

# How Salesperson Emotional Intelligence and Gendered Communication Style Influence Performance

By David A. Locander, Jennifer A. Locander, Barron W. Brown, and Frankie J. Weinberg

Drawing on gendered schema theory and theories of gendered communication, the current research introduces a new type of communication style to the sales literature - Gendered Communication Style (GCOM). GCOM is conceptualized as a higher order construct that consists of Feminine Communication Style (FCOM) and Masculine Communication Style (MCOM). Building on the theory of emotional intelligence (EI), the present study positions GCOM in the nomological network of sales research and investigates whether EI is an antecedent to GCOM. After surveying 250 B2B salespeople, the results from a structural equation model demonstrate that emotional perception and use of emotion are antecedents to management of emotion which has a significant and positive direct effect on both FCOM and MCOM. FCOM has significant and positive effect on behavioral performance which fully mediates the relationship to outcome performance. MCOM does not have a significant effect on behavioral performance but does have a direct effect on outcome performance.

## INTRODUCTION

In business-to-business (B2B) selling, communication is a fundamental aspect of personal selling, as it enables salespeople to build rapport, uncover needs, and demonstrate value (Boorum, Goolsby, and Ramsey, 1998). In a qualitative study of sales effectiveness, Amor (2019) listed communication as a necessary talent for effective salespeople to identify customer needs. Communication style is defined as “an individual’s tendency to communicate via unique patterns or combinations of code, content, and communication rules” (Williams and Spiro, 1985, p. 440). Most research on salesperson communication has focused on salespeople attempting to alter their communication

style to that of the buyer (e.g., Alavi, Habel, and Linsenmayer, 2019; McFarland, Challagalla, and Shervani, 2006; Rich and Smith, 2000; Williams and Spiro, 1985). However, recent trends in today’s business environment suggest a growing disconnect within the buyer - seller relationship (CSO Insights, 2018), a larger number of people involved in the buying process (Chase and Murtha, 2019), and changes in buyer-seller communication media (e.g., technology, digital, and multi-format communication) (Moffett, Folse, and Palmatier, 2020; Bharadwaj and Shipley, 2020; Ahearne, Atefi, Lam, Pourmasoudi, 2022). Consequently, it may be time to reassess how communication style is examined. Thus, this study introduces and considers a new form of assessing salesperson communication that has demonstrated efficacy in the management literature - Gendered Communication Style (GCOM) and a potential antecedent - Emotional Intelligence (EI) due to EIs ability “to facilitate communication with customers in buyer-seller interactions” (Delpechitre, Beeler-Connelly, and Chaker, 2018, p. 11).

Gendered Communication Style (GCOM) is a personal behavior that is defined as “a propensity toward gendered ways of talking, using language, and orienting to human relationships that shapes interactional tendencies in a specific context” (Weinberg, Treviño, Cleveland, 2019, p. 459). It identifies two distinct styles, masculine and feminine, each of which are distinct from biological sex and are characterized by

---

**David A. Locander** (D.B.A., University of Louisiana Tech University), Associate Professor of Marketing, Gary W. Rollins College of Business, University of Tennessee at Chattanooga, TN, david-locander@utc.edu

**Jennifer A. Locander** (Ph.D., University of Mississippi), Assistant Professor of Marketing, College of Business and Technology, East Tennessee State University, TN, locander@etsu.edu

**Barron W. Brown** (D.B.A., Louisiana Tech University), Assistant Professor of Marketing, Department of Business Disciplines, College of Business, McNeese State University, Lake Charles, LA, bbrown1@mcneese.edu

**Frankie J. Weinberg** (Ph.D., University of Georgia), Associate Professor and Dean Henry J. Engler, Jr. Distinguished Professor, College of Business, Loyola University New Orleans, LA, weinberg@loyno.edu

certain mannerisms. Masculine Communication Style (MCOM) is goal-driven, assertive, and egocentric / ego-protective, whereas Feminine Communication Style (FCOM) is relationship-focused, egalitarian, and compassionate. Importantly, while the terms *masculine* and *feminine* originate from biological sex-oriented bifurcation, gendered communication remains strictly situated in the notion of gender as socially constructed and performative. That is, one's communication styles reflect varying degrees of externalized performance of masculinity and femininity (Ashcraft, 2013; Butler, 2004; Wood and Fixmer-Oraiz, 2019). Men and women can vary with regard to the strength of both their masculine and feminine communicative styles, as the two constitute two separate continua (low to high masculine communication, and low to high feminine communication, respectively), as opposed to residing on a single continuum (Weinberg and Cleveland, 2017; Hausfeld and Weinberg, 2023).

While communication is fundamental for salesperson success, another ability that has received attention in sales research is EI (e.g., Agnihotri, Rapp, Andzulis, and Gabler, 2013; Locander, Mulki, and Weinberg, 2014; Delpechitre et al., 2018). EI "is the ability to acquire and apply knowledge from one's emotions and those of others to produce beneficial outcomes" (Kidwell, Hardesty, Murtha, Sheng, 2011, p. 78). With the amount of academic research on EI it is somewhat surprising that, to the researcher's knowledge, there is no research examining EI's influence on salesperson communication. However, in a closely related stream of research, Verbeke (1997) studying the emotional contagion hypothesis found that one's ability to infect others with emotions and be sensitive to others' emotions can lead to higher performance; leading Kidwell et al. (2011) to suggest that salespeople with high EI can have better communication. Thus, it is important to understand the influence that EI has on different communication styles and in doing so help place GCOM in the nomological network of sales research.

Recently, salesperson communication style has received less attention within the sales literature (Shehryar and Moshavi, 2014; Koponen, Julkunen, and Asail, 2019). Given the importance of effective communication in personal selling, the present study employs the theory

of emotional intelligence (Mayer and Salovey, 1997) to examine GCOM which is grounded in Bem's (1974) gendered schema theory. Weinberg and Cleveland (2017) draw on Bem's gender schema theory that suggests people organize information, perceive the world, and behave in terms according to gendered norms, to introduce GCOM to organizational literature as a deep-level, communicated, and interactional behavioral construct. By examining how FCOM and MCOM affect the sales process and associated salesperson behavioral outcomes, this study advances the sales literature in three ways: (1) introduces a new type of communication style (GCOM) to the sales literature; (2) examines EI as an antecedent to GCOM and provides insight into the emotional mindset that fosters or inhibits FCOM and MCOM; (3) and assesses how FCOM and MCOM predict job performance.

## **THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT**

### **Gendered Communication Style**

Before introducing gender communication style, it is important to distinguish biological sex from gender. Biological sex refers to the physiological categorization of human beings based on chromosomal, reproductive, and anatomical characteristics, resulting in the ability to distinguish males from females. Gender, however, is a person's self-representation that is socially-constructed and communicated (Weinberg et al., 2019). Although gender can be influenced by one's biological sex, gendered communicative forms in interpersonal contexts are affected by social and cultural factors (Weinberg et al., 2019).

Masculine Communication Style refers to certain elements of communication that are traditionally tied to males, such as agency, assertiveness, and control (Eagly and Carli, 2007). Those who employ MCOM are often described as ambitious, dominant, self-confident, forceful, and aggressive (Wood and Fixmer-Oraiz, 2019) and tend to be authoritative leaders who are assertive and egocentric (Wood, Christensen, Hebl, and Rothgerber, 1997). They often dominate discussions (Borisoff and Merrill, 1985), offer advice, and prolong their speech (Mulac, 2006) to control conversations. MCOM involves communicating with

decisiveness to establish an individual's status of superiority, and to reinforce self-worth, skills, abilities, and expertise (Weiss and Sachs, 1991; Palomares, 2012; Messner, 1997; Mulac, 2006; Tannen, 1990; Goodwin, 1990). This egocentric communication style centers on the communicator's own ideas, thoughts, and opinions while disregarding the fact that others may have different perceptions or interpretations (Messner, 1997). Although egocentric and assertive communicators may stand out from others and gain attention (Wood and Fixmer-Oraiz, 2019), this style may be adversely perceived due to its lack of affinity for others involved in the conversation (Weinberg et al., 2019). While the authoritative nature of MCOM may seem counterintuitive, a popular practitioner sales model, based on the book *The Challenger Sales: Taking Control of the Customer Conversation*, suggests taking control of the sales dialog (Dixon and Adamson, 2011). This perspective warrants examining the efficacy of a more dominant communication style.

