5 Results

This study addressed two main sets of questions. The first question concerned the role of three characteristics of an advice-giver (wisdom-related knowledge, quality of nonverbal listening behavior, and age) in the attribution of wisdom to this person. The separate and combined effects of the three advice-giver characteristics were examined in a 2 × 2 × 2 × 2 (wisdom-related knowledge × quality of nonverbal listening behavior × age × wisdom cueing) ANOVA on the outcome measure *Wisdom Attribution Questionnaire*. All analyses were conducted using SPSS 11.5.

The first set of predictions addresses the influence of the three selected advice-giver characteristics of attributions of wisdom. The analysis included the four two-level between-subjects factors of the design, i.e. the three experimentally manipulated characteristics of the advice-giver: (1) the level of his/ her *wisdom-related knowledge* (high vs. low) reflected in the advice given, (2) the quality of his/ her *nonverbal listening behavior* (positive, empathic vs. negative, non-empathic, and (3) his/her *age* (20 - 30 vs. 60 - 70 years old), and (4) the *wisdom-cueing* instruction (instruction vs. no instruction).

The second set of questions addressed two social-cognitive processes involved in forming impressions of wise advisors. It is investigated how cueing the concept of wisdom facilitates the recognition of the three selected prototypical features of a wise advisor. All participants viewed the stimulus material four times and provided

wisdom attributions after the first and after the fourth exposure. *Repeated exposure* therefore was a included as a within-subjects factor using a repeated measures ANOVA. The last part of this chapter describes analyses concerning demand characteristics of the experimental procedure.

5.1 Characteristics of an Advice-Giver

Three characteristics of an advice-giver were experimentally manipulated in the present study. Significant main effects for all three characteristics were expected. Specifically, it was predicted that: More wisdom would be ascribed to advisors who demonstrated (1) higher rather than lower levels of wisdom-related knowledge in their advice, (2) positive, empathic rather than negative, non-empathic listening behavior, and (3) older rather than younger age.

The wisdom attribution data (*Wisdom Attribution Questionnaire*) were analyzed with a 2 × 2 × 2 × 2 (wisdom-related knowledge × quality of nonverbal listening behavior × age × wisdom cueing) ANOVA. ANOVA assumes normality, homogeneity of variances, and independence of observations (e.g., Stevens, 1986). The observations are independent. Subjects were randomly assigned to the conditions and were tested on individual computers. The assumption of normality is violated: Both the Kolmogorov-Smirnow as well as the Shapiro-Wilk tests of normality indicated that the data were not normally distributed for the total sample.

Table 13

Characteristics of an Advice-Giver and Wisdom Attribution (Results for T1)

Source	*df*	*F*	*Part.* η^2	*p*
Wisdom-related knowledge (Wis)	1	11.43***	.07	.001
Listening behavior (Lis)	1	43.39***	.23	.000
Age of target (Age)	1	11.05***	.07	.001
Wisdom cueing (Act)	1	.01	.00	.944
Wis × Lis	1	.79	.01	.376
Wis × Age	1	.27	.00	.603
Wis × Act	1	.01	.00	.600
Lis × Age	1	1.03	.01	.313
Lis × Act	1	.28	.00	.600
Age × Act	1	.20	.00	.655
Wis × Lis × Age	1	.30	.00	.585
Wis × Lis × Act	1	1.95	.01	.164
Wis × Age × Act	1	1.09	.01	.299
Lis × Age × Act	1	.09	.00	.760
Wis × Lis × Age × Act	1	6.76**	.05	.010
Error	144			

Note. ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

As Stevens (1986) outlines, ANOVA seems to be very robust against violations of the normality assumption. Levene's test of equality of error variances indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of variances can be maintained (F (15, 144) = 1.17, p = .31). Because of the equal sample size per cell a violation of the assumption of homogeneity of covariance matrices would not influence the test of significance in the ANOVA very much (e.g., Stevens, 1986).

Table 13 shows the results of the ANOVA. It was expected that an advice-giver's level of *wisdom-related knowledge* as reflected in the advice given, the quality of

his/ her nonverbal *listening behavior*, and his/her *age* would be important in the judgment of this person as being wise. It was expected that these three factors would operate in a cumulative manner. As expected, the three main effects for the manipulated advice-giver characteristics were significant (see Table 13). No two- or three-way interactions between the three advice-giver characteristics were found. The effect sizes indicate that the *listening behavior* showed a strong effect, whereas the effects of *wisdom-related knowledge* and *age of advisor* were of medium size (see Cohen, 1977; Weinfurt, 1995). However, a significant 4-way interaction between all three advice-giver characteristics and the wisdom-cueing instruction was found.

