

# You Can Leave Your Glasses on: Glasses Can Increase Electoral Success

## Electronic Supplementary Material

### Overview

This electronic supplementary material includes an overview over the stimulus development. It also describes Studies 1b and 4b, which are not in the main manuscript. It also gives information about additional analyses in Studies 1 to Studies 7 not reported in the main manuscript, and gives descriptive statistics for the main variables. Furthermore, it includes screenshots of the relevant survey questions.

### Stimulus Development

In all studies, participants were shown pairs of pictures of (unknown) politicians. To ensure that the politicians looked like actual politicians but were not recognized by participants, we avoided using pictures of actual American or Indian politicians. Instead, for the American set we used 16 pictures of actual Swedish politicians, while for the Indian set we used 16 stock pictures of Indians that looked like politicians (all not-wearing glasses). Furthermore, each stimulus set consisted of an equal number of male and female politicians, and an equal number of successful (high baseline electoral success) and less-successful (low baseline) politicians. Next, we adapted all portraits using image adaptation software to add a pair of glasses to each portrait. This yielded two pictures that were exactly the same for each candidate, except that the candidate wore glasses in the one and did not wear them in the other (see Figure 1 in the main manuscript).

### American Raw Stimuli Selection

In return for \$0.50, 200 American MTurkers (71 women, 129 men,  $M_{age} = 34.06$  years) were recruited to help select stimuli. Sample size was set a priori. As stimuli, we selected forty high-resolution pictures of twenty male and twenty female members of the Swedish parliament (Riksdagen) without glasses and converted them to gray scale. Participants indicated for each of the 40 pictures individually whether they would vote for that politician if she or he were running for Congress, on a 7-point scale between 1 (*definitely not*) and 7 (*definitely would*). We explained that the pictures were from a North-European country and that it was therefore unlikely that participants knew anyone.

### Indian Raw Stimuli Selection

In return for \$0.40, 51 Indian MTurkers (11 women, 40 men,  $M_{age} = 31.18$  years) were recruited to help select stimuli. Sample size was set a priori to 50. As stimuli, we selected forty high-resolution pictures of twenty male and twenty female Indians and converted them to gray scale. Participants indicated for each of the 40 pictures individually whether they would vote for that politician, on a 7-point scale between 1 (*very unlikely*) and 7 (*very likely*). Additionally, participants indicated whether the stimuli did or did not look like plausible Indian politicians to compensate for the fact that (unlike in the American sample) we did not have access to Indian politicians of whom we were certain that participants would not recognize them.

## Stimuli Selection

Based on the responses from the participants in the raw stimuli selection, we then selected 16 stimuli for each sample, all without glasses, to be used in the main studies. To be able to control for the influence of gender and baseline electoral success of the politicians, we selected four equally successful female ( $M_{USA} = 4.71$ ,  $SD = 0.04$ ;  $M_{India} = 4.95$ ,  $SD = 0.14$ ), four equally successful male ( $M_{USA} = 4.73$ ,  $SD = 0.09$ ;  $M_{India} = 4.98$ ,  $SD = 0.13$ ), four equally less-successful female ( $M_{USA} = 3.80$ ,  $SD = 0.12$ ;  $M_{India} = 4.62$ ,  $SD = 0.08$ ), and four equally less-successful male ( $M_{USA} = 3.82$ ,  $SD = 0.13$ ;  $M_{India} = 4.51$ ,  $SD = 0.11$ ) stimuli. For the Indian stimuli, we only chose those stimuli that at least 90% of participants believed to show plausible Indian politicians. Within both sets, the stimuli differed significantly in baseline electoral success, as measured by the electoral intentions of participants in the pilot, across the successful and unsuccessful politicians,  $t_s > 6.88$ ,  $p_s < .001$ , but not across gender,  $t_s \leq 0.33$ ,  $p_s \geq .746$ , as planned.

## Stimuli Creation

Next, we used image manipulation software to create a second version of each picture with glasses. We chose the same contemporary, black, rectangle-shaped frames, but for each picture added specific temples to fit the ears of the target. Except for adding the glasses, we kept all other aspects of the face constant (see Figure 1 for a sample stimulus). All subsequent studies used these sixteen stimuli without glasses and sixteen stimuli with glasses as targets. Participants saw only one version of each stimulus-pair (i.e. either with or without glasses), except for Study 4 and Study 4b.

