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Gender, Language, and Social Influence: A Test of Expectation States, Role Congruity, and Self-Categorization Theories

Scott A. Reid¹, Nicholas A. Palomares², Grace L. Anderson¹, & Beverly Bondad-Brown¹

1 Department of Communication, University of California, Santa Barbara, CA 93106-4020

2 Department of Communication, University of California, Davis, CA 95616

This study compares self-categorization, expectation states, and role congruity theories' explanations for female influence. Male and female participants (N = 267) listened to a recording of a female speaker who used either tentative or assertive language under conditions that led participants to categorize her as a woman or as college-educated. There was no evidence that women were differentially influenced by the speaker's linguistic style or by the categorization. Men, however, were more influenced by the tentative speaker when she was categorized as a woman than as a college student. Men were more influenced by an assertive than tentative speaker when the speaker was categorized as a college student. Mediational findings provided evidence for self-categorization and expectation states, but not role congruity, processes.

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According to Lakoff (1973, 1975), women are caught between two forms of male prejudice. When women use tentative language—hedges (e.g., *sort of, you know*), disclaimers (e.g., *I'm not sure, I suppose*), and tag questions (e.g., *isn't it? right?*)—men like them but perceive them as relatively unintelligent and incompetent, thus justifying their exclusion from serious discussion and power. When women eschew tentative language, men see them as intelligent and competent, but they are ostracized for being unfeminine; epithets reserved for such women include *bully broad, iron maiden, and bitch*.

Research has verified Lakoff's contention. Wiley and Eskilson (1985) found that women who used assertive language were seen as successful managers, despite being seen as less likeable, than women who used tentative language. Juodvalkis, Grefe, Hogue, Svyantek, and DeLamarter (2003) found that dominant female job candidates

Corresponding author: Scott A. Reid; e-mail: scottreid@comm.ucsb.edu

were more strongly endorsed for a position but less liked than submissive women. There is also evidence that self-promoting women are perceived as more competent but less likeable than self-effacing women (Rudman, 1998), and this is particularly true when the woman is an applicant for a feminine managerial position (Rudman & Glick, 1999, 2001).

There is, nevertheless, evidence for other outcomes. Carli (1990) found that women who used tentative language with men were evaluated low on competence and intelligence and seen as likeable, but they were also *more* influential than assertive women. In other words, assertive women were evaluated positively on power and competence as Lakoff predicted, but this assessment did not come with a commensurate increase in social influence. To the contrary, tentativeness, not assertiveness, enhanced women's ability to influence men. In fact, there is much evidence that tentative women can be more influential (e.g., persuasive and hirable) than assertive women, as well as being more likeable, despite being seen as *less* competent (e.g., Burgoon, Jones, & Stewart, 1975; Carli, 1990; Carli, LaFleur, & Loeber 1995; Haccoun, Haccoun, & Sallay, 1978; Matschiner & Murnen, 1999; Reid, Keerie, & Palomares, 2003; Watson, 1988).

Several solutions to this dilemma have been proposed. To gain influence, women can: Accrue expertise to be more task competent than men (Ridgeway, 2001); soften assertive language by balancing it with tentative language (Carli, 2001); assume a collective rather than self-promoting orientation (Ridgeway, 1982); and restrict influence attempts to feminine topics (Dovidio, Brown, Heltman, Ellyson, & Keating, 1988). All these solutions require women to accommodate to men's prejudice. More valuable would be to delineate conditions that enable women to be assertive and persuasive with men, as well as being viewed as competent and likeable, yet without having to exchange one male prejudice for another.

Self-categorization theory (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987) provides a novel platform for explicating such conditions. Self-categorization theory predicts that women will suffer the costs of negative stereotypes when gender is salient. In this case, women will be expected to conform to the female stereotype, and negatively evaluated when they are assertive because they will be perceived as conforming to the male stereotype. Self-categorization theory also predicts that people will be influenced by those who represent a shared identity. When a shared identity is salient, self-categorization theory predicts that assertive women can influence men and still be seen as competent and likeable.

Because linguistic style, stereotypes, and social evaluations are tightly intertwined, several theories, other than self-categorization theory, have been developed to explain such linkages. For example, the stereotype content model shows differences in perceptions of competence and warmth that vary for low- and high-status groups (e.g., Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002). In this article, however, we focus our attention on theories that link such perceptions to social influence. Specifically, we describe the predictions of expectation states and role congruity theories before deducing predictions from self-categorization theory.

Expectation states theory

Expectation states theory (Berger, Fisek, Norman, & Zelditch, 1977; Berger & Zelditch, 1998; Correll & Ridgeway, 2003) is concerned with the ways in which people form and maintain status hierarchies and how status hierarchies regulate inequalities in influence. According to the theory, gender (such as race, ethnicity, and education) is a diffuse status characteristic that is associated with performance expectations. People who have higher performance expectations are believed to have greater task competence, which means they are expected to make more valuable contributions to group tasks. When people interact, they look to diffuse status characteristics and provide themselves and others in the group with a weighting that reflects their status position and thus relative performance expectations (Berger, Norman, Balkwell, & Smith, 1992).¹ Those who have a relatively high complement of performance expectations are more likely to enact a proactive role—assert task suggestions, evaluate other's suggestions, and be influential in shaping the decisions of the group. Those who are lower on performance expectations are expected to enact a reactive role—ask questions, agree with others, and acquiesce to others' suggestions. As a consequence, people who start with a greater share of status characteristics end with a greater share of influence (Mullen, Salas, & Driskel, 1989; Ridgeway, 1991, 1997, 2001; Ridgeway & Diekema, 1989; Ridgeway & Johnson, 1990).

Because status characteristics are based on consensual beliefs, people's behavior is shaped through a collective process that defines who can legitimately enact influence (Ridgeway & Berger, 1986; Ridgeway & Diekema, 1989). The result is that high-status people are permitted to enact assertive (i.e., proactive) but not tentative (i.e., reactive) behaviors, whereas low-status group members are permitted to enact tentative but not assertive behaviors. Behavior that is inconsistent with the legitimated status order is viewed as a status violation and sanctioned by the group. For example, women who attempt to enact an assertive role are likely to be ignored or interrupted by other group members (Ridgeway, 1982; Ridgeway & Berger, 1986; Reid & Ng, 2006; Rudman & Glick, 2001). Legitimated status characteristics regulate behaviors and thus the stability of the status system (Ridgeway, 2001).

Expectation states theory predicts that the weighting and legitimization of status characteristics is contextually variable (Ridgeway, 1997; Wagner & Berger, 1997). For example, when high educational attainment is a salient status characteristic, expectation states theory predicts that speakers whose behavior is assertive and consistent with expectations will be more influential than an equally educated speaker whose behavior is tentative and at odds with the salient status expectation. People will assume that the tentative speaker is less competent and consequently less influential than the assertive speaker. Thus, expectation states theory predicts that assertive speakers will be more influential than tentative speakers when educational attainment is salient and that the perceived competence of the speaker will mediate this effect.

However, gender-based expectations will be invoked for topics that are gender stereotypic and for contexts where men and women interact, even if the topic is

gender neutral (Dovidio et al., 1988). In the case where gender is salient, assertive women will be regarded as violating the status order, and they will be resisted, disliked, and lack influence (Ridgeway, 1982; Ridgeway & Berger, 1986; Reid & Ng, 2006; Rudman & Glick, 2001). Evidence exists, however, that women can be influential when gender is salient if they soften their suggestions with tentative language (cf. Burgoon et al., 1975; Carli, 1990, 2001; Carli et al., 1995). From the perspective of expectation states theory, tentativeness suggests recognition of and deference to the status hierarchy, and this deference enables a female speaker to be somewhat influential. Thus, expectation states theory predicts that tentative women will be more influential when gender is salient than when educational attainment is salient, and that the perceived competence of the speaker will mediate this effect.

Finally, because status characteristics are based on consensual and legitimated beliefs (Ridgeway, 1997; Ridgeway & Berger, 1986; Ridgeway & Diekema, 1989), expectation states theory predicts that both male *and* female social perceivers will make the same judgments about tentative and assertive speakers across contexts.

