2. *How do these stereotypes translate into the customers behavioral responses towards them in form of perceived customer orientation of the salesperson and finally positive word-of-mouth?*
3. *Is the mediated link between stereotypes and consumer responses shaped by the customer type?*

These research questions lead to the conceptual model proposed as following.

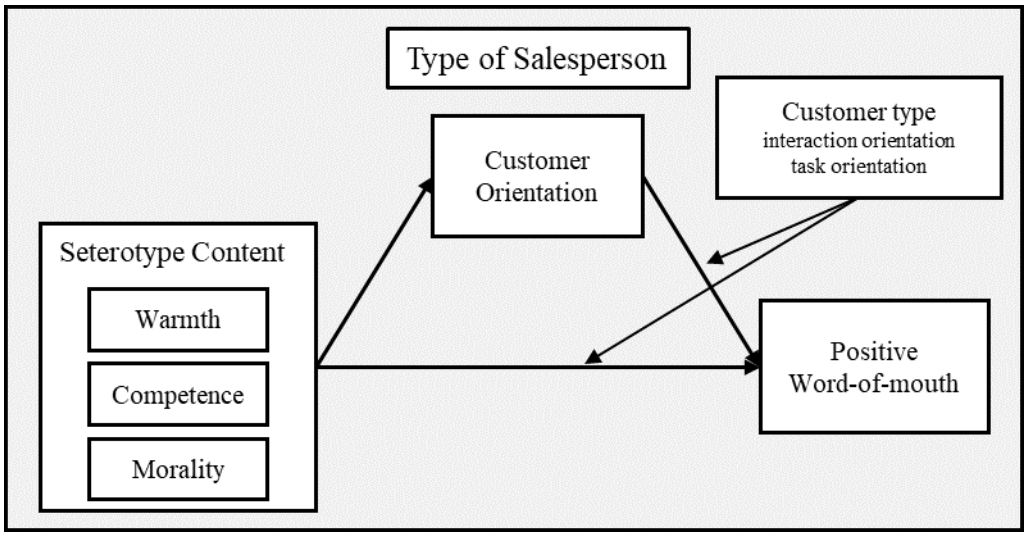

Figure 4: Conceptual model

The proposed model can be understood as one, that each type of salesperson that is being examined in this study is running through. It links the salespeople stereotypes with the behavioral outcome

of the customers in form of positive WOM. This link is proposed to be present both directly and indirectly through mediation by the perceived customer orientation. The customer type is included as a moderating factor influencing the relationship between customer orientation and WOM and between stereotypes and WOM.

At the beginning the warmth and the competence dimension, as well as the perceived morality of the salesperson type is being determined and analyzed. The warmth and competence dimensions have been taken from Fiske, et al. (2002) and morality dimension has been adopted from Kirmani et al. (2017). Then the customer orientation of the salesperson, as perceived by the customer, and its mediating abilities between the stereotype content dimensions and the behavioral outcome is being analyzed. Following this, the behavioral outcomes in the form of positive WOM that the stereotype content dimensions elicit either directly or mediated by the customer orientation are investigated.

Additionally the influence a moderating factor, the customer type, firstly on the relationship between the perceived customer orientation and positive WOM, and secondly between the stereotype content and positive WOM is being inspected.

3.2. Hypotheses Development

The conceptual model that underlies this study leads to several research hypotheses, which will be presented in this chapter. They will be explained and illustrated following the example of Hekman, et al. (2010). Consequently there will be in-depth illustrations of certain paths of the conceptual model, which has been introduced in the previous chapter in order to make the connections, that underlie the induvidual groups of hypotheses, more visible and understandable.

3.2.1. Stereotype's influence on behavior

The first group of hypotheses (H_{1a} - H_{1c}) focuses on the connection between warmth and competence (Fiske, et al., 2002), and morality (Leach, et al., 2007) and the proposed behavioral outcome in the form of positive WOM. It is assumed that these three stereotype content dimensions significantly influence the likelihood of a person to engage in positive WOM.

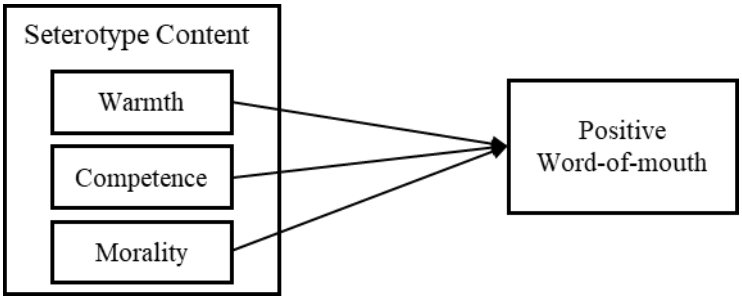

Figure 5: Stereotype content & WOM

This relationship mainly stems from the BIAS map, which was firstly introduced by Cuddy, et al. in 2007 and has been explained earlier in this study. This concept proposes that high levels of perceived warmth and competence lead to facilitating behavior of the person, who is perceiving these stereotype traits. The opposite of this kind of behavior is harm, which would be elicited by low levels of perceived warmth and competence. WOM (Homburg, et al., 2011) is an action aimed at helping and promoting the person or object which it is about and can therefore be understood as a form of facilitating and cooperating behavior, more specifically active facilitation, which is especially related to the warmth dimension. High levels of competence in the stereotype content lead to passive facilitation, which usually manifests itself in cooperation (Cuddy, et al., 2007). Cooperating behavior in this case can be found in positive attitude towards the salesperson or purchasing likelihood. The third stereotype content dimension, morality, has been found to positively influence how people evaluate and react to service providers (Kirmani, et al., 2017; Leach, et al., 2007), which can be seen as a kind of salesperson. A positive evaluation of the salesperson by the customer translates into a positive attitude towards this salesperson which

consequently elicits an increase of customer satisfaction and therefore the likelihood to engage in positive WOM (Homburg, et al., 2011). Therefore the perceived morality of a salesperson is also assumed to increase positive WOM.

Consequently the concluding hypotheses are the following:

H_{1a}: The higher the warmth dimension, the higher the positive WOM.

H_{1b}: The higher the competence dimension, the higher the positive WOM.

H_{1c}: The higher the morality dimension, the higher the positive WOM.

3.2.2. Stereotype´s influence on customer orientation

The second category of hypotheses (H_{2a} – H_{2c}) looks at the relationship between the stereotype content dimensions warmth, competence (Fiske, et al., 2002), and morality (Leach, et al., 2007) and perceived customer orientation (Thomas, et al., 2001).

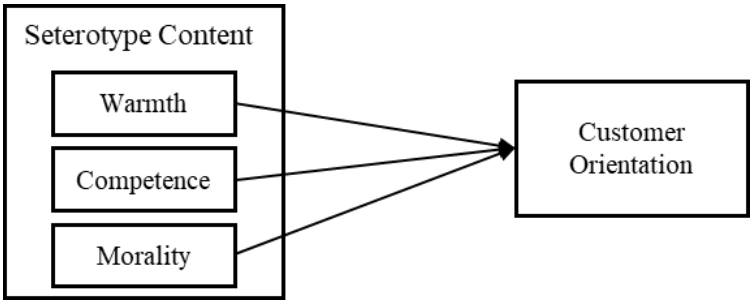

Figure 6: Stereotype content & customer orientation

Customer orientation describes a kind of selling behavior that aims to put the customer and her needs and problems in the center and focuses on meeting these needs and solving the problems as opposed to trying to sell as much as possible (Saxe & Weitz, 1982). The attributes that are associated with the warmth / competence / morality dimensions (good natured, nice / competent intelligent / sincere trustworthy) and that have also been used to measure these variables in the study are very similar to the behavioral traits that a customer-oriented salesperson depicts. This kind of salesperson would want the best for the customer (→ warmth), would find intelligent solutions that work (→ competence), and would be sincere in her intentions (→ morality) (Saxe

& Weitz, 1982; Fiske, et al., 2002; Leach, et al., 2007). Following these commonalities, it is suspected, that perceived warmth, competence, and morality of the salesperson leads to higher levels of perceived customer orientation.

The resulting hypotheses are the following:

H_{2a}: The higher the warmth dimension, the higher the perceived customer orientation.

H_{2b}: The higher the competence dimension, the higher the perceived customer orientation.

H_{2c}: The higher the morality dimension, the higher the perceived customer orientation.

3.2.3. Customer orientation´s mediation of stereotype & behavior

The third group of hypotheses (H_{3a} – H_{3c}) investigates the proposed mediating effect of customer orientation of the relationship between the stereotype content and the behavioral outcome WOM.

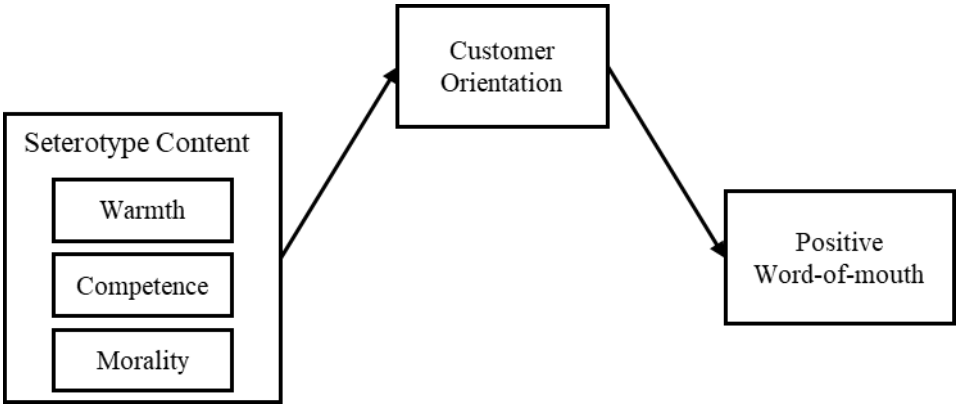

Figure 7: Customer orientation´s mediation of stereotype content & WOM

A salesperson´s customer orientation, as mentioned earlier, has been defined as the type of selling behavior, that focuses on the customer and on solving the customer´s problems best (Saxe & Weitz, 1982). Counterpart to this is sales-oriented selling, where the focus lies mainly on increasing sales volume (Saxe & Weitz, 1982; Thomas, et al., 2001; Kadic-Maglajlic, et al., 2017). Customer orientation itself is a behavioral element (Saxe & Weitz, 1982), whereas the stereotypes that the customers hold are influencing the acceptance of behaviors (Fiske, 1998). It has been widely

accepted, that customer orientation has positive effects on salespeople behavior (Saxe & Weitz, 1982; Homburg, et al., 2011; Kadic-Maglajlic, et al., 2017). In this study however, it is proposed that the effectiveness and the perception of this behavior in form of customer orientation is influenced by stereotypes that the customers hold about the salesperson and that it has subsequent effects on customer behavior which ultimately translates into positive WOM.

The level of customer orientation of a salesperson, that the customer perceives, is something positive and possibly increasing the image of the salesperson in the eyes of the customer. It has been shown that customer orientation of a company's sales personnel increases the customers loyalty towards the company, resulting in positive WOM amongst other behavioral outcomes (Homburg, et al., 2011). The positive evaluation of a customer-orientated salesperson by the customers themselves reflects the positive evaluation of people in terms of stereotype content in form of warmth, competence (Fiske, et al., 2002), and morality (Kirmani, et al., 2017).

Warmth dimensions lead to active facilitation and competence dimensions lead to passive facilitation by the observer (Cuddy, et al., 2007) – in this case the customer. Since morality traits can be treated like warmth traits, due to their similarity (Kirmani, et al., 2017), they lead to active facilitation as well according to Cuddy et al. (2007). Positive WOM has been classified under customer loyalty behavior by Homburg et al. (2011) which can also be explained as a form of facilitating behavior. This similarity of the SCM and Homburg´s model brings about the introduced relationship shown in figure 7.

The proposed connection also lies within the content of the stereotype dimensions and the salesperson´s customer orientation. Warmth resp. morality traits are reflected in several of the customer orientation dimensions, such as satisfying the customer, discussing their needs, and having the customers best interest in mind etc. (Saxe & Weitz, 1982). These characteristics also fall in line with the non-competitive description of the warmth dimension and its core idea: "What intent does this person have?" (Fiske, et al., 2002). Morality traits especially have been shown to

be positively correlated with customer oriented selling behavior by customers (Kadic-Maglajlic, et al., 2019).

Competence dimensions, however, are also reflected in several of the characteristics of a customer-oriented salesperson, such as helping the customer reach her goals, answering questions as correctly as possible, or solving the customers problem, which also fall in line with the high-status description of the competence dimension, and its core idea: “Is this person capable to carry out its intent?” (Fiske, et al., 2002).

Customer orientation of the salesperson has consequently been chosen as the factor mediating the effects between warmth, competence, and morality on the customers behavioral outcome in form of positive WOM.

The hypotheses that arise from the proposed connection are the following:

H_{3a}: Perceived customer orientation mediates the effect between warmth and positive WOM.

H_{3b}: Perceived customer orientation mediates the effect between competence and positive WOM.

H_{3c}: Perceived customer orientation mediates the effect between morality and positive WOM.

3.2.4. Customer orientation´s influence on behavior

The fourth hypothesis (H_4) of this study examines the direct relationship between perceived customer orientation of the salesperson and positive WOM of the customer.

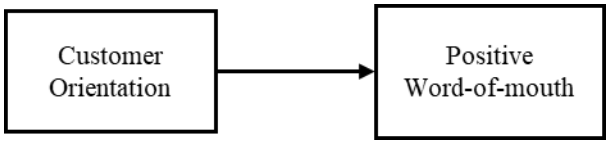

Figure 8: Customer orientation & WOM

As mentioned before, it has been found, that customer orientation leads to increased customer loyalty. Following the example of Homburg et al. (2011), positive WOM has been chosen as the

behavioral outcome of choice for this study to examine the positive effects of customer oriented selling. Furthermore, the study of Homburg et al. (2011) was focused on B2B salespeople and their customers in business context and so the aim in this study is also to investigate whether the influence of customer orientation on positive WOM is true in a B2C context as well.

The subsequent hypothesis for this proposed relationship is the following:

H_4: The higher the level of perceived customer orientation the higher the positive WOM.

3.2.5. Customer type´s moderating effects

The last group of hypotheses (H_{5a} – H_{5h}) of this study examines the proposed moderating effects of the customer type on the relationships between the stereotype content dimensions warmth, competence, and morality and positive WOM, as well as the relationship between customer orientation and positive WOM.

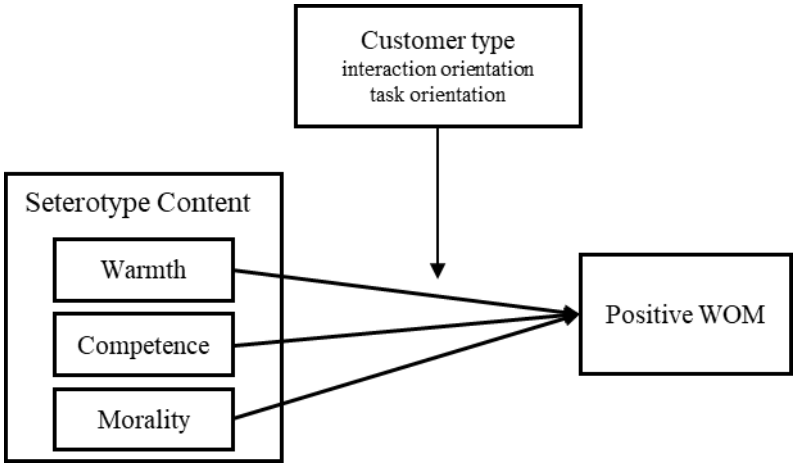

Figure 9: Customer type´s moderation of stereotype content & WOM

The customer type, that a person belongs to, can be either interaction or task oriented, according to Homburg et al. (2011). Interaction oriented customers enjoy a personal aspect in their interaction with salespeople, whereas task oriented people seek to keep the sales interactions efficient and short as possible (Fournier, et al., 1998).

It was shown that the customer type can influence the effectiveness of the influence of customer orientation on customer loyalty (Homburg, et al., 2011) and customer orientation, as explained earlier, refers to a behavioral aspect of the salesperson, who engages in customer oriented selling. The goal of this study is to investigate, whether the influence of the stereotype content dimensions warmth, competence, and morality is universally applicable or if they are effected by behavioral characteristics of the customer such as the customer type.

Since competence is a dimension that reflects intelligence, capability and status (Fiske, et al., 2002) and task-oriented customers prefer their sales interactions to be effiecient and goal-oriented (Homburg, et al., 2011), a complementary relationship between these two is assumed. Conversely, interaction-oriented customers are not expedted to be positively impacted by salespeople showing these characterictics, as they do not reflect their desire to socialize with the salesperson (Williams & Spiro, 1985).

The warmth dimension on the other hand reflects traits such as friendly, non-competitive, and warm (Fiske, et al., 2002), which is assumed to be well-suited for interaction-oriented customers, who enjoy lots of personal elements in their sales interactions (Homburg, et al., 2011). On the opposite, task-oriented customers are not expected to be pleased by salespeople that show a lot of "warmth" characteristics, as those are none of the qulities they look for in an efficient and goal-oriented sales interaction (Homburg, et al., 2011).

Morality dimensions are usually strongly correlated with warmth traits, some of them even fall into the category warm and moral (e.g., humble, grateful, kind) (Goodwin, et al., 2014) and are therefore treated equally in this model and the corresponding hypotheses, in that interaction orientation and morality are complementary to each other and task orientation and morality are not complementary. Additional backing for this arguement is the fact that morality traits are positively associated with customer oriented behavior by customers (Kadic-Maglajlic, et al., 2019) which has been shown to be moderated by the customer types (Homburg, et al., 2011).

The corresponding hypotheses are the following:

H_{5a}: Interaction orientation positively moderates the relationship between warmth and positive WOM.

H_{5b}: Interaction orientation negatively moderates the relationship between competence and positive WOM.

H_{5c}: Interaction orientation positively moderates the relationship between morality and positive WOM.

H_{5d}: Task orientation negatively moderates the relationship between warmth and positive WOM.

H_{5e}: Task orientation positively moderates the relationship between competence and positive WOM.

H_{5f}: Task orientation negatively moderates the relationship between morality and positive WOM.