## Study 1

### Method

Participants in this study were told that they would see 16 pairs of politicians from a North-European country, so that it would be unlikely for them to know them. Then, they were asked to imagine that these politicians were running for a position in their state. As exploratory variables, we measured need for closure (Roets & Van Hiel, 2011),

the prevalence of women at the workplace and identification with various social groups. To detect participants' awareness of our manipulation, we asked participants to indicate whether they found anything about the study suspicious, and we coded any participant who mentioned the glasses as suspicious.

## Results

Participants also preferred politicians with glasses over those without if we removed participants who were suspicious of the photoshopped glasses,  $t(184) = 4.13$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.30$ ,  $M = 4.20$ ,  $SD = 0.67$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.16, 0.45]$ .

We also tested whether baseline electoral success or politicians' gender influenced the glasses effect. In a 2(politician gender: male vs. female)  $\times$  2(politician success: successful vs. less successful) repeated-measures ANOVA, we found that baseline electoral success had a marginally significant effect on the glasses effect,  $F(1, 202) = 3.37$ ,  $p = .068$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .016$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.00, 0.06]$ . Testing within both groups showed that glasses had a somewhat stronger positive effect for less-successful politicians,  $t(202) = 4.82$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.34$ ,  $M = 4.27$ ,  $SD = 0.80$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.20, 0.50]$ , while the effect was weaker and only marginally significant for more-successful politicians,  $t(202) = 1.94$ ,  $p = .054$ ,  $d = 0.14$ ,  $M = 4.13$ ,  $SD = 0.95$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.002, 0.27]$ . Gender of the politician did not produce any effect; the positive effect of glasses occurred equally for both gender,  $F(1, 202) = 0.02$ ,  $p = .894$ , partial  $\eta^2 < .001$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.00, 0.004]$ , and gender and success also did not interact,  $F(1, 202) = 0.71$ ,  $p = .400$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .004$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.00, 0.03]$ .

The effect of glasses did not depend on whether participants themselves wore glasses or not,  $t(201) = 0.19$ ,  $p = .850$ ,  $d = 0.03$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.25, 0.31]$ . The results also did not depend on participant gender,  $t(201) = 0.18$ ,  $p = .855$ ,  $d = 0.03$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.26, 0.31]$ , or on age or education, both  $r_s < .06$ ,  $p_s \geq .446$ . There was a marginal influence of political orientation of participants,  $r(201) = -.12$ ,  $p = .098$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.25, 0.02]$  suggesting that the effect was slightly stronger for liberal than for conservative participants. Need for closure did not affect the effect of glasses,  $r(201) = -.054$ ,  $p = .441$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.18, 0.06]$

## Study 1b

### Method

**Participants and design.** Participants were 200 MTurkers (80 women, 120 men,  $M_{age} = 35$ ) who participated for a compensation of \$0.40. Sample size was set a priori. The design was the same as in Study 1. However, after the mock election, participants chose which magazine they would like to read while waiting at the doctor’s office, answered the Epistemic Preference Indicator-Revised (EPI-R, Elphinstone, Farrugia, Critchley, & Eigenberger, 2014) and a measure of anti-intellectualism adapted from the student anti-intellectualism scale (Eigenberger & Sealander, 2001).

**Material and measures.** Materials for the mock election paradigm were the same as in Study 1. Additionally, participants were presented with a range of magazines, and asked which of the magazines they would prefer to read while waiting at the doctor’s office. Participants could decide between intellectual (“Time”, “The New Yorker”, “Scientific American”) and non-intellectual (“Maxim”, “GQ”, “Cosmopolitan”) magazines. Furthermore, participants filled out the EPI-R (Elphinstone et al., 2014). The EPI-R includes eight questions and measures intellectual processing and default processing, which participants answered on a 5-point scale from 1(*completely disagree*) to 5(*completely agree*). An example for intellectual processing is “I have a strong need to understand the past and the ideas people had”, while an example for default processing is “If given a choice, I prefer to deal with smaller, concrete projects that have immediate results”.

Participants also answered a measure of anti-intellectualism, adapted from the student anti-intellectualism scale (Eigenberger & Sealander, 2001). It included the following five questions: “Scientists should only research what taxpayers want them to.” “I am not interested in hearing people discuss intellectual issues.”, “Getting an education is worth it, even if it does not help you advance in your career.”, “I would rather be rich than smart.”, “Getting an education is important for developing yourself.”, rated on a 5-point scale from 1(*completely disagree*) to 5(*completely agree*).

### Results

As in Study 1, we recoded all votes for politicians so that higher values indicated a higher likelihood to vote for the politician with glasses. Participants showed a clear preference for the politicians with glasses,  $t(199) = 5.16$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.36$ ,  $M = 4.25$ ,  $SD = 0.70$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.22, 0.51]$ . Excluding participants that were suspicious of the glasses did not change this result,  $t(177) = 4.44$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.33$ ,  $M = 4.23$ ,  $SD = 0.70$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.18, 0.48]$ .