Role congruity theory

According to role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002), men and women occupy social roles with attendant stereotypes and prescriptions. Men are stereotypically agentic; they are assertive, confident, and powerful. Women are stereotypically communal; they are pleasant, likeable, and trustworthy.² Agentic traits also define the leadership role (Heilman, Block, Martell, & Simon, 1995; Schein, 1973, 1975), which means that men are seen as possessing more leadership traits than women. This disparity between the communal-female stereotype and the agentic-leader stereotype leads to two forms of prejudice. First, women's potential for being endorsed as leaders is less than men's potential because the male stereotype is closer to the leader stereotype. Second, women's actual leadership is evaluated less favorably than men's actual leadership because women's assertive behavior is perceived as undesirable or threatening, particularly to men.

Following social role theory (Eagly, 1987), role congruity theory predicts that role prescriptions are active only in contexts with cues that activate gender categorization. When gender is salient, assertive women will lack influence, particularly with men, because they will be perceived as lacking in the prescribed level of communality. In a context where nongender-related cues such as educational attainment are active (and gender lacks relevance), role congruity theory predicts that assertive women will be more influential with men than tentative women, and that this effect will be driven by the greater perceived agency of the assertive woman.

Role congruity theory also predicts that women can use tentative language to be influential with men when gender is salient. Specifically, Eagly and Karau (2002) interpret the evidence that tentative women are more influential with men than assertive women (e.g., Carli, 1990; Carli et al., 1995; Ridgeway, 1982; Rudman,

1998; Watson, 1988) in light of the prescriptive aspects of agentic and communal stereotypes. As noted, when educational attainment is salient, men will not be particularly influenced by tentative women who will be perceived as lacking agency. When gender is salient and women are tentative, again judgments of agency will be relatively low, but because tentative behavior is consistent with the communal role, these women will be perceived as relatively influential. Thus, role congruity theory predicts that men will be more influenced by tentative women when gender is salient than when educational attainment is salient, and that the perceived communality of speakers will mediate this effect.

Finally, we note that according to role congruity theory many of these effects do not operate the same way for men and women: Compared with men, women generally have a more androgynous construal of leadership, and they are less concerned by women's displays of agency. Although this argument does not provide a strong theoretical basis for a prediction, it does suggest that women will be more influenced by assertive than tentative women, and that this will not be moderated by the salience of gender or education-related cues. Role congruity theory would also suggest that women are more influenced by assertive than tentative female speakers because of the perceived agency of the speakers.

Self-categorization theory

Self-categorization theory (Turner et al., 1987) is a social-cognitive account of the processes that underpin collective self-definition as a group member. The core idea is that people represent social categories as context-dependent prototypes—fuzzy sets of attributes that crystallize so as to maximally clarify shared in-group similarities from out-group differences. For example, Americans might self-define as capitalistic, individualistic, and materialistic in comparison to Iraqis, but as happy-go-lucky, brash, and laid-back in comparison to the British. Further, people internalize prototypes as self-defining attributes when they are contextually salient and relevant to the social perceiver. Prototypes are collective self-definitions that serve as a basis for normative action: The prototype describes the attributes of the group and thus the attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors that best characterize the group in that context (Hogg & Reid, 2006).

This process underpins the self-categorization theory of social influence (Abrams & Hogg, 1990; Abrams, Wetherell, Cochrane, Hogg, & Turner, 1990). As different social comparisons encourage the crystallization of different prototypes, people will shift their attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors to conform with the salient in-group prototype. People are thus influenced by in-group-defining prototypes that capture shared in-group similarities. Self-categorization theory predicts that the closer an individual person is to the in-group prototype, the more influential he or she will be.

Accordingly, women who represent a shared identity can influence men. People who represent the in-group are often seen as similar to self, influential, and socially attractive. For example, in a context where high school and college-educated

populations are compared, college women can garner influence with college men by being representative of the in-group. In this case, the college-educated prototype may consist of high intelligence, competence, and knowledge. Given that research shows that assertive women are typically seen as possessing more of these attributes (e.g., Carli, 1990), we expect that assertive women will be most closely aligned with the in-group college-educated prototype and therefore more influential with men than the less prototypical tentative women. In fact, a tentative woman is an in-group deviant (i.e., the black sheep effect; Marques & Páez, 1994) when college education is salient, thereby depressing influence. Thus:

H1: When a shared college-educated identity is salient, men will be more influenced by assertive than tentative women.

Self-categorization theory further predicts that perceived similarity will mediate this effect: An assertive woman will influence men to the extent that they see her as embodying the in-group prototype. Consequently, men should see themselves as more similar to the more assertive and prototypical speaker. Thus:

H2: When a shared college-educated identity is salient, men will see themselves as more similar to an assertive than tentative female speaker, and this increasing similarity will be associated with increasing influence.

However, when gender is salient, an assertive woman is likely to lack influence with men because men will see her as nonstereotypical and threatening to the male identity. In other words, an assertive woman can be a distinctiveness threat to men. As noted, however, there is evidence that tentative women can influence men despite being seen as low on competence, intelligence, and assertiveness (e.g., Carli, 1990). Self-categorization theory predicts that tentative women will be modestly influential with men when gender is salient because they will be seen as comfortably distinctive and thus nonthreatening. This prediction does not mean that all tentative women will have influence with men. As described above, when a shared college-educated identity is salient, men will not consider a tentative woman to be influential because she lacks prototypicality. Thus, self-categorization theory predicts that a tentative female speaker will be less influential when she is a deviant in-group member than a nonthreatening but prototypical out-group member, which is in line with the black sheep effect:

H3: Men will be more influenced by a tentative female speaker when gender is salient than when a shared college-educated identity is salient.

Surprisingly, research suggests that tentative women are not just modestly influential with men; they can actually be highly influential, despite being evaluated low on competence and agency (e.g., Burgoon et al., 1975; Carli, 1990; Carli et al., 1995; Haccoun et al., 1978; Matschiner & Murnen, 1999; Reid et al., 2003; Watson, 1988). Reid and Ng (1999) speculated that men may be particularly influenced by tentative women when gender is salient because of social-structural self-enhancement. Namely, traditional gender stereotypes do not just reflect negatively on women, they

also reflect positively on men, which suggests that a tentative female speaker can bolster her influence with men if she confirms men's wider social-structural advantage over women. If this is the case, then we would expect tentative women to confer a boost in male collective self-esteem when gender is salient. Over time, men may tolerate the influence attempts of tentative women, but only insofar that tentative women confer high social status and hence collective self-esteem on men. Thus:

H4: When a woman makes a persuasive appeal using tentative language, men will experience greater collective self-esteem when gender is salient than when a shared identity is salient, and this greater collective self-esteem will lead to greater social influence.

In the case of female social perceivers, a female speaker will be an in-group member whether gender or college education is salient. Although women will have a social-cognitive reason to differentiate from a fellow female speaker (i.e., because of her low prototypicality in some conditions), unlike men, women do not have additional motivational reasons (e.g., distinctiveness or status threats) to do so. For this reason, we do not expect that identity salience or speaker style to be differentially influential with female participants.

Comparing theories

Male and female participants will be exposed to a counterattitudinal persuasive appeal from a tentative or assertive female speaker under conditions where she is represented in terms of either her gender or her college-educated status. Expectation states theory predicts a two-way interaction between linguistic style and identity salience: Social perceivers, male and female alike, will be more influenced by the assertive than tentative female speaker when her college education is salient; but when gender is salient, the tentative speaker will be moderately influential, and the assertive speaker will not be influential at all. Expectation states theory predicts that the perceived competence of the female speaker will mediate these effects.

Role congruity theory predicts the same pattern for male social perceivers only (and thus a three-way interaction between participant gender, speaker style, and identity salience), and it predicts different intervening processes. Specifically, role congruity theory predicts that men will be more influenced by the assertive than tentative speaker when college education is salient because of the perceived agency (i.e., leader-like attributes) of the speaker. Role congruity theory also predicts that men will be more influenced by tentative women under gender salience than educational salience because of the greater communalities (i.e., pleasantness and likeability) of the speaker. Unlike expectation states theory, role congruity theory predicts that female social perceivers will be concerned about the agency of the speaker and thus more influenced by the assertive than tentative women, but that this process will not be moderated by identity salience.