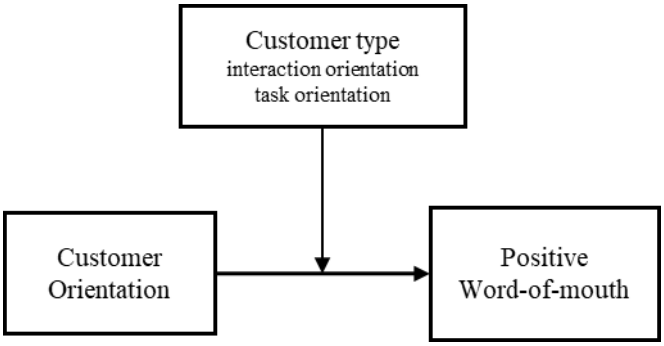

Figure 10: Customer type´s moderation of customer orientation & WOM

The influence of the customer type on the effectiveness of customer orientation of the salesperson on behavioral outcomes such as positive WOM has been investigated by Homburg et al. (2011). The impact the customer oriented behavior has on customer loyalty, which WOM is a part of, is dependent on many surrounding factors, such as the individual characteristics of the customer (Sheth, 1976) and the characteristics of the product (Homburg, et al., 2011). The customer type, which manifests in the customer´s communication style, influences the expectations a customer has towards a sales interaction and the behavior this customer will depict, which ultimately

influences the possibility of positive WOM (Sheth, 1976). Homburg et al. (2011) have studied this effect in a B2B context. The present study however was conducted in a B2C context and aims to clarify the question whether the effectiveness of customer orientation on positive WOM in a B2C context is universally true or if it is also subject to the effects of the customer type. This question is of special interest in a B2C context as salespeople are confronted with large numbers of customers every day and have only a very limited or no time to get to know these customers. The consequence is that salespeople are at the mercy of the customers relatively easily, because they can hardly react to every new personality and preference optimally (Verbeke, et al., 2011). This makes it especially important to investigate whether customer-oriented selling is influenced by the customer type in a B2C context.

The customer oriented behavior, as depicted in the questionnair in this study, taken from Thomas et al. (2001) describes behaviors that correlate both with interaction and with task oriented customer type behavior preferences. Hence a positive moderation of the relationship between customer orientation and WOM is expected by interaction orientation and task orientation.

The correspoding hypotheses are the following:

H_{5g}: Interaction orientation positively moderates the effect on the relationship between customer orientation and positive WOM.

H_{5h}: Task orientation positively moderates effect on the relationship between customer orientation and positive WOM.

4. Methodology

The following chapter is dedicated to outline the empirical methods and procedures that have been utilized to gather information and consequently answer the underlying research questions of this study.

4.1. Research Design

4.1.1. Pretest

Prior to the start of the main empirical study of this thesis, a pre-test has been conducted in order to find out if there is an indication that there in fact are stereotypes about salespeople in terms of warmth and competence and if they do vary across different kinds of salespeople.
The pre-test has been conducted using a questionnaire that was handed out to about 30 people who physically filled it out.

4.1.2. Main questionnaire

During the preparation and planning of this thesis, it has been chosen to collect primary data in order to answer the research questions that have been introduced earlier and to consequently close the existing research gap. Primary data can be defined as "*data that are collected for the specific research problem at hand using procedures that fit the research problem best*" (Hox & Boeije, 2005, p. 593). Even though the use of secondary data, which is data that has been gathered by someone else and is being repurposed, has been established as a common technique in marketing research due to its availability and its low monetary cost (Craig & Douglas, 2003), the use of primary data for this study has been found feasible.

For the purpose of this study, non-experimental, quantitative survey research has been the method of choice. The nature of the variables that are to be investigated has not been found to require qualitative research, for example in the form of personal interviews. The survey is carried out using the web-based program Qualtrics (www.qualtrics.com). This tool allows to create an online questionnaire and generates a link that can be sent to respondents, who can fill out the questionnaire on any online device. According to Zikmund & Babin (2015) an online survey is a very convenient method for the collection of data online, as it reduces firstly monetary and timely costs that a physical survey would require, and secondly possible systematic errors that often go along with the transformation of written data into digital data.

The scales that were used to measure the emotions, attitudes and behavioral responses of the respondents were taken from various different researchers. The list of the scales used as well as their items and sources can be seen in table 3.

Scale	Item - English	Item – German	Source
warmth	As viewed by society, how . . . are members of this group? [tolerant, warm, good natured, sincere* / nice]	Wie … sind Mitglieder dieser sozialen Gruppe aus Sicht der Gesellschaft? [tolerant, warmherzig, gutmütig, aufrichtig* / nett]	(Fiske, et al., 2002)
competence	As viewed by society, how . . . are members of this group? [competent, confident, independent, competitive, intelligent]	Wie … sind Mitglieder dieser sozialen Gruppe aus Sicht der Gesellschaft? [kompetent, selbstbewusst, unabhängig, konkurrierend, intelligent]	
	manipulative	manipulativ	(Lee, et al., 2007)
	pushy	aufdringlich	
morality	honest	ehrlich	(Leach, et al., 2007)
	sincere	aufrichtig	
	trustworthy	vertrauenswürdig	
Positive WOM	We recommend […] to other people (e.g., customers, business partners, friends)	Wir werden […] anderen Personen weiterempfehlen (z.B. Kunden, Geschäftspartner, Freunde)	(Homburg, et al., 2011)
	We say positive things about […] to other people.	Wir sagen positive Dinge über […] zu anderen Personen.	
attitude	My overall impression of salespeople (B2C) is [bad–good]?	Meine allgemeine Einstellung gegenüber Verkaufspersonen (B2C) ist [schlecht – gut]	(DeCarlo, 2005)
Customer orientation	… tries to figure out the customer`s needs. … has the customer´s best interest in mind. … takes a problem-solving approach in selling products or services to the customer. … recommends products or services that are best suited to solving the customer´s problem. … tries to find out which kinds of products or services would be most helpful to the customer.	… versucht, die Bedürfnisse vom Kunden herauszufinden. … die besten Interessen vom Kunden im Auge gehabt. … einen Problemlösungsansatz für den Kunden dargelegt. … die besten Produkt- / Dienstleistungsoptionen vorgeschlagen, um die Probleme des Kunden zu lösen. … versucht herauszufinden, welche Arten von Produkten oder Dienstleistungen für den Kunden am hilfreichsten wären.	(Thomas, et al., 2001)
Product involvement	For me […] is of concern to me / relevant / valuable /	[…] spielt eine Rolle für mich / ist relevant / ist wertvoll / ist interessant / ist essenziell	(Zaichkowsky, 1985)

	boring / essential		
Customer type: interaction orientation	In sales conversations, I like to talk about private issues with salespeople. In sales conversations, I like to establish a personal relationship with salespeople. I am interested in the personal situation of a salesperson.	In Verkaufsgesprächen spreche ich gerne über private Themen mit Verkäufern. In Verkaufsgesprächen baue ich gerne eine persönliche Beziehung zu Verkäufern auf. Ich interessiere mich für die persönliche Situation eines Verkäufers.	(Homburg, et al., 2011)
Customer type: task orientation	I make sales interactions as efficient as possible. In sales conversations, I focus on the task at hand. In sales conversations, I am highly goal-oriented. I like to finish sales conversations as early as possible.	Ich mag Verkaufsinteraktionen so effizient wie möglich. In Verkaufsgesprächen konzentriere ich mich auf die anstehende Aufgabe. In Verkaufsgesprächen bin ich sehr zielorientiert. Ich beende Verkaufsgespräche gerne so früh wie möglich.	
Ulterior motive	[...] had an ulterior motive for her behavior. [...]suggested the selection of products to Mr. Gruber only to sell something. [...]tried to persuade Mr. Gruber.	[…] hatte einen Hintergedanken für ihr Verhalten. […]schlug Herrn Gruber die Auswahl an Produkten nur vor, um etwas zu verkaufen. […]versuchte, Herrn Gruber zu überreden.	(DeCarlo, 2005)
Empathy: perspective taking	I try to look at everybody's side of a disagreement before I make a decision. When I'm upset at someone, I usually try to "put myself in his shoes" for a while. I believe that there are two sides to every question and try to look at them both.	In Auseinandersetzungen versuche ich die Seiten aller Beteiligten zu betrachten, bevor ich Entscheidungen treffe. Wenn ich böse auf jemanden bin, versuche ich normalerweise mich in dessen Situation zu versetzen. Ich glaube, dass jede Angelegenheit zwei Seiten hat und versuche immer beide zu betrachten.	(Davis, 1983)
Empathy: empathic concern	I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person. I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me.	Ich würde mich selbst als einen weichherzigen Menschen beschreiben. Ich habe oft Sorgen und Mitgefühl gegenüber Menschen, denen es weniger gut geht als mir.	
Empathy: emotional contagion	I become nervous if others around me are nervous. I find that I can remain cool in spite of the excitement around me. I tend to remain calm even though those around me are not.	Ich werde nervös, wenn andere um mich herum nervös sind. Ich bleibe meist entspannt, auch wenn es andere um mich herum nicht sind. Ich kann trotz Aufregung um mich herum ruhig bleiben.	

Table 3: Measurement items

As already mentioned earlier in this study, an array of different kinds of salespeople were included in the questionnaire to assure variance and enable generalizability of the outcomes. The following table lists the examined types of B2C salespeople and their German translation, which was used in the questionnaire. These types were found to be and describes as typical kinds of salespeople in a B2C context as seen by consumers in a study of the Chair of International Marketing at the University of Vienna.

Types of salespeople	German translation
Bank financial advisers	Finanzberater:in in der Bank
Real estate agents	Immobilienmakler:in
Luxury retail salespeople (e.g., watches, jewelry)	Verkäufer:in von Luxusgütern (z.B. hochpreisige Uhren, Schmuck)
Car dealers	Autoverkäufer:in
Augustin newspaper sellers	Augustin Verkäufer:in
Pharmacists	Apotheker:in
TV salespeople	Verkäufer:in im Teleshopping
Regular retail salespeople (e.g., clothes, shoes)	Verkäufer:in im Einzelhandel (z.B. Kleidung, Schuhe)
Non-profit and charity salespeople	Non-Profit und Charity Verkäufer:in (z.B. Greenpeace, Amnesty International)
Technical retail salespeople (e.g., computers, phones, home appliances)	Verkäufer:in im technischen Einzelhandel (z.B. Computer, Mobiltelefone, Haushaltsgeräte)
Insurance salespeople	Versicherungsverkäufer:in
Travel agents	Reisebüroangestellte:r

Table 4: Examined types of B2C salespeople

In order to include the different kinds of salespeople, a pre-existing already tested scenario was used, which was altered only slightly for each type of salesperson, so that responses remain comparable. For each type, a female and a male version of the scenario was created in order to avoid gender bias in the answers of the probands. The scenario describes a salesperson that behaves in a manner that is typical for customer-oriented selling (trying to find the best solution for the customer, offering different product / service options, trying to solve the customer´s problem etc.)

as described earlier (Saxe & Weitz, 1982; Homburg, et al., 2011). The setting of the scenario is a shop, where the customer meets the salesperson and describes what they are looking for. The salesperson starts by asking more in order to gain further information about the customer´s problem and then provides the customer with different options as well as information and advantages and disadvantages to all of them. The customer finally achieves to find the desired product / service and leaves the shop satisfied. The scenario was slightly altered in terms of the location and sales encounter for scenarios where it was necessary (Augustin sellers, TV salespeople, and non-profit and charity salespeople), however the key aspects of the salesperson´s behavior remained the same, as well as the successful undertaking of the customer.

Each respondent was randomly assigned to one of the different salesperson scenarios. It was preset in Qualtrics that randomization was carried out with equal distribution of the respondents to the different scenarios / salespeople, so that each scenario / salesperson type was equally as often displayed.

The beginning of the questionnaire contained questions about salespeople in general in regard to their perceived warmth, competence, and morality. After that first part, respondents were asked to read the above-mentioned CO scenario that they were assigned to and then answer questions specifically about this kind of salesperson. These questions, however, were the same for all the different groups, just the type of salespeople was different. After that, respondents were asked questions about their personal involvement with the kind of product that this salesperson sells. After that a block of personal questions was added to find out what customer type the respondents were and to measure the respondent's individual level of empathy. The questionnaire concluded with demographic questions containing age, gender, level of education country of residence, and monthly income. The full questionnaire can be found in the appendix.

4.1.3. Between-subject design

Since the aim of this study is to find out, what stereotypes customers hold about salespeople and how these stereotypes influence these customers on a personal level, a between-subject design was the method of choice. This kind of empirical research design, which is also called independent-group design, assigns each respondent to one specific condition, so that all respondents are equally distributed among different conditions (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010). Respondents were randomly assigned to each of the 24 groups, coming from 12 different types of salespeople each of them in a male and a female version. Randomized allocation of the respondents to the different groups is important to be able to compare outcomes without the risk of having too much sampling bias in the data (Charness, et al., 2011). The main advantage of the between-subject design is, that there are no carry-over effects and the risk of fatigue of the respondents is reduced, as they are not exposed to several conditions (Field, 2013).

4.2. Sample

4.2.1. Sampling procedure

As mentioned earlier, the data was collected using Qualtrics. An anonymized link to the online questionnaire was therefore used to distribute the survey, which enabled a time and cost-effective solution of collecting the data. The sample was partially a convenience and partially a snowball sample. Convenience sampling (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010) refers to samples that are drawn without regard to equal probability of selection of the individuals in the target population. There is usually a level of personal judgement involved in the selection process of the respondents. In this case the author distributed the anonymized link to the online surveys among family, friends and coworkers. These respondents then subsequently distributed the link among their own friends and families, which constitutes this sampling method to be a snowball sample as well (Iacobucci

& Churchill, 2010). About 200 responses were collected using these methods. Another 400 respondents were contacted via Clickworker (clickworker.de), which is a service were researchers can place an order of however many respondents they need for their study and pay said respondents a small fee via the Clickworker platform to fill out the survey.

In order to be able to conduct the statistical analysis of the primary data that was collected with Qualtrics, the raw data was downloaded into SPSS.

The raw data, which was downloaded from Qualtrics.com to SPSS, contained a total of 582 responses. Of these responses, cases with a fill-out progress less than 2% were deleted. Those were people, that ended the questionnaire within the first couple of questions. Apart from those, cases, where respondents did not even complete the part about general salespeople stereotypes, were also deleted. After the exclusion of another 4 cases, where respondents evidently did not read the questions or answer them truthfully, for example the first option was chosen on every single question, there were 546 remaining cases, that were concluded in the analysis.

After the exclusion of cases, the data from the different subgroups of different types of salespeople was merged into the same categories of warmth, competence, morality, etc. scales in order to be able to conduct analysis on the basis of these scales containing the outcome values of all different subgroups.

4.2.2. Sample description

Of the 546 respondents, that remained in the sample, women and men were equally represented with 252 (46,2%) of them being female, 273 (50%) male and 2 (0,2%) people who identified as neither female nor male. The missing 19 (3,5%) people were those respondents, that did not fill out the demographic questions of the survey, because they ended it earlier. This case is the same for the missing percentage of respondents in the demographic categories that follow. Respondents were quite equally distributed among all age groups, except for a larger group of people between

25 and 35 and a much smaller group of people above the age of 65. 61 (11,2%) of the respondents were younger than 25, 226 (41,4%) were between 25 and 35, 100 (18,3%) were between 36 and 45, 64 (11,7%) were between 46 and 55, 60 (11%) were between 56 and 65, and 16 (2,9%) were older than 65. Half of the respondents (272 / 49,8%) had an academic degree. 132 (24,2%) people indicated that they have Matura / Abitur, meaning that they have finished secondary school. 79 (14,5%) people said that they have an apprenticeship diploma and 24 (4,4%) people indicated that they have finished vocational school without Matura / Abitur. 11 (2%) of the respondents said that they have finished compulsory school as their highest completed education and 9 (1,6%) people said that they have some other kind of education that does not fall into any of the offered categories. The majority of the respondents (377 / 71,5%) live in Germany, 145 (26,6%) live in Austria, 1 (0,2%) person lives in Switzerland and 4 (0,7%) people live in in other countries (Greece and France). 105 (19,2%) of the respondents indicated that they earn less than 1.000€ gross a month, 174 (31,9%) earned between 1.000€ and 2.500€, 167 (30,6%) earned between 2.500€ and 4.000€ and 78 (14,3%) earned more than 4.000€ a month.

5. Preliminary analysis

In the following chapter, the outcomes of the preliminary analysis, that has been conducted on this study, will be presented, which includes validity and reliability as well as correlation analysis.

5.1.1. Validity & reliability

Preliminary analysis such as testing the level of validity and reliability of the data in fundamental. The purpose of these procedures is to keep the measurement error as low as possible (Field, 2013). Validity indicates if an instrument, such as the questionnaire in this study, measures the effects that it is supposed to measure. Reliability is a precondition event to validity. It measures the consistency of the instrument and shows if it is stable across different measures and conditions (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010). The measure that is used the most to test the reliability of an instruments scales is Cronbach´s Alpha. This test measures both variance within the items and covariance between the items of the instrument. Cronbach´s Alpha lies on a scale between 0 and 1, with 1 being the highest level of reliability and 0.8 being considered the best outcome. Values larger or equal to 0.7, however, are considered acceptable (Field, 2013).

The level of reliability of the following scales was tested in SPSS using Cronbach´s Alpha: warmth (tolerant, warm, good natured, sincere / nice); competence (competent, confident, independent, competitive, intelligent); morality (honest, sincere, trustworthy); attitude (towards the salesperson: good – bad, favorable – unfavorable, satisfactory – unsatisfactory); experience (last experience with this kind of salesperson: successful, frustrating, exceeded expectations, cheerful); purchase intention (likelihood to purchase, willingness to buy); positive WOM (recommend; say positive things); satisfaction with (with interaction with salesperson in the scenario: would be happy about it; would like it); customer orientation (of the salesperson: tried to find out the customer´s needs; had the customer´s best interests in mind; offered a problem solution for the customer; offered the

best product / service options to solve the customer´s problem; tried to find out, which products / services would be most helpful for the customer); ulterior motive (of the salesperson: had an ulterior motive; only presented the products / services to the customer to sell something; tried to talk the customer into something); product involvement (of the respondent; product / service is : not important – important; doesn´t play a role – plays a role; not meaningful – meaningful); customer orientation (interaction orientation: like to speak about private topics with salesperson; like to build personal relationship with salesperson; am interested in personal situation of salesperson; shopping satisfies the curiosity; shopping offers new experiences; like to go shopping to observe other people; task orientation: like sales interactions as efficient as possible; focus on the task at hand; am highly goal-oriented; like to finish sales conversations as early as possible; get a real "high" from shopping [reverse coded]; feel like discovering new worlds [reverse coded]); empathy (empathic concern [2 items]; emotional contagion [3 items]; perspective taking [3 items]) The following table shows all scales with the abbreviation used for them and their reliability values.