We also tested whether the effect of glasses differed by politician’s gender or baseline success with a 2(politician gender: male vs. female) x 2(politician baseline success: successful vs. less successful) repeated-measures ANOVA. While gender of politician had no effect,  $F(1, 199) = 0.03$ ,  $p = .870$ , partial  $\eta^2 < .001$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.00, 0.01]$ , and the interaction with success also did not,  $F(1, 199) = 1.35$ ,  $p = .247$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .007$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.00, 0.04]$ , politicians with a lower baseline success showed a stronger glasses effect than did politicians with a higher baseline success,  $F(1, 199) = 4.40$ ,  $p = .037$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .022$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.00, 0.07]$ . However, glasses increased electoral success for both the successful politicians,  $t(199) = 2.36$ ,  $p = .019$ ,  $d = 0.17$ ,  $M = 4.16$ ,  $SD = 0.98$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.03, 0.31]$ , and less successful politicians,  $t(199) = 5.60$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.40$ ,  $M = 4.35$ ,  $SD = 0.87$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.25, 0.54]$ .

Next, we computed the score for default processing (Cronbach’s  $\alpha = .73$ ), intellectual processing (Cronbach’s  $\alpha = .84$ ), the mean anti-intellectualism score (Cronbach’s  $\alpha = .69$ ), and whether participants had chosen an intellectual or non-intellectual magazine. However, none of these variables influenced the glasses effect: Default processing:  $r(198) = -.008$ ,  $p = .912$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.147, 0.131]$ , intellectual processing:  $r(198) = .002$ ,  $p = .974$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.137, 0.141]$ , anti-intellectualism:  $r(198) = -.063$ ,  $p = .372$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.200, 0.076]$ , choice of intellectual magazine or not:  $t(198) = 0.09$ ,  $p = .929$ ,  $d = 0.01$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.28, 0.31]$ .

## Study 2a

### Method

Participants were told that they would see 16 pairs of politicians, who were running against each other. They were told that half of the politicians would be

Democratic politicians, and half of the politicians would be Republican politicians. Then, they were asked to vote for the best politicians.

To test whether fashion trends with regard to glasses might have changed and whether that could explain the positive effect of glasses, we asked participants two questions with regard to glasses and fashion: Whether they considered themselves to be someone who is interested in fashion, and whether they thought that glasses were fashionable, both from 1(*No, not at all*) to 7(*Yes, very much*). We tested whether participants who considered glasses to be fashionable and who were more interested in fashion to show a stronger glasses effect.

## Results

Excluding participants who were suspicious of the glasses lead to the same results. Participants were more likely to vote for politicians with glasses,  $t(183) = 3.74$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.27$ ,  $M = 4.18$ ,  $SD = 0.66$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.13, 0.42]$ . This effect did not differ by political orientation of the politician,  $t(183) = -0.16$ ,  $p = .877$ ,  $d = 0.01$ ,  $M_{diff} = -0.01$ ,  $SD = 1.19$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.14, 0.15]$ . There was also no interaction of participant's and politician's political orientation,  $F(1, 139) = 0.16$ ,  $p = .692$ ,  $\eta^2 < .01$ ,  $CI_{90} [.00, .03]$ .

With regard to fashion, first, we tested whether participants considered glasses to be fashionable against the midpoint of the scale. Participants did on average consider glasses to be above average fashionable,  $t(199) = 4.15$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.30$ ,  $M = 4.46$ ,  $SD = 1.55$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.15, 0.43]$ . However, neither how fashionable participants considered glasses to be,  $r(198) = .112$ ,  $p = .113$ ,  $CI_{95} [-.027, .247]$ , nor how interested they were in fashion,  $r(198) = .083$ ,  $p = .244$ ,  $CI_{95} [-.056, .219]$ , was related to the glasses effect. Therefore, the positive effect of glasses appears to be unrelated to any trends in fashion.

We also tested whether baseline success or gender of politician affected electoral success with a 2(success: successful vs. less successful) x 2(gender: female vs. male) repeated-measures ANOVA. However, neither baseline success,  $F(1, 199) = 0.02$ ,  $p = .879$ , partial  $\eta^2 < .001$ ,  $CI_{90} [.00, .004]$ , nor gender,  $F(1, 199) = 1.81$ ,  $p = .181$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .009$ ,  $CI_{90} [.00, .04]$ , or their interaction,  $F(1, 199) = 1.45$ ,  $p = .230$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .007$ ,  $CI_{90} [.00, .04]$ , influenced

the glasses effect.