Self-categorization theory predicts the same interaction for men as expectation states and role congruity theories, but it predicts that assertive women will be

more influential than tentative women when education is salient because of the relative prototypicality of speakers. Furthermore, following Reid and Ng's (1999) speculations, we predicted that men will be more influenced by a tentative speaker under gender salience than education salience because of the boost in male collective self-esteem under the latter condition. Finally, given self-categorization theory's predicted three-way interaction, neither linguistic style nor identity salience is expected to differentially affect female perceptions of influence.

Method

Participants and design

A total of 269 undergraduate students ($n = 108$ men and 161 women) participated in exchange for course credit ($M_{age} = 19.77$ years; $SD = 1.64$). Male and female participants were randomly assigned to one condition of a between-participants factorial design: 2 (salient identity of speaker: gender/college educated) \times 2 (speaker style: tentative/assertive). The primary dependent measures were agreement with the speaker's argument (which favored lowering the drinking age from 21 to 18 years in California); social evaluations of the speaker along dimensions of competence, agency, and communal; perceived similarity to the speaker; private collective self-esteem of the participant; and a measure of the participant's postinduction attitude to decreasing the drinking age in California.

Procedure

A female research assistant conducted the study in group sessions. Participants did not communicate with each other throughout the experiment. First, participants learned of the general structure of the study—that they would listen to a tape of a speaker who would present a position on a controversial issue and that they would complete a questionnaire to evaluate the speaker and argument. Before the tape was played, participants were instructed to turn to the first page of a pencil-and-paper questionnaire that contained the identity salience manipulation.

Identity salience manipulation

Participants were asked to carefully read “detailed background information” that provided further framing for the study and was designed to lead participants to categorize the speaker in terms of gender or college education level. Namely:

An enormous amount of research attention has been directed towards understanding group decision making. One of the most common kinds of research compares groups that vary in [educational background/gender composition]. This research demonstrates that [college-educated and high-school-educated/all-male and all-female] decision making groups engage in very different forms of communication, and produce very different solutions to the same problems. Consider for a moment the kinds of differences that you think there might be—we can't tell you what these are right now, but we will at

the conclusion of this study. The reason we want you to do this is that we are testing whether people are aware of the specific differences that have been found in research. We will play a tape recording of a very typical member of a [college-educated/all-female] decision-making group. This speaker will summarize [their/her group's] reasoning and position on a controversial issue. Before we play this tape, please list some things that you think might differ for [high school- and college-educated/male and female] decision-making groups.

A space was provided under these instructions for participants to write a list of things that they felt would differ between the groups described in the manipulation. After this task, a recording of the tentative or assertive female speaker was played at an optimal volume.

Language style manipulation

To set up the manipulation, we first needed to find an issue that was gender neutral and polarized for our sample population. To achieve these goals, we conducted a pilot study wherein a separate sample ($N = 58$; $M_{age} = 20.26$, $SD = 1.30$; $n = 19$ men and 39 women) indicated their attitudes toward, as well as interest in and knowledge on, several issues (1 = *completely disagree*, 10 = *completely agree*). All criteria were met on the item: "The drinking age should be decreased to 18 in California." On average, participants were against this change ($M = 2.93$, $SD = 2.51$), which enabled us to test for variability in attitude positions following the speaker's persuasive appeal. There was no evidence that men and women differed in issue position, levels of interest ($M = 6.47$, $SD = 2.11$), or knowledge ($M = 5.73$, $SD = 2.09$).

The first and second authors composed an argument that contained several reasons for decreasing the drinking age to 18 years in California. Arguments included the suggestion that reducing the drinking age would help to decrease road fatalities because it would reduce the prevalence of binge drinking; that the United States has the highest drinking age in the Western world, and yet one of the highest incidences of alcoholism; that decreases in drunk driving fatalities following the introduction of the 21-age law were in fact driven by increased policing; and that the 21-age law is at variance with age laws regarding joining the military, driving, and voting, and that it is therefore unreasonable. Two scripts were composed that connected these points into a coherent argument. Following Carli (1990), in an assertive version the points were made without disclaimers (e.g., *I'm not sure*, *I mean*, *I suppose*), hedges (e.g., *sort of*, *you know*, *maybe*), or tag questions (e.g., *right?*). In a tentative version, these linguistic forms were added in a way that made the delivery of the argument natural, yet more tentative than the assertive version. Several iterations of these scripts were made with adjustments in the frequency of tentative language to ensure that both versions sounded like natural speech. Finally, under the direction of the second author, a female speaker delivered the two persuasive scripts while being audio recorded. Attention was paid to ensure that the speech rate, intonation, and other paralinguistic features were constant. The tentative argument was 4 minutes 37 seconds in length, and the assertive argument was 3 minutes 56 seconds.

Table 1 Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations

Variables	<i>M</i>	σ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Agreement	5.06	1.60	—						
Competence	4.59	1.23	.47	—					
Agency	3.79	1.63	.28	.80	—				
Communality	4.38	1.28	.33	.62	.61	—			
Prototypicality	4.40	1.52	.50	.59	.53	.55	—		
Collective self-esteem	5.60	1.04	.19	.40	.39	.28	.25	—	
Attitude	6.98	2.76	.81	.40	.24	.35	.53	.21	—

Note: All correlations are significant at $p < .002$, $N = 267$.

Once the recording had finished, participants were instructed to turn the page of their questionnaire and complete the dependent measures.

Dependent measures

Dependent measures appeared in the order reported herein (see Table 1 for means and correlations). Agreement with the speaker and attitude toward lowering the drinking age to 18 years in California are the two measures of social influence. In testing overall patterns of moderation, we used a composite (the mean of these two items, $\alpha = .82$), but only the attitude question—which came at the end of the questionnaire and hence preserves the order of causality—in mediational analyses.

Following Carli (1990) and Carli et al. (1995), *agreement* with the speaker was measured using a single item: “How much do you agree with the speaker?” (1 = *not at all*, 7 = *very much*).

Social evaluations of the speaker served as a manipulation check on the language style induction and as measures of speaker competence, agency, and communality. Items were measured on a 12-item scale (1 = *not at all*, 7 = *very*). Following role congruity theory, we measured the degree to which participants thought the speaker was *assertive*, *powerful*, *leader-like*, and *confident* (agency); *pleasant*, *likeable*, and *trustworthy* (communality); and *competent*, *knowledgeable*, *rational*, and *intelligent* (competence). We asked participants to rate the tentativeness of the speaker, but this variable did not load well with other items, probably because it was the only reverse-coded item; this item was dropped.

Expectation states theory predicts that people evaluate speakers on the dimension of competence, whereas role congruity theory adds communality and agency. Self-categorization theory is more flexible and suggests that these evaluations are context dependent. Nonetheless, these dimensions are necessary for us to distinguish among theories in mediational analyses. As can be seen in Table 1, these three variables are highly intercorrelated (r_s range from .61 to .80). Factor analysis of these 11 items (using oblique rotation) reveals a one-factor solution that accounts for 61.20% of the variance. When we force a three-factor solution, however, we find that the items cluster on the factors as expected with one exception (trust loads on competence),

and that the percentage of accounted variance increases to 72.68%. The first factor (agency) accounts for 62.17% of variance and loads on the assertive (.86), powerful (.70), leader-like (.88), and confident (.96) items. The second factor (communality) accounts for 5.92% of variance and loads on the pleasant (.66) and likeable (.94) items but not trust (.26). The third factor (competence) accounts for 4.60% of variance and loads on the competence (.59), knowledge (.99), rational (.63), intelligent (.53), and trust (.47) items. Given that these factors and loadings are readily interpretable and largely consistent with theoretical expectations, we saved mean scores as dependent measures. The competence ($\alpha = .90$), agency ($\alpha = .94$), and communality ($\alpha = .82$) scales were all reliable.