Feminine Communication Style (FCOM) refers to elements of communication that are traditionally associated with females, such as expressiveness, warmth, and concern for others (Eagly and Carli, 2007). FCOM takes a dialogic approach that does not assume a preconceived conclusion; instead, it involves listening and being sympathetic to the proclivities of all participants in the conversation (Johnson, 1996). This communication style is relational in nature, which helps build rapport and creates a strong connection or bond between the individuals involved in conversation (Leaper and Ayres, 2007; Palomares, 2012). The two most prominent characteristics affiliated with FCOM are egalitarianism and compassion (Weinberg et al., 2019). Egalitarianism promotes cooperative and collaborative discussion toward mutual understanding of both parties' concerns and feelings by utilizing inclusive language, asking clarification questions, and using nonverbal cues that show concern and understanding (Campbell, 1993; Goodwin, 1990; Robertson and Murachver, 2003). In egalitarian communication, no party is superior to the other; participants are viewed as equals and achieve symmetry by maintaining this balance of power (Ashcraft and Mumby, 2004). Compassionate communication revolves around empathy and a desire to understand other's ideas, thoughts, and perspectives

(Wood and Fixmer-Oraiz, 2019). Compassionate communicators avoid self-absorption and remain sensitive to the needs, wants, and opinions of other participants involved in the conversation (Weinberg et al., 2019).

### Emotional Intelligence

B2B marketing researchers have adopted EI theory as salespeople work in emotion-laden, boundary-spanning roles that require customer interactions (Kidwell et al., 2011). Within the theory of EI, there are three prominent conceptualizations: the trait model (Petrides and Furnham, 2001), the ability model (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Joseph, Jin, Newman, and O'Boyle, 2015); and the mixed-model (Goleman, 1995; Bar-On, 1997) (see Joseph and Newman, (2010) for a review of the different conceptualizations of EI). Of these conceptualizations, the marketing and sales literature predominantly focuses on ability-based EI (Kidwell et al., 2011; Locander et al., 2014), which is defined as, "the capacity to reason about emotions, and of emotions to enhance thinking. It includes the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso, 2004, p. 197).

Mayer and Salovey (1997) introduce ability-based EI, which consists of four dimensions: perceiving, understanding, using (i.e., facilitating), and managing (i.e., regulating). Since its introduction, researchers have questioned the core four dimensions. Davies, Stankov, and Roberts (1998) split perception of emotion into self and others, while Joseph and Newman (2010) recommend removing facilitation of emotion due to conceptual redundancy as well as empirical support demonstrating superior fit of a three-factor model. Thus, the current research employs a combination of Law, Wong, and Song's (2004) four-dimension conceptualization of EI (appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself, appraisal and recognition of emotion in others, use of emotion to facilitate performance, and regulation of emotion in oneself) and Joseph and Newman's (2010) three-factor recommendation. To do this, emotional appraisal of self and others is combined into one dimension (i.e., emotional perception). This

approach aligns with Mayer and Salovey's (1997) conceptualization and has been utilized in past sales research (e.g., Chen and Jaramillo, 2014; Delpechitre et al., 2018; Delpechitre and Beeler, 2018). Thus, this study looks at three dimensions of EI: emotional perception (self and others), use of emotions, and management (regulation) of emotions.

Joseph and Newman (2010) introduced the cascading model of EI, which proposes a sequential causal structure. The cascading model incorporates three out of the four dimensions of Mayer and Salovey's (1997) ability-based conceptualization of EI, namely, perception of emotion, understanding of emotion, and management of emotion. The cascading model starts with the perception of emotion and is based on the premise that individuals who have better emotional perception will possess more emotional knowledge and, consequently, have a higher level of emotional intelligence (Joseph and Newman, 2010). Emotional perception is the ability to accurately recognize and assess emotions, both in themselves and in others (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). According to the cascading model of EI, emotional perception is an important foundation because individuals must first become aware of an emotional stimulus before it can be used and managed (Mayer et al. 2004; Brackett, Rivers, Shiffman, Lerner, and Salovey, 2006; Joseph and Newman, 2010). The key outcome of the cascading model is management of emotion due to its applicability in workplace settings (Mulki, Jaramillo, Goad, and Pesquera, 2015; Briggs, Kalra, and Agnihotri, 2018). Management of emotions is the ability to positively regulate emotions in oneself and others and stimulate intellectual growth (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). Past research shows that salespeople's self-emotional appraisal has a positive relationship with management of emotion (Locander et al., 2014). Without emotional perception, it would be difficult to accurately identify and understand our and others' emotions which could lead salespeople to act impulsively and be less able to regulate emotions in a productive way. Thus, it is hypothesized that emotional perception will have a positive effect on management of emotions.

*H1: Emotional perception is positively related to management of emotions.*

Use of emotion, or commonly referred to as facilitation of emotions, involves the capacity to access, generate, and use emotions to assist thinking (Mayer et al., 2004). Use of emotion is the ability to harness emotions to facilitate thought, assimilate basic emotional experiences, and aids in problem solving (Kidwell et al., 2011; Mayer and Salovey, 1997). While use of emotion is not conceptualized as part of Joseph and Newman's (2010) cascading model, previous sales research has employed use of emotion in a cascading causal structure and has noted its positive effect on management of emotion (Chen and Jaramillo, 2014). The utilization of emotion enables salespeople to focus attention on goals and is a critical element of selective attention, self-monitoring, and fostering self-motivation (Kidwell et al., 2011). Salespeople who effectively facilitate emotions during these interactions are better equipped to gauge and understand customer emotions, select the appropriate emotional reaction, and are cognizant of how their emotions affect customers (Kidwell et al., 2011). Thus, it is hypothesized that use of emotion will have a positive effect on management of emotions.

*H2: Use of emotions is positively related to management of emotions.*

### **Management of Emotions and GCOM**

Management of emotion is defined as the "conscious regulation of emotions to enhance emotional and intellectual growth" and involves the ability to regulate emotions in oneself and others (Mayer and Salovey 1997, p. 14). Salespeople with high management of emotion possess the ability to positively influence customers' emotions while maintaining composure when negative emotions are present (Kidwell et al., 2011). Past research has shown that salespeople's ability to manage their emotions positively influences their adaptability (Locander et al., 2014) and job performance (Mulki et al., 2015). Communication is likely to play a key role in management of emotions as communication is one modality that salespeople can use to convey their emotions and influence others. For example, if emotions go unchecked, salespeople run the risk of having their emotions hijack their actions (e.g., language, tone, nonverbal) which can detract from selling efforts (Locander et al., 2014).



Two core facets of FCOM are egalitarianism and compassion. FCOM seeks to foster cooperative open-ended discussions which focus on developing and maintaining long-term relationships (Campbell, 1993; Wood, 2013; Weinberg et al., 2019). These communicators utilize compassion and tend to use inclusive language which allows others' thoughts and opinions to feel valued (Chatham-Carpenter and DeFrancisco, 1998). Empathy is at the core of compassion and facilitates the understanding of others and their perspectives (Weinberg et al., 2019). Previous sales research highlights how empathy is positively associated with salesperson listening and contributes to better communication (Aggarwal, Castleberry, Ridnour, and Shepherd, 2005).

By its very nature, FCOM is anchored in greater emotional sensitivity, naturally causing the salesperson to move beyond superficial questioning and towards a deeper level of inquiry, asking "tell me more" or "how does this make you feel?" (Weinberg et al., 2019). Salespeople exhibiting FCOM will likely draw on emotion to demonstrate concern which may strengthen rapport building, encourage open and collaborative discussion, and aid in building strong relationships based on trust. The communal and relational nature of FCOM manifests in relying on one's ability to manage emotions. Past research has shown that management of emotion is fundamental for building and maintaining customer relationships (Kidwell et al., 2011). Salespeople with FCOM likely utilize their ability to manage emotions to build trusting relationships that allow for better flow of communication. With better and more in-depth communication, salespeople using FCOM may be better equipped to uncover customer problems, which may lead to better solutions. Thus, it is hypothesized that management of emotion will have a positive effect on FCOM.

