

AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE IMPACT OF
SEX ROLE IDENTITY
ON THE EFFECTIVE PERFORMANCE OF SALESWOMEN

by

Lucette Bowers Comer

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Advisory Committee:

Professor Marvin A. Jolson
Associate Professor William G. Nickels
Associate Professor Ruth B. Smith
Associate Professor M. Susan Taylor
Associate Professor Mary M. Leonard

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ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation: An Investigation into the Impact of
 Sex Role Identity on the Performance
 Effectiveness of Saleswomen

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Dissertation directed by: Marvin A. Jolson
 Professor
 Department of Marketing

Because of an increasing shortage of qualified salespersonnel, recruiters for sales positions are very receptive to female applicants. Despite this, sex-discrimination is still detectable in the marketplace. Some sales managers resist bringing women into male-oriented areas of selling, criticizing them for alleged weaknesses. Their criticisms stem from the belief that saleswomen will behave according to gender stereotypes on the job and that this behavior will impact negatively on selling performance. Sales managers need assurance that the saleswomen they hire will perform well on the job.

This research investigated the usefulness of the concept of "sex role identity" as a basis for segmenting the pool of female applicants by their potential for effective performance. A survey

was conducted of sales managers in three traditionally male areas of selling, who described saleswomen under their supervision. The relationships between sales managers' perceptions of gender stereotypic behavior, selling effectiveness, and sex role identity were examined. Saleswomen's gender stereotypic behavior was defined as perceived weaknesses in three areas: "selling ability," "human relations," and "motivation." Selling effectiveness was measured as perceived proficiency in performance of six functions of selling and non-selling activities. Saleswomen were classified into sex role types on the basis of their sales managers' perceptions of their masculine ("instrumental") and feminine ("expressive") traits in their sex role identities on the Bem Sex Role Inventory. Seven research hypotheses were tested using univariate and multivariate analysis of variance and correlational analyses.

The results showed that sales managers perceived some gender stereotypic behavior in the marketplace and that some of this behavior was associated with reduced selling effectiveness. Sex role types of saleswomen related to both perceived gender stereotypic behavior and selling effectiveness. Androgynous and masculine saleswomen were perceived as both the least stereotyped and the most effective performers. The findings give partial support for a two-dimensional model of selling effectiveness

defined by masculine "instrumentality" and feminine
"expressiveness." The results have implications for the selection,
training, and supervision of saleswomen.

This dissertation is dedicated to my mother:

Ella Smith Bowers,

to the memory of my father:

Ray Landis Bowers,

and to the memory of my husband:

John Preston Comer, Jr.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Description of the Problem in the Marketplace

There is a constantly increasing shortage of qualified sales personnel in the marketplace (Anderson and Hair 1983). Turnover is traditionally high in selling jobs (e.g., Jolson, Dubinsky and Anderson, 1987; Williamson 1983; McMahon 1981) and replacement personnel are continually needed. The number of new sales positions increases yearly, inflating the need for qualified applicants. The demand for new salespersons, above and beyond replacement personnel, is projected to increase by as much as twenty percent between 1984 and 1995. During the same period, the number of applicants for sales positions from traditional sources is expected to decrease (Bureau of Labor Statistics, reported in Taylor 1986). The many women currently entering the work force are a logical source of reinforcements for the applicant pool.

Spurred by EEO legislation, the woman's movement, and economic need, women have been moving into the job market (e.g., Cahan 1985; Sutton and Moore 1985). More women are acquiring professional training in business; the percentage of bachelor's degrees in

business and management awarded to women has increased from 8.1% in 1971, to 39% in 1982 (National Center for Educational Statistics, reported in The Lady Means Business 1984). The percentage of women entering marketing is particularly high. Women received more than 50% of all marketing degrees awarded in United States colleges and universities in 1985 (National Center for Educational Statistics, reported in Kellerman 1987). Females are enrolling in sales management classes and are expressing interest in the types of selling jobs that have been traditionally held by males (Comer and Jolson 1985).

Women in Selling Positions

There is a trend toward more women in selling positions. A survey by the Research Institute of America reported a dramatic increase in the the number of firms employing saleswomen (Reported in A Survey of Sales 1985). Firms that led the way in hiring women have found them to be capable salespersons and are increasing the proportions of saleswomen on their staffs. In 1984, women constituted 39% of the Xerox sales force (Selling: A Fortune Portfolio 1984), and 31% of Johnson and Johnson's field sales force (Skolnik 1985). It has been projected that as many as two-thirds of the newcomers to the salesforce during the next decade will be women (Taylor 1986).

Opportunities for Women in Selling. Opportunities in selling provide substantial benefits for women. Jobs in sales have traditionally been routes to high positions in the corporate world (Anderson and Hair 1983; Sussman 1979; Kanter 1977). In the past, women who entered marketing have been concentrated in staff positions (Pletcher and Joyce 1976; Pletcher 1978). Access to entry-level selling positions can open the door of line management to talented women. Selling offers women the opportunity to prove their worth to the company while also gaining valuable experience with its products and its customers in the marketplace (Corporate Woman 1979).

Overall, earnings of women still lag behind those of men (e.g., Cahan 1985; Sutton and Moore 1985; Bergmann 1986; Anderson 1987).¹ Selling is one of the few fields in which women's earnings have the potential of being comparable to those of men. For example, female sales engineers have been reported to be the highest paid women in the country (Bureau of Labor Statistics, reported in Nickels 1984). In most positions held by women, however, earnings are determined by supervisor's evaluations, which may be biased. In commissioned sales jobs, on the other hand, compensation is directly attributable to the efforts and productivity of the salesperson.

Strengths of Women in Selling. Women bring many strengths to

the sales job. Assets claimed for them by their supporters include their listening ability (Skolnik 1985; Scanlon 1973), their door-opening ability (Kanuk 1978; Carter and Bryan 1978), their hard-working natures, their eagerness to learn (Cole 1985), and even that they don't "look, talk, or act like salesmen" (Why Hire Saleswomen 1978, p. 4). Women have traditionally performed well in female-oriented selling jobs² such as direct to home selling of small ticket items, and many of those who have penetrated male selling strongholds, such as industrial selling, are high performers. Published case studies provide testimonials to the success of women in non-traditional selling positions (e.g., Selling: A Fortune Portfolio 1984; Gibson 1984; Skolnik 1985). (For a recent review of the current status of women in selling see Gable and Reed 1987.)

Barriers Against Women in Traditionally Male Areas of Selling

Despite the need for salespersons and the proven success of many women in selling, discrimination against women still can be identified in traditionally male-oriented areas of selling. Women face barriers in gaining entry to jobs and those women who gain entry to such jobs still experience discriminatory treatment on the job.

Barriers to Entry. Discriminatory hiring practices still

prevent qualified women applicants from obtaining sales jobs. Jolson (1983) found evidence of discriminatory screening practices in industrial selling and in smaller consumer goods firms. A recent survey of sales managers found that close to thirty percent of respondents expressed reluctance to adding women to their staffs (Jolson and Comer 1987). These sales managers were critical of women's potential for success on the job because of supposed gender-related characteristics which they believed would interfere with job performance.

Discriminatory Treatment. Evidence of differential treatment of salesmen and saleswomen has been reported within a traditionally male selling organization (Finn and Moncrief 1985). Saleswomen were assigned higher quotas than were comparable salesmen and were given lighter workloads, which made it more difficult for them to achieve the quotas. The Ortho Pharmaceutical Company has recently been charged with discriminatory practices by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) because of the alleged use of sex-biased training materials. These materials, consisting of a report to division managers about "things to be concerned about when hiring women," alleged, among other things, that "a married mother is not statistically likely to survive at Ortho" (Kurtz 1986, p. A.3).

Gender Stereotypes in Selling. Kanuk (1978) contended that

exclusion of women from careers in industrial selling was based on sexual stereotypes. She argued that stereotypic thinking must be eliminated before women could compete successfully with men on these jobs. Despite the progress that has been made in integrating women onto industrial salesforces, stereotypes persist. Stereotypic thinking was identified among salesmen and saleswomen attending a seminar of the Sales and Marketing Executives Association of Los Angeles (SMELA) (Saleswomen Speak Out 1984). When asked to enumerate qualities associated with males, females, and leaders, salespersonnel of both sexes used such terms as "homebodies, shy, emotional, and jealous" to describe women. Evidence of stereotypic thinking was also found in the training materials alleged to be used at the Ortho Pharmaceutical Company (Kurtz 1986). These materials described women in such terms as more "sensitive," more "passive," less "assertive," and more "affectionate," than men.

Criticisms of Women in Selling

Criticisms of saleswomen by sales managers have their roots in the belief that saleswomen will behave in accordance with gender stereotypes, and that this stereotypic behavior will impact negatively on their selling performance. Gender stereotypic behavior has the potential for impacting upon selling performance through effects on the selling ability, the human relations, and

the motivation of saleswomen.

Selling Ability. Women's ability tends to be devalued in our culture, even when the performance of the women is acknowledged to be high. (See Hansen and O'Leary 1985 for a discussion of the relevant research.) Women's high achievement is not as likely as that of men to be perceived as stemming from high ability. Research has found that raters tend to attribute the successful performance of women to factors such as luck (Deaux and Emswiller 1974; Deaux and Farris 1979), effort (Etaugh and Brown 1975; Feldman-Summers and Kiesler 1978), or task ease (Feather and Simon 1975; Rosenfeld and Stephans 1978), but rarely to their ability. This may partially explain why, despite the many examples of high performing saleswomen cited in the literature (e.g., Scanlon 1973; Stern 1978; Selling/A Fortune Portfolio 1984; Figel 1983; Corporate Woman 1978; Gibson 1984; Oh, What a Feelin' 1984; Cole 1985; Skolnik 1985; Krasnow 1986; Two Successful Saleswomen 1987; Rehert 1988), sales managers continue to disparage the ability of saleswomen.

Human Relations. The natural arena for achievement of women is in their relationships with others. Females are generally believed to be more interpersonally oriented than males (e.g., Miller 1975; Gilligan 1982), and saleswomen are well liked by their customers (e.g., Swan et al. 1984; Lundstrom and Ashworth 1983). Despite

this, some sales managers believe that the type of interactions that saleswomen have with their customers will not result in maximal selling effectiveness. Some of the criticisms are not directed toward the possession of stereotypically feminine qualities, but toward the fact that these qualities are not balanced with stereotypically masculine qualities. Other criticisms are directed toward saleswomen's communication styles on the job.

Motivation. Criticisms of the motivation of saleswomen arise from the belief that behavior that is consistent with gender stereotypes will detract from the ability of saleswomen to sustain the performance of the sales job. Sales jobs are very demanding in time, energy, and disappointments. Some sales managers believe that women cannot successfully integrate their gender and occupational roles, and that the resulting conflict will detract from their productivity on the job. Others believe that women lack the necessary emotional mechanisms to sustain the intense inner drive required in many sales positions.

Segmentation of the Pool of Saleswomen

Segmenting the pool of applicants for sales positions on the basis of sex role identity may provide a way of identifying those individuals who have the most potential for success as

salespeople.

Sex Role Identity. Sex role identity is defined as the relative degree to which individuals endorse the socially desirable traits associated with their own and the opposite gender (e.g., Bem 1974; Spence and Helmreich 1978). Masculinity and femininity are conceived of in terms of the instrumental/expressive dichotomy proposed by Parsons and Bales (1955). Masculinity is defined in terms of instrumental traits appropriate to the traditional social role of the male who protects and provides for his family. Femininity is defined in terms of expressive traits appropriate to the traditional social role of the female who ministers to the family's physical and emotional needs. In the present study, sales managers' perceptions of the sex role identities of saleswomen are measured by administration of the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI).

Sex Role Types. Women are classifiable into sex role types on the basis of the relative amounts of masculine (instrumental) and feminine (expressive) traits in their sex role identities (Spence, Helmreich and Stapp 1975; Bem 1977). Figure 1-1 depicts four types of women categorized according to their relative endorsement of masculine instrumentality and feminine expressiveness. Those women who have high femininity and low masculinity scores, are classified as feminine females; those with high masculinity and low femininity scores are classified as masculine females. Women who have both

Figure 1-1
Sex Role Types of Women

FEMININITY

		HIGH		LOW	
M	I	I	Androgynous Females	I	Masculine Females
A	I	I		I	
S	I	I		I	
C	I	I		I	
U	I	I		I	
L	I	I	Feminine Females	I	Undifferentiated Females
I	I	I		I	
N	I	I		I	
I	I	I		I	
T	I	I		I	
Y	I	I	LOW	I	
I	I	I		I	

A typology of women based on the relative degree to which they endorse masculine and feminine traits.

high masculinity and femininity scores are classified as androgynous females, while those who are low on both scores are classified as undifferentiated females. The present study investigates the correspondence between these sex role types and the degree to which saleswomen are perceived by their sales managers to behave in accordance with gender stereotypes. It also investigates the relationship between sex role types and selling effectiveness.

Selling Effectiveness

In the present study, selling effectiveness is defined as proficiency in carrying out the personal selling process by the performance of six promotional functions of selling and of non-selling activities.

The Personal Selling Process. Performance of the sales job involves the implementation of a sequence of activities known as the personal selling process (e.g., Dubinsky 1980). Effective performance of the job requires effective performance of each sequential step in this process.

The Functions of Selling. One model of the personal selling process conceives of the activities performed by salespersonnel as a series of promotional functions which must be performed whenever a sales transaction takes place (Jolson 1974a; 1977b; 1984; 1986b).

There are six functions in the model: prospecting, contacting, probing for needs, stimulating desire, closing, and retaining. These are described briefly in Figure 1-2. For purposes of this research, selling effectiveness is defined as the proficiency of saleswomen in performing these six promotional functions, in addition to non-selling activities, as rated by their supervising sales managers.³

A Two Dimensional Performance Model. The effectiveness of performance of the functions of selling can be viewed according to a two-dimensional model. This model conceives of selling performance in terms of an instrumentality/expressiveness dichotomy (Parsons and Bales 1955). Under the assumptions of this model, outstanding salespersons will balance instrumental and expressive behaviors in their performance of the job (e.g., Blake and Mouton 1980). Instrumental selling behaviors involve activities that focus on concern for the sale, such as directing the probing process and asking for the order. Expressive selling behaviors involve activities that focus on concern for the customer, such as listening to the customer and customer service activities. The present study investigates the correspondence between the sex role types of saleswomen and their performance of the instrumental and expressive aspects of the functions of selling.

Sex Role Type and Selling Effectiveness. There is some

Figure 1-2
Definitions of
The Six Functions of Selling

Prospecting

Identifying prospective customers for the firm and/or its product.

Contacting

The first one-on-one relationship between the salesperson and the prospect, usually in person.*

Probing for Needs

Determination of the prospect's needs through active listening and discerning questioning.

Stimulating Desire

The offering of the seller's products/services as a response to the prospect's needs/problems. Typically, this takes the form of a sales presentation or demonstration.

Closing

Asking for, and obtaining, the order.

Retaining

Retaining the order and the customer.

* The increasing popularity of telemarketing has introduced situations where the initial, and even subsequent, contacts are made by telephone.

evidence that sex role types relate to selling effectiveness. Androgynous females have been found to be more effective salespersons than are feminine females among part time direct saleswomen,⁴ and on this basis, the BSRI has been recommended to sales managers as a tool to aid in selection of salespersons (Teer 1985). More information is needed about the relationship between the sex role types of saleswomen and the selling effectiveness of saleswomen as well as about the appropriateness of the use of the BSRI as a screening tool for sales jobs. (See Nelson 1987 for a current report on the use of personality tests in the sales selection process.)

Purpose of the Research

The primary purpose of this dissertation is to investigate whether saleswomen are perceived by sales managers as behaving in accordance with gender stereotypes and, if so, whether the perceived behavior is correlated with their selling effectiveness. It investigates whether saleswomen, classified into sex role types, differ in the degree to which they are perceived by sales managers to behave in accordance with gender stereotypes. It also investigates whether there are differences in selling effectiveness among saleswomen of the different sex role types.

Research Questions

The following questions guided the research:

- (1) Are saleswomen in traditionally male-oriented areas of selling perceived by their sales managers to behave in accordance with gender stereotypes impacting on their selling ability, human relations, and motivation?
- (2) Does the degree to which saleswomen in traditionally male-oriented areas of selling are perceived by their sales managers to behave in accordance with gender stereotypes correlate with the effectiveness of their selling performance?
- (3) Does the degree to which saleswomen in traditionally male-oriented areas of selling are perceived by their sales managers to behave in accordance with gender stereotypes differ among saleswomen of four different sex role types?
- (4) Does the effectiveness of selling performance in traditionally male-oriented areas of selling differ among saleswomen of four different sex role types?

Significance of the Research

This present study adds to the current state of knowledge about women in selling in several important ways. It examines the problem within a conceptual framework that offers insight into the manner in which masculine and feminine traits of saleswomen are

related to their perceived behavior on the job. It also provides information of practical value to sales managers, to saleswomen, and to vocational counselors, as discussed below.

Conceptual Significance

Most prior research on women in selling has focused on differences between salesmen and saleswomen. The present study focuses on differences among the saleswomen themselves, classified according to their sex role types.

No previous study has examined the relationship between perceived gender stereotypic behavior of saleswomen in traditionally male-oriented areas of selling and selling effectiveness. This study measures selling effectiveness (using a behaviorally derived scale) at each stage in the personal selling process. Evaluation of saleswomen's performance of six mutually exclusive and collectively exhaustive selling functions and of non-selling activities serves as the basis of the measure.

The present study contributes to the growing body of literature about sex role identity and vocational behavior. It extends the investigation of the relationship between sex role identity and selling effectiveness to traditionally male-oriented selling jobs. It addresses the correspondence between the sex role types of saleswomen and the instrumental and expressive behaviors

required in performing the functions of selling.

The present research contributes to the literature about sex discrimination in business. It asks the question of whether gender stereotypes are still operational in traditionally male-oriented selling jobs and whether behavior that is perceived to conform to these stereotypes has any negative impact on the selling effectiveness of women.

The research provides additional evidence concerning the appropriateness of the BSRI for use as a managerial tool to aid in the selection of saleswomen for different types of selling jobs.

Practical Significance

The present study provides useful information to sales managers, in their capacity as recruiters, trainers, and supervisors of saleswomen; to women, as applicants for, and incumbents in, selling jobs; and to vocational counselors, as advisors to women who are interested in careers in selling.

Significance to Sales Managers. This study is potentially of interest to sales recruiters. It provides information that will help them select appropriate persons for their jobs, based on their sex role types. It is also potentially of interest to sales trainers. It will help them identify those women who are deficient

in personal qualities needed in their jobs so that training programs can be targeted toward their needs. It is potentially of interest to supervisors of saleswomen. It will help them identify saleswomen with different behavioral needs and help them to determine the appropriate type of support and guidance for them.

Significance to Women. This study provides information of value to women. If sex role identity is found to relate to saleswomen's effectiveness on the job, and it is possible to identify those women with the greatest potential for success, the entry of some women into traditionally male-oriented selling jobs may be eased. The results are potentially of interest to female students of sales management who hope to embark on careers in selling. It will help them determine the type of selling job that is most compatible with their sex role type. It is potentially of interest to those saleswomen who experience problems on traditionally male sales forces. It may help them develop insights into the underlying causes of their problems and may suggest ways of dealing with them. It is potentially of interest to saleswomen who are currently performing effectively in traditionally female-oriented areas of selling, who might be interested in moving into more challenging traditionally male-oriented selling jobs. It may help them evaluate the advisability of making such a change, based on an understanding of their sex role types.

Importance to Vocational Counselors. The study is also potentially of interest to vocational counselors who will be better able to provide information to women about the appropriateness of various types selling jobs to their sex role types and to provide information to saleswomen who experience difficulties while on those jobs.

Organization of the Dissertation

Chapter One has provided an introduction to the problem area, a statement of the purpose of the research, an enumeration of the research questions that are to be addressed, and a discussion of the potential significance of the findings both conceptually and practically. Chapter Two contains a review of the literature pertaining to the perceived stereotypic behavior of women in selling. Chapter Three contains reviews of the literature pertaining to the functions of selling and the concept of sex role identity. It also develops the conceptual framework that underlies the research. Chapter Four describes the research methodology. It sets forth the variables that were investigated, the hypotheses that were tested, the nature of the sample, the design of the study, and the statistical techniques that were used to analyze the data. Chapter Five presents the results of the data analysis and

discusses the findings, both in general and in the context of the three different selling situations that were examined. Chapter Six contains a summary of the study, conclusions, implications and managerial recommendations, as well as a discussion of the limitations of the study and an agenda for future research.

Endnotes

1. Some progress has been noted among younger women. According to recent figures, women between the ages of 25 and 34 now earn about 75% of the salaries of their male counterparts, while those between 20 and 24 now earn 85.7% (Beware the "W-4 Shock" 1987).

2. As defined here, a female-oriented selling job is one on which the percentage of females is greater than 50%, a male-oriented job is one on which the percentage of females employed is less than 50%, while a sex-neutral job is one on which the percentage of males and females is approximately equal (e.g., Kiesler 1975; Heilman 1983; Comer and Jolson 1985). By this definition, in-store retail selling, and direct selling of small ticket items (e.g., cosmetics, housewares) are female-oriented, selling to organizational end-users, selling to resellers, and direct sales of large ticket items are male-oriented, while real estate selling is approximately sex-neutral (Statistical Abstract of the United States 1984).

3. It should be noted that these functions are not exclusively performed by salespersons. In some selling situations, an impersonal promotional tool is substituted. For example, in retail

selling, the function of prospecting is almost always performed by advertising.

4. Teer (1985) found that among part-time saleswomen in one direct selling organization, androgynous females achieved higher dollar sales over a four month period than did feminine females.

CHAPTER TWO

THE RELEVANT LITERATURE: I

Three clusters of literature underlie the conceptual framework of this study. The first cluster concerns empirical studies comparing job-related characteristics of saleswomen to those of salesmen on traditionally male salesforces. The discussion focuses on gender stereotypes and problems that might result if saleswomen were to behave according to these stereotypes. The next deals with the concept of sex role identity and its measurement. The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) is introduced along with the theory underlying its construction, the relationship of sex role identity to behavior, and its application to the understanding of vocational behavior. The final cluster of literature deals with selling effectiveness and its measurement, and discusses the use of performance of the functions of selling as a basis for the evaluation of selling performance.

This chapter reviews the literature pertaining to gender stereotypes about women in selling. It begins with a discussion of the background of the research in the context of gender stereotypes in business. The discussion proceeds to a discussion of

limitations in existing research into sex differences in selling. Existing gender stereotypes about women in selling are then discussed. They are grouped in three general categories: (1) those that potentially impact upon selling ability, (2) those that potentially impact upon human relations ability, and (3) those that potentially impact upon motivation.

The Context of the Research

This section establishes the context of the study. It provides background information about gender stereotypes and discusses the limitations of existing research into gender differences among salespersons.

Gender Stereotypes

Background information about gender stereotypes is introduced. First, the reasons why gender stereotypes are believed to be damaging to women in business are presented. Then, the reasons why stereotypes are so difficult to change are discussed. Next the content of gender stereotypes is described. Finally, the concept of the "kernel of truth" that underlies stereotypes is introduced.

The Effects of Gender Stereotypes in Business. Thinking based

on gender stereotypes is believed to underlie some of the barriers faced by women who seek careers in non-traditional occupations. Stereotypic thinking by recruiters has been found to impact upon the pre-entry screening process of female job applicants (Cash, Gilken and Burns 1977; Cohen and Bunker 1975; Dipboye, Arvey and Terpstra 1977; Dipboye, Fromkin and Wiback 1975; Gerdes and Garber 1983; Haefner 1977; Rose and Andiappan 1978; Shaw 1972; Zickmund, Hitt and Pickens 1978). On the job, stereotypic thinking by supervisors has been found to impact upon the evaluation of the performance of women (Cline, Holmes and Werner 1977; Mischel 1974), the perceived promotion potential of women (Rosen and Jerdee 1974; 1975), the assignment of tasks to women (Terborg and Ilgen 1975), and the allocation of rewards to women (Heilman and Guzzo 1978).

The Stability of Gender Stereotypes. Despite the fact that attitudes toward sex roles have been changing rapidly (Thornton and Freedman 1979; Cherlin and Walters 1981; Helmreich, Spence and Gibson 1982; Thornton, Alwin and Camburn 1983), gender stereotypes appear remarkably resistant to change (Locksley et al. 1980; Ashmore and DelBoca 1979). Gender stereotypes are self-perpetuating and self-fulfilling. Stereotypers screen out information that contradicts stereotypes and selectively attend to information that confirms them (Ashmore and DelBoca 1979). The behavior of stereotypers can elicit stereotypic behavior by others (Snyder and

Swann 1978; Snyder, Tanke and Berscheid 1977), thus perpetuating the stereotypes. Stereotypes influence thinking in subtle ways. Persons have been found to overestimate the frequency of behavior that is consistent with gender stereotypes (Hepburn 1985) and to fill in memory lapses with stereotypic material (Halpern 1985).

The Content of Gender Stereotypes. There is considerable agreement within our culture about the content of gender stereotypes (e.g., Broverman et al. 1972; Werner and LaRussa 1985). The most widely cited investigation into gender stereotypes was performed by Broverman et al. (1972), who isolated two basic clusters of traits that were associated with men and women: a competency cluster and a warmth-expressiveness cluster. These stereotypes are closely related to the items used by Bem (1974) in the construction of the masculinity and femininity scales of her Sex Role Inventory (BSRI). Recently, Werner and LaRussa (1985) identified similar clusters of traits associated with males and females. They found men still stereotyped as more forceful, independent, stubborn, and reckless, and women still perceived as more mannerly, giving, emotional, and submissive (Werner and LaRussa 1985). (For a discussion of the factors that contribute to the perpetuation of stereotypes, see Ashmore and DelBoca 1979.)

The "Kernel of Truth" Behind Gender Stereotypes. A "kernel of truth" underlies each stereotype. Researchers are currently

investigating gender stereotypes to determine whether there is any evidence of real differences between the sexes (e.g., Eagly and Wood 1982), and if so, whether the differences are innate or attributable to other factors, such as sex role socialization. The reference point for the ongoing research is a work by Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) who compiled and analyzed over 1600 studies, concluding that differences existed in the case of only four traits: verbal ability (favoring females), and aggression, mathematical, and spatial abilities (favoring males). Current investigations attempt to clarify and expand on the findings of this landmark study (Deaux 1985).

Existing Research into Gender Differences in Selling

Existing research into gender differences in selling performance must be interpreted with caution. Relatively few such studies have been performed. Because of the potential for bias in them, the findings should not be accepted as evidence of true differences between salesmen and saleswomen.

Sex Bias of Raters. The performance ratings of saleswomen by male sales managers may be biased. Results of laboratory research have revealed a tendency for raters to devalue the accomplishments of women relative to men (O'Leary and Hansen 1982). The accomplishments of females have been devalued relative to men by

raters of both sexes (Cline, Holmes and Werner 1977; Etaugh and Rose 1975; Linsenmeier and Wortman 1979; Paludi and Bauer 1983; Peck 1978; Pheterson, Kiesler and Goldberg 1971; Wallston and O'Leary 1981; Zickmund, Hitt, and Pickens 1978; Paludi and Strayer 1985), although bias against women appeared most pronounced when tasks or jobs were those perceived as traditionally performed by males (Cohen and Bunker 1975; Feather 1975; Feather and Simon 1975; Rosen and Jerdee 1974). While there were some exceptions, including instances when females were rated higher than were males (e.g., Abramson et al. 1977; Jacobson and Effertz 1974), it is believed that a clear trend has been established toward downgrading the performance and achievement of females relative to males (Hansen and O'Leary 1985; Paludi and Strayer 1985). The study by Swan and Futrell (1978) in which sales managers rated the performance of saleswomen may reflect this type of bias.

Women's Self-Reports. The tendency of women to devalue their own capabilities may have biased the research. Females have been found to attribute their successes to causes other than their own abilities (Chrombie 1983), while men have shown the opposite tendency (Bar-Tal and Frieze 1976; 1977; Erkut 1983). This asymmetry among males and females in attributions of their own success has been explained by the relatively different expectations for success expressed by males and females (Deaux 1984), reflecting

the relatively low self esteem of women (Caplan 1985; Sanford and Donovan 1984). This may account for the relatively low self confidence in their abilities reported by saleswomen in the research by Swan, Futrell and Todd (1978). Alternatively, the responses may reflect a greater honesty among women in reporting their anxieties and fears in self-reports than among men (Spiegler and Liebert 1970; Wilson 1967) or their greater willingness to admit to feminine traits in their self-disclosures (e.g., Derlega et al. 1981).

The Effect of History. Events occurring during the time period when most of the research was conducted, may have impacted on the behavior of the women. At the time, the Equal Rights Amendment was being debated, women were just beginning to move into traditionally male-oriented selling jobs, and male incumbents were reacting to their presence. The performance of saleswomen may have been affected by the attitudes and actions of their male colleagues. Rosen (1982) has demonstrated the potential of affirmative action programs to provoke efforts by male supervisors and co-workers to undermine the performance of women.

Sex Composition of the Workplace. The sex composition of the workplace may have biased the research. Women experience different pressures in environments in which they are statistically rare than they do in those in which they are plentiful (e.g., Guttentag and

Secord 1983; Secord 1982; 1983). Small group research has illustrated how behavior changes as the sex composition of the group is varied. Group size impacts upon such factors as gender stereotypic behavior, sex discrimination, interpersonal style, leadership behavior, and self-perception. (For a recent review of the research into gender effects in small group interaction see Dion 1985.) Pressures on women who have the status of "tokens" in organizations affect their job performance, morale, and persistence on the job (e.g., Kanter 1977; Yoder, Adams and Prince 1983; Yoder 1985). Results of research into the behavior of saleswomen in the traditionally male-oriented field of pharmaceutical selling in which women are numerically rare (e.g., Swan, Futrell and Todd 1978; Swan and Futrell 1978; Futrell 1980) must be interpreted differently from results obtained in a relatively sex neutral field, such as real estate selling (Gibson, Cochran and Epley 1980-81; Gibson and Swan 1981-82), or in a traditionally female-oriented field, such as department store selling (Skinner, Dubinsky and Cronin 1984).¹

Sex of Researcher. The sex of the researcher may have introduced bias. Most known research into differences between salesmen and saleswomen has been conducted by male researchers. Research that is designed and executed by males may contain sex bias in the way in which the problems were formulated, the manner

in which the questions were posed, or even the validity of the conclusions that were reached (e.g., Deaux 1985; Wallston and Grady 1985). A tendency has been noted for researchers to report sex differences that are complimentary to their own sex (e.g., Eagly and Carli 1981).

Interpretation of Statistical Findings. Conclusions based on statistics may be misleading if the results are reported in the form of average scores. When the average score of females on some characteristic is lower than that the average score of males, comparison of the scores gives the impression that there are no high scoring women or low scoring men. Most research into gender differences shows overlapping distributions; even research revealing statistically significant differences can be used to illustrate the great similarities between the sexes (e.g., DiPietro 1981; Eagly and Carli 1981; Hyde 1981; Deaux 1984). The relative number of high and low performing men and women is the more important indicator.

Criticisms of Women in Selling

In this section, stereotypes about women in selling are discussed. The stereotypes are grouped together within three broad areas: (1)

selling ability, (2) human relations ability, and (3) motivation. These areas represent characteristics of salespersons that are of particular importance to sales recruiters (Jolson 1977b). These were not conceived as orthogonal concepts, but rather serve as a convenient way to organize the stereotypes. It is possible that behavior that relates to one area also relates to another. In the discussion that follows, the reasons why each stereotype is believed to be operational on some salesforces are presented. The manner in which selling performance might be diminished should the behavior of saleswomen actually conform to the stereotypes is also discussed. The underlying gender stereotypes and the aspect of selling performance which each is alleged to affect are detailed in Figure 2-1.

Behavior by saleswomen that conforms to gender stereotypes is not potentially dysfunctional to all types of selling. A wide continuum of sales jobs exists, and different behavioral styles may be appropriate to different selling situations. For the purposes of the discussion, the assumption is therefore made that the most effective salesperson is the one who is best able to balance instrumental and expressive behaviors in performing the job.²

Selling Ability

In the present research, "selling ability" was defined as a

Figure 2-1
Dimensions of Perceived Gender-Stereotypic Behavior:
 The Correspondence between
 Gender Stereotypes about Women and
 Potential Problem Areas in Selling

NATURE OF UNDERLYING STEREOTYPE:	AREA OF POTENTIAL PROBLEM IN SELLING:
<hr/>	
ABILITY:	
(1) Intelligence	Product Knowledge
(2) Intelligence	Job Clarity
(3) Intelligence	Conceptual Ability
(4) Adaptability	Non-routine Situations
(5) Status	Persuasiveness
HUMAN RELATIONSHIPS:	
(1) Nurturance	Balance among functions
(2) Empathy	Structure of interview
(3) Social Orientation	Over-Socializing
(4) Submissiveness	Control of interview
(5) Team Playing	Cooperation
(6) Emotionalism	Crying behavior; rejection coping mechanisms
(7) Sexuality	Sexual ambience
MOTIVATION:	
(1) Inner Drive	Desire
(2) Priorities	Commitment to job
(3) Confidence in Ability	Magnitude of Expectancy
(4) Dependency	Need for Reinforcement
(5) Dependency	Avoidance of Unpleasant activities

function of aptitude for the job and experience on the job (Jolson 1977b). Aptitude refers to the natural capability of persons to acquire knowledge and skills that are needed to perform the job. Experience is gained through training programs, from actual performance of the job, and from performance on previous jobs. Knowledge is a key component of selling ability (Weitz, Sujan and Sujan 1986; Syzmanski 1988). Salespersons need a good base of knowledge and the skills to acquire additional knowledge. Salespersons need knowledge of their customers, the competition that they face, the products that they sell, the market to which they sell, the industry in which they sell, and their business environment (e.g., Young and Mondy 1982). Salespersons must be able to use their knowledge during the sales interaction. They need knowledge of the selling process itself (Anderson and Hair 1983). They need to have an understanding of the types of situations that are likely to arise in the selling process, methods or techniques that are available to use in these situations, and criteria for determining the appropriate technique for a given situation (Weitz, Sujan and Sujan 1986). Syzmanski (1988) argues that the key to selling success relates to the salesperson's ability to utilize this "procedural knowledge" at each stage of the selling process. The discussion that follows focuses on perceived gender stereotypic behavior and its potential to impact negatively upon the ability of saleswomen to acquire the knowledge and skills that are necessary

to perform job.

Perceived Intelligence: Factual Knowledge. There is a long-standing stereotype that women are intellectually inferior to men (Sherman 1978; Shields 1975; 1982; Rosenberg 1982). Historically, this alleged difference in intelligence has been attributed to such things as greater variability among males (Shields 1982; Sherman 1978; Rosenberg 1982), structural differences within the brain, and maternal instinct (Shields 1975). Despite the progress that women have made in acquiring equal educational opportunities, and in proving themselves academically capable, the residual of this unfortunate stereotype of men's superior intelligence persists (Broverman et al. 1972; Werner and LaRussa 1985). (See Bernard 1981 for a discussion of women's historical struggle to obtain education equivalent to those of men.)

Research into differences between salesmen and saleswomen suggests that this stereotype is operating on some salesforces. Two areas of weakness in important knowledge have been attributed to saleswomen: product knowledge and customer knowledge. Swan and Futrell (1978) reported that sales managers in the traditionally male pharmaceutical industry rated proportionately more saleswomen than salesmen as having low product knowledge. The sales managers rated no saleswomen as having high product knowledge, and only a

few as having medium-to-high knowledge. As if in confirmation of this knowledge deficit, Swan, Futrell and Todd (1978) found no saleswomen expressing high confidence in their product knowledge (Swan, Futrell and Todd 1978). Additional evidence of the prevalence of this stereotype comes from a study of perceptions of salespersons by industrial purchasing agents (Swan et al. 1984). Respondents reported perceiving saleswomen, on the average, as being inferior to salesmen in their knowledge of both the products that they sell and the customers to whom they sell.

Perceived Intelligence: Job Clarity. Another manifestation of the stereotype of women's intellectual inferiority is the belief that saleswomen are not able to understand the expectations of their sales managers about the performance of their jobs. Saleswomen admit to having more problems with job ambiguity than do comparable salesmen (Swan, Futrell and Todd 1978; Busch and Bush 1978; Futrell 1980; Skinner, Dubinsky and Cronin 1984). Job ambiguity exists when salespersons are not clear about the tasks they are to perform on the job, the priorities of the tasks, or how they should allocate their time among tasks (e.g., Dubinsky et al. 1986). Job ambiguity is of concern to sales managers since it has been found to relate to lower levels of job satisfaction and to less effective job performance among salespersons (Teas 1983; Behrman and Perreault 1984). The problem among saleswomen seems to

transcend the sex typing of the occupational environment, having been reported by saleswomen performing the job of department store selling, in which women predominate (Skinner, Dubinsky and Cronin 1984), and by those performing pharmaceutical selling, in which women are numerically rare (Busch and Bush 1978; Swan, Futrell and Todd 1978; Futrell 1980).³

Perceived Intelligence: Conceptual Ability. There is a stereotype that women are illogical in their thinking, emotional rather than rationale, and lacking in interest or ability for things like mathematics or science (Broverman et al. 1972; Werner and LaRussa 1985).⁴ This is reflected in the belief held by some sales managers that women do not have the conceptual ability to grasp material of a technical nature. Technical knowledge is important in many traditionally male areas of selling. As products in the marketplace become increasingly complex technologically (Wotruba 1981), the capability of salespersons to acquire technical product knowledge is increasing in importance.