Perceived *similarity* to the speaker (Reid & Hogg, 2005) was measured with a single item: "In terms of general attitudes, aspirations, and outlook on life, how similar do you feel you and the speaker might be" (1 = *not at all similar*, 7 = *very similar*). Although this item conflates three domains of similarity, it is consistent with the concept of prototypicality in self-categorization theory (Turner et al., 1987)—namely, that similarity can be judged with respect to a fuzzy set of features. Similar measures of prototypicality have shown predictive validity (e.g., Mackie, 1986; Reid, Byrne, Brundidge, Shoham, & Marlow, 2007; Reid & Hogg, 2005; Spears, Doosje, & Ellemers, 1997; Verkuyten & Nekuee, 1999).

Private collective self-esteem

Private collective self-esteem (Crocker & Luhtanen, 1990) was measured using four items (1 = *not at all*, 7 = *very much*), all of which were introduced with the term "after hearing the tape" to ensure a state measure. The items were "I would say that I feel good about my gender group"; "I would say that my gender group is not worthwhile" (reverse-coded); "I would say that I am glad to belong to my gender group"; and "I regret that I belong to my gender group" (reverse-coded). Because the scale had acceptable reliability ($\alpha = .74$), the mean score was used to represent it (larger numbers indicate higher self-esteem).

The final item measured participants' attitude toward lowering the drinking age in California: "The drinking age should be lowered to 18 in California" (1 = *completely disagree*, 10 = *completely agree*).

Results

Manipulation checks and preliminary analyses

Preanalysis data screening revealed two outliers, which were deleted, leaving $N = 267$.

Our gender salience manipulation check asked participants to provide a list of things that they felt would differ between male and female discussion groups or college-educated and high-school-educated groups, respectively. A research assistant who was unfamiliar with the experiment coded the content of participants' lists. Four *a priori* categories were coded to determine whether the participant described differences involving: (a) gender, (b) students, (c) a list of differences between

groups but without specific mention of gender or students, and (d) an “other” category where participants mentioned neither group, gender, nor students. All participants complied with our request to list differences. No participant rejected our assertions for differences between groups. A cross-tabulation of these four categories with our salience manipulation shows that participants mentioned gender in the gender salience condition ($n = 116$) and students in the college-educated condition ($n = 96$), but no participant mentioned the opposites. Only five participants indicated information that fell into the “other” category. Finally, 50 participants listed group differences, but made no explicit reference to gender or students. This pattern suggests that our identity salience manipulation was successful.

We expected participants to view the speaker as higher in agency when she used assertive than tentative language. We made this check using a three-way analysis of variance (ANOVA): 2 (gender: male/female) \times 2 (salient identity: gender/education) \times 2 (speaker style: tentative/assertive) on the measure of speaker agency. As expected, there was a large main effect for speaker style, $F(1, 259) = 217.12, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .46$. Confirming the effectiveness of the speaker style manipulation, the assertive speaker was evaluated higher on agency ($M = 4.85, SD = 1.13$) than the tentative speaker ($M = 2.68, SD = 1.25$). There was also an interaction between participant gender and speaker style on perceptions of agency, $F = 5.50, p = .020, \eta_p^2 = .02$, which shows that women saw the distinction in agency between assertive ($M = 5.00$) and tentative ($M = 2.48$) speakers as being somewhat larger than men for assertive ($M = 4.71$) and tentative ($M = 2.88$) speakers. However, this effect is very small in comparison with the speaker style main effect, and the manipulation is clearly operative for both men and women. These data suggest that the manipulation of speaker style was successful.

Before testing our focal hypotheses, we test for effects of participant gender, the speaker’s linguistic style, and identity salience on the mediational variables: Competence, communalism, agency, similarity to the speaker, and collective self-esteem (correlations are reported in Table 1; cell means for each outcome are reported in Table 2). Importantly, each theory makes specific predictions about the levels of these variables within conditions for male participants. We turn now to the relevant outcomes for each theory.

Expectation states theory predicts that perceptions of competence will vary for tentative and assertive speakers. The three-way ANOVA on competence showed a main effect for linguistic style, $F = 119.72, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .32$: The assertive speaker was viewed as more competent ($M = 5.26$) than the tentative speaker ($M = 3.87$). Beyond this effect, expectation states theory predicts two contrasts for male social perceivers. First, the tentative speaker should be viewed as more competent under gender ($M = 4.19$) than educational ($M = 3.56$) identity salience, and this contrast was significant, $F = 5.36, p = .021, \eta_p^2 = .02$. Second, when educational attainment is salient, the assertive speaker should be viewed as more competent than the tentative speaker, and this contrast was significant, $F = 36.66, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .12$. These findings suggest that the preconditions for a test of expectation states theory are met.

Table 2 Means on Dependent Measures Across Experimental Conditions

	Male Participants				Female Participants			
	Tentative		Assertive		Tentative		Assertive	
	Gender	Students	Gender	Students	Gender	Students	Gender	Students
Agreement	5.36	4.20	4.79	5.70	4.78	5.18	5.38	5.13
Attitude	7.16	5.66	6.82	7.35	6.64	6.95	7.57	7.40
Competence	4.19	3.56	5.11	5.25	3.99	3.73	5.36	5.30
Agency	3.12	2.63	4.37	5.04	2.48	2.47	4.97	5.02
Communality	4.08	3.83	4.86	4.72	3.56	3.90	4.88	5.03
Collective self-esteem	6.11	5.44	6.06	5.55	4.90	4.97	5.90	5.99
Prototypicality	3.92	3.20	5.14	5.17	3.92	4.26	4.76	4.80
Composite social	6.26	4.93	5.80	6.52	5.71	6.07	6.48	6.27

Role congruity theory makes predictions about the levels of agency and communality. As noted above, the assertive speaker was viewed higher on agency than the tentative speaker.

Furthermore, on communality the only reliable effect was linguistic style, $F(1, 259) = 49.08, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .16$: Participants rated the assertive speaker as more communal ($M = 4.87$) than the tentative speaker ($M = 3.84$). Although this effect may appear to be a manipulation failure for role congruity theory, we should note that role congruity theory predicts that women can be influential by complementing agency with communality, thereby implying that a tentative speaker should be viewed as higher on communality than agency; however, remaining unclear is whether an assertive speaker would need to be seen as equally communal and agentic or whether small amounts of communality would suffice. To investigate, we treated evaluations of agency and communality as a repeated measure and tested whether these levels were moderated by speaker style. A mixed-model ANOVA revealed a main effect for evaluations, $F(1, 265) = 68.72, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .21$: On average, participants viewed the speakers as more agentic ($M = 4.36$) than communal ($M = 3.23$). There was also a main effect for speaker style, $F = 177.08, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .40$: The assertive speaker was rated higher on average than the tentative speaker. However, these main effects were qualified by a speaker style by evaluation domain interaction, $F = 63.85, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .19$: The assertive speaker was viewed equally high on agency ($M = 4.88$) and communality ($M = 4.90$), but the tentative speaker was viewed higher on communality ($M = 3.82$) than agency ($M = 2.64$). These findings suggest that the preconditions for a test of role congruity theory are met.

Self-categorization theory makes predictions about the levels of similarity. On similarity, the three-way ANOVA provided evidence of a main effect for linguistic

style, $F = 41.47, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .14$: Participants rated themselves as more similar to the assertive ($M = 4.97$) than tentative ($M = 3.83$) speaker. However, a sex by style interaction qualified this effect, $F = 6.51, p = .011, \eta_p^2 = .062$. Women considered themselves moderately more similar to the assertive ($M = 4.78$) than tentative speaker ($M = 4.09$), whereas men considered themselves a good deal more similar to the assertive ($M = 5.16$) than tentative ($M = 3.56$) speaker. Furthermore, self-categorization theory specifically predicts that men will report greater similarity to the assertive than tentative speaker when educational attainment is salient, and the contrast shows that this is the case, $F = 25.35, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .09$. These findings suggest that the preconditions for a test of self-categorization theory are met.