*H3: Management of emotion is positively related to feminine communication style.*

Two core facets of MCOM are assertiveness and egocentricity (Weinberg et al., 2019). Individuals with MCOM use language to control the conversation and exhibit superiority with little concern for others (Wood, 2013), as they are predominantly focused on self-promotion and convincing others that they are right

(Weinberg et al., 2019). To do so, individuals with MCOM communicate in a way that is more forceful and authoritative (Mulac, 2006; Wood et al., 1997). The egocentric nature of MCOM often leads these individuals to withhold personal information that may make them appear vulnerable or weak (Saurer and Eisler, 1990; Weinberg et al., 2019). Given the self-centered, personally protective, and impersonal nature of MCOM, it is likely that salespeople utilizing MCOM are less concerned with others and their emotions. Salespeople with high emotional perception have the distinct ability to recognize their own emotions and the emotions of others (Kidwell et al., 2011; Mayer et al., 2004) and can identify appropriate emotions during sales interactions (Rozell, Pettijohn, and Parker, 2004). Salespeople who utilize EI strive to elicit and channel positive affect with customers (Delpechitre et al., 2018).

In stark contrast to the self-confident and dominant nature of MCOM, previous research suggests that displaying emotions can be interpreted as a sign of vulnerability or weakness (Croft, Atkinson, and May, 2021). Salespeople exhibiting MCOM communicate in a decisive and absolute manner that can be interpreted as an attempt to control others and exhibit superiority. These communicators fixate on one's own ideas and opinions, bolster their self-identity, and believe that they are superior and correct (Vrooman, 2001). Salespeople using MCOM will likely not rely on their ability to manage emotions due to their aggressive and dominant communication style. That is, salespeople with MCOM will likely not attempt to influence customers' emotions but instead use assertiveness to dictate the direction of the conversation. Thus, it is hypothesized that management of emotion will have a negative influence on MCOM.

*H4: Management of emotion is negatively related to masculine communication style.*

### **GCOM and Job Performance**

To help position GCOM within the nomological network of sales research, this study examines how FCOM and MCOM affects salesperson's ability to provide effective communication and customer service that results in both behavioral and outcome performance. Behavioral job performance refers to the activities and strategies

carried out throughout the sales process (Baldauf, Cravens, and Piercy, 2005). Examples of salesperson behavioral activities include building and maintaining customer relationships, possessing industry knowledge, and effectively communicating with customers (Behrman and Perreault, 1982; Locander, Weinberg, and Locander, 2018). Past research on behavioral performance has been found to be moderated by several variables (e.g., salesperson capabilities) (Baldauf and Cravens, 2002) and to predict outcome performance (Locander et al., 2018).

Communication behaviors can be helpful toward constructing and strengthening workplace relationships (Sias, Gallagher, Kopaneva, & Padersen, 2012), and feminine communication style is particularly suited to relationship building (Weinberg et al., 2019). Specifically, feminine communication is characterized, in part, by communicating in a way that builds and maintains strong relationships (Wood, 2013), promotes closeness (Palomares, 2012), and includes utilizing words that strengthen the social relationship-building process (Newman et al., 2008). Salespeople utilizing FCOM communicate in an inclusive manner which enables them to better understand the situation from all viewpoints and are cognizant of not only the content but also the communication process (Weinberg et al., 2019). This type of communication helps establish equality and symmetry for all involved in the situation (Wood, 2013), which in turn provides a better understanding. Salespeople who communicate understanding and have a propensity to communicate collaboratively are better suited to provide positive behavioral outcomes (e.g., maintaining customer relations).

Counter to FCOM, masculine communicators' use of authoritative language, attempts to dominate the conversation, and withholding information that conflicts with their objective are less likely to produce these positive behavioral outcomes, as effective behavioral performance relies partially on providing accurate and complete information (Behrman and Perreault, 1982). Salespeople that withhold information that is counter to their objective (e.g., MCOM) run the risk of being perceived as self-centered and manipulative. Additionally, MCOM tends to be more abstract which removes concrete experiences and ideas (Weinberg et

al., 2019). Given the personal nature of sales, abstract language is likely to be perceived as less effective communication, as it may cause ambiguity amongst recipients. Thus, we hypothesize that FCOM will have a positive (H4a) and MCOM will have a negative (H4b) relationship with behavioral performance.

*H5a: Feminine communication style is positively related to behavioral performance.*

*H5b: Masculine communication style is negatively related to behavioral performance.*

However, while studying behaviors offers an informative way to explore the intentions of salespeople, intentions and outcomes are not synonymous. For this reason, sales outcome performance is included in the model. Salesperson outcome performance is the contribution of an individual's achievements to the sales objectives of the organization (Behrman and Perreault, 1982) and represents the quantitative result of the sales process (e.g., exceeding sales objectives and generating high level of dollar sales; Miao and Evans, 2007). Thus, outcome performance of salespeople is an important indicator of sales effectiveness.

Our expectations regarding the relationship between GCOM and outcome performance differ from our expectations with regard to its effect on salesperson behavioral performance. Specifically, we anticipate that both feminine and masculine communication styles will predict salesperson outcome performance. Building off the support for H5a (FCOM to behavioral performance), salespeople that foster strong relationships through collaborative communication and provide accurate information will likely generate higher sales numbers. This is in line with previous findings that consider salespeople as knowledge brokers (Verbeke, Dietz, and Verwall, 2011) and that building relationships is key to the co-creation of value (Vargo and Lusch, 2004).

Broadly speaking, all salesperson communication between buyers and sellers can be viewed as influence tactics (McFarland and Dixon, 2019). However, what differs between salespeople is the style and intent of the communication. While FCOM is more relational, MCOM is more direct and self-serving. MCOM utilizes communication to control the conversation in a self-

serving manner. For salespeople, this communication is used to achieve successful sales outcomes. Introduced by Dixon and Adamson (2011), the practitioner-based Challenger Sales Model minimizes relationship building and encourages salespeople to take control of the conversation. In fact, Dixon and Adamson (2011) go as far as saying that traditional relationship building in sales is a losing approach. Their findings suggest that top salespeople control the conversation, love to debate, and will push customers beyond their comfort zone and to think and view problems differently (Dixon and Adamson, 2011). While the present study does not specifically address the challenger salesperson profile, there are many similarities between the challenger salesperson and MCOM. MCOM utilizes direct communication to control the conversation towards self-serving interests and does not focus on building relationships. Consequently, it is hypothesized that both FCOM and MCOM are positively related to outcome performance.

*H6a: Feminine communication style is positively related to outcome performance.*

*H6b: Masculine communication style is positively related to outcome performance.*

## METHODOLOGY

### Sample

We curated a sample of 250 B2B salespeople from a professionally managed online panel procured through Qualtrics Panels. To help ensure data quality, all respondents were subjected to multiple screening questions and attention checks developed by the authors that were built into the survey. In addition, following the recommendation of Babin, Griffin, and Hair, a panel project manager was employed to attract and screen respondents and provide initial cleaning, a service that “offers a huge advantage in terms of objectivity” (2016, p. 3135). To participate in this study, respondents were required to have at least two years of B2B selling experience and possess sufficient autonomy from their employer to implement different selling techniques. Salespeople possessing organizational autonomy and the ability to utilize different selling techniques is critical when researching salesperson behaviors (Wang

and Netemeyer, 2004). This criterion was emphasized to the project manager and was a requirement for participation in the survey. To ensure that participants had sufficient autonomy, a screening question was included at the beginning of the survey. Any respondent that failed a screening or attention check question was removed from the survey and was not allowed to complete the survey. This resulted in a final sample of 250 respondents, ages 18 to 78 years ( $\mu = 41.76$ ,  $\sigma = 13.55$ ), which is nearly equally divided by sex (138 males and 112 females). Salesperson tenure with their present firms ranged from 1 to 39 years ( $\mu = 8.12$ ,  $\sigma = 6.8$ ) and total B2B selling experience ranged from 3 to 48 years ( $\mu = 12.74$ ,  $\sigma = 9.59$ ).

### Measures

All constructs are measured using existing validated instruments on a seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” The three dimensions of EI (emotional perception is a combination of the self and other dimensions) were measured using the Law et al. (2004) instrument. Gendered communication style was measured using a higher order construct developed by Weinberg et al. (2019) which measures masculine (egocentric and assertive) and feminine communication styles (egalitarian and compassionate). Salesperson behavioral performance was measured using Behrman and Perreault’s (1982) scale. The Behrman and Perreault’s (1982) self-reported measure of salesperson job performance is the most popular scale used by sales researchers (Bolander, Chaker, Pappas, and Bradbury, 2021). Three relevant control variables are included in this study: education, biological sex, and years of B2B selling experience (Groza et al., 2016).