Perceived Adaptability: Non-routine Situations. There is a stereotype that women are generally passive, and are not spontaneous or adventurous in their behavior (Broverman et al. 1972). Some sales managers believe that saleswomen are slow in their reactions, and cannot adapt their behavior quickly to

unexpected occurrences during sales interviews.⁵ The ability to alter behavior quickly in response to non-routine situations is important in selling (Donnelly and Ivancevich 1975). Salespersons need to be able to think on their feet⁶ and react quickly to cues emitted by their customers/prospects. A number of theorists have stressed the importance of salespersons altering their communication styles to match those of their customers (e.g., Merrill and Reid 1985; Alessandra et al. 1979). Weitz (1981) stressed the importance of behavioral flexibility to success in adaptive selling.

Perceived Status: Persuasiveness. Women are perceived to have lower social status than men (e.g., Lockheed and Hall 1976; Meeker and Weitzel-O'Neil 1977) and hence, less social power. This status difference is believed to underlie the stereotype that women are more influenceable than males, and that males are correspondingly more persuasive (Eagly 1978; Eagly and Wood 1982).⁷ Research has shown that the ability of women to be persuasive in their interactions with men relates to the sex-typing of the communication. In situations where the intent of the communication is to give information, and in which the subject is one in which females are expected to have expertise, or about which men are relatively disinterested, men are more likely to be persuaded by women (Goldberg 1974; 1975; Morelock 1980). If saleswomen were to

behave in accordance with this stereotype, they would have difficulty in delivering persuasive sales presentations to men on subjects about which males are perceived as having greater expertise.

Human Relations

As defined here, "human relations" refer to the ability of salespersons to get along with their customers, peers, and supervisors, and their "empathetic perception of the roles, needs, and reactions of business associates" (Jolson 1977b, p. 185). While relationships with peers and supervisors have impact on selling performance through the training and supervision of salespersons, the critical relationship to selling effectiveness is the one between salespersons and their customers. It is important for salespersons to demonstrate a concern for their customers (e.g., Blake and Mouton 1980). Salespersons must establish rapport with their customers (e.g., Wilson and Ghingold 1980; O'Shaughnessy 1971-72; Nickels, Everett and Kline 1983), be responsive to their needs and feelings (e.g., O'Shaughnessy 1971-72; Olshavsky 1973), actively listen to their concerns (e.g., Alessandra et al. 1979; Main 1985; Lambert 1981), and be alert to their changing product and service requirements (e.g., Leavitt 1983). Salespersons must use this ability in relationships to generate sales. Although saleswomen have been rated as equivalent to males in human

relations ability (Swan and Futrell 1978), and are well liked by their customers (e.g., Swan et al. 1984; Lundstrom and Ashworth 1983), some critics question their willingness to use their aptitude for relationships to increase company sales.⁸ Other criticisms of saleswomen relate to beliefs that the adherence of saleswomen to stereotypically feminine behavioral patterns will result in communication difficulties on the salesforce.

Perceived Nurturance: Balance among Functions. Perhaps the most valued feminine characteristic, as well as the most prominent feminine gender stereotype, is a nurturing orientation that predisposes women to be motivated by a desire to help others. In their traditional family roles, women are often expected to be the primary providers of physical care and emotional support of their husbands and children. Bernard (1981) suggests that women are socialized to a "love and duty ethic" that mandates a life devoted to service to others. A nurturing orientation is an asset in selling. Salespersons with a nurturing orientation are service oriented and excel at the post-transactional function of retention. Belief in the adherence to this nurturing stereotype by saleswomen is attested to by the many reports of the conscientious care with which saleswomen attend to the needs of their customers (e.g., Skolnik 1985; Scanlon 1973), doing "little things a man might ignore," even when the benefits might not be "immediately

apparent in profits" (Saleswoman Diane Reader, Federal Express, quoted in Skolnik 1985). The stereotypic belief that saleswomen excel at retention activities is reflected in the perceptions of industrial purchasing agents that saleswomen are more likely to prepare personalized preparations for each buyer, to be willing to handle rush orders, and to follow through on deliveries than are men (Swan et al. 1984).

Concern for the customer is important to successful selling, but for optimal selling effectiveness, as defined in the two-dimensional model of selling effectiveness, it must be balanced with a concern for the sale itself (Blake and Mouton 1980). Salespersons who are disproportionately concerned about the welfare of customers, may expend excessive time and energy in follow up activities for current customers while neglecting the development of new ones (Jolson 1984), thus disturbing the balance between the retaining and prospecting functions.⁹

Perceived Empathy: Control of Interview. Another stereotype closely related to that of women's nurturing orientation, is the idea that women are particularly "sensitive to the needs of others" (Broverman et al. 1972). Empathy is a valued trait that is strongly associated with the female gender role (e.g., Bernard 1981; Brownmiller 1984; Hall 1978; 1979; Hall and Habberstadt 1981). It is also an important attribute for salespersons (e.g.,

Mayer and Greenberg 1964; Greenberg and Greenberg 1976; 1985). Evidence that some sales managers held the stereotypic belief that women are superior in empathy is found in the 1977 RIA survey. Thirty five percent of responding managers agreed with the statement that "saleswomen are more sensitive to emotional signals sent out by buyers and prospects" (New Profit Opportunities, 1977). Salespersons with strong empathy excel at "listening." The superior empathy of saleswomen is reflected in their reputedly outstanding listening ability (e.g., Figel 1983; Skolnik 1985; Carter and Bryon 1978; Swan et al. 1984).

Blake and Mouton (1980) point to a potential hazard in salespersons basing their selling style disproportionately on "listening." They argue that such salespersons conduct sales interviews permissively, using non-directional questions to elicit free comments from their customers, but not actively probing for needs. Sales interviews, consequently, become excessively long. Such salespersons are reluctant to initiate closes, preferring customers to make spontaneous buying decisions, and may even suggest that the customer take time to "think about it" before making a buying decision. Blake and Mouton suggest that this selling style may cause some customers to lose confidence in the salesperson. Such customers might perceive non-directional questions as irrelevant, the length of the interview as wasteful of

time, and might interpret the apparent reluctance of salespersons to close the sale as reason to doubt the wisdom of making the purchase. The close is particularly at risk in this selling style. Mayer and Greenberg (1964) have argued that a lack of balance between empathy and ego drive (an instrumental characteristic) jeopardizes the entire outcome of the sale because the salesperson is unable to bring the sale to a close. They contend that empathy with the customer is only useful to the extent that salespersons are willing to use it to generate sales.

Perceived Social Orientation: Over-Socializing. There is a persistent belief that women are socially oriented in their work and are motivated to achieve affiliative rewards (Hoffman 1975). Since interpersonal relationships are such an integral part of the traditional female social role (e.g., Bernard, 1981; Gilligan, 1984), women are alleged to value interpersonal aspects of their jobs, more than long term career rewards (Beutell and Brenner 1986; Pryor 1983; Bartol and Manhardt 1979; Schuler 1975; Manhardt 1972). Support for this idea comes from research in the traditionally male-oriented pharmaceutical industry. Proportionately more saleswomen than salesmen expressed high interest in having the opportunity to meet different people on the job (Swan, Futrell and Todd 1978), and high importance on relationships with customers (Busch and Bush 1978). In contrast, after controlling for age,

Gibson and Swan (1981-82) found few differences between real estate salesmen and saleswomen in their relative valuation of career and affiliative rewards.¹⁰

Blake and Mouton (1980) point out a hazard associated with a high social emphasis among salespersons. Such salespersons think of sales as being the outgrowth of friendships rather than resulting from personal selling efforts. They focus their attention on making friends with customers rather than on selling products to them. Their sales interviews are characterized by small talk and personal conversation rather than by discussions of customer needs and product benefits. Such salespersons rely on social activities (such as business lunches) to increase sales. They de-emphasize activities such as probing and persuasion, and do not exert pressure on customers to close, since they believe their friends will buy from them when they are ready.

Perceived Submissiveness: Control of Interview. There is a stereotype that women are submissive in their relationships with men (Broverman et al. 1972; Werner and LaRussa 1985). Robertson and Hackett (1977) reported evidence of stereotypic thinking of this type among real estate sales managers who reported perceiving saleswomen as "slightly reserved" and "slightly humble." In the same year, as many as twenty percent of responding sales managers to the RIA survey agreed with the statement "Saleswomen find it

difficult to be assertive" (New Profit Opportunities, 1977). More recent evidence is found in the training materials of the Ortho Pharmaceutical Company alleging women to be "more passive" and "less assertive" than men (Kurtz 1986, p. A.3).¹¹ There are many selling situations in which salespersons need to direct the sales interview. If saleswomen conformed to those stereotype of submissiveness in their relationships with men, they would be unable to control the conversation, would deliver low-keyed sales presentations lacking in informative or persuasive content, and be ineffective at closing sales with male customers.

Perceived Team Playing: Cooperation. There is a stereotype that women lack team playing skills (Hennig and Jardim 1977). Team playing skills include interpersonal abilities such as the ability to compete along with others as a member of a team pursuing a common goal, the ability to cooperate with others, and the ability to accept and benefit from constructive criticism.¹² The existence of such stereotypic thinking on salesforces is reflected in reports of perceived "uncooperative behavior" by saleswomen (Pletcher 1978; Futrell 1980) and the high value that saleswomen place on independent thought and action (Swan, Futrell and Todd 1978). Some evidence exists that saleswomen may have communication problems with their supervisors and male coworkers.¹³ Futrell (1980) alleged that many male supervisors feel uncomfortable in supervising

saleswomen, particularly when constructive criticism and disciplinary action is required. This may be partly explained by the women's lack of receptivity to the criticisms.¹⁴

Ten percent of responding sales managers to the 1977 RIA survey cited "less willingness to admit and discuss problems" as a major reason for not hiring saleswomen (New Profit Opportunities 1977). Busch and Bush (1978) suggested that saleswomen may fear being judged incompetent by their supervisors, and this may inhibit them from asking questions.

McMurry (1964) stressed the importance of cooperation and team playing to the effective performance of the sales job. Salespersons with inadequate team skills can well have difficulty learning and improving on the job, as well as in performing effectively as a representative of an organization.

Perceived Emotionalism. There is a stereotype that women are more emotional than men and that their feelings are easily hurt (Broverman et al. 1972; Werner and LaRussa 1985). One of the most pervasive criticisms of women by those who wish to exclude them from traditionally male jobs is that women are too emotional (e.g., Schwartz 1971; Dipoye, Arvey and Terpstra 1977; Rosen and Jerdee 1978; Hennig and Jardin 1977). The stereotype is that because women are emotional, they become flustered at minor crises, are

sensitive, fearful, and cry easily (Rubble 1978).¹⁵ There are two aspects to this stereotype. One is that women lack the emotional coping mechanisms to deal with rejections on the job (Jolson and Comer 1987). The other is that women are unable to cope with their emotions and cry easily on the job.

The problem of rejection is central to selling (McMahon 1981).¹⁶ Poppleton and Lubbock (1977) refer to the unpleasantness of rejection in the selling of life insurance, and the fact that this rejection was often taken personally by salespersons. McMurtry (1971) estimated that insurance salespersons receive about 32 rejections per week, while Jolson (1972) contended that the average encyclopedia salesperson receives 179 rejections before making even one sale. McMahon (1981) contends that rejection is a process that is triggered by the buyer and received by the seller on an emotional level. Salespersons experience rejection everytime they receive a "you're not OK" message from a customer. Rejection of salespersons by customers can take many forms, including keeping the salesperson waiting, overt rudeness, and refusals to buy. Rejection threatens salespersons' self-esteem, causing them to feel hurt, demeaned, vulnerable, helpless, and lost (McMahon 1981).

The pervasiveness of this stereotype about crying behavior in selling is attested to by Robertson and Hackett (1977) who found saleswomen to be perceived as more emotional than salesmen by sales

managers, salesmen, and saleswomen. As many as twenty percent of respondents to the RIA survey in the same year, cited the excessive emotionalism of women as a major disadvantage in hiring women (New Profit Opportunities 1977). More recent evidence of the persistence of this stereotype is seen in the training materials of the Ortho Pharmaceutical Company alleging that "Women are more emotional...they cry more" (Kurtz 1986, p. A.3). Incidents of crying behavior on the part of saleswomen have been reported (Women in Selling, 1974; Jolson and Comer 1987). Crying in the presence of customers may damage the credibility of saleswomen with their customers. As Hennig and Jardim (1977) point out, many men view crying behavior as the mark of someone who is uncontrollable and whose judgment can't be trusted.

Perceived Sexuality: Sexual Ambience. One role that women frequently play is that of "sexual object." One of the initial concerns about admitting women to male selling strongholds was that sexual misconduct would result (Women in Selling 1974; Why Hire Saleswomen 1978). There are indications that the issue of sex on the salesforce is still of concern. In the 1977 RIA survey, twenty percent of responding sales managers agreed with the statement "saleswomen use their femininity in selling more than they should." In addition, about half of the sales managers reported receiving complaints from saleswomen that customers had tried to

take advantage of sex (New Profit Opportunities 1977). The training materials of the Ortho Pharmaceutical Company did not address the sexual issue directly, but cautioned sales managers against hiring "attractive women," arguing that "less attractive" women were preferable because they had "learned how to deal with loneliness" (Kurtz 1986, p. A.3).

There are two aspects to this problem: that saleswomen use sex to sell, and that saleswomen receive unwanted advances from customers. Some saleswomen frankly admit to intentionally using their sexuality in selling (Hyatt 1979; Jolson and Comer 1987), arguing that using one's "natural assets" makes good business sense.¹⁷ Other saleswomen complain that they receive unwanted sexual advances from male customers (Howard 1978; Hyatt 1979; Pletcher 1978). The two problems are related. There is a stereotypic belief, held primarily by men, that when sexual misconduct occurs, the woman is the instigator (Gutek 1985). This stereotype holds that women encourage male advances by their manner of dress and by their non-verbal behavior. Even though the male sex role is alleged to be more attuned to sex (Gross 1978; Korda 1986),¹⁸ when a sexual indiscretion occurs, men frequently perceive the woman as being the instigator (Gutek 1985). Saleswomen are particularly vulnerable to allegations of sexual misconduct because their jobs require them to be attractive, to have pleasant

personalities, and to behave assertively. These may be misinterpreted by customers as signs of sexual interest (Carter and Bryan 1978). Saleswomen who do not project a completely asexual image may be perceived as encouraging sexual advances (Hyatt 1979). It is dysfunctional for saleswomen to be perceived in this way, since the role of "sex object" is not compatible with that of "analytical thinker" (Gutek 1985). If saleswomen were to be perceived as encouraging male overtures during sales interviews, they would lose credibility as professional salespersons.

Motivation

Motivation of salespersons is a matter of great concern to sales managers. The lives of salespersons are frequently lonely ones. Salespersons work on the boundary of the organization, away from contact with, and support from, supervisors and peers (e.g., Spekman 1978). In the course of the performance of their jobs, they frequently encounter discourtesies, disappointments, and rejections. To sustain their performance in the face of these, salespersons need intense desire, or dynamic inner drive (Jolson 1977b). They need to be driven by their egos, and to have an inner need to achieve "victory" in the sale. They also need ego-strength to fortify themselves with the "resiliency to bounce back from rejections," to be "even more motivated" in their next attempts (Greenberg and Greenberg 1985, p. 33) and to be challenged, rather

than defeated, by their failures (Mayer and Greenberg 1964). Many salespersons have difficulty sustaining high levels of self-motivation over long periods. These salespersons need incentives to help them maintain the necessary energy level to perform their jobs. This section discusses gender stereotypes that relate to the self-motivation of saleswomen.

Perceived Inner Drive: Desire. There is a stereotype that women are "not at all competitive," but are "passive, submissive, and quiet" (Broverman et al. 1972). Evidence of the existence of stereotypic thinking of this type on salesforces is found in the materials of the Ortho Pharmaceutical Company alleging that women were "more passive," and "less assertive" than men. Salespersons occupy boundary positions, where they must deal with many competing demands from others and must routinely face much unpleasantness on the job. To enable them to persevere, they need strong inner drive. Jolson (1977b) describes a quality which he calls "desire" that involves "dynamic inner drive." This is the "capacity to overcome obstacles" and the "willingness to do whatever is required for success in selling" (p. 185). Greenberg and Greenberg (1976; 1985) describe a similar quality that they call "ego drive," or an intense need to succeed because of the feeling of "satisfaction that comes from the victory" (Greenberg and Greenberg 1985, p. 33), which they claim is essential to the success of salespersons

in all types of selling jobs. They argue that ego drive is the force that "launches" salespersons toward prospective customers, and is the basic force underlying the ability of salespersons to use empathy as a tool in persuasion (Greenberg and Greenberg 1976). Evidence that some sales managers hold the stereotype that saleswomen are low in inner drive was reported by Jolson and Comer (1987) who argued that sales managers continue to believe saleswomen lack "unbounded energy, initiative, and inner drive (cf., Greenberg and Greenberg 1976)."

Perceived Priorities: Commitment to Job. Priorities that place family considerations over work considerations can deflect the energies of women from the performance of the job. Women with families have traditionally held heavy responsibilities in the home. Such women encounter strong social sanctions if they neglect their family for work-related reasons (e.g., Epstein 1971; Laws 1979; Bernard 1981; Brownmiller 1984; Braiker 1986). Because of this, when conflicts arise between family and work, some sales managers believe that women will give priority to their families. A decade ago, Robertson and Hackett (1977) provided evidence that some real estate sales managers perceived saleswomen as more home-oriented than career-oriented (although the saleswomen themselves did not share this perception). A survey of sales executives conducted around the same time, found that more sales

managers agreed than disagreed with the statement that "married women have more problems adjusting to selling than single or divorced women," and close to twenty five percent of responding sales managers cited interference of home responsibilities as a major reason for not hiring saleswomen (New Profit Opportunities 1977). More recent evidence of the presence of this stereotype among sales managers is found in the training materials of the Ortho Pharmaceutical Company that alleged that "women have more social problems that create business problems," that "when a married male goes home after work, someone brings him things; a married female goes home and keeps working," that "a married mother has greater home duties than a married father," and concluded that "a married mother is statistically not likely to survive" at Ortho (Kurtz 1986, p. A.3). While it is unlikely that saleswomen of today who are seeking to enter traditionally male-oriented sales occupations would be perceived as "homebodies," women still experience strong cultural pressures to fulfill their traditional gender roles (Bernard 1981; Caplan 1985; Braiker 1986).¹⁹ In confirmation of this, Futrell (1980) found evidence that proportionately fewer saleswomen than salesmen reported their jobs to be central to their lives.

Historically, employers have claimed that the divided loyalty of women causes problems in their productivity on the job, taking

the form of high rates of absenteeism, interrupted careers for childbearing, refusals to relocate, and high rates of turnover (Bergmann 1986).²⁰ These same arguments were voiced by sales managers in the 1970s (e.g., Kanuk 1978; Women in Selling 1974). Close to thirty three percent of responding sales managers to the 1977 RIA survey cited problems with travel and relocation as a major disadvantage in employing saleswomen (New Profit Opportunities 1977). Some sales managers still believe that preoccupation with personal concerns will prevent saleswomen from giving sufficient attention to their jobs (Jolson and Comer 1987).

Perceived Self-Confidence. There is a stereotype that women are not self-confident (Broverman et al. 1972), and that they lack confidence in their ability to perform in achievement settings (e.g., Lenny 1977). Evidence of the prevalence of this stereotype on sales forces is mixed. Research has reported that sales managers perceived real estate saleswomen as being more "apprehensive" than "self-confident" (Robertson and Hackett 1977), and that customers perceived automobile saleswomen as relatively low in self-confidence (Lundstrom and Ashworth 1983), but purchasing agents have not reported perceiving differences in self-confidence between industrial salesmen and saleswomen (Swan et al. 1984). Swan, Futrell and Todd (1978), reported that no pharmaceutical saleswomen claimed high confidence in either their

own selling ability or in their ability to call on specialists, but found no differences in proportions of saleswomen and salesmen expressing confidence in their human relations ability.²¹

Expectancies are salespersons' perceptions of the link between effort and job performance. Salespersons who lack confidence in their selling ability are likely to have low expectancies since they will not perceive that expending additional effort will lead to improved performance.²² This relationship is supported by the finding of Teas (1981) that self-perceived ability of salespersons correlates positively with salespersons' expectancy estimates, as well as the finding of Bagozzi (1978) that task-specific self esteem (analagous to confidence in selling ability) is strongly related to selling effectiveness. Salespersons whose expectancies are low because they lack confidence in their selling ability, have no motivation to increase their efforts.

Perceived Dependency: Need for Reinforcement. There is a stereotype that women are motivated to achieve by affiliative rewards rather than by achievement needs.²³ One aspect of this stereotype is the belief that women are dependent on others for emotional support (Broverman et al. 1972; Werner and LaRussa 1985), and that they have strong needs for approval from those in positions of authority on the job (Hoffman 1975).²⁴ This stereotype

stems from the notion that women would rather do routine work (e.g., clerical) in return for a good deal of praise from a male authority figure, than do more demanding work for better monetary rewards. This manner of thinking has been used as a justification for assigning women to low-paying, routine work (e.g., Bergmann 1986). The existence of stereotypic thinking of this type on salesforces is attested to by the statement in the training materials of the Ortho Pharmaceutical Company that "women like praise, they respond to it" (Kurtz 1986, p. A.3).

Perceived Dependency: Avoiding Unpleasant Activities. One aspect of this stereotype that women over-value affiliative rewards from their work is that they may tend to place disproportionate importance on their relationships with customers. Young and Mondy (1982) suggest that salespersons, who work in the field, without frequent contacts with supervisors or peers may begin to place disproportionate importance on their relationships with customers, may have approval needs that are not satisfied by supervisors or peers, and may turn to customers to satisfy those needs. As a result, they become vulnerable to the withdrawal of approval by customers. Blake and Mouton (1980) suggest that such salespersons avoid situations which involve personal unpleasantness, such as calling on dissatisfied customers. They might react to interruptions during sales interviews and to objections raised by

customers as personal attacks. Such salespersons might experience excessive stress when confronted with conflicting demands from customers that they are unable to satisfy. The perception of relatively high role conflict among saleswomen reported by Futrell (1980) may, in part, reflect such problems.

Summary

This chapter has discussed criticisms of saleswomen by sales managers in the context of gender stereotypes. It has suggested the manner in which conformity to the stereotype has the potential to impact negatively upon the performance of saleswomen. The proposed research will investigate whether behavior that is perceived by sales managers to be in accordance with gender stereotypes actually impacts negatively upon the selling effectiveness of saleswomen. The next chapter extends the literature review into the areas of selling effectiveness and sex role identity. The model that serves as the basis for the research is developed.

Endnotes

1. The sex distribution of the samples in these studies reflects the sex composition of the jobs and illustrates the potential for bias. The sample obtained by Swan, Futrell and Todd (1978), from a male-oriented selling area consisted of 396 males and 35 females. The sample obtained by Skinner, Dubinsky and Cronin (1984) from a female-oriented area consisted of 34 males and 123 females.

2. A two-dimensional model of selling effectiveness consisting of instrumental and expressive dimensions is introduced (Blake and Mouton 1980; Buzzotta, Lefton and Sherberg 1982; Jolson 1984). According to this model, salespersons who behave in accordance with masculine stereotypes would be more likely to excel at tasks associated with the instrumental dimension of selling, while those who behave in accordance with feminine stereotypes would be more likely to excel at tasks associated with the expressive dimension. Salespersons who excel at tasks associated with both instrumental and expressive dimensions are considered the most effective. Salespersons who excel at tasks associated with one dimension at the expense of the other, are less effective. Thus, the most effective salespersons are defined as androgynous in their approach

to selling.

3. Busch and Bush (1978) speculated that women, as a group, might have a greater need for clarity than do men. Alternatively, saleswomen may not be receiving sufficient feedback about their performance to become secure on their jobs, since sales managers seemed to be reluctant to discuss the negative aspects of their performance with them (Futrell 1980). It is also possible that the female respondents were simply more honest about expressing their insecurities about the job than were the men (e.g., Spiegler and Liebert 1970; Wilson 1967), and that the responses reflected the general tendency of females to under-value their own competence (e.g., Deaux 1984).

4. The "kernel of truth": behind women's perceived inferiority in the ability to learn technical material received some support in the analysis of Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) who found women to be weaker than men in mathematical and spatial abilities, although the differences they isolated were very small. Subsequent meta-analysis has revealed that differences in mathematical ability and in spatial ability accounted for only 1% and 4.5% respectively of the variance between the sexes (Hyde 1981). While researchers have continued to claim superior mathematical ability for males (Benboe and Stanley 1980; 1983), critics have discounted the results (see Fox, Tobin and Brody 1979, for a review of these

arguments). The important contributions that have been made to the field of mathematics by women historically (Osen 1984), weakens the argument for the innate superiority of males, although recent research into the sex typing of another technical field, that of computer use, argues for a male dominant stereotype in the field (Lockheed 1985; Fetler 1985).

5. Females might appear to have difficulty responding quickly to situations because their traditional socialization does not provide sufficient opportunities for them to develop the necessary skills. Block (1984) suggests that the traditional socialization of females causes them to live in a more structured world in which exploratory behavior is generally discouraged. Boys live in a "less predictable world" where "ad hoc strategies are frequently demanded." Girls do not have as many opportunities to encounter situations in which they can develop and practice independent and improvisational behaviors and are not rewarded for such behaviors. Differences have been identified in the types of games played by boys and girls (e.g., Lever 1976; 1978) and the degree to which the sexes differentially engage in rough and tumble play (DiPietro 1981).

6. It should be noted that at least one sales executive has gone on record as preferring saleswomen over salesmen because he

feels they think faster on their feet (cited in Carter and Bryan 1978).

7. There is little evidence to support the truth of this stereotype. In reviews of existing research, neither Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) nor Eagly (1978) found convincing evidence of sex differences in influencability. Nonetheless, subsequent meta-analyses revealed a tendency for males to conform less than females in group pressure situations (Cooper 1979) and in non-group situations when a communicator presented arguments in support of an issue (Eagly and Carli 1981). Research has shown that the ability of women to be persuasive in their interactions with men relates to the sex-typing of the communication. In situations where the intent of the communication is to give information, and in which the subject is one in which females are expected to have expertise, or about which men are relatively disinterested, men are more likely to be persuaded by women (Goldberg 1974; 1975; Morelock 1980).

8. This is attested to by the consistent reports of satisfaction with their relationships with customers expressed by saleswomen (Swan, Futrell and Todd 1978; Futrell 1980). Swan et al. (1984) concluded that saleswomen are perceived favorably by industrial purchasing agents. Perceptions by customers of automobile saleswomen confirm this generally favorable attitude

toward saleswomen (Lundstrom and Ashworth 1983).

9. It should be stressed that concern for the sale, unbalanced by concern for the customer, can cause the opposite effect. Salespersons can upset the balance by neglecting the servicing of established accounts in favor of ferreting out new ones.

10. It is possible that affiliative rewards are less important to women in a sex-neutral situation than they are in situations where women are numerically rare.

11. Even women with strongly dominant personalities have been found to decline assuming leadership positions in relationships with men (Carbonell 1984; Megeree 1969; Nyquest and Spence 1986). The "kernel of truth" behind this stereotype may lie in the nature of male-female social interaction patterns. The behavior of males may make it difficult for females to assume leadership positions. Studies of male-female interactions illustrate some of the ways men control the conversations: males interrupt females, and change subjects more frequently than the other way around (e.g., Markel, Long and Saine 1976; Zimmerman and West 1975; West and Zimmerman 1978; Fishman 1978). If customers were to exhibit such behaviors in their interactions with saleswomen, saleswomen could not control the interview.

12. Hennig and Jardim (1977) argue that men learn

organizational behavioral skills when participating in team sports, an activity that is not part of the traditional female socialization experience. These are the same skills that are needed to function effectively in traditionally male-oriented organizations. Lacking these early experiences, females who have been socialized traditionally, may not have the sense of participation as a member of a team when on their jobs.

13. Busch and Bush (1978) interpreted a significant correlation between job clarity and satisfaction with supervision as evidence of communication difficulties between saleswomen and their sales managers. Pharmaceutical saleswomen have reported low satisfaction with their relationships with both supervisors (Busch and Bush 1978; Swan, Futrell and Todd 1978; Futrell 1980) and others salespersonnel (Swan, Futrell and Todd 1978; Futrell 1980).

14. It should be noted that the actions of male salespersonnel contribute to the perceived difficulties of saleswomen in functioning as team members. For example, reports have indicated that women are not generally admitted to informal bullsessions of male salespersonnel (e.g., Women in Selling, 1974; Busch and Bush, 1978), suggesting that salesmen are not willing to accept them as equals on the salesforce.

15. The "kernel of truth" underlying this stereotype is the

fact that our culture encourages males to suppress their emotions, while permitting females to express theirs (e.g., Pleck 1976). Women are encouraged to use crying as an emotional catharsis but men are not. Men are permitted to express their emotions through anger, an emotion that is is deemed unattractive in a woman (Braiker 1986; Brownmiller 1984). Research has somewhat confirmed this stereotype. Lombardo et al. (1983) indicated a greater self-reported likelihood of crying among female than male subjects, while Kraemer and Hastrop (1986) have reported more crying among females in natural settings.

16. Greenberg and Greenberg (1976, 1985) argue that salespersons need great "ego strength" to give them the emotional fortitude to bounce back from such continual rejections, but found no difference between salesmen and saleswomen in the degree to which they possessed the quality of "ego-strength." In contrast, Hennig and Jardim (1977) argue that the vulnerability to personal hurt is greater in women because they have not developed the sense of participating in a game in their approach to their work.

17. In the words of one saleswomen, "as a woman coming in with every disadvantage, with no history in business, I'm willing to use every edge I've got" (quoted in Hyatt 1979, p. 145).

18. The male occupational environment is a more sexualized

environment than is the female occupational environment. Males enjoy "talking about sex, approaching women about sex, and displaying a readiness for sexual interaction" (Guttek 1985, p. 166).

19. Many women feel that fulfillment of their gender role is a prerequisite for seeking a career. A woman who fails in her obligations in her role as a woman experiences great guilt (Bernard 1981; Caplan 1985); a woman who succeeds at both roles does so only at the price of great personal stress (Braiker 1986).

20. Research has generally disconfirmed the truth of these allegations. For example, a study by Concoran and Duncan (1979) demonstrated by regression analysis that only 3% of the wage gap between men and women could be explained by the illness of workers, the illness of family members, or of any other evidence of low labor force participation.

21. These mixed results may be explained by the situational nature of women's self-confidence. Women have lower self-confidence than do men in situations where stereotypes attribute a relatively high level of competence to men (Lenny 1981). Results of attribution research support a tendency among women to undervalue their own competence since they attribute their successes to factors other than their ability such as luck (Bar-Tal

and Frieze 1977; Simon and Feather 1973) and effort (Wiegers and Frieze 1977; Erkut 1983; Chrombie 1983), but attribute their failures to their lack of ability (Nicholls 1975), although some studies have not reported this phenomenon (e.g., Lugenbuhl, Crowe, and Kahan 1975; McMahan 1973). This situation may be changing. Recent reseach has uncovered no differences between men and women in such attributions (Kaufman and Shikiar 1985).

22. Indeed, Brunig and Snyder (1985) presented evidence that low or negative expectancies on self-evaluations may lead to dysfunctional behavior on the job, such as absenteeism, poor performance, and turnover tendencies.

23. Research has established a "kernel of truth" underlying these perceived differences between the sexes in the manner in which they are motivated by affiliation and achievement needs. The need for achievement and the need for affiliation seem to be linked in women, and sex roles appear to influence these relationships (Sutherland and Veroff, 1985). For males, the need for achievement and the need for affiliation are negatively correlated (Sutherland, 1980; Veroff, 1983). For females, they seem to be positively correlated (Sutherland, 1980; Veroff, 1983), implying that women with high achievement needs also have high affiliative needs.

24. Hoffman (1975) theorized that females have greater needs

for love and approval than do males. She argued that girls experience too much maternal support and protection in their early years and carry the resulting dependency into their adulthood, retaining the child's eagerness to please adults" in their achievement behaviors. Thus, according to her theory, women look to those in authority positions on their jobs to satisfy their approval needs. Alagna (1982) has confirmed that women are sensitive to evaluation by others and respond favorably to approval by others. She argues that women who perform traditionally male roles benefit from peer approval of their activities.

CHAPTER THREE

THE RELEVANT LITERATURE: II

The preceeding chapter reviewed the literature concerning gender stereotypes in selling. The discussion now turns to the concepts of selling effectiveness and sex role identity. This chapter begins with a review of the literature about selling effectiveness and its measurement and establishes the rationale for the use of the functions of selling as the basis of a measure of the quality of selling performance. The next cluster of literature concerns sex role identity and its measurement. The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) is introduced along with the theory underlying its construction, the relationship of sex role identity to behavior, and its applicability to vocational behavior.

The three clusters of literature are then brought together to establish the conceptual framework for the study. A model is introduced that relates the sex role types of saleswomen to perceived gender stereotypic behavior in the areas of selling ability, human relations, and motivation, as well as to effective performance of the functions of selling.

Measuring Selling Performance

Measurement issues cloud research findings about the comparative performance of males and females in traditionally male areas of selling. In parallel surveys of the same industry, Swan and Futrell (1978) reported saleswomen's performance to be significantly lower than that of comparable salesmen, while Busch and Bush (1978) reported no differences between the sexes. The potential for bias in these studies has been discussed.

The Functions of Selling

Performance of six functions of selling served as the basis for the measure of selling effectiveness in the present study. The functions of selling constitute a model of the personal selling process involving six sequential promotional tasks that are performed by salespeople (Jolson 1974a; 1977b; 1984; 1986b). The quality of their performance by saleswomen is, thus, an indication of selling effectiveness.

Effective Performance of the Functions of Selling

The section that follows reviews the literature relevant to

effective performance of the functions of selling. It specifies the tasks that must be accomplished in performing each function and describes effective performance of each. The primary issues involved in performance of each function are also addressed. The tasks to be accomplished by salespersons when performing the functions are enumerated in Figure 3-1.

Prospecting. As defined here, the function of prospecting refers to the process of identifying qualified prospects for the company's products, culminating in the first one-on-one relationship between the salesperson and the prospect. The tasks performed by salespersons when prospecting involve searching for prospects and evaluating their suitability as potential customers.

Effective prospectors must be familiar with, and use, the best available sources of leads (Anderson and Hair 1983). They must carefully "qualify" prospects¹ to ensure that company resources are apportioned effectively among the best potential customers. Prospects may be qualified either in advance of the contact, during the contact, or at both times.

The key issue in prospecting is the frequent requirement for salespersons to perform effort prospecting (contacting persons without company-supplied leads). Many salespersons dislike effort prospecting since they must work with individuals who have not

Figure 3-1
Sequence of Tasks to be Accomplished when Performing
The Six Functions of Selling

Prospecting

- Identify Marketing Opportunities
 - Use best available sources for leads
 - Identify many leads
 - Keep meticulous records
 - Maintain search for leads on continuous basis
- Pre-Screen Leads
 - Determine prospect has a need for product
 - Determine ability to pay for product
 - Select proper buying personnel
 - Determine willingness to meet with salesperson
- Prepare for Interview
 - Obtain background information about company
 - Obtain background information about buyer

Contacting

- Schedule Interview
 - Gain entry
 - Schedule interviews efficiently
 - Follow up, as appropriate
- Establish Initial Contact with prospect
 - Make good first impressions
 - Establish rapport with prospect
 - Establish prestige of company and self

Probing for Needs

- Acquire Information from Environment
 - Tour facilities
 - Study data

Figure 3-1 (cont'd-1)
Sequence of Tasks to be Accomplished when Performing
the Six Functions of Selling

Probing for Needs (cont'd)

- Elicit Information from Prospect
 - Encourage prospect to talk
 - Appear interested in prospect's concerns
 - Listen attentively to prospect
 - Maintain eye contact with prospect
- Direct Probing Process
 - Ask clarifying questions (as appropriate)
 - Ask elaborative questions (as appropriate)
- Change topics easily (when appropriate)
- Analyze Information
 - Identify main points of prospect's conversation
 - Establish why prospect buys
 - Be sensitive to non-verbal cues
- Retain Information
 - Accurately restate prospect's points
 - Take notes

Stimulating Desire

- Establish and maintain interest of customer
 - Address prospect's concerns
 - Use demonstrations, dramatizations, or visual aids
 - Check on attentiveness periodically
- Transmit information accurately
 - Explain technical features
 - Explain product's usage
 - Match prospect's needs to product benefits
 - Use language familiar to prospect
 - Anticipate and deal with objections
 - Answer questions
- Maintain credibility
 - Establish own expertise
 - Appear trustworthy
- Persuade prospect to buy

Figure 3-1 (cont'd-2)
Sequence of Tasks to be Accomplished when Performing
The Six Functions of Selling

Closing

- Anticipate and overcome objections
- Invites prospect's summary comments
- Ask for the order
- Close sale
 - Finalize details
 - Arrange future visits
- Conclude interview

Retaining

- Retain sale
 - Insure prospect receives product
 - On time
 - In good condition
 - With access to service as needed
 - Maintain availability for service
 - Make periodic calls
 - Handle dissatisfaction and complaints
- Retain customer
 - Transform prospect into loyal customer
 - Establish relationship with customer
 - Maintain availability
 - Develop account by obtaining:
 - Repeat orders
 - Enlarged orders
 - New orders

Begin Prospecting Again

expressed prior interest in their products and they frequently encounter considerable sales resistance (Jolson 1986b).² Some salespersons avoid the prospecting function altogether when it involves effort prospecting (e.g., Deuscher, Marshall and Burgoyne 1982).