As Table 13 shows, advice-givers who demonstrated higher levels of wisdom-related knowledge in their advice text were perceived as being wiser than those who gave a less wise response (F (1, 144) = 11.43, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .07$). More wisdom was ascribed to (non-verbally) empathic listeners than non-empathic listeners (F (1, 144) = 43.39, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .23$). Older advice-givers were perceived as being wiser than younger advice-givers (F (1, 144) = 11.05, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .07$). Table 14 shows the means and standard deviations for the *Wisdom Attribution Questionnaire*.

All three experimentally manipulated characteristics of an advice-giver are important for wisdom attributions. The presence of *one* advice-giver characteristic does not appear to influence the effect of a different characteristic. The effect pattern is cumulative.

Table 14

Mean Wisdom Attribution Questionnaire Scores for Main Effects (T1)

	Means	*SD*	*N*
Level of wisdom-related knowledge			
High	2.94	1.30	80
Low	2.31	1.40	80
Quality of listening behavior			
Empathic	3.23	1.31	80
Non-empathic	2.02	1.17	80
Age of advice-giver			
Older	2.93	1.39	80
Younger	2.32	1.31	80
Total	2.63	1.38	160

5.2 Wisdom Cueing

To investigate whether the activation of prior knowledge by cueing participants with the concept of wisdom would facilitate the recognition of wisdom-relevant features half of all participants received a *wisdom cueing* instruction, namely to „think about wisdom and wise persons" for two minutes before encoding the stimulus material.

It was expected that for participants who thought about wisdom, the three selected wisdom prototypical characteristics (i.e., wisdom-related knowledge, empathic listening behavior, and older age) would be more salient and hence would be used for the attribution of wisdom. Specifically, participants in the wisdom cueing condition would attribute different levels of wisdom to advice-givers who showed *all*

Table 15

Mean Wisdom Attribution Questionnaire Scores for Single Experimental Conditions

	Wisdom Cueing					
	No		Yes		Total	
	T1	T2	T1	T2	T1	T2
Older Advice-Givers						
High Knowledge						
Positive Listening	3.54 (1.06)	4.14 (.70)	4.19 (.82)	4.43 (.92)	3.86 (.98)	4.28 (.87)
Negative Listening	2.58 (1.31)	2.91 (1.23)	2.48 (1.42)	2.25 (1.39)	2.53 (1.33)	2.58 (1.32)
Low Knowledge						
Positive Listening	3.50 (1.32)	3.11 (1.12)	3.30 (1.23)	2.98 (1.60)	3.40 (1.25)	3.04 (1.34)
Negative Listening	1.97 (1.15)	1.26 (.63)	1.90 (1.22)	1.55 (.92)	1.94 (1.16)	1.40 (.78)
Younger Advice-Givers						
High Knowledge						
Positive Listening	3.55 (1.17)	3.72 (.95)	2.58 (1.24)	2.61 (1.37)	3.06 (1.27)	3.16 (1.28)
Negative Listening	2.09 (1.11)	2.09 (1.17)	2.51 (1.01)	2.46 (1.35)	2.30 (1.05)	2.27 (1.24)
Low Knowledge						
Positive Listening	2.18 (1.35)	1.71 (1.28)	3.04 (1.50)	2.53 (1.59)	2.61 (1.46)	2.12 (1.47)
Negative Listening	1.66 (.70)	1.28 (.86)	.96 (.67)	1.35 (1.33)	1.31 (.76)	1.31 (1.09)

3 versus advisors who showed *only 2* of the prototypical wisdom characteristics. This should not be the case for participants who were not cued.

The increased salience of wisdom-related features should also be reflected in those participants who evaluated a very untypical wise advisor: It was expected that participants in the wisdom cueing condition would also be better able to differentiate between advisors who showed *none* of the suggested prototypical features (i.e., a low level of wisdom-related knowledge, non-empathic listening behavior, and youth) and advice-givers who demonstrated *1* proto-typical feature.

As outlined above, the ANOVA was performed on the four between-subject factors simultaneously. As expected, no main effect of *wisdom cueing* on judgments of an advice-giver's wisdom was found (F (1, 144) = 0.01, p = .94, see Table 13). As Table 13 indicates, the ANOVA did not detect any significant 2- or 3-way interactions between *wisdom cueing* and the three advice-giver characteristics. The one interaction reaching significance was a 4-way interaction between all four between-subjects factors *age of the target, wisdom-related knowledge*, *listening behavior*, and *wisdom cueing* (F (1, 144) = 6.76, p < .05, η^2 = .05).