## RESULTS

### Measurement Assessments

The CFA (using AMOS 28) indicates adequate fit:  $\chi^2 = 978.7$ ,  $df = 472$ ,  $p < .001$ ; Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.066 ( $CI_{90} = .060; .071$ ); Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .91. Table 1 shows standardized factor loadings for each scale item along with the construct average variance extracted (AVE) and construct reliability (CR) for the measurement model.

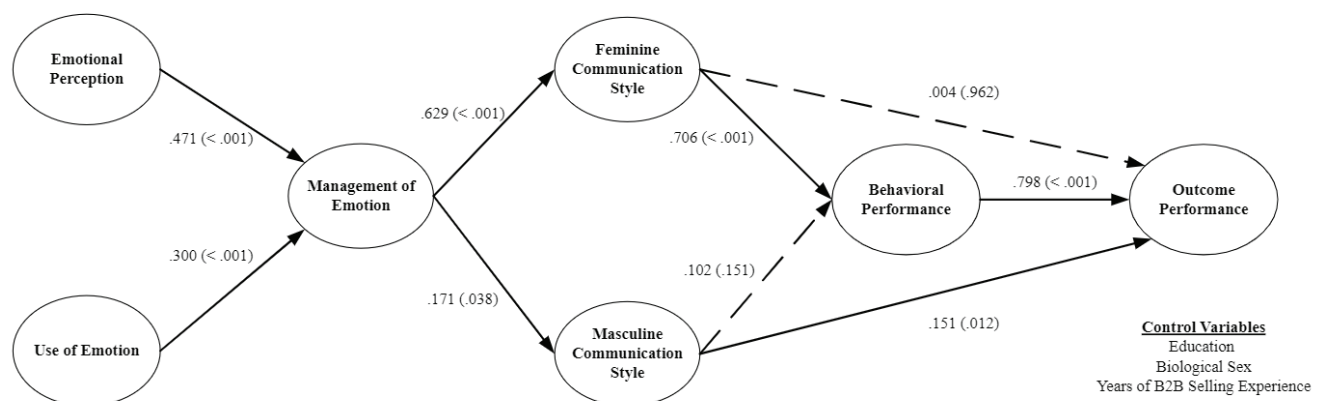
The CFA model reveals good construct reliability with all construct reliabilities exceeding the acceptable cutoff (0.70) (Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson, 2010). Discriminant validity is assessed by comparing the average variance extracted (AVE) estimates for each factor with the squared interconstruct correlations (SIC) associated with that factor. Except for behavioral and outcome performance, all average variance extracted (AVE) exceed the squared interconstruct correlations, demonstrating acceptable discriminant validity. The SIC between behavioral and outcome performance is 0.83 which is greater than both AVEs (0.6 and 0.75, respectively). This is not surprising, as there are conceptual similarities between the two constructs which have been shown to be causally linked (Miao and Evans 2007; Miao, Evans, and Zou, 2007; Locander et al., 2018). Additionally, recent researchers have combined outcome and behavioral performance into one overall performance measure (see Locander, Mahmoud, and Babin, 2023). However, to alleviate concerns over lack of discriminant validity, we conducted a one degree of freedom chi square difference test. This test assessed differences in model fit between the model with both performance measures as separate constructs ( $\chi^2 = 30.3$ ,  $df = 13$ ,  $p = .004$ ) and collapsed as a single construct ( $\chi^2 = 91.3$ ,  $df = 14$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Supporting discriminant validity, the  $\chi^2$  difference statistics between the two

models is 61.0 with 1 degree of freedom, suggesting a significant improvement in fit over the one-factor performance model ( $p < .001$ ; Anderson and Gerbing, 1988; Babin and Griffin, 1998). The correlation matrix and descriptive statistics are presented in Table 2.

### Hypothesis Testing

The hypothesized model was tested using structural equation modeling. The results indicate acceptable fit with the data:  $\chi^2 = 1106.01$ ,  $df = 483$ ,  $p < .001$ , CFI= 0.90, RMSEA=0.072 ( $CI_{90} = .066-.078$ ). None of the control variables have a significant influence on the hypothesized relationships. The results of the structural model are shown in Figure 1. Hypothesis 1 is supported as emotional perception has a significant and positive relationship with management of emotion ( $\beta = .471$ ,  $p < .001$ ). H2 is supported as use of emotion has a significant and positive relationship with management of emotion ( $\beta = .300$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Management of emotion has a significant and positive relationship with FCOM ( $\beta = .629$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and MCOM ( $\beta = .171$ ,  $p = 0.038$ ). Management of emotion has a significant and positive relationship with FCOM ( $\beta = .629$ ,  $p < .001$ ), supporting H3. Counter to H4, management of emotion has a significant and positive relationship with MCOM ( $\beta = .171$ ,  $p = 0.038$ ). H5a is supported as FCOM has a positive and significant relationship with behavioral performance ( $\beta = .706$ ,  $p < .001$ ). H5b is not supported as MCOM does not have a significant relationship with behavioral performance

Figure 1: Hypothesized Results



Note: Figure displays standardized parameter coefficients with p-values in parentheses. Dotted lines represent statistically non-significant relationships.



**Table 1: Standardized Factor Loadings**

	Measurement Items and Factor Loadings	Factor Loading	CR	AVE
Emotional Perception – Self and Others				
1	I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.	.84	.89	.59
2	I have a good understanding of my own emotions on the job.	.89		
3	I really understand what I feel.	.82		
4	I always know whether or not I am happy with my job.	.74		
5	I am a good observer of others’ emotions.	.60		
6	I have a good understanding of the emotions of people around me.	.68		
Use of Emotion				
1	I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.	.81	.87	.63
2	I always tell myself I am a competent person.	.70		
3	I am a self-motivating person.	.85		
4	I would always encourage myself to try my best.	.83		
Management of Emotion				
1	I am able to control my temper so that I can handle difficulties rationally.	.81	.90	.69
2	I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.	.90		
3	I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.	.72		
4	I have good control of my own emotions.	.88		
Masculine Communication Style - Egocentric				
1	I often use communication as a way to draw attention to myself and my ideas.	.81	.81	.60
2	I often use communication as a way to establish and enhance my own status at work.	.87		
3	I often use communication as a way to assert my authority at work.	.61		
Masculine Communication Style – Assertive				
1	I often find myself interrupting others to gain command of the conversation at work.	.79	.85	.65
2	I tend to dominate the conversation at work.	.85		
3	My communication style at work tends to be somewhat dominant, forceful, or aggressive.	.77		
Masculine Communication Style				
	Egocentric	.88	.72	.58
	Assertive	.61		
Feminine Communication Style - Compassionate				
1	I often communicate in a way that expresses empathy or sympathy toward others at work.	.85	.60	.61
2	I tend to be sensitive to others’ needs in my communications at work.	.87		
3	I tend to communicate in a compassionate way at work.	.60		
Feminine Communication Style – Egalitarian				
1	I tend to communicate in a responsive way at work (e.g., by smiling, or by nodding).	.80	.84	.63
2	I often invite others to participate and encourage them to elaborate on their thoughts at work.	.86		
3	I regard communication at work as a way to build rapport (harmonious connections) with others.	.72		
Feminine Communication Style				
	Compassionate	.84	.91	.84
	Egalitarian	.99		
Behavioral Performance				
1	I am very effective in maintaining good customer relations.	.87	.90	.60
2	I am very effective in providing accurate and complete paperwork.	.71		
3	I am very effective in acquiring the necessary knowledge about my products, competitor’s products and my customer’s need	.77		
Outcome Performance				
1	I am very effective in contributing to my firm’s market share.	.77	.92	.75
2	I am very effective in selling to major accounts.	.90		
3	I am very effective in generating a high level of dollar sales.	.92		
4	I am very effective in exceeding annual sales targets and objectives.	.87		