Reid and Ng's (1999) hypothesis makes predictions about the levels of collective self-esteem. On collective self-esteem, there were main effects for participant gender, $F = 8.78, p = .003, \eta_p^2 = .033$, and linguistic style, $F = 19.36, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .070$: Men reported higher collective self-esteem ($M = 5.79$) than women ($M = 5.44$), and participants reported greater collective self-esteem when they heard an assertive ($M = 5.88$) than tentative ($M = 5.36$) speaker. These main effects were qualified, however, by a participant gender by speaker style interaction, $F = 17.02, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .062$: Men reported high collective self-esteem independent of whether they heard an assertive ($M = 5.81$) or tentative speaker ($M = 5.78$), whereas women reported higher collective self-esteem when they heard an assertive ($M = 5.95$) rather than tentative speaker ($M = 4.93$). Finally, there was a participant gender by identity salience interaction, $F = 8.04, p = .005, \eta_p^2 = .030$. Consistent with Reid and Ng's speculations, men reported higher collective self-esteem when gender was salient ($M = 6.09$) than when educational attainment was salient ($M = 5.50$), $F = 10.15, p = .002, \eta_p^2 = .04$. However, there was no evidence that women's collective self-esteem differed by gender ($M = 5.40$) or educational identity salience ($M = 5.48$), $F = .33, p = .57$. These findings suggest that the preconditions for a test of Reid and Ng's self-esteem hypothesis are met.

Hypothesis 1

H1 predicted that when a shared college-educated identity is salient, men would be more influenced by assertive than tentative women. We test H1 on the composite social influence measure (the mean of agreement with the speaker and attitudes toward lowering the drinking age). The same pattern is found on each item separately and on the composite. To test H1, we first treat influence as a dependent variable in a three-way ANOVA model. The ANOVA reveals a main effect for speaker style, $F(1, 259) = 4.17, p = .042, \eta_p^2 = .016$. The assertive speaker ($M = 6.27$) was more influential than the tentative speaker ($M = 5.74$). The only other significant effect was the three-way interaction between participant gender, identity salience, and linguistic style, $F(1, 259) = 6.43, p = .012, \eta_p^2 = .024$ (Figure 1).

Next, we conduct a priori contrasts to directly test our predictions. Consistent with H1, men were more influenced by the assertive ($M = 6.52$) than tentative speaker ($M = 4.93$) when a shared identity as college students was salient, $F(1, 259) = 7.85,$

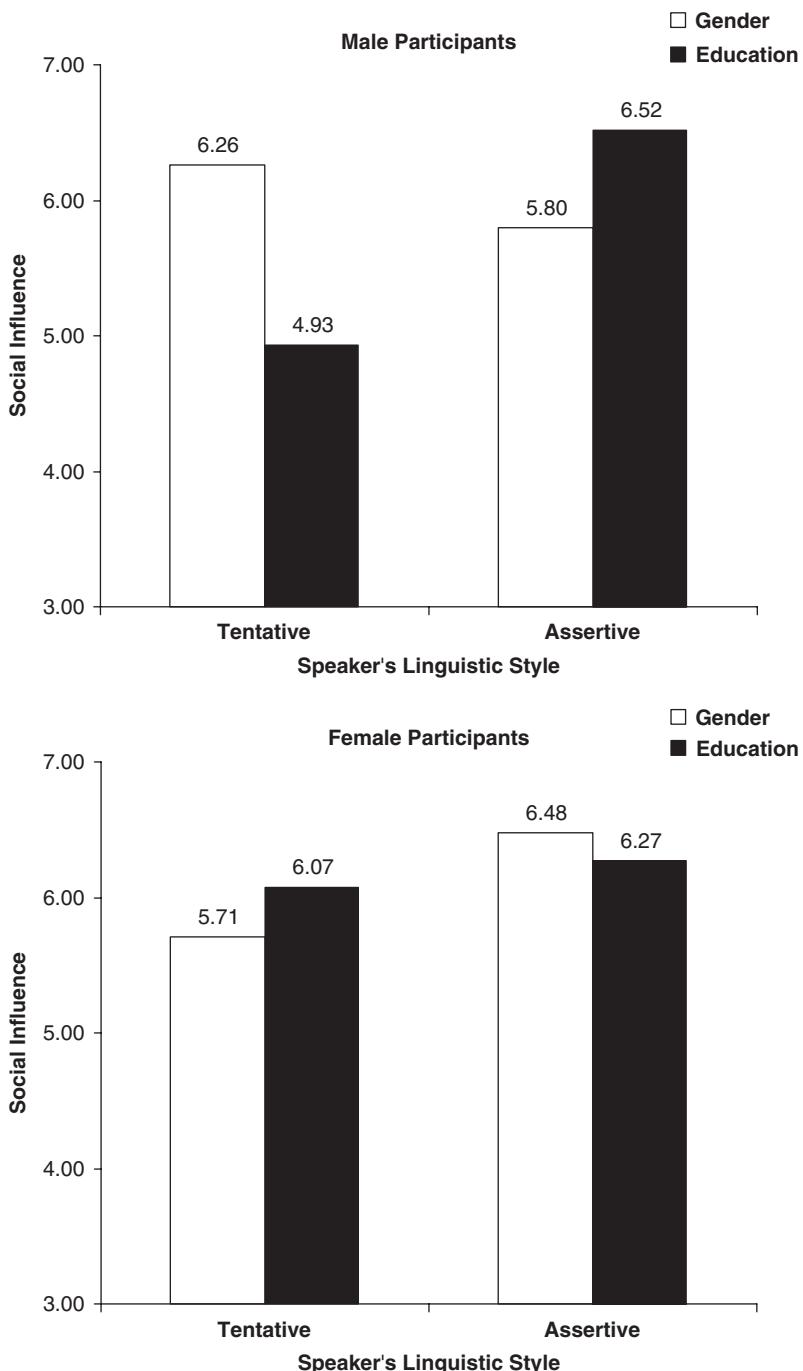


Figure 1 Three-way interaction among participant gender, speaker's linguistic style, and categorization on the composite measure of social influence.

$p = .005$, $\eta_p^2 = .029$, $MSE = 4.22$. For female participants, there was no evidence that speaker style affected social influence, $F(1, 259) = .20$, $p = .66$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$.

Hypothesis 2

Under H2, we derived a self-categorization explanation for the mechanism underpinning the effect predicted in H1. Namely, we predicted that when a shared identity was salient, men would see themselves as more similar to an assertive than tentative female speaker, and the more similar they saw themselves to the speaker, the more they would be influenced. Expectation states theory, however, predicted that this same effect would be driven by the greater perceived competence of the assertive speaker, whereas role congruity theory predicted that this effect would be driven by the greater perceived agency of the assertive speaker.

We test H2 and competing predictions using a multiple mediation model (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). The outcome is the item that measured attitude position toward lowering the drinking age (which was measured after all mediators), the independent variable is a dummy-coded contrast for the effect of linguistic style while controlling for all other components of the three-way model (i.e., main effects and interactions). The dummy codes are arranged so that the effect of speaker style is isolated for men when the college-educated identity of the speaker was salient (cf. Muller, Judd, & Yzerbyt, 2005; Reid, Gunter, & Smith, 2005). The competing mediational constructs are perceived similarity to the speaker, competence, and agency ratings. The model was tested using 5,000 bootstrapped bias corrected resamples. There are several advantages to testing our hypothesis in this way: The bootstrap approach does not require normal sampling distributions for our direct and indirect effects, enables us to test for the effect of several mediators simultaneously, and does so while controlling for any correlation between those mediators. It is important to note that the bootstrap procedure gives a confidence interval (CI) for the difference in the predictive power of the mediators, but that it only does so when the signs linking the independent variable to mediator and mediator to the dependent variable are the same for the mediators being compared. Contrasts of differently signed mediators provide only a test of difference between mediators, not difference in magnitude, and does not allow one to choose between the predictive power of different mediators.