Contacting. It is difficult to separate the functions of prospecting and contacting, since they involve overlapping activities.³ The function of contacting involves: (1) gaining access to customers, (2) making good first impressions on them, (3) redirecting their thoughts from previous concerns, (4) establishing rapport with them, (5) establishing credibility, and (6) making a transition from initial conversation to the start of the actual sales presentation.

Effective contactors establish the degree of their prospect's receptiveness to the sales interview, making certain that sufficient time is available, that the physical conditions are favorable, and that there will be a minimum of interruptions during the call (Young and Mondy 1982). They spend no more than a minute or two in redirecting the thoughts of prospects from previous concerns by use of "small talk" (Jolson 1977b).⁴ To establish good first impressions, they dress attractively and appropriately, have good posture and a ready smile (Young and Mondy 1982). They

establish rapport quickly. As they guide the conversation to the start of the actual presentation, they both arouse the interest of prospects in the product and re-qualify the prospects.⁵

The key issues in contacting are: (1) the importance of establishing rapport with customers, and (2) the importance of establishing credibility. Establishing rapport with customers is an important aspect of selling effectiveness (Wilson and Ghingold 1980). One way for salespersons to build rapport is by establishing similarities between their customers and themselves. Success in selling has been associated with similarities in demographic and lifestyle characteristics (Evans 1963). O'Shaughnessy (1971-1972) stressed the importance of ideological or attitudinal similarity between salespersons and customers as well as of likability. He conceived of likability as salespersons' appearance of friendship, approval, and support of the self images for their customers. He suggested that in the absence of similarity, salespersons can establish rapport by being empathetic to the needs of customers, determining the best way to approach them, and adjusting their behaviors accordingly. This notion of adapting behavior to characteristics of individual customers has been developed into an elaborate system for the approach of customers based on behavior types. (e.g., Alessandra et al. 1979; Merrell and Reid 1985; Main 1985).⁶ Nickels, Everett and Kline (1983) added to knowledge of

rapport building by suggesting the use of neuro-linguistic programming.⁷ They advocated that salespersons synchronize their language and behaviors (including posture, voice tone, breathing patterns, gestures and head movements), with that of their customers. Moine (1982) found the unconscious use of neuro-linguistic techniques by salespersons to be associated with high performance.

It is important for salespersons to establish their credibility and legitimacy at the start of the interview (Wilson 1976). This involves establishing both the reputation of the company, and the personal credibility of salespersons (Young and Mondy 1982). Leavitt (1967) found evidence that the better the company's reputation, the better chance of salespersons' getting a first hearing among prospects. Some have debated the relative importance of perceived similarity with the customer and perceived expertise to selling effectiveness. Woodside and Davenport (1974) found both to be related to selling effectiveness. Weitz (1981) suggested that the relative importance of similarity and expertise to successful selling is dependent upon the selling situation.

Probing for Needs. As defined here, probing for needs refers to the establishment and clarification of the exact state of the prospect's product-related needs during the initial phase of the sales interview. When probing for needs, salespersons must: (1)

clarify the needs in such a way that they are understood and agreed upon by both parties, (2) establish the specifics of product requirements (Jolson 1986b), and (3) pave the way for the actual presentation by creating an atmosphere of trust between salesperson and prospect (Pederson and Wright 1971). In effective probing, salespersons must be empathetic and responsive listeners to the concerns of prospects, sensitive to their verbal and non-verbal signals (e.g., Kirkpatrick 1966; Alessandra et al. 1979; Lambert 1981). They must also control the probing process by inserting well-formulated questions (Jolson 1986b) to help prospects articulate their needs and to bring the needs into sharper focus.

The importance of probing for needs is well-established. Willett and Pennington (1966) provided evidence that in successful sales interactions, salespersons make more requests for information than in less successful encounters. Weitz (1978) found that salespersons who formed accurate impressions of the values and needs of customers developed better selling strategies and were more effective salespersons. Schuster and Danes (1986) found the asking of questions by salespersons to be associated with successful sales transactions.

There are two reasons why salespersons fail to probe for needs: some salespersons assume that all prospects have identical needs, while others assume that their prospects already know the

true extent of those needs. Olshavsky (1973) found evidence that retail appliance salespersons conducted sales presentations without establishing the nature of their prospects' needs. Salespersons controlled the customer's search process by determining the number of alternatives to be considered, the order in which they were evaluated, and by drawing attention to particular product attributes. He suggested that selling could be improved if salespersons were to concentrate on determining the actual needs and expectations of their customers. Further evidence was offered by Schuster and Danes (1986) who found that travel agents who volunteered unsolicited opinions made fewer successful sales than those who did not. A second reason for the failure of salespersons to probe adequately is their making the assumption that customers: (1) understand the true extent of their product-related needs and (2) can be relied upon to communicate them. Jolson (1986b) points out that salespersons have the responsibility to uncover needs that are latent or of which the prospect may be currently unaware.

Stimulating Desire. As defined here, stimulating desire refers to the delivery of the actual sales presentation or demonstration. When stimulating desire salespersons: (1) present the product to prospects, (2) explain its technical features, (3) translate technical features into benefits for the buyer, and (4) offer proof of the claims (e.g., Young and Mondy 1982). Effective presentations

must be understandable, interesting, believable, and persuasive (Crissy, Cunningham and Cunningham 1977). To be understandable, salespersons should use language that is familiar to prospects and pace their presentations to their ability to comprehend. To be interesting, salespersons should address the wants and needs of prospects. Salespersons increase the interest of their presentations by including demonstrations of the product, using visual aids, using showmanship to dramatize the product, and using verbal imagery to help prospects visualize themselves owning the product (e.g., Baer 1972; Lambert 1981). To be believable, or credible, salespersons should show technical expertise and trustworthiness (O'Shaughnessy 1971-72). Salespersons establish expertise by the manner in which they discuss product benefits and relate them to customers' problems. They establish trustworthiness by their apparent sincerity and concern for customers' needs.

Sales presentations can be classified according to the degree to which they are structured, ranging from fully automated to completely unstructured (Jolson 1973; 1975). Structured presentations involve the use of such things as memorized sales talks and supplementary visual aids. They are appropriate in situations when the information needs of all prospects are similar, when salespersons are inexperienced, and in situations where management wishes to exert control over the sales interaction.

Unstructured presentations are personalized to the unique needs of customers and are considered adaptive. In adaptive selling, salespersons alter their behavior during the presentation in response to their perceptions of the situation (Weitz, Sujan and Sujan 1986). Adaptive selling is appropriate in situations where the process of assuring the prospect that the seller's offering is responsive to the buyer's needs is complex (Weitz 1981).

Sales presentations can also be categorized by the type of message used and the type of influence attempt involved. Messages can be informative or emotional (Weitz 1981). Informative messages are appropriately used when prospects are concerned about product performance. Emotional messages appeal to the psychological needs of customers, and are appropriately used in reducing concerns about social consequences of purchasing the product (Newton 1967). Influence techniques can be open or closed (Weitz 1981). Closed influence techniques involve deceptive or hidden purposes and are used in difficult selling situations (e.g., when relationships between customer and salespersons are poor, when there is low customer interest or routine purchase of undifferentiated products). Open influence techniques are used in selling situations characterized by high buyer-selling involvement, when purchases are important to both parties, and when the negotiations are characterized by problem solving rather persuasion (Spiro and

Perreault 1979). There is no one best type of sales presentation. Weitz (1981) proposed the need for a contingency approach to the study of selling effectiveness, suggesting that effectiveness in sales interactions can be best understood by examining the interaction between sales behaviors, the nature of the customer's buying task, and the character of the salesperson-customer relationship.

Closing. As defined here, closing refers to the process of asking for the order. In performing the function of closing, salespersons must anticipate objections before they arise,⁸ recognize closing signals emitted by prospects, and ask for the order. If the attempt is successful, salespersons finalize the details of the order, reinforce the decision, and leave expeditiously. If the attempt is not successful, salespersons respond to the objections that have been raised, and ask for the order once again. If salespersons are unable to finalize the sale, effective salespersons analyze the transaction to determine what went wrong so that they can profit from the experience. Effective salespersons are alert to signals emitted by prospects that the time is right for the close (e.g., Crissy, Cunningham and Cunningham 1977; Pederson and Wright 1971). Some use "trial closes" (e.g., Crissy, Cunningham and Cunningham 1977). Trial closes will either obtain the order or smoke out hidden objections (Wotruba

1981). If the order is not forthcoming, and objections are raised, effective salespersons restructure the remainder of the presentation to address them. If the order is forthcoming, the sale is expedited with valuable selling time saved. After the order is successfully obtained, effective salespersons briefly reinforce the sale,⁹ to offset the development of possible dissonance, then thank the customer and leave quickly, but not abruptly (Lambert 1981).¹⁰

The key issue in closing is the degree of control exerted by the salesperson. While it has become popular to de-emphasize the importance of the close, a good deal of importance has traditionally been placed on this function. Some consider it to be the "acid test" of selling success (e.g., Doubman 1939; Kirkpatrick 1966). Some salespersons fear closing and hence are reluctant to ask for the order. Others feel a competition for psychological control at the time of closing (Jolson 1986b). There is general agreement that if the preceeding functions are performed effectively, closes will not be traumatic for salespersons but simply be the logical outcome of the interview (e.g., Crissy, Cunningham and Cunningham 1977; Alessandra et al. 1979). Nonetheless, Jolson (1986b) has argued that no matter how well the preceeding functions are performed, salespersons never relinquish their responsibility to assume a strong position at closing time

and ask for the order.

Retaining. As defined here, retaining involves activities performed by salespersons during the post-transactional stage. There are two dimensions to retaining: retaining the sale and retaining the customer (Jolson 1984). To retain the sale, salespersons must take responsibility for ensuring delivery of a properly installed product, on time, in good condition, and must be certain that the customer knows how to use it properly and has the necessary information to reach appropriate service personnel if necessary. In order to retain the customer, salespersons ensure post-transactional satisfaction by making follow-up calls that serve to reassure the customer and to counteract residual postpurchase dissonance. They are alert to possible sources of dissatisfaction, anticipate complaints before they arise, and, when they do occur, handle them expeditiously. In order to retain the customer, salespersons develop goodwill through periodic visits and helpful services (Pederson and Wright 1971). Effective salespersons act as friends to customers, remember them between visits, and entertain them, as appropriate. They keep abreast of the customer's activities and are alert to changes in their product-related needs. They keep customers informed about new products and new technical advances.

The relationship between buyer and seller changes after the

sale (e.g., Leavitt 1983). Selling in the retention stage presents a different problem to salespersons from selling to first-time customers. These differences led Kahn and Shuchman (1961) to advocate specialization of the salesforce around developmental and maintenance activities. Salespersons who excel at maintenance activities are service-oriented, exhibiting a high degree of concern for their customers. Salespersons who excel at developmental activities are more concerned with the creative aspects of obtaining new sales. Traditionally, however, the original salesperson performs the maintenance activities.

The Functions of Selling as the Basis for A Measure of Selling Effectiveness

A measure based on the functions of selling will satisfy criteria for a good performance measure. Such a measure should be multi-dimensional, the dimensions completely defining the domain of performance. The measure should take account of only those factors within the salesperson's control, be consistent over time, be free from bias contributed by the evaluator, and be applicable across territories, firms, and industries.

Multi-dimensionality. Many commonly used measures of selling effectiveness reflect only a single aspect of a salesperson's performance, distorting the resulting rating of overall effectiveness. (e.g., Rush 1953; Levin 1963). A good measure

should reflect all relevant dimensions, and should not reflect irrelevant dimensions (Cocanougher and Ivancevich 1978). The dimensions chosen to underlie performance should be theoretically meaningful, tapping aspects of the job that are common to all sales jobs in varying degrees, and should possess face validity, measuring characteristics that are easily recognizable by the sales managers who use the instrument (Heneman 1974).

Six dimensions underlie the functions; these dimensions are complete. Since they are performed sequentially, they are exclusive; since they encompass all the selling activities performed by the salesperson, they are exhaustive.¹¹ They are theoretically meaningful. Jolson (1974a) demonstrated their existence, in varying degrees of importance, in four widely different selling jobs. They also have face validity, being familiar to sales managers.

Freedom From Uncontrollable Factors. The effectiveness of salesperson's performance is influenced by situational factors beyond their control, such as fluctuations in economic conditions, and differences in territory potential. Such factors can give rise to apparent differences in effectiveness of salespersons across industries, across firms within industries, and even across territories within firms (Darden and French 1970). Performance evaluation should reflect only those factors that can be controlled

by the individual being evaluated (Churchill et al. 1985). Good performance of the functions of selling can be described in terms of behaviors that are under the direct control of salespersons. Thus, the measure will be relatively free from contamination by extraneous factors.

Freedom From Bias. The bias inherent in qualitative evaluations can be reduced by basing the measure on readily identifiable behaviors and by clearly specifying criteria to be used for the evaluation of good performance (e.g., Cocanougher and Ivancevich 1978). Lenny, Mitchell and Browning (1983) provided evidence that sex bias in ratings can be reduced, or eliminated entirely, by clear specification of evaluative criteria.¹² The functions of selling are amenable to description in terms of identifiable behaviors, and the criteria for good performance can also be clearly specified.

Reliability. A good effectiveness measure should not fluctuate with random events in the marketplace, but should be consistent over time (Jolson 1974b). Supervisor's evaluation of the quality of a salesperson's performance of the functions should be relatively reliable over time.

Validity. The functions of selling possess face validity. They have been applied to the evaluation of salespersons in four

different types of selling, including selling in department stores, sales of industrial package manufacturers, selling for distributors of gift items, and selling life insurance (Jolson 1974a).

Applicable Across Sales Jobs. Performance evaluation based on the performance of the functions lends itself to measurement across territories, firms, and industries. The importance of each function in the performance of particular jobs varies considerably, however. In some selling situations, certain functions may not even be performed by a salesperson, but may be carried out by an impersonal promotional tool.¹³ The problem of differential importance of functions across sales jobs can be circumvented by a weighting scheme based on managerially determined importance weights. This device was suggested by Cotham and Cravens (1969) for use in combining multiple quantitative measures for evaluation purposes and was adapted by Jolson (1974a) for use with the functions. The procedure requires sales managers both to evaluate the quality of salespersons's performance on the functions and to rate them on the importance of the functions to the salesperson's job. The results are then combined into a summary measure of overall selling effectiveness.

Non-Selling Activities. In any sales job there are some duties that do not contribute to the performance of the personal selling process, but that are necessary parts of the job. To be inclusive,

these non-selling activities were included in the measure, but are not of any theoretical interest in the research.

Summary

The functions of selling were introduced as a basis for a performance tool that: (1) meets criteria for a good measure of selling effectiveness, and (2) is adaptable to measurement across territories, firms, and industries. The manner in which salespersons perform the functions of selling may be related to the instrumental and expressive traits that they possess in their sex role identities.

Sex Role Identity

Sex role identity refers to the degree to which persons possess personality traits that are characteristic of their own and the opposite gender. Bem (1974) rejected the concept of masculinity and femininity as opposite ends of a bi-polar continuum. (For a discussion of prior masculinity-femininity scales and the bi-polarity issue, see Constantinople 1973.) Her theory proposed that all individuals possess traits associated with both sexes in varying degrees. She distinguished between sex-typed individuals, who strongly endorse society's stereotypes of appropriate behavior

for a particular gender, and non-sex-typed individuals, who endorse traits associated with both genders in approximately equal amounts. Bem developed a scale to measure sex role identity. The scale, currently in wide use, will be used in this study.

A Scale to Measure Sex Role Identity

The 60-item BSRI consists of three subscales: masculinity, femininity, and social desirability. The masculinity and femininity subscales each contain 20 personality traits which were selected on the basis of their sex-typed social desirability. Traits on the masculinity scale were judged more socially desirable for men to possess than for women. Conversely, those on the femininity scale were judged to be more socially desirable for women to possess than for men. The social desirability scale provides a neutral context for the masculine and feminine items. The items included on the BSRI are displayed in Figure 3-2.

Psychometric Properties of the BSRI. The BSRI has exhibited good internal consistency throughout its use. Bem's original coefficient alphas for her two normative samples were: Masculinity .86, .86; Femininity .80, .82; Social Desirability .75, .70. Coefficient alphas for the original androgyny scale based on Nunnally's (1978) formula for linear combinations were .85 and .86. Original test-retest reliabilities were good at: Masculinity

Figure 3-2
Items on the Masculinity, Femininity and
Social Desirability Scales of the BSRI

Masculine Items	Feminine Items	Neutral Items
49. Acts as leader	11. Affectionate	51. Adaptable
46. Aggressive	5. Cheerful	36. Conceited
58. Ambitious	50. Childlike	9. Conscientious
22. Analytical	32. Compassionate	60. Conventional
13. Assertive	53. Does not use harsh language	45. Friendly
10. Athletic	35. Eager to soothe hurt feelings	15. Happy
55. Competitive	20. Feminine	3. Helpful
4. Defends own beliefs	14. Flatterable	48. Inefficient
37. Dominant	59. Gentle	24. Jealous
19. Forceful	47. Gullible	39. Likable
25. Has leadership abilities	56. Loves children	6. Moody
7. Independent	17. Loyal	21. Reliable
52. Individualistic	26. Sensitive to the needs of others	30. Secretive
31. Makes decisions easily	8. Shy	33. Sincere
40. Masculine	38. Soft spoken	42. Solemn
1. Self-reliant	23. Sympathetic	57. Tactful
34. Self-sufficient	44. Tender	12. Theatrical
16. Strong personality	29. Understanding	27. Truthful
43. Willing to take a stand	41. Warm	18. Unpredictable
28. Willing to take risks	2. Yielding	54. Unsystematic

The number preceeding each item reflects the position of each adjective as it actually appears on the Inventory.

Definitions of ambiguous terms will be included on the instrument, as was done by Comer and Jolson (1985)

SOURCE: Bem, S. L. (1974)

$r = .90$, Femininity $r = .90$, Androgyny $r = .93$, Social Desirability $r = .89$.

Masculinity and Femininity Sub-Scales. The items on the masculinity and femininity subscales were originally selected to be consistent with Parsons and Bales' (1955) conceptualization of instrumentality and expressiveness. Such traits as independence, assertiveness, and dominance are associated with masculine instrumentality. Traits such as sympathy, compassion, and sensitivity to the needs of others are associated with feminine expressive or nurturing behavior (e.g., Bem 1974; 1975; 1976; Spence and Helmreich 1978). The traits on these subscales have a strong correspondence with the stereotypes associated with masculinity and femininity in our culture (e.g., Broverman et al. 1972; Bem 1979).

Construct Validity. Criticisms of the construct validity of the masculinity and femininity subscales (e.g., Pedhazur and Tetenbaum 1979; Locksley and Colten 1979) appear to be originate in a difference of opinion as to the intent of the scale (Bem 1977). When the scale is viewed as an operationalization of instrumental and expressive qualities (Bem 1977; Spence and Helmreich 1979), the construct validity is believed to be good (e.g., Taylor 1984; Ramanaiah and Martin 1984).

Classification of Subjects. As defined here, the term sex role type refers to the classification to which saleswomen are assigned on the basis of the strengths of the masculine instrumentality and feminine expressiveness in the sex role identities, as measured on the BSRI. Two methods of classification of subjects are currently in use. Bem originally used a subtractive technique to separate subjects into masculine, feminine, and androgynous categories based on the statistical significance of the difference between the means of their masculinity and femininity scores. This procedure has been criticized on statistical (Straham, 1975) and conceptual (Spence, Helmreich and Stapp, 1975) grounds. An additive method, introduced by Spence, Helmreich and Stapp (1975) uses a median split technique to divide the sample into four groups of masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated individuals. This method solves some of the difficulties of the subtractive method, but results in a classification scheme that is sample based.¹⁴ Nonetheless, Bem (1977), endorsed this method after its application strengthened her early results. This procedure is currently the classification method of choice, and was used in the current research.

Evaluation of Sex Role Identity

While sex role identity is normally measured by self-reports of the individual involved, two instances of sex role identity rated both

by self and by another have been identified. Spence and Helmreich (1978) obtained ratings of the sex role identities of the parents of college students both from the the parents themselves, and by the students.¹⁵

They posed three questions: (1) are the measures correlated, (2) are the resulting classifications the same, and (3) are the results different when the data are analyzed using classifications based on the two sets of evaluations? They found that correlations between the ratings by students and by the parents themselves to be modest but positive and highly significant, which they interpreted as evidence that there was some veridicality between students' perceptions and the self-images of the parents. They found only minor differences between the mean masculinity and mean femininity scores using the the two classification schemes. Differences were in the direction of the sex role stereotypes.¹⁶ Classifications into sex role types produced only minor differences in the distributions. Alperson and Friedman (1983) evaluated the degree to which opposite sex partners in interpersonal dyads were able to validate each others sex role identity, as measured by the BSRI. (Validation entailed agreement about whether or not each individual trait was characteristic of the target individual.) They found that the masculine characteristics of women, were less likely to be validated by their male partners than were their feminine

characteristics.

The Relationship between
Sex Role Identity and Behavior

Bem (1975) theorized that an individual's sex role type would correspond to his or her behavior in sex-typed situations.

Behavioral Assumptions. Several assumptions about the relationship between an individual's sex role identity and his or her behavior underlie Bem's (1974) theory. Bem held that sex-typed individuals were strongly motivated to maintain gender-appropriate behavior, consistent with society's culturally determined standards. Hence, she predicted that they would excel at instrumental or expressive activities corresponding to their sex role type (Bem, 1975). She further predicted that they would prefer activities that were congruent with their sex types, would avoid those that were not, and would experience greater comfort when performing such activities (Bem and Lenny, 1976). In contrast, non-sex-typed (androgynous) individuals would display flexibility in their behavior, perceiving a wider range of options and performing activities identified with either sex comfortably, as dictated by the situation.

Behavioral Validation. Bem and her colleagues conducted three empirical tests of her theory. Overall, in the laboratory,

masculine and androgynous subjects displayed more masculine (instrumental) behaviors than did feminine subjects, while feminine and androgynous subjects displayed more feminine (expressive) behaviors than did masculine subjects (Bem 1975; Bem, Martyna and Watson 1976). Sex-typed individuals actively resisted performing sex-crossed behaviors, while non-sex-typed individuals were equally comfortable performing activities regardless of their gender-appropriateness (Bem and Lenny 1976). These studies demonstrated a relationship between the possession of masculine and feminine personality traits by individuals, and their performance of activities categorized as instrumental or expressive. They establish the theoretical basis for investigating the relationship between the psychological sex type of saleswomen and their performance of the instrumental and expressive aspects of the functions of selling.

Gender Schema Theory. Bem (1979; 1981a; 1981b; 1982) strengthened her theory of behavioral correspondence by suggesting that sex-typed individuals organize their thinking around gender lines, possessing cognitive structures known as gender schema in their self concepts.¹⁷ Gender schema theory permits stronger predictions about the relationship between psychological sex-type and behavior. It provides a theoretical basis for investigating the relationship between psychological sex type and performance of

gender stereotypic behavior by saleswomen, above and beyond instrumental and expressive activities.

Challenges to the Behavior Assumptions. Bem's theory of correspondence between psychological sex-type and sex-typed behavior was questioned by Spence and Helmreich (1978). While they agreed that Bem's laboratory studies revealed a relationship between instrumental and expressive personality traits and behavior, they argued that the correspondence extended only to behaviors that were classifiable as instrumental or expressive. In a conceptual replication of Bem and Lenny's (1976) study, Helmreich, Spence, and Holahan (1978) confirmed this line of thinking by finding sex role identities of subjects only weakly related to sex-typed behaviors that were not characterizable as instrumental or expressive activities. They argued that these activities called for different personality traits than those included in the constructs of instrumentality and expressiveness. These results have been replicated (Haracrawiz and DePaulo 1982; Uleman and Weston 1986). If Spence and Helmreich were correct, the sex role types of saleswomen would relate to selling effectiveness through the instrumental and expressive components of their sex role identities only and would show only a weak relationship to the perception of gender stereotypic behavior by sales managers.¹⁸

The Relationship between Sex Role Identity and Occupational Behavior

Spence and Helmreich (1979) speculated that instrumental and expressive traits have behavioral applications beyond the narrow confines of masculine and feminine behaviors, suggesting a relationship to occupational behavior. A stream of literature ensued. Results are particularly relevant to the understanding of the behavior of women in non-traditional occupations.

Preference and Comfort. Female students have been found to prefer occupations congruent with their sex role types (Wertheim, Windom and Wortzel 1978; Wolfe and Betz 1981; Clarey and Sanford 1982; Feather and Said 1983). Similarly, they have been found to choose major fields consistent with these types (Harron et al. 1974; Moreland et al. 1979; Long 1982). Female students in non-traditional fields are more satisfied with their choices (Strange and Rea 1983), and more secure about the correctness of their choices (Yanico, Hardin and McLaughlin 1978), when the fields are congruent with their sex role types than when they are not. Field surveys have confirmed that feminine females predominate in traditionally female occupations, such as nursing (Vandever 1978), dental hygiene (Hamby and Shapiro 1983), secretarial and clerical work (Mouillet 1979; Waddell 1983), and homemaking (Gaudreau, 1975), while masculine-typed women predominate in traditionally

male fields, such as medicine and law (Williams and McCullers, 1983), and management (Mouilliet 1979; Waddell 1983).

Performance Effectiveness. Spence and Helmreich (1980) suggested that individuals who are high in instrumental traits might also be more successful in traditionally male fields than others. A recent study by Jagacinski (1987) confirmed a relationship between instrumental (masculine) traits and effectiveness of performance in engineering, but none was found between expressive (feminine) traits and effectiveness of performance.

The Relationship between Sex Role Identity and Personal Selling

The concept of sex role identity was introduced to the literature of personal selling by Gibson, Cochran and Epley (1980-81). In their study, they inferred sex role identity but did not measure it, explaining the relatively high self concept and achievement motivation of young neophyte real estate saleswomen, by suggesting that they lacked female stereotypes in their sex role identities.

A study by Comer and Jolson (1985) involved the relationship between the sex role identities of students of sales management and

their preferences for five sex-typed selling occupations. They found differential strengths of preferences for sex-typed sales jobs among female students classified into sex role types by Bem's original scoring system. The preferences of masculine females resembled those of males. Those of feminine and androgynous females were relatively similar. Since students of sales management constitute a pool of applicants for selling positions, these results laid the groundwork for the investigation into the relationship between saleswomen's sex role types and their behavior on the salesforce. A limitation of the study was that findings concerning student preferences were not related to actual choice of sales job or subsequent behavior on salesforces.

Teer (1985) identified a relationship between sex role identity and selling effectiveness in dollar volume sales of part-time direct saleswomen. He found that androgynous females had significantly greater selling success than feminine females on one of two measures of selling effectiveness. Several limitations can be identified in Teer's work. Dollar volume of sales may have been inappropriate as a measure of selling effectiveness since the saleswomen were employed only part-time, and no control was included for differential time and effort expended by saleswomen. The sample was composed primarily of minority women. Black women have been found to differ from white women in personality traits

that relate to sex role identity (e.g., Landrini 1985; Adams 1980). Finally, only one type of selling job was investigated. The results may not be generalizable to other types of selling jobs.

Sex Role Identity and Perceived Gender Stereotypic Behavior of Saleswomen

Since very little research has investigated the relationship between sex role type and occupational behavior in selling, information must be extrapolated from other contexts. Saleswomen's sex role types may relate to the perception of their gender stereotypic behavior through impacting upon their "selling ability," "human relations," and "motivation."

Selling Ability. Sex role masculinity may relate to saleswomen's ability to acquire important technical knowledge. High cognitive ability has been found to be associated with cross-sex typing (Maccoby 1966). Masculine-typed individuals of both sexes have been found to outperform others in mechanical reasoning (Antill and Cunningham 1982) and on arithmetic (Selkow 1985). Masculine instrumentality has been found to be related positively to expectancy and self-concept of mathematical ability for both sexes (Eccles 1983). High masculinity scores, when accompanied with low competitiveness, have been found to be associated with high academic achievement (Olds and Shaver 1980).

Human Relations. The androgynous person may possess high social competence (Kelly and Worrell 1977). Heilbrun (1981; 1984) presented evidence that androgynous females have unique social ability, being unusually sensitive to the needs of others and being able to respond to nuances of interpersonal relationships. While feminine females possess strong relational ability (e.g., Antill 1983), their ability to demonstrate it is highly limited by the situation (Bem 1976).

Motivation. Evidence supports a relationship between women's achievement motivation and their sex role identities. While Spence and Helmreich (1978) found a relationship between achievement motivation and both masculine and feminine components of the sex role identities, most of the evidence suggests that women's achievement motivation relates to the way in which the masculine components have developed. Achievement motivation and high sex role masculinity have been found to co-exist in American female owners and managers (Waddell 1983) and Australian health care professionals (Westbrook and Nordhold 1984). Williams and McCullers (1983) found that active professional women in law careers scored higher in both sex role masculinity and achievement motivation than other groups, while Van Rooyen (1981) confirmed a relationship between masculine sex role identities and achievement orientation in white South African female college graduates. High masculinity

scores have been found to relate to women's aspirations to top management (Powell and Butterfield 1981). Career centeredness, defined as a "lifestyle in which one's career is regarded as more important, more time consuming, and more satisfying than other aspects of life," has been found to be correlated with high masculinity scores of women (Marschall and Wijting 1982, p. 135). Masculine women have expressed more career salience in their occupational daydreams than their more feminine counterparts (Yanico 1981). A relationship between the likelihood of leaving a job for personal reasons and women's sex role identities was reported by Feather and Said (1983). Female students with high masculinity scores reported themselves to be more likely to leave jobs to start their own businesses than to leave them to work at home and care for children. Masculine certified management accountants (CMAs) of both sexes were found to have greater current and expected career success than feminine CMAs (Keys 1985).

Evidence suggests that feminine females have low motivation to embark on careers. Hoffman and Fiddell (1979) found that feminine females of the middle-class tend either not to be employed or to work part-time, in contrast to masculine and androgynous females who were more likely to be employed full-time. Wong, Ketterwell and Sproule (1985) found that feminine females achieved less in their careers and attributed their performance less to ability and

effort than other females. Erkut (1983) suggested that feminine females were trapped in a self-defeating cycle, having low expectations for success originating in a lack of belief in their own ability, which results in inferior performance. Alagna (1982) found feminine females to have lower motivation, lower expectations for success, and stronger attributions for luck than other females. Interestingly, Yanico (1981) found that feminine women showed more career salience in traditionally feminine areas than did other women. While feminine CMAs of both sexes were found to have more stereotypically feminine life goals and career preferences than did CMAs of other sex role types (Keys 1985)

The Two Dimensional Model of Performance of the Functions of Selling

Effectiveness in personal selling has been described by various authors on dimensions that correspond to the instrumental and expressive dichotomy. Instrumental qualities such as dominance, ego drive, achievement motivation, and aggressiveness (e.g., Merenda and Clarke 1959; Dunnette and Kirchner 1969; Harrell 1960; Greenberg and Mayer 1964; Howells 1968; Ghiselli 1973; and Mattheis et al. 1977) and expressive qualities, such as empathy (Merenda and Clarke 1959; Howells 1968) have been found significantly related to increased selling effectiveness.¹⁸ Of interest to this study are the analyses of Jolson (1984) and Blake and Mouton

(1980).

Buzzotta, Lefton and Sherberg (1982) classified salespersons on the basis of the relative amounts of "dominance" and "warmth" they brought to the selling situation. Based on their model, Jolson (1984) described three types of salespersons, that he referred to as "aggressive," "submissive," and "assertive." A similar two-dimensional model of selling was introduced by Blake and Mouton (1980), who identified five fundamentally different orientations to the process of selling based on the relative amount of "concern for the sale" and "concern for the customer" that they demonstrated. The dimensions underlying the model salespersons of Jolson and Blake and Mouton reflect their relative endorsement of instrumental and expressive traits, and correspond to the sex role types described by Bem (1974; 1975) and Spence, Helmreich and Stapp (1975). The correspondence between the three models is demonstrated in Figure 3-3.

The degree to which salespersons endorse instrumental and expressive traits impacts upon their performance of the functions of selling. Figure 3-4 summarizes Jolson's (1984) analysis of the differences in styles of performance of the functions of selling for each of his three model salespersons. The following discussion draws on the contributions of Jolson (1984) and Blake and Mouton (1980) to provide insights into the relationship between

Figure 3-3
The Correspondence between
Two Dimensional Models of Sales Behavior

EXPRESSIVENESS:

	I	I	I	I	I	
	I	I	High	I	Low	
	I	I		I		
I	I	I		I		
N	I	High	I	Androgynous*	I	Masculine*
S	I		I	Solution Seeking**	I	Domineering**
T	I		I	Assertive***	I	Aggressive***
R	I		I		I	
U	I		I		I	
M	I		I		I	
E	I		I	Middle of the Road**	I	
N	I	Low	I	Feminine*	I	Undifferentiated*
T	I		I	Eager-to-please**	I	Indifferent**
A	I		I	Submissive-Warm***	I	Submissive-Hostile***
L	I		I		I	
I	I		I		I	
T	I		I		I	
Y	I		I		I	

Figure 3-4
Selling Styles of Three Model Salespersons
in Performing the Functions of Selling

SELLING STYLE:			
FUNCTION:	Aggressive	Submissive	Assertive
Finding Prospects	Feels can sell anyone and tries to.	Prefers to depend on company supplied or contacts with friends.	Prospects meticulously but wastes little time with resistant or unqualified people.
Contacting Prospects	Refuses to accept rejection without a struggle.	Socializes.	Inspires receptivity but qualifies carefully.
Defining Prospect's Needs/Problems	Feels the salesperson is the best judge of the prospect's needs/problems.	Accepts prospect's problem definition without probing.	Elicits need-related information the prospect may not have volunteered.
Stimulating Desire	Minimizes participation of the prospect.	Loses control during the presentation.	Encourages two-way communication throughout.
Closing the Sale	Tries to overwhelm the prospect. Responds to objections without absorbing or fully understanding them.	Assumes that prospects will buy when ready.	Assumes that if seller responds to buyer's needs, the close will be somewhat automatic.
Retaining Customers	Neglects customer after sale is made. Is not a long-term person.	Follows through well. Is constantly in touch with customer.	Makes sure commitments are fulfilled. Is available for post-transactional service

SOURCE: Jolson (1984)

instrumental and expressive characteristics and effective performance of each of the functions of selling. It demonstrates the way instrumental and expressive behaviors combine to contribute to effective performance of each function and how inadequacies in either instrumentality or expressiveness can lead to sub-optimal performance of the functions.

Prospecting. Salespersons with strong instrumental and weak expressive traits prefer effort prospecting. They have a zeal for selling that may result in their contacting excessive numbers of unqualified prospects. Salespersons with strong expressive and weak instrumental traits prefer non-effort prospecting and tend to avoid cold calling. Salespersons with a balance of instrumental and expressive characteristics prospect diligently, but also qualify carefully, resulting in maximal coverage with minimal effort.

Contacting. Salespersons with strong instrumental and weak expressive traits have been accused on using deceptive or "steamroll tactics," in gaining entry to prospects that may result in negative first impressions. They are not concerned about establishing rapport. Salespersons with strong expressive and weak instrumental characteristics prefer make friends easily with prospects, but spend excessive selling time socializing, thus using selling time inefficiently. Salespersons with a balance of

instrumental and expressive characteristics are genuinely interested in prospects and establish good, initial relationships. They plan the approach well, schedule appointments efficiently, and make excellent first impressions.

Probing for Needs. Salespersons with strong instrumental and weak expressive characteristics do little listening or questioning. They "pre-judge" the customer's requirements and dominate the conversation. Salespersons with strong expressive and weak instrumental characteristics err in the opposite direction. They do not probe, but use open-ended questions in the hope of eliciting undirected responses. Salespersons with a balance of instrumental and expressive qualities make an effort to understand prospect's problems and how they can be satisfied within the limitations acknowledged by both parties. These salespersons are both empathetic to the concerns of the prospect and directive in the conversation.

Stimulating Desire. Salespersons with strong instrumental and weak expressive qualities do not tailor their presentations to particular prospects. Their presentations emphasize the positive features of products and downplay their limitations. Salespersons with strong expressive and weak instrumental qualities tend to "read signals" from prospects and adjust their presentations accordingly. They use time inefficiently and tend to lose control

of the sales interview. Salespersons with a balance of instrumental and expressive qualities give functional presentations, matching product characteristics to the needs of prospects and seeking to find an optimal fit. They encourage and profit from two-way communication throughout the interchange.