To explore the potential meaning of this four-way interaction, several contrasts were performed. The 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 (wisdom-related knowledge × quality of nonverbal listening behavior × age × wisdom cueing) between-subjects design of the study results in a total number of 16 groups. To investigate the specific effects of *wisdom cueing* on the recognition of the prototype of a wise person, a one-factorial analysis of variances with one factor reflecting group membership was conducted (see Table 15 for means and standard deviations).

This univariate ANOVA indicated a significant effect of group (F (15, 144) = 5.24, p < .001, η^2 = .35). The following specific contrasts among the groups were planned and tested (see Table 16 for an overview of the tested contrasts): First, the group that saw an advisor who showed *all three* prototypic wisdom-relevant features

Table 16

Wisdom Cueing Facilitates Recognition of Three versus Two (Contrasts 1 & 2) and None versus One Wisdom Prototypical Characteristics (Contrasts 3 & 4)

Planned Contrasts	*t*	*df*	*p*
3 versus 2 prototypic facets			
Contrast 1 (wisdom cueing)	3.30**	144	.001
Contrast 2 (no cueing)	.78	144	.438
0 versus 1 prototypic facet			
Contrast 3 (wisdom cueing)	-3.56**	144	.001
Contrast 4 (no cueing)	-.98	144	.330

Note. ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

(high level of wisdom-related knowledge, empathic listening behavior, and older age) was tested against the three experimental groups (simultaneously) that saw an advice-giver who showed *only two* of the prototypical features. To test whether these effects differed depending on whether participants' wisdom concepts were previously activated, contrasts were performed separately for the two wisdom cueing conditions (Contrast 1: wisdom cueing present, Contrast 2: wisdom cueing absent). Second, the group that saw an advice-giver who demonstrated none of the three prototypic features (i.e., a young advisor with a low level of wisdom-related knowledge who listened in a non-empathic way) was tested against the three groups that saw an advice-giver who demonstrated at least one of the prototypical facets. Again the comparisons were performed separately for the two wisdom cueing conditions (Contrast 3: wisdom cueing present, Contrast 4: wisdom cueing absent).

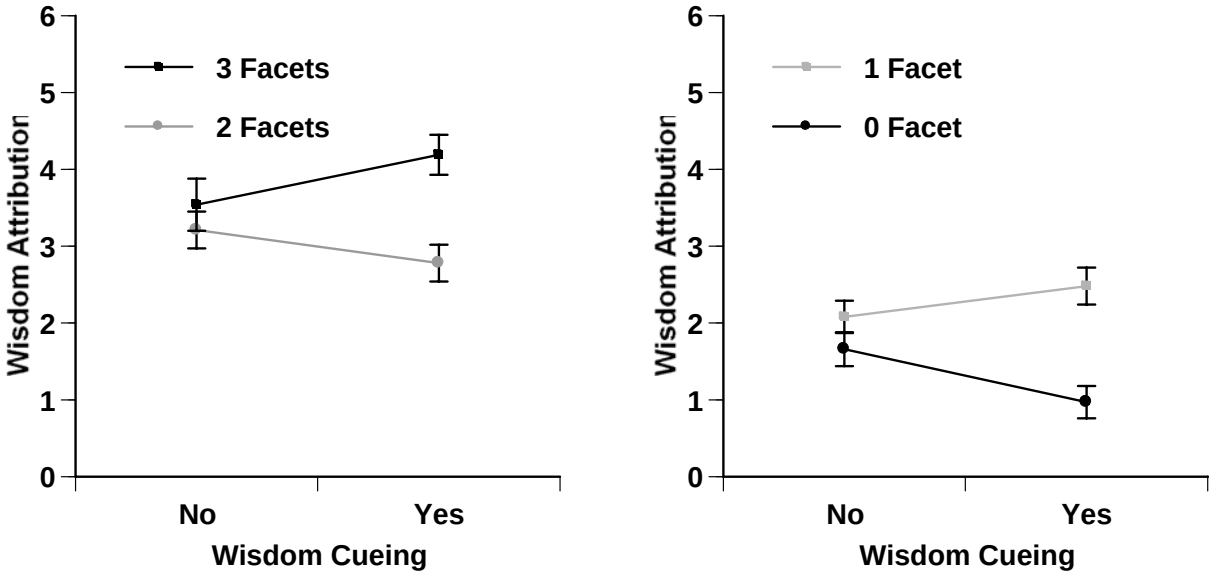

Figure 1. Recognition of the 3-faceted prototype and the antitype (0 facets) of a wise advisor: Wisdom attributions for wisdom cueing and no cueing conditions (Error bars represent standard errors).