Table 2: Correlation Matrix and Descriptive Statistics

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1 Emotional Perception	1											
3 Use of Emotion	.689**	1										
4 Management of Emotion	.610**	.549**	1									
5 FC Compassionate	.414**	.474**	.328**	1								
6 FC Egalitarian	.551**	.559**	.478**	.676**	1							
7 MC Egocentric	.266**	.237**	.158*	.190**	.246**	1						
8 MC Assertive	-.127*	-.178**	-.125*	-.115	-.163**	.501**	1					
9 Behavioral Performance	.547**	.588**	.569**	.446**	.538**	.205**	-.169**	1				
10 Outcome Performance	.583**	.586**	.555**	.393**	.499**	.288**	-.047	.716**	1			
11 Education	.007	-.024	.050	.049	.059	.081	-.007	-.0048	-.044	1		
12 B2B Sales Experience	.137*	.118	.184**	.132*	.116	.051	-.075	.153*	.154*	.041	1	
13 Biological Sex	.095	.054	.004	.158*	.109	.037	-.054	.022	-.009	-.023	-.203**	1
Mean	6.11	6.31	6.13	5.44	5.80	4.88	3.26	6.30	5.99	-	12.74	-
Standard Deviation	0.80	0.79	0.92	1.09	1.05	1.40	1.51	0.81	1.01	-	9.59	-

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

( $\beta = .102$ ,  $p = 0.151$ ). H6a is not supported as FCOM does not have a significant relationship with outcome performance ( $\beta = .004$ ,  $p = 0.962$ ). However, H6b is supported as MCOM has a significant relationship with outcome performance ( $\beta = .151$ ,  $p = 0.012$ ). Finally, while not hypothesized, behavioral performance has a positive and significant relationship with outcome performance ( $\beta = .798$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The results from the direct effect model provide initial understanding into the relationships between EI, GCOM, and performance. However, mediation is likely to play an important role in providing better insight. Thus, a post hoc analysis is performed to better understand the relationships.

### Post Hoc Analysis

The findings of the direct effect analysis demonstrate that: (1) management of emotion has a positive relationship with FCOM ( $\beta = .629$ ,  $p < .001$ ) which, in turn, has a positive relationship with behavioral performance ( $\beta = .706$ ,  $p < .001$ ); (2) management of emotion has a positive relationship with MCOM ( $\beta = .171$ ,  $p = .038$ ) which, in turn, has a positive relationship with outcome performance ( $\beta = 0.151$ ,  $p = .012$ ); and (3) FCOM has a positive relationship with behavioral performance ( $\beta = .706$ ,  $p < .001$ ) which, in turn, has a positive relationship with outcome performance ( $\beta = .798$ ,  $p < .001$ ). These findings prompt further investigation of these relationships to assess if FCOM, MCOM, and behavioral performance are acting as mediators in these relationships. Specifically, the results presented above indicate the strong possibility that: (1) FCOM is mediating the relationship between management of emotion on behavioral performance, (2) MCOM is mediating the relationship between management of emotion on outcome performance, and (3) behavioral performance is mediating the relationship between FCOM on outcome performance. We investigate this possibility by conducting a bootstrap analysis (5000 samples) in AMOS 29 and assessing the 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals of the corresponding indirect effects. The findings are summarized in Table 3.

As seen in Table 3, management of emotion has a significant indirect effect on behavioral performance through FCOM (indirect effect = 0.35). The corresponding confidence interval does not include zero, suggesting a significant indirect effect. In

**Table 3: Indirect Effects**

Relationship	Indirect Effect	95% Confidence Interval	P-Value
Management of emotion → FCOM → Behavioral Performance	0.346	(0.183, 0.623)	0.000
Management of emotion → MCOM → Outcome Performance	0.023	(-0.017, 0.590)	0.193
FCOM → Behavioral Performance → Outcome Performance	0.534	(0.300, 1.000)	0.010

addition, FCOM has a significant indirect effect on outcome performance through behavioral performance [indirect effect = 0.53, CI= (0.300, 1.000)]. However, management of emotion does not have a significant indirect effect on outcome performance through MCOM, as the confidence interval contains zero [CI = (-0.017, 0.590)].

The above results indicate that (1) FCOM is mediating the relationship between management of emotion and behavioral performance, and (2) behavioral performance is mediating the relationship between FCOM and outcome performance. To assess whether these effects are fully or partially mediated, the direct effect of management of emotion on behavioral performance and the direct effect of FCOM on outcome performance must be investigated. The direct effect of management of emotion on behavioral performance is significant ( $\beta = .475$ ,  $p < .001$ ). This indicates that FCOM partially mediates the relationship between management of emotion and behavioral performance. The direct effect of FCOM on outcome performance is not significant ( $\beta = -.023$ ,  $p = .753$ ), indicating that behavioral performance fully mediates the relationship between FCOM and outcome performance. This finding highlights how FCOM positively affects salesperson outcome performance but only by first positively affecting behavioral performance.

### Discussion

The current research contributes to further understanding about a relatively new construct in organizational studies – gendered communication theory – and advances the sales literature by introducing a new communication construct (GCOM) and its two dimensions: FCOM and MCOM. Past research on salesperson communication style has predominantly focused on salespeople's ability to match their communication style to buyers.

However, with a shift in the business environment to a more collective/holistic buying process (Chase and Murtha, 2019), a growing disconnect within the buyer - seller relationship (CSO Insights, 2018), and shifting communication processes/modalities (Moffett et al., 2020; Bharadwaj and Shipley, 2020; Ahearne et al., 2022); salespeople may not be able to effectively match communication styles with all parties involved, especially during group interactions (e.g., meetings with multiple people at once), and thus must focus attention on their own communicative styles. While matching communication style is still relevant for salespeople and researchers, this research provides a new and unique way of studying how salespeople communicate with customers.

This research further draws on the theory of emotional intelligence (Mayer and Salovey, 1997) by examining a cascading structure of EI that results in salespeople's ability to manage emotions and its influence on GCOM. The results of H1 and H2 support the cascading model of EI framework, as emotional perception and use of emotion both have a positive relationship with management of emotion. These findings coincide with past sales research that has tested different variations of the cascading model (Chen and Jaramillo, 2014; Locander et al., 2014). Salespeople that possess the ability to both perceive and use emotions are better equipped to manage emotions during sales interactions. While Joseph and Newman (2010) remove use of emotion from their cascading model, findings from the present research suggest that within a sales context, use of emotion can be an important antecedent to effectively managing emotions.

As hypothesized in H3 and H4, the final dimension of EI, management of emotion, should have had differing effects on GCOM. As predicted in H3, management

of emotion has a positive relationship with FCOM. However, counter to H4, management of emotion is positively related to MCOM. At first, finding a positive relationship between management of emotion and MCOM is somewhat surprising, but there are a few potential explanations as to why this occurred. First, MCOM communicators tend to dominate and control conversations to manipulate the narrative and satisfy personal objectives. One way MCOM communicators may achieve this is through managing others' emotions. In selling situations, salespeople utilizing MCOM may attempt to manage others' emotions to convince others that their message is correct. For example, they may exaggerate the severity of a problem to instill fear in others and fulfill their own interests. Second, MCOM communicators pride themselves on their negotiation prowess (Goodwin, 1990). While past research on emotion and negotiation have produced mixed results regarding negotiation outcomes, there is no doubt that emotions play a role in successful negotiation (Druckman and Olekalns, 2007). Therefore, MCOM communicators may attempt to gain the upper hand when negotiating by manipulating others' emotions.

The current study and post hoc analysis provide insight into GCOM and its relationship with performance. First, MCOM was hypothesized to have a negative relationship with behavioral performance (H5b) and a positive relationship with outcome performance (H6b). H5b was not supported, as MCOM did not have a significant relationship with behavioral performance. H6b is supported, as MCOM is positively related to outcome performance. This finding is in line with the practitioner-based Challenger Sales Model (Dixon and Adamson, 2011) which posits that outcome sales success is achieved by taking control of the conversation and pushing customers out of their comfort zone. While the Challenger Sales Model has gained popularity with practitioners, it has received criticism by academics for its lack of empirical rigor and for minimizing the role of relationship building in sales (Rapp, Bachrach, Panagopoulos, and Ogilvie, 2014). Additionally, the post hoc analysis did not find evidence that MCOM mediates the relationship between management of emotion and outcome performance, a relationship that has been established in the literature (Kidwell et al., 2011; Mulki et al., 2015).