Closing. Salespersons with strong instrumental and weak expressive characteristics regard failure to close as personal failure. They regard objections as a threat to control and tend to suppress them, or respond to them on only a superficial level. Salespersons with strong expressive and weak instrumental characteristics are reluctant to exert the necessary pressure to ask for the order and prefer to wait for prospects to make spontaneous buying decisions. They may suggest that prospects "think about it" before making a decision. They find objections unpleasant and disconcerting. Salespersons with a balance of instrumental and expressive characteristics begin closing only after a meeting of the minds has occurred. For them effective performance of the preceeding functions make closing the logical culmination of the interview. They do not view an unsuccessful close as a personal disaster, but attempt to profit from the experience.

Retaining. After the sale is consummated, salespersons with strong instrumental and weak expressive traits tend to neglect

accounts, preferring to focus on new prospects. Salespersons with strong expressive and weak instrumental traits spend a good deal of time with established accounts. They take good care of their customers, but may not press them for new orders and thus may not realize the full potential of their accounts. They may be unwilling to take actions that might jeopardize their personal relationships with customers or face up to unpleasant responsibilities. Salespersons with a balance of instrumental and expressive characteristics keep in contact with customers on regular schedules, basing the decisions about frequency of calls on analyses of customers' situations and the potential for new orders. They are alert to possible dissatisfactions before complaints occur, and take action to correct them. When complaints do arise, they meet with customers promptly, discuss the problem, and attempt to arrive at the best solution.

The Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study brings together the three foregoing clusters of literature.

A Correlational Model

Figure 3-5 presents the correlational model that underlies the

study. The nature of the associations between the links are investigated.

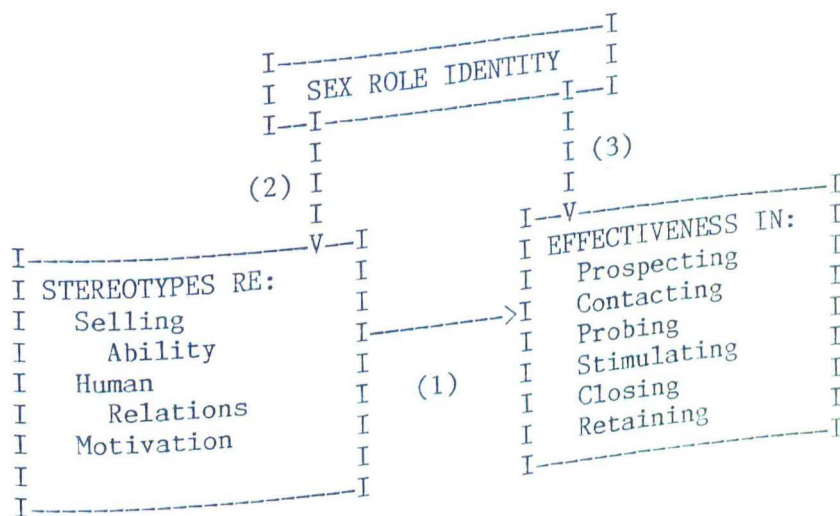
- (1) The relationship between the perception of gender stereotypic behavior in saleswomen and the effectiveness of saleswomen in performing the functions of selling.

Some sales managers believe that gender stereotypic behavior by saleswomen will impact negatively upon their performance effectiveness. The relationship between selling effectiveness and sales manager's perceptions of gender stereotypic behavior of saleswomen relating to "selling ability," "human relations," and "motivation" will be investigated.

- (2) The relationship between the sex role identities of saleswomen and the perception of gender stereotypic behavior

The strong behavioral assumptions of gender schema theory (Bem 1979; 1981a; 1981b) hold that behavioral predictions based on women's psychological sex type can be made about the entire realm of culturally-mandated, gender-appropriate behaviors, above and beyond the domain of instrumental and expressive activities. According to gender schema theory, the gender schema of feminine-typed saleswomen are organized around female cultural stereotypes. Since these women are motivated to keep their behavior consistent with their gender schema, feminine-typed saleswomen are likely to be perceived as behaving according to

Figure 3-5
The Underlying Model for the Study:
Suggested Relationships among the Variables of Interest



RELATIONSHIPS TO BE EXPLORED:

- (1) Perceived Gender Stereotypic Behavior and Effectiveness
- (2) Sex Role Identity and Perceived Gender Stereotypic Behavior
- (3) Sex Role Identity and Selling Effectiveness

gender stereotypes.

While gender schema theory makes no predictions about the behavior of cross-typed individuals, it is logical to predict that masculine-typed saleswomen, lacking feminine schema, would be less motivated to behave in stereotypically feminine ways, and consequently be less likely to be perceived as conforming to gender stereotypes. Some support for this view comes from empirical findings that have demonstrated that masculine-typed women perform more comfortably in traditionally masculine environments than do their more feminine counterparts (e.g., Bem and Lenny 1975; Rea and Strange 1983). Bem's (1974) hypothesis of behavioral flexibility, extends the predictions to androgynous females who are more comfortable in traditionally masculine environments than are their feminine-typed female counterparts.

(3) The relationship between the sex role identities of saleswomen and the effectiveness of their performance of the functions of selling

The early theory of Bem (1974; 1975) and the conservative behavioral assumptions of Spence and Helmreich (1978; 1979) hold that behavioral predictions based on women's psychological sex type can be made in situations that involve instrumental or expressive activities. Based on this viewpoint, the relationship of saleswomen's sex role identities to effective performance of each

of the functions of selling depends upon the particular combination of instrumental and expressive qualities involved. Thus, saleswomen with strong masculine traits will excel at instrumental selling behaviors, those with strong feminine traits will excel at expressive selling behaviors, and those with strengths in both masculine and feminine traits (i.e., androgynous) will excel at both instrumental and expressive behaviors.

Summary

The key issues that are addressed in the research are (1) whether perception of gender stereotypic behavior impacts on the effectiveness of saleswomen in performing the functions of selling and (2) whether the sex role identities of women moderate this effect. Chapters Two and Three have reviewed the literature relevant to the study and have proposed a conceptual framework underlying the research. Chapter Four presents the methodology that was used in the study.

Endnotes

1. The term qualifying prospects refers to the process of evaluating their suitability for further development as customers. A suitable prospect has a need for the product, is eligible to buy it, is able to pay for it, has the necessary authority to make the buying decision, and is not committed to another supplier (Young and Mondy 1982). Prospects may be qualified either in advance of the contact, during the contact, or at both times.

2. Use of foot-in-the-door techniques, such as a telephone pre-notification technique (Jolson 1986a), can reduce the trauma associated with effort prospecting. In using Jolson's (1986a) pre-notification approach to effort prospecting, salespersons use a series of low-pressure, telephone contacts, to secure compliance with a series of small requests before actually asking for an appointment for a face-to-face interview. This approach uses foot-in-the door principles to reduce sales resistance.

3. For example, when prospecting by cold calling, salespersons call upon prospects unannounced. The functions of prospecting and contacting are, therefore, performed simultaneously.

4. Since salespersons interrupt meaningful activity of the prospect, it is necessary to relax prospects, establish rapport with them through small talk, and to redirect their thoughts from previous concerns.

5. It should be noted that the re-qualification of prospects usually occurs after needs have been identified, hence it actually overlaps with the probing process.

6. Four model customer types have been identified, defined on the dimensions of responsiveness and assertiveness: amiable, expressive, analytical, and driving. By adjusting their behavior to these customer types, salespersons are believed to increase their selling effectiveness.

7. Neuro-linguistic programming is based on the premise that all behavior provides information about internal neural processes. Physical cues provide information about mental processes.

8. Objections can occur at any point in the interview. Since they are most prevalent at the time of closing (Young and Mondy 1982), they are included within the function of closing. Effective salespersons address objections thoroughly at the time they arise. If objections are allowed to go unanswered, they will become barriers to the successful completion of the sales call.

9. In reinforcing the sale, the salesperson makes a brief comment designed to assure the new customer that he or she has made a wise decision.

10. It should be noted that the sale does not need to be completed on the initial call. In many selling situations, negotiations take place over considerable time periods.

11. Some duties that are necessary components of the sales job are not part of the selling functions. These activities are included in the measure by incorporating a special category for non-selling activities.

12. While sex bias has been identified in evaluations of the achievements of women (e.g., Cline, Holmes and Werner 1977; Etaugh and Rose 1975; Linsenmeier and Wortman 1979; Paludi and Bauer 1983; Peck 1978; Pheterson, Kiesler and Goldberg 1971; Wallston and O'Leary 1981; Zickmund, Hitt and Pickens 1978), the findings are by no means consistent. Other studies found women actually rated higher than men (Abramson et al. 1977; Jacobson and Effertz 1974). The effect is most likely to occur when women are evaluated in traditionally male fields rather than traditionally female (Etaugh and Riley 1983) or sex neutral (Etaugh and Foresman 1983) fields. In these studies, evaluators did not know the actual persons being evaluated. Sex bias has been found to decrease when behavioral

information about the individual being rated is available (Locksley et al. 1980), and when the evaluator is personally familiar with the target person (e.g., Cullen and Perrewe 1981; Elmore and LaPointe 1974; 1975; Ferber, Huber and Spitze 1979). Lott (1985) suggests that devaluation of women is least likely in situations where the woman is known to the evaluator.

13. For example, in retail selling, the function of prospecting is usually carried out by advertising rather than by a salesperson.

14. If saleswomen were assigned to sex role types using Bem's (1974) subtractive method, assignment would be more objective, but the analysis would be obscured since the procedure provides no way to separate androgynous from undifferentiated females. A compromise method, advocated by Orlofsky, Aslin and Ginsberg (1977) first separates individuals into sex-typed and non-sex-typed groups using the subtractive method, and then further separates the non-sex-typed group into androgynous and undifferentiated individuals by median split. This still requires the use of a sample median, but is somewhat more objective.

15. Spence and Helmreich (1978) measured sex role identity using their own Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ). The instrument is an alternative to the BSRI, being similar in content

and construction. The PAQ is also in wide use.

16. Students perceived fathers as higher in masculinity and mothers as higher in femininity than the parents, themselves, reported. When the statistical analyses were repeated using parents' ratings of students' sex role identity, the overall trends seemed to be similar.

17. A schema is a network of associations that organizes and guides an individual's perception. According to Bem's view, sex-typed persons evaluate their adequacy as persons in terms of their gender schemas.

18. Not all studies have reported these relationships. For example, Lamont and Lundstrom (1977) found no significant relationship between either empathy or ego drive and the selling effectiveness of industrial salespersons.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN

This chapter describes the methodology that was used in the study, specifying the key variables, the hypotheses, the nature of the sample, the data collection procedures, and the analytical techniques that were used.

Variables

The independent variables were sales managers' perceptions of gender stereotypic behavior of saleswomen. The dependent variables were the effectiveness of saleswomen in performing a series of six functions of selling and non-selling activities. The effect of one moderating variable, the sex role type of saleswomen, was investigated. A series of control variables were also included.

Independent Variables

The independent variables were sales managers' perceptions of gender stereotypic behavior of saleswomen relating to "selling ability," "human relations," and "motivation," and a summary

measure of these perceptions. Multidimensional scales were developed to measure the degree to which saleswomen were perceived to behave stereotypically in each of the three areas. Sales managers were asked to indicate, on a scale from 1 to 7, how closely each item on a series of statements described from one to four target saleswoman.

Three individual stereotype scores were calculated for each saleswoman: a "selling ability" stereotype score, a "human relations" stereotype score, and a "motivation" stereotype score. An unweighted average of the three stereotype scales was also calculated to serve as an overall measure of the degree to which a saleswoman is perceived to be stereotyped.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables were the effectiveness of saleswomen in performing six functions of selling and non-selling activities, and a summary measure of overall effectiveness. Sales managers rated the effectiveness with which they believed the target saleswomen performed each of the functions, using a scale of 0 to 10. Sales managers also rated the relative importance of the functions to the performance of the sales job. These importance weights were summed and normalized to conform to unit length. An overall selling effectiveness score was calculated as an average of the individual

function effectiveness scores weighted by sales managers' ratings of the importance of each function to the effective performance of the job. Each saleswoman received a score on each individual function of selling and on non-selling activities. Each saleswoman also received an overall selling effectiveness score.

Moderating Variable

Sex role type of saleswomen was investigated as a variable that moderates the relationship between the perceived gender stereotypic behaviors of saleswomen, and selling effectiveness. Sales managers provided descriptions of their perceptions of the sex role identities of saleswomen using a short form of the BSRI. Based on these ratings, saleswomen were classified into sex role types within each sample, using a median split technique as recommended by Spence, Helmreich and Stapp (1975). Those who were high on both masculinity and femininity scores were classified as androgynous females. Those who were high on masculinity and low on femininity were classified as masculine females. Those who were low on masculinity and high on femininity were classified as feminine females, while those who were low on both masculinity and femininity were classified as undifferentiated females. The classification scheme is a convenient way of separating individuals on the basis of the relative amounts of masculinity and femininity in their sex role identities and also results in relatively equal

sample sizes within cells for statistical analyses. It is limited, however, since classification of saleswomen to sex role types is only relative to other saleswomen in the same sample.

Control Variables

A set of control variables were included to aid in clarifying the relationships of interest. (A discussion of the manner in which control variables affect or clarify relationships is given in Green and Tull 1979.) Control variables were used to assess: (1) whether any differences in the relationships between dependent variables and sex role types resulting from addition of any of the control variables, (2) whether the basic model could be improved by addition of the control variables, or (3) whether any of the control variables could provide better explanations of the variability in the dependent variables. Control variables that were included were the age, education, family status, and tenure on the salesforce of saleswomen, as well as the sex ratio of the sales force.

Age. The age of saleswomen potentially relates to both perceived gender stereotypic behavior and selling effectiveness. Since younger women are less likely to hold traditional attitudes toward sex roles than are older women (e.g., Thornton, Alvin and Camburn 1983; Helmreich, Spence and Gibson, 1982; Slevin and

Wingrove 1983), they might be less likely to be perceived as behaving in accordance with gender stereotypes. A relationship might exist between age and selling effectiveness (e.g., Haefer 1986). Age has been used previously as a control variable in research into gender differences in selling (Busch and Bush 1978; Swan, Futrell and Todd 1978; Swan and Futrell 1978; Futrell 1980; Gibson, Cochran and Epley 1980-81; Gibson and Swan 1981-82; Skinner, Dubinsky and Cronin 1984), and has been found to impact differentially on job-related attitudes (Gibson, Cochran and Epley 1980-81) and values (Gibson and Swan 1981-82) of real estate saleswomen.

Education. The education of saleswomen potentially relates to both perceived stereotypic behavior and selling effectiveness. Because persons with higher educations are less likely to hold traditional attitudes toward sex roles than those with less education (e.g., Thornton, Alwin and Camburn 1983; Helmreich, Spence and Gibson 1982), saleswomen with higher educations might be less likely to be perceived as behaving in accordance with gender stereotypes. Because education develops important personal skills that are needed for sales jobs, saleswomen with higher educations might also excel in selling.¹ Education was measured by years of formal education. Education has previously been included as a control variable in research into gender differences in selling

(Busch and Bush 1978; Swan, Futrell and Todd 1978; Swan and Futrell 1978; Futrell 1980; Skinner, Dubinsky and Cronin 1984).

Marital Status. The marital status of saleswomen potentially relates to perceptions of gender stereotypic behavior. Married women have been criticized for permitting family responsibilities to interfere with the performance of their jobs (e.g., Bergmann 1986; Kanuk 1978). Women who are married might appear to conform more closely to gender stereotypes than women who are not.

Tenure on Current Job. Tenure on current job potentially relates to selling effectiveness. Saleswomen who have performed their jobs for longer periods might be likely to perform their jobs more effectively. Length of time on job, dichotomized into short- and extended-longevity groups, has been used to clarify relationships in research into gender differences in selling (Swan, Futrell and Todd 1978; Swan and Futrell 1978).

The Sex Ratio of the Salesforce. The sex ratio of the salesforce potentially impacts upon both gender stereotypic behavior and selling effectiveness. Saleswomen might be more likely to be perceived as behaving according to gender stereotypes on sales jobs where women are statistically rare than on jobs where they are plentiful (Kanter 1977; Taylor and Fiske 1978). Because the pressures they encounter in these situations differ, saleswomen

may also differ in selling effectiveness. No previous research into gender effects in selling has explicitly considered the sex ratio of the salesforce.

Other Variables

A set of demographic variables was included to use in testing the samples for comparability. A set of variables was included for the purpose of testing for sex bias in the evaluation of saleswomen. These were: (1) the degree of comfort sales managers felt in supervising saleswomen, (2) the sex ratio of salespersonnel reporting to the sales manager, and (3) the sex of sales managers. A set of variables was also included for the purpose of testing for differential response tendencies. These were self-perceptions of: (1) their leniency in evaluating saleswomen, and (2) how well-qualified they felt to perform the evaluations.

Demographic Variables. The demographic variables that were included were the age, education, and sex of sales managers, and the age, education, marital status and tenure on the salesforce of saleswomen.

Comfort in Supervising Saleswomen. The degree of comfort felt by sales managers in supervising saleswomen potentially affects the evaluations of saleswomen. Some sales managers have been reported to feel uncomfortable when supervising women, particularly when

required to give constructive criticism or to take disciplinary action (Futrell 1980). Sales managers who feel very comfortable supervising women might have different perceptions of the gender stereotypic behavior and the quality of performance of saleswomen than those sales managers who do not.

The Sex Ratio of the Supervisor. The sex ratio of salespersons under the supervision of sales managers potentially impacts upon the way sales managers evaluate saleswomen. Sales managers who supervise only a few women might have different perceptions of the gender stereotypic behavior and the quality of performance of saleswomen than those who supervise many.

Sex of Sales Manager. The sex of the sales manager potentially impacts upon the evaluations of saleswomen. Male and female sales managers may have differing perceptions of the gender stereotypic behavior and the quality of performance of saleswomen.

Tendencies toward Leniency. Some individuals have a tendency to rate salespersons with either leniency or harshness. To counteract this bias, sales managers were specifically requested to be highly critical of saleswomen in their performance ratings and were assured that the evaluations they gave would remain confidential and be used for research purposes only. They were asked to evaluate themselves as raters on a leniency scale. It was

intended for the responses of sales managers who considered themselves to be lenient raters to be compared to those who considered themselves to be harsh raters.

Degree of Qualification. Many sales managers are not in direct, daily contact with salespersonnel under their supervision, and might feel that their knowledge of the target saleswoman's performance was inadequate. Sales managers were asked to indicate how well-qualified they felt themselves to evaluate the target saleswomen. Responses of sales managers who felt themselves to be very well-qualified to evaluate saleswomen were compared with those who did not feel very well-qualified.

Statement of Hypotheses

The research hypotheses were constructed around the model that was developed in the preceeding chapter. They were designed to investigate the three links in the model in varying degrees of specificity. For each link, the most general case is presented first, followed by a more specific case. Because the applicability of the concept of sex role identity to the field of selling has been largely unexplored, the hypotheses are stated in the null form.

Hypotheses One, Two and Three

Hypothesis one, two, and three were included to investigate the relationship between sales managers' perceptions of gender stereotypic behavior of saleswomen and selling effectiveness. Hypothesis one concerned the relationship between the overall perceived gender stereotypic behavior scores of saleswomen and the overall selling effectiveness score. Hypothesis two concerned the relationship between each of the three individual perceived gender stereotypic behavior scores and their overall selling effectiveness scores. Hypothesis three extended the analysis to the relationship between each of the three individual stereotype scores of saleswomen and each of the six individual functions scores and non-selling activities scores. Hypotheses one, two, and three, expressed in the null form are:

- Ho(1) There will be no significant correlation between the overall stereotype scores of saleswomen and their overall selling effectiveness scores.
- Ho(2) There will be no significant correlation between each of three individual stereotype scores of saleswomen and their overall selling effectiveness scores.
- Ho(3) There will be no significant correlation between each of three individual stereotype scores of saleswomen and each of their individual function effectiveness scores.

Hypotheses Four and Five

Hypotheses four and five were included to investigate the

relationship between sex role types of saleswomen and sales managers' perceptions of gender stereotypic behavior. Hypothesis four evaluated the relationship between a summary measure of perceived gender stereotypic behavior and the sex role types of saleswomen. Gender schema theory (Bem 1979; 1981a; 1981b; 1982) holds that sex-typed individuals organize their thinking around gender lines. They would therefore be expected to be more likely to behave in accordance with gender stereotypes. This suggests that sex-typed saleswomen, with strong feminine and weak masculine traits (feminine females), in their sex role identities would be most likely to be perceived as behaving in accordance with gender stereotypes. Hypothesis four, expressed in the null form, is:

- Ho(4) There will be no significant differences among the mean of overall stereotype scores of saleswomen classified according to their sex role types.

Hypotheses five extended the analysis to the relationship between each individual stereotype scores and the sex role types of saleswomen.

Selling Ability Stereotype Scores. Since sex role masculinity in women has been found to be associated with higher cognitive ability (Maccoby 1966) and with mathematical (Eccles 1983) and mechanical (Antill and Cunningham 1982) reasoning, saleswomen with strong masculine traits in their sex role identities (masculine and

androgynous females) were expected to be perceived as conforming less to gender stereotypes relating to ability than were those who are lacking in these traits. Since the ability to adapt to non-routine situations requires behavioral flexibility (Bem and Lenny 1976), it was also expected that those saleswomen who balanced strong masculine traits with strong feminine traits (androgynous females) would be perceived as conforming least to gender stereotypic behavior relating to "selling ability."

Human Relations Stereotype Scores. Since expressive qualities untempered by instrumental qualities, have been alleged to be associated with problems in effective performance of the functions of selling in the area of "human relations" (Blake and Mouton 1980; Jolson 1984), it was expected that saleswomen with strong feminine and weak masculine components in their sex role identities (feminine females) would be most likely to be perceived to perform in accordance with gender stereotypes relating to "human relations."

Motivation Stereotype Scores. Since sex role masculinity has been associated with achievement motivation (Van Rooyan 1981; Spence and Helmreich 1978), high career centeredness (Marshall and Wijting 1982), high career salience (Yanico 1981), and career rather than home orientation (Feather and Said, 1983), and since sex role femininity has been associated with working part-time

rather than full-time (Hoffman and Fidell 1979) with achieving less in their careers (Wong, Ketterwell and Sproule 1985), and with low expectations for success (Erkuk 1983), it was expected that saleswomen who have strong masculine and weak feminine components in their sex role identities (masculine females) would be less likely to be perceived as behaving in accordance with gender stereotypes relating to motivation than others. Hypothesis five, expressed in the null form, is:

Ho(5) There will be no significant differences among the means of each of three individual stereotype scores of saleswomen classified according to their sex role types

Hypotheses Six and Seven

Hypotheses six and seven investigated the relationship between saleswomen's sex role types and the quality of their selling performance. Hypothesis six investigated the relationship between the sex role types of saleswomen and overall selling effectiveness. The two-dimensional model of selling effectiveness (e.g., Mayer and Greenberg 1964; Blake and Mouton 1980; Buzzotta et al. 1982; Jolson 1984) suggests that saleswomen who possess both strong instrumental and expressive traits would outperform those who do not. It was expected that those saleswomen who possessed both strong masculine (instrumental) and feminine (expressive) traits in their sex role identities (androgynous females) would be rated highest in their overall selling effectiveness. Hypothesis

six expressed in the null form, is:

Ho(6) There will be no significant differences among the means of overall selling effectiveness scores of saleswomen classified according to their sex role types.

Hypothesis seven extended the investigation to the relationship between the sex role types of saleswomen and each of the six individual function effectiveness scores and non-selling activities effectiveness scores. The two-dimensional model of selling effectiveness suggests that there are instrumental and expressive aspects to the effective performance of each of the functions of selling. It was therefore predicted that those saleswomen who have strong masculine and feminine components in their sex role identities (androgynous females) would excel at performance of each of the functions of selling. Hypothesis seven, expressed in the null form, is:

Ho(7) There will be no significant differences among the means of each the individual function effectiveness scores of saleswomen classified according to their sex role types.

Overview of the Study

Stage One: The Preliminary Research

In the early stage of the research, discussions were held with

sales managers and saleswomen. Issues that arose in this initial period involved the participation of saleswomen, the potentially prejudicial nature of stereotype items, and the appropriate length of the questionnaire.

Participation of Saleswomen

It had originally been intended to perform a double survey of saleswomen and their sales managers. The saleswomen were to have provided self-reports of their sex role identities on the Bem Sex Role Inventory; the sales managers were to have evaluated the saleswomen. Practical difficulties were encountered with this procedure. Ethics involving research on human subjects require that subjects who are identified in research involving performance evaluation give their informed consent. Discussions with saleswomen revealed that they were apprehensive about being evaluated by their sales managers. It became apparent that the administration of consent forms would place disproportionate attention on the evaluative aspect of the research, increase the anxiety level of the saleswomen, and introduce a source of bias into the research. It was decided not to have the saleswomen participate in the research but to have them described anonymously by their managers.

Social Desirability Items. Since the saleswomen, themselves,

did not participate in the study, the sales managers provided descriptions of the sex role identities of saleswomen. Social desirability of response was no longer a problem, therefore, the social desirability items from the BSRI were removed from the questionnaire.

Prejudicial Nature of Stereotypic Items. Discussions with saleswomen revealed that some of the issues addressed by the stereotype items might prove prejudicial to the relationship between saleswomen and their managers. Accordingly, the wording of the proposed items was carefully reviewed by a panel of saleswomen. In some cases, the wording was altered to disguise the meaning.

Acquiescence. It had originally been intended to reverse the polarity of half of the items on the individual stereotype scales to guard against the bias of acquiescence. When developing these items, it became obvious that some were better worded as negatives and others as positives. For example, asking questions about "selling ability" in a negative way sounded demeaning to saleswomen (e.g., does not have good product knowledge, does not really know job, does not catch onto new concepts quickly). On the other hand, some of the "human relations" and "motivation" items seemed to be better phrased as negatives in the interests of clarity. Reversing their polarity produced cumbersome items that were confusing to

respondents (e.g., does not over-nurture customers, does not have overly emotional reactions to rejections). Accordingly, each item was asked in the way that seemed most appropriate. The final items, as they appeared on the questionnaire, are shown in Figure 4-1.

Length of Questionnaire

The original questionnaire was pretested on a small group of sales managers who volunteered to assist with the research. It was found that the questionnaire was excessively long. Accordingly, the questionnaire was shortened:

Function Effectiveness Scale. The original function effectiveness scale consisted of seven multi-item sub-scales, each composed of 4-5 items. These were condensed into seven single item scales. In its revised form, only one evaluation was required per function per saleswoman. Detailed descriptions of good performance were provided for each function. The items from the function effectiveness scales, together with the descriptive information, that appeared on the final questionnaire are given in Figure 4-2.

The Bem Sex Role Inventory. The questionnaire was further shortened by using a short form of the BSRI. The number of items was reduced from from 40 to 20, 10 from the masculinity and 10 from the femininity sub-scales. The items from the masculinity and

Figure 4-1
Items intended for the
Selling Ability, Human Relations, and Motivation Stereotype Scales

Ability Stereotype Items

- (1) Is not well organized.
- (4) Has strong persuasive skills (RC).
- (7) Displays unusually strong product knowledge (RC).
- (10) Catches on to new concepts quickly (RC).
- (13) Adapts quickly to non-routine situations (RC).
- (16) Really knows job (i.e., clearly understands how to perform her job including tasks to be performed, priorities of tasks, and how to allocate time among tasks) (RC).

Human Relations Stereotype Items

- (2) Tends to over-socialize with prospects/customers during sales interviews.
- (5) Accepts prospects excuses and objections at face value.
- (8) Tends to relinquish control of sales interviews to customers.
- (9) Has overly emotional reaction to rejections on job.
- (11) Over-nurtures customers (i.e., spends too much time on providing extra services to present customers while neglecting other aspects of the job, such as prospecting for new customers).
- (14) Functions well as "team player" (i.e., cooperates with others on job) (RC).
- (17) Maintains sexually neutral manner on the job at all times (RC).

Motivation Stereotype Scales

- (3) Tends to avoid activities that she considers to be unpleasant.
- (6) Lacks confidence.
- (12) Needs continuous reinforcement to sustain performance.
- (15) Allows family responsibilities and/or personal considerations to interfere with job.
- (18) Has "dynamic inner drive" (i.e., makes every sacrifice of time and effort that is necessary to succeed) (RC).

(RC) = Reverse coded

Figure 4-2
Items intended for the
Function Effectiveness Scale with
Descriptive Information about Effective Performance
as they Appeared on the Final Questionnaire

(1) Prospecting.

Effectiveness in prospecting involves generating sufficient numbers of good prospects to be contacted for the firm's product as required. (Good prospects are potential customers that have a need for the product, the ability to buy it, and the authority to make the purchasing decision). Effective prospectors do not avoid cold calling when it is necessary to the job.

(2) Contacting.

Effectiveness in contacting involves routing calls efficiently, getting in doors easily, making excellent first impressions, establishing rapport quickly, and establishing the legitimacy of the company and the credibility of herself as its representative.

(3) Probing for Needs.

Effectiveness in probing for needs involves being adept at identifying the needs of problem areas of prospects/customers. Effective probers are good listeners and are able to direct the probing process through the use of discerning questions.

(4) Stimulating Desire.

Good performance of stimulating desire involves giving articulate, informative, and persuasive presentations/demonstrations that address the needs of prospects/customers. Effective stimulators often use sales aids (e.g., visual aids, product demonstrations) effectively, as appropriate to the presentation, field questions and objections and deal with them effectively, and are knowledgeable about competitive products, making effective comparisons between them and the company's product when appropriate to do so. They permit two way communication throughout their presentations, but retain strong control of the interview.

Figure 4-2 (cont'd)
Items Intended for the
Function Effectiveness Scale with
Descriptive Information about Effective Performance
As they Appeared on the Questionnaire

(5) Closing.

Effectiveness in closing involves asking for, and obtaining, the order, as appropriate to the job. Salespersons who are effective closers approach the close with confidence, and have a good sense of timing when asking for the order. If the order is not obtained on the first attempt, they follow up as appropriate to the selling situation.

(6) Retaining the Sale and the Customer.

Effectiveness in retaining the sale and the customer involves follow-up after the sale to be sure that the customer receives the product as promised, (e.g., on time, in good condition, serviced and installed), and providing good customer services, as appropriate. Effective retainers maintain regular contact with customers, are responsive to changes in customers' product-related needs, and keep customers informed about new products and new applications. They handle dissatisfaction and complaints expeditiously.

(7) Non-Selling Duties.

Good performance of non-selling duties involves such things as keeping accurate and up-to-date records, filing call reports promptly, and controlling expenses.

femininity scales of the BSRI as they appeared in the final questionnaire are given in Figure 4-3.

The Attitudes toward Women Scale. It has originally been intended to include a 15 item scale to measure the attitudes of sales managers toward women as a test for sex bias among responding sales managers. In order to shorten the questionnaire still further a one-item measure of the degree of comfort in supervising saleswomen was substituted.²

As a final pretest a small pilot study was performed. Eight sales managers were contacted by telephone and asked to participate in the research. The questionnaire was transmitted by mail. After the sales managers had reviewed the questionnaire, they were interviewed by the researcher. No serious problems were reported in either length of questionnaire or comprehensibility of items.

Overview of the Study

Stage Two: Survey of Sales Managers

Sales managers were contacted by telephone over a three month period beginning in August and ending in October of 1987. The researcher personally telephoned selected firms and asked to speak with sales managers. If sales managers were not immediately

Figure 4-3
 Sex Role Identity Items Included on the Questionnaire
 A Short Form of the Bem Sex Role Inventory

Masculinity Items

- (1) Defends own beliefs
- (3) Is independent
- (5) Is assertive
- (7) Has a strong personality
- (9) Is forceful
- (11) Has leadership abilities
- (13) Is willing to take risks
- (15) Is dominant
- (17) Is willing to take a stand on issues
- (19) Is aggressive

Femininity Items

- (2) Is affectionate
- (4) Is sympathetic
- (6) Is sensitive to the needs of others
- (8) Is understanding
- (10) Is compassionate
- (12) Is eager to soothe hurt feelings
- (14) Is warm
- (16) Is tender
- (18) Loves children
- (20) Is gentle

available, further attempts were made to contact them, until they were reached. In some cases contact was made on the first attempt, while in other cases, many calls were necessary. Sales managers represented a wide variety of firms, ranging from regional offices of large national firms to offices of smaller local firms.³ In the case of some very large firms, more than one sales manager was contacted, but in no case did more than three sales managers respond from any one firm.

Data Collection Procedures

Sales managers who were contacted were informed as to the general purpose of the research and asked whether or not they supervised saleswomen. Those sales managers who supervised saleswomen were asked to participate in the survey. They were informed that (1) participation would involve completion of a self-administered questionnaire describing some of the saleswomen who worked for them, (2) completing the questionnaire would take approximately one-half hour of their time, and (3) the saleswomen that they described would be completely anonymous, only they would know the identity of the women they chose to describe. All sales managers were promised a copy of the management summary when the research was complete. Questionnaires were mailed directly to sales managers together with a personal letter of transmittal from the researcher. A formal cover letter was printed on the front of the

questionnaire. The cover letter related the purpose of the research, and gave detailed instructions to the sales manager for completion of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was self-administered. Completed questionnaires were returned directly to the researchers in a self-addressed, postage-paid envelope. After the completed questionnaires were received, sales managers were sent a personal thank you letter from the researcher. The letter of transmittal and thank you letter appear in Appendix A. The cover letter and the final questionnaire appear in Appendix B.

The questionnaire was designed in such a way that sales managers could respond about as few as one or as many as four saleswomen. Each sales manager was asked to select saleswomen who were maximally different from each other in their selling style, performance, and results.

The Sample

A convenience sample of sales managers who supervised saleswomen in three different types of traditionally male selling jobs was assembled. Sales jobs were classified by type of customer. This classification was consistent with that used by Comer and Jolson (1985) in their investigation of student preferences for selling jobs. Sample one consisted of responses from sales managers who supervised saleswomen selling to organizational end users. Sample

two consisted of responses from sales managers who supervised saleswomen selling large ticket items to in-home consumers. Sample three consisted of responses from sales managers who supervised saleswomen selling products for resale to resellers, either wholesalers or retailers.

Response Statistics. Of the 195 sales managers who were eligible to respond, 188 agreed to receive the questionnaire. Of those who agreed to receive the questionnaire, 132 returned completed, usable questionnaires, a response rate of 70.2% of those who were eligible. Of these, 77 sales managers represented selling jobs that involved selling to industrial end users, 26 represented selling jobs that involved selling large ticket items to in-home consumers, and 29 represented selling jobs that involved selling to resellers. These resulted in a total of 202 cases of saleswomen for the analysis: 202 who sold to organizational end users, 72 who sold large-ticket items to in-home consumers, and 63 who sold products for resale by businesses. This ensured a sufficiently

large group for analysis within each separate sample.⁴

Comparability of the Samples. Tests were performed for comparability of the three samples. While no differences were found among the demographics of responding sales managers, significant differences emerged among the demographics of the saleswomen that they described. As a result, the three samples

were not combined but analyses were conducted separately for the three groups. In comparison with national averages for sales supervisors and proprietors (Bureau of Labor Statistics 1986), on the average, sales managers were older, better educated, and more likely to be male. In comparison with national averages of saleswomen selling commodities, exclusive of retailing (Bureau of Labor Statistics 1986), on the average, the saleswomen who were described were younger and better educated. Details of the sample characteristics are contained in Appendix C.

The Questionnaire

The questionnaire that was completed by sales managers consisted of nine sections:

Section One. An estimate of the relative importance of the six functions of selling and non-selling activities to the saleswoman's job was requested in Section One. A scale of 0 to 10 was used, where "0" referred to a function that was completely irrelevant and "10" to a function that was critically important to a saleswoman's job. A concise definition of each function was provided.

Section Two. Descriptions of the performance of target saleswomen on performance of the six functions of selling and non-selling activities were requested in Section Two. A scale of 0 to 10 was used where "10" was the highest level of effectiveness.

For each item, good performance was described in concrete behavioral terms. Criteria establishing good performance of each were provided. The criteria were determined based on a search of the salesmanship literature and were confirmed by discussions with sales managers representing the three types of selling jobs.

Section Three. Items from the BSRI were included in Section Three. Sales managers reported their perceptions of the sex role identities of target saleswomen. A scale of 1 to 7 was used, where "1" referred to "never or almost never true" and "7" referred to "always or almost always true."

Section Four. Items from the gender stereotype scales were included in Section Four. Sales managers indicated the degree to which they perceived the behavior of target saleswomen to be in accordance with gender stereotypes. Items from the "selling ability," "human relations" and "motivation" scales were alternated. A scale of 1 to 7 was used, on which "1" referred to "never or almost never true" and "7" referred to "always or almost always true."

Section Five. Demographic information about the saleswomen who were described was requested in Section Five. Information was requested pertaining to the age, education, marital status, and tenure on selling job of each target saleswoman. The information

was used to evaluate the three samples demographically.

Section Six. Demographic information about the sales managers themselves was requested in Section Six. This information pertained to sales managers' age, their education, and their sex. These variables were included in order to describe the samples and to test for comparability among sales managers in the different types of sales jobs. Sales managers were asked the percentage of their company's salesforce that was female and the percentage of salespersons that they personally supervised that were female. This information was included to test for effects that might be attributable to sex ratio. Sales managers were asked to rate themselves on how well qualified they felt themselves to describe the characteristics of each saleswoman, the relative leniency of their evaluations in comparison with the way other managers on their same level might evaluate the same saleswomen, and their degree of comfort in supervising saleswomen in comparison with supervising salesmen. These items were included to provide tests for the degree of bias in the responses.