Consistent with H1, for men there is evidence for a direct effect of speaker style on attitudes toward the drinking age, $\beta = .31$, $t(259) = 2.23$, $p = .026$. As can be seen in Figure 2, speaker style predicts all three mediators, and all mediators are in turn significant predictors of attitudes toward lowering the drinking age. Adding the mediators reduces the direct effect of the speaker style variable from $\beta = .31$ to $\beta = -.04$, which shows that the unique effects of similarity, competence, and agency fully mediate the direct effect. Importantly, the effect of agency on influence is negative when similarity and competence are included as mediators; the negative correlation between agency and influence is opposite to what role congruity theory predicted. The bootstrapped 95% bias corrected CIs show that similarity (1.12, 2.57), competence (.65, 1.99), and

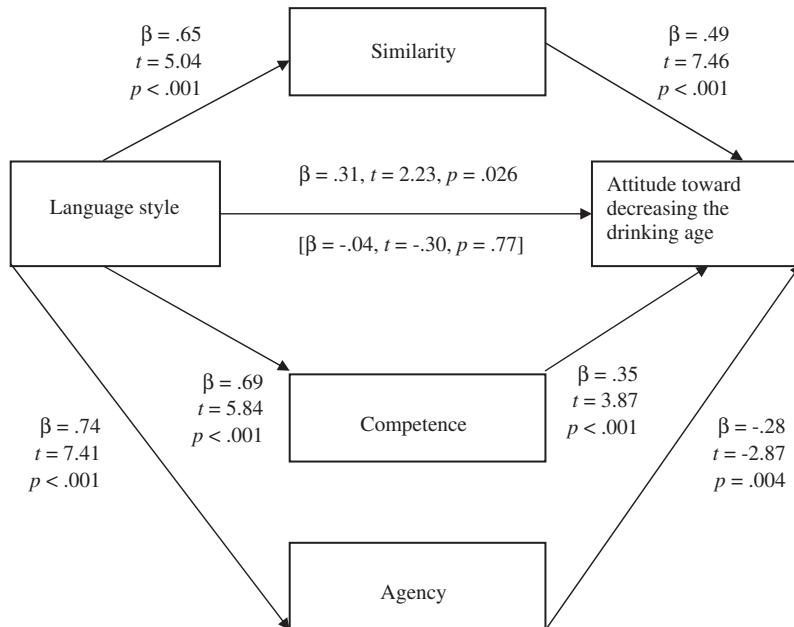


Figure 2 Multiple mediation model of the effect of speaker style on attitude toward decreasing the drinking age in California to 18. The model of speaker style (tentative vs. assertive) is evaluated for men when a shared identity as college students was salient.

agency ($-1.86, -.44$) are all significant mediators. Because agency reversed direction when similarity and competence were included as mediators, it is only possible to compare the magnitude of similarity and competence. This comparison provides no evidence that the magnitude of these two mediators differs ($-.80, 1.74$).

The reversal in the association between agency and attitudes toward lowering the drinking age on including similarity and competence in the mediational model suggests the presence of a suppression effect. To investigate further, we conduct pairwise multiple mediator models. First, comparing similarity and agency, as reported, speaker style predicts both similarity and agency. When both are included in a multiple mediator model, the effect of similarity on attitudes toward lowering the drinking age is strong and positive, $\beta = .57, t = 8.94, p < .001$, but the effect of agency on attitudes is nonsignificant, $\beta = -.06, t = .76, p = .45$. The bootstrapped 95% bias corrected CIs show that similarity is a significant mediator (1.18, 2.98) but that agency is not ($-.94, .45$).

Second, comparing competence and agency, as reported we find that speaker style predicts both competence and agency. When both are included in the multiple mediator model, the effect of competence on attitudes is strong and positive, $\beta = .57, t = 5.99, p < .001$, but the effect of agency is nonsignificant, $\beta = -.16, t = -1.48, p = .14$. The bootstrapped 95% CIs show that competence is a viable mediator (1.29, 3.27), but that agency is not ($-1.62, .30$).

Finally, comparing similarity and competence, as reported we find that speaker style predicts both similarity and competence. When both are included in the multiple mediator model, the effect of similarity on attitudes is strong and positive, $\beta = .55$, $t = 9.67$, $p < .001$, and the effect of competence on attitudes is moderate and positive, $\beta = .20$, $t = 2.67$, $p = .008$. The bootstrapped 95% CIs show that similarity (.86, 2.59) and competence (.20, 1.57) are both significant mediators. Because the paths linking independent variable to mediators and mediators to dependent variable are all positive, it is possible to compare the magnitude of similarity and competence using Preacher and Hayes's (2008) bootstrapping procedure. The 95% CI for the contrast of similarity and competence provides no evidence that their magnitudes differ (-.21, 2.14).

In sum, for male participants who heard a college-educated speaker, similarity and competence, but not agency, mediated the effect of the speaker's linguistic style on attitudes toward lowering the drinking age.

Hypothesis 3

H3 predicted that men would be more influenced by a tentative female speaker when gender was salient than when a shared college-educated identity was salient. A contrast analysis confirms H3: Men were more influenced by the tentative speaker when she was categorized as a woman ($M = 6.26$) than as a college student ($M = 4.93$), $F(1, 259) = 5.74$, $p = .017$, $\eta_p^2 = .022$, $MSE = 4.22$. For female participants, there was no evidence that identity salience affected the influence of tentative speakers, $F(1, 259) = .56$, $p = .46$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$.

Hypothesis 4

H4 predicted that when a woman makes a persuasive appeal using tentative language, men would experience greater collective self-esteem when gender was salient than when a shared college student identity was salient, and that this greater collective self-esteem would in turn lead to greater social influence. Expectation states theory, however, predicted that this same effect would be driven by the greater perceived competence of the speaker under gender salience, whereas role congruity theory predicted that this effect would be driven by this speaker's greater perceived communalities.

To test H4 and the competitive predictions of Reid and Ng (1999), expectation states, and role congruity theories, we tested a multimediator model with collective self-esteem, competence, and communalities as mediators. The independent variable was the dummy-coded contrast for the effect of salience on attitudes toward drinking for male participants where the speaker used tentative language, and all other sources of variance in the factorial model were treated as covariates. The bootstrap procedure was conducted with 5,000 resamples.

This analysis showed a direct effect of salience on attitudes toward lowering the drinking age, $\beta = .27$, $t(259) = 2.03$, $p = .043$. As can be seen in Figure 3, there was evidence that identity salience predicted collective self-esteem and competence, but

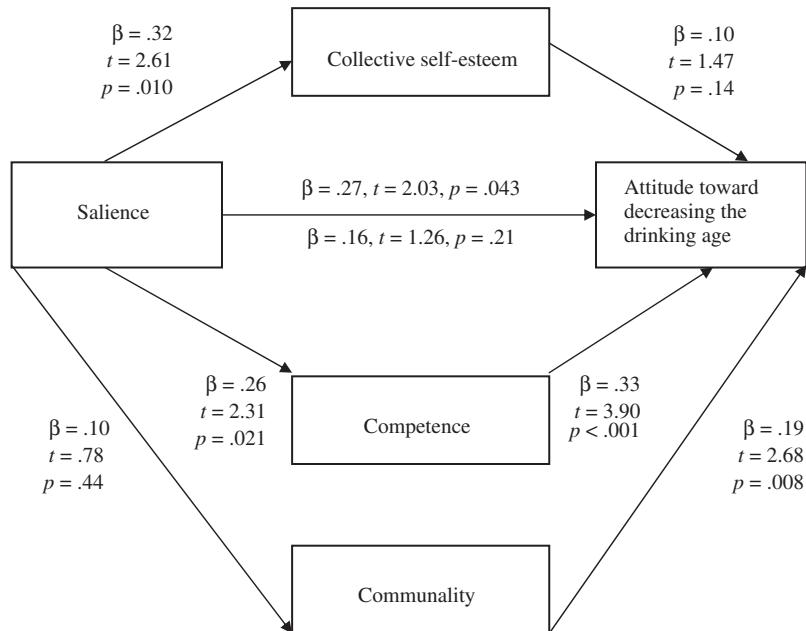


Figure 3 Multiple mediation model of the effect of speaker identity salience on attitude toward decreasing the drinking age in California to 18 years. The model of salience (gender, college education) is evaluated for men when speaker style is tentative.

there was no evidence for an association with speaker communalism. Furthermore, there was evidence that competence and communalism (but not collective self-esteem) predicted variability in attitudes toward the drinking age. Adding the mediators reduced the direct effect of speaker style from $\beta = .27$ to $\beta = .16$, which shows partial mediation. The results of the 95% CIs showed that competence was a significant mediator (.04, 1.18), but that collective self-esteem (−.02, .58) and communalism (−.13, .49) were not. Finally, the 95% CIs for the pair-wise comparisons of the mediators failed to show any significant differences in their strength.