Figure 1 illustrates that in the wisdom cueing condition these groups differed significantly: Those who saw advisors who demonstrated all three characteristics (i.e., older age, a high level of wisdom-related knowledge, and empathic listening behavior) differed in their wisdom attributions from participants who saw advice-givers who lacked one of these characteristics (see Table 16). This pattern was not found for participants who were not instructed to think about wisdom indicating that they did not differentiate between advisors who showed three versus two wisdom prototypical features (see Table 16).

The second set of contrasts was performed to test the group who saw an advisor who showed none of the three characteristics against advisors who

demonstrated at least one of these characteristics (i.e., high level of wisdom-related knowledge, empathic listening behavior, or older age, see Figure 1, Table 15 for means and standard deviations of single experimental conditions). Again, significant differences were found for the wisdom cueing condition, but not for participants who were not instructed to think about wisdom beforehand (see Table 16). These results indicate that the wisdom cueing instruction had the expected effect. Thinking about wisdom before exposure to the stimulus material activated participants' knowledge of wisdom and led to a more differentiated evaluation of the advice-givers.

5.2.1 Follow-Up Analysis

In the analyses described above, the ANOVA on the 16 experimental conditions tested the differences in wisdom attributions to advisors who showed three-facets versus advice-givers who showed any combination of two prototypical features of a wise advice-giver. In this follow-up analysis it is explored whether some of the two-factor combinations are perceived as being more different from the three-factor combination than others (see Table 17, Table 15 for means and standard deviations of single experimental conditions). Because six contrasts were computed for this analysis, the critical alpha-level was set to $\alpha = .008$.

Table 17

Influence of Wisdom Cueing: Planned Contrasts for 3 versus 2 Facets and 0 versus 1 Facet

	Wisdom Cueing		No Cueing	
Contrast	*t*	*p*	*t*	*p*
Prototype vs. 2 facets				
3 vs. 2 (High Wisdom, Old Age)	3.29**	.001	1.85	.067
3 vs. 2 (Empathic Listening, Old Age)	1.71	.089	.07	.945
3 vs. 2 (High Wisdom, Empathic Listening)	3.10**	.002	-.01	.991
0 versus 1 facet				
s. 1 (High Wisdom)	2.96**	.004	.82	.417
s. 1 (Empathic Listening Behavior)	3.97***	.000	.99	.325
s. 1 (Old Age)	1.80	.075	.59	.553

Participants in the wisdom cueing condition differentiated between advisors who showed *all three* prototypic wisdom facets (old, empathic listening, wise piece of advice) and (a) younger advisors giving a *wise advice* and *listening well* and (b) *older* advisors giving a *wise response* (without listening well). Participants in the wisdom cueing condition did, however, not differ in their wisdom judgments between an *older* advice-giver who *listened well* (but gave a less wise response) and the advisor who showed all three wisdom facets ($t = 1.71$, $df = 144$, $p = .089$).[10]

Participants in the *no cueing* group, on the other hand, did not differentiate between the prototype of a wise advice-giver and any of the advisors who lacked one of the single facets. They showed, however, a slight tendency to differentiate between

[10] One reason for this may be low power given the sample size of $n = 10$ persons per experimental group.

the prototypic advisor and an *older* advisor who gave a *wise response* (but lacked empathic listening; $t = 1.85$, $df = 144$, $p = .067$).

With regard to the *„anti-type"* of a wise advice-giver (i.e., a young person who lacked both knowledge and empathic listening behavior) it was found that participants of the *wisdom cueing* group differentiated between young advisors who showed *none* of the features and young advice-givers who showed (a) high level of *wisdom-related knowledge* in their advice in combination with negative listening behavior ($t = 2.96$, $df = 144$, $p < .01$) or (b) *empathic listening behavior* in combination with low levels of wisdom-related knowledge ($t = 3.97$, $df = 144$, $p < .001$). No significant difference in wisdom attributions was found for younger versus older advisors who listened badly and gave a not very wise response ($t = 1.80$, $df = 144$, $p = .075$). Participants in the *no cueing* condition, on the other hand, did not differentiate between advice-givers who showed any one (regardless of which one) versus no prototypic facet of a wise advisor.