Salesmanagers were asked to describe the typical customer in their industry. The responses to this item were used to classify the cases into one of the three samples. Finally sales managers were asked to give a global evaluation of the selling effectiveness of the responding saleswomen, on a scale of 0 to 100, considering

"100" to represent superior performance and "0" to represent unacceptable performance. This item was included to provide a validity check for the overall selling effectiveness measure.

Data Analysis

The statistical procedures that were used in the analysis are described. Statistical tests were used for five purposes: (1) to test hypotheses, (2) to perform additional data analysis, (3) to evaluate the quality of the solution, (4) to evaluate the comparability of the samples, and (5) to test for alternative explanations and for bias.

Procedures used in Testing of Hypotheses

The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient, the partial correlation coefficient, and both univariate and multivariate analysis of variance were used to test the hypotheses. The statistical tests that were used to investigate each hypothesis are summarized in Figure 4-4. A brief discussion of each procedure follows.

The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient. The Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to test

Figure 4-4
Statistical Tests that were Used to Test Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Statistical Test
Ho(1)	Overall Selling Effectiveness Score and overall Stereotype Scores of Saleswomen		Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient
Ho(2)	Overall Selling Effectiveness Score and Three Individual Stereotype Scores of Saleswomen		Partial Correlation Coefficient
Ho(3)	Five Individual Function Effectiveness Scores and Three Individual Stereotype Scores of Saleswomen		Partial Correlation Coefficient
Ho(4)	Sex Role Types of Saleswomen	Overall Stereotype Scores of Saleswomen	Univariate Analysis of Variance
Ho(5)	Sex Role Types of Saleswomen	Individual Stereotype Scores of Saleswomen	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
Ho(6)	Sex Role Types of Saleswomen	Overall Selling Effectiveness Scores of Saleswomen	Univariate Analysis of Variance
Ho(7)	Sex Role Types of Saleswomen	Seven Individual Effectiveness Scores of Saleswomen	Multivariate Analysis of Variance

hypothesis one. This statistic measures the strength of the linear relationship between two variables and is appropriately used when data are interval or ratio scaled (Winkler and Hays 1975).

The Partial Correlation Coefficient. Partial correlational analysis was used to test hypotheses two and three. This statistic measures the strength of the linear relationship between two variables with the effects of one or more other variables held constant. It is appropriately used when data are interval or ratio scales (Winkler and Hays 1975).

Univariate Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Univariate Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to test Hypotheses four and six. ANOVA tests whether the average responses among two or more populations are significantly different from each other. It is appropriately used in analyses involving a single dependent variable that is interval or ratio scaled, and one or more categorical independent variables. Assumptions underlying the procedure include linearity, independence of observations, normality of distribution of error terms, and homogeneity of variance (Myers 1979).

When performing ANOVA, data are first tested for the presence of significant main or interaction effects by use of an F-test. If significant effects are found, post hoc analysis of the differences

between pairs of means can be performed by the Scheffé procedure. The Scheffé procedure is appropriate for use in analyses when cell sizes are unequal and when the family of statements is the set of all possible contrasts (Neter and Wasserman 1974).

Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA). Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to test Hypotheses five and seven. The procedure is appropriately used in situations when multiple correlated dependent variables of interval or ratio scaling are analyzed together with one or more categorical dependent variables. Multivariate analysis of variance involves the same underlying assumptions as the univariate model, but is used in situations where there are multiple correlated dependent variables (Green and Carroll 1978). The SPSS^x (MANOVA) computer program that was used adjusted for unequal cell sizes using a regression method, in which each effect is adjusted for every other effect in the model (Milliken and Johnson 1984).

When performing MANOVA, the presence of significant effects between sex role types and dependent variables is first established using an omnibus F-test. After establishing statistical significance, univariate F-tests are performed for each dependent variable. Post hoc analyses can then be performed using univariate procedures.

Procedures used in Additional Data Analysis

Additional data analysis was performed on hypothesis seven using multivariate regression. Multivariate regression is appropriately used in situations when multiple correlated dependent variables or interval or ratio scaling are analyzed together with one or more interval or ratio scaled dependent variables. Multivariate regression involves the same underlying assumptions as does the univariate model, but is used in situations where there are multiple correlated dependent variables. The procedure takes advantage of the continuous property of the data, and was used to investigate the manner in which the masculinity and femininity scores of the BSRI worked together in explaining the variability of the individual function effectiveness scores. The use of the procedure is consistent with the recommendation of Bem (1977) and others (Spence and Helmreich 1980; Taylor and Hall 1982) that in addition to performing analyses on individuals classified into sex role types, researchers should perform multiple regression analyses on the raw data, without categorizing individuals in any way.

When using the procedure, the presence of significant main effects is first established using an omnibus F-test. After statistical significance is found, univariate regressions are performed for each dependent variable.

Other Statistical Procedures

Other statistical procedures were included: (1) to evaluate the quality of the statistical analyses, (2) to evaluate the comparability of the samples, and (3) to evaluate control variables and to test for bias. Procedures that were used to evaluate the quality of the statistical analyses were: the Durbin Watson test, the Chi-square one-sample test, the Bartlett-Box and Cochran-C tests, and the Box-M statistic. The Chi-square test for independent samples was used to evaluate the comparability of the samples. Control variables and response bias were evaluated using a basic one-way analysis of variance technique.

The Durbin Watson Test. The Durbin Watson test was used to test the assumption of independence of observations. This test examines the pattern of residuals to determine whether or not there is serial autocorrelation present in the analysis (Neter and Wasserman 1974).

The Chi-Square One-Sample Test. The chi-square one-sample test was used to test the assumption of normality of distribution of residuals. It is a goodness of fit test that is used to determine whether a significant differences exists between an obtained number of observations in a category and an expected number of observations in the same category. It is appropriately used when the data are in discrete categories and the expected frequencies

are large (Siegel 1956).

The Bartlett-Box Test and Cochran-C Tests. The Bartlett-Box and Cochran-C tests were used to evaluate the assumption of univariate homogeneity of variance. Both of these are derivations of the F-test. Both are highly sensitive to violations of the assumption of non-normality (Neter and Wasserman 1974; Myers 1979).

The Box-M Statistic. The Box-M statistic was used to evaluate the assumption of multivariate homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices. This is a generalization of the Bartlett test for homogeneity of variance, and is also strongly sensitive to non-normality (Morrison 1967).

The Chi-square Test for Independent Samples. The chi-square test for independent samples was used to test for demographic differences among the three samples. This test is appropriately used when data consist of frequencies in discrete categories when the expected frequencies are sufficiently large (Siegel 1956).

One-way Analysis of Variance. One-way analysis of variance tests whether the average responses among two or more populations are significantly different from each other. It is appropriately used in analyses involving a dependent variable that is interval or ratio scaled, and one categorical independent variable (Myers 1979).

Summary

This chapter has introduced the research methodology that was used in the study. It described the variables that were measured, the hypotheses that were tested, and the sample that was obtained. It provided an overview of the study, describing the initial stages of research, the data collection procedures, and the final questionnaire. Finally, it provided brief descriptions of the statistical techniques that were used in the analysis.

Endnotes

1. Evidence about the relationship of education to selling effectiveness is mixed. While Lamont and Lundstrom (1977) found no significant relationship between formal education and selling performance in industrial selling, Haefer (1986) found education was significantly related to mean sales volume of insurance salespersons between the ages of 31-45.
2. Early studies of differences between salesmen and saleswomen had pointed out that many sales managers felt uncomfortable in supervising women. It was felt that a self-report of the relative degree of comfort in supervising women would provide an indication of the degree to which sales managers had adjusted to the presence of women on the salesforce.
3. Firms were identified using various directories including: the Membership Directory of the National Association of Professional Saleswomen (NAPS), Washington Metropolitan Chapter; the Membership Directory of the Baltimore Chapter of the Sales and Marketing Executives Club; the Membership Directories of the Baltimore and Washington Chapters of the American Marketing Association; Women's Wear Daily; and the Washington Metropolitan Telephone Directory. In

some cases, personal referrals were given by salespersonnel or other sales managers.

4. Multivariate analysis of variance requires the number of cases assigned to each cell exceed the number of dependent variables and covariates. Tabachnick and Fidell (1983) caution against having insufficient cases in a cell, since the likelihood of rejection of the assumption of homogeneity of variance is thereby increased.

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the statistical analyses of the data. First, the properties of the data are discussed. Then results of the tests of the seven research hypotheses are presented, followed by the additional data analysis, the analysis of control variables, and the tests for bias. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the findings in the context of the four original research questions and the three different selling situations.

Properties of the Data

As a preliminary step, the data were prepared for the statistical analysis. First, missing data were estimated using regression techniques, when appropriate. Then, items were combined into scales and their properties checked. Next, saleswomen were assigned to sex role types. Finally, the distribution of saleswomen classified by their overall stereotype scores was examined.

Missing Data

Missing data within the Gender Stereotype Scales and the BSRI were estimated using regression techniques.¹ Missing data in the individual function effectiveness scores were not estimated since their absence had a substantive meaning: those saleswomen who did not perform a particular function did not receive a score for it. A discussion of procedures used for estimating missing data appears in Appendix D.

Properties of the Scales

Results of reliability and validity analyses of the scales used in the research follow.

Internal Consistency. Three items were deleted from the stereotype scales to improve internal consistency.² After deletion of these items, the internal consistencies of the "selling ability" (SA), "human relations" (HR) and "motivation" (Mo) stereotype scales in the three samples were: sample one: $\alpha = .85$ (SA), $.77$ (HR), $.80$ (Mo); sample two: $\alpha = .79$ (SA), $.77$ (HR), $.76$ (Mo), sample three: $\alpha = .93$ (SA), $.73$ (HR), $.79$ (Mo). The items, as they were included in the final scales, are listed in Figure 5-1. The internal consistencies of the overall stereotype scale, calculated according to Nunnally's (1978) formula for linear combinations were: $\alpha = .80$, $.77$, $.82$ (for samples one, two, and

Figure 5-1
Gender Stereotype Scales After
Item Purification

"Selling Ability" Stereotype Scale

- (1) Has strong persuasive skills (RC)
- (2) Displays unusually fine product knowledge (RC)
- (3) Catches on to new concepts quickly (RC)
- (4) Adapts quickly to non-routine situations (RC)
- (5) Really knows the job (RC)

"Human Relations" Stereotype Scale

- (1) Tends to over-socialize with prospects/customers during sales interviews
- (2) Accepts prospects' excuses and objections at face value
- (3) Tends to relinquish control of sales interviews to customers
- (4) Has overly emotional reaction to rejections on job
- (5) Needs continual reinforcement to sustain performance

"Motivation" Stereotype Scales

- (1) Tends to avoid activities that she considers to be unpleasant
- (2) Lacks confidence
- (3) Needs continual reinforcement to sustain performance
- (4) Allows family responsibilities and/or personal considerations to interfere with job
- (5) Has dynamic inner drive (RC)

RC = reverse coded

three). The internal consistencies of the unweighted function effectiveness scale for the three samples were: alpha = .88, .88, and .86. The internal consistencies of the masculinity (M) and femininity (F) scales of the BSRI for the three samples were: sample one, alpha = .91 (M), .92 (F); sample two, alpha = .92 (M), .90 (F); sample three, alpha = .94 (M), .93 (F). Procedures used to evaluate the reliability of the scales are discussed in Appendix E.

Validity. Correlations between the overall selling effectiveness scale and a "global" measure of selling effectiveness were all significant and positive: sample one, $r = .31$, $p < .001$; sample two, $r = .51$, $p < .001$; sample three, $r = .39$; $p < .001$. These were not judged sufficiently large to establish convergent validity, but the results were inconclusive since the reliability of the "global" measure was not established.

Distribution of Stereotype Scores

Examining the descriptive statistics for the three individual stereotype scales and the overall stereotype scale in Table 5-1 reveals that some stereotypic behavior is perceived in the marketplace, but most saleswomen seem to behave in these ways only "sometimes but infrequently." Relatively few saleswomen are perceived as conforming to stereotypes "often" or "usually." Of the three individual groups of stereotypes, the medians and modes are lowest (indicating relatively infrequent perceived stereotypic

Table 5-1
Medians, Modes, and Ranges of
Individual and Overall Stereotype Scores

	Sample one To Organ'l End Users (n = 202)			Sample two To In-Home Consumers (n = 72)			Sample three To Resellers (n = 63)		
	Median	Mode	Range	Median	Mode	Range	Median	Mode	Range
Selling Ability Stereotype Scores	2.6	1.8	1.0-6.4	3.0	2.2	1.2-6.6	2.4	1.4	1.0-6.6
Human Relations Stereotype Scores	3.2	3.4	1.2-7.0	3.8	4.8	1.0-5.8	2.8	2.6	1.0-5.2
Motivation Stereotype Scores	2.5	2.2	1.2-5.8	3.1	3.7	1.0-5.0	2.5	2.0	1.0-5.5
Overall Stereotype Scales	2.8	3.3	1.3-6.3	3.4	3.6	1.6-5.7	2.8	1.8	1.0-5.6

NOTE: The more stereotyped the saleswoman, the higher the score

Scale:

- 1 = Never or almost never true
- 2 = Usually not true
- 3 = Sometimes but infrequently true
- 4 = Occasionally true
- 5 = Often true
- 6 = Usually true
- 7 = Always or almost always true

behavior) in the case of "selling ability" stereotypes and highest for "human relations" stereotypes, particularly in the case of sample two. Overall, more saleswomen seem to be perceived as stereotyped in sample two (selling to in-home consumers) than in the other two selling situations.

Assignment to Sex Role Types

Because the samples were not combined in the analysis, saleswomen were assigned to sex role types based on the median of each sample. This was done following precedent in the literature (e.g., a study comparing three samples of dental hygienists by Hamby and Shapiro 1983). The medians of the masculinity and femininity scales for the three samples were: sample one, 5.25 (M), 5.05 (F); sample two, 5.30 (M), 5.50 (F); sample three, 5.50 (M), 5.20 (F). These medians were relatively similar to those of working women obtained by Wong, Ketterwell and Sproule (1985): 5.35 (M) 5.23 (F), but were considerably higher than those of Bem's (1977) Stanford undergraduate sample: 4.89 (M), 4.76 (F), and Powell's (1982) undergraduate business students: 4.97 (M), 4.71 (F). Classification on the basis of these sample medians resulted in unequal numbers of saleswomen classified as androgynous, masculine, feminine, and undifferentiated females (as shown in Table 5-2).

Table 5-2
Numbers of Saleswomen Classified into
Sex Role Types

	Sample one To Organ'l End Users (n = 202)	Sample two To In-Home Consumers (n = 72)	Sample three To Resellers (n = 63)
Androgynous Saleswomen (High-High)	56	24	22
Masculine Saleswomen (High-Low)	45	13	11
Feminine Saleswomen (Low-High)	45	13	13
Undifferentiated Saleswomen (Low-Low)	56	22	17

High-High = High Masculinity/High Femininity
 High-Low = High Masculinity/Low Femininity
 Low-High = Low Masculinity/High Femininity
 Low-Low = Low Masculinity/Low Femininity

Results of the Tests of the Hypotheses

This section presents the results of the tests of the hypotheses. All analyses were performed on each sample separately and the results compared. When the findings in the three samples agree, there is strong evidence that that the hypothesized result is true across three types of selling situations. When the findings in the three samples do not agree, there is an indication that some differences exist among the selling situations.

Hypotheses One, Two, and Three

The first three hypotheses concerned the relationship between gender stereotypic behavior and selling effectiveness. They addressed the question of whether perceived stereotypic behavior detracted from selling effectiveness. Significant negative correlations between the selling effectiveness and stereotype scales would indicate the presence of a relationship.

Ho(1) There will be no significant correlation between the overall stereotype scores of saleswomen and their overall selling effectiveness scores.

The results of the correlational analysis of Ho(1) are presented in Table 5-3. Correlations between overall selling effectiveness scores and overall stereotype scores were found to be large, significant, and negative in all three samples. This provides

Table 5-3
 Test of Hypothesis One
 Relationships between Overall Selling Effectiveness Scores
 and Overall Stereotype Scores

	Sample one To Organ'l End Users (n = 202)	Sample two To In-Home Consumers (n = 72)	Sample three To Resellers (n = 63)
Correlation:	- .7287***	- .7247***	- .7252***

*** Significant at $< .001$
 (Two-tailed Significance Tests)

NOTE: Using Fisher's Transformation (Graybill 1961), no significant differences were found at $p < .05$ among the correlation coefficients of the three samples.

strong evidence for rejecting null hypothesis one and support for an alternative hypothesis of a negative relationship between overall stereotype scores and overall selling effectiveness scores.

Ho(2) There will be no significant correlation between each of three individual stereotype scores of saleswomen and their overall selling effectiveness scores.

The results of the correlational analysis of Ho(2) are presented in Table 5-4. All zero-order correlation coefficients were significant and negative. Partial correlation coefficients were calculated between the overall selling effectiveness scores and: (1) "selling ability" stereotype scores (controlling for the effects of "human relations" and "motivation" stereotypes), (2) "human relations" stereotype scores (controlling for the effects of "selling ability" and "motivation" stereotypes) and (3) "motivation" stereotype scores (controlling for the effects of "selling ability" and "human relations" stereotypes). These partial correlations should be interpreted as the unique relationship that remains between each individual stereotype score and the overall effectiveness scores after accounting for the shared variance among the stereotype scores.

"Selling Ability" Stereotype Scores. Partial correlations between the overall selling effectiveness scores and "selling ability" stereotype scores were significant and negative in all

TABLE 5-4
 Test of Hypothesis Two
 Correlations between Overall Selling Effectiveness Scores and
 Selling Ability, Human Relations, and Motivation Stereotype Scores

	Sample one To Organ'l End Users (n = 202)	Sample two To In-Home Consumers (n = 72)	Sample three To Resellers (n = 63)
<hr/>			
<u>Selling Ability</u>			
<u>Stereotype Scores:</u>			
Zero Order Correlation:	- .7596***	- .7246***	- .6360***
df	(200)	(70)	(61)
Partial Correlation (a)	- .5461***	- .5085***	- .40428**
df	(198)	(68)	(59)
 <u>Human Relations</u>			
<u>Stereotype Scores:</u>			
Zero Order Correlations:	- .5728***	- .5322***	- .5793***
df	(200)	(70)	(61)
Partial Correlation (b)	- .0513	- .2164	- .2613*
df	(198)	(68)	(59)
 <u>Motivation</u>			
<u>Stereotype Scores:</u>			
Zero Order Correlations:	- .6359***	- .5764***	- .6447***
df	(200)	(70)	(63)
Partial Correlation (c)	- .1331	- .1545	- .1320
df	(198)	(68)	(59)

(Two Tailed Tests of Significance)

* Significant at $p < .05$
 ** Significant at $p < .01$
 *** Significant at $p < .001$

- (a) Controlling for Human Relations and Motivation Stereotype Scores
- (b) Controlling for Selling Ability and Motivation Stereotype Scores
- (c) Controlling for Selling Ability and Human Relations Stereotype Scores

three samples. The null hypothesis was therefore rejected in this case. The results support an alternative hypothesis of strong negative relationships between "selling ability" stereotype scores and overall selling effectiveness scores.

"Human Relations" Stereotype Scores. Only one partial correlation between the overall effectiveness scores and "human relations" stereotype scores achieved statistical significance. This was in sample three. The null hypothesis, therefore, could not be rejected for this group of stereotypes. Behavior conforming to "human relations" stereotypes seemed to be associated with less overall effective selling only in the special case of selling to resellers.

"Motivation" Stereotype Scores. None of the partial correlations between the overall selling effectiveness and "motivation" stereotype scores were statistically significant in any of the three samples. The null hypothesis could not be rejected for this group of stereotypes.

H₀(3) There will be no significant correlation between each of the individual stereotype scores of saleswomen and each of their individual function effectiveness scores.

H₀(3) concerned the relationship between performance of the six individual selling functions and non-selling activities and behavior conforming to the three categories of stereotypes. The

results of the correlational analysis of null hypothesis three are summarized in Table 5-5. All but one of the 60 zero-order correlation coefficients were significant and negative. These results indicate the presence of a strong overall negative relationship among these stereotypes and selling effectiveness. Partial correlation coefficients were calculated between each of the individual function effectiveness scores and: (1) "selling ability" scores (controlling for the effects of "human relations" and "motivation" stereotype scores), (2) "human relations" stereotype scores (controlling for the effects of "selling ability" and in "motivation" stereotype scores), and "motivation" stereotype scores (controlling for the effects of "selling ability" and "human relations" stereotype scores). These partial correlation coefficients may be interpreted as the unique relationship between each individual stereotype score and each individual function effectiveness score that remains after accounting for the shared variance between the stereotype scores.

"Selling Ability" Stereotype Scores. Eighteen of the 20 partial correlations between "selling ability" stereotypes scores and selling effectiveness scores were significant and negative. This provides strong evidence for rejection of the null hypothesis for "selling ability" stereotype scores.

"Human Relations" Stereotype Scores. Only 4 of the 20 partial

Table 5-5
Test of Hypothesis Three
Correlations between
Individual Function Effectiveness Scores and
Selling Ability, Human Relations and Motivation
Stereotype Scales

	Sample one To Organ'l End Users (n = 202)		Sample two To In-home Consumers (n = 72)		Sample three To Resellers (n = 63)	
Correlations:	Z-C	P-C	Z-C	P-C	Z-C	P-C
Selling Ability						
Scores with:						
Prospecting	-.52***	-.26***	-.46***	-.20	---	--- (a)
Contacting	-.61***	-.37***	-.51***	-.26*	-.66***	-.41**
Probing	-.70***	-.51***	-.67***	-.50***	-.56***	-.37**
Stimulating	-.70***	-.56***	-.61***	-.37**	-.62***	-.46***
Closing	-.65***	-.40***	-.61***	-.38**	-.41**	-.23
Retaining	-.53***	-.34***	-.53***	-.47***	-.58***	-.36**
Non-Selling	-.39***	-.19**	-.58***	-.41***	-.27*	-.01
Human Relations						
Scores with:						
Prospecting	-.41***	-.01	-.28*	-.01	---	--- (b)
Contacting	-.50***	-.10	-.38**	-.11	-.50***	-.09
Probing	-.53***	-.08	-.57***	-.34**	-.41**	-.13
Stimulating	-.45***	-.01	-.49***	-.23	-.54***	-.31*
Closing	-.53***	-.12	-.53***	-.28*	-.54***	-.38**
Retaining	-.34***	-.10	-.33**	-.11	-.38**	-.00
Non-Selling	-.29***	-.02	-.33**	-.01	-.36**	-.08
Motivation						
Scores with:						
Prospecting	-.50***	-.18*	-.50***	-.30*	---	--- (c)
Contacting	-.52***	-.07	-.47***	-.19	-.65***	-.23
Probing	-.55***	-.02	-.44***	.07	-.50***	-.06
Stimulating	-.49***	-.02	-.49***	-.10	-.55***	-.04
Closing	-.55***	-.06	-.48***	-.07	-.45***	-.06
Retaining	-.46***	-.15*	-.24	.19	-.54***	-.18
Non-Selling	-.36***	-.11	-.44***	-.09	-.42**	-.19

* Significant at $p < .05$

** Significant at $p < .01$

*** Significant at $p < .001$

Z-C = Zero-Order Correlation

P-C = Partial Correlation (a,b,c)

(a) Controlling for Human Relations and Motivation Stereotype Scores

(b) Controlling for Selling Ability and Motivation Stereotype Scores

(c) Controlling for Selling Ability and Human Relations Stereotype Scores

correlation coefficients between the individual function scores and "human relations" stereotype scores were significant and negative. The null hypothesis, therefore, could not be rejected for this group of stereotypes. Significant relationships appeared between "human relations" stereotype scores and closing effectiveness scores in samples two and three, but no corresponding relationship appeared in sample one. An alternative hypothesis of a negative relationship between "human relations" stereotype scores and closing effectiveness scores received support in the case of selling to in-home consumers and to resellers, only.

"Motivation" Stereotype Scores. Only 3 of the 20 partial correlations between "motivation" stereotype scores and the individual function effectiveness scores achieved statistical significance. The null hypothesis, therefore, could not be rejected for this group of stereotypes. A significant negative relationship appeared between "motivation" stereotype scores and prospecting effectiveness scores in samples one and two. Therefore, an alternative hypothesis of a negative relationship between "motivation" stereotype scores and prospecting receives some support.³

A significant partial correlation appeared between "motivation" stereotype scores and retaining effectiveness scores in sample one. While they did not achieve significance, the

partial correlations in samples two and three were of similar magnitude to those that did achieve significance in sample one.⁴

Hypotheses Four and Five

Hypotheses four and five concerned the relationship between sex role types of saleswomen and perceived gender stereotypic behavior. Hypothesis four concerned the differences among the means of overall stereotype scores of saleswomen classified according to sex role type. Hypothesis five expanded the analysis by exploring the relationship among the averages of the three individual stereotype scales: "selling ability" stereotype scales, "human relations" stereotype scales, and "motivation" stereotype scores.

Ho(4) There will be no significant differences among the means of overall stereotype scores of saleswomen classified according to their sex role types.

Results of the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) appear in Table 5-6. Statistically significant effects were observed in all three samples. Effect sizes were large in all three samples, ranging from .28 in sample two to .37 in sample one. The null hypothesis of no relationship can, therefore, be rejected.

Gender schema theory had predicted that feminine females would be most likely to conform to gender stereotypes, because they organize their thinking along gender lines. While feminine females

Table 5-6
Test of Hypothesis Four
Means of Overall Stereotype Scores of Saleswomen
Classified according to Sex Role Types

Sample one To Organ'1 End Users (n = 202)				Sample two To In-Home Consumers (n = 72)				Sample three To Resellers (n = 63)			
UF	FF	MF	AF	UF	FF	MF	AF	UF	FF	MF	AF
Means:											
3.78	3.26	2.71	2.26***	3.80	3.50	2.60	2.76***	3.40	3.27	2.81	1.99***
Effect Sizes:											
.37				.28				.32			

NOTE: The more stereotyped the saleswoman, the higher the score

*** Significant at $p < .001$

Multiple Range Test (Scheffé Procedure):
Groups Significantly different at the .05 level of significance:

AF < MF, FF, UF
MF < FF, UF
FF < UF

AF < UF
MF < UF

AF < FF, UF

AF = Androgynous Females
MF = Masculine Females
FF = Feminine Females
UF = Undifferentiated Females

were perceived as significantly more stereotyped than were androgynous or masculine females in sample one, they were also perceived as significantly less stereotyped than undifferentiated females. In samples two and three, their overall stereotype scores were not significantly different from those of any other group. The exploratory alternative hypothesis, therefore, could not be confirmed.

Ho(5) There will be no significant differences among the means of each of three individual stereotype scores of saleswomen classified according to their sex role types.

Results of the one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) appear in Table 5-7. Multivariate significance was established by an omnibus test in each of the three samples. The univariate results were then examined, keeping in mind the high degree of correlation existing among the dependent variables. Since three relationships were being estimated simultaneously, an error rate of .05 was set for the analysis, requiring a p-value of .015 to establish statistical significance. After the null hypothesis was tested, post hoc analysis of the relationships between the means of the four groups was performed using the Scheffé procedure.

"Selling Ability" Stereotype Scores. Inspection of the results of the univariate analysis of variance of "selling ability" stereotype scores indicates the presence of statistically significant differences among the means in all three samples.

Table 5-7
Test of Hypotheses Five
Means of Selling Ability, Human Relations and
Motivation Stereotype Scores of Saleswomen
Classified according to Sex Role Types

	Sample one To Organ'l End Users (n = 202)				Sample two To In-home Consumers (n = 72)				Sample three To Resellers (n = 63)			
	UF	FF	MF	AF	UF	FF	MF	AF	UF	FF	MF	AF
Univariate Analysis:												
Means of Stereotype Scales:												
Ability	3.71	3.00	2.48	2.03***	3.83	3.15	2.40	2.24***	3.82	3.29	2.28	1.64***
Human Relations	4.10	3.77	3.13	2.54***	3.86	3.95	2.69	3.59*	3.36	3.46	3.51	2.61
Motivation	3.52	3.00	3.13	2.65***	3.70	3.39	2.72	2.45***	3.02	3.06	2.67	1.74***
Effect sizes:												
Ability			.35				.35				.39	
Human Relations			.25				.12				.12	
Motivation			.31				.29				.26	
Multivariate Analysis:												
Wilks Lambda			.60***				.50***				.54***	

NOTE: The more stereotyped the saleswoman, the higher the score

* p < .05

** p < .01

*** p < .001

Multiple Range Test (Scheffé Procedure):

Groups Significantly different at .015 level of significance:

Ability:

AF < FF, UF

MF < UF

FF < UF

AF < UF

MF < UF

AF < FF, UF

MF < UF

Human Relationships:

AF < FF, UF

MF < UF

none

none

General Motivation:

AF < FF, UF

MF < UF

AF < UF

AF < UF, FF

UF = Undifferentiated females, FF = Feminine females,
MF = Masculine females, AF = Androgynous females

Effect sizes were similar across samples: .35, .35, .39. Approximately one third of the variance was explained by the sex role type of saleswomen. This provides strong evidence to reject $H_0(4)$ in the case of "selling ability."

Based on the review of the literature, it had been predicted that saleswomen with strong masculine traits in their sex role identities (masculine and androgynous females) would be perceived as conforming least to gender stereotypes about "selling ability." Post hoc analysis shows that in all three samples, both androgynous and masculine females had significantly lower selling ability stereotype scores than did undifferentiated females ($AF, MF < UF$). In samples one and three, androgynous females also had significantly lower overall stereotype scores than did feminine females ($AF < FF$). While the evidence for accepting the exploratory alternative hypothesis was strong, it was not conclusive.

"Human Relations" Stereotype Scores. Inspection of the univariate analysis of variance of "human relations" stereotype scores reveals statistically significant differences in sample one only. The difference between the means in samples two and three did not achieve statistical significance. Comparison of effect sizes revealed an effect of almost twice the size in sample one (.25) than was seen in either sample two (.12) or sample three (.12) indicating that this phenomenon was not an artifact of sample

size. The null hypothesis could be rejected in the special case of selling to industrial end users, but could not be rejected in the other two types of selling.

Based on a review of the literature, it had been predicted that that saleswomen with strong feminine traits and weak masculine traits (feminine females) would be most likely to be perceived as conforming to gender stereotypes concerning human relationships. Post hoc analysis showed that in sample one feminine females did have significantly higher scores than did androgynous females, but also had significantly lower scores than did undifferentiated females. No differences were found between feminine females and any other type females in either samples two or three. This evidence, gives no basis for accepting the alternative exploratory hypothesis.

"Motivation" Stereotype Scales. Inspection of the results of the univariate analysis of variance of "motivation" stereotype scores shows the presence of statistically significant differences among the means in all three samples. Effect sizes are large in each of the three samples, ranging from .26, in the case of sample three, to .31 in the case of sample one. This provides strong evidence to reject the null hypothesis of no difference among the means of "motivation" stereotype scores.

Based on the review of the literature, it had been predicted

that saleswomen with strong masculine and weak feminine traits (masculine females) would be least likely to be perceived as conforming to gender stereotypes in "motivation." Post hoc analysis showed that the means of the stereotype scores of masculine females were significantly lower than those of only one group (undifferentiated females). The results do not support the predicted relationships.

Hypotheses Six and Seven

Hypotheses six and seven concerned the relationship between selling effectiveness and sex role types of saleswomen. Hypothesis six concerned the differences among the means of the overall selling effectiveness scores of saleswomen classified according to sex role type. Hypothesis seven extended the analysis to the relationships among the averages of the individual function effectiveness scores and the sex role types of saleswomen.

Ho(6) There will be no significant differences among the means of overall selling effectiveness scores of saleswomen classified according to their sex role types.

The results of the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) are presented in Table 5-8. Statistically significant effects were observed in all three samples. The null hypothesis of no relationship was therefore rejected. Effect sizes were similar among the samples ranging from .24 in sample one to .28 in sample

Table 5-8
Test of Hypothesis Six
Means of Overall Selling Effectiveness Scores of Saleswomen
Classified according to Sex Role Types

	Sample one To Organ'l End Users (n = 202)				Sample two To In-Home Consumers (n = 72)				Sample three To Resellers (n = 63)			
	UF	FF	MF	AF	UF	FF	MF	AF	UF	FF	MF	AF
Means:	6.37	7.22	7.81	8.36***	5.69	6.49	7.79	7.74***	6.20	6.63	7.70	8.37***
Effect sizes:	23.7				27.8				27.1			

NOTE: The more effective the saleswoman, the higher the score
*** Significant at $p < .001$

Multiple Range Test (Scheffé Procedure):
Groups Significantly different at .05 level of significance:

AF > FF, UF	AF > FF, UF	AF > FF, UF
MF > UF	MF > UF	MF > UF
FF > UF	FF > UF	

UF = Undifferentiated females, FF = Feminine females,
MF = Masculine females, AF = Androgynous females

two. Approximately one fourth of the variance in overall selling effectiveness was explained by the sex role types of saleswomen in this analysis. The null hypothesis of no relationship was therefore rejected.

Based on a review of the literature, it had been predicted that saleswomen with strong masculine and feminine traits in their sex role identities (androgynous females) would excel, overall, in their selling performance. Post hoc analysis of orthogonal contrasts, using a Scheffé test with $p = .05$, revealed statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the androgynous group and those of both the feminine and undifferentiated groups in all three samples. This gave some support for the predicted relationships. The means of saleswomen classified as androgynous and masculine, however, did not differ significantly from each other in any sample.

Ho(7) There will be no significant differences among the means of each of the individual function effectiveness scores of saleswomen classified according to their sex role types.

Table 5-9 shows the results of the one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). Multivariate significance was established by an omnibus test in samples one and three, but not in sample two. The univariate results were then examined. Since seven relationships were estimated simultaneously, an error rate of .05 was set for

Table 5-9
Test of Hypotheses Seven
Means of Individual Function Effectiveness Scores of Saleswomen
Classified according to Sex Role Types

	Sample one To Organ'l End Users (n = 184)				Sample two To In-Home Consumers (n = 66)				Sample three To Resellers (n = 60)			
MEANS:												
Univariate Analysis:												
	UF	FF	MF	AF	UF	FF	MF	AF	UF	FF	MF	AF
Prospecting	5.81	6.68	7.48	7.89***	5.10	6.25	6.85	7.45*	---	---	---	---
Contacting	6.73	7.75	8.48	8.76***	6.52	7.00	8.00	8.15	6.10	7.09	7.82	8.71***
Probing	6.10	7.18	7.86	8.32***	5.86	6.33	8.00	7.75**	4.95	6.36	7.82	8.12***
Stimulating	5.98	6.95	8.05	7.98***	5.10	6.50	7.77	7.35**	6.29	5.91	8.00	8.35**
Closing	6.35	6.83	8.00	8.43***	5.52	6.50	8.31	7.45**	6.05	6.55	7.27	8.35*
Retaining	6.85	8.25	7.57	8.59***	6.14	6.33	7.46	7.70	6.24	7.09	7.00	8.65**
Nonselling	6.75	7.83	7.21	8.48***	5.24	6.17	7.00	7.75*	6.10	6.82	6.91	8.35
Multivariate Analysis:												
Wilks Lambda	.63***				.61				.44***			
EFFECT SIZES:												
(Explained Variance/Total Variance)												
Univariate Analysis:												
Prospecting	.15				.15				---			
Contacting	.19				.12				.31			
Probing	.20				.18				.38			
Stimulating	.19				.25				.24			
Closing	.18				.21				.14			
Retaining	.13				.10				.17			
Non-Selling	.12				.16				.12			
Multivariate Analysis:												
Explained/Total Variance	.37				.39				.56			

Table 5-9 (cont'd)
 Test of Hypothesis 7
 Relationships between Individual Function Effectiveness Scores
 and Sex Role Types of Saleswomen

Multiple Range Test (Scheffe Procedure)

Groups Significantly different at .007 level of significance:

Prospecting:		
AF > UF	none	----
MF > UF		
Contacting:		
AF > UF	none	AF > UF
MF > UF		
Probing:		
AF > UF	AF > UF	AF > UF
MF > UF	MF > UF	MF > UF
Stimulating:		
AF > FF, UF	AF > UF	none
MF > FF, UF	MF > UF	
Closing:		
AF > FF, UF	MF > UF	none
MF > FF, UF		
Retaining:		
AF > UF	none	none
MF > UF		
Non-Selling:		
AF > UF	none	none
MF > UF		

UF = Undifferentiated females, FF = Feminine females,
 MF = Masculine females, AF = Androgynous females

NOTE: The more effective the saleswoman, the higher the score

* p < .05
 ** p < .01
 *** p < .007

each analysis, requiring a p-value of .007 for establishing statistical significance.⁵

Inspection of the results of the univariate analysis of variance shows statistically significant differences among the means of all the functions in sample one. Only the differences among the means of contacting and probing effectiveness scores achieved significance in sample three, while no differences among the means were significant (at $p < .007$) in sample two. The null hypothesis of no difference among means was rejected in the case of sample one only. Comparison of the effect sizes across the three samples suggests that some of the apparent differences among the samples are an artifact of the relatively small sample sizes in samples two ($n = 72$) and three ($n = 63$), resulting in low power to detect small effects.