These findings suggest that competence was a viable mediator, but that collective self-esteem and communalism were not.

Discussion

We found that an assertive female speaker was more influential with men than a tentative speaker when her college-educated identity was salient. Expectation states, role congruity, and self-categorization theories predicted this finding. When we tested the intervening processes that explain this effect, however, we found that perceived similarity to the speaker and perceptions of her competence were significant mediators, but that the perceived agency of the speaker was not. Furthermore, and importantly, when similarity to the speaker and perceived competence were included

as mediators, the effect of agency on influence was negative; contrary to role congruity theory, the *less* leader-like the speaker was perceived to be, the more men were influenced by her. These findings suggest, as does other work (e.g., Oldmeadow, Platow, Foddy, & Anderson, 2003), that self-categorization and status expectations can operate as independent and additive contributions to social influence.

On balance, whereas we found evidence for an expectation states process for male participants, expectation states theory predicted this same effect for men and women. In fact, we found no evidence that female participants were differentially influenced by the assertive or tentative speaker or that their judgments were contingent on the speaker's identity. This difference between men and women, which self-categorization theory alone predicted, suggests that men and women were at least partly driven by social identity concerns.

Another mediational model, also consistent with self-categorization theory, could possibly explain this finding. When a shared identity is salient, men may perceive themselves as more similar to the assertive than tentative speaker, which in turn may lead to greater liking of the speaker (see Hogg, 1992) and thus to enhanced social influence. It was not possible to test this model in our study, however, because communality was measured before perceived similarity.

We also found that a female speaker who used tentative language elicited more influence with men than a female speaker who used assertive language. Although this effect has been shown in the past (e.g., Burgoon et al., 1975; Carli, 1990; Carli et al., 1995; Haccoun et al., 1978; Matschiner & Murnen, 1999; Reid et al., 2003; Watson, 1988), we found that this was the case only when the speaker's identity as a woman was salient; when her college education was salient, however, she lacked influence with men, but not women. All three theories predicted this difference in the influence of tentative women across gender- and college-education conditions with men, but for different reasons. Following self-categorization theory and speculations by Reid and Ng (1999), we predicted that this effect would be driven by the greater collective self-esteem elicited in men by the tentative speaker when gender was salient. Following expectation states theory, we predicted that the tentative speaker would be judged more competent when gender was salient than when her college education was salient, but following role congruity theory, we predicted that the speaker's communality would be perceived higher when gender was salient. Simultaneous analysis of the explanatory processes provided evidence for expectation states theory: The greater influence of the tentative speaker with men was partially mediated by her greater perceived competence. A remaining task for research is to identify a full explanation for tentative women's high influence when gender is salient (see below for some speculations).

Finally, all three theories also predicted that an assertive female speaker would lack influence when her gender was salient, but we found no evidence that this was the case. Although her influence was slightly diminished, it was not significantly lower than the influence of an assertive woman when college education was salient.

Implications for expectation states theory

At its core, expectation states theory predicts that status hierarchies regulate and maintain inequalities in influence, participation, and rewards, and that they do so through the legitimization of status cues that differentiate people on expectations about competence. The power of expectation states theory is in explaining the maintenance of the status quo. To accomplish this task, expectation states theory points to the legitimization process. People who violate the status order are sanctioned by other group members, regardless of whether they are high or low status. Indeed, we found that men were more influenced by a tentative woman when gender was salient than when her education was salient, and that the perceived competence of the speaker mediated this effect. However, expectation states theory also predicted this same effect for male *and* female social perceivers, but we found, consistent with self-categorization theory, that there was no evidence for such an effect for women. This outcome suggests that in-group protecting motives were also at play in our participants' judgments of speaker influence.

Given the amount of evidence for expectation states processes and for in-group protecting motives and behavior, future research would be well directed to establish the conditions under which each process is most likely to operate. In fact, research on this very issue by Oldmeadow (2007) showed that undergraduate students were more influenced by a prototypical but low-status target when their undergraduate group was salient, but that they were more influenced by a high-status and (presumably) prototypical target when their university membership was salient. Because this research did not use mediational tests, how the self-categorization and expectation states processes played out remains unclear. Nonetheless, these findings and our own suggest that competence indicated by status and prototypical similarity operate as additive contributions to social influence, and that there are conditions under which both can operate uniquely.

Worth pointing out, however, is that these findings do not undermine expectation states theory, which is explicit about scope conditions for this process, namely, that there is interaction in-groups on cooperative task-directed behavior. Perhaps, expectation states processes occur when these scope conditions are met but break down and are added to or replaced by social identity processes once decision-making cooperation is not a consideration. A synthetic theory that could subsume these accounts would be of great value.

Implications for role congruity theory

Although role congruity theory made relatively accurate predictions about the pattern of influence for men and women, it did not fare well when testing mediational processes. We found no evidence for the role of agency in mediating the effect of the speaker's style when education was salient; in fact, the association was opposite to that predicted by role congruity theory when competence and prototypical similarity were in the model. We also tested whether a tentative speaker would be more influential when gender was salient than educational attainment and found no evidence that communalinity mediated this effect.

Moreover, role congruity theory is (to date) restricted to explaining patterns of influence where gender is salient. In scope, then, expectation states and self-categorization theories provide a much more general account of the process of social influence. Further still, role congruity theory does not provide a compelling theoretical account of its claim that women are not as concerned about agentic behavior as men. This description may indeed be true, but it remains for role congruity theory to supply a theoretical mechanism to account for the social perceptions of men and women.

Implications for self-categorization theory

Our findings were largely consistent with self-categorization theory. The pattern of influence was consistent with the three-way interaction deduced from self-categorization theory; likewise, the influence of assertive women under education salience was mediated by perceived similarity to the speaker. However, it was also true that the perceived competence of the speaker contributed to this effect. One possibility is that competence judgments were consistent with the prototype, and we observed evidence for both mediators because both in isolation did not adequately capture the prototype. Indeed, as noted, when college education was rendered salient, we would expect that the prototype would contain competence-based traits such as knowledge, intelligence, and competence. Furthermore, when similarity and competence judgments were included as mediators, the effect of agency (leader-like, powerful, confident) was negatively associated with influence. Perhaps these attributes were opposite to the prototype that was captured by similarity and competence.

The self-categorization account for the influence of tentative female speakers was less successful. Although the core prediction of self-categorization theory was confirmed (i.e., that a tentative female speaker would be influential with men only when her gender was salient), the level of influence was higher than predicted, and the mediational mechanism of male status enhancement was not significant when competence judgments were included as a competing mediator. Yet other processes appear to be driving this effect for men. A possibility that we did not consider is evolutionary. Men may (unconsciously) interpret tentative female language as submissiveness and sexual receptivity when gender is salient, and this may have increased their attraction to the speaker and thus her influence. Indeed, evidence exists that physically attractive women can be more influential than less physically attractive women (e.g., Dipboye, Arvey, & Terpstra, 1977), and there is also evidence that men evaluate status, wealth, and ambition as more important when they make these judgments copresent with women than alone (Roney, 2003). Perhaps, men are persuaded by tentative women who prime mate attraction processes.

Conclusion

We found evidence for both self-categorization and expectation states processes but no evidence for a role congruity process in the influence of female speakers. Men,

but not women, were more influenced by an assertive than tentative female speaker when her high educational attainment was salient, and this effect was driven by the additive effects of perceived similarity to the speaker and the perceived competence of the speaker. Evidence also emerged that men were more influenced by a tentative female speaker when her gender was salient than when her education was salient. The perceived competence of the speaker mediated this effect.