## Study 2b

### Method

Participants read that they would see 16 pairs of politicians, who were not from the U.S., so it was unlikely that participants knew them. Then, they were told to imagine that the politicians were running against each other for a position in their state, and to indicate who they would vote for.

Glasses were randomized, so that for each subgroup of politicians (successful female politicians, less successful female politicians, successful male politicians, and less successful male politicians), the Republican politician was wearing glasses once, and the Democratic politician was wearing glasses once. The politician with glasses was randomly presented on the left or the right sight.

Politicians were presented with random first and last names. For male politicians, first names were randomly drawn from the 16 most common male first names in the U.S. in the last 100 years. For female politicians, first names were randomly drawn from the 16 most common female first names in the U.S. in the last 100 years. Last names were randomly drawn from the 32 most common last names in the U.S., excluding names that were overwhelmingly (over 90%) used by only one ethnicity. Names were randomly drawn for each participant.

Politicians were also presented with age. Age was based on actual age where possible and estimated from the pictures where information was not available.

### Results

We repeated the main analyses without participants who were suspicious of the glasses. Without these participants, glasses still had a positive effect,  $t(332) = 3.26$ ,  $p = .001$ ,  $d = 0.18$ ,  $M = 4.11$ ,  $SD = 0.60$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.07, 0.29]$ . Again, partisans voted for politicians from their own party less when the other politician wore glasses than when their own politician wore glasses,  $t(246) = 2.75$ ,  $p = .006$ ,  $d = 0.18$ ,  $M = 0.21$ ,  $SD = 1.20$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.04, 0.29]$ .

Participants who did not identify as Democrat or Republican also preferred politicians with glasses,

$t(95) = 2.22, p = .029, d = 0.23, M = 4.14, SD = 0.60, CI_{95} [0.02, 0.43]$ . This was also marginal the case when excluding participants who were suspicious of glasses,  $t(85) = 1.75, p = .084, d = 0.18, M = 4.11, SD = 0.61, CI_{95} [-0.03, 0.40]$ .

We again examined whether baseline success or gender of politician affected electoral success. Neither baseline success,  $F(1, 350) = 0.01, p = .920$ , partial  $\eta^2 < .001, CI_{90} [0.00, 0.001]$  nor gender,  $F(1, 350) = 0.03, p = .854$ , partial  $\eta^2 < .001, CI_{90} [0.00, 0.004]$  or their interaction,  $F(1, 350) = 0.39, p = .533$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .001, CI_{90} [0.00, 0.01]$ , influenced the glasses effect.

## Study 3

### Method

Participants in this study were told to imagine they had recently moved to a North-European country, where they learned about the most important problem facing the country (either complex legislative issues in the peace condition, or neighboring country may attack in the war condition). Then, they were told that they would see 16 pairs of politicians from this North-European country, which they were unlikely to know, and who were running for president, and would decide who they would vote for. As an attention check, participants choose the most important problem in the country, with the five answer options “neighboring country may attack”, “environment is polluted”, “complex legislative issues”, “major economic crisis”, “health care very expensive”, and “I don’t remember”.

As a manipulation check, participants indicated whether they were looking for a politician who could deliberate well, and who could act fast (re-coded), both between 1(*not at all*) and 7(*very much*), and also indicated which of two traits was more important for them, from 1(*act fast*) to 7(*deliberate well*), Cronbach’s  $\alpha = .52$ . For exploratory purposes, participants completed the preference for intuition and deliberation scale (Schunk & Betsch, 2006).

### Results

Participants in the war condition searched more for a politician who could act fast compared to partic-

ipants in the peace condition,  $t(198) = 5.80, p < .001, d = 0.82, CI_{95} [0.53, 1.11]$ . They also searched more for a politician who could act fast than deliberate well compared to participants in the peace condition,  $t(198) = 5.05, p < .001, d = 0.72, CI_{95} [0.43, 1.00]$ . However, they did not differ in whether they searched for a politician who could deliberate well,  $t(198) = -0.07, p = .947, d = 0.01, CI_{95} [-0.29, 0.27]$ , potentially indicating that all politicians need to deliberate well.