Scale	**Number of items**	**Cronbach´s Alpha**	**Mean**
Warmth (W)	4	0.817	3.129
Competence (C)	4	0.732	3.355
Morality (M)	3	0.893	2.975
Attitude (A)	3	0.886	3.181
Experience (Exp)	4	0.833	3.401
Purchase intention (Pur)	2	0.868	3.744
Positive WOM (WOM)	2	0.837	3.812
Satisfaction (Sat)	2	0.882	3.622
Customer orientation (CO)	5	0.832	4.211
Ulterior motive (UM)	3	0.755	3.380
Product involvement (PI)	3	0.952	3.034
Interaction orientation (IO)	3	0.770	2.21
Task orientation (TO)	4	0.714	3.919
Empathic concern (E1)	2	0.615	3.636
Emotional contagion (E2)	3	0.791	2.561

Perspective taking (E3)	3	0.752	3.726

Table 5: Reliability of multi-item scales

As can be seen in table 5 all scales, except for empathic concern, show reliability values above 0.7, which is a general high level of reliability of the measurement instrument used in the study. The Cronbach´s Alpha value of 0.615 for empathic concern, however, was still accepted, as this scale was only measured by two items. These values allowed it to compute each of the different items into the overall variables for warmth, competence etc. These aggregated variables where then used to determine possible correlations between them.

5.1.2. Correlation analysis

A correlation analysis was conducted in order to find out about possible relationships between the main variables of the model. The test of choice was a bivariate correlation analysis, which examines the relationship between two variables (Field, 2013). Values in this kind of correlation analysis range from -1, indicating a negative correlation, to +1, indicating a positive correlation. A negative correlation indicates that if one variable increases in value, the other one decreases. A positive correlation on the other hand indicates that if one variable increases, the other one decreases. The strength of the relationship ranges from ± 0.3, indicating a strong relationship, to ±0.1, indicating a weak relationship (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010). Since all the variables of the analysis are metric, Pearson´s correlation coefficient was calculated, which is applicable for testing linear relationships. The following table shows the correlation values for the main scales of the study. It can be observed that most of the scales have a significant relationship between them, some of them weak and some of them strong. What stands out, is that the scales “warmth”, “competence”, “morality” and “attitude” have the strongest correlations between them, which was to be expected. Another noticeable outcome is that the scales “ulterior motive” and “emotional contagion” show nearly exclusively negative correlations with the other scales.

		W	C	M	A	Exp	Pur	WoM	Sat	CO	UM	PI	IO	TO	E1	E2	E3
W	Pearson´s r	1															
	Sign.																
C	Pearson´s r	.369	1														
	Sign.	.000															
M	Pearson´s r	.642	.439	1													
	Sign.	.000	.000														
A	Pearson´s r	.517	.374	.592	1												
	Sign.	.000	.000	.000													
Exp	Pearson´s r	.375	.229	.394	.496	1											
	Sign.	.000	.000	.000	.000												
Pur	Pearson´s r	.314	.261	.309	.435	.232	1										
	Sign.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000											
WoM	Pearson´s r	.308	.272	.304	.406	.238	.793	1									
	Sign.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000										
Sat	Pearson´s r	.218	.253	.237	.372	.195	.780	.750	1								
	Sign.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000									
CO	Pearson´s r	.182	.320	.254	.281	.180	.484	.526	.476	1							
	Sign.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000								
UM	Pearson´s r	-.209	-.142	-.285	-.300	-.158	-.326	-.298	-.340	-.258	1						
	Sign.	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000							
PI	Pearson´s r	.087	.136	.174	.268	.044	.259	.285	.325	.258	-.174	1					
	Sign.	.046	.002	.000	.000	.317	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000						
IO	Pearson´s r	.089	.088	.059	.105	.065	.164	.105	.175	.003	-.048	.034	1				
	Sign.	.041	.043	.172	.016	.133	.000	.016	.000	.949	.267	.433					
TO	Pearson´s r	.023	.054	.015	-.017	.018	.009	.100	.012	.193	.040	.011	-.293	1			
	Sign.	.590	.211	.728	.700	.677	.837	.021	.779	.000	.363	.809	.000				
E1	Pearson´s r	.183	.141	.160	.193	.039	.141	.163	.145	.144	-.040	.104	.102	.106	1		
	Sign.	.000	.001	.000	.000	.368	.001	.000	.001	.001	.354	.017	.019	.015			
E2	Pearson´s r	-.074	-.029	-.044	-.003	-.080	-.094	-.087	-.102	-.124	.072	.045	-.013	-.142	.064	1	
	Sign.	.091	.500	.317	.944	.065	.031	.045	.019	.004	.098	.304	.763	.001	.140		
E3	Pearson´s r	.182	.155	.154	.148	.099	.166	.207	.167	.243	-.098	.081	.027	.246	.429	-.275	1
	Sign.	.000	.000	.000	.001	.023	.000	.000	.000	.000	.025	.063	.538	.000	.000	.000	

Table 6: Correlation analysis

6. Main outcomes

The following chapter presents the outcomes of the main statistical tests that have been conducted in order to analyze the data gathered in this study and to answer the research questions and the corresponding hypotheses. Firstly, the statistical assumptions, that must be fulfilled to engage in further statistical analysis will be investigated. Secondly, the statistical tests that have been performed will be explained and the results will be elaborated on.

6.1. Statistical assumptions

In order to successfully perform statistical tests, it is fundamental to first test the key assumptions of the tests of choice. In the case of the present study, linear regression analyses will be applied, both simple regressions with one independent and one dependent variable, and multiple regressions with two or more independent variables and one dependent variable. These kinds of analyses firstly require the independent and dependent variables to be metric, which in this case is true. Secondly, the independent variables must show non-zero variance, which means that their values vary, which is also true for the variables in this study (Field, 2013). Furthermore, a multiple linear regression analysis requires the testing of the multicollinearity, autocorrelation, and heteroscedasticity of the variables (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010).

6.1.1. Multicollinearity

The assumption of multicollinearity of the variables states that the predictor variables of the model may not be strongly corelating among each other (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010). Neither a perfect linear relationship, nor a high correlation between the independent variables should be present, otherwise the β-values would be less trustworthy. This would make it hard to point out which one of the predictor variables is responsible for the outcomes and effects on the dependent variable(s)

and one of them may therefore be redeemed redundant (Field, 2013). There are several ways to test for multicollinearity of the predictor variables. Firstly, the correlations of the independent variables in the correlation matrix can be observed. Values above 0.7-0.8 are considered problematic (Field, 2013). In the present case none of the independent variables – warmth, competence, and morality – show a correlation coefficient higher than 0.7 and thus the prerequisite of non-multicollinearity was met. A second possibility to test for non-multicollinearity is by calculating the variance inflation factor (VIF), where a value above 10 is problematic, and the tolerance statistics, its reciprocal value, which becomes problematic below 0.2 (Field, 2013). As depicted in the table below, none of the thresholds have been exceeded in this is case, which further confirms the non-existence of multicollinearity between the predictor variables.

		Tolerance	**VIF**
	Warmth	.582	1.719
	Competence	.796	1.257
	Morality	.541	1.849

Table 7: Multicollinearity statistics

6.1.2. Autocorrelation

Autocorrelation refers to the correlation between the residuals of the independent variables. In order to successfully run a multiple regression analysis, it is important, that there is no such correlation between the predictor variables. The Durbin-Watson-test is a method, that can be applied to calculate the autocorrelation of the variables. The values of this test range from 0 to 4, with values around 2 being considered acceptable. Values below 1 or above 3 are considered not acceptable, since they suggest a positive or a negative correlation between residuals (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010). The values in the table below confirm the non-existence of autocorrelation between the residuals of the predictor variables.

Independent variables	**Dependent variable**	**Durbin Watson**

Warmth, competence, morality	Positive WOM	1.931
Warmth, competence, morality	Customer Orientation	1.999
Customer orientation	Positive WOM	1.984

Table 8: Autocorrelation statistics

6.1.3. Heteroscedasticity

Heteroscedasticity exists between variables if the variances of their residuals are not equal. Multiple regression analysis, however, needs these variances to be the same, indicating homoscedasticity. When including the standardized residuals and the standardized predicted values of the variables in a graph, the data points should be equally distributed (Field, 2013). Homoscedasticity was met as well for the data in this study.

6.2. Presentation and analysis of the findings

With the intention of finding out if the proposed assumptions and hypotheses of this study are statistically true, multiple linear regressions were performed on the data that was initially collected and preprocessed. In order to do so and to satisfy the nature of the proposed model, which includes a mediating as well as a moderating element, IBM SPSS, and its extension PROCESS by Hayes (2017), was the statistical program of choice. The advantage of PROCESS lies in its ability to capture a model in a holistic way by including moderators and mediators in the initial analysis. This is made possible by several preinstalled model templates that each serve the specific needs of different kinds of models. In the case of this study model 4 (simple mediation model) and 15 (moderated mediation model) were used (Hayes, 2017).

First, it was analyzed if the stereotype content dimensions warmth, competence, and morality have a statistically significant influence on the behavioral outcome positive WOM. Second, it was investigated whether the effects of these stereotype content dimensions on WOM are mediated by the salesperson´s customer orientation. Third, it was examined, if customer the orientation of the

salesperson impacts positive WOM by the customer. Last, it was inspected, whether the customer type, in form of either interaction or task orientation, influences the relationships between the stereotype content dimensions and WOM, and the relationship between customer orientation and WOM. Additionally, descriptive analysis was carried out on the different evaluations of the types of salespeople included in the questionnaire by the respondents in order to visually highlight differences between them.

6.2.1. Multiple linear regression analysis

The moderated mediation between warmth, competence, and morality and the outcome variable positive WOM, the mediator customer orientation and the moderator customer type, was tested using multiple regression analyses with the PROCESS procedure in SPSS (Hayes & Preacher, 2014). Model 4 was used to test the mediation between warmth, competence, and morality and WOM by customer orientation. Model 15 was subsequently used to further include the moderator customer type and its influence on the relationships between warmth, competence, and morality and WOM and between customer orientation and WOM. This made it possible to estimate the relationships with a bias-corrected 90% confidence interval, and 5000 bootstrap resamples.

The outcomes of the hypotheses testing can be seen in table 9.

	DV: word-of-mouth					
					Bootstrapping BC=90% CI	
	β	S.E.	t	p	Lower	Upper
H_{1a}: Warmth (W)	.1288	.0414	3.1081	.002	.0605	.1971
H_{1b}: Competence (C)	-.0133	.0392	-.3405	.7336	-.0779	.0512
H_{1c}: Morality (M)	.0338	.0384	.8804	.379	-.0295	.0971
H_{3a}: W → CO → WOM		.0123			-.02	.0198
H_{3b}: C → CO → WOM		.0131			.0279	.0707
H_{3c}: M → CO → WOM		.0104			-.005	.0295
H_4: Customer orientation (CO)	.256	.0412	6.2145	.0000	.1881	.3239
H_{5a}: WxIO	-.064	.036	-1.764	.078	-.124	-.004

H_{5b}: CxIO	.005	.043	.125	.901	-.066	.076
H_{5c}: MxIO	-.045	.034	-1.32	.188	-.102	.011
H_{5d}: WxTO	.072	.053	1.36	.174	-.015	.159
H_{5e}: CxTO	-.039	.061	-.647	.518	-.139	.061
H_{5f}: MxTO	.052	.057	.9	.369	-.043	.146
H_{5g}: COxIO	.098	.046	2.127	.034	.022	.174
H_{5h}: COxTO	-.052	.058	-.902	.368	-.148	.043
	DV: customer orientation					
H_{2a}: Warmth (W)	-.006	.044	-.131	.896	-.079	.067
H_{2b}: Competence (C)	.189	.041	4.614	.000	.121	.256
H_{2c}: Morality (M)	.045	.041	1.092	.275	-.023	.112

Model summary	R^2	F	p
Model 4	.615	F (9. 517) = 91.653	.000
Model 15	.340	F (13. 510) = 18.138	.000

Notes: BC = Bias corrected; 5000 bootstrapped samples; Significant at $p \leq 0.1$.

Table 9: Moderated mediation analysis

The first part of the regression analysis was focused on finding out, whether the independent variables warmth, competence, and morality have direct, significant influence on the outcome variable WOM. Results show that warmth has statistically significant influence on positive WOM (ß= .14; bias corrected confidence intervals: .06 - .2). Competence and morality however do not show statistically significant influence on the outcome variable. Following this, H_{1a} is supported, which means that higher perceived warmth of a salesperson leads to increased positive WOM by the customer. H_{1b} and H_{1c} however have to be rejected since no statistically significant impact between competence or morality and warmth was found.

The second part analyzed the relationship between the stereotype content variables warmth, competence, and morality and perceived customer orientation. It was found that competence significantly increases perceived customer orientation of the salesperson (ß= .19; BCCI: .12 - .26). Following this, H_{2b} can be accepted, as higher perceived competence of the salesperson leads to

increased levels of perceived customer orientation of said salesperson. Warmth and morality do not show statistically significant p-values, hence H_{2a} and H_{2c} have to be rejected.

The third part of the analysis was devoted to the suspected mediating effect of customer orientation between stereotype content and positive WOM. Findings show that only the relationship between perceived competence of the salesperson and positive WOM is mediated by the salesperson´s customer orientation (C→CO→WOM: BCCI: .03 - .07). In connection with the outcomes about the direct competence - WOM relationship it can be observed that the influence of competence on WOM is explained only by the mediating path through customer orientation, but not directly from warmth to competence. The warmth - WOM and morality - WOM relationships however are not mediated by the salesperson´s customer orientation according to these outcomes. Hence it can be stated that the impact of warmth is better explained by its direct relationship to WOM than via customer orientation. Morality is neither sufficiently explained by the direct connection to WOM neither by the mediating effect of customer orientation. Following these results, H_{3b} can be accepted since there is a statistically significant mediating effect of customer orientation on the effects between competence and WOM. H_{3a} and H_{3c} have to be rejected since no statistically significant mediating effect of customer orientation on the relationships between warmth and WOM, and between morality and WOM could be determined.

The fourth part of the analysis was aimed at finding out if perceived customer orientation of the salesperson impacts positive WOM.

Results show that there is a significantly positive influence of customer orientation on WOM (ß= .26; BCCI: .19 - .32). Hence H_4 is supported, as the relationship has a positive effect, which means that greater perceived customer orientation of the salesperson increases positive WOM by the customer.

The last part of the statistical analysis examined the proposed moderating effect of the customer type on the relationships between stereotype content and WOM and between customer orientation

and WOM. Since the customer type is divided into two different measures, interaction orientation and task orientation, these two variables have been included in the analysis separately.

Firstly, focusing on the customer type interaction orientation, results indicate that there is a statistically significant moderating effect of interaction orientation on the relationship between perceived warmth of the salesperson and positive WOM by the customer (ß= -.06; BCCI: -.12 - -.00). The effect however is not positive, which means that H_{5a} still must be rejected, as interaction orientation does not positively impact the relationship between warmth and WOM but negatively. There is however a significantly positive effect of interaction orientation on the relationship between customer orientation and WOM detectable (ß= .1; BCCI: .02 - .17) so H_{5g} can be accepted, since it could be shown that interaction orientation positively impacts the relationship between customer orientation and positive WOM. No statistically significant moderating effect of interaction orientation on the relationships between competence and WOM and morality and WOM has been determined, which means that the hypotheses H_{5b} and H_{5c} get rejected. Secondly, the moderating abilities of the customer type task orientation on the relationships between competence, warmth, and morality and WOM and between customer orientation and WOM were examined. Results show that task orientation has no statistically significant moderating effect on any of the proposed relationships. Hence, H_{5d}, H_{5e}, H_{5f}, and H_{5h} have to be rejected.

6.2.2. Summary

The following table summarizes the outcomes of the multiple regression analysis that has been carried out to answer the research questions and check the proposed hypotheses of this study.

Hypothesis	**Finding**
H_{1a}: The higher the warmth dimension, the higher the positive WOM.	**sign.** (ß=.129; p=.002)
H_{1b}: The higher the competence dimension, the higher the positive WOM.	**non-sign.**
H_{1c}: The higher the morality dimension, the higher the positive WOM.	**non-sign.**

H_{2a}: The higher the warmth dimension, the higher the perceived customer orientation.	**non-sign.**
H_{2b}: The higher the competence dimension, the higher the perceived customer orientation.	**sign.** (ß=.189; p=.000)
H_{2c}: The higher the morality dimension, the higher the perceived customer orientation.	**non-sign.**
H_{3a}: Perceived customer orientation mediates the effect between warmth and positive WOM.	**non-sign.**
H_{3b}: Perceived customer orientation mediates the effect between competence and positive WOM.	**sign.** (effect=.048)
H_{3c}: Perceived customer orientation mediates the effect between morality and positive WOM.	**non-sign.**
H_{4}: The higher the level of perceived customer orientation the higher the positive WOM.	**sign.** (ß=.256; p=.000)
H_{5a}: Interaction orientation positively moderates the relationship between warmth and positive WOM.	**sign. (but negative)** (ß=-.064; p=.078)
H_{5b}: Interaction orientation negatively moderates the relationship between competence and positive WOM.	**non-sign.**
H_{5c}: Interaction orientation positively moderates the relationship between morality and positive WOM.	**non-sign.**
H_{5d}: Task orientation negatively moderates the relationship between warmth and positive WOM.	**non-sign.**
H_{5e}: Task orientation positively moderates the relationship between competence and positive WOM.	**non-sign.**
H_{5f}: Task orientation negatively moderates the relationship between morality and positive WOM.	**non-sign.**
H_{5g}: Interaction orientation positively moderates the relationship between customer orientation and positive WOM.	**sign.** (ß=.098; p=.034)
H_{5h}: Task orientation positively moderates the relationship between customer orientation and positive WOM.	**non-sign.**

Table 10: Summary of statistical hypotheses & outcomes

6.2.1. Stereotype content differences between salespeople

Since the evaluation of the different types of salespeople, that were included in this study, was very diverse, the arithmetic means of their assessments by the respondents in terms of the stereotype content variables warmth, competence, and morality were calculated and represented in a line chart. Ulterior motive was one of the control variables that showed great impact on salespeople evaluation by the customers and was therefore included in this descriptive analysis as well. The aim was to illustrate how different the various types of B2C salespeople are seen by customers. The exact values of these evaluations can be found in the appendix.