5.3 The Effect of Repeated Exposure

Participants were repeatedly exposed to the stimulus material to simulate repeated interactions with an advice-giving person. The within-subjects factor *repeated exposure* was included in the design to investigate the prediction that *wisdom-related knowledge* needed more experience or learning-based elaboration in order to be

Table 18

The Effect of Repeated Exposure on Wisdom Attribution: Repeated ANOVA on Wisdom Attribution Questionnaire

Source	*df*	*F*	*Part.* η^2	*p*
	Within subjects			
Repeated exposure (Repex)	1	2.84	.02	.094
Repex × Wis	1	15.08***	.10	.000
Repex × Lis	1	.14	.00	.709
Repex × Age	1	.00	.00	.974
Repex × Act	1	.00	.00	.966
Repex × Wis × Lis	1	2.57	.02	.111
Repex × Wis × Age	1	2.63	.02	.107
Repex × Wis × Act	1	5.29*	.04	.023
Repex × Lis × Age	1	3.20	.02	.076
Repex × Lis × Act	1	.97	.01	.327
Repex × Age × Act	1	1.05	.01	.307
Repex × Wis × Lis × Age	1	.73	.01	.394
Repex × Wis × Lis × Act	1	1.45	.01	.231
Repex × Wis × Age × Act	1	.19	.00	.666
Repex × Lis × Age × Act	1	.67	.01	.416
Repex × Wis × Lis × Age × Act	1	.05	.00	.820
	Between subjects			
Wisdom-related knowledge (Wis)	1	24.20***	.14	.000
Listening behavior (Lis)	1	49.64***	.26	.000
Age of target (Age)	1	12.09**	.08	.001
Wisdom cueing (Act)	1	.00	.00	.953
Wis × Lis	1	.13	.00	.715
Wis × Age	1	.00	.00	.980
Wis × Act	1	.53	.00	.466
Lis × Age	1	2.87	.02	.092
Lis × Act	1	.04	.00	.839
Age × Act	1	.01	.00	.915
Wis × Lis × Age	1	.07	.00	.786
Wis × Lis × Act	1	1.09	.01	.299
Wis × Age × Act	1	.89	.01	.348
Lis × Age × Act	1	.37	.00	.543
Wis × Lis × Age × Act	1	7.01**	.05	.009
Error	144			

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

fully processed than the more visible and directly observable advice-giver characteristics (*age of the target*, *listening behavior).*

A 2 × 2 × 2 × 2 (wisdom-related knowledge × quality of nonverbal listening behavior × age × wisdom cueing) repeated measures ANOVA with the within-factor *repeated exposure* was performed. As expected, no main effect for repeated exposure was found (see Table 18). Instead, it was predicted that repeated exposure would have a specific effect in association with the factor *wisdom-related knowledge*, namely that this aspect would gain in importance across the four trials. The results of the repeated MANOVA support this idea. A significant interaction between *repeated exposure* and the factor *wisdom-related knowledge* could be detected *(F* (1, 144) = 15.08, *p* < .001, η^2 = .10).

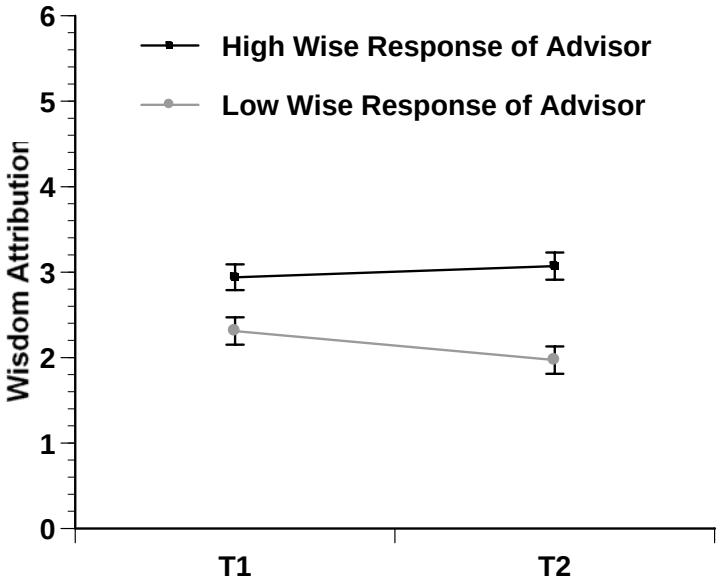

Figure 2. Effect of repeated exposure on attribution of wisdom: Interaction between wisdom-related knowledge and time.