Testing the effect of glasses without participants who were suspicious of the glasses lead to the same effect. Specifically, the two conditions again differed,  $t(171) = 2.08, p = .039, d = 0.32, CI_{95} [0.02, 0.62]$ , and there was a positive effect of glasses in the peace condition,  $t(82) = 2.67, p = .009, d = 0.29, M = 4.21, SD = 0.71, CI_{95} [0.07, 0.51]$ , but not in the war condition,  $t(89) = -0.34, p = .737, d = 0.04, M = 3.97, SD = 0.78, CI_{95} [-0.24, 0.17]$ . The overall glasses effect also was not significant,  $t(172) = 1.49, p = .137, d = 0.12, M = 4.09, SD = 0.76, CI_{95} [-0.04, 0.26]$ .

We also repeated the same analyses without those participants that failed the attention check, meaning they could not indicate what the most important problem in the country was. This lead to the same results: The peace and war condition differed,  $t(171) = 2.49, p = .014, d = 0.38, CI_{95} [0.08, 0.69]$ . Glasses had a positive effect in the peace condition,  $t(73) = 3.10, p = .003, d = 0.36, M = 4.28, SD = 0.76, CI_{95} [0.12, 0.59]$ , but no effect in the war condition,  $t(98) = -0.27, p = .786, d = 0.03, M = 3.98, SD = 0.79, CI_{95} [-0.22, 0.17]$ . Overall, the glasses effect was marginal,  $t(172) = 1.76, p = .080, d = 0.14, M = 4.11, SD = 0.79, CI_{95} [-0.02, 0.28]$ .

We used a 2(politician gender: male vs. female) x 2(politician success: successful vs. less successful) repeated-measures ANOVA to test whether gender and baseline success of candidates affected the relative preference for candidates with glasses over those without. For the peace condition, neither gender,  $F(1, 95) = 1.90, p = .171$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .020, CI_{90} [0.000, 0.086]$ , nor baseline success,  $F(1, 95) = 0.01, p = .940$ , partial  $\eta^2 < .001, CI_{90} [0.00, 0.004]$ , or their interaction,  $F(1, 95) = 0.83, p = .366$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .009, CI_{90} [0.000, 0.063]$ , affected preferences. For the war condition, baseline success also did not affect preferences,  $F(1, 103) = 2.15, p = .146$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .020, CI_{90} [0.000, 0.085]$ ,

and neither did the interaction,  $F(1, 103) = 1.01$ ,  $p = .318$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .010$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.063]$ , but gender marginally did,  $F(1, 103) = 3.11$ ,  $p = .081$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .029$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.100]$ . However, neither the effect of glasses for female,  $M_f = 4.08$ ,  $t(103) = 0.79$ ,  $p = .431$ ,  $d = 0.08$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.12, 0.27]$ , nor for male politicians,  $M_m = 3.85$ ,  $t(103) = -1.52$ ,  $p = .131$ ,  $p = 0.15$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.34, 0.04]$ , were significant.

**Additional analyses.** We tested whether the positive effect of glasses was stable for different demographic groups. The effect was not moderated by participants' gender,  $t(198) = 0.94$ ,  $p = .347$ ,  $d = 0.13$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.15, 0.42]$ , age, education or political orientation, all  $rs < .09$ , all  $ps \geq .249$ . However, participants wearing glasses themselves showed a stronger preference for politicians with glasses than those participants who did not wear glasses,  $t(198) = 2.36$ ,  $p = .019$ ,  $d = 0.34$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.05, 0.62]$ .

## Study 4

### Method

Participants in this study were told that the politician presented was from a North-European country, and to imagine that he/she was running for a political position in the state of the participant.

### Results

We tested whether gender or baseline success of politicians influenced the positive effect of glasses by conducting two 2(gender of politician: male vs. female) x 2(baseline success: successful vs. less successful) repeated-measures ANOVAs. In the wear glasses-condition, neither gender,  $F(1, 97) = 0.06$ ,  $p = .813$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .001$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.025]$ , nor success,  $F(1, 97) = 1.17$ ,  $p = .283$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .012$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.070]$ , or their interaction,  $F(1, 97) = 1.17$ ,  $p = .283$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .012$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.070]$ , influenced the glasses effect. The last two effects actually had the same size up to the third decimal. Likewise, in the remove glasses-condition, neither gender,  $F(1, 96) < 0.01$ ,  $p = .978$ , partial  $\eta^2 < .001$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.0004]$ , nor success,  $F(1, 96) = 1.48$ ,  $p = .227$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .015$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.077]$ , or their interaction,  $F(1, 96) = 0.77$ ,  $p =$

$.382$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .008$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.061]$ , influenced the glasses effect.