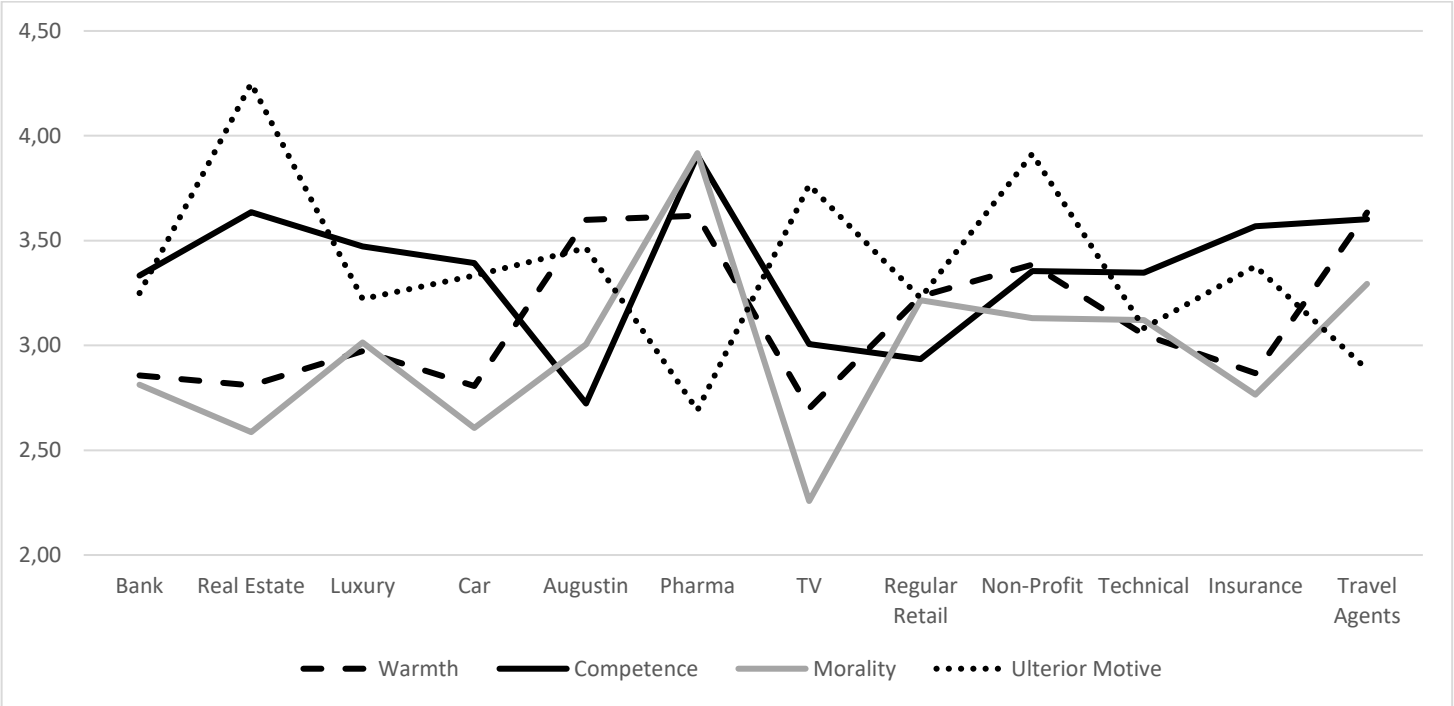

Figure 11: Differences in salespeople evaluations

The evaluations of the different kinds of salespeople are partially in accordance with current literature on salespeople stereotypes, which mostly found stereotypes about salespeople by customers unfavorable (e.g., Arndt, et al., 2018; Lee, et al., 2007; Lee, et al., 2007).

The salespeople were rated on a 5 pt. scale between 1 (lowest rating) and 5 (highest rating) in terms of their warmth, competence, morality and ulterior motive amongst others. One type of salespeople, pharmacists, stood out in a very positive way. Salespeople in pharmacies were rated very high in terms of competence ($\bar{X}$=3.91) and morality ($\bar{X}$=3.92). Their warmth evaluation showed very positive values as well ($\bar{X}$=3.62) and their perceived ulterior motive value was rated quite low ($\bar{X}$=2.69), which means that customers do not suspect pharmacists to hold ulterior motives. TV salespeople on the other hand were rated very poorly with by far the lowest moraliy value ($\bar{X}$=2.26), very low warmth ($\bar{X}$= 2.70) and competence ($\bar{X}$=3.01) ratings, while simultaneously being rated very high in terms of their ulterior motive ($\bar{X}$=3.77). Real estate agents stood out as well, as they showed the highest rating of perceived ulterior motive ($\bar{X}$=4.25) in connection with relatively high competence values (3.64) and poor ratings in terms of warmth ($\bar{X}$=2.81) and morality ($\bar{X}$=2.59). Non-profit salespeople, who could have been suspected to have higher ratings in terms of morality did not show outstandingly high ratings in this area ($\bar{X}$=3.13). They were even rated the second to highest in terms of perceived ulterior motive ($\bar{X}$=3.91). The same applies to Augustin sellers, who were rated even worse than non-profit salespeople in terms of morality ($\bar{X}$=3.00), and the worst in terms of competence ($\bar{X}$=2.72), but were rated much higher in terms of perceived warmth (3.60). The rest of the salespeople types (bank advisers, luxury salespeople, car sellers, regular retail salespeople, technical salespeople, insurance salespeople, and travel agents) were all rated quite similarly with values between 2.5 and 4, with morality and warmth mostly being rated worse than competence and ulterior motive.

These outcomes demonstrate the spectrum of differences of perceived stereotypes among different kinds of salespeople. They further ensure that variability is present in the data, since the analysis was carried out on the aggregated values for each of the variables that were analyzed.

7. Discussion

In conclusion to the past sections of this thesis, the present chapter is committed to discussing to empirical outcomes and embedding them in the current status quo of marketing research in the field of salespeople stereotypes.

The present study is the first one to systematically analyze stereotype content of salespeople by using the well-established Stereotype Content Model (Fiske, et al., 2002). It sheds light on how some of the stereotype content dimensions translate into behavioral responses by the customers.

Various authors in recent years have found salespeople stereotypes to be generally unfavorable in their nature (e.g., Bahhouth, et al., 2014; Arndt, et al., 2018; Lee, et al., 2007), while some have also found exceptions to this rule (e.g., Lee, et al., 2010). The findings of the present study do not generally support the argument, that salespeople are perceived in a negative light by customers. Aggregated evaluations across different kinds of salespeple show moderate ratings, not highly positive, but not very negative either. This observation adds to the study of Arndt et al. (2018) who point out, that people are not generally negatively biased against salespeople, but that their evaluations are very complex and show dependencies with surrounding factors of the sales situations. A look at the evaluations of the different kinds of salespeople, however, shows a different picture. Some of the salesople included in this study depict very negtive ratings in terms of perceived warmth, competence, morality as well as their perceived ulterior motive (e.g., TV salespeople, insurance salespeople, Augustin sellers). This observation supports the findings of those authors who described negative stereoytpes about certain kinds of salespeople (i.a. (Bahhouth, et al., 2014; Kirmani, et al., 2017; Arndt, et al., 2018; Lee, et al., 2007).

The translation of stereotypes into behavior of the customer has been a substantial part of the present study. The connection between perception, emotion, and behavior has been studied by many authors who applied the stereotype content model to analyze stereotypes about several social

groups (Cuddy, et al., 2007; Lin, et al., 2005; Lee & Fiske, 2006; Brambilla, et al., 2011; Clausell & Fiske, 2005). The present findings support this connection only partially. A significant effect between stereotype content and behavior has been observed only between perceived warmth and positive WOM. This outcome supports the idea, that warmth characteristics in a person – in this case the salesperson – lead to active facilitation resp. help by the person perceiving the stereotypes – in this case the customer (Cuddy, et al., 2007). The idea that competence would translate into cooperative behavior (passive facilitation), as expected in accordance with the theory of Cuddy et al. (2007), has not been reflected in the outcomes of this study, which could be due to the fact that WOM, which was the measured outcome, can be interpreted as rather active facilitation. The outcome was still considered surprising, as salespeople are usually expected to seem competent in their field of expertise (Arndt, et al., 2018). A reason for that could be, that competence in their area is seen as a "hygiene factor" by customers, a characteristic that is to be expected from this salesperson and that will not leave a customer highly satisfied, the lack thereof however would (Turner & Krizek, 2006). Morality did not show an effect on WOM either, which was actually expected following the studies of Kirmani et al. (2017). These studies however analyzed the role of morality in the evaluation of service providers only, which can be counted as salespeople as well, but are still not completely of the same nature. What differentiates them the most is their level and longevity of involvement with a customer: a salesperson´s goal is generally to sell a product / service (Lee, et al., 2007), whereas a service provider´s goal is to provide support to a customer with a specific task or process (Kirmani, et al., 2017). These are two very different roles, and morality seems to play a role much more, when a customer is more involved with the service provider than they would be with a "typical" salesperson, as found by Kirmani et al. (2017).

The practice of customer-oriented selling as defined by Saxe & Weitz (1982) has been incorporated into the conceptual model as a mediator between the stereotype content dimensions warmth, competence, and morality and the behavioral outcome positive WOM. It refers to a selling

technique that focuses on meeting the customers needs and solving their problem, as opposed to selling as much as possible. It has been widely accepted that customer orientation influences sales performance (Homburg, et al., 2011), however in this study, the aim was to investigate whether the behavioral aspect of customer orientation is itself incluenced by stereotype content and mediates the link between stereotype content and WOM. Firstly, it was found that customer orientation does impact the customers willingness to engage in positive WOM, which supports the findings of Homburg, et al. (2011). Customers perceive this kind of selling behavior positively and tend to reward it with supportive behavior. Secondly, it was found that the perceived competence of a salesperson leads so increased levels of perceived customer orientation. This underlines the expected commonality of competence attributes such as intelligent and competent (Fiske, et al., 2002) and the core values of customer-oriented selling, which aims at solving the customers problem and meeting their needs (Saxe & Weitz, 1982). The competence dimension of a stereotype indicates the ability of a person to carry out their intention and if a cutomer perceives a salesperson to be able to help them competently, this customer will also perceive them as customer-oriented. Warmth and morality do not show significant impact on perceived customer orientation. These traits might not be as strongly reflected in customer orientation, especially in a B2C field, where service interactions are usually shorter and competence is valued more than warmth and morality. The proposed mediating effect of customer orientation in the relationships between stereotype content and WOM was determined to be true only for the link between perceived competence and WOM. Interestingly, competence shows this effect on WOM only through the mediation by customer orientation, but not directly on its own. This observation could indicate that competence traits, such as intelligent, capable, and confident are not encouraging enough on their own for a customer to engage in positive WOM about this salesperson. In combination with customer-oriented selling behavior by the salesperson, these traits seem to be enhanced and eventually do lead to an increased likelihood of positive WOM by the customer.

Warmth, however was found to have significant positive influence on WOM directly, not however through the mediation of customer orientation, which could imply, that warmth traits such as nice, friendly, warm etc. are more often enough to put the customer in such a positive mood, that they would engage in such a behavior as positive WOM. Morality has not been found to be significantly impacting WOM, neither dierctly on its own nor though the mediation by customer orientation. This could be due to the nature of salespeople (as opposed to e.g. service providers) as explained earlier. Generally it can be said, that the theory that customer orientation leads to increased customer satsisfaction (Saxe & Weitz, 1982; Homburg, et al., 2011; Homburg, et al., 2011; Kadic-Maglajlic, et al., 2017) was supported by this study. The proposed mediating effects of customer orientation on the link between stereotype and WOM however, which has not been the subject to any empirical research before, was only partially supported.

The concept of morality has been included in this study as a third dimension of stereotype content. This decision has been amplified by calls of recent authors to separate morality from warmth and competence when analyzing stereotype content (Goodwin, et al., 2014). Morality has long been excluded from stereotype research (Leach, et al., 2007), even though it plays an important role in consumer´s perception of salespeople (Kirmani, et al., 2017). In the outcomes of the present study, though, morality has not been shown to play a crucial role in the perception of salespeople, as it does not influence customer response, neither directly nor through the mediation by customer orientation. These findings could potentially indicate that morality is after all not as important in salespeople evaluation as it could have been expected. When viewing the outcome in reference to Kirmani, et al. (2017), who found that morality plays an important role for customers when evaluating service providers, it could be argued that the difference between the two studies lie in the nature of the investigated salespeople. While the service providers in Kirmani et al.´s study were salespeople that spend time with their customers, the salespeople in this study are ones that typically sell a product or service and then do not interact with the customer any longer. Hence it

could be argued that morality does not play an important role for customers in classical B2C selling situations. Furthermore, even Kirmani et al.´s findings show, that if the service provider is not positioned as an underdog, customers will make tradeoffs between warmth, competence, and morality and mostly choose competence over morality, which could be the same for the respondents of the present study. Competence traits seem to be more important to people in interpersonal relationships, that are much more long-term in nature and that are reflected in the relational aspects of morality (e.g., sincere, trustworthy), whereas competence reflects accomplishment aspects (e.g., competitive, intelligent) (Ybarra, et al., 2001). Also, the customers´ goal behind the sales process, which was described in the questionnaire´s scenario of the present study, is after all to purchase a product / service and they might value skillfulness over morality in this concern (Kirmani & Campbell, 2004).

Following the example of Homburg et al. (2011), customer type was included in the conceptual model as a moderating factor on the relationships between stereotype content and WOM and between customer orientation and WOM. Task orientation was not found to have any significant influence on any of the relationships mentioned. Interaction orientation, however, was found to negatively moderate the effects of warmth on WOM. This finding was perceived as surprising, as this moderation effect was expected to be positive, since the traits of warmth, such as good-natured, trustworthy, and tolerant, complement the core values of customer-oriented selling. A moderating effect of interaction orientation as expected has been found on the relationship between customer orientation and WOM. Following this it can be said that the effects of customer orientation on positive WOM is enhanced if the customer is interaction oriented. This finding is in accordance with the findings of Saxe & Weitz (1982), who state that customer orientation is aimed at building a long-term relationship with a customer instead of merely trying to increase sales volume. This idea goes hand in hand with the characteristics of an interaction oriented customer, who enjoys personal connection a lot in sales interactions (Williams & Spiro, 1985).

8. Conclusion

The stereotypes surrounding salespeople have been the subject of various studies over the past 30 years, as mentioned earlier in this thesis. They were however never systematically analyzed using the SCM. The very negative image, that customers seem to have according to the majority of research that has been done on this topic in the resent years, could not be fully confirmed by this study. Some stereotype content dimensions, especially warmth and competence, show significant impact on the customer response, as mentioned in the previous chapter, and the concept or customer orientation is a mediating factor for the effects of competence on customer behavior.

The following chapter gives an overview over some implications that can be drawn from the findings and observations of this study.

8.1. Theoretical implications

The present thesis extends both, the status quo of research about salespeople stereotypes and the field of applications of the SCM.

The present study is the first one to systematically analyze various kinds of salespeople, that differ in their only profession. A broad range of predefined types of salespeople has been evaluated by respondents in terms of their perceived warmth, competence, and morality as well as other factors such as perceived ulterior motive. It has been shown successfully that the way that customers perceive salespeople influences their behavior towards them, in this case the likelihood of engaging in supportive behavior. This goes beyond existing information that has been empirically gathered about salespeople and offers new revelations about how stereotypes translate into customer behavior.

The present study further adds to the knowledge of customer orientation (Saxe & Weitz, 1982; Homburg, et al., 2011) and of its abilities to predict other effects. The results show that the various kinds of salespeople are differently perceived in terms of their customer orientation, even though they all depict the same kind of customer-oriented behavior. The reason for that lies in their specific B2C profession, which leads customers to perceive them differently. The theory that customer orientation itself is subject to the effects of the stereotype dimensions warmth, competence, and morality could therefore be proven true and adds to existing theories about customer orientation. The connection between stereotypes and customer orientation has further been shown to be present in form of a moderating ability of customer orientation on the relationship between stereotypes and behavioral responses of the customers.

The present study has further broadened the field of applications of the SCM. The concept of the SCM builds on the idea that perceived warmth and competence lead to affective responses and consequently to a certain behavioral response of a person. In this study, customer orientation has been included as a mediator between stereotype content and behavioral outcomes. Results show that the connection between the stereotype content dimensions that were originally defined by Fiske et al. (2002) translate into facilitating behavior as introduced by Cuddy et al. (2007) and that this phenomenon can be observed in a sales context as well. The concept of the original SCM was expanded by including morality as a third dimension, which has been called for by various authors before (Goodwin, et al., 2014; Kirmani, et al., 2017). Stereotypes that customer´s hold about salespeople can be consolidated under the dimensions warmth, competence, and morality and are a predictor to the customer´s behavior.

Lastly, the field of research about the customer types interaction and task orientation has been extended by the outcomes of this study. Customer types have been successfully linked to the relationship between stereotype content and customer behavior and to the relationship between

customer orientation and customer behavior. It has been shown that they are able to influence both of these connections at least partially.

8.2. Managerial implications

Apart from the theoretical implications, the present study brings various implications for sales managers and marketing managers in the B2C sector alike.

An important finding with practical significance is the fact that customers do not generally hold negative stereotypes against salespeople as mentioned by Arndt et al. (2018) as well. Stereotypes greatly vary between different kinds of salespeople, which has been shown and illustrated earlier. They further strongly depend on sorrounding circumstances in the sales situation, such as the look of the salesperson (Arndt, et al., 2018). These findings are of great importance for sales managers and entrepreneurs, as they can and should involve them in their decision making in areas such as recruiting, sales training, and business strategy.