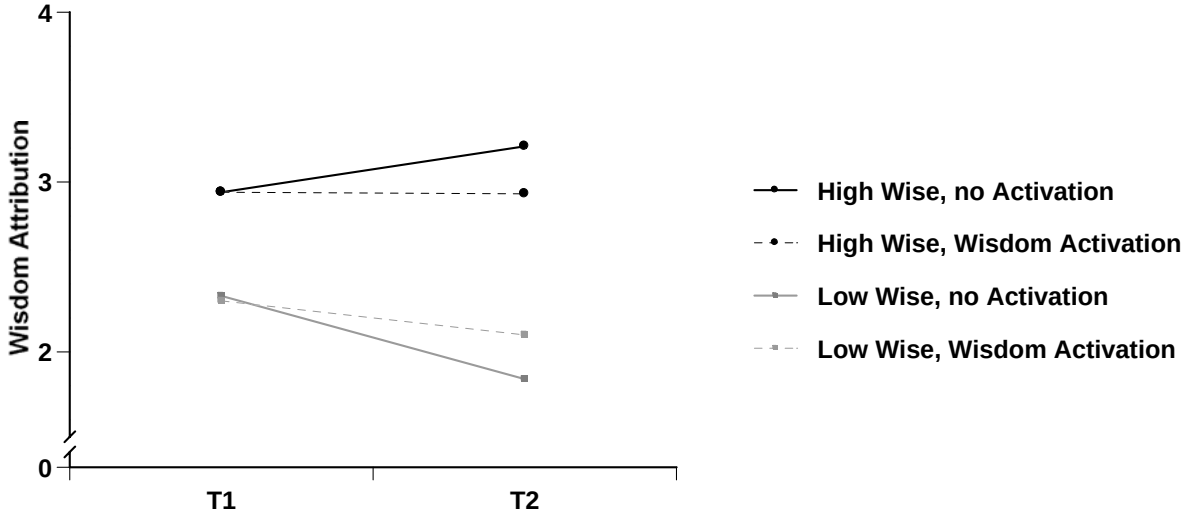

Figure 3. Effect of repeated exposure on attribution of wisdom: Interaction between wisdom-related knowledge, wisdom cueing condition, and time.

Figure 2 shows that the difference in wisdom attributions to advisors with high versus low levels of wisdom-related knowledge increases over time. Subsequent single-group comparisons revealed that this interaction was due to the decrease of wisdom judgments for the low level of wisdom-related knowledge condition (t = 3.68, df = 79, p < .001). Advisors who demonstrated high levels of wisdom were not perceived differently as participants had the chance to process the material repeatedly (t = 1.62, df = 79, p = .11).

The interaction between repeated exposure and level of wisdom-related knowledge was qualified by a 3-way interaction between repeated exposure, wisdom-related knowledge, and wisdom cueing (F (1,144)= 5.29, p < .05, η^2=.04).

Group comparisons showed that only participants who did *not* receive an instruction to think about wisdom before being exposed to the stimulus material benefited from repeated exposure to the stimulus material: Figure 3 illustrates that across time, participants in the *no cueing* condition attributed more wisdom to advice-givers who gave a wise response (t = -2.34, df = 39, p <.05) and less wisdom to advisors who showed a low level of wisdom-related knowledge (t = 3.50, df = 39, p < .001). Participants who had thought about wisdom before answering the questions did not change their attributions of wisdom across time.

5.4 Participants' Perceptions of Experimental Conditions

The study used an experimental approach. Participants' perceptions of the experimental conditions were investigated to explore whether these perceptions can facilitate the interpretation of the effects of the experimental manipulations.

Perceived Consistency of Advice-Giver's Behavior. The four-factor experimental design of the present study included the combination of all levels of the single factors. For example, advice-givers were shown who listened in a negative way, but gave a very wise and helpful advice. A single item assessed whether the behavior of the advice-giver was perceived as *consistent*.

A 2 × 2 × 2 × 2 (wisdom-related knowledge × quality of nonverbal listening behavior × age × wisdom cueing) ANOVA with the four between-subjects factors of the study (*wisdom-related knowledge*, *listening behavior*, *age of advice-giver*, *wisdom*

cueing) was conducted with „*Perceived consistency of advice-givers' behavior"* as the outcome variable. No significant main effects were found. An interaction between *wisdom-related knowledge* and *listening behavior* (F (1, 144) = 21.07, $p < .001$; $\eta^2 = .13$) was detected. As Figure 4 illustrates, advice-givers who demonstrated empathic listening behavior and a low level of wisdom-related knowledge were perceived as less consistent than advisors who demonstrated both empathic listening behavior and a high level of wisdom-related knowledge ($t = 2.90$, $df = 78$, $p < .01$) and those advisors who listened non-empathically and gave a low wise response ($t = -3.03$, $df = 78$, $p < .01$).