We also tested whether the positive effect of glasses was influenced by demographic characteristics. The effect was not moderated by participants' gender for the remove glasses-condition,  $t(98) = -0.04$ ,  $p = .972$ ,  $d = 0.01$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.35, 0.34]$ , but in the wear glasses-condition, women showed a marginally stronger preference for glasses,  $t(99) = 1.68$ ,  $p = .095$ ,  $d = 0.35$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.06, 0.75]$ . In the wear glasses-condition, neither age, education nor political orientation moderated the effect, all  $rs < .13$ , all  $ps \geq .209$ . In the remove glasses-condition, education also did not moderate the effect,  $r(98) = .07$ ,  $p = .392$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.13, 0.26]$ . However, the more conservative a participant was, the more they preferred the politician to remove glasses,  $r(98) = .23$ ,  $p = .023$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.04, 0.41]$ . Additionally, the older participants were, the marginally more they preferred the politician to remove glasses as well,  $r(98) = .18$ ,  $p = .078$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.02, 0.36]$ . Finally, participants' own glasses did not influence the effect in both conditions, both  $ts < 0.52$ , both  $ps \geq .602$ , both  $ds < .11$ .

**Effects of politicians' party affiliation.** The effect of wearing and removing glasses differed with politicians' party affiliation,  $F(1, 199) = 12.74$ ,  $p < .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .060$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.018, 0.120]$ . For Democratic politicians, the results for the wear glasses- and the remove glasses-condition differed,  $t(199) = 2.75$ ,  $p = .007$ ,  $d = 0.39$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.11, 0.67]$ . In the wear glasses-condition, participants voted for the politician with glasses,  $t(100) = 4.97$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.49$ ,  $M = 4.53$ ,  $SD = 1.08$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.29, 0.70]$ , but they did not vote for the politician without glasses in the remove glasses-condition,  $t(99) = 0.86$ ,  $p = .390$ ,  $d = 0.09$ ,  $M = 4.10$ ,  $SD = 1.16$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.11, 0.28]$ . However, for Republican politicians, there was no difference by advice given,  $t(199) = 1.63$ ,  $p = .106$ ,  $d = 0.23$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.05, 0.51]$ , and in both conditions, there was no effect of glasses,  $t(100) = 0.68$ ,  $p = .495$ ,  $d = 0.07$ ,  $M = 4.08$ ,  $SD = 1.16$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.13, 0.26]$ , for wear glasses, and  $t(99) = -1.57$ ,  $p = .119$ ,  $d = 0.16$ ,  $M = 3.80$ ,  $SD = 1.27$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.35, 0.04]$ , for remove glasses.

## Study 4b

### Method

**Participants and design.** Participants were 202 American MTurk users (75 women, 127 men,  $M_{age} = 30$ ), who participated for \$0.15. We used a 3 (glasses general vs. glasses for Democrats vs. glasses for Republicans) within-subjects design. Sample size was set to 200 a priori, but we collected a few more participants as is common in online research. The design was the same as in Study 4, but only the “wear glasses” condition was realized.

**Material, measures and procedure.** Material and measures were the same as in the wear glasses-condition of Study 4. Again, we did not ask for suspicion as we openly presented both the original and the altered picture.

### Results

Even though participants were aware that glasses were purely cosmetic and purposely used to win the election, they still believed that wearing glasses would help the politician win the position,  $t(201) = 8.03$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = .57$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.42, 0.71]$ . We also found that this effect was moderated by politicians’ party affiliation,  $t(201) = 4.92$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.35$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.22, 0.47]$ . Although there was a significant positive effect for politicians from both political backgrounds, the effect was stronger for a Democratic,  $t(201) = 9.24$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 0.65$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.50, 0.80]$ , than for a Republican politician,  $t(201) = 2.84$ ,  $p = .005$ ,  $d = 0.20$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.06, 0.34]$ .

We also tested whether gender or baseline success of politicians influenced the positive effect of glasses by conducting a 2(gender of politician: male vs. female) x 2(baseline success: successful vs. less successful) repeated-measures ANOVA. Neither gender,  $F(1, 198) = 0.43$ ,  $p = .513$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .002$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.025]$ , nor success,  $F(1, 198) = 0.86$ ,  $p = .354$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .004$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.032]$ , or their interaction,  $F(1, 198) = 0.02$ ,  $p = .881$ , partial  $\eta^2 < .001$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.004]$ , influenced the glasses effect.

## Study 5

### Method

Participants in this study were told that they would see eight pairs of politicians, from different towns in India. They were told that it was therefore unlikely that they knew them, and to imagine that these politicians were running for a political position in their town. The study was conducted in English.