A main consequence of stereotyping is a socio-psychological phenomenon called stereotype threat. Stereotype threat describes a situation "*in which there is a negative stereotype about a persons' group, and he or she is concerned about being judged or treated negatively on the basis of this stereotype*" (Spencer, et al., 2016, p. 416). It has been found that people are less willing to cooperate with salespeople that that they experience stereotype threat with (Lee, et al., 2011). Employers could reduce stereotype threat for their salespeople by "activating a non-threatened identity", which can be done by reducing the visual boundaries between and customer and a salesperson. In retail sales, there is oftentimes a great boundary between customers and salespeople due to the formal attire of the shop employees that does not match the customer´s attire. It would consequently be beneficial for the customer-salesperson-relationship if the salesperson would somewhat adapt her physical appearance to that of her typical customers (Rydell, et al., 2009). It

has been found out however that looking like a typical salesperson is not always negative (Arndt, et al., 2018). In fact, when customers do not feel stereotype threat with a certain type of salespeople, a professional attire of the salesperson has a positive impact. The present study added to these prior findings, by shedding light on how differently the various kinds of B2C salespeople are stereotypes, only based on their profession. Reducing boundaries and differences between employees and customers and accentuating similarities could potentially be beneficial for this matter, though, it should be kept in mind that customers do highly value and reward competence, which is often expressed through professional attire.

Another important finding is that salespeople are generally judged higher in terms of warmth than competence and warmth consequently leads to increased WOM by the customers. This could indicate that it would be beneficial for employers to train their salespeople in the area of soft skills which translate into typical warmth traits in order to increase supportive customer response. In general, it was proven that certain stereotypes lead to higher customer satisfaction and higher likelihood of benevolent behavioral responses like WOM. It is important to add, though, that customers that are extremely dissatisfied with a sales encounter are much more likely to engage in negative WOM (Anderson, 1998).

Customer behavior is greatly influenced by surrounding factors, which should be kept in mind by managers as well. In the case of this study, customer types and their influence were analyzed. Sales managers should have extensive knowledge about their target groups, and which customer type the likely belong to, as this will influence how the customers react to their sales personnel's behavior.

The findings also show that a customer-oriented selling approach can be of great advantage in areas where the salespeople are judged rather competent than warm, e.g., real estate agents, car sellers, and insurance salespeople. In general, customer-oriented selling can be recommended to managers, as it shows positive impact on WOM by the customers. Customer oriented selling has

further been shown to be impacted by stereotype content, so when training employees to engage in this kind of selling technique, sales managers should be aware of the stereotype that customers hold towards their employees.

8.3. Limitations & future research outlook

Even though the present study brought about several new findings, it has to be seen in light of its limitations.

Firstly, the sample of this study does not display the true population living in Germany and Austria. With more than 50% of the respondents being younger than 35 and half of the sample population having an academic degree, the true socioeconomic characteristics of the German and Austrian population could not be met. This – in comparison with the true population – much younger and more educated sample, might have answered differently than a group of respondents, that is more accurate in characteristics to Germany´s and Austria´s population would have, which means that the outcomes might include some degree of bias. Future research might want to conduct a study like this with a sample, that is more representative of the Austrian and German population.

Secondly, as mentioned earlier, studies in the field of salespeople stereotypes and the SCM have very rarely be conducted in Europe. The present study is limited to the German and Austrian consumers and cannot be generalized to a European level. With regard to a cross-cultural study, future scientists should include more countries in the study to be able to draw conclusions about differences and similarities between them and gain more generalizable insights into European consumer behavior.

Thirdly, since only a very limited number of the proposed hypotheses of this study were found to be true, future researchers might want to apply the SCM to different kinds of salespeople on an individual basis, as Arndt et al. (2018) has asked for before. In this case, the outcomes of the stereotype content dimensions warmth, competence, and morality have been illustrated on an individual level and it was highlighted, how large the differences between them actually are. In the process of preparing the data for analysis, the outcomes of these different types were aggregated, which might have diluted some of the effects that would have shown up on an

individual level. When analyzing the relationship between stereotype content, customer orientation and behavioral outcome of different kinds of salespeople on an individual basis, outcomes might be outstanding.

Fourthly, the present study focused on salespeople in the B2C sector only. In future, the proposed model with its causal relationships should be applied on B2B salespeople as well, to see how strong the proposed relationships and connections are when salesperson-customer relationship is much stronger and more long-lasting. In this spirit, it would also make sense to look at other kinds of behavioral outcomes than WOM, like purchase intention or even negative outcomes like unfavorable WOM.

Fifthly, the customer types that have been chosen to be included as moderators in this study, are quite simplistic and possibly ignore other important customer distinctions. Other customer types should be considered in future studies, that might have even more impact on stereotyping and customer behavior.

An interesting subject to investigate further would be the question, whether there are discrepancies between the stereotypes that salespeople think customer hold towards them, and the ones customer really do have. This could impact how salespeople behave in sales situations and consequently impact customer response. Incongruity between the stereotypes about these salespeople and the salespeople´s actual behavior and appearance could also be of interest for future research. On the basis of the present study, it could be investigated how customer response changes once the salespeople do not behave and appear like they would stereotypically do.

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Appendix

Appendix A - Questionnaire (Qualtrics) – exemplary the questionnaire for female bank financial advisers is shown.

Q1 **Vielen Dank, für Ihre Zeit und die Unterstützung meiner Studie!**
Mein Name ist Elena Topuzoglu und ich studiere an der Universität Wien am Institut für Wirtschaftswissenschaften. Der folgende Fragebogen dient der Datenerhebung für die empirische Studie meiner Masterarbeit. Bei den Fragen gibt es keine richtigen oder falschen Antworten. Bitte antworten Sie einfach gemäß Ihrer persönlichen Meinung.
Selbstverständlich werden alle Daten vertraulich behandelt und anonymisiert ausgewertet, was bedeutet, dass kein Rückschluss von einzelnen Antworten auf Personen möglich ist.

Falls Sie Fragen haben melden Sie sich gerne unter a01406333@unet.univie.ac.at.

Q2 Wie ist Ihre derzeitige Stimmung?

1 (1)
2 (2)
3 (3)
4 (4)
5 (5)

Q3 Denken Sie bitte an Verkaufspersonen die Ihnen im Alltag als KonsumentIn begegnen.

Was denkt der Großteil der KundInnen Ihrer Meinung nach über Personen, die im Verkauf arbeiten?

Verkaufspersonen sind...

	gar nicht (1)	kaum (2)	weder noch (3)	eher (4)	sehr (5)

tolerant (1)	○	○	○	○	○
warmherzig (2)	○	○	○	○	○
gutmütig (3)	○	○	○	○	○
nett (4)	○	○	○	○	○
selbstbewusst (5)	○	○	○	○	○
kompetent (6)	○	○	○	○	○
unabhängig (7)	○	○	○	○	○
konkurrierend (8)	○	○	○	○	○
intelligent (9)	○	○	○	○	○

Q4 Nachfolgend sehen Sie weitere Attribute. Bitte beantworten Sie wieder dieselbe Frage: Was denkt der Großteil der KundInnen Ihrer Meinung nach über Personen, die im Verkauf arbeiten?

Verkaufspersonen sind...

	gar nicht (1)	kaum (2)	weder noch (3)	eher (4)	sehr (5)
ehrlich (10)	○	○	○	○	○
aufrichtig (11)	○	○	○	○	○
vertrauenswürdig (12)	○	○	○	○	○
manipulativ (13)	○	○	○	○	○
aufdringlich (14)	○	○	○	○	○

Q5 Wie ist Ihr persönlicher, <u>allgemeiner</u> Gesamteindruck von Personen, die im Verkauf arbeiten?

	1	2	3	4	5	
schlecht	○	○	○	○	○	gut
ungünstig	○	○	○	○	○	günstig
unzufriedenstellend	○	○	○	○	○	zufriedenstellend

Q6 Inwieweit neigen Menschen Ihrer Meinung nach dazu, bei Verkaufspersonen folgendes zu empfinden?

	gar nicht (1)	kaum (2)	weder noch (3)	eher (4)	sehr (5)
Bewunderung (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Respekt (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Neid (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Eifersucht (4)	○	○	○	○	○
Mitleid (5)	○	○	○	○	○
Mitgefühl (6)	○	○	○	○	○
Verachtung (7)	○	○	○	○	○
Ekel (8)	○	○	○	○	○

Q7 Bitte beurteilen Sie Ihre letzte Erfahrung mit einer Verkaufsperson.

Bei meiner letzten Erfahrung mit einer Verkaufsperson...

	gar nicht (1)	kaum (2)	weder noch (3)	eher (4)	sehr (5)
...war ich erfreut (4)	○	○	○	○	○
...war ich frustriert (7)	○	○	○	○	○
...habe ich die Erfahrung genossen (8)	○	○	○	○	○

Q8 Im folgenden Abschnitt werde ich Ihnen ein paar Fragen zu einer bestimmten Art von Verkaufsperson stellen. Alle Ihre Antworten werden streng vertraulich behandelt und es gibt keine richtige oder falsche Antwort. Es ist Ihre persönliche Meinung, die hier wichtig ist. Ich danke nochmals für Ihre Teilnahme an dieser Studie.

Q9 Was denkt der Großteil der KundInnen Ihrer Meinung nach über Bankberaterinnen?
Bankberaterinnen sind...

	gar nicht (1)	kaum (2)	weder noch (3)	eher (4)	sehr (5)
tolerant (1)	○	○	○	○	○
warmherzig (2)	○	○	○	○	○
gutmütig (3)	○	○	○	○	○

nett (4)	○	○	○	○	○
selbstbewusst (5)	○	○	○	○	○
kompetent (6)	○	○	○	○	○
unabhängig (7)	○	○	○	○	○
konkurrierend (8)	○	○	○	○	○
intelligent (9)	○	○	○	○	○

Q10 Was denkt der Großteil der KundInnen Ihrer Meinung nach über Bankberaterinnen? Bankberaterinnen sind...

	gar nicht (1)	kaum (2)	weder noch (3)	eher (4)	sehr (5)
ehrlich (1)	○	○	○	○	○
aufrichtig (2)	○	○	○	○	○
vertrauenswürdig (3)	○	○	○	○	○

manipulativ (4)	○	○	○	○	○
aufdringlich (5)	○	○	○	○	○

Q11 Wie ist Ihr persönlicher, <u>allgemeiner</u> Gesamteindruck von Bankberaterinnen, mit denen Sie bis jetzt in Kontakt gekommen sind?

	1	2	3	4	5	
schlecht	○	○	○	○	○	gut
ungünstig	○	○	○	○	○	günstig
unzufriedenstellend	○	○	○	○	○	zufriedenstellend

Q12 Wie würden Sie Ihren letzten Besuch bei einer Bank beschreiben?

	gar nicht (1)	kaum (2)	weder noch (3)	eher (4)	sehr (5)	weiß ich nicht (6)
erfolgreich (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○
frustrierend (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○

Erwartungen wurden übertroffen (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○
fröhlich (7)	○	○	○	○	○	○

Q13 Bitte lesen Sie sich das folgende Szenario aufmerksam durch und beantworten Sie anschließend die Fragen.

Herr Gruber muss eine wichtige Kaufentscheidung für einen Kredit treffen, die sowohl für ihn als auch für seine Familie von Bedeutung sein wird. Um eine gute Entscheidung zu treffen, beschließt er, in eine Bank Filiale zu gehen und mit einem/r BankberaterIn zu sprechen.
Sobald er das Geschäft betritt, trifft er auf eine Bankberaterin, die in der Filiale arbeitet. Nach der Begrüßung von Herrn Gruber beginnt diese sofort damit, informative Fragen zu stellen, um herauszufinden, welche Bedürfnisse Herr Gruber hat und um Herrn Gruber dabei zu helfen, seine eigenen Bedürfnisse neu einzuschätzen. Nach einem besseren Verständnis der Bedürfnisse von Herrn Gruber weist die Bankberaterin ihn auf das am besten geeignete Sortiment von Produkten mit unterschiedlicher Preisspanne hin und erklärt dabei jede ihrer Eigenschaften (Merkmale, Vorteile, Kosten), was von jedem Produkt erwartet werden kann und inwieweit jedes dieser Produkte die Bedürfnisse von Herrn Gruber erfüllen kann.
Die Bankberaterin gelingt es, alle Fragen von Herrn Gruber informativ zu beantworten, sie geht sehr aufmerksam auf die Einwände von Herrn Gruber ein, schreckt aber nicht davor zurück, Herrn Gruber zu widersprechen, wenn dies notwendig ist, um ihm zu helfen, eine bessere Entscheidung zu treffen.
Herr Gruber ist nun sicherer, welche Produkte am besten zu ihm und seiner Familie passen würden. Herr Gruber ist der Ansicht, dass sich die Bankberaterin auf seine besten Interessen konzentriert und darauf, das Produkt zu finden, das für ihn am hilfreichsten wäre.

Q14 Im Szenario spricht Herr Gruber mit:

- ○ einem Bankberater (1)
- ○ einer Bankberaterin (2)

Q15 Dieses Szenario ist…

	1	2	3	4	5	
nicht glaubwürdig	○	○	○	○	○	völlig glaubwürdig

Q16 Während ich das Szenario las, stellte ich mir vor...

	1	2	3	4	5	
dass ich an der Interaktion teilnehme	○	○	○	○	○	dass ich die Interaktion beobachte

Q17 Dieses Szenario beschreibt ein…

	1	2	3	4	5	
komplett untypisches Verhalten einer Bankberaterin	○	○	○	○	○	komplett typisches Verhalten einer Bankberaterin

Q18 Bitte beantworten Sie nun folgende Fragen.

	sehr niedrig (1)	eher niedrig (2)	weder noch (3)	eher hoch (4)	sehr hoch (5)
Wenn ich auf der Suche nach einem Kredit wäre, dann wäre die Wahrscheinlichkeit von dieser Bankberaterin zu kaufen… (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Die Wahrscheinlichkeit, dass ich diese Bankberaterin jemandem empfehlen würde, ist... (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Meine Bereitschaft, etwas von dieser Verkaufsperson zu kaufen, wäre... (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Die Wahrscheinlichkeit, dass ich positive Dinge über diese Verkaufsperson zu anderen Personen sagen würde, ist... (4)	○	○	○	○	○
Die Möglichkeit, dass ich mich über eine Verkaufsinteraktion wie diese freuen würde, ist... (5)	○	○	○	○	○
Die Wahrscheinlichkeit, dass ich an solch einer Verkaufsinteraktion	○	○	○	○	○

Gefallen finden würde, ist... (6)	

Q19 In diesem Szenario hat die Bankberaterin...

	nicht zutreffend (1)	kaum zutreffend (2)	weder noch (3)	eher zutreffend (4)	zutreffend (5)
… versucht, die Bedürfnisse von Herrn Gruber herauszufinden. (1)	○	○	○	○	○
… die besten Interessen von Herrn Gruber im Auge gehabt. (2)	○	○	○	○	○
… einen Problemlösungsansatz für Herrn Gruber dargelegt. (3)	○	○	○	○	○
… die besten Produkt- / Dienstleistungsoptionen vorgeschlagen, um die Probleme von Herrn Gruber zu lösen. (4)	○	○	○	○	○
… versucht herauszufinden, welche Arten von Produkten oder Dienstleistungen für Herrn Gruber am hilfreichsten wären. (5)	○	○	○	○	○

Q20 Bitte geben Sie Ihre Einschätzung zu den folgenden Aussagen ab.

	definitiv falsch (1)	wahrscheinlich falsch (2)	weder noch (3)	wahrscheinlich wahr (4)	definitiv wahr (5)
Die Bankberaterin hatte einen Hintergedanken für ihr Verhalten. (12)	○	○	○	○	○

Die Bankberaterin schlug Herrn Gruber die Auswahl an Produkten nur vor, um etwas zu verkaufen. (13)	○	○	○	○	○
Die Bankberaterin versuchte, Herrn Gruber zu überreden. (14)	○	○	○	○	○

Q21 Wer ist für das Dienstleistungsergebnis verantwortlich?

	nicht zutreffend (1)	kaum zutreffend (2)	weder noch (3)	eher zutreffend (4)	zutreffend (5)
Die Bank (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Die Bankberaterin (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Herr Gruber (3)	○	○	○	○	○

Q22 Bankprodukte wie Kredite oder Aktien...

	1	2	3	4	5	
unwichtig	○	○	○	○	○	wichtig
spielen keine Rolle für mich	○	○	○	○	○	spielen eine Rolle für mich
unbedeutsam	○	○	○	○	○	bedeutsam

Q23 Nun folgen ein paar Fragen zu Ihrer Person.

Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern die folgenden Aussagen auf Sie zutreffen.

	nicht zutreffend (1)	kaum zutreffend (2)	weder noch (3)	eher zutreffend (4)	zutreffend (5)
In Verkaufsgesprächen spreche ich gerne über private Themen mit VerkäuferInnen. (1)	○	○	○	○	○
In Verkaufsgesprächen baue ich gerne eine persönliche Beziehung zu VerkäuferInnen auf. (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Ich interessiere mich für die persönliche Situation eines/r VerkäuferIn. (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Einkaufen stillt meine Neugier. (4)	○	○	○	○	○

Einkaufen bietet neue Erfahrungen. (5)	○	○	○	○	○
Ich gehe einkaufen, um andere Leute zu beobachten. (6)	○	○	○	○	○

Q24 Bitte geben Sie an, inwiefern die folgenden Aussagen auf Sie zutreffen.

	nicht zutreffend (1)	kaum zutreffend (2)	weder noch (3)	eher zutreffend (4)	zutreffend (5)
Ich mag Verkaufsinteraktionen so effizient wie möglich. (1)	○	○	○	○	○
In Verkaufsgesprächen konzentriere ich mich auf die anstehende Erledigung. (2)	○	○	○	○	○
In Verkaufsgesprächen bin ich sehr zielorientiert. (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Ich beende Verkaufsgespräche gerne so früh wie möglich. (4)	○	○	○	○	○
Ich bekomme ein wahres „High“ vom Einkaufen. (5)	○	○	○	○	○
Ich fühle mich als würde ich beim Einkaufen neue Welten erkunden. (6)	○	○	○	○	○

Q25 Bitte geben Sie an, wie sehr die folgenden Aussagen auf Sie zutreffen.

	nicht zutreffend (1)	kaum zutreffend (2)	weder noch (3)	eher zutreffend (4)	zutreffend (5)
Ich würde mich selbst als einen weichherzigen Menschen beschreiben. (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Ich habe oft Sorgen und Mitgefühl gegenüber Menschen, denen es weniger gut geht als mir. (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Ich werde nervös, wenn andere um mich herum nervös sind. (4)	○	○	○	○	○
Ich kann trotz Aufregung um mich herum ruhig bleiben. (5)	○	○	○	○	○
Ich bleibe meist entspannt, auch wenn es andere um mich herum nicht sind. (6)	○	○	○	○	○
In Auseinandersetzungen versuche ich die Seiten aller Beteiligten zu betrachten, bevor ich Entscheidungen treffe. (7)	○	○	○	○	○
Wenn ich böse auf jemanden bin, versuche ich normalerweise mich in dessen Situation zu versetzen. (8)	○	○	○	○	○
Ich glaube, dass jede Angelegenheit zwei Seiten hat und versuche immer beide zu betrachten. (9)	○	○	○	○	○
Ich fühle mich manchmal verletzlich im Umgang mit Verkäufern/Verkäuferinnen. (10)	○	○	○	○	○

Ich fühle mich oft eingeschüchtert im Umgang mit Verkäufern/Verkäuferinnen. (11)	○	○	○	○	○
Manchmal fühle ich mich wie gefangen im Umgang mit Verkäufern/Verkäuferinnen. (12)	○	○	○	○	○

Q26 Was ist Ihr Geschlecht?