Counter to the results of MCOM on behavioral performance, FCOM did have a significant and positive relationship with behavioral performance, supporting H5a. However, H6a was not supported, as FCOM did not have a significant relationship with outcome performance. Initially, this was surprising, as it was predicted that the collaborative and relationship-oriented communication style (FCOM) should have a positive effect on outcome performance. However, at second glance, this finding made sense due to the strength of the relationships between FCOM and behavioral performance ( $\beta = .706$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and behavioral performance to outcome performance ( $\beta = .798$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Mediation was likely causing the insignificant direct effect. The post hoc analysis confirmed our intuition, as behavioral performance fully mediates the relationship between FCOM and outcome performance. The post hoc analysis also revealed that FCOM partially mediates the relationship between management of emotion and behavioral performance. Thus, given the findings presented here, this study lends further credence to Weinberg et al.'s (2019) findings that feminine communication appears to be a more pivotal factor toward certain success factors than masculine communication.

### **Managerial Implications**

With the introduction of GCOM to the sales literature, the current research provides sales managers with a new tool for assessing individual communication style. The findings demonstrate that salespeople utilizing FCOM provide better behavioral performance than MCOM salespeople. It is important to note that MCOM and FCOM are not opposite ends of a communicative spectrum, as people may range from low to high on both of these facets separately – thus suggesting the importance of training salespeople to assess and hone their FCOM prowess. With the growing capabilities of CRM systems to capture emails and phone conversations, sales managers have a plethora of data to assess individuals' communication style. One potential way to assess these communications is through using *computer automated text analysis* (CATA) in programs like LIWC (Tausczik and Pennebaker, 2010). CATA provides researchers and sales managers with the ability to analyze text and dialogue for predetermined



characteristics (e.g., positive/negative emotion or tone). Additionally, dictionaries of terms or phrases can be developed and coded to represent FCOM and MCOM. By utilizing CATA, sales managers have a valuable tool for determining the GCOM of their sales force. Once a sales manager identifies and understands a salesforce member's communication style, training can be used to teach individuals to communicate in a desired manner. As suggested by Weinberg and Cleveland (2017), this would entail highly masculine communicators to converge on a more androgynous (high masculine, high feminine) style or for others to produce a more rigidly feminine (low masculine, high feminine) style.

Situational learning theory proposes that individuals learn within authentic contexts (Koponen, et al., 2019). By utilizing situational intensive skills training (e.g., recorded role-plays), salespeople can improve underdeveloped abilities (e.g., communication style) through repeated practice and coaching (Boorum et al., 1998). In addition, sales managers can assess job applicants' communication styles during the hiring process by measuring and analyzing phone interviews and/or email correspondences. For example, sales managers can provide each applicant with a set of situational sales questions and have applicants respond via email. By having applicants answer these questions, sales managers can assess how applicants would handle difficult selling situations, and their responses would generate a substantial writing sample to assess their communication style.

Contributing to research which highlights the importance of EI in salesperson communication (Deeter-Schmelz and Sojka, 2003), the current study shows how EI influences GCOM. Deeter-Schmelz and Sojka (2003) emphasize that training in emotional intelligence (EI) can enhance salesperson communication and interpersonal skills and improve their relationships with customers. The findings from the present research demonstrate that emotional perception and use of emotion have a positive effect on management of emotion which in turn has a positive effect on FCOM and a small effect ( $p=.038$ ) on MCOM. The post hoc analysis reveals a significant mediating effect of FCOM between management of emotion and behavioral performance, while MCOM did not have a significant mediating effect on outcome

performance. These findings ultimately suggest that FCOM serves as the performative act through which individuals manage emotions. This perspective offers suggestions for salesperson selection and training, but it also suggests a potentially broader contribution of FCOM to organizational literature as the catalyst through which EI may be communicated.

With reference to salesperson selection and training, sales managers can employ validated EI measures to assess the emotional intelligence of job applicants (Law et al., 2004; Kidwell et al., 2011). Not only would this help determine whether applicants have FCOM, but previous research shows that EI is also positively related to job performance (Kidwell et al., 2011; Lassk and Shepherd, 2013). Finally, existing research shows that empathy is essential for both EI and communication (Aggarwal et al., 2005; Delpechitre et al., 2018) and is a core dimension of FCOM. Sales managers could include empathy-building exercises into training sessions to enhance the emotional intelligence and FCOM of their sales force (Anaza, Inyang, and Saavedra, 2018).

### **Limitations and Future Research**

Although the present study provides academic and managerial insights into GCOM and EI as an antecedent of GCOM, this study is not without limitations. One limitation of this study is the use of self-reported measures. While self-reported measures are a valid methodological approach (Hair et al., 2010), the results should be interpreted carefully and without claiming causality. As mentioned above, there are other methodological approaches (e.g., CATA or expert-informed content analysis procedures) that future researchers could employ to explore objective salesperson communication data. Another limitation is the potential issue of discriminant validity between behavior and outcome job performance, as the AVE's for both constructs exceed the squared interconstruct correlations (SIC) between these factors. While behavioral and outcome performance does pass a chi square difference test, there still remains a question on discriminant validity, and future research could address this by replicating our findings with an objective measure of performance. Finally, a limitation of this study is the use of a B2B salesperson panel as our sample, which, while useful for the purposes of better understanding

the relationships between GCOM and behavioral performance of those at the heart of the selling process, potentially truncates the generalizability of our results. Future research could offset these limitations by objectively examining salesperson EI and GCOM in a field study or through experiments.

With the introduction of GCOM to the sales literature, we advocate that this is an area ripe for future research. Future research should examine how communication style affects the different stages of the sales process. For example, given the dialogic and communal nature of FCOM, are FCOM communicators better at prospecting, introductions, and/or uncovering buyers' needs (e.g., adaptive selling or creative selling)? Likewise, and based on the discussion above, is the direct and authoritative manner of MCOM better at sales presentations and/or negotiations? Additionally, future research should examine potential interactions between GCOM and salesperson traits and abilities. Given that empathy has shown to be a positive salesperson trait (e.g., Locander, Locander, and Weinberg, 2020) and is at the heart of FCOM, future research should examine empathy as an antecedent to FCOM. Another interesting trait worthy of investigation is Lone Wolf Tendencies (LWT) (Brown et al., 2023). Past research on LWT has found a positive relationship with narcissism (Locander, Zmich, and Locander, 2021) which may have an influence on MCOM. These examples offer promising avenues for future research in this area.

While the present research examines direct effects of gendered communication, some research is suggesting the importance of also considering the moderating effects that gendered communication may have across various circumstances and environments (e.g., Smith, Weinberg, & Trevino, 2014). Thus, future research can examine GCOM as a moderator to explore questions such as how salespeople who are low masculine/high feminine communicators differ from salespeople who are high masculine/low feminine communicators. Researchers interested in pursuing such nuanced GCOM research could benefit from suggestions for structuring the gendered communication variables into categories that extend beyond the more straightforward gendered bifurcation of the masculine/feminine divide (Weinberg and Cleveland, 2017; Hausfeld and Weinberg, 2023).

Additionally, given that much of the past research on salesperson communication has focused on salespeople attempting to alter their communication style to that of the buyer (e.g., Alavi et al., 2019; McFarland et al., 2006; Rich and Smith, 2000; Williams and Spiro, 1985), future research could examine GCOM and the ability to adjust to different communication styles across selling and relational contexts. The findings of the present study also highlight an area worthy of exploring - how emotions are used by salespeople with both forms of GCOM. For example, are feminine communicators using emotion to show empathy and masculine communicators using emotions to direct or perhaps manipulate buyers? Determining how FCOM and MCOM differ in their use of emotions would enhance our understanding of use of emotions and GCOM within the selling situations and across more generalizable organizational contexts.

Finally, given the importance of communication in selling and business contexts, many additional opportunities exist for future research. For example, a fruitful area of exploration is examining GCOM with the social styles matrix proposed by Merrill and Reid (1981) and the potential for matching buyers' GCOM. Additionally, researchers could assess the impact of GCOM between sales managers and the sales force, determine how GCOM differs across industries, analyze different training and coaching methods and their effectiveness, and examine the influence of GCOM on intraorganizational employee navigation (i.e., internal selling) (Plouffe and Gregoire, 2011). The future research suggestions outlined here are just a starting point for researchers, as GCOM likely affects many organizational contexts.