### Results

Without participants who indicated any suspicion about glasses, Indians still marginally preferred politicians without glasses,  $t(196) = 1.92$ ,  $p = .056$ ,  $d = 0.14$ ,  $M = 3.84$ ,  $SD = 1.19$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.004, 0.28]$ .

We tested whether the glasses effect was influenced by the gender or baseline success of politicians with a 2(gender: male vs. female) x 2(baseline success: successful vs. less successful) repeated-measures ANOVA. The effect of glasses was more negative for women than for men,  $F(1, 202) = 6.33$ ,  $p = .013$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .030$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.004, 0.079]$  and for successful than less successful politicians,  $F(1, 202) = 5.35$ ,  $p = .022$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .026$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.002, 0.072]$ , but there was no interaction of gender and baseline success,  $F(1, 202) = 0.28$ ,  $p = .595$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .001$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.022]$ . There was no significant glasses effect for male politicians,  $t(202) = 0.35$ ,  $p = .726$ ,  $d = 0.02$ ,  $M = 4.04$ ,  $SD = 1.60$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.11, 0.16]$ , or less successful politicians,  $t(202) = 0.14$ ,  $p = .889$ ,  $d < 0.01$ ,  $M = 4.01$ ,  $SD = 1.50$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.13, 0.15]$ . However, glasses influenced electoral success negatively for female politicians,  $t(202) = -3.03$ ,  $p = .003$ ,  $d = 0.21$ ,  $M = 3.64$ ,  $SD = 1.71$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.35, -0.07]$ , and successful politicians,  $t(202) = -2.80$ ,  $p = .006$ ,  $d = 0.20$ ,  $M = 3.66$ ,  $SD = 1.73$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.06, 0.34]$ .

The glasses effect was not influenced by participants’ age, education, income, or political orientation, all  $r_s < .08$ , all  $p_s \geq .294$ . Wearing glasses lead to a marginally more negative glasses effect,  $t(201) = -1.87$ ,  $p = .063$ ,  $d = 0.28$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.01, 0.57]$ . Furthermore, female participants showed a stronger negative glasses effect than male participants,  $t(201) = 2.02$ ,  $p = .045$ ,  $d = 0.30$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.01, 0.58]$ .

## Study 6

### Method

Participants in this study were told that they would see two politicians, who were probably unknown to them and were told that we would want them to judge these politicians. They were not told anything about which election the politicians were running for. The study was conducted in English for both samples.

For exploratory analyses, participants also indicated their associations of the candidate with dominance, stating who was more dominant, more aggressive, and had more courage, on the same scale (Terry & Krantz, 1993), Cronbach's  $\alpha = .69$ .

### Results

We tested whether Indians and Americans value intelligence differently in politicians by using multiple regression to test the effect of participants' country (American vs Indian), intelligence ratings of candidates, and their interaction on electoral success. While intelligence ratings of politicians strongly predicted electoral success,  $b = 0.899$ ,  $SE = 0.090$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.723, 1.075]$  the crucial interaction between country and intelligence ratings was not significant,  $b = 0.093$ ,  $SE = 0.114$ ,  $p = .414$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.131, 0.316]$ , meaning that Indian and US participants valued intelligence similarly when deciding who to vote for.

**Gender and baseline success.** We examined whether gender or baseline success of politicians influenced the effect of glasses in each country, by conducting a 2(gender of politician: male vs. female) x 2(baseline success: successful vs. less successful) ANOVA for each country. For the American participants, there was no effect of gender,  $F(1, 197) = 1.62$ ,  $p = .204$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .008$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.041]$ , or success,  $F(1, 197) = 0.19$ ,  $p = .661$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .001$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.020]$ , or their interaction,  $F(1, 197) = 0.31$ ,  $p = .581$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .002$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.023]$ . Likewise, for Indian participants, gender,  $F(1, 202) = 1.45$ ,  $p = .230$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .007$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.038]$ , or success,  $F(1, 202) = 0.72$ ,  $p = .398$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .004$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.030]$ , or their interaction,  $F(1, 202)$

$= 0.11$ ,  $p = .746$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .001$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.017]$ , did not influence the effect of glasses.

**Dominance.** Indians and Americans did not differ in their perception of dominance of politicians with glasses,  $t(389) = 0.14$ ,  $p = .887$  (corrected for variance heterogeneity),  $d = 0.01$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.18, 0.21]$ . Both Indians,  $t(205) = -2.28$ ,  $p = .023$ ,  $d = 0.16$ ,  $M = 3.75$ ,  $SD = 1.60$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.30, -0.02]$ , and Americans,  $t(200) = -2.61$ ,  $p = .010$ ,  $d = 0.18$ ,  $M = 3.77$ ,  $SD = 1.27$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.32, -0.04]$ , thought that politicians with glasses were less dominant than politicians without.