○ Weiblich (1)

○ Männlich (2)

○ andere (3)

Q27 Wie alt sind Sie?

- ○ jünger als 25 (1)
- ○ 25 - 35 (2)
- ○ 36-45 (3)
- ○ 46-55 (4)
- ○ 56-65 (5)
- ○ älter als 65 (6)

Q28 Was ist Ihre höchste abgeschlossene Ausbildung?

- ○ Pflichtschule (1)
- ○ Fachschule ohne Matura / Abitur (2)
- ○ Lehrabschluss (3)
- ○ Matura / Abitur (4)
- ○ Universitäts- / Hochschulabschluss (5)
- ○ andere (6)

Q29 In welchem Land leben Sie?

- ○ Österreich (1)
- ○ Deutschland (2)
- ○ Schweiz (3)
- ○ anderes (welches?) (4) _____

Q30 Wie hoch ist Ihr monatliches Brutto-Einkommen?

- ○ unter 1.000€ (1)
- ○ 1.000€ - 2.500€ (2)
- ○ 2.500€ - 4.000€ (3)
- ○ über 4.000€ (4)

Appendix B – SPSS Outcomes – Analysis with SPSS Process Model 4 & 15

Run MATRIX procedure:

********** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.5.3 **********

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

****
Model : 4
Y : WoM_aggr
X : W_aggr
M : CO_aggr

Covariates:

M_aggr Gender C_aggr Age Edu UM_aggr Sat_aggr

Sample
Size: 527

****

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
CO_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,5558	,3089	,3232	28,9357	8,0000	518,0000	,0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2,4640	,2647	9,3085	,0000	2,0278	2,9002
W_aggr	-,0058	,0442	-,1313	,8956	-,0786	,0670
M_aggr	,0447	,0409	1,0921	,2753	-,0227	,1120
Gender	-,1394	,0491	-2,8365	,0047	-,2204	-,0584
C_aggr	,1889	,0409	4,6138	,0000	,1214	,2564
Age	,0692	,0194	3,5704	,0004	,0373	,1011
Edu	,0285	,0244	1,1663	,2440	-,0118	,0688
UM_aggr	-,0565	,0302	-1,8705	,0620	-,1063	-,0067
Sat_aggr	,2815	,0285	9,8838	,0000	,2346	,3284

****

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
WoM_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,7840	,6147	,2842	91,6534	9,0000	517,0000	,0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	,3976	,2682	1,4826	,1388	-,0443	,8395
W_aggr	,1288	,0414	3,1081	,0020	,0605	,1971
CO_aggr	,2560	,0412	6,2145	,0000	,1881	,3239
M_aggr	,0338	,0384	,8804	,3790	-,0295	,0971
Gender	-,0282	,0464	-,6068	,5442	-,1047	,0483
C_aggr	-,0133	,0392	-,3405	,7336	-,0779	,0512
Age	-,0138	,0184	-,7515	,4527	-,0441	,0165
Edu	-,0043	,0229	-,1869	,8518	-,0421	,0335
UM_aggr	-,0003	,0284	-,0110	,9912	-,0471	,0465
Sat_aggr	,5508	,0291	18,9190	,0000	,5028	,5988

********** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y **********

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
,1288	,0414	3,1081	,0020	,0605	,1971	,1512	,1126

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

```
          Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
CO_aggr    -,0015     ,0123    -,0200     ,0198

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
          Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
CO_aggr    -,0017     ,0145    -,0233     ,0235

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
          Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
CO_aggr    -,0013     ,0107    -,0173     ,0175

************************ ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS ************************

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
  90,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
  5000

------ END MATRIX -----



Run MATRIX procedure:

***************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.5.3 ****************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model  : 4
    Y  : WoM_aggr
    X  : C_aggr
    M  : CO_aggr

Covariates:
 M_aggr   Gender   Age      Edu      UM_aggr  Sat_aggr W_aggr

Sample
Size:  527

**************************************************************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 CO_aggr

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
     ,5558      ,3089      ,3232     28,9357     8,0000   518,0000      ,0000

Model
             coeff         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI
constant     2,4640      ,2647     9,3085      ,0000     2,0278     2,9002
```

C_aggr	,1889	,0409	4,6138	,0000	,1214	,2564
M_aggr	,0447	,0409	1,0921	,2753	-,0227	,1120
Gender	-,1394	,0491	-2,8365	,0047	-,2204	-,0584
Age	,0692	,0194	3,5704	,0004	,0373	,1011
Edu	,0285	,0244	1,1663	,2440	-,0118	,0688
UM_aggr	-,0565	,0302	-1,8705	,0620	-,1063	-,0067
Sat_aggr	,2815	,0285	9,8838	,0000	,2346	,3284
W_aggr	-,0058	,0442	-,1313	,8956	-,0786	,0670

****

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
WoM_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,7840	,6147	,2842	91,6534	9,0000	517,0000	,0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	,3976	,2682	1,4826	,1388	-,0443	,8395
C_aggr	-,0133	,0392	-,3405	,7336	-,0779	,0512
CO_aggr	,2560	,0412	6,2145	,0000	,1881	,3239
M_aggr	,0338	,0384	,8804	,3790	-,0295	,0971
Gender	-,0282	,0464	-,6068	,5442	-,1047	,0483
Age	-,0138	,0184	-,7515	,4527	-,0441	,0165
Edu	-,0043	,0229	-,1869	,8518	-,0421	,0335
UM_aggr	-,0003	,0284	-,0110	,9912	-,0471	,0465
Sat_aggr	,5508	,0291	18,9190	,0000	,5028	,5988
W_aggr	,1288	,0414	3,1081	,0020	,0605	,1971

********** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y **********

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
-,0133	,0392	-,3405	,7336	-,0779	,0512	-,0157	-,0108

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
CO_aggr	,0484	,0131	,0279	,0707

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
CO_aggr	,0568	,0155	,0328	,0830

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
CO_aggr	,0390	,0108	,0222	,0572

********** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS **********

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
90,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
5000

------ END MATRIX -----

Run MATRIX procedure:

*************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.5.3 ***************

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

****
Model : 4
Y : WoM_aggr
X : M_aggr
M : CO_aggr

Covariates:
Gender Age Edu UM_aggr Sat_aggr W_aggr C_aggr

Sample
Size: 527

****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
CO_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,5558	,3089	,3232	28,9357	8,0000	518,0000	,0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2,4640	,2647	9,3085	,0000	2,0278	2,9002
M_aggr	,0447	,0409	1,0921	,2753	-,0227	,1120
Gender	-,1394	,0491	-2,8365	,0047	-,2204	-,0584
Age	,0692	,0194	3,5704	,0004	,0373	,1011
Edu	,0285	,0244	1,1663	,2440	-,0118	,0688
UM_aggr	-,0565	,0302	-1,8705	,0620	-,1063	-,0067
Sat_aggr	,2815	,0285	9,8838	,0000	,2346	,3284
W_aggr	-,0058	,0442	-,1313	,8956	-,0786	,0670
C_aggr	,1889	,0409	4,6138	,0000	,1214	,2564

****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
WoM_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,7840	,6147	,2842	91,6534	9,0000	517,0000	,0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	,3976	,2682	1,4826	,1388	-,0443	,8395
M_aggr	,0338	,0384	,8804	,3790	-,0295	,0971
CO_aggr	,2560	,0412	6,2145	,0000	,1881	,3239
Gender	-,0282	,0464	-,6068	,5442	-,1047	,0483
Age	-,0138	,0184	-,7515	,4527	-,0441	,0165
Edu	-,0043	,0229	-,1869	,8518	-,0421	,0335
UM_aggr	-,0003	,0284	-,0110	,9912	-,0471	,0465
Sat_aggr	,5508	,0291	18,9190	,0000	,5028	,5988
W_aggr	,1288	,0414	3,1081	,0020	,0605	,1971
C_aggr	-,0133	,0392	-,3405	,7336	-,0779	,0512

********** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y **********

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
,0338	,0384	,8804	,3790	-,0295	,0971	,0397	,0334

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
CO_aggr	,0114	,0104	-,0050	,0295

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
CO_aggr	,0134	,0122	-,0060	,0345

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
CO_aggr	,0113	,0103	-,0051	,0291

********** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS **********

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
 90,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
 5000

------ END MATRIX -----

Run MATRIX procedure:

********** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.5.3 **********

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

****
Model : 4
Y : WoM_aggr

X : C_aggr
M : CO_aggr

Covariates:
M_aggr Gender Age Edu UM_aggr Sat_aggr W_aggr

Sample
Size: 527

****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
CO_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,5558	,3089	,3232	28,9357	8,0000	518,0000	,0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2,4640	,2647	9,3085	,0000	2,0278	2,9002
C_aggr	,1889	,0409	4,6138	,0000	,1214	,2564
M_aggr	,0447	,0409	1,0921	,2753	-,0227	,1120
Gender	-,1394	,0491	-2,8365	,0047	-,2204	-,0584
Age	,0692	,0194	3,5704	,0004	,0373	,1011
Edu	,0285	,0244	1,1663	,2440	-,0118	,0688
UM_aggr	-,0565	,0302	-1,8705	,0620	-,1063	-,0067
Sat_aggr	,2815	,0285	9,8838	,0000	,2346	,3284
W_aggr	-,0058	,0442	-,1313	,8956	-,0786	,0670

****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
WoM_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,7840	,6147	,2842	91,6534	9,0000	517,0000	,0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	,3976	,2682	1,4826	,1388	-,0443	,8395
C_aggr	-,0133	,0392	-,3405	,7336	-,0779	,0512
CO_aggr	,2560	,0412	6,2145	,0000	,1881	,3239
M_aggr	,0338	,0384	,8804	,3790	-,0295	,0971
Gender	-,0282	,0464	-,6068	,5442	-,1047	,0483
Age	-,0138	,0184	-,7515	,4527	-,0441	,0165
Edu	-,0043	,0229	-,1869	,8518	-,0421	,0335
UM_aggr	-,0003	,0284	-,0110	,9912	-,0471	,0465
Sat_aggr	,5508	,0291	18,9190	,0000	,5028	,5988
W_aggr	,1288	,0414	3,1081	,0020	,0605	,1971

********** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y **********

Direct effect of X on Y

```
    Effect         se          t          p       LLCI       ULCI      c'_ps      c'_cs
    -,0133      ,0392     -,3405      ,7336     -,0779      ,0512     -,0157     -,0108

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
          Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
CO_aggr     ,0484      ,0131      ,0279      ,0707

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
          Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
CO_aggr     ,0568      ,0155      ,0328      ,0830

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:
          Effect     BootSE   BootLLCI   BootULCI
CO_aggr     ,0390      ,0108      ,0222      ,0572

************************ ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS ************************

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
  90,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
  5000

------ END MATRIX -----



Run MATRIX procedure:

***************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.5.3 *****************

          Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.       www.afhayes.com
    Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model  : 4
    Y  : WoM_aggr
    X  : M_aggr
    M  : CO_aggr

Covariates:
 Gender   Age      Edu      UM_aggr  Sat_aggr W_aggr   C_aggr

Sample
Size:  527

**************************************************************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 CO_aggr

Model Summary
          R       R-sq        MSE          F        df1        df2          p
     ,5558      ,3089      ,3232    28,9357     8,0000   518,0000      ,0000
```

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	2,4640	,2647	9,3085	,0000	2,0278	2,9002
M_aggr	,0447	,0409	1,0921	,2753	-,0227	,1120
Gender	-,1394	,0491	-2,8365	,0047	-,2204	-,0584
Age	,0692	,0194	3,5704	,0004	,0373	,1011
Edu	,0285	,0244	1,1663	,2440	-,0118	,0688
UM_aggr	-,0565	,0302	-1,8705	,0620	-,1063	-,0067
Sat_aggr	,2815	,0285	9,8838	,0000	,2346	,3284
W_aggr	-,0058	,0442	-,1313	,8956	-,0786	,0670
C_aggr	,1889	,0409	4,6138	,0000	,1214	,2564

****

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
WoM_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,7840	,6147	,2842	91,6534	9,0000	517,0000	,0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	,3976	,2682	1,4826	,1388	-,0443	,8395
M_aggr	,0338	,0384	,8804	,3790	-,0295	,0971
CO_aggr	,2560	,0412	6,2145	,0000	,1881	,3239
Gender	-,0282	,0464	-,6068	,5442	-,1047	,0483
Age	-,0138	,0184	-,7515	,4527	-,0441	,0165
Edu	-,0043	,0229	-,1869	,8518	-,0421	,0335
UM_aggr	-,0003	,0284	-,0110	,9912	-,0471	,0465
Sat_aggr	,5508	,0291	18,9190	,0000	,5028	,5988
W_aggr	,1288	,0414	3,1081	,0020	,0605	,1971
C_aggr	-,0133	,0392	-,3405	,7336	-,0779	,0512

********** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y **********

Direct effect of X on Y

Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI	c'_ps	c'_cs
,0338	,0384	,8804	,3790	-,0295	,0971	,0397	,0334

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
CO_aggr	,0114	,0104	-,0050	,0295

Partially standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
CO_aggr	,0134	,0122	-,0060	,0345

Completely standardized indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
CO_aggr	,0113	,0103	-,0051	,0291

********** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS **********

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
 90,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
 5000

------ END MATRIX -----

Run MATRIX procedure:

**************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.5.3 ****************

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

****
Model : 15
Y : WoM_aggr
X : W_aggr
M : CO_aggr
W : IO_aggr

Covariates:
UM_aggr Sat_aggr PI_aggr Income Edu Age Gender E1_aggr E2_aggr E3_aggr M_aggr C_aggr

Sample
Size: 524

****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
CO_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F(HC4)	df1	df2	p
,583	,340	,311	18,138	13,000	510,000	,000

Model

	coeff	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	-1,830	,430	-4,258	,000	-2,538	-1,121
W_aggr	-,015	,045	-,336	,737	-,090	,059
UM_aggr	-,046	,032	-1,457	,146	-,099	,006
Sat_aggr	,249	,034	7,438	,000	,194	,305
PI_aggr	,057	,020	2,846	,005	,024	,090
Income	-,036	,026	-1,369	,172	-,078	,007
Edu	,035	,030	1,162	,246	-,014	,083
Age	,070	,019	3,651	,000	,038	,101
Gender	-,154	,055	-2,804	,005	-,245	-,064
E1_aggr	-,013	,038	-,348	,728	-,077	,050
E2_aggr	-,055	,033	-1,673	,095	-,109	-,001

E3_aggr	,101	,049	2,073	,039	,021	,182
M_aggr	,036	,039	,921	,358	-,028	,101
C_aggr	,177	,040	4,470	,000	,112	,243

****

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
WoM_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F(HC4)	df1	df2	p
,791	,626	,280	45,828	17,000	506,000	,000

Model

	coeff	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1,587	,370	4,294	,000	,978	2,197
W_aggr	,113	,044	2,594	,010	,041	,185
CO_aggr	,264	,045	5,826	,000	,189	,339
IO_aggr	-,010	,028	-,372	,710	-,057	,036
Int_1	-,064	,036	-1,764	,078	-,124	-,004
Int_2	,098	,046	2,127	,034	,022	,174
UM_aggr	,003	,027	,126	,900	-,041	,048
Sat_aggr	,551	,039	14,168	,000	,487	,616
PI_aggr	,005	,020	,261	,794	-,028	,039
Income	,025	,024	1,022	,307	-,015	,064
Edu	-,010	,023	-,419	,675	-,048	,028
Age	-,020	,019	-1,077	,282	-,051	,011
Gender	-,014	,048	-,289	,773	-,092	,065
E1_aggr	-,006	,037	-,160	,873	-,067	,055
E2_aggr	,023	,031	,737	,461	-,028	,074
E3_aggr	,045	,043	1,024	,306	-,027	,116
M_aggr	,037	,038	,982	,327	-,025	,100
C_aggr	-,014	,042	-,333	,739	-,084	,056

Product terms key:
Int_1 : W_aggr x IO_aggr
Int_2 : CO_aggr x IO_aggr

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F(HC4)	df1	df2	p
X*W	,003	3,112	1,000	506,000	,078
M*W	,004	4,524	1,000	506,000	,034

Focal predict: W_aggr (X)
Mod var: IO_aggr (W)

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):

IO_aggr	Effect	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-1,215	,191	,064	2,966	,003	,085	,297
-,215	,127	,045	2,827	,005	,053	,200
1,118	,041	,057	,724	,469	-,053	,136

Focal predict: CO_aggr (M)

Mod var: IO_aggr (W)

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):

IO_aggr	Effect	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-1,215	,144	,071	2,043	,042	,028	,261
-,215	,243	,046	5,279	,000	,167	,319
1,118	,374	,070	5,336	,000	,258	,489

********** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y **********

Conditional direct effect(s) of X on Y:

IO_aggr	Effect	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-1,215	,191	,064	2,966	,003	,085	,297
-,215	,127	,045	2,827	,005	,053	,200
1,118	,041	,057	,724	,469	-,053	,136

Conditional indirect effects of X on Y:

INDIRECT EFFECT:
W_aggr -> CO_aggr -> WoM_aggr

IO_aggr	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
-1,215	-,002	,007	-,014	,010
-,215	-,004	,011	-,022	,015
1,118	-,006	,017	-,035	,021

Index of moderated mediation:

	Index	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
IO_aggr	-,001	,005	-,011	,005

********** BOOTSTRAP RESULTS FOR REGRESSION MODEL PARAMETERS **********

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
CO_aggr

	Coeff	BootMean	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
constant	-1,830	-1,822	,419	-2,516	-1,127
W_aggr	-,015	-,016	,045	-,091	,057
UM_aggr	-,046	-,047	,032	-,099	,006
Sat_aggr	,249	,249	,033	,194	,304
PI_aggr	,057	,057	,020	,024	,090
Income	-,036	-,034	,026	-,077	,010
Edu	,035	,033	,029	-,016	,083
Age	,070	,070	,019	,038	,101
Gender	-,154	-,155	,055	-,246	-,066
E1_aggr	-,013	-,013	,037	-,074	,050
E2_aggr	-,055	-,055	,033	-,108	-,001
E3_aggr	,101	,100	,048	,022	,181
M_aggr	,036	,036	,039	-,027	,099
C_aggr	,177	,176	,039	,111	,242

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
WoM_aggr

	Coeff	BootMean	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
constant	1,587	1,584	,362	1,004	2,181
W_aggr	,113	,112	,043	,041	,182
CO_aggr	,264	,265	,045	,190	,340
IO_aggr	-,010	-,010	,028	-,057	,034
Int_1	-,064	-,064	,036	-,121	-,003
Int_2	,098	,098	,045	,022	,171
UM_aggr	,003	,004	,026	-,040	,047
Sat_aggr	,551	,551	,038	,488	,612
PI_aggr	,005	,006	,020	-,028	,039
Income	,025	,025	,024	-,014	,064
Edu	-,010	-,009	,023	-,047	,029
Age	-,020	-,020	,019	-,051	,010
Gender	-,014	-,013	,047	-,091	,064
E1_aggr	-,006	-,006	,036	-,066	,055
E2_aggr	,023	,023	,031	-,027	,073
E3_aggr	,045	,044	,043	-,027	,114
M_aggr	,037	,037	,038	-,026	,100
C_aggr	-,014	-,014	,042	-,084	,055

********** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS **********

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
90,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
5000

W values in conditional tables are the 16th, 50th, and 84th percentiles.