## REFERENCES

- Aggarwal, Praveen, Stephen B. Castleberry, Rick Ridnour, and David C. Shepherd (2005), "Salesperson empathy and listening: impact on relationship outcomes," *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, 13(3), 16-31.
- Agnihotri, Raj, Adam A. Rapp, James 'Mick Andzulis, and Colin B. Gabler (2014), "Examining the drivers and performance implications of boundary spanner creativity," *Journal of Service Research*, 17(2), 164-181.

- Ahearne, Michael, Yashar Atefi, Son K. Lam, and Mohsen Pourmasoudi. (2022), "The future of buyer-seller interactions: a conceptual framework and research agenda," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 50(1), 22-45.
- Alavi, Sascha, Johannes Habel, and Kim Linsenmayer (2019) "What does adaptive selling mean to salespeople? An exploratory analysis of practitioners' responses to generic adaptive selling scales," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 39(3), 254-263.
- Amor, Nour (2019), "What Skills Make a Salesperson Effective? An Exploratory Comparative Study among Car Sales Professionals," *International Business Research*, 12(11), 76-93.
- Anaza, Nwamaka A., Aniefre E. Inyang, and Jose L. Saavedra (2018), "Empathy and affect in B2B salesperson performance", *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 33(1), 29-41.
- Anderson, James C., and David W. Gerbing (1988), "Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach," *Psychological Bulletin*, 103(3), 411-423.
- Ashcraft, K Lee (2013), *Feminist theory*. In L. L. Putnam and D. K. Mumby (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of organizational communication* (3rd ed., pp. 127-150). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Babin, Barry J., and Mitch Griffin (1998), "The nature of satisfaction: an updated examination and analysis," *Journal of Business Research*, 41(2), 127-136.
- Babin, Barry J., Mitch Griffin, and Joseph F. Hair Jr. (2016), "Heresies and sacred cows in scholarly marketing publications," *Journal of Business Research*, 69(8), 3133-3138.
- Baldauf, Artur, and David W. Cravens (2002), "The effect of moderators on the salesperson behavior performance and salesperson outcome performance and sales organization effectiveness relationships," *European Journal of Marketing*, 36(11/12), 1367-1388.
- Baldauf, Artur, David W. Cravens, and Nigel F. Piercy (2005) "Sales management control research—synthesis and an agenda for future research," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 25(1), 7-26.
- Bar-On, Reuven (1997), *The Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i): Technical manual*. Toronto, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.
- Behrman, Douglas N., and William D. Perreault (1982), "Measuring the performance of industrial salespersons," *Journal of Business Research*, 10(3), 355-370.
- Bem, L. Sandra (1974), "The measurement of psychological androgyny," *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 42(2), p.155.
- Bharadwaj, Neeraj, and Garrett M. Shipley (2020), "Salesperson communication effectiveness in a digital sales interaction," *Industrial Marketing Management*, 90, 106-112.
- Bolander, Willy, Nawar N. Chaker, Alec Pappas, and Daniel R. Bradbury (2021), "Operationalizing salesperson performance with secondary data: aligning practice, scholarship, and theory," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 49(3), 462-481.
- Boorom, Michael L., Jerry R. Goolsby, and Rosemary P. Ramsey (1998), "Relational communication traits and their effect on adaptiveness and sales performance," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 26(1), 16-30.
- Borisoff, Deborah, and Lisa Merrill, (1985), *The power to communicate: Gender differences as barriers*. Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland.
- Brackett, Marc A., Susan E. Rivers, Sara Shiffman, Nicole Lerner, and Peter P. Salovey (2006), "Relating emotional abilities to social functioning: A comparison of self-report and performance measures of emotional intelligence," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 780-795.
- Briggs, Elten, Ashish Kalra, and Raj Agnihotri (2018), "Contrasting effects of salespeople's emotion appraisal ability in a transaction-oriented environment," *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 33(1), 84-94.
- Brown, Barron W., David A. Locander, Jennifer A. Locander, and William B. Locander (2023), "Examining the Antecedents and Outcomes of Salesperson Bottom Line Mentality and Lone Wolf Tendencies," *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 35(1), 48-72.

- Butler, Judith (2004). *Undoing gender*. London, England: Routledge.
- Campbell, K. Karly (Ed.). (1993), *Women public speakers in the United States: A biocritical sourcebook*. Westport, CT: Greenwood.
- Chase, Kevin S., and Brain Murtha (2019), "Selling to Barricaded Buyers," *Journal of Marketing*, 83(6), 2-20.
- Chatham-Carpenter, April, and Victoria DeFrancisco (1998), "Women construct self-esteem in their own terms: A feminist qualitative study," *Feminism & Psychology*, 8(4), 467-489.
- Chen, Chien-Chung, and Fernando Jaramillo (2014), "The double-edged effects of emotional intelligence on the adaptive selling-salesperson-owned loyalty relationship," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 34(1), 33-50.
- Croft, Alyssa, Ciara Atkinson, and Alexis M. May (2021), "Promoting Gender Equality by Supporting Men's Emotional Flexibility," *Policy Insights from the Behavioral and Brain Sciences* 8(1), 42-49.
- CSO Insights (2018) *The Growing Buyer-Seller Gap: Results of the 2018 Buyer Preferences Study*. Littleton: Miller Heiman Group.
- Davies, Michaela, Lazar Stankov, and Richard D. Roberts (1998), "Emotional intelligence: In search of an elusive construct," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75(4), 989-015.
- Deeter-Schmelz, Dawn R., and Jane Z. Sojka (2003), "Developing effective salespeople: Exploring the link between emotional intelligence and sales performance," *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 11(3), 211-220.
- Delpechitre, Duleep, and Lisa Beeler (2018), "Faking it: salesperson emotional intelligence's influence on emotional labor strategies and customer outcomes," *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 33(1), 53-71.
- Delpechitre, Duleep., Lisa L. Beeler-Connelly, and Nawar N. Chaker (2018), "Customer value co-creation behavior: A dyadic exploration of the influence of salesperson emotional intelligence on customer participation and citizenship behavior," *Journal of Business Research*, 92, 9-24.
- Dixon, Matthew, and Brent Adamson (2011), *The challenger sale: Taking control of the customer conversation*. Penguin.
- Druckman, Daniel, and Mara Olekalns (2008), "Emotions in negotiation," *Group Decision and Negotiation*, 17(1), 1-11.
- Eagly, Alice H., and Linda L. Carli (2007), "Women and the labyrinth of leadership," *Harvard Business Review*, 85, 63-71.
- Goleman, Daniel (1995), *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. New York: Bantam Dell.
- Goodwin, H. Marjorie (1990), *He said, she said: Talk as social organization among black children*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
- Groza, Mark D., David A. Locander, and Charles H. Howlett (2016), "Linking Thinking Styles to Sales Performance: The Importance of Creativity and Subjective Knowledge," *Journal of Business Research*, 69(10), 4185-4193.
- Hair, Joseph F., William C. Black, Barry J. Babin, and Rolph E. Anderson (2010), *Multivariate Data Analysis*. (7th, Ed.) New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Hausfeld, Mary M., and Frankie J. Weinberg (2023), A Decision Process for Theoretically and Empirically Driven Scale Shortening using OASIS: Introducing the Gendered Communication Instrument – Short Form. L. R. Ford and T. A. Scandura (eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Survey Development and Application*.
- Johnson, L. Fern (1996), Friendship among women: Closeness in dialogue. In J. T. Wood (Ed.), *Gendered relationships: A reader* (pp. 301-316). Fairfax, VA: George Mason University Press.