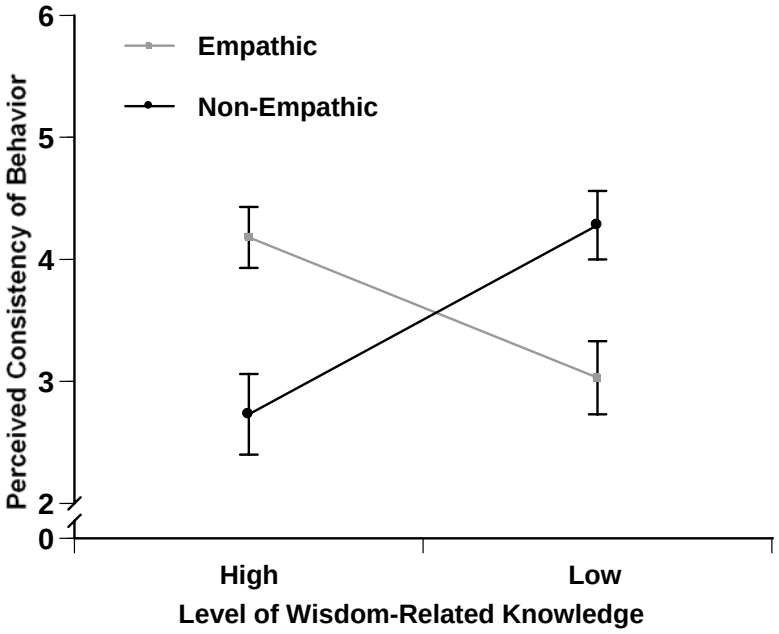

Figure 4. Perceived consistency of behavior of advice-giver: Interaction between listening behavior and wisdom-related knowledge.

Also, advice-givers who listened in a non-empathic way and showed a high level of wisdom-related knowledge were perceived as less consistent than advisors who listened well and gave a wise piece of advice ($t = 3.51$, $df = 78$, $p < .01$) and advisors who listened in a non-empathic way and gave an unwise response ($t = -3.62$, $df = 78$, $p < .01$). This finding indicates that a high level of wisdom-related knowledge in combination with non-empathic listening behavior as well as a low level of wisdom-related knowledge in combination with empathic listening is not in line with participants' expectations.

Perceived Influence of Advisor's Age on Wisdom Attributions. Participants watched either a video with a younger or a video with an older advice-giver. They were asked to indicate whether they perceived the age of the advice-giver as important for their attributions. It was explored whether participants of all experimental conditions perceived the age as equally important for their attributions.

A 2 × 2 × 2 × 2 (wisdom-related knowledge × quality of nonverbal listening behavior × age × wisdom cueing) ANOVA was computed on the indicator „*Perceived influence of age*". Significant main-effects for *age* (F (1, 144) = 6.32, $p < .05$; $\eta^2 = .04$) and *listening behavior* (F (1, 144) = 11.05, $p < .001$; $\eta^2 = .07$) emerged: Participants who saw an older target indicated that the target's age was more important for their attributions ($M = 3.14$, $SD = 1.96$) than participants who saw a young target ($M = 2.36$, $SD = 2.01$). The main effect of listening behavior indicated that the age of the listener

was more important for attributions of participants of who saw an empathic listener (M = 3.26, SD = 2.00) than for participants who saw a non-empathic listener (M = 2.24, SD = 1.91). No other main effects or interactions were detected.

Perceived Influence of Video on Wisdom Attributions. It was explored whether participants differed with respect to their perceived influence of the video on their wisdom attributions. A 2 × 2 × 2 × 2 (wisdom-related knowledge × quality of nonverbal listening behavior × age × wisdom cueing) ANOVA was performed.

A main effect of *listening behavior* failed to reach significance (F (1, 144) = 3.75, p = .055; η^2 = .03) as well as an interaction between *listening behavior* and *age* (F (1, 144) = 3.75, p = .055; η^2 = .03). No other main effects and interactions emerged: Hence, participants of all conditions perceived the video as equally important for their attributions.