NOTE: A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used.

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:
IO_aggr W_aggr CO_aggr

------ END MATRIX -----

Run MATRIX procedure:

********** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.5.3 **********

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

****
Model : 15

Y : WoM_aggr
X : C_aggr
M : CO_aggr
W : IO_aggr

Covariates:
UM_aggr Sat_aggr PI_aggr Income Edu Age Gender E1_aggr E2_aggr E3_aggr M_aggr W_aggr

Sample
Size: 524

****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
CO_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F(HC4)	df1	df2	p
,583	,340	,311	18,138	13,000	510,000	,000

Model

	coeff	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	-1,186	,421	-2,818	,005	-1,880	-,492
C_aggr	,177	,040	4,470	,000	,112	,243
UM_aggr	-,046	,032	-1,457	,146	-,099	,006
Sat_aggr	,249	,034	7,438	,000	,194	,305
PI_aggr	,057	,020	2,846	,005	,024	,090
Income	-,036	,026	-1,369	,172	-,078	,007
Edu	,035	,030	1,162	,246	-,014	,083
Age	,070	,019	3,651	,000	,038	,101
Gender	-,154	,055	-2,804	,005	-,245	-,064
E1_aggr	-,013	,038	-,348	,728	-,077	,050
E2_aggr	-,055	,033	-1,673	,095	-,109	-,001
E3_aggr	,101	,049	2,073	,039	,021	,182
M_aggr	,036	,039	,921	,358	-,028	,101
W_aggr	-,015	,045	-,336	,737	-,090	,059

****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
WoM_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F(HC4)	df1	df2	p
,790	,623	,282	44,139	17,000	506,000	,000

Model

	coeff	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1,132	,344	3,289	,001	,565	1,699
C_aggr	-,016	,043	-,379	,705	-,086	,054
CO_aggr	,254	,047	5,432	,000	,177	,331
IO_aggr	-,014	,028	-,493	,622	-,061	,033
Int_1	,005	,043	,125	,901	-,066	,076
Int_2	,078	,048	1,642	,101	,000	,157

UM_aggr	,002	,027	,087	,931	-,042	,047
Sat_aggr	,549	,039	14,161	,000	,485	,613
PI_aggr	,007	,020	,335	,738	-,027	,040
Income	,024	,024	,999	,318	-,016	,064
Edu	-,010	,023	-,446	,656	-,049	,028
Age	-,020	,019	-1,086	,278	-,051	,011
Gender	-,012	,048	-,256	,798	-,091	,066
E1_aggr	,002	,038	,054	,957	-,061	,065
E2_aggr	,021	,031	,680	,497	-,030	,072
E3_aggr	,049	,044	1,119	,264	-,023	,121
M_aggr	,039	,038	1,025	,306	-,024	,102
W_aggr	,117	,044	2,653	,008	,044	,190

Product terms key:
Int_1 : C_aggr x IO_aggr
Int_2 : CO_aggr x IO_aggr

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F(HC4)	df1	df2	p
X*W	,000	,016	1,000	506,000	,901
M*W	,002	2,696	1,000	506,000	,101

********** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y **********

Conditional direct effect(s) of X on Y:

IO_aggr	Effect	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-1,215	-,023	,066	-,343	,732	-,132	,086
-,215	-,017	,043	-,400	,689	-,089	,054
1,118	-,010	,066	-,154	,877	-,118	,098

Conditional indirect effects of X on Y:

INDIRECT EFFECT:
C_aggr -> CO_aggr -> WoM_aggr

IO_aggr	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
-1,215	,028	,014	,007	,053
-,215	,042	,012	,023	,062
1,118	,060	,019	,032	,093

Index of moderated mediation:

	Index	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
IO_aggr	,014	,009	,000	,030

********** BOOTSTRAP RESULTS FOR REGRESSION MODEL PARAMETERS **********

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
CO_aggr

	Coeff	BootMean	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
constant	-1,186	-1,176	,412	-1,870	-,499
C_aggr	,177	,176	,040	,110	,242

UM_aggr	-,046	-,047	,031	-,099	,004
Sat_aggr	,249	,249	,033	,195	,302
PI_aggr	,057	,057	,020	,023	,090
Income	-,036	-,035	,025	-,077	,007
Edu	,035	,034	,029	-,014	,082
Age	,070	,070	,019	,039	,102
Gender	-,154	-,157	,054	-,246	-,068
E1_aggr	-,013	-,013	,038	-,074	,049
E2_aggr	-,055	-,055	,032	-,107	-,003
E3_aggr	,101	,100	,048	,022	,179
M_aggr	,036	,037	,039	-,028	,101
W_aggr	-,015	-,015	,045	-,090	,058

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
WoM_aggr

	Coeff	BootMean	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
constant	1,132	1,139	,343	,563	1,694
C_aggr	-,016	-,015	,043	-,086	,054
CO_aggr	,254	,255	,047	,177	,330
IO_aggr	-,014	-,014	,027	-,058	,032
Int_1	,005	,006	,042	-,065	,074
Int_2	,078	,077	,046	,000	,154
UM_aggr	,002	,002	,026	-,041	,046
Sat_aggr	,549	,549	,038	,486	,610
PI_aggr	,007	,007	,020	-,026	,040
Income	,024	,024	,024	-,014	,063
Edu	-,010	-,010	,023	-,048	,028
Age	-,020	-,020	,019	-,051	,011
Gender	-,012	-,013	,048	-,091	,067
E1_aggr	,002	,003	,038	-,059	,065
E2_aggr	,021	,021	,031	-,030	,073
E3_aggr	,049	,048	,043	-,022	,119
M_aggr	,039	,039	,038	-,023	,102
W_aggr	,117	,115	,044	,044	,188

********** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS **********

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
90,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
5000

W values in conditional tables are the 16th, 50th, and 84th percentiles.

NOTE: A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used.

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:
IO_aggr C_aggr CO_aggr

------ END MATRIX -----

Run MATRIX procedure:

*************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.5.3 ***************

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

****
Model : 15
Y : WoM_aggr
X : M_aggr
M : CO_aggr
W : IO_aggr

Covariates:
UM_aggr Sat_aggr PI_aggr Income Edu Age Gender E1_aggr E2_aggr E3_aggr W_aggr C_aggr

Sample
Size: 524

****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
CO_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F(HC4)	df1	df2	p
,583	,340	,311	18,138	13,000	510,000	,000

Model

	coeff	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	-1,675	,448	-3,739	,000	-2,413	-,937
M_aggr	,036	,039	,921	,358	-,028	,101
UM_aggr	-,046	,032	-1,457	,146	-,099	,006
Sat_aggr	,249	,034	7,438	,000	,194	,305
PI_aggr	,057	,020	2,846	,005	,024	,090
Income	-,036	,026	-1,369	,172	-,078	,007
Edu	,035	,030	1,162	,246	-,014	,083
Age	,070	,019	3,651	,000	,038	,101
Gender	-,154	,055	-2,804	,005	-,245	-,064
E1_aggr	-,013	,038	-,348	,728	-,077	,050
E2_aggr	-,055	,033	-1,673	,095	-,109	-,001
E3_aggr	,101	,049	2,073	,039	,021	,182
W_aggr	-,015	,045	-,336	,737	-,090	,059
C_aggr	,177	,040	4,470	,000	,112	,243

****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
WoM_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F(HC4)	df1	df2	p
,791	,625	,281	45,200	17,000	506,000	,000

Model

	coeff	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1,306	,389	3,355	,001	,664	1,948
M_aggr	,040	,038	1,051	,294	-,023	,103
CO_aggr	,256	,046	5,537	,000	,180	,332
IO_aggr	-,013	,029	-,451	,652	-,061	,035
Int_1	-,045	,034	-1,320	,188	-,102	,011
Int_2	,095	,047	2,028	,043	,018	,173
UM_aggr	,005	,027	,167	,867	-,040	,049
Sat_aggr	,553	,039	14,135	,000	,489	,618
PI_aggr	,005	,020	,247	,805	-,028	,038
Income	,023	,024	,951	,342	-,017	,063
Edu	-,009	,023	-,371	,711	-,047	,030
Age	-,019	,019	-,993	,321	-,050	,012
Gender	-,011	,048	-,234	,815	-,090	,067
E1_aggr	-,003	,038	-,083	,934	-,065	,059
E2_aggr	,023	,031	,720	,472	-,029	,074
E3_aggr	,048	,044	1,078	,282	-,025	,121
W_aggr	,113	,044	2,590	,010	,041	,186
C_aggr	-,015	,042	-,356	,722	-,085	,055

Product terms key:

Int_1	:	M_aggr	x	IO_aggr
Int_2	:	CO_aggr	x	IO_aggr

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F(HC4)	df1	df2	p
X*W	,002	1,741	1,000	506,000	,188
M*W	,004	4,111	1,000	506,000	,043

Focal predict: CO_aggr (M)

Mod var: IO_aggr (W)

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):

IO_aggr	Effect	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-1,215	,140	,073	1,920	,055	,020	,260
-,215	,235	,047	4,994	,000	,158	,313
1,118	,363	,071	5,131	,000	,246	,479

********** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y **********

Conditional direct effect(s) of X on Y:

IO_aggr	Effect	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-1,215	,095	,055	1,736	,083	,005	,186
-,215	,050	,039	1,297	,195	-,014	,114
1,118	-,011	,056	-,188	,851	-,103	,082

Conditional indirect effects of X on Y:

INDIRECT EFFECT:
M_aggr -> CO_aggr -> WoM_aggr

IO_aggr	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
-1,215	,005	,007	-,003	,017
-,215	,008	,010	-,006	,025
1,118	,013	,015	-,010	,039

Index of moderated mediation:

	Index	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
IO_aggr	,003	,005	-,003	,012

********** BOOTSTRAP RESULTS FOR REGRESSION MODEL PARAMETERS **********

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
CO_aggr

	Coeff	BootMean	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
constant	-1,675	-1,662	,442	-2,379	-,944
M_aggr	,036	,037	,039	-,027	,102
UM_aggr	-,046	-,047	,032	-,099	,005
Sat_aggr	,249	,250	,033	,194	,303
PI_aggr	,057	,057	,020	,023	,089
Income	-,036	-,035	,026	-,077	,008
Edu	,035	,033	,029	-,015	,082
Age	,070	,070	,019	,039	,101
Gender	-,154	-,154	,055	-,243	-,066
E1_aggr	-,013	-,012	,037	-,073	,048
E2_aggr	-,055	-,055	,032	-,108	-,002
E3_aggr	,101	,100	,048	,022	,180
W_aggr	-,015	-,015	,045	-,090	,058
C_aggr	,177	,176	,040	,110	,240

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
WoM_aggr

	Coeff	BootMean	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
constant	1,306	1,311	,380	,678	1,925
M_aggr	,040	,040	,038	-,022	,101
CO_aggr	,256	,258	,046	,183	,333
IO_aggr	-,013	-,012	,028	-,058	,035
Int_1	-,045	-,046	,032	-,099	,005
Int_2	,095	,095	,044	,021	,166
UM_aggr	,005	,005	,026	-,038	,048
Sat_aggr	,553	,552	,039	,490	,617
PI_aggr	,005	,005	,020	-,027	,038
Income	,023	,023	,024	-,016	,063
Edu	-,009	-,008	,023	-,047	,030

Age	-,019	-,019	,019	-,050	,013
Gender	-,011	-,011	,047	-,088	,066
E1_aggr	-,003	-,002	,038	-,066	,060
E2_aggr	,023	,022	,031	-,030	,071
E3_aggr	,048	,046	,043	-,026	,117
W_aggr	,113	,112	,043	,040	,182
C_aggr	-,015	-,014	,042	-,084	,055

********** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS **********

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
 90,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
 5000

W values in conditional tables are the 16th, 50th, and 84th percentiles.

NOTE: A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used.

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:
 IO_aggr M_aggr CO_aggr

------ END MATRIX -----

Run MATRIX procedure:

********** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.5.3 **********

 Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
 Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

****
Model : 15
 Y : WoM_aggr
 X : W_aggr
 M : CO_aggr
 W : TO_aggr

Covariates:
UM_aggr Sat_aggr PI_aggr Income Edu Age Gender E1_aggr E2_aggr E3_aggr C_aggr M_aggr

Sample
Size: 524

****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
CO_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F(HC4)	df1	df2	p
,583	,340	,311	18,138	13,000	510,000	,000

Model

	coeff	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	-1,830	,430	-4,258	,000	-2,538	-1,121
W_aggr	-,015	,045	-,336	,737	-,090	,059
UM_aggr	-,046	,032	-1,457	,146	-,099	,006
Sat_aggr	,249	,034	7,438	,000	,194	,305
PI_aggr	,057	,020	2,846	,005	,024	,090
Income	-,036	,026	-1,369	,172	-,078	,007
Edu	,035	,030	1,162	,246	-,014	,083
Age	,070	,019	3,651	,000	,038	,101
Gender	-,154	,055	-2,804	,005	-,245	-,064
E1_aggr	-,013	,038	-,348	,728	-,077	,050
E2_aggr	-,055	,033	-1,673	,095	-,109	-,001
E3_aggr	,101	,049	2,073	,039	,021	,182
C_aggr	,177	,040	4,470	,000	,112	,243
M_aggr	,036	,039	,921	,358	-,028	,101

****

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
WoM_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F(HC4)	df1	df2	p
,791	,625	,281	45,072	17,000	506,000	,000

Model

	coeff	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1,701	,376	4,523	,000	1,081	2,320
W_aggr	,119	,045	2,631	,009	,044	,193
CO_aggr	,232	,049	4,717	,000	,151	,313
TO_aggr	,072	,049	1,455	,146	-,010	,153
Int_1	,072	,053	1,360	,174	-,015	,159
Int_2	-,052	,058	-,902	,368	-,148	,043
UM_aggr	-,005	,027	-,197	,844	-,051	,040
Sat_aggr	,555	,038	14,439	,000	,492	,618
PI_aggr	,010	,021	,493	,622	-,024	,044
Income	,021	,024	,878	,380	-,018	,060
Edu	-,016	,024	-,649	,517	-,055	,024
Age	-,020	,018	-1,069	,286	-,050	,011
Gender	-,034	,048	-,704	,482	-,114	,046
E1_aggr	-,001	,038	-,039	,969	-,064	,061
E2_aggr	,020	,032	,618	,537	-,033	,072
E3_aggr	,034	,046	,734	,463	-,042	,110
C_aggr	-,015	,042	-,351	,725	-,084	,055
M_aggr	,033	,039	,844	,399	-,031	,096

Product terms key:
Int_1 : W_aggr x TO_aggr
Int_2 : CO_aggr x TO_aggr

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F(HC4)	df1	df2	p
X*W	,002	1,849	1,000	506,000	,174
M*W	,001	,813	1,000	506,000	,368

********** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y **********

Conditional direct effect(s) of X on Y:

TO_aggr	Effect	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-,667	,071	,056	1,252	,211	-,022	,164
,083	,125	,045	2,743	,006	,050	,199
,583	,160	,055	2,903	,004	,069	,252

Conditional indirect effects of X on Y:

INDIRECT EFFECT:
W_aggr -> CO_aggr -> WoM_aggr

TO_aggr	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
-,667	-,004	,012	-,025	,016
,083	-,003	,011	-,021	,014
,583	-,003	,010	-,018	,013

Index of moderated mediation:

	Index	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
TO_aggr	,001	,004	-,004	,007

********** BOOTSTRAP RESULTS FOR REGRESSION MODEL PARAMETERS **********

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
CO_aggr

	Coeff	BootMean	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
constant	-1,830	-1,829	,421	-2,505	-1,127
W_aggr	-,015	-,017	,045	-,091	,058
UM_aggr	-,046	-,048	,032	-,100	,005
Sat_aggr	,249	,250	,033	,195	,305
PI_aggr	,057	,057	,020	,024	,090
Income	-,036	-,035	,026	-,076	,007
Edu	,035	,034	,029	-,013	,082
Age	,070	,070	,019	,038	,102
Gender	-,154	-,155	,055	-,246	-,068
E1_aggr	-,013	-,013	,038	-,076	,050
E2_aggr	-,055	-,054	,032	-,106	,001
E3_aggr	,101	,102	,048	,024	,182
C_aggr	,177	,176	,040	,110	,241
M_aggr	,036	,037	,038	-,026	,099

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
WoM_aggr

	Coeff	BootMean	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
constant	1,701	1,699	,370	1,089	2,303
W_aggr	,119	,117	,044	,043	,190
CO_aggr	,232	,235	,048	,156	,314
TO_aggr	,072	,071	,046	-,004	,149
Int_1	,072	,069	,049	-,015	,146
Int_2	-,052	-,053	,054	-,139	,036
UM_aggr	-,005	-,006	,027	-,050	,039
Sat_aggr	,555	,552	,037	,491	,613
PI_aggr	,010	,011	,020	-,023	,045
Income	,021	,021	,024	-,019	,060
Edu	-,016	-,015	,023	-,053	,022
Age	-,020	-,020	,018	-,050	,011
Gender	-,034	-,033	,049	-,114	,049
E1_aggr	-,001	-,001	,037	-,061	,061
E2_aggr	,020	,020	,031	-,030	,071
E3_aggr	,034	,035	,046	-,040	,110
C_aggr	-,015	-,015	,042	-,086	,052
M_aggr	,033	,033	,038	-,029	,095

********** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS **********

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
 90,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
 5000

W values in conditional tables are the 16th, 50th, and 84th percentiles.