- Joseph, Dana. L., and Daniel Newman (2010), "Emotional Intelligence: An Integrative Meta-Analysis and Cascading Model," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 54-78.
- Joseph, Dana. L., Daniel A. Newman, and Ernest H. O'Boyle (2015), "Why does self-reported emotional intelligence predict job performance? A meta-analytic investigation of mixed EI," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(2), 298.
- Kidwell, Blair., David H. Hardesty, Brian R. Murtha, and Shibin Sheng (2011), "Emotional intelligence in marketing exchanges," *Journal of Marketing*, 75(1), 78-95.
- Koponen, Jonna, Saara Julkunen, and Akiko Asai (2019), "Sales communication competence in international B2B solution selling," *Industrial Marketing Management*, 82, 238-252.
- Lassk, Felicia G., and C. David Shepherd (2013), "Exploring the relationship between emotional intelligence and salesperson creativity," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 33(1), 25-37.
- Law, Kenneth. S., Chi-Sum Wong, and Lynda J. Song (2004), "The construct and criterion validity of emotional intelligence and its potential utility for management studies," *Journal of applied Psychology*, 89(3), 483-469.
- Leeper, Campbell, and Melanie M. Ayres (2007), "A meta-analytic review of gender variations in adults' language use: Talkativeness, affiliative speech, and assertive speech," *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 11(4), 328-363.
- Locander, David. A., Jay P. Mulki, and Frankie J. Weinberg (2014), "How do salespeople make decisions? The role of emotions and deliberation on adaptive selling, and the moderating role of intuition," *Psychology and Marketing*, 31(6), 387-403.
- Locander, David A., Frankie J. Weinberg, and William B. Locander (2018), "The mediating role of sales department innovation orientation on creative selling," *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 30(4). 463-482.
- Locander, David A., Jennifer A. Locander, and Frankie J. Weinberg (2020), "How Salesperson Traits and Intuitive Judgments Influence Adaptive Selling: A Sensemaking Perspective," *Journal of Business Research*, 118, 452-462.
- Locander, David A., Mahmoud A. Darrat., and Barry J. Babin (2023), "Examining the impact of salesperson orientation on creative selling, passive deviance, and organizational outcomes," *Journal of Business Research*, 154, 113391.
- Locander, David A., Louis J. Zmich, and William B. Locander (2021), "It is All About Me: Antecedents and Consequences of Salesperson Lone Wolf Tendencies," *Journal of Selling*, 21(2), 5-17.
- Mayer, John D., and Peter Salovey (1997), *What is emotional intelligence?* New York: Basic Books.
- Mayer, John D., Peter Salovey, and David R. Caruso (2004), "Emotional Intelligence: Theory, Findings, and Implications," *Psychological Inquiry*, 15(3), 197-215.
- McFarland, Richard G., Goutam N. Challagalla, and Tasadduq A. Shervani (2006), "Influence tactics for effective adaptive selling," *Journal of Marketing*, 70(4), 103-117.
- Merrill, David W., and Roger H. Reid (1981), *Personal Styles & Effective Performance*. Radner, PA: Chilton.
- Messner, Michael (1997), *Boyhood, organized sports, and the construction of masculinities*. In E. Disch (Ed.), *Reconstructing gender* (pp. 57-73). Mountain View, CA: Mayfield.
- Miao, C. Fred, and Kenneth R. Evans, (2007), "The impact of salesperson motivation on role perceptions and job performance—a cognitive and affective perspective," *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 27(1), 89-101.
- Miao, C. Fred, Kenneth R. Evans, and Zou Shaoming, (2007), "The role of salesperson motivation in sales control systems—Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation revisited," *Journal of Business Research* 60(5), 417-425.

- Moffett, Jordan W., Judith J. A. G. Folse, and Robert W. Palmatier (2020), "A theory of multiformat communication: mechanisms, dynamics, and strategies," *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 49(3), 441–461.
- Mulac, Anthony (2006), The gender-linked language effect: Do language differences really make a difference? In K. Dindia & D. Canary (Eds.), *Sex differences and similarities in communication* (pp. 219-239). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Mulki, Jay P., Fernando Jaramillo, Emily A. Goad, and Martha R. Pesquera (2015), "Regulation of emotions, interpersonal conflict, and job performance for salespeople," *Journal of Business Research*, 68(3), 623-630.
- Newman, Matthew L., Carla J. Groom, Lori D. Handelman, and James W. Pennebaker (2008), "Gender differences in language use: An analysis of 14,000 text samples," *Discourse Processes* 45(3), 211-236.
- Palomares, A. Nicholas (2012), *Gender and intergroup communication*. In H. Giles (Ed.), *The handbook of intergroup communication* (pp. 197-210). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Petrides, Kostantinos. V., and Adrian Furnham (2001), "Trait emotional intelligence: Psychometric investigation with reference to established trait taxonomies," *European Journal of Personality*, 15(6), 425-448.
- Plouffe, Christopher R., and Yany Grégoire (2011), "Intraorganizational employee navigation and socially derived outcomes: Conceptualization, validation, and effects on overall performance," *Personnel Psychology*, 64(3), 693-738.
- Rapp, Adam, Daniel G. Bachrach, Nikolaos Panagopoulos, and Jessica Ogilvie (2014), "Salespeople as knowledge brokers: a review and critique of the challenger sales model." *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*, 34(4), 245-259.
- Rich, Michael K., and Daniel C. Smith (2000), "Determining relationship skills of prospective salespeople," *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 15(4), 242-259.
- Robertson, Kirsten, and Tamar Murachver (2003), "Children's speech accommodation to gendered language styles," *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 22(3), 321-333.
- Rozell, Elizabeth J., Charles E. Pettijohn, and R. Stephen Parker (2004), "Customer-oriented selling: Exploring the roles of emotional intelligence and organizational commitment," *Psychology & Marketing*, 21(6), 405-424.
- Saurer, M. Kaye, and Richard M. Eisler (1990), "The role of masculine gender role stress in expressivity and social support network factors," *Sex roles*, 23(5), 261-271.
- Shehryar, Omar., and Dan Moshavi (2014), "Communication Techniques in Adaptive Selling: A Strategic Account Management Approach," *Journal of Selling*, 14(1), 44-54.
- Sias, Patricia M., Erin B. Gallagher, Irina Kopaneva, and Hannah Pedersen (2012), "Maintaining workplace friendships: Perceived politeness and predictors of maintenance tactic choice," *Communication Research* 39(2), 239-268.
- Smith, S. Caitlin, Frankie J. Weinberg and Len J. Treviño (2014), "The effects of gendered communication and gender composition on objective indicators of career success." *Southern Management Association Proceedings* (ISBN: 978-0-9836282-7-9).
- Tannen, Deborah (1990), *You just don't understand: Women and men in conversation*. New York, NY: William Morrow.
- Tausczik, Yla R., and James W. Pennebaker (2010), "The psychological meaning of words: LIWC and computerized text analysis methods," *Journal of language and social psychology*, 29(1), 24-54.
- Vargo, Stephen L., and Robert F. Lush (2004), "Evolving to a New Dominant Logic for Marketing," *Journal of Marketing*, 68(1), 1-17.
- Verbeke, Willem (1997), "Individual Differences in Emotional Contagion of Salesperson: Its Effect on Performance and Burnout," *Psychology & Marketing*, 14(6), 617-636.

Verbeke, Willem, Bart Dietz, and Ernst Verwaal (2011), "Drivers of sales performance: a contemporary meta-analysis. Have salespeople become knowledge brokers?" *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 39, 407-428.

Vrooman, Steven S. (2001), "Flamethrowers, slashers, and witches: Gendered communication in a virtual community," *Qualitative Research Reports in Communication*, 2(2), 33-41.

Wang, Guangping, and Richard G. Netemeyer (2004), "Salesperson creative performance: conceptualization, measurement, and nomological validity," *Journal of Business Research*, 57(8), 805-812.

Weinberg, Frankie and A. O'Shea Cleveland (2017), "Gender as a Deep-Level, Communicated, and Interactional Construct: Implications for Leaders, Subordinates, and Teammates." *Leading Diversity in the 21st Century*, edited by T. A. Scandura and E. Mouriño. Information Age Publishing, 27-54.

Weinberg, Frankie J., Len Treviño, and A. O'Shea Cleveland (2019), "Gendered communication and career outcomes: A construct validation and prediction of hierarchical advancement and non-hierarchical rewards," *Communication Research*, 46(4), 456-502.

Weiss, Deborah M., and Jacqueline Sachs (1991), "Persuasive strategies used by preschool children," *Discourse Processes*, 14(1), 55-72.

Williams, Kaylene C., & Rosann L. Spiro (1985), "Communication style in the salesperson-customer dyad," *Journal of Marketing Research*, 22(4), 434-442.

Wood, Julia T. (2013), *Gendered lives: Communication, gender, and culture* (10th ed.). Boston, MA: Wadsworth Cengage Learning.

Wood, Julia T., and Natalie Fixmer-Oraiz (2019), *Gendered lives: Communication, gender, and culture* (13th ed.). Boston, MA: Cengage.

Wood, Wendy., P. Niels Christensen, Michelle R. Hebl, and Hank Rothgerber (1997), "Conformity to sex-typed norms, affect, and the self-concept," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 73(3), 523.