Perceived Influence of Response Text on Wisdom Attributions. Participants' perceptions of the influence of the response text on their attributions were investigated in a 2 × 2 × 2 × 2 (wisdom-related knowledge × quality of nonverbal listening behavior × age × wisdom cueing) ANOVA. A significant main effect of *wisdom-related knowledge* (F (1, 144) = 6.86, p < .01; η^2 = .05) indicated that participants who read a low wise response (M = 4.95, SD = 1.35) perceived themselves to be more influenced by the advisor's response than participants who read a high wise response (M = 4.37, SD = 1.52). The significant main-effect of *listening behavior* (F (1,

144) = 9.42, $p < .01$; $\eta^2 = .06$) indicated that participants who saw a good listener (M = 5.00, SD = 1.28) were subjectively more influenced by the response text than participants who saw a bad listener (M = 4.32, SD = 1.56). A main effect of *wisdom cueing* (F (1, 144) = 3.94, $p < .05$; $\eta^2 = .03$) was found: Participants whose wisdom concepts were activated perceived the response text as more influential for their attributions (M = 4.87, SD = 1.36) than participants whose wisdom concepts were not activated (M = 4.44, SD = 1.53).

5.5. Summary of Results

Altogether the present study can be summarized as follows: The analyses on wisdom attribution showed that the three characteristics of an advisor selected for this study are important in the attribution of wisdom to an advice-giving person: (1) The level of his/her wisdom-related knowledge expressed in an advice, (2) the empathy expressed in his/her nonverbal listening behavior, and (3) his/her chronological age. The hypotheses regarding the characteristics of an advisor were therefore supported (see Table 19). Advisors who expressed more wisdom-related knowledge in their advice were perceived as being wiser than advisors who expressed less wisdom-related knowledge in their advice. More wisdom was ascribed to advisors who listened in an empathic nonverbal way compared to advisors who listened in a non-empathic nonverbal way. And more wisdom was

Table 19

Overview of Research Predictions and Results

Hypotheses	*Hypothesis Supported?*
Wisdom Attribution and Characteristics of a Wise Advice-Giver	
1. Advice-givers who express a high level of wisdom-related knowledge in their advice are perceived as being wiser than advice-givers who demonstrate a lower level of wisdom-related knowledge.	yes
2. Advice-givers who listen in an empathic, positive way are evaluated as being wiser than advice-givers who listen in a non-empathic, negative way.	yes
3. Higher levels of wisdom are attributed to older compared to younger advice-givers.	yes
Wisdom Cueing Facilitates Recognition of Prototypical Characteristics	
4.a Participants who are instructed to think about wisdom can better differentiate between advice-givers who show *all three* prototypical wisdom features (an older target with high level of wisdom-related knowledge and positive listening behavior) and advice-givers who lack one of these features than participants in the non-cueing condition.	yes
4b. Participants in the wisdom cueing condition can better differentiate between advice-givers who show *none* of the selected three prototypical wisdom characteristics (i.e., a younger target with low level of wisdom-related knowledge and negative listening behavior) and advice-givers who demonstrate only one of the prototypical features than participants in the non-cueing condition.	yes
Repeated Exposure to Facilitate Recognition of Wisdom-Relevant Knowledge	
5a. Wisdom-attributions increase with repeated exposure to the material for advisors who demonstrate a high level of wisdom-related knowledge.	partially supported
5b. Wisdom-attributions decrease with repeated exposure to the material for advisors who express a low level of wisdom-related knowledge.	yes

attributed to older compared to younger advisors. No two or three-way interactions between these factors were found. Half of all participants were instructed to think about wisdom and wise persons before seeing the stimulus material. As predicted it was found that the cueing of the concept of wisdom facilitated the recognition of the prototypic configuration of the proposed advice-giver characteristics. Specifically, participants whose wisdom concepts were activated differentiated better between advisors showing all three wisdom prototypic characteristics and advisors who showed only 2 of these characteristics than those participants whose wisdom-concepts were not activated. Moreover, cueing the concept of wisdom benefited the recognition of the absence of wisdom. Participants whose wisdom-concepts were cued were able to differentiate between an advisor who showed at least one facet and an advisor who showed none of the wisdom prototypic facets.

The study also demonstrated that the three advice-giver characteristics selected are processed in different ways: While an advisor's age and nonverbal listening behavior are used very efficiently at the first exposure to the material, the recognition of levels of wisdom-related knowledge, contained in the advice given, requires more frequent exposure. With repeated exposure or extended experience with an advice-giver, information about an advisor's level of wisdom-related knowledge (i.e., the advice given) contributes increasingly to the overall level of wisdom that is attributed to the advice-giving person.