Based on a review of the literature, it had been predicted that saleswomen who had both strong masculine and feminine traits in their sex role identities (androgynous females) would excel at each of the individual functions. No prediction was made for non-selling activities. To investigate these relationships further, post-hoc orthogonal contrasts were performed using the Scheffé procedure with $p = .007$. The results show some support for the superiority of androgynous females, but not to a statistically significant extent.

The Function of Prospecting. The mean prospecting effectiveness scores of androgynous females in sample one: (1) exceeded those of undifferentiated females, but (2) did not exceed those of feminine females or masculine females. No significant differences were observed in samples two or three.

The Function of Contacting. The mean contacting effectiveness scores of androgynous females: (1) exceeded those of undifferentiated females in both samples one and three, but (2) did not exceed those of feminine females or masculine females in any sample.

The Function of Probing for Needs. The mean probing effectiveness score of androgynous females exceeded those of undifferentiated females in all three samples, giving some support for the superiority of androgynous females in performance of this function. The means of androgynous females were not, however, significantly higher than those of either masculine or feminine females.

The Function of Stimulating Desire. The mean stimulating effectiveness scores of androgynous females: (1) exceeded those of undifferentiated females in samples one and two only, (2) exceeded those of feminine females in sample one only, but (3) did not differ from those of masculine females in any sample. No

significant differences emerged between groups of saleswomen in mean stimulating effectiveness scores in sample three.

The Function of Closing. The mean closing effectiveness score of androgynous females: (1) exceeded those of undifferentiated females in samples one and two, (2) exceeded those of feminine females in sample one only, but (3) did not differ from those of masculine females in any sample. There were no statistically significant differences among groups of saleswomen in sample three.

The Function of Retaining. The mean retaining effectiveness scores of androgynous females (1) exceeded those of undifferentiated females in sample one only, but (2) did not differ significantly from those of masculine or feminine females in any sample. No significant differences emerged between groups of saleswomen in mean retaining effectiveness scores in either sample two or three.

Non-selling Activities. No prediction had been made for the superiority of any group of females in non-selling activities. Nonetheless, the means of androgynous females were: (1) significantly different from those of undifferentiated females in sample one only, but (2) did not differ from those of masculine or feminine females in any sample. No statistically significant

differences were found between groups of saleswomen in samples two or sample three.

Additional Data Analysis

In order to probe deeper into the relationship between the sex role identities of saleswomen and their selling effectiveness, the relationships between the raw sex role masculinity and femininity scores were examined using multivariate regression techniques. The procedure served to clarify the manner in which masculine and feminine traits work together to explain effective performance of the individual functions. The results of the analysis are given in Table 5-10. After multivariate significance was established in all three samples by an omnibus F-test, the univariate regression equations were examined. This analysis showed that sex role masculinity was statistically significantly related to the effective performance of all six functions and non-selling activities in all three samples. This was not true of sex role femininity. Femininity appeared to complement masculinity in the effective performance of "contacting," "probing for needs," "retaining" and "non-selling activities," but the amount to which it contributed to the explanation of effective performance differed in the three samples.

Table 5-10
Additional Analysis of Hypothesis Seven
Multivariate Regression Analysis of
Individual Function Effectiveness Scores
with Masculinity and Femininity Scores of Saleswomen

	Sample one To Organ'l End Users (n = 184)		Sample two To In-Home Consumers (n = 65)		Sample three To Resellers (n = 59)	
Univariate Tests:	b	Beta	b	Beta	b	Beta
Prospecting:						
Masc	.86	.44***	.92	.43***	---	---
Femn	.31	.16*	.44	.15	---	---
Contacting:						
Masc	.88	.53***	.77	.44***	.86	.58***
Femn	.32	.19***	.32	.13	.44	.28***
Probing:						
Masc	.96	.56***	.99	.54***	.99	.62***
Femn	.31	.18***	.18	.06	.37	.21*
Stimulating:						
Masc	1.04	.58***	.95	.53***	1.15	.70***
Femn	.19	.11	.35	.14*	.17	.09
Closing:						
Masc	1.08	.59***	1.13	.60***	1.00	.53***
Femn	.19	.10	-.16	-.06	.01	.00
Retaining:						
Masc	.50	.29***	.75	.41***	.64	.36***
Femn	.68	.39***	.08	.03	.69	.36***
Non-Selling:						
Masc	.34	.19***	.98	.46***	.72	.24***
Femn	.63	.35***	.75	.25*	.58	.16*
Adjusted R-Square:						
Prospecting		.23***		.20***		---
Contacting		.33***		.20***		.51***
Probing		.35***		.29***		.50***
Stimulating		.35***		.30***		.53***
Closing		.37***		.33***		.26***
Retaining		.25***		.14***		.32***
Non-Selling		.16***		.27***		.25***
Multivariate Tests:						
Wilkes Lambda:		.42***		.40***		.29***

* p < .05
** p < .01
*** p < .007

Sample One. In sample one, the feminine component of sex role identity contributed to effective performance of the functions of contacting and probing for needs, but not to as great an extent as the masculine component. Femininity seemed to be of slightly greater importance than masculinity in explaining the effective performance of the function of retaining and non-selling activities.

Sample two. In sample two, the feminine component of sex role identity does not appear to complement the masculine component in any function.

Sample three. The relationships in sample three were similar to those in sample one. The feminine component of sex role identity contributed significantly to the effective performance of the functions of contacting and probing for needs, but not to as great an extend as the masculine component. In performing the function of retaining and non-selling activities, however, femininity and masculinity appear to be approximately equal in importance.

Tests for Control Variables

The relationships between overall gender stereotype scores and overall selling effectiveness scores of saleswomen and a set of variables introduced for control purposes was tested. A model

comparison approach was used (e.g., Green and Carroll 1978). Using first the overall stereotype scores and then the overall effectiveness scores as dependent variables, a basic model of the relationship with sex role types of saleswomen was constructed.⁶ Then each control variable was introduced separately into the model and its effects evaluated. Six models were evaluated for each dependent variable: (1) the basic model without control variables, (2) the basic model controlling for age, (3) the basic model controlling for education, (4) the basic model controlling for marital status, (5) the basic model controlling for tenure on the salesforce, and (6) the basic model controlling for the sex ratio of the company. Each control variable was evaluated to determine whether it: (1) clarified the relationship between sex role types and the dependent variable, (2) enhanced the explanatory power of the model, or (3) offered an alternative explanation of the variability of the dependent variable.

Overall Stereotype Scores. Table 5-11 illustrates that the addition of none of the control variables: (1) altered the basic relationships between the overall stereotype scores and the sex role types of saleswomen, (2) enhanced the explanatory power of the model, or (3) offered an alternative explanation for the variability in overall stereotype scores.

Overall Selling Effectiveness Scores. Table 5-12 illustrates

Table 5-11
Alternative Models of Hypothesis Four
Overall Stereotype Scores of Saleswomen
Classified According to Sex Role Types
With and Without Control Variables

	Model 1: No Covariate	Model 2: Age	Model 3: Education	Model 4: Marital Status	Model 5: Tenure on Job	Model 6: Sex Ratio on Job
Sample one: To Organ'l End Users	(n = 202)	(n = 202)	(n = 201)	(n = 202)	(n = 199)	(n = 194)
R-Square(a)	.371***	.371***	.375***	.376***	.373***	.368***
R-Square change(b)		.000	.004	.005	.002	.003
Sample two: To In-Home Consumers	(n = 72)	(n = 72)	(n = 67)	(n = 72)	(n = 69)	(n = 72)
R-Square	.282***	.308***	.276***	.298***	.310***	.300***
R-Square change		.026	.006	.016	.028	.018
Sample three: To Resellers	(n = 63)	(n = 63)	(n = 63)	(n = 63)	(n = 63)	(n = 63)
R-Square	.317***	.340***	.350***	.318***	.330***	.325***
R-Square change		.023	.033	.001	.013	.008

Model 1: Basic model, regression approximation of analysis of variance
Model 2-6: Basic model, with addition of control variable

- (a) Unadjusted R-Square for Model
(b) Change in R-Square after addition of Control Variable

*** p < .001

Table 5-12
Alternative Models for Hypothesis Six
Overall Selling Effectiveness Scores of Saleswomen
Classified According to Sex Role Types
With and Without Control Variables

	Model 1: No Covariate	Model 2: Age	Model 3: Education	Model 4: Marital Status	Model 5: Tenure on Job	Model 6: Sex Ratio on Job
Sample one: To Organ'l End Users	(n = 202)	(n = 202)	(n = 201)	(n = 202)	(n = 199)	(n = 194)
R-Square	.237***	.240***	.241***	.242***	.250***	.250***
R-Square change		.003	.004	.005	.013	.013
Sample two: To In-Home Consumers	(n = 72)	(n = 72)	(n = 67)	(n = 72)	(n = 69)	(n = 72)
R-Square	.278***	.292***	.272***	.281***	.298***	.327***
R-Square change		.014	-.006	.003	.020	.049
Sample three: To Resellers	(n = 63)	(n = 63)	(n = 63)	(n = 63)	(n = 63)	(n = 63)
R-Square	.271***	.286***	.280***	.284***	.275***	.294***
R-Square change		.015	.010	.013	.004	.023

Model 1: Basic model, regression approximation of analysis of variance
Model 2-6: Basic Model, with addition of control variable

- (a) Unadjusted R-Square for Model
- (b) Change in R-Square after addition of Control Variable

*** p < .001

that, as with the overall stereotype scores, none of the control variables (1) altered the basic relationship between the overall selling effectiveness scores and the sex role types of saleswomen, (2) enhanced the explanatory power of the model, or (3) offered an alternative explanation for the variability in overall selling effectiveness scores.

Tests for Bias

Tests were performed for sex bias and for other forms of response bias:

Tests for Sex Bias. Three variables were examined to determine whether there was evidence of sex bias in the responses: (1) the relative degree of comfort in supervising saleswomen, (2) the sex of the sales manager, and the (3) sex ratio of the salesforce. Table 5-13 shows no statistically significant differences in responses in either samples two or three, but some indication of possible sex bias appeared in sample one: (1) male sales managers reported perceiving saleswomen in more stereotypic terms than did females sales managers, (2) sales managers who felt relatively "uncomfortable" supervising saleswomen reported saleswomen as being significantly less effective, and (3) those sales managers who supervised fewer than 40% females, also reported their saleswomen to be significantly less effective.

Table 5-13
Tests for Sex Bias
Means of Overall Stereotype Scores and
Overall Selling Effectiveness Scores of Saleswomen
Classified according to:
Sales Managers' Degree of Comfort in Supervising Saleswomen,
Sales Managers' Sex, and
Sex Ratio of the Salesforce

	Degree of Comfort in Supervising			Sex of Sales Manager		Sex Ratio of Salesforce	
	Prefers Males	No Dif	Prefers Females	Male	Female	< 40%	> 40%
Means:							
Sample one To Organ'l End Users:	(n=12)	(n=148)	(n=37)	(n=149)	(n=53)	(n=69)	(n=124)
Overall Stereotypes (a)	3.51	2.99	2.82	3.10	2.72*	3.15	2.89
Overall Selling E. (b)	6.21	7.47	7.66*	7.40	7.54	7.17	7.66*
Sample two To In-Home Consumers:	(n=10)	(n=60)	(n=2)	(n=66)	(n=6)	(n=43)	(n=29)
Overall Stereotypes	3.43	3.20	2.33	3.27	2.54	3.25	3.16
Overall Selling E.	7.06	6.76	8.28	6.75	7.95	6.55	7.29
Sample three To Resellers:	(n=6)	(n=47)	(n=10)	(n=52)	(n=11)	(n=32)	(n=29)
Overall Stereotypes	2.90	2.91	2.72	2.85	3.01	2.90	2.84
Overall Selling E.	7.34	6.94	8.15	7.19	7.10	7.09	7.28

- (a) The more stereotyped the saleswoman, the higher the score
(b) The more effective the saleswoman, the higher the score

* Significant at < .05

Tests for Response Bias. Two variables were included in the questionnaire for the purpose of evaluating response bias. These were self-reports of how well-qualified sales managers felt to evaluate the saleswomen, and how lenient they felt they had been in their evaluations. It was not possible to evaluate the bias attributable to leniency, since nearly all sales managers reported themselves as being neither lenient nor harsh. Table 5-14 shows no significant differences in evaluations of sales managers in samples one or two, but significant differences were found in sample three. In sample three, those sales managers who reported themselves to be very well-qualified to evaluate saleswomen gave saleswomen significantly lower overall stereotype scores and higher overall selling effectiveness scores than did the other sales managers.

Discussion of the General Findings

The following section discusses the findings in the context of the four broad questions that guided the research.

Research Question One

The first research question addressed the question of whether saleswomen actually behave in stereotypic ways while performing as

Table 5-14
 Tests for Response Bias
 Means of Overall Stereotype Scales and
 Overall Selling Effectiveness Scores
 of Saleswomen classified according to
 Sales Managers' Degree of Qualification to Rate Saleswomen

Means:	Sample one To Organ'1 End Users		Sample two To In-Home Consumers		Sample three To Resellers	
	Not Very Qual.	Very Qual.	Not Very Qual.	Very Qual.	Not Very Qual.	Very Qual.
Overall Stereotype Scores (a)	3.03	2.99	3.41	3.11	3.31	2.66*
Overall Selling Effectiveness Scores (b)	7.18	7.53	6.31	7.11	6.09	7.71***

- (a) The more stereotyped the saleswoman, the higher the score
 (b) The more effective the saleswoman, the higher the score

* $p < .05$
 ** $p < .01$
 *** $p < .001$

salespersons.

Are saleswomen in traditionally male-oriented areas of selling perceived by their sales managers to behave in accordance with gender stereotypes impacting on their selling ability, human relationships, and motivation?

The answer to this question is that some gender stereotypic behavior is perceived to take place in the marketplace, although not as much as critics of saleswomen have contended. The findings suggest that many saleswomen may act in stereotypic ways from time to time, but that the behavior is sporadic. It does not occur frequently, in most cases, or on a regular basis.

Research Question Two

The second research question probed the relationship between perceived stereotypic behavior and effective selling performance by saleswomen.

Does the degree to which saleswomen in traditionally male-oriented areas of selling are perceived by their sales managers to behave in accordance with gender stereotypes correlate with the effectiveness of their selling performance?

The results suggest that, under certain circumstances, when saleswomen act in stereotypic ways selling effectiveness is reduced. Saleswomen who were perceived as behaving according to "selling ability" stereotypes were further perceived as less

effective than others in their performance of all of the functions of selling. Saleswomen who were perceived to behave according to "human relations" stereotypes were also perceived as less effective than others in "closing," but this effect did not occur in the case of saleswomen who sell to organizational end users. Saleswomen who behaved according to "motivation" stereotypes were perceived as less effective than others in performing two functions: prospecting and retaining.

"Selling Ability" Stereotypes. One measure of the validity of a study is whether or not the results support common sense. In this case, common sense would say that women who were perceived as weak in basic "selling ability" (e.g., product knowledge, persuasiveness, and adaptive behavior) would also be perceived to score relatively low on performance of the selling functions (e.g., prospecting, contacting, and closing). This study found that generally this was true, especially when selling to organizational end users. In direct selling, however, motivation seemed to overcome limitations in selling ability among women when performing prospecting activities.

"Human Relations" Stereotypes. Saleswomen who were perceived as weak in "human relations" ability (e.g., over-socialized with customers, were dominated by customers, could not handle rejections) also were perceived as being relatively less effective

at closing sales than were the others. This effect appeared among saleswomen who sold to resellers and in-home consumers, but not among saleswomen who sold to organizational end users where closing occurs less frequently. Why is this so? It may be that saleswomen who over-emphasize the social aspects of the job also tend to over-value their friendships with customers. They may hesitate to place demands on customers that might jeopardize these relationships. Furthermore, those saleswomen who allow their customers to dominate the interview may never have the opportunity to close and those saleswomen who tend to accept their customer's excuses and objections at face value may give up too easily. Those saleswomen who react too emotionally when they lose sales, may avoid asking for the order or may react emotionally when their closing attempt fails. For all these reasons, when a strong close is important to the sale, as when making one-call sales to in-home consumers, saleswomen who act in accordance with "human relations" stereotypes are at a serious disadvantage. In situations where the close is the logical outcome of a well-structured selling process, such as in industrial sales, this type of behavior does not seem to be dysfunctional.

"Motivation" Stereotypes. Saleswomen who were perceived as weak in "motivation" (e.g., lacked confidence, required constant encouragement, preferred pleasant aspects of the job, were

preoccupied with family responsibilities, or simply lacked dynamic inner drive), were also perceived to be relatively ineffective in "prospecting" and, to a lesser extent, in "retaining."

The research showed that low scores in prospecting correlated highly with insufficient "motivation" on the part of saleswomen. Why may this happen? It may be that those saleswomen who are insecure, who require a good deal of reinforcement from their managers, or who tend to avoid activities that they consider to be unpleasant, procrastinate about prospecting. Those saleswomen who have time constraints because of conflicts between family and professional responsibilities, may also fall into the trap of "putting off" prospecting activities. When heavy prospecting is required on the sales job, insufficient motivation seems to be a serious liability. Salespersons need a high level of internal drive to sustain prospecting activities over time.

Scores on the retaining function also correlate with insufficient motivation. Why may this be so? The function of retaining can be critically important to the establishment of long-term relationships in selling, but the day-to-day tasks involved may not always be immediately tangibly rewarded. Salespersons who are not strongly self-motivated may not be willing to expend the extra time and effort that retention activities require.

Research Question Three

The third research question probed into the question of whether saleswomen who behave in ways that are consistent with these gender stereotypes can be identified by classifying them into sex role types.

Does the degree to which saleswomen in traditionally male-oriented areas of selling are perceived by their sales managers to behave in accordance with gender stereotypes differ among saleswomen of four different sex role types?

The answer is yes, with qualifications.

"Selling Ability" and "Motivation" Stereotypes. The study strongly suggests that saleswomen who are perceived as acting according to "selling ability" and "motivation" stereotypes, can be identified by knowledge of their sex role type in all three selling situations. Those saleswomen who have strong masculine traits (masculine and androgynous females), were described in significantly less stereotypic terms by their sales managers than were the others.

"Human Relations" Stereotypes. Identifying saleswomen who are perceived as acting according to "human relations" stereotypes on the basis of sex role types is less straightforward. The manner in which gender stereotypic behavior in "human relations" relates to

the sex role type of saleswomen seems to be highly dependent upon the selling situation. While saleswomen with strong masculine traits were described as being less stereotyped than others by their sales managers in all three selling situations, those with strong feminine traits were described in different ways in the three different samples: (1) in the case of saleswomen who sold to organizational end users, saleswomen with strong feminine traits were described as being less stereotyped than others, (2) in the case of saleswomen who sold to in-home consumers, saleswomen with these same strong feminine traits were described as being more stereotyped than others, and (3) in the case of saleswomen who sold to resellers, there seemed to be very little relationship between feminine traits and the descriptions of stereotypic behavior. With regard to stereotypic behavior in "human relations," the feminine traits of saleswomen seem to be assets when selling to organizational end users, liabilities when selling to in home consumers, and immaterial when selling to resellers.

Research Question Four

The fourth research question asks whether it is possible to identify the most effective saleswomen by knowledge of their sex role type.

Does the effectiveness of selling performance in traditionally male-oriented areas of selling differ among saleswomen of four different sex role types?

The answer seems to be, yes. The study suggests that effective performance of the sales job relates to the sex role type of saleswomen. Saleswomen who were classified as androgynous or masculine outperformed those classified as feminine or undifferentiated in overall selling effectiveness in all three selling situations. These findings support the applicability of the two-dimensional model of selling effectiveness to the situation of selling to customers who are organizational end users and of selling to customers who are resellers.

Examining the way that masculine and feminine traits relate to the performance of each of the functions of selling seems to be more helpful in understanding selling effectiveness than focusing on the performance of saleswomen classified according to sex role types. Saleswomen's masculine "instrumentality" and feminine "expressiveness" both contributed to their effective performance of the individual functions, but did it in different ways. In all three samples, saleswomen with strong masculine traits excelled in performance of all of the functions of selling. Sex role masculinity, without benefit of femininity, related to effective performance of the functions of prospecting, stimulating desire,

and closing. Both sex role masculinity and femininity contributed to effective performance of the functions of contacting, probing for needs, and retaining, but this was seen in two of the three types of selling situations only: selling to organizational users and selling to in-home consumers. It was not true in the in the special case of selling to in-home consumers.

Prospecting, Stimulating Desire, and Closing. Effective performance of the functions of prospecting, stimulating desire, and closing was associated with the presence of strong masculine "instrumentality" in saleswomen. Why may this be so? It may be that when prospecting, the presence of strong masculine traits, helps saleswomen sustain the necessary perseverance to continuously seek out new customers for the firms product. When performing the function of stimulating desire, masculine traits, such as forcefulness and assertiveness, may help saleswomen deliver their persuasive messages. When performing the function of closing, masculine traits, such as dominance and leadership ability, may help saleswomen control the interview, ask for the order, and successfully obtain it. While feminine traits do not seem to contribute to saleswomen's effective performance of these three functions, their presence does not seem to detract from it.

Contacting, Probing for Needs, and Retaining. Effective performance of contacting, probing for needs, and retaining was

associated with the presence of both strong masculine "instrumentality" and strong feminine "expressiveness." Why may this be so? It may be that when "contacting," saleswomen's masculine qualities, such as assertiveness and willingness to take risks, give them the drive to overcome any reluctance they may have about initiating new relationships; their feminine traits, such as warmth and understanding, probably help in the process of establishing rapport with customers. When "probing for needs," saleswomen's masculine qualities, such as their leadership ability, may help them to direct the progress of the conversation; their feminine qualities, such as sensitivity to the needs of others, may make them more responsive to both the verbal and non-verbal communications of customers. When "retaining," saleswomen's masculine qualities, may help them maintain the tenacity and the perseverance to perform necessary services; their feminine qualities, such as sympathy and gentleness, may enable them to perform these services in a way that is satisfying to the customer, and to maintain a sensitivity to the changing needs of customers throughout the duration of the relationship.

Discussion of the Findings in the Three Individual Samples

There are differences in the findings in the different samples. This section discusses the findings as they pertain to the three different types of selling situations.

Sample One: Selling to Organizational End Users

This section discusses the findings that are specific to situations in which customers are organizational buyers who are making decisions about products to be used in the conduct of their business or to augment their company's product.

Stereotypic Behavior and Selling Effectiveness. In this selling situation, saleswomen who were perceived as conforming to "selling ability" stereotypes were also perceived as less effective in performing all of the functions of selling than were others. Saleswomen who were perceived to conform to "human relations" stereotypes did not show ineffective performance of any of the functions of selling. Particularly notable was the fact that, in contrast to the findings in the other two samples, saleswomen who appeared to conform to "human relations" stereotypes were not

perceived as less effective in performing the function of closing. It is possible that the consultative nature of this selling situation renders the "close" less challenging to salespersons than it is in other forms of selling. In this form of selling, the "close" may come close to being the ideal case where it serves as a natural outgrowth of a problem solving process of matching product benefits to consumers needs, rather than as the climax of a one-shot sale. As in the other samples, saleswomen who showed stereotypic behavior in "motivation" showed reduced effectiveness of performing both the functions of prospecting and retaining.

Stereotypic Behavior and Sex Role Type. The sex role type of saleswomen was strongly related to the degree to which saleswomen's behavior appeared to conform to stereotypes about "selling ability," "human relations," and "motivation" in this selling situation. Those saleswomen with strong masculine and feminine traits (androgynous females), were perceived to be less stereotyped in their behavior than others.

Selling Effectiveness and Sex Role Types. The sex role types of saleswomen were also strongly related to effective performance of all of the functions. Androgynous females appeared to be more effective than the others. Although there was little difference between the effectiveness of androgynous and masculine females, strength in masculine traits was positively associated with

effective performance of all of the functions of selling and of non-selling activities. Strength in both masculine and feminine traits was positively related to saleswomen's effectiveness in performing the functions of contacting, probing for needs, and retaining.

Sex Bias. Despite the fact that the sales managers in this group seemed very supportive of the women on their staffs, a possible problem with sex bias was identified. Male sales managers stereotyped women more than did female sales managers. In addition, those sales managers who felt less comfortable supervising women than men and those who supervised fewer than 40% women rated the overall performance of the saleswomen under their supervision significantly lower than did others. Why may this be? It seems only natural that male sales managers would think of saleswomen in more stereotyped terms than would female sales managers. Those sales managers who felt less "comfortable" supervising women probably have difficulty evaluating their saleswomen and some bias is probably present in their descriptions of their work. In the situation where the sales force has a sex ratio of less than 40% female, the explanation of the lower ratings may be attributable to sex bias on the part of the sales manager, or it may be that, in reaction to the unfavorable sex ratio in the organization, the performance of the saleswomen was actually

diminished in effectiveness.

Sample Two:
Selling to In-Home Consumers

This section discusses the findings as they pertain to situations in which customers are household consumers who are making decisions about the purchase of relatively expensive items for consumption by themselves or by members of their families.

Stereotypic Behavior and Selling Effectiveness. As in the other two types of selling, saleswomen who were perceived as conforming to "selling ability" stereotypes were also perceived to be less effective in performing all of the functions of selling, (although the partial correlation between "selling ability" stereotype scores and prospecting effectiveness scores did not achieve statistical significance). Saleswomen who were perceived as conforming to "human relations" stereotypes were also perceived to be less effective in performing the functions of closing and probing for needs than were others in this selling situation. This relationship between "human relations" stereotypes and performance of the function of closing was also observed in the case of selling to resellers and has been discussed previously. The relationship between "human relations" stereotypes and lower performance of the function of probing was found exclusively in this sample.

Saleswomen who showed stereotypic behavior in "motivation" were significantly less effective in prospecting activities than others. There was no significant relationship between "prospecting" effectiveness scores and "selling ability" stereotype scores. Saleswomen's "motivation" seems to be more important to effective prospecting than their actual "selling ability" (knowledge and skills) in this situation. Why may this be so? The reason may have to do with the nature of prospecting in this selling situation. Prospects are private consumers, not representatives of organizations. They are frequently contacted in their homes. Salespersons may need to knock on many doors, or make many telephone calls, to ferret out adequate numbers of qualified prospects for their firm's product. Good motivation may be more important than good knowledge and skills to a salesperson whose primary job is prospecting.

Stereotypic Behavior and Sex Role Types. The sex role type of saleswomen seems strongly related to the degree to which saleswomen's behavior is perceived to conform to stereotypes about "selling ability," "human relations" and "motivation." Those saleswomen who displayed strong masculine traits, were also perceived to be less stereotyped in all three areas than were others. Those saleswomen who displayed strong feminine traits, were perceived to be less stereotyped, but only in the areas of

"selling ability" and "motivation." In the case of "human relations" stereotypes the situation was quite different. Saleswomen who displayed strong feminine traits, were perceived to be more stereotyped. It appears that in this special case of saleswomen who sell to in-home consumers, the presence of strong feminine traits is associated with dysfunctional interpersonal relationships in saleswomen.

Selling Effectiveness and Sex Role Types. The sex role type of saleswomen was also related to effectiveness in their performance of the functions of selling in this type of selling. Masculine females appeared to be more effective than others. Strength in masculine traits was positively associated with effective performance of all of the functions of selling and of non-selling activities. Strength in feminine traits, however, did not relate to the functions of contacting, probing, or retaining, as they had in the other selling situations. Unexpectedly, feminine traits showed a small, marginally significant, positive relationship with the function of stimulating in this sample.

The Paradox of Expressive Traits. A curious paradox was found in this sample. The median femininity score of saleswomen was higher than that of the saleswomen in either of the other two samples, indicating that there are proportionately more saleswomen with strong feminine traits in this type of selling than in the

other two. The presence of these traits did not, however, seem to contribute to the effective selling performance of the women. Why may this be so? It may be that the over abundance of saleswomen with these strong feminine traits has caused them to be devalued in the minds of their sales managers. It is also possible that too many feminine traits in a saleswomen turns the positives into negatives. Saleswomen who have too many feminine traits, may be prone to fall into patterns of behavior that are exemplified by the "human relations" stereotypes (e.g., over-socialize with customers, over-nurture them, and be overly-permissive with them.)

Stimulating desire was the only function for which the presence of expressive traits seemed to be an asset. There was a small, marginally significant positive relationship between saleswomen's femininity scores and effective performance of the function of stimulating desire, a relationship that did not appear in the other two samples. Why may this be so? Salespersons deal with a larger number of individual consumers in this selling situation, and they may meet with them only once or twice to make a sale. It may be that there is more individuality among these customers calling for more rapidly adaptive behavior on the part of the salesperson. The receptivity implied by the feminine traits (e.g., sensitivity to the needs of others) may help saleswomen respond to these individual customer differences. In this type of

selling, customers are purchasing relatively expensive products with their own money for their own personal use. Frequently a kind of "social risk" is involved in the purchase. In these cases, salespersons sometimes use "emotional" rather than "rational" appeals. It may be that the feminine characteristics (e.g., sympathy, sensitivity to the needs of others) help saleswomen in responding to the underlying emotional needs of customers.

In this selling situation, unlike the others, feminine traits did not contribute significantly to effectiveness of the performance of contacting, probing, or retaining. In the case of contacting and retaining, the fact that no significant effect was observed may be related to the differential size of this sample ($n = 72$), since the effect sizes were comparable in magnitude to those observed in the organizational end user sample. In the case of performance of probing for needs, there is no evidence of the presence of any such effect. Why may this be so? It may be that the very number of customers with which a salesperson must deal in the consumer situation precludes in-depth probing for needs, so there is less need for receptivity on the part of the salesperson. It is also possible that the negative pattern of behavior that is consistent with "human relations" stereotypes cancels out the positive effects of saleswomen's feminine traits in the process of probing for needs in this type of selling.

Sample Three:
Selling to Resellers

This section discusses the findings as they pertain to the situation in which customers are organizational decision makers who are making decisions about products that they will purchase for profitable resale to others outside the organization.

Stereotypic Behavior and Sex Role Type. As in the other two types of selling, saleswomen who were perceived to conform to gender stereotypes were also perceived to be less effective in performing all of the functions of selling, although the relationship between "selling ability" scores and closing effectiveness scores did not achieve significance.

Saleswomen who were perceived to behave according to "human relations" stereotypes were also perceived to be less effective at performing the function of stimulating desire. Why may this be so? It may be that in this type of selling, customers who are busy businessmen and who have frequent contact with many vendors, do not have time to spend listening to lengthy presentations. Presentations must be brief, to the point, and persuasive. Behavior in accordance with "human relations" stereotypes (e.g., over-socializing and over-nurturing customers), may be perceived as wasteful of customers' time rather than as solidifying long-term relationships.

Saleswomen who showed stereotypic behavior in "motivation" were significantly less effective in "closing" than others. This is in contrast to the fact that saleswomen who seemed to conform to "selling ability" stereotypes did not seem to be less effective in "closing," as did saleswomen in the other two samples. It appears that saleswomen's motivation is more important to effective "closing" than their selling ability in this selling situation. This may reflect the different nature of "closing." Since many of the purchases are reorders, the process of closing sales may be relatively routine. The number of closes made may be a simple function of the number of calls that were made, a matter of energy and drive, rather than of the mastery of the art of closing. Thus, "motivation" may be more important to success in closing than "selling ability."

Fully one-third of the saleswomen in this sample did not engage in prospecting activities. Why may this be so? It may be that in this form of selling, prospecting is primarily associated with the opening of territories. Once the territory is established, the job becomes one of maintaining contacts with existing accounts. Since relatively few saleswomen who sell to resellers engage in prospecting activities, no conclusions were drawn about performance of the function of prospecting in this sample.

Stereotypic Behavior and Sex Role Types. The degree to which saleswomen are perceived to conform to stereotypes about "selling ability," "human relations," and "motivation" seems to be strongly related to the sex role types of saleswomen in this selling situation. Saleswomen showing strong masculine traits were perceived to be less stereotyped in their behavior, overall, while saleswomen with strong feminine traits were perceived to be less stereotyped in the areas of "selling ability" and "motivation," only. Saleswomen of different sex role types did not differ noticeably in the degree to which they were perceived to act according to "human relations" stereotypes. Androgynous females seemed to be the least stereotyped, but this difference was not statistically significant.

Selling Effectiveness and Sex Role Type. As in the other selling situations, saleswomen who were perceived to have strong masculine traits performed all of the selling functions more effectively than did the others. Strength in feminine traits seemed to be strongly related to excellence in performance of the functions of contacting and retaining, and marginally related to excellence in performing the function of probing for needs.

The effect sizes in this sample associated with the functions of contacting, probing for needs, and stimulating desire were much

larger than they were in the other two samples. The relationship between sex role type and effective performance of the functions seem to be much stronger in this selling situation.

Response Bias. Some bias was found among sales managers in this sample. Those sales managers who did not feel very well qualified to evaluate saleswomen were also found to describe them in very stereotypic terms. Why may this be so? It may be that in this selling situation, territories are large and sales managers may have less frequent contact with the sales personnel under their supervision. When sales managers lack first hand knowledge of a saleswoman's performance, they may fall back on stereotypes about women, when making their evaluations.

Summary

This chapter has presented the findings of the study. First the properties of the data were discussed, then the results of the statistical tests were presented. Additional data analyses, tests of control variables, and tests for bias were then discussed. The chapter concluded with a discussion of the findings in the context of the four research questions that guided the research and the three different selling situations.

Endnotes

1. There was very little problem with missing data. The only item that caused any significant problem was the item "loves children" on the expressiveness scale of the BSRI. Some sales managers apparently did not see the relevance of the item, or did not know how their saleswomen felt about children.

2. These were the items "is not well organized" from the "selling ability" stereotype scale, and the items "functions well as 'team player'" and "maintains sexually neutral behavior on the job at all times" from the "human relations" stereotype scales.

3. This relationship was not evaluated in sample three because fully one-third of the saleswomen did not perform the function of prospecting in their jobs.

4. It appears that the sizes of samples two ($n = 72$) and three ($n = 63$) were not large enough to detect effects of the same magnitude as could sample one ($n = 202$). Comparison of this relationship among the three samples can be only tentative.

5. Several special limitations pertain to this analysis. The SPSS^x MANOVA program that was used could not accommodate missing

data. The results are therefore generalizable only to saleswomen who perform all of the functions on their jobs. Since so few saleswomen performed the function of prospecting in sample three, "prospecting" was not included in the analysis. Therefore, in the case of sample three, the results are generalizable to saleswomen who perform all of the functions, exclusive of prospecting.

8. A basic analysis of variance model was developed using regression techniques with effect coding. The technique is mathematically equivalent to univariate analysis of variance. In the basic model, the four sex role types were represented by three zero-one dummy variables. Control variables were split at the median and also coded into 0-1 dummy variables.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The objective of this study was to investigate whether saleswomen were perceived by their sales managers as behaving in accordance with gender stereotypes and, if they were, to determine whether the behavior related to their selling effectiveness. It further sought to determine whether saleswomen, classified into sex role types, differed in the degree to which they were perceived to conform to gender stereotypes, or the degree to which they were perceived to be effective in their performance of the functions of selling.

Summary of the Study

In order to provide a basis for examining the job-related behavior of saleswomen, the relevant literature was reviewed. Based on this review, a simple model was developed and hypotheses were formulated for testing.

Background of the Research

The literature reviewed three major conceptual areas: gender

stereotypes, selling effectiveness, and sex role identity.

Gender Stereotypes. The literature concerning gender stereotypes defined the nature of gender stereotypes: the damaging effects of stereotypes about women in business, the content of gender stereotypes, and the issue of the stability of these stereotypes over time. It established a context for the research through a discussion of bias in existing research. Stereotypes about the behavior of women in selling were discussed in three major areas: "selling ability," "human relations," and "motivation."

Selling Effectiveness. The literature concerning selling effectiveness reviewed issues in the measurement of selling effectiveness and justified the use of the functions of selling as the basis for a behavioral measure of effectiveness. The salesmanship literature was reviewed to establish criteria for good performance of the functions of selling. Effective selling was discussed in terms of a two-dimensional model of selling effectiveness, consisting of "instrumental" and "expressive" dimensions.

Sex Role Identity. The literature concerning sex role identity discussed the appropriateness of the use of the Bem Sex Role Inventory as a basis for understanding sex related behavior, and the applicability of the concept of sex role identity: (1) to

behavior in laboratory studies, (2) to behavior in occupations, and (3) to behavior of salespersons.

A Conceptual Model. These three clusters of literature were brought together to develop a correlational model of the relationships of interest, which was used to guide the subsequent research.

Methodology

A survey was conducted of sales managers who supervised saleswomen in three different types of selling situations. Responding sales managers described from one to four saleswomen under their supervision, on items pertaining to: (1) their degree of conformity to gender stereotypes, (2) their effectiveness in performing six functions of selling and non-selling activities, and (3) their sex role identities. Sales managers also evaluated the importance of each of six functions of selling and non-selling activities to good salesmanship on their particular job. Sales managers provided demographic information about the saleswomen they described and about themselves.

Gender Stereotypes. The items relating to saleswomen's conformity to gender stereotypic behavior were combined into three scales representing stereotypes about "selling ability," "human relations," and "motivation." Saleswomen received scores on each of

these scales. The three scores were averaged to create an overall gender stereotype score for each saleswoman.