NOTE: A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used.

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:
 TO_aggr W_aggr CO_aggr

------ END MATRIX -----

Run MATRIX procedure:

********** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.5.3 **********

 Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
 Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

****
Model : 15
 Y : WoM_aggr
 X : C_aggr
 M : CO_aggr
 W : TO_aggr

Covariates:
UM_aggr Sat_aggr PI_aggr Income Edu Age Gender E1_aggr E2_aggr E3_aggr M_aggr W_aggr

Sample
Size: 524

****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
CO_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F(HC4)	df1	df2	p
,583	,340	,311	18,138	13,000	510,000	,000

Model

	coeff	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	-1,186	,421	-2,818	,005	-1,880	-,492
C_aggr	,177	,040	4,470	,000	,112	,243
UM_aggr	-,046	,032	-1,457	,146	-,099	,006
Sat_aggr	,249	,034	7,438	,000	,194	,305
PI_aggr	,057	,020	2,846	,005	,024	,090
Income	-,036	,026	-1,369	,172	-,078	,007
Edu	,035	,030	1,162	,246	-,014	,083
Age	,070	,019	3,651	,000	,038	,101
Gender	-,154	,055	-2,804	,005	-,245	-,064
E1_aggr	-,013	,038	-,348	,728	-,077	,050
E2_aggr	-,055	,033	-1,673	,095	-,109	-,001
E3_aggr	,101	,049	2,073	,039	,021	,182
M_aggr	,036	,039	,921	,358	-,028	,101
W_aggr	-,015	,045	-,336	,737	-,090	,059

****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
WoM_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F(HC4)	df1	df2	p
,790	,624	,282	43,421	17,000	506,000	,000

Model

	coeff	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1,257	,351	3,582	,000	,679	1,835
C_aggr	-,012	,042	-,282	,778	-,082	,058
CO_aggr	,226	,049	4,596	,000	,145	,307
TO_aggr	,067	,050	1,345	,179	-,015	,150
Int_1	-,039	,061	-,647	,518	-,139	,061
Int_2	-,017	,056	-,297	,767	-,109	,076
UM_aggr	-,005	,028	-,183	,855	-,051	,041
Sat_aggr	,553	,038	14,471	,000	,490	,616
PI_aggr	,008	,021	,399	,690	-,026	,042
Income	,022	,024	,893	,372	-,018	,062

Edu	-,017	,024	-,716	,474	-,056	,022
Age	-,020	,018	-1,095	,274	-,050	,010
Gender	-,035	,048	-,732	,464	-,115	,044
E1_aggr	,002	,038	,045	,964	-,061	,065
E2_aggr	,022	,032	,677	,499	-,031	,074
E3_aggr	,035	,047	,745	,457	-,042	,112
M_aggr	,035	,038	,921	,357	-,028	,098
W_aggr	,123	,045	2,723	,007	,049	,198

Product terms key:
Int_1 : C_aggr x TO_aggr
Int_2 : CO_aggr x TO_aggr

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F(HC4)	df1	df2	p
X*W	,000	,418	1,000	506,000	,518
M*W	,000	,088	1,000	506,000	,767

********** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y **********

Conditional direct effect(s) of X on Y:

TO_aggr	Effect	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-,667	,014	,057	,251	,802	-,079	,108
,083	-,015	,043	-,353	,724	-,086	,056
,583	-,035	,057	-,612	,541	-,129	,059

Conditional indirect effects of X on Y:

INDIRECT EFFECT:
C_aggr -> CO_aggr -> WoM_aggr

TO_aggr	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
-,667	,042	,014	,021	,067
,083	,040	,012	,022	,061
,583	,038	,013	,019	,061

Index of moderated mediation:

	Index	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
TO_aggr	-,003	,010	-,020	,013

********** BOOTSTRAP RESULTS FOR REGRESSION MODEL PARAMETERS **********

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
CO_aggr

	Coeff	BootMean	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
constant	-1,186	-1,177	,414	-1,843	-,486
C_aggr	,177	,176	,039	,111	,239
UM_aggr	-,046	-,047	,030	-,098	,002
Sat_aggr	,249	,249	,033	,196	,305
PI_aggr	,057	,057	,020	,024	,090
Income	-,036	-,035	,026	-,079	,009

Edu	,035	,033	,030	-,013	,084
Age	,070	,070	,018	,040	,100
Gender	-,154	-,155	,055	-,247	-,064
E1_aggr	-,013	-,014	,038	-,078	,049
E2_aggr	-,055	-,055	,032	-,106	-,003
E3_aggr	,101	,101	,048	,022	,180
M_aggr	,036	,036	,039	-,027	,100
W_aggr	-,015	-,015	,044	-,088	,058

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
WoM_aggr

	Coeff	BootMean	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
constant	1,257	1,264	,344	,703	1,840
C_aggr	-,012	-,012	,042	-,082	,057
CO_aggr	,226	,229	,048	,150	,311
TO_aggr	,067	,065	,047	-,010	,146
Int_1	-,039	-,039	,056	-,130	,052
Int_2	-,017	-,019	,054	-,104	,070
UM_aggr	-,005	-,006	,028	-,051	,040
Sat_aggr	,553	,550	,037	,487	,612
PI_aggr	,008	,009	,020	-,025	,042
Income	,022	,021	,024	-,018	,061
Edu	-,017	-,016	,023	-,054	,021
Age	-,020	-,020	,018	-,050	,010
Gender	-,035	-,035	,048	-,112	,045
E1_aggr	,002	,003	,038	-,058	,067
E2_aggr	,022	,021	,032	-,031	,072
E3_aggr	,035	,034	,046	-,042	,110
M_aggr	,035	,035	,038	-,028	,097
W_aggr	,123	,123	,045	,048	,197

********** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS **********

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
90,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
5000

W values in conditional tables are the 16th, 50th, and 84th percentiles.

NOTE: A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used.

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:
TO_aggr C_aggr CO_aggr

------ END MATRIX -----

Run MATRIX procedure:

**************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.5.3 ****************

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D. www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

****
Model : 15
Y : WoM_aggr
X : M_aggr
M : CO_aggr
W : TO_aggr

Covariates:
UM_aggr Sat_aggr PI_aggr Income Edu Age Gender E1_aggr E2_aggr E3_aggr W_aggr C_aggr

Sample
Size: 524

****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
CO_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F(HC4)	df1	df2	p
,583	,340	,311	18,138	13,000	510,000	,000

Model

	coeff	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	-1,675	,448	-3,739	,000	-2,413	-,937
M_aggr	,036	,039	,921	,358	-,028	,101
UM_aggr	-,046	,032	-1,457	,146	-,099	,006
Sat_aggr	,249	,034	7,438	,000	,194	,305
PI_aggr	,057	,020	2,846	,005	,024	,090
Income	-,036	,026	-1,369	,172	-,078	,007
Edu	,035	,030	1,162	,246	-,014	,083
Age	,070	,019	3,651	,000	,038	,101
Gender	-,154	,055	-2,804	,005	-,245	-,064
E1_aggr	-,013	,038	-,348	,728	-,077	,050
E2_aggr	-,055	,033	-1,673	,095	-,109	-,001
E3_aggr	,101	,049	2,073	,039	,021	,182
W_aggr	-,015	,045	-,336	,737	-,090	,059
C_aggr	,177	,040	4,470	,000	,112	,243

****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
WoM_aggr

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F(HC4)	df1	df2	p
,790	,624	,282	44,819	17,000	506,000	,000

Model

	coeff	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1,396	,396	3,529	,000	,744	2,048
M_aggr	,028	,041	,693	,488	-,039	,095
CO_aggr	,230	,049	4,654	,000	,149	,311
TO_aggr	,067	,051	1,312	,190	-,017	,151
Int_1	,052	,057	,900	,369	-,043	,146
Int_2	-,053	,055	-,964	,335	-,143	,037
UM_aggr	-,002	,029	-,060	,952	-,049	,046
Sat_aggr	,557	,039	14,272	,000	,492	,621
PI_aggr	,011	,021	,511	,610	-,023	,044
Income	,021	,024	,879	,380	-,019	,061
Edu	-,016	,024	-,663	,508	-,055	,024
Age	-,020	,018	-1,098	,273	-,051	,010
Gender	-,036	,048	-,754	,451	-,116	,043
E1_aggr	,002	,038	,043	,966	-,061	,065
E2_aggr	,018	,032	,571	,569	-,034	,071
E3_aggr	,032	,046	,698	,486	-,044	,109
W_aggr	,123	,045	2,713	,007	,048	,198
C_aggr	-,015	,043	-,342	,732	-,085	,056

Product terms key:

Int_1	:	M_aggr	x	TO_aggr
Int_2	:	CO_aggr	x	TO_aggr

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):

	R2-chng	F(HC4)	df1	df2	p
X*W	,001	,810	1,000	506,000	,369
M*W	,001	,930	1,000	506,000	,335

********** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y **********

Conditional direct effect(s) of X on Y:

TO_aggr	Effect	se(HC4)	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-,667	-,006	,065	-,096	,923	-,114	,101
,083	,032	,039	,829	,407	-,032	,097
,583	,058	,042	1,384	,167	-,011	,128

Conditional indirect effects of X on Y:

INDIRECT EFFECT:

M_aggr -> CO_aggr -> WoM_aggr

TO_aggr	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
-,667	,010	,010	-,006	,028
,083	,008	,009	-,005	,023
,583	,007	,008	-,005	,021

Index of moderated mediation:

	Index	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
TO_aggr	-,002	,003	-,009	,002

********** BOOTSTRAP RESULTS FOR REGRESSION MODEL PARAMETERS **********

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
CO_aggr

	Coeff	BootMean	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
constant	-1,675	-1,669	,438	-2,385	-,946
M_aggr	,036	,037	,038	-,024	,100
UM_aggr	-,046	-,047	,032	-,098	,006
Sat_aggr	,249	,251	,033	,197	,306
PI_aggr	,057	,056	,020	,024	,089
Income	-,036	-,035	,026	-,077	,008
Edu	,035	,034	,029	-,014	,082
Age	,070	,070	,019	,039	,100
Gender	-,154	-,155	,054	-,244	-,067
E1_aggr	-,013	-,013	,037	-,075	,049
E2_aggr	-,055	-,055	,032	-,107	-,001
E3_aggr	,101	,101	,047	,024	,180
W_aggr	-,015	-,016	,044	-,090	,057
C_aggr	,177	,175	,039	,111	,240

OUTCOME VARIABLE:
WoM_aggr

	Coeff	BootMean	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
constant	1,396	1,395	,387	,767	2,042
M_aggr	,028	,028	,039	-,038	,092
CO_aggr	,230	,232	,048	,155	,313
TO_aggr	,067	,064	,045	-,010	,138
Int_1	,052	,050	,049	-,027	,131
Int_2	-,053	-,053	,051	-,134	,031
UM_aggr	-,002	-,002	,027	-,048	,043
Sat_aggr	,557	,554	,038	,491	,616
PI_aggr	,011	,011	,020	-,023	,045
Income	,021	,021	,024	-,019	,061
Edu	-,016	-,015	,024	-,055	,024
Age	-,020	-,020	,018	-,051	,010
Gender	-,036	-,036	,047	-,112	,043
E1_aggr	,002	,003	,038	-,060	,065
E2_aggr	,018	,017	,031	-,035	,069
E3_aggr	,032	,033	,045	-,040	,107
W_aggr	,123	,122	,045	,048	,199
C_aggr	-,015	-,013	,042	-,083	,056

********** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS **********

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
90,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:

5000

W values in conditional tables are the 16th, 50th, and 84th percentiles.

NOTE: A heteroscedasticity consistent standard error and covariance matrix estimator was used.

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:
TO_aggr M_aggr CO_aggr

------ END MATRIX -----

Appendix C – Descriptive Analysis – Differences in the evaluation of salespeople types

	Warmth	Competence	Morality	Ulterior Motive
Bank female	3,14	3,35	3,05	3,15
Bank male	2,58	3,32	2,58	3,35
Bank combined	2,86	3,33	2,81	3,25
Real Estate female	2,90	3,65	2,64	5,01
Real Estate male	2,72	3,62	2,54	3,48
Real Estate combined	2,81	3,64	2,59	4,25
Luxury female	3,04	3,54	2,99	3,25
Luxury male	2,90	3,40	3,04	3,20
Luxury combined	2,97	3,47	3,01	3,22
Car female	2,81	3,34	2,56	3,33
Car male	2,80	3,45	2,65	3,33
Car combined	2,81	3,39	2,61	3,33
Augustin female	3,47	2,70	2,90	3,42
Augustin male	3,73	2,75	3,11	3,51
Augustin combined	3,60	2,72	3,00	3,46
Pharma female	3,78	3,89	3,97	2,67
Pharma male	3,45	3,92	3,86	2,71
Pharma combined	3,62	3,91	3,92	2,69
TV female	2,73	3,10	2,47	3,70
TV male	2,67	2,91	2,05	3,83
TV combined	2,70	3,01	2,26	3,77
Regular female	3,23	2,91	3,27	3,13
Regular male	3,24	2,96	3,16	3,32
Regular combined	3,23	2,93	3,22	3,23
Non-Profit female	3,28	3,38	2,94	4,12
Nin-Profit male	3,49	3,33	3,32	3,71
Non-Profit combined	3,39	3,35	3,13	3,91
Technical female	3,03	3,30	3,27	3,18
Technical male	3,07	3,40	2,97	2,98
Technical combined	3,05	3,35	3,12	3,08

Insurance female	2,85	3,51	2,75	3,42
Insurance male	2,89	3,63	2,78	3,33
Unsurance combined	2,87	3,57	2,77	3,38
Travel Agents female	3,66	3,70	3,48	2,52
Travel Agents male	3,61	3,50	3,10	3,25
Travel Agents combined	3,63	3,60	3,29	2,89

Appendix C – German abstract

Ziel der vorliegenden Studie ist es, Stereotype über Verkäufer:innen mit Hilfe des etablierten Stereotype Content Models zu analysieren und herauszufinden, ob sich Stereotypinhalte in Verhaltensreaktionen der Kunden niederschlagen.

Es wird angenommen, dass die Stereotyp-Inhaltsdimensionen Wärme, Kompetenz und Moral das Verhalten der Kund:innen gegenüber Verkäufer:innen in Form von positiver Mundpropaganda prägen und dass dieser Zusammenhang durch den Grad der Kundenorientierung, den die Kunden beim Verkäufer wahrnehmen, vermittelt wird. Es wird ferner angenommen, dass der Kundentyp diese Beziehung beeinflusst.

Durch die Analyse der Ergebnisse von 546 Befragten, die an einer Online-Befragung teilgenommen haben, und durch die Anwendung einer multiplen Regressionsanalyse wurde festgestellt, dass die Stereotyp-Inhaltsdimension Wärme einen signifikanten Einfluss auf die Wahrscheinlichkeit hat, dass ein/e Kunde/Kundin positive Mundpropaganda betreibt. Des Weiteren konnte nachgewiesen werden, dass die wahrgenommene Kompetenz des/r Verkäufers/Verkäuferin die wahrgenommene Kundenorientierung des/r Verkäufers/Verkäuferin erhöht und dass die Kundenorientierung selbst sich positiv auf die Mundpropaganda des/r Kunden/Kundin auswirkt und den Effekt zwischen Kompetenz und Mundpropaganda vermittelt. Hinsichtlich der beiden untersuchten Kundentypen, interaktionsorientiert und aufgabenorientiert, wurde festgestellt, dass die Interaktionsorientierung die Beziehung zwischen Wärme und Mundpropaganda negativ, die Beziehung zwischen Kundenorientierung und positiver Mundpropaganda jedoch positiv beeinflusst.

Die Ergebnisse der Studie leisten einen Beitrag zur internationalen Verkaufs- und Stereotypenliteratur, indem sie Verkäufer:innen systematisch analysieren und damit den Status-quo der Verkäuferforschung erweitern sowie den Anwendungsbereich des Stereotype Content Model ausdehnen. Aus betriebswirtschaftlicher Sicht wird die Bedeutung von Stereotypeninhalten für Verkaufsleiter

hervorgehoben, da sie das Wissen über verschiedene Arten von Verkäufer:innen generell erweitern. Darüber hinaus wird der Vorteil des kundenorientierten Verkaufens hervorgehoben, da es nicht nur die Kundenzufriedenheit erhöht, sondern auch die Chance auf unterstützendes Verhalten seitens der Kund:innen.

Schlüsselwörter: Stereotypen über Verkäufer, Stereotype Content Model, Stereotypen von Wärme und Kompetenz, Moral, Kundentypen, Kundenverhalten