Our findings suggest one clear path to female influence with men that might contribute to assuaging the prejudice dilemma and perhaps the glass-ceiling effect that women face. Namely, if women are successful in having men represent them as members of a shared and valued in-group, then assertive women can be more influential with men, and men will deem them highly competent, communal, and agentic. Even though gender salience was an experimental manipulation in our study, women can nonetheless enact behaviors that encourage others to see them as leaders with a shared identity and vision for the group rather than women per se. Indeed, this idea has received much support in the social identity literature as a basis for effective leadership (see Van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). According to this view, successful leaders are those who are entrepreneurs of identity (Reicher, 2004)—people who have the ability to mold a shared sense of purpose with followers and use this as a basis for effective social action (Reid & Ng, 2003).

Acknowledgments

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Notes

- 1 Expectation states theory predicts that roles (e.g., being a manager), individual expertise and competence, positional power (e.g., being the chair of a committee), and the resources of power associated with positions are all contributing factors in the estimation of weighted performance expectations. For current purposes, we are concerned only with status characteristics.
- 2 Eagly and Karau (2002) describe agentic and communal traits as role expectations. Roles are associated with both descriptive and injunctive (i.e., prescriptive) expectations, whereas stereotypes in Eagly and Karau's view are merely descriptive. In this article, we refer to agentic and communal traits as elements of stereotypes that are defined by contextually relevant prototypes. Prototypes can be both descriptive and prescriptive (Hogg & Reid, 2006).

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性别，语言与社会影响： 对自我分类理论、期待状态理论和角色调和理论的检验

Scott A. Reid
加州大学圣巴巴拉分校
Nicholas A. Palomares
加州大学戴维斯分校
Grace L. Anderson
加州大学圣巴巴拉分校
Beverly Bondad-Brown
加州大学圣巴巴拉分校

摘要

本研究比较了自我分类理论、期待状态理论和角色调和理论对女性影响的不同解释。男性和女性试验参与者（共 267 人）在一定条件下听一名女性的录音。录音中，该女性的语气要么犹豫不决，使得试验参与者将她归类为“女性”；要么自信十足，使得试验参与者将她归类为“大学生”。没有证据表明女性会更多地受到说话者语言风格或身份分类的影响。相反，当说话者被分类为“女性”而非“大学生”时，男性比女性更容易受到说话者语言风格和身份分类的影响。在说话者被分类为“大学生”且以自信的语气说话时，男性受语言风格等因素的影响更大。研究结果证实了自我分类和期待状态理论，但未能为角色调和理论提供证据。

Le genre, le langage et l'influence sociale :

Un examen des théories des états de prévisions, de congruence des rôles et d'auto-catégorisation

Scott A. Reid

University of California, Santa Barbara

Grace L. Anderson

University of California, Santa Barbara

Nicholas A. Palomares

University of California, Davis

Beverly Bondad-Brown

University of California, Santa Barbara

Résumé

Cette étude compare les explications de l'influence féminine fournies par les théories d'auto-catégorisation, d'états de prévisions et de congruence des rôles. Des participants hommes et femmes ($N = 267$) ont écouté l'enregistrement d'une femme parlant en utilisant un langage timide ou assuré dans des conditions menant les participants à la catégoriser comme une femme ou comme une étudiante universitaire. Rien n'a pu prouver que les femmes étaient différenciellement influencées par le style de langage de la femme enregistrée ou par sa catégorisation. Les hommes, toutefois, étaient plus influencés par l'enregistrement timide lorsque la locutrice était catégorisée comme une femme plutôt que comme étudiante universitaire. Les hommes étaient plus influencés par l'enregistrement assuré que par l'enregistrement timide lorsque la locutrice était catégorisée comme étudiante universitaire. Des résultats de médiation ont fourni des preuves pour les processus d'auto-catégorisation et d'états de prévisions, mais non pour ceux de congruence des rôles.

Gender, Language, and Social Influence:
A Test of Expectation States, Role Congruity, and Self-Categorization Theories

Scott A. Reid

University of California, Santa Barbara

Grace L. Anderson

University of California, Santa Barbara

Nicholas A. Palomares

University of California, Davis

Beverly Bondad-Brown

University of California, Santa Barbara

Geschlecht, Sprache und sozialer Einfluss: Eine Untersuchung zu Theorien der Erwartungshaltung, Rollenkongruenz und Selbstkategorisierung

Diese Studie vergleicht die Annahmen, die in Theorien der Selbstkategorisierung, Erwartungshaltung und Rollenkongruenz bezüglich eines weiblichen Einfluss gemacht werden. Männliche und weibliche Teilnehmer ($N=267$) hörten sich die Tonaufnahme einer weiblichen Sprecherin an, die eine zögerliche oder bestimmende Sprache so einsetzte, dass die Teilnehmer sie als Frau oder als gebildet einschätzten. Es zeigte sich kein Nachweis dafür, dass Frauen vom linguistischen Stil der Sprecherin oder durch die Kategorisierung unterschiedlich beeinflusst wurden. Männer hingegen wurden durch eine zögerliche Sprecherin stärker beeinflusst, wenn diese als Frau und nicht als gebildet wahrgenommen wurde. Männer wurden außerdem stärker durch die bestimmende Sprecherin beeinflusst als durch die zögerliche, wenn die Sprecherin als gebildet eingestuft wurde. Mediationsanalysen zeigten Einflüsse von Selbstkategorisierung und Erwartungshaltungen, nicht aber Rollenkongruenz.

Gender, Language, and Social Influence:
A Test of Expectation States, Role Congruity, and Self-Categorization Theories

젠더, 언어, 그리고 사회적 영향력:

기대 수준, 역할 응집, 그리고 자기범주화 이론들의 실험

Scott A. Reid

University of California, Santa Barbara

Grace L. Anderson

University of California, Santa Barbara

Nicholas A. Palomares

University of California, Davis

Beverly Bondad-Brown

University of California, Santa Barbara

요약

본 논문은 여성 영향력에 대한 자기 범주화, 기대 수준들, 그리고 역할 응집도 이론들의 기대를 비교한 것이다. 남성과 여성 참여자($N = 267$)들은 해당 연설자가 여성이거나 대학 수준의 교육을 받은 사람이라고 범주화 하도록 이끄는 상황하에서 망설이거나 단호하게 언어를 사용하는 여성 연설자의 목소리를 듣게하였다. 연설자의 언어적

형식이나 범주화에 의해 여성들이 다르게 영향을 받는다는 아무런 증거도 없었다. 남성들의 경우는 그러나 대학생으로가 아니라 여성으로서 간주되는 연설자가 망설이면서 연설을 할때 영향을 받는 것으로 나타났다. 남성들은 그 연설자가 대학생으로 범주화될때는 망설이면서 이야기 하기보다는 직설적으로 이야기하는 연설자에 의해 더 영향을 받는 것으로 나타났다. 발견들은 자기 범주화와 기대 수준을 위한 증거들을 제공하였으며 역할 응집성과 과정에 대해서는 그렇지 않았다.

El Género, el Lenguaje, y la Influencia Social:
Una Puesta a Prueba de los Estados de Expectación, la Congruencia del Rol, y las Teorías de
Categorizaciones del Yo

Scott A. Reid

University of California, Santa Barbara

Grace L. Anderson

University of California, Santa Barbara

Nicholas A. Palomares

University of California, Davis

Beverly Bondad-Brown

University of California, Santa Barbara

Resumen

Este estudio compara las categorizaciones del yo, los estados de expectación, y la congruencia del rol en las explicaciones teóricas de la influencia femenina. Participantes hombres y mujeres ($N = 267$) escucharon una grabación de un orador femenino quien usó lenguaje tentativo o lenguaje firme bajo condiciones que llevaron a los participantes a categorizar al orador como una mujer o como educada en la universidad. No hubo evidencia que las mujeres fueran influenciadas differently por el estilo lingüístico del orador o por la categorización. Los hombres, no obstante, fueron más influenciados por el orador tentativo cuando fue categorizado como una mujer y no como un estudiante de grado. Los hombres fueron más influenciados por un orador firme que el tentativo cuando el orador fue categorizado como un estudiante de grado. Los hallazgos mediadores proveyeron de evidencia de las categorizaciones del yo y los estados de expectación, pero no de los procesos de congruencia del rol.

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