Selling Effectiveness. The items relating to saleswomen's effective performance of six functions of selling and non-selling activities were used both as individual scales and as the basis for calculating an overall effectiveness scale. Importance ratings by sales managers were used as weights to calculate an average selling effectiveness scale, making it possible to compare effectiveness of saleswomen across a wide variety of selling jobs. Saleswomen received scores on their performance of each function of selling. They also received scores on their overall selling effectiveness, calculated as an average of the individual function effectiveness scores weighted by the importance ratings.

Sex Role Identity. The items relating to the saleswomen's sex role identity were combined into scores on the masculinity and femininity sub-scales of the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI). Within each sample, sex role masculinity and femininity scores were split at the median. Saleswomen were classified as either androgynous females, masculine females, feminine females, or undifferentiated females on the basis of these scores. The relationships among the scores of saleswomen classified into these groups were examined within the framework of the conceptual model developed in the review of the literature.

Conclusions

Conclusions based on the findings are summarized below:

Some stereotypic behavior was perceived among saleswomen in the marketplace. Most of this behavior occurred occasionally, rather than frequently. Under certain conditions, this perceived stereotypic behavior interfered with selling effectiveness. The strongest effect occurred when the behavior involved "selling ability" stereotypes. Perceived difficulties in "selling ability" diminished performance of all of the functions of selling. Perceived stereotypic behavior in "human relations" had negative consequences only on performance of the function of closing, but the problem was not perceived to occur among those who sell to organizational end users. Perceived difficulties in "motivation" detracted from performance of the functions of prospecting and retaining, only.

The sex role types of saleswomen related to gender stereotypic behavior. In particular, those saleswomen with strong masculine and feminine traits (androgynous females) were least likely to be perceived to act according to gender stereotypes in either "selling ability" or "motivation," and those saleswomen with strong

masculine traits (masculine and androgynous females) were least likely to appear to behave according to gender stereotypes in "human relations." In the special case of selling to in-home consumers, feminine traits were associated with a dysfunctional pattern of interpersonal relations that detracted from selling effectiveness, but the effect did not occur when selling to business customers.

The sex role types of saleswomen related to the effectiveness of selling performance. Saleswomen with strong masculine and feminine traits (androgynous females) were perceived to outperform others in the functions of contacting, probing for needs, and retaining. Saleswomen with strong masculine traits (masculine and androgynous females), seemed to outperform others in performing the functions of prospecting, stimulating desire, and closing. Saleswomen with strong feminine traits were at a disadvantage when selling to in-home consumers.

Implications

The findings of this study have both conceptual and practical implications, as discussed below:

Theoretical Implications

While the purpose of this research was not to test theory, the findings have implications for increasing our understanding of: (1) the relationship between sex role identity and sex-typed behavior, (2) the relationship between sex role identity and occupational behavior, and (3) the two-dimensional model of selling effectiveness.

Sex-Typed Behavior. The conceptual framework for the study was suggested by a debate in the literature concerning the nature of the relationship between sex role identity (as measured by the BSRI) and behavior. Proponents of gender schema theory (e.g., Bem, 1977; 1979; 1981) argue that the predictions about gender stereotypic behavior of sex-typed individuals can be made about the entire spectrum of gender-appropriate behavior. Those that hold a more conservative interpretation (e.g., Spence and Helmreich 1978) contend that such predictions apply to instrumental and expressive behaviors only. The results of this study do not support gender a schema theory explanation. Saleswomen who were perceived to be feminine-typed by their sales managers were not also perceived as behaving in accordance with gender stereotypes. (Undifferentiated females emerged as the more stereotyped group). A correspondence was seen, however, between perceived quality of performance of the instrumental and expressive aspects of the sales job and the

masculine and feminine traits of saleswomen. Saleswomen were perceived as performing those behaviors best that were congruent with their sex role types.

Vocational Behavior. The findings of this study confirm that the concept of sex role identity relates to occupational behavior in the area of personal selling. Both masculine and feminine traits were found to be related to effective performance of the functions of selling. Personal selling may represent a unique opportunity for androgynous females to excel.

The Two-Dimensional Model. The findings provide some support for the two-dimensional model of selling effectiveness (Blake and Mouton 1980; Jolson 1984). In the case of three of the six functions of selling, the presence of both masculine and feminine traits was associated with selling effectiveness in two of the three selling situations. Effective performance of the functions of contacting, probing for needs, and retaining were associated with both masculine instrumentality and feminine expressiveness. Effective performance of the functions of prospecting, stimulating desire, and closing was associated with masculine instrumentality only. Overall, the study provides strong support for the importance of masculine instrumentality to effective selling performance, and demonstrates a weaker, but significant, contribution of feminine expressiveness. The importance of the

contribution of the feminine component is highly impacted upon by the particular selling situation.

Managerial Implications

The findings of the study have implications for recruitment and selection of saleswomen, for training, for supervision and evaluation, and for incentive systems.

Recruitment. Ideally, sales managers would like to seek out those female applicants who have the greatest potential for success on the sales job. Results of this study suggest that these are androgynous and/or masculine females. Sales managers who supervise saleswomen who sell to organizational end users and to resellers, should seek out androgynous females since a combination of masculine and feminine traits seems to be an asset. Sales managers who supervise saleswomen who sell large-ticket items to in-home consumers should seek out masculine females, since the presence of feminine traits seems to detract from effective performance.

The BSRI as a Selection Tool. While it is tempting to recommend the use of the Bem Sex Role Inventory as a selection tool,¹ to do so on the basis of this research would be premature. Two problems stand in the way: (1) the predictive nature of the instrument has not been established,² and (2) criticisms of potential "sexism" need to be countered.³ Both issues need to be

resolved before the BSRI could effectively be used as a selection tool, and both are beyond the scope of the present research.

Self-Selection. The BSRI might be useful in helping female applicants for selling positions select those types of jobs for which they are best suited. Some female applicants may express interest in jobs that are not appropriate to their sex role types.⁴ In order to help these women determine which jobs are most suitable to them, recruiters (as well as vocational advisors) could make information available to them about the correlates of success on the job. Information about the relationship between BSRI scores and selling effectiveness in the particular type of selling would be helpful. Information about the type of behavior that is perceived to be dysfunctional on the job would also be useful. Female applicants would then be in a better position to make an informed choice about the job.

Sales Training. The findings of the research suggest that the single most important asset of saleswomen is their "selling ability." Perceived problems in "selling ability" correlated negatively with the performance of each function of selling. Problems in "selling ability" are directly correctable through training programs. Historically, saleswomen have faced barriers to acquiring important knowledge and selling skills through formal training programs and informal networks. This was particularly a

problem when women were relative newcomers to salesforces. Sales managers who perceive their saleswomen to be particularly weak in knowledge and selling skills, should examine the manner in which knowledge and skills are transmitted within their companies and be certain that the training needs of their saleswomen are being adequately met.

Training in Interpersonal Relations. The dysfunctional pattern of interpersonal relations that was noted in saleswomen who sell to in-home consumers may be correctable. Sales managers who perceive this problem among the saleswomen on their staffs need to (1) make the women aware of the problem, and (2) develop programs for the purpose of training them in alternative interpersonal skills.⁵

Assertiveness and Sensitivity Training. Those women whose sex role types are not congruent with the job environment may need special help. Saleswomen who are weak in masculine traits may be able to strengthen them by receiving assertiveness training. Saleswomen who are weak in feminine traits may be able to strengthen them by receiving sensitivity training.

Supervision and Evaluation. The study suggested that the performance of saleswomen was perceived to be less effective when communication difficulties existed between sales managers and saleswomen (e.g., sales managers felt uncomfortable in supervising them, were not familiar with the work of saleswomen). Sales

managers should try to establish on-going dialogues with the women in their employ. The BSRI could be used as the basis of such a dialogue.⁶ Such dialogues could serve to open the channels of communication, making it easier for sales managers to give constructive criticism, and for saleswomen to receive it.⁷

Incentive Systems. Based on the findings of this research, special incentive programs would be most usefully directed toward upgrading performance of "prospecting" and "retaining" activities, since these are the functions that appear to suffer most when motivation is insufficient.

Sex Bias on Salesforces. Because of the bias uncovered in this research, those sales managers who are male, who feel less comfortable supervising women than men, and who supervise fewer than 40% women, as well as those who have only infrequent contacts with the women they supervise, should be alert to the possibilities that they may, unconsciously, be mentally stereotyping their saleswomen. Since the behavior of "stereotypers" can actually elicit stereotypic behavior on the part of the "stereotypees," it is possible that, by their very manner, these sales managers are inadvertently contributing to the problem of stereotypic behavior and reduced performance effectiveness of their saleswomen.

Managerial Recommendations

The findings of the research suggest that sales managers should continue their efforts to recruit women onto their sales forces. While some loss in selling effectiveness is probably attributable to gender stereotypic behavior, the findings suggest that there are ways to minimize such problems. Specific recommendations are addressed toward each of the three different selling situations:

Selling to Organizational End Users

Sales managers who supervise sales forces that sell to organizational end users should focus their recruiting and selection activities on women who have both strong masculine and feminine traits (androgynous females). Training programs should focus on improving job-related knowledge and skills, and should include both assertiveness and sensitivity training. Assertiveness and sensitivity training should both be included because masculine and feminine traits were both strongly associated with selling effectiveness. No remedial training in interpersonal skills appears necessary, since stereotypic behavior in "human relations" did not relate to reduced effectiveness of performance of any

the functions. Incentive programs should be directed toward improving performance of "prospecting" and "retaining," since performance of both of these functions appeared to suffer when motivation was perceived to be insufficient.

Selling to In-Home Consumers

Sales managers who supervise salesforces that sell large ticket items to in-home consumers should focus their recruiting and selection activities on saleswomen with strong masculine traits (masculine females). Training programs should focus on developing job-related knowledge and selling skills. Training programs should include assertiveness training as well as remedial training to help saleswomen develop alternative interpersonal skills. Assertiveness training is important because masculine traits were strongly related to successful performance in this selling situation. Remedial training in alternative interpersonal skills should be included since stereotypic behavior in "human relations" was associated with reduced effectiveness. Sensitivity training should be given only sparingly, because an excess of feminine traits appears to be associated with a pattern of interpersonal relationships that detracts from effectiveness in "probing" and "closing." The feminine traits of saleswomen only appeared to be assets when saleswomen delivered their sales presentations.

Special incentive programs should be directed toward improving performance of the function of prospecting since it appeared to suffer when saleswomen had insufficient motivation.

Selling to Resellers

Sales managers who supervise salesforces that sell to resellers should focus their recruiting and selecting activities on saleswomen who have both strong masculine and feminine traits (androgynous females). Training programs should include training in job-related knowledge and selling skills. Training programs should include both assertiveness and sensitivity training, since masculine and feminine traits were both found to be strongly associated with effective selling. Training programs should include remedial training in alternative interpersonal skills, since stereotypic behavior in this area was associated with reduced effectiveness of "stimulating desire" and of "closing." No special types of incentive programs are indicated for this selling situation, since problems with "motivation" were not associated with reduced performance of any of the functions. Sales managers who supervise large territories should make an effort to get to know the women who work for them, to be sure that they are not evaluating them in terms of stereotypes rather than as individuals.

Limitations of the Study and

Suggestions for Future Research

The present study can be viewed as a precursor of further research. The limitations of the study suggest the direction of that research:

The Sample

Certain characteristics of the sample limit the generalizability of the research.

One Geographic Area. The samples of sales managers and saleswomen was generally restricted to the Baltimore-Washington area. The results, therefore, cannot be generalized outside of that area. Since the responding sales managers tended to be older and better educated than national averages, the perceptions of these sales managers may not reflect the perceptions of younger, less-educated managers. The saleswomen they described tended to be younger and better educated than national averages. Saleswomen who are older and less-educated might be perceived differently. The study should be replicated using a sample from a different geographic area or with a national sample.

Male-Oriented Jobs. The sample of sales jobs was restricted to types of jobs that traditionally have been performed by males, the results cannot be generalized to types of jobs that have traditionally been performed by females (e.g., retail selling). Research is needed to determine the manner in which perceived gender stereotypic behavior, selling effectiveness, and sex role type relate to each other in traditionally female types of selling.

Restricted to Women. The study was restricted to perceptions of the behavior of women. While many of the findings are potentially applicable to salesmen, the conclusions of this study cannot be generalized to them. Research is needed to determine whether the same relationships are perceived in the case of salesmen.

A Correlational Study

Two important limitations arise from the correlational nature of the study:

The Issue of Causality. The study is correlational only. We cannot tell whether saleswomen's masculinity and femininity scores are a cause of, or a result of, their selling effectiveness. It is possible that saleswomen's masculine and feminine traits are strengthened as a result of sales training, as well as a result of

successful performance on the job. Longitudinal research is needed to clarify how saleswomen's sex role types change over time.

The Issue of Predictiveness. The study does not determine whether sex role type of a woman predicts her later selling effectiveness. Before the BSRI can be recommended as a selection tool, longitudinal research must be performed to resolve this important issue.

Method Bias

The behavior of saleswomen was described exclusively through the eyes of their sales managers. This introduced a problem with method bias.

Selling Effectiveness. Selling effectiveness was measured by the perceptions of sales managers only. While it can be argued that sales managers are the "key" respondents since it is part of their jobs to evaluate the performance of salespersonnel, other possible measures of selling effectiveness exist (e.g., self-ratings by saleswomen; quantitative measures). Self-ratings are believed to be of questionable value when the purpose of the study is the determination of selling effectiveness.⁸ Self-ratings have a strong potential for leniency bias (i.e., individuals tend to rate themselves higher than do other evaluators). (For a discussion of leniency bias in self-ratings of performance see

Thornton 1980.)

Objective measures of performance are difficult to apply across a wide variety of selling jobs. Selling situations differ widely among industries and among firms within industries. (For discussions of the problems involved in using quantitative measures across industries see Darden and French 1970 and Behrman and Perreault 1982). The potential for error within a single firm by using uni-dimensional quantitative measures was illustrated by a classic article by Levin (1963) who demonstrated that five different quantitative performance measures produced five different ratings of excellence of selling performance. Some problems of these uni-dimensional measures can be circumvented by combining them into composite scores using weights (e.g., Cravens and Woodruff 1973; Ryans and Weinberg 1979). It is recommended that in future research, the use of quantitative measures be considered, but only in situations where they can be appropriately used. Their use should be restricted to situations in which the research involves salespersonnel within one single firm and when several uni-dimensional measures can be meaningfully combined into a multi-dimensional summary measure.

Perceptions of Sex Role Identities. The sex role identity of saleswomen was measured by the perceptions of sales managers. The sex role identities of saleswomen would more appropriately have

been measured by their own self-reports (which was not feasible in the present study, see discussion on page 134). The failure to include self-reports of saleswomen introduced two problems: (1) the extent of agreement between perceptions of salesmanagers and saleswomen was not determined,⁹ and (2) some bias due to "halo effect" may be present (e.g., the sales managers' responses to the function effectiveness items might have influenced their responses to the items of the BSRI; the "good" or "bad" feelings sales managers experienced about the women after describing the quality of their performance may have colored their descriptions of the positively valued masculine and feminine traits).

Research is needed to evaluate the degree of correspondence between the perceptions of sales managers and saleswomen. In addition, whenever possible, research involving both performance evaluation by sales managers and the sex role identities of salespersonnel should include self-reports of sex role identity from the salespersons involved (as well as reports by the managers, if desired). For administrative as well as ethical considerations, such research would need to be performed in situations in which both strong administrative control and personal contact between researcher and subject are possible, possibly in a laboratory setting.

Other Bias

Other possible biases in the study include: (1) sex bias and (2) the bias of acquiescence.

Sex Bias. There was an indication of sex bias in the responses of some of the sales managers who supervised saleswomen selling to organizational end users. Similar error may have been introduced by responding sales managers who were not as familiar with the performance of saleswomen as were others. The error that was introduced is probably in the direction of confirming the stereotypes.

Acquiescence. The degree of "yea saying" or acquiescence among responding sales managers was not tested. Post hoc examination of the items on the individual stereotype scales revealed that the reversal of polarity of items was unbalanced. Most items were reversed in the "selling ability" stereotype scales while most items were not reversed on the "human relations" and "motivation" stereotype scales. In future research, 50% of the items on each scale should be reverse coded. (The problems encountered when attempting to reverse code these items were discussed on page 135.) In future research, two versions of the questionnaire might be used, each with a different set of items reverse coded. Responses to the two versions of the questionnaire could then be compared as

a test of the degree of acquiescence.

Scoring of BSRI

The study was limited because of the manner in which saleswomen were classified into sex role types. The median split procedure that was used is in common use in research using the BSRI, but is limited because it is sample based. Several problems relating to interpretation resulted: (1) the classification of any particular saleswomen was only relative, which could be misleading since, in comparison with the general population, these saleswomen scored very high in both masculine and feminine traits (e.g., a saleswomen who was classified as "undifferentiated" in this research might be classified as "androgynous" in comparison with women in the general public), (2) since saleswomen were classified into sex role types based on the medians of their own samples, the definition of "androgynous," "masculine," "feminine," and "undifferentiated," females was different in the three different samples. While there is precedent for this in the sex role identity literature (e.g., Hamby and Shapiro 1983), conclusions involving comparisons among the three samples are thereby weakened.

Norms are Needed. In future research involving sex role types of saleswomen, the values used to separate saleswomen into sex role types should be pre-determined. Appropriate norms need to be

established, both for research purposes and for use by sales managers who may want to apply the results. One suggestion would be to adopt the overall sample median of the masculinity and femininity scores determined by this research: 5.3 (M), 5.2 (F). Another possibility would be to use an average of the medians weighted by the representativeness of each type of salesperson in the sample. In this research, these values were: 5.31 (M), 5.29 (F). It may be that different norms actually apply to different selling situations. Sales managers might want to use the medians of the sample in which their saleswomen were classified as norms. These were: (1) selling to organizational end users: 5.25 (M), 5.05 (F); (2) selling to in-home consumers: 5.30 (M), 5.50 (F); (3) selling to resellers: 5.50 (M), 5.20 (F). Further research should be conducted using standardization samples for the specific purpose of developing norms for use in selling situations. Standardization samples might include saleswomen from traditionally female areas of selling as well as some from traditionally male areas of selling.

Relative Importance of "Types" versus "Traits". Caution should be used in assigning individual saleswomen to sex role types. There is much room for error, and those individuals whose scores lie close to the median are likely to be misclassified. It is strongly recommended that further research in this area not focus on the assignment of individuals to categories, but rather on the

strength of their masculine and feminine traits. The results could then be analyzed using multiple regression techniques. Comparison of results across samples would be greatly facilitated and the problem of classification to sex role types would be eliminated.

Terminology of the BSRI

The Bem Sex Role Inventory is somewhat dated. Masculine and feminine items were developed from traditional cultural values that have been changing rapidly. At the time the scale was developed (circa 1974), people were not as sensitive to "sexism" in language as they are today. There is presently some sensitivity to the use of the terms "masculinity" and "femininity," and many researchers now substitute the terms "instrumentality" and "expressiveness" (e.g., Jagacinski 1987). Because it was felt that the older terms ("masculinity" and "femininity") would be more meaningful to sales managers, they were used in the writing of this report. It should be understood that the terms "masculinity" and "femininity" are used synonymously with "instrumentality" and "expressiveness" in the discussion.

Measurement Issues

Certain aspects of measurement impact upon the confidence we may place in the conclusions and suggest further areas for research.

The Validity of the Scales. The construct validity of the function effectiveness and stereotype scales was not established. Also, the issue of the dimensionality of the stereotype scales needs to be resolved. These issues should be resolved before any further use of these scales is attempted.

Statistical Limitations

Some limitations result from the manner in which the statistical tests were applied to the data.

Statistical Assumptions. The data did not conform to all of the assumptions underlying the derivation of the statistical tests (See Appendix F). The results probably over-estimate the true significance levels and effect sizes slightly.

Requirements of Computer Software. The generalizability of the results of hypothesis seven (the relationship between sex role types and individual function effectiveness scores), is limited to saleswomen who perform all of the functions of selling, because of the requirements of the computer program that was used (SPSS^x MANOVA). In the case of those saleswomen who sold to resellers, the function of prospecting is exempt from this requirement.

An Agenda for Future Research

Based on the foregoing limitations, an agenda for future research is proposed:

- (1) A study should be performed to determine the extent of agreement between the perceptions of sales managers and saleswomen of the sex role identities of saleswomen on the BSRI.
- (2) Research should be performed to establish norms for scoring the BSRI in different types of selling situations.
- (3) Research should be performed to validate the gender stereotype scales and the function effectiveness scale.
- (4) A longitudinal study should be performed to determine whether sex role masculinity and femininity scores change over time in response to conditions on the job.
- (5) Another longitudinal study should be performed to establish the predictiveness of the BSRI. The masculinity and femininity scores of applicants for sales positions should be evaluated and compared with the selling effectiveness of the same women on the job.
- (6) The study should be replicated with a sample of men.
- (7) The study should be replicated in a different area of the country and/or nationally.

Endnotes

1. See Leigh 1987 for a recent review of the use of personality tests in the sales selection process.
2. The relationship that was established in this research between sex role type and selling effectiveness is correlational only. There is no basis to determine whether saleswomen are more effective performers because of their sex role type, or whether these traits develop as a by-product of effective performance.
3. The "sexism" issue seems to relate more to the use of "sexist" terminology than to discriminatory practices that might result from the use of the scale. Changing the names of the scales from "masculinity" and "femininity" to "instrumentality" and "expressiveness," as has been done by a number of current researchers (e.g., Jagacinski 1987), would help. De-emphasizing classification into sex role types and emphasizing the relative strength of the "instrumental" and "expressive" components of sex role identity would also help.
4. While research in other disciplines has found that individuals tend to prefer and choose vocations that are congruent

with their sex role types (e.g., Clarey and Sanford 1982), Comer and Jolson (1985) found some indication that female students of sales management were interested in selling jobs that were inappropriate to their sex role types.

5. Script-based training combined with role playing exercise is a promising approach that might be useful in such behavioral training programs (See Leigh 1987 for a recent discussion of the use of script-based learning in sales training programs).

6. Sales managers and saleswomen could compare their perceptions of the saleswomen's sex role identity. They could discuss the importance of the traits in their selling areas and how improvement in the traits might enhance their selling performance.

7. Sales managers might also consider developing evaluation systems around performance of the functions of selling, such as was used in this study. The procedure focuses on specific behavioral aspects of performance. Constructive criticisms based on such an evaluations would be helpful to saleswomen and might also contribute to the on-going dialogue between saleswomen and their managers.

8. Chonko, Howell and Bellinger (1986) suggest that self-ratings are more commonly used in research involving job satisfaction than in research involving selling effectiveness.

9. While some degree of correspondence between perceptions of sex role identity by the self and by another has been reported (e.g., Spence and Helmreich 1978; Alperson and Friedman 1983), these studies investigate perceptions of persons who are in social relationships (e.g., parents/children, heterosexual couples) not in business relationships.

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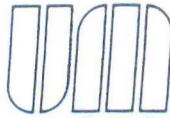
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APPENDIX A

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL AND THANK YOU LETTER



THE UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND

COLLEGE OF BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT
College Park, Maryland 20742

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL

September __, 1988

Mr. John Doe
Sales Manager
John Doe Corporation
Gaithersburg, Maryland 20877

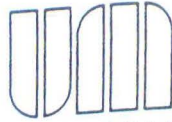
Dear Mr. Doe:

I greatly appreciated the nice conversation I had with you today and am enclosing the questionnaire that I discussed with you together with a postage-paid envelope for your response. I may be telephoning you in a few days to find out whether you have any questions.

Thank you in advance for your help with this project. I will be sure to send you a copy of the summary report as soon as it becomes available.

Sincerely yours,

Lucette B. Comer
Doctoral Candidate



THE UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND
COLLEGE OF BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT
College Park, Maryland 20742

LETTER OF THANKS

September __, 1988

Ms. Jane Doe
Sales Manager
XYZ Corporation
Baltimore, Maryland

Dear Ms. Doe:

I would like to thank you for your responsiveness to my survey about women in selling and for your willingness to take time from your busy schedule to complete the questionnaire. Please be assured that your help is greatly appreciated.

I will send you a copy of the summary report of the study as soon as it becomes available. This will probably be some time in the spring.

Meanwhile, thanks for your interest and your very valuable assistance.

Sincerely yours,

Lucette B. Comer
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX B

COVER LETTER AND QUESTIONNAIRE



THE UNIVERSITY OF MARYLAND
COLLEGE OF BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT
College Park, Maryland 20742

Dear Sales Manager:

Thank you for your positive response to our recent telephone conversation about women in selling. It is apparent that women are appearing more frequently on sales forces that were originally staffed only by males. My doctoral dissertation will attempt to measure the effectiveness of various types of females in performing a variety of selling tasks.

The attached questionnaire requests your descriptions of some of the saleswomen who report to you. Please select up to 4 of your saleswomen, who you feel are maximally different from each other in their selling style, performance and results. You may find it simpler to compare 4 people than to limit your description to 1 or 2.

The questionnaire is not brief. Completing it may involve as much as one half hour of your time. We realize that this is a heavy demand, but we believe that the importance of this research justifies the time expenditure. As a participant, you will receive a copy of the final report. You may also derive some personal benefits through the insights you gain when completing the thought-provoking items.

Since our purpose is to pinpoint differences among saleswomen, please be highly critical in your responses. Only you will know the identity of the individual(s), and your responses will be kept completely confidential. Reports will reflect only summary data. It is particularly important that you answer all of the questions. Please return your completed questionnaire in the enclosed self-addressed, postage-paid envelope within one week.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation. If you have any questions about this research, or any other related matter, please do not hesitate to call collect.

(Ms.) Lucette B. Comer
Ph.D. Candidate
(301) 871-3896

QUESTIONNAIRE

I. The personal selling process consists of a series of tasks that sales people perform. These are:

- (1) Prospecting: Identifying prospective customers for the firm and/or its product.
- (2) Contacting: The first one-on-one relationship between the salesperson and the prospect.
- (3) Probing for Needs: Determination of the prospect's needs/problem areas.
- (4) Stimulating Desire for the Product: The actual sales presentation/discussion.
- (5) Closing: Asking for, and obtaining, the order.
- (6) Retaining: Retaining the order and the customer including the rendering of post-transactional services.
- (7) Non-selling Activities: Tasks that must be performed by the salesperson but which are not part of the actual selling duties (e.g., record keeping, control of expenses).

On a scale from 0 to 10 please indicate the relative importance of each to the selling job in your firm. Assume 0 refers to a task that is completely irrelevant, and 10 refers to one that is critically important to successful salesmanship in your organization.

Prospecting	—
Contacting	—
Probing for needs	—
Stimulating desire	—
Closing	—
Retaining	—
Non-Selling activities	—

II. Please select 1 to 4 saleswomen under your supervision, who you feel are maximally different from each other in their selling style, performance, and results. Designate them as Saleswoman A, B, C and D (Saleswoman A = SW-A). Respond to the items about each of them in the appropriate columns. If you describe only one saleswoman, use the columns for SW-A and leave the rest of the columns blank; if you describe two, use the columns for SW-A and SW-B. Be sure you consistently use the same column for each individual saleswoman throughout the questionnaire.

2.
II. On a scale of 0 to 10 (where 10 is the highest level of effectiveness), indicate how effectively each saleswoman performs the seven tasks. If the task is not relevant to the saleswoman's job, place an X in the appropriate space.

- | | SW-A | SW-B | SW-C | SW-D |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------|------|------|------|
| (1) <u>Prospecting</u> . Effectiveness in prospecting involves generating sufficient numbers of good prospects to be contacted for the firm's product as required. (Good prospects are potential customers that have a need for the product, the ability to buy it, and the authority to make the purchasing decision). Effective prospectors do not avoid cold calling when it is necessary to the job. | | | | |
| (2) <u>Contacting</u> . Effectiveness in contacting involves routing calls efficiently, getting in doors easily, making excellent first impressions, establishing rapport quickly, and establishing the legitimacy of the company and the credibility of herself as its representative. | | | | |
| (3) <u>Probing for Needs</u> . Effectiveness in probing for needs involves being adept at identifying the needs or problem areas of prospects/customers. Effective probers are good listeners and are able to direct the probing process through the use of discerning questions. | | | | |
| (4) <u>Stimulating Desire</u> . Good performance of stimulating desire involves giving articulate, informative, and persuasive presentations/demonstrations that address the needs of prospects/customers. Effective stimulators often use sales aids (e.g., visual aids, product demonstrations) effectively, as appropriate to the presentation, field questions and objections and deal with them effectively, and are knowledgeable about competitive products, making effective comparisons between them and the company's product when appropriate to do so. They permit two way communication throughout their presentations, but retain strong control of the interview. | | | | |
| (5) <u>Closing</u> . Effectiveness in closing involves asking for, and obtaining, the order, as appropriate to the job. Salespersons who are effective closers approach the close with confidence, and have a good sense of timing when asking for the order. If the order is not obtained on the first attempt, they follow up as appropriate to the selling situation. | | | | |
| (6) <u>Retaining the Sale and the Customer</u> . Effectiveness in retaining the sale and the customer involves follow-up after the sale to be sure that the customer receives the product as promised, (e.g., on time, in good condition, serviced and installed), and providing good customer services, as appropriate. Effective retainers maintain regular contact with customers, are responsive to changes in customers' product-related needs, and keep customers informed about new products and new applications. They handle dissatisfaction and complaints expeditiously. | | | | |
| (7) <u>Non-Selling Duties</u> . Good performance of non-selling duties involves such things as keeping accurate and up-to-date records, filing call reports promptly, and controlling expenses. | | | | |

3.

III. The following section lists a series of personal characteristics that are not necessarily associated with one's job performance. Indicate how closely you feel each of these traits describe each saleswoman, using the following scale:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	
	Never or almost never true	Usually not true	Sometimes but infrequently true	Occasionally true	Often true	Usually true	Always or almost always true	
(1) Defends own beliefs								SW-A SW-B SW-C SW-D
(2) Is affectionate								
(3) Is independent (e.g., prefers to stand on own feet in that is capable of acting free of the influence or guidance of others)								
(4) Is sympathetic								
(5) Is assertive (e.g., is characterized by determination and boldness in stating opinions, or in otherwise making her presence or influence felt)								
(6) Is sensitive to the needs of others								
(7) Has a strong personality								
(8) Is understanding								
(9) Is forceful								
(10) Is compassionate								
(11) Has leadership abilities								
(12) Is eager to soothe hurt feelings								
(13) Is willing to take risks								
(14) Is warm								
(15) Is dominant (e.g., is forceful, masterful, and authoritative)								
(16) Is tender (is softhearted)								
(17) Is willing to take a stand on issues								
(18) Loves children								
(19) Is aggressive (e.g., is marked by bold determination or combative readiness)								
(20) Is gentle								

IV. Below is a list of characteristics that are associated with one's success in selling. Please indicate how closely you feel each statement describes each saleswoman.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Never or almost never true	Usually not true	Sometimes but infrequently true	Occasionally true	Often true	Usually true	Always or almost always true

- | | SW-A | SW-B | SW-C | SW-D |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| (1) Is not well organized. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| (2) Tends to over-socialize with prospects/customers during sales interviews. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| (3) Tends to avoid activities that she considers to be unpleasant. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| (4) Has strong persuasive skills. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| (5) Accepts prospects' excuses and objections at face value. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| (6) Lacks confidence. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| (7) Displays unusually fine product knowledge. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| (8) Tends to relinquish control of sales interviews to customers. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| (9) Has overly emotional reaction to rejections on job. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| (10) Catches on to new concepts quickly. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| (11) Over-nurtures customers (i.e., spends too much time on providing extra services to present customers while neglecting other aspects of the job, such as prospecting for new customers). | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| (12) Needs continual reinforcement to sustain performance. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| (13) Adapts quickly to non-routine situations. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| (14) Functions well as "team player" (i.e., cooperates with others on job). | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| (15) Allows family responsibilities and/or personal considerations to interfere with job. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| (16) Really knows the job (i.e., clearly understands how to perform her job including tasks to be performed, priorities of tasks, and how to allocate time among tasks). | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| (17) Maintains sexually neutral manner on the job at all times. | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| (18) Has "dynamic inner drive" (i.e., makes every sacrifice of time and effort that is necessary to succeed). | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |

V. We need some information that will allow us to evaluate the comparability of saleswomen. Please respond to the following questions about each saleswomen you have described, by placing a check in the appropriate space.:

	SW-A	SW-B	SW-C	SW-D
(1) What is her age?				
16-19				
20-24				
25-34				
35-44				
45-54				
55 or older				
Don't know				
(2) What is her education?				
High school not completed				
High school graduate				
Some college level work				
Bachelor's degree				
Some graduate work				
Graduate degree				
Don't know				
(3) What is her marital status?				
Married				
Never married				
Widow/widower				
Divorced/Separated				
Don't know				
(4) How long has she been employed in her present sales job?				
Less than 1 year				
1-5 years				
6-10 years				
11-20 years				
More than 20 years				
Don't know				

VI. We also need some information that will allow us to evaluate the comparability of responses among salesmanagers. Please respond to the following questions about yourself/your company:

(1) What is your age?	_____ Younger than 20	_____ 20-24	_____ 25-34
	_____ 35-44	_____ 45-54	_____ 55 or older
(2) What is your education?	_____ High school not completed	_____ Bachelor's degree	
	_____ High school graduate	_____ Some Graduate work	
	_____ Some college level work	_____ Graduate degree	
(3) What is your sex?	_____ male	_____ female	

GO ON TO NEXT PAGE

- (4) Approximately what percentage of your company's local salesforce are female?
_____ percent
- (5) What percentage of the salespersons that you personally supervise are female?
_____ percent
- (6) How well-qualified do you feel you are to describe the characteristics of each saleswoman?
- | | SW-A | SW-B | SW-C | SW-D |
|-----------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Very qualified | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| Somewhat qualified | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| Somewhat un-qualified | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| Very un-qualified | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
- (7) In comparison with the way other managers on your same level might evaluate each saleswoman, how lenient do you feel you have been in your evaluations?
- | | | | | |
|---------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Very lenient | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| Neither lenient nor harsh | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
| Very harsh | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |
- (8) How comfortable do you feel about supervising females (in comparison with supervising males)?
- | | |
|-------|----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| _____ | Feel much more comfortable about supervising females than males |
| _____ | Feel somewhat more comfortable about supervising females than males |
| _____ | Feel no difference in comfort about supervising females versus males |
| _____ | Feel somewhat less comfortable about supervising females than males |
| _____ | Feel much less comfortable when supervising females than males |
- (9) Who is the typical customer in your business? (e.g., in-home consumer, reseller, industrial end-user).
Typical Customer: _____
- (10) On a scale of 0 to 100, evaluate the overall selling effectiveness of each saleswoman. Consider 100 to represent superior performance, and 0 to represent unacceptable performance.
- | | SW-A | SW-B | SW-C | SW-D |
|--------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Overall Selling Effectiveness Score: | _____ | _____ | _____ | _____ |

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE!!!

APPENDIX C

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

APPENDIX C

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SAMPLE

Three samples were defined by the type of customer normally contacted. The samples are defined on three levels: (1) that of the sales job, (2) that of the sales manager, (3) that of the saleswoman.

The Sample of Selling Jobs

The three samples all involve types of sales jobs that traditionally have been performed primarily by males. These jobs were classified according to the characteristics of the customer normally contacted: (1) organizational end users, (2) in-home consumers, and (3) resellers.

Sample One Selling to Organizational End Users

In this type of selling, customers are organizational decision makers who purchase products for use in their businesses. The products that they buy include equipment and supplies to be used

in: (1) conducting the business (e.g., copy machines, telephone equipment), (2) manufacturing the firm's product (e.g., electronics equipment, steel), or (3) augmenting of the firm's product (e.g., advertising). Also included in this customer group, are decision makers who do not actually purchase the products, but decide what products will be purchased by others (e.g., physicians/pharmaceuticals, professors/textbooks).

Sample Two
Selling to In-Home Consumers.

In this type of selling, customers are in-home consumers who purchase relatively expensive products for consumption by themselves or by their families. In many instances, these customers do not seek out sellers, but are contacted directly by salespersons, in their own homes. Customers make major decisions about things that are important to their personal lives (e.g., homes, insurance, financial planning, home protection systems and encyclopaedias).

Sample Three
Selling to Resellers

In this type of selling, customers are business decision makers who purchase products to be resold for profit. The products that they buy include such things as food products, beverages, wearing

apparel, books, greeting cards, cosmetics, phonograph records, and furniture.

The Sample of Sales Managers

The actual respondents to the survey were sales managers. As seen in Table C-1, the demographic characteristics of the sales managers did not differ significantly among the three samples. These demographic characteristics were compared with 1986 national averages of: (1) "sales supervisors and proprietors," and (2) "total executive, administrative, and managerial personnel" (Bureau of Labor Statistics 1986). Overall, responding sales managers were older, better educated, with a higher percentage of males, than the national averages.