We predicted electoral success with intelligence and dominance, and found that both intelligence,  $b = 0.927$ ,  $SE = 0.052$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.825, 1.029]$ , and dominance predicted it,  $b = 0.303$ ,  $SE = 0.050$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.205, 0.402]$ . This was the case both for Indians,  $b = 0.923$ ,  $SE = 0.081$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.765, 1.082]$  for intelligence, and  $b = 0.356$ ,  $SE = 0.077$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.205, 0.507]$  for dominance, and for Americans,  $b = 0.917$ ,  $SE = 0.066$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.787, 1.047]$  for intelligence, and  $b = 0.218$ ,  $SE = 0.062$ ,  $p = .001$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.095, 0.341]$  for dominance.

To test whether dominance ratings explained the difference in electoral success between countries, we tested for mediation with the Process macro (Hayes, 2013, 10,000 bootstrapping resamples). Participants' country did not predict dominance ratings of politicians with glasses compared to politicians without,  $b = -0.020$ ,  $SE = 0.143$ ,  $p = .888$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.302, 0.261]$ , as Americans and Indians did not differ in how dominant they found politicians with glasses compared to those without. Including both country and dominance ratings, dominance ratings predicted electoral success,  $b = 0.377$ ,  $SE = 0.066$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $CI_{95} [0.246, 0.508]$ , but so did country,  $b = -0.473$ ,  $SE = 0.192$ ,  $p = .014$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.850, -0.097]$ . Furthermore, the indirect effect of country on electoral success through dominance ratings was not significant,  $ab = -0.008$ ,  $SE = 0.055$ ,  $CI_{95} [-0.117, 0.102]$ . Therefore, dominance cannot explain the differences between electoral success of politicians with glasses compared to those without in India vs. the U.S.



## Study 7

### Method

Participants were told that they would see two politicians, and that we wanted to know how they judged these politicians. Participants also read that it was unlikely that they knew the politicians.

### Results

We also tested whether baseline success or gender of politician influenced the glasses effect. However, gender,  $F(1, 197) = 0.01$ ,  $p = .912$ , partial  $\eta^2 < .001$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.002]$ , or success,  $F(1, 197) = 0.04$ ,  $p = .843$ , partial  $\eta^2 < .001$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.009]$ , or their interaction,  $F(1, 197) = 0.07$ ,  $p = .791$ , partial  $\eta^2 < .001$ ,  $CI_{90} [0.000, 0.015]$ , did not influence the positive effect of glasses.

## Meta-Analysis

For the U.S. sample, we included Studies 1, 1b, 2a, 2b, 3 (peace condition), 6 (U.S. sample), and 7. For the Indian sample, we included Studies 5 and 6 (Indian sample) We did not include Study 4 or 4b as both studies tested perceptions of deception, rather than the unqualified effect of glasses.

## Descriptive Statistics

Table S1

*Descriptive Statistics for Electoral Success in Studies 1 to 7*

Study	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Study 1	4.20	0.69	203
Study 1b	4.25	0.70	200
Study 2a	4.20	0.67	200
Study 2b	4.11	0.60	351
Study 3			
peace condition	4.20	0.78	96
war condition	3.97	0.78	104
Study 4			
wear glasses condition	4.34	0.91	101
remove glasses condition	3.97	0.95	100
Study 4b	4.65	1.15	202
Study 5	3.84	1.20	203
Study 6			
Indian sample	3.93	2.35	206
American sample	4.41	1.57	201
Study 7	4.22	1.610	201

Table S2

*Descriptive Statistics for Electoral Success by Politicians' Political Orientation in Study 2a, Study 4, and Study 4b*

Study	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Study 2			
Democrat	4.20	0.90	200
Republican	4.19	0.89	200
Study 4 wear glasses			
Democrat	4.53	1.08	101
Republican	4.08	1.16	101
Study 4 remove glasses			
Democrat	4.10	1.16	100
Republican	3.80	1.27	100
Study 4b			
Democrat	4.76	1.17	202
Republican	4.23	1.16	202

Table S3

*Descriptive Statistics for Characteristics of Politicians With or Without Glasses in Study 6 and Study 7*

Study	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Study 6 Indian sample			
intelligence	4.03	1.52	206
dominance	3.74	1.60	206
Study 6 US sample			
intelligence	4.59	1.20	201
dominance	3.77	1.27	201
Study 7			
intelligence	4.52	1.18	201
warmth	3.40	1.28	201

## Screenshots of Study Questions