Sample One Selling to Organizational End Users

In comparison with national averages of "sales supervisors and proprietors," sales managers who supervised saleswomen selling to organizational end users, were more likely to be middle-aged ($\chi^2(2)=7.268$, $p < .026$) and well-educated ($\chi^2(2)=107.808$, $p < .001$). They did not differ in the distribution of the sexes ($\chi^2(1)=1.240$, $p > .266$). In

Table C-1
Demographic Characteristics of Responding Sales Managers
Percentages

	Sample one To Organ'l End Users (n = 77)	Sample two To In-Home Consumers (n = 26)	Sample three To Resellers (n = 29)
AGE:			
To 34 years	32.5	19.2	26.0
35 to 44 years	41.6	42.3	38.5
45 years or older	20.0	38.5	27.6
Chi-Square = 3.89163, df = 4, p > .4237			
EDUCATION:			
High School and Some College	27.3	38.5	31.0
College Graduate	39.0	42.3	44.8
Some Graduate Work	33.8	19.2	24.1
Chi-Square = 2.70791, df = 4, p > .6078			
SEX:			
MALE	75.3	92.3	89.7
Female	24.7	7.7	20.3
Chi-Square = 5.30294, df = 2, p > .0705			

comparison with national averages of "total executive, administrative, and managerial personnel," respondents were more likely to be older ($\chi^2(3)=36.272, p < .001$), well-educated ($\chi^2(3)=13.223, p < .004$), and male ($\chi^2(1)=10.993, p < .001$).

Sample Two
Selling to In-Home Consumers.

In comparison with national averages of "sales supervisors and proprietors," sales managers who supervised saleswomen selling large-ticket items to in-home consumers were more likely to be middle aged ($\chi^2(2)=14.002, p < .003$), well-educated ($\chi^2(2) = 26.930, p < .001$), and male ($\chi^2(1)=6.388, p < .011$). In comparison with national averages of "total executive, administrative, and managerial personnel," respondents were more likely to be older ($\chi^2(3)=15.719, p < .001$), college graduates ($\chi^2(3)=8.855, p < .031$), and male ($\chi^2(1)=13.497, p < .001$).

Sample Three
Selling to Resellers

In comparison with national averages of "sales supervisors and proprietors," sales managers who supervised saleswomen selling products to resellers were more likely to be: (1) college graduates ($\chi^2(2)=38.877, p < .001$) and (2) male ($\chi^2(1)=5.566,$

$p < .018$). They did not differ from national averages in age ($\chi^2(2) = .185$, $p > .912$). In comparison with national averages of "total executive, administrative, and managerial personnel," these sales managers were more likely to be: (1) male ($\chi^2(1) = 12.901$, $p < .001$) and college graduates ($\chi^2(3) = 10.345$, $p < .016$), but did not differ from national averages in age ($\chi^2(3) = 7.432$, $p > .059$).

The Sample of Sales Women

While the data were contributed by sales managers, the focus of the analysis was on the saleswomen who they described. As seen in Table C-2, the demographic characteristics of the saleswomen were found to differ significantly. As a result, the samples were not combined, but were analyzed separately and the results compared. The demographic characteristics of the saleswomen in the three samples are summarized in Table C-2. Proportionately more saleswomen who sold to in-home consumers were in the 35 year and older group than were in those in the other samples, while proportionately more saleswomen who sold to resellers were in the 24 year and younger group. Proportionately more saleswomen who sold to industrial end users were college graduates while proportionately more saleswomen who sold to resellers had high

Table C-2
Demographic Characteristics of Saleswomen
Percentages

	Sample one To Organ'1 End Users	Sample two In-Home Cnsumers	Sample three To Resellers
AGE:			
To 24 years	9.9	8.3	20.6
25-34 years	63.9	20.8	42.9
35 years or older	26.2	70.8	36.5
Chi-Square = 53.96865, df = 4, p < .0001			
EDUCATION:			
High School only	12.6	18.3	35.0
Some College	17.5	31.7	15.0
College Grads	69.9	50.0	50.0
Chi-Square = 22.63343, df = 4, p < .0001			
MARITAL STATUS:			
Married	40.1	55.6	30.2
Single	59.9	44.4	69.8
Chi-Square = 9.35707, df = 2, p < .0093			
TENURE ON JOB:			
Less than one year	17.1	26.1	20.6
1-5 years	65.8	52.2	58.7
More than five years	17.1	21.7	20.6
Chi-Square = 4.55278, df = 4, p > .3363 (ns)			

school educations only. Proportionately more saleswomen who sold to in-home consumers were married than those in the other two groups. These differences were significant by chi-square test at $p < .05$. No significant differences were found among the three samples in length of time on the job.

The demographic characteristics of the three samples were compared with 1986 national averages of saleswomen of "commodities, exclusive of retail" (Bureau of Labor Statistics 1986). Saleswomen in samples one and three were more likely to be young (sample one: $\chi^2(3)=115.744$, $p < .001$, sample three: $\chi^2(3)=11.089$, $p < .011$) and college graduates (sample one: $\chi^2(3)=83.780$, $p < .000$; sample three: $\chi^2(3)=40.579$, $p < .001$) than the national average. The demographic characteristics of the saleswomen in sample two did not differ from the national average (age: $\chi^2(4)=8.155$, $p > .0866$; education: $\chi^2(3)=1.091$, $p > .779$).

APPENDIX D

ESTIMATION OF MISSING DATA

APPENDIX D
ESTIMATION OF MISSING DATA

Missing data in the three individual stereotype scales and in the masculinity and femininity sub-scales of the BSRI were estimated using regression techniques. The technique was chosen because it made use of information about both the individual case and the other items in the scale. The use of the procedure is justified if: (1) good predictors are available within the data set and (2) linearity among the predictors can be assumed. It requires that the variables be correlated with each other. The strong correlations among the items of each scale supported the use of this procedure. Tabachnick and Fidell (1983) recommend the use of the procedure with large sample sizes and with very little missing data.

The number of cases that were missing from each item, and therefore estimated, for the Individual Stereotype scales and the BSRI scales, are given in Table D-1 and D-2, respectively. As can be seen, only a few cases were missing from any item. The exception was the item "loves children" from the femininity scale of the BSRI. Some sales managers apparently either didn't know how

Table D-1
Items with Missing Data on the Individual Stereotype Scales

Items:	Number of Cases	Percent of Data
<u>Selling Ability Stereotype Scale</u>		
4. Has strong persuasive skills (RC)	0	0.0
7. Displays unusually strong product knowledge (RC)	0	0.0
10. Catches on to new concepts quickly (RC)	7	2.1
13. Adapts quickly to non-routine situations (RC)	3	0.9
16. Really knows job (RC)	0	0.0
<u>Human Relations Stereotype Scale</u>		
2. Tends to over-socialize	1	0.3
5. Accepts prospects' excuses and objections at face value	8	2.4
8. Tends to relinquish control of interview	5	1.5
9. Has overly emotional reaction to rejections	4	1.2
11. Over-nurtures customers	6	1.8
<u>Motivation Stereotype Scale</u>		
3. Tends to avoid activities that she considers to be unpleasant	2	0.6
6. Lacks confidence	0	0.0
12. Needs continual reinforcement to sustain performance	0	0.0
15. Allows family responsibilities/personal considerations to interfere with job	0	0.0
18. Has "dynamic inner drive" (RC)	0	0.0

(RC) = Reverse coded

Table D-2
Items with Missing Values on the Masculinity and
Femininity Scales of the BSRI

Items:	Number of Cases	Percent of Data
<hr/>		
MASCULINITY ITEMS		
	1	0.3
Defends own beliefs	0	0.0
Is independent	0	0.0
Is assertive	0	0.0
Has a strong personality	0	0.0
Is forceful	0	0.0
Has leadership abilities	0	0.0
Is willing to take risks	0	0.0
Is dominant	0	0.0
Is willing to take a stand on issues	0	0.0
Is aggressive		
<hr/>		
FEMININITY ITEMS		
	11	3.3
Is affectionate	3	0.9
Is sympathetic	2	0.6
Is sensitive to the needs of others	0	0.0
Is understanding	4	1.2
Is compassionate	16	4.7
Is eager to soothe hurt feelings	5	1.5
Is warm	7	2.1
Is tender	44	13.1
Loves children	9	2.7
Is gentle		
<hr/>		

their saleswomen felt about children or did not see the relevance of the item. Because the BSRI was being used as a standardized scale, this item was retained and the missing values estimated using the above technique.

As a test on the adequacy of the technique used, the missing values for the masculinity and femininity sub-scales were estimated in two other ways: (1) substituting the average of the other items on the scale for the individual, and (2) substituting the mean value of the missing item for the sample. Saleswomen were classified into sex role types on the basis of the scores on the BSRI using the three different sets of missing values. It was found that very little difference in classification occurred as a result of the technique used. Only one saleswomen was classified differently. Accordingly, the values that had been estimated using regression techniques were used in the subsequent data analysis.

APPENDIX E

QUALITY OF THE MEASUREMENT SCALES

APPENDIX E

QUALITY OF THE MEASUREMENT SCALES

Issues relating to the quality of the measurement scales used in the research are now discussed.

Individual Stereotype Scales

This section discusses issues that pertain to the gender stereotype scales.

Construction of the Scales

Items were combined into individual stereotype scales by summing each saleswoman's scores on the individual items and averaging them. Items were combined into the overall stereotype scale by summing each saleswoman's scores on the three individual stereotype scales and averaging them. While the scale of the data was only ordinal, the data were treated as interval scale in the analysis. Kerlinger (1973) argues that the practice of treating ordinal data as interval is well established and recommends that researchers treat "ordinal" data as "interval," given that they are

alert to gross inequality of intervals. He further argues that the existence of a neutral point in Likert items implies a "zero" point which justifies the averaging of the scales.

Reliability Analysis

The reliability of the scale was evaluated in the manner recommended by Churchill (1979). The results are described below:

Factor Analysis. A principal components analysis with varimax rotation was first performed on the items of the "selling ability," "human relations," and "motivation" stereotype scales. It can be seen in Table E-1 that the results did not confirm the dimensionality of the scales. Three factors were extracted, but these factors did not conform to the three stereotype scales as they had been conceptualized. In addition, some of the items loaded on more than one factor. In particular, the items on the "human relations" and "motivation" scales were highly inter-related. Since there was no reason to believe that the scales would be orthogonal, an oblique rotation was attempted, but it failed to converge. It was concluded that there was likely to be a great deal of shared variance among the items of the scales.

Internal Consistency Analysis. The internal consistency of the individual scales was then evaluated. In order to maximize the internal consistency, three items were deleted: the item "is not

Table E-1
Varimax Rotated Factor Structure for
Items from Individual Stereotype Scales

Item:		Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Job Knowledge	(SA)	.78924	.31350	
New Concepts	(SA)	.77072		
Product Knowledge	(SA)	.72795		
Dynamic Inner Drive	(Mo)	.70738		
Persuasiveness	(SA)	.68731	.37740	
Non-routine Situations	(SA)	.66048		
Loses Control	(HR)	.33995	.79212	
Lacks Confidence	(Mo)	.47043	.66250	
Over-Nurtures	(HR)		.65675	.37162
Accepts Excuses	(HR)		.65156	
Over-Emotionalism	(HR)		.63530	.38024
Needs Reinforcement	(Mo)		.58733	.37785
Over-Socializes	(HR)		.44175	.40172
Family Responsibilities	(Mo)			.79176
Avoids Unpleasantness	(Mo)			.68511
Eigenvalues	6.6	1.4	1.1	
Percent of Variance				
Explained	44.1	9.6	7.4	

SA = Item on Selling Ability Stereotype Scale
HR = Item on Human Relations Stereotype Scale
Mo = Item on Motivation Stereotype Scale

well organized," was deleted from the ability stereotype scale and the items, "functions well as team player," and "maintains sexually neutral manner on the job at all times" were deleted from the human relations stereotype scales. The results of the reliability analysis appear in Table E-2. The final internal consistencies for the three scales as well as for the overall stereotype scale have been reported previously (See page 158).

Overall Selling Effectiveness Scale

This section discusses issues that pertain to the overall selling effectiveness scale.

Construction of the Scale

The scores on the individual function effectiveness and non-selling activities scales were combined using a weighted average technique. Importance weights were obtained from sales managers for each of the functions and non-selling activities for each job. Importance scores ranged from "0," referring to a function or activity that was completely irrelevant to the job to "10" referring to a function or activity that was critically important to successful salesmanship on the job. Table E-3 gives the summary statistics for these importance weights, and confirms that a good

Table E-2
Measures of Reliability for Stereotype Scales
Item-Total Correlations

Item:	BEFORE PURIFICATION	AFTER PURIFICATION
<u>Selling Ability Stereotype Scale</u>		
1. Is not well organized	.319	---
4. Has strong persuasive skills (RC)	.576	.599
7. Displays unusually strong product knowledge (RC)	.591	.596
10. Catches on to new concepts quickly (RC)	.704	.742
13. Adapts quickly to non-routine situations (RC)	.618	.628
16. Really knows job (RC)	.735	.753
ALPHA	.813	.850
<u>Human Relations Stereotype Scale</u>		
2. Tends to over-socialize	.492	.450
5. Accepts prospects' excuses and objections at face value	.436	.499
8. Tends to relinquish control of interview	.581	.632
9. Has overly emotional reaction to rejections	.602	.566
11. Over-nurtures customers	.450	.517
14. Functions well as "team player" (RC)	.341	---
17. Maintains sexually neutral manner on the job at all times (RC)	.315	---
ALPHA	.744	.762
<u>Motivation Stereotype Scale</u>		
3. Tends to avoid activities that she considers to be unpleasant	---	.537
6. Lacks confidence	---	.627
12. Needs continual reinforcement to sustain performance	---	.572
15. Allows family responsibilities/personal considerations to interfere with job	---	.500
18. Has "dynamic inner drive" (RC)	---	.609
ALPHA		.790

(RC) = Reverse coded

Table E-3
Summary Statistics of Importance Weights
Comparison of the Three Samples

Importance of:	Sample one To Organ'l End Users			Sample two To In-Home Consumers			Sample three To Resellers		
	Mean	S.D.	Range	Mean	S.D.	Range	Mean	S.D.	Range
Prospecting	7.70	2.91	3-10	9.15	1.70	3-10	5.47	4.05	1-10
Contacting	8.57	1.97	4-10	9.38	.81	7-10	7.44	3.00	2-10
Probing	8.86	1.35	4-10	8.11	2.09	1-10	6.78	2.28	3-10
Stimulating	8.73	1.68	3-10	7.33	2.27	1-10	7.97	2.43	2-10
Closing	9.28	1.26	5-10	8.99	1.65	5-10	8.65	2.49	1-10
Retaining	8.45	2.38	5-10	6.94	2.98	3-10	8.11	2.42	1-10
Non-Selling	6.53	3.45	2-10	5.33	2.21	2-10	6.68	2.09	2-10

deal of variability was reported in the importance of the six functions and non-selling activities to the various jobs. The seven importance scores were normalized to unit length. The results were used to weight the function effectiveness scores according to the following formula:

$$E_i = \sum_j w_{i,j} x_{i,j}$$

where:

- E_i = the effectiveness score for saleswoman i
- $x_{i,j}$ = the performance effectiveness score for saleswoman i on function j
- $w_{i,j}$ = the importance of the function to the effective performance of the job of saleswoman i on function j
- n = the number of functions that the saleswoman performs

There has been some debate in the literature about the wisdom of using importance weight (Gaski and Etzel 1986). Despite this, Wilkie and Pessemier (1973) have recommended that that weights be retained in analyses. In the present context, the use of weights was theoretically important, making it possible to compare

effectiveness across a wide variety of selling jobs.

Reliability Analysis

The results of the reliability analysis of the overall selling effectiveness scale follow:

Factor Analysis. As can be seen from Table E-4, a principal components analysis revealed that the seven items loaded on one single factor, confirming the dimensionality of the overall scale.

Internal Consistency Analysis. The internal consistency for the unweighted function effectiveness scale were reported in the body of the report (see page 160). No items were deleted from the scale to improve the internal consistency.

The Bem Sex Role Inventory

The items for the Masculinity and Femininity Scales of the Bem Sex Role Inventory were summed and averaged to arrive at raw masculinity and femininity scores for each of the saleswomen. These scores were used to classify saleswomen into one of the four sex role types by a sample-based, median split technique. The manner in which saleswomen were combined into sex role types was

Table E-4
 Varimax Rotated Factor Structure for
 Items from the Individual Function Effectiveness Scales

Items:	Factor 1
Prospecting	.52872
Contacting	.69894
Probing for Needs	.67139
Stimulating Desire	.68943
Closing	.61897
Retaining	.57475
Non-Selling Activities	.33243
Eigenvalue	4.1
Percent of Variance Explained	58.8

discussed previously (see page 160).

Table E-5 shows a factor analysis of the ten masculinity and ten femininity items. The results confirmed the dimensionality of the scales, with one exception: the item from the femininity scale "loves children" loaded on a separate factor. Since the item was part of the standardized short form of the BSRI, the item was retained in the scale in the analyses. The results of the internal consistencies for these scales have been reported previously (see page 160).

Table E-5
Varimax Rotated Factor Structure for
Items from the Bem Sex Role Inventory

		Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Is sensitive to needs of others	(F)	.86700		
Is compassionate	(F)	.86480		
Is eager to soothe hurt feelings	(F)	.84088		
Is gentle	(F)	.83564		
Is warm	(F)	.83338		
Is understanding	(F)	.82780		
Is sympathetic	(F)	.80303		
Is tender	(F)	.76632		.32306
Is affectionate	(F)	.53121		
Is aggressive	(M)		.84901	
Is assertive	(M)		.83936	
Is dominant	(M)		.81744	
Is forceful	(M)		.81215	
Is willing to take a stand on issues	(M)		.77910	
Has a strong personality	(M)		.77814	
Has leadership abilities	(M)		.75309	
Is independent	(M)		.71201	
Is willing to take risks	(M)		.69130	
Defends own beliefs	(M)		.56840	
Loves children				.84084
Eigenvalue		6.7	5.4	1.0
Percent of Variance Explained		33.5	60.5	65.7

F = Item from Femininity Scale of BSRI
M = Item from Masculinity Scale of BSRI

APPENDIX F

EVALUATION OF THE QUALITY OF STATISTICAL ANALYSES

APPENDIX F

EVALUATION OF THE QUALITY OF STATISTICAL ANALYSES

This section discusses limitations that result from the way statistical tests were applied in the testing of hypotheses. The analysis of variance techniques that were used to test hypotheses four through seven are subject to certain assumptions. The extent to which the data conform to these assumptions indicates the degree of confidence that can be placed in the precision of the results. Violations of these assumptions can result in distorted readings of the true significance level and effect sizes (Tabachnick and Fidell 1983).

Issues that relate to all four analyses are discussed first, followed by analyses of the extent to which the solutions conform to the underlying assumptions of the (1) univariate and (2) multivariate techniques.

General Issues

Certain issues relate to all four analyses. These involve: (1) the

use of "parametric" procedures with ordinal-scaled data, (2) the lack of "orthogonality" ("unequal n"), and (3) the presence of extreme observations ("outliers").

Parametric Procedures. Analysis of variance techniques are parametric procedures and require the use of interval- or ratio-scaled data. The data in these analyses were only ordinal-scaled. While it is not strictly correct to do so, social science researchers frequently use parametric techniques for analyses involving ordinal data (e.g., Kerlinger 1973). Authorities seem to agree that it is mathematically "safe" to apply parametric methods to ordinal data (e.g., Churchill 1983; Kerlinger 1973). Under certain conditions, because of their greater versatility, parametric methods may even be the better choice (Myers 1979). In this case, the highly correlated dependent variables mandated the use of multivariate techniques that were only available through parametric methods.

Orthogonality. The techniques assume orthogonality (i.e., that the samples sizes within each cell are equal, the assumption of "equal n"). The classification of saleswomen into sex role types, resulted in unequal numbers of saleswomen assigned to each cell. The SPSS^x MANOVA program corrected for "unequal n" using a "regression" technique which adjusts each term for every other term in the model. The most serious limitation resulting from the

presence of "unequal n" was an impact on violations of the other assumptions. Analysis of variance techniques are known to be very robust to violations of the assumptions when sample sizes are equal, but are less robust when sample sizes are unequal.

Extreme Observations. Analysis of variance is extremely sensitive to the presence of extreme observations ("outliers") within each cell. The presence of extreme observations can cause distortion of the solution and introduce error into the analysis. The data were checked for "outliers" and several were identified. These extreme values were not the result of error, but were legitimate parts of the sample. These cases were, therefore, retained in the analysis (as recommended by Neter and Wasserman 1974). In order to make certain that the presence of these extreme observations did not distort the mathematical solution, the analyses were performed both with and without them and the results compared. No major differences were noted.

Analysis of Variance

Hypotheses four and six were tested using univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA). The assumptions that were involved were: (1) independence, (2) normality of distribution of error terms, and (3)

homogeneity of variance. It should be noted that a violation of the assumption of independence was inherent in the design of the research since more than one observation was provided by a given respondent. Problems caused by this violation were tested by use of the Durbin Watson statistic. The assumption of normality of distribution of error terms was tested by the chi-square statistic, while the assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested using Bartlett's B and Cochran's C Statistics. the assumption of

Hypothesis Four

The results of the residuals analysis for hypothesis four are summarized in Table F-1. A Durbin Watson test revealed no significant autocorrelation. A chi-square test detected no serious departures from normality of residuals.

Homogeneity of Variance. Using Bartlett's B and Cochran's C statistics, problems with heterogeneous variance were detected in samples one and three. The presence of heterogeneous variance, together with unequal samples sizes, suggests that that these analyses may over-estimate the true significance levels slightly (Myers 1979).

Hypothesis Six

The results of the residuals analysis for hypothesis six are

Table F-1
Residuals Analysis for Hypothesis Four
Analysis of Variance
Overall Stereotype Scores of Saleswomen
Classified according to Sex Role Type

	Sample one to Organ'l End Users	Sample two To In-Home Consumers	Sample three To Resellers
	(n = 202	(n = 72)	(n = 63)
Test for Independence: Durbin-Watson	1.87	1.76	2.67
Test for Normal Error Terms: Chi-square	3.80	2.80	1.80
Tests for Homogeneity of Variance:			
Cochran's C	.36 (c)	.31	.37
Bartlett-Box	4.51 (c)	.25	4.20 (c)

- (a) Indicates the presence of autocorrelation
 (b) Indicates the presence of non-normality
 (c) Indicates the presence of heterogeneous variances

Table F-2
 Residuals Analysis for Hypothesis Six
 Analysis of Variance
 Overall Selling Effectiveness Scores of Saleswomen
 Classified according to Sex Role Type

	Sample one to Organ'l End Users (n = 202)	Sample two To In-Home Consumers (n = 72)	Sample three To Resellers (n = 63)
Test for Independence: Durbin-Watson	1.83	1.75	2.01
Test for Normal Error Terms: Chi-square	5.28	1.37	4.36
Tests for Homogeneity of Variance:			
Cochran's C	.42 (c)	.38	.45 (c)
Bartlett-Box	5.19 (c)	2.26	2.47

- (a) Indicates the presence of autocorrelation
- (b) Indicates the presence of non-normality
- (c) Indicates the presence of heterogeneous variances

summarized in Table F-2. A Durbin Watson Test revealed no evidence of autocorrelation. A chi-square test on the residuals revealed no serious departure from normality.

Homogeneity of Variance. Bartlett's B and Cochran's C statistics revealed problems with heterogeneous variance in samples one and three. As with hypothesis four, the presence of heterogeneous variance suggests that the analyses may over-estimate the true significance levels slightly (Myers 1979).

Multivariate Analysis of Variance

Hypotheses Five and Seven were tested using multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA). MANOVA is subject to the same assumptions as is the univariate model: independence, normality of error term, and homogeneity of variance. In addition: (1) the dependent variables must be linearly related to each other, (2) no multicollinearity or singularity may be present, and (3) the variance-covariance matrix must be homogeneous. Linearity is assessed by examination of "scatterplots" of all combinations of dependent variables within each cell. Multicollinearity is assessed by inspection of the pooled "within cells" correlation matrix. If any correlations are excessively high (approaching .99), multicollinearity may be a

problem. Singularity is assessed by inspection of the determinant of the pooled "within cells" correlation matrix. If the determinant approaches zero (less than .0001), singularity may be a problem. The assumption of homogeneity of the variance-covariance matrices is assessed by the Box-M statistic. If this statistic has a p-value of less than .001, heterogeneity may be a problem (Tabachnick and Fidell 1983).

Hypothesis Five

In the case of hypothesis five, examination of "within cells" scatterplots revealed no serious departures from linearity among the dependent variables. The correlations in the pooled within cells correlation matrix (shown in Table F-3) were not sufficiently large to signal problems with multicollinearity (ranging from .38 to .72). The logarithms of the determinants of the pooled within cells correlation matrix were: -2.0, -.7, -1.1, ruling out singularity.

Residuals Analysis. The results of the residuals analysis for hypothesis five are summarized in Table F-4. Durbin Watson tests revealed no problems with autocorrelation. Chi-square tests on the residuals detected only one serious departure from normality in sample one (for "selling ability" stereotype scores). With "unequal n," a sample size of approximately 20 in the smallest cell

Table F-3
Pooled Within Cells Correlation Matrices for
Hypothesis Five
Individual Stereotype Scores

	Sample one To Organ'1 End Users (n = 202)			Sample two To In-Home Consumers (n = 72)			Sample three To Resellers (n = 63)		
	SA	HR	Mo	SA	HR	Mo	SA	HR	Mo
SA (a)	1.00			1.00			1.00		
HR (b)	.52	1.00		.54	1.00		.38	1.00	
Mo (c)	.59	.68	1.00	.49	.49	1.00	.55	.72	1.00
Log(Det)(d)	- 1.98			- .72			- 1.10		

- (a) SA = Selling Ability Stereotype Scores
 (b) HR = Human Relations Stereotype Scores
 (c) Mo = Motivation Stereotype Scores
 (d) Log(Det) = Logarithm of determinant the Within Cells
 Correlational Matrix

Table F-4
Residuals Analysis for Hypothesis Five
Multivariate Analysis of Variance
Individual Stereotypes Scores of Saleswomen
Classified according to their Sex Role Type

	Sample one To Organ'l End Users (n = 202)	Sample two To In-Home Consumers (n = 72)	Sample three To Resellers (n = 63)
<hr/>			
Tests for Independence:			
Durbin Watson			
Selling Ability Stereotype Scores	1.80	2.67	2.26
Human Relations Stereotype Scores	1.64	1.43	2.53
Motivation Stereotype Scores	1.84	1.92	2.35
<hr/>			
Tests for Normal Error Terms:			
Chi-square			
Selling Ability Stereotype Scores	10.10 (b)	1.50	2.40
Human Relations Stereotype Scores	1.60	2.60	.90
Motivation Stereotype Scores	1.40	6.40	1.20
<hr/>			
Tests for Homogeneity of Variance			
Univariate Tests:			
Selling Ability Stereotype Scores			
Cochran's C	.33	.39	.48
Bartlett-Box	5.04 (c)	1.12	6.30 (c)
Human Relations Stereotype Scores			
Cochran's C	.36 (c)	.35	.43
Bartlett-Box	3.17 (c)	.94	3.22 (c)
Motivation Stereotype Scores			
Cochran's C	.36 (c)	.33	.41
Bartlett-Box	4.83 (c)	.60	3.48
Multivariate Tests:			
Box's M	44.77	22.39	50.10 (c)
<hr/>			

- (a) Indicates the presence of autocorrelation
(b) Indicates the presence of non-normality
(c) Indicates the presence of heterogeneous variance

is believed to ensure robustness of the test (Tabachnick and Fidell 1983). Sample sizes in sample one ($n = 56, 45, 45, 56$) were large enough to ensure robustness.

Homogeneity of Variance. The Box-M statistic detected heterogeneity of the variance-covariance matrix in sample three ($p < .001$). Bartlett's B and Cochran's C statistics detected univariate heterogeneity of variance in both samples one and three ($p < .05$). The presence of both non-normality and heterogeneous variance in sample one caused some concern. Since robustness to violations of both normality and heterogeneous variances is guaranteed if within cells sample sizes are equal (e.g., Tabachnick and Fidell 1983), an "orthogonalized" version of the analysis was performed and the results compared with the original versions. Cases were randomly deleted from the individual cells until sample sizes were equal (e.g., 45, 45, 45, 45). As can be seen in Table F-5, the results show no difference in significance level (although differences would be difficult to detect at this level of significance). The original solution may overestimate the effect sizes slightly, but by only a few percentage points.

Hypothesis 7

In the case of hypothesis seven, examination of the "within cells" scatterplots of the dependent variables revealed no serious

Table F-5
A Comparison of Solutions for Hypothesis Five
Original and Orthogonalized Versions
Multivariate Analysis of Variance
Sample one: To Organizational End Users

	Original Version (a) (n = 202)	Orthogonalized Version (b) (n = 180)

Univariate Significance:		
Selling Ability Stereotype Scores		
F-Value	35.299	28.092
Significance	.000	.000
Human Relations Stereotype Scores		
F-Value	22.491	17.720
Significance	.000	.000
Motivation Stereotype Scores		
F-Value	29.675	23.239
Significance	.000	.000

Multivariate Significance:		
Wilks Lambda	.604	.629

Effect Sizes:		
Selling Ability Stereotype Scores	.389	.324
Human Relations Stereotype Scores	.254	.232
Motivation Stereotype Scores	.310	.284

- (a) Consists of all cases in sample one
(b) Consists of a sample of 45 saleswomen randomly selected from each cell

departures from linearity. Examination of the within cells correlation matrix in (shown in Table F-6) revealed bivariate correlations ranging from .13 to .69, revealing no problem with multicollinearity. The logarithms of the determinants of the within cells correlation matrices were: -2.8, -3.2, -3.1, ruling out problems with singularity.

Residuals analysis. The results of the residuals analysis for hypotheses seven are summarized in Table F-7. Durbin Watson tests on the univariate solutions revealed no autocorrelation. Chi-square tests on the residuals revealed significant departures from normality in sample one only (for "contacting," "stimulating desire," and "retaining" effectiveness scores).

Homogeneity of Variance. The Box-M statistic revealed significant heterogeneity of variance-covariance matrices in samples one and three. Bartlett's B and Cochran's C statistics also detected significant univariate heterogeneity of variance in sample one (for "contacting," "probing for needs," and "retaining" effectiveness scores) and in sample three (for "stimulating desire," "closing," and "non-selling activities" effectiveness scores). As in the case of hypothesis five, the presence of both non-normality and heterogeneity of variance in sample one caused some concern. Accordingly, an orthogonalized version of the analysis was performed on the data. The results, presented in

Table F-6
Pooled Within Cells Correlation Matrices
for Hypothesis Seven
Individual Function Effectiveness Scores

	Sample one To Organ'1 End Users (n = 202)							Sample two To In-Home Consumers (n = 72)						
	PROS	CONT	PROB	STIM	CLOS	RETA	NONS	PROS	CONT	PROB	STIM	CLOS	RETA	NONS
PROS (a)	1.00							1.00						
CONT (b)	.59	1.00						.65	1.00					
PROB (c)	.44	.54	1.00					.43	.58	1.00				
STIM (d)	.51	.55	.69	1.00				.48	.57	.69	1.00			
CLOS (e)	.45	.55	.55	.60	1.00			.52	.67	.65	.64	1.00		
RETA (f)	.43	.50	.52	.50	.42	1.00		.29	.49	.49	.37	.29	1.00	
NONS (g)	.26	.32	.28	.23	.21	.39	1.00	.14	.27	.27	.33	.13	2.39	1.00
Log(Det) (h)	- 2.84							- 3.27						

	Sample three To Resellers (n = 63)						
	PROS	CONT	PROB	STIM	CLOS	RETA	NONS
PROS	---						
CONT	---	1.00					
PROB	---	.65	1.00				
STIM	---	.67	.49	1.00			
CLOS	---	.52	.67	.50	1.00		
RETA	---	.62	.36	.66	.38	1.00	
NONS	---	.55	.40	.43	.25	.61	1.00
Log(Det)	- 3.12						

- (a) PROS = Prospecting Effectiveness Scores
 (b) CONT = Contacting Effectiveness Scores
 (c) PROB = Probing Effectiveness Scores
 (d) STIM = Stimulating Effectiveness Scores
 (e) CLOS = Closing Effectiveness Scores
 (f) RETA = Retaining Effectiveness Scores
 (g) NONS = Non-selling Effectiveness Scores
 (h) Log(Det) = Logarithm of determinant of the Within Cells Correlation Matrix

Table F-7
Residuals Analysis for Hypothesis Seven
Multivariate Analysis of Variance
Individual Function Effectiveness Scores of Saleswomen
Classified According to Sex Role Types

	Sample one To Organ'l End Users (n = 184)	Sample two To In-Home Consumers (n = 66)	Sample three To Resellers (n = 60)
<hr/>			
Tests for Independence:			
Durbin Watson			
Prospecting Effectiveness Scores	1.90	1.70	---
Contacting Effectiveness Scores	1.85	1.82	1.98
Probing Effectiveness Scores	1.89	1.74	1.83
Stimulating Effectiveness Scores	1.99	1.61	1.95
Closing Effectiveness Scores	1.94	1.60	1.41
Retaining Effectiveness Scores	1.66	1.23	1.92
Non-Selling Effectiveness Scores	1.76	1.67	1.69
<hr/>			
Tests for Normal Error Terms:			
Chi-Square Tests			
Prospecting Effectiveness Scores	3.92	.32	---
Contacting Effectiveness Scores	41.10 (b)	2.37	.54
Probing Effectiveness Scores	.53	1.69	.53
Stimulating Effectiveness Scores	8.58 (b)	.90	.11
Closing Effectiveness Scores	5.89	1.38	.44
Retaining Effectiveness Scores	26.06 (b)	2.28	3.02
Non-Selling Effectiveness Scores	5.10	.07	5.99

Table F-7 (cont'd)
Residuals Analysis for Hypothesis Seven
Multivariate Analysis of Variance
Individual Function Effectiveness Scores
of Saleswomen Classified according to
Sex Role Types

	Sample one To Organ'l End Users (n = 184)	Sample two To In-Home Consumers (n = 72)	Sample three To Resellers (n = 63)
<hr/>			
Tests for Homogeneity of Variance			
Univariate Tests:			
Prospecting Effectiveness Scores			
Cochran's C	.34	.30	---
Bartlett-Box	1.30	.20	---
Contacting Effectiveness Scores			
Cochran's C	.39	.35	.33
Bartlett-Box	4.76 (c)	1.14	1.57
Probing Effectiveness Scores			
Cochran's C	.39 (c)	.39	.40
Bartlett-Box	4.82 (c)	.95	2.25
Stimulating Effectiveness Scores			
Cochran's C	.33	.37	.52 (c)
Bartlett-Box	2.25	1.80	4.81 (c)
Closing Effectiveness Scores			
Cochran's C	.34	.30	.40
Bartlett-Box	1.30	.41	2.83 (c)
Retaining Effectiveness Scores			
Cochran's C	.38 (c)	.41	.33
Bartlett-Box	3.29 (c)	1.11	1.54
Non-Selling Effectiveness Scores			
Cochran's C	.29	.32	.45
Bartlett-Box	2.04	.48	3.61 (c)
<hr/>			
Multivariate Tests:			
Box-M	156.16 (c)	121.92	141.56 (c)
<hr/>			

- (a) Indicates the presence of autocorrelation
- (b) Indicates the presence of non-normality
- (c) Indicates the presence of heterogeneous variance

Table F-8
A Comparison of Solutions for Hypothesis 7
Original and Orthogonalized Versions
Multivariate Analysis of Variance
Sample one: To Organizational End Users

	Original Version (a) (n = 184)	Orthogonalized Version (b) (n = 160)
Univariate Significance:		
Prospecting Effectiveness Scores		
F-Value	10.172	7.899
Significance	.000	.000
Contacting Effectiveness Scores		
F-Value	14.152	11.619
Significance	.000	.000
Probing Effectiveness Scores		
F-Value	15.088	14.323
Significance	.000	.000
Stimulating Effectiveness Scores		
F-Value	13.679	9.799
Significance	.000	.000
Closing Effectiveness Scores		
F-Value	13.383	11.265
Significance	.000	.000
Retaining Effectiveness Scores		
F-Value	8.954	6.374
Significance	.000	.000
Non-Selling Effectiveness Scores		
F-Value	7.944	6.925
Significance	.000	.000
Multivariate Significance:		
Wilkes Lambda	.626	.629

Table F-8 (cont'd)
A Comparison of Solutions for Hypothesis Seven
Original and Orthogonalized Versions
Multivariate Analysis of Variance
Sample one: To Organizational End Users

	Original Version (a) (n = 184)	Orthogonalized Version (b) (n = 160)
<hr/>		
Effect Sizes:		
Prospecting Effectiveness Scores	.15	.13
Contacting Effectiveness Scores	.19	.18
Probing Effectiveness Scores	.20	.22
Stimulating Effectiveness Scores	.19	.16
Closing Effectiveness Scores	.18	.18
Retaining Effectiveness Scores	.13	.11
Non-Selling Effectiveness Scores	.12	.12
<hr/>		

- (a) Original Version = Contains all cases of saleswomen who performed all of the functions of selling
- (b) Orthogonalized Version = Contains a sample of 40 saleswomen randomly selected within each cell from those who performed all of the functions of selling and non-selling activities

Table F-8 shows no difference in significance level. The original solution may over-estimate the effect sizes slightly, but only by about 2 or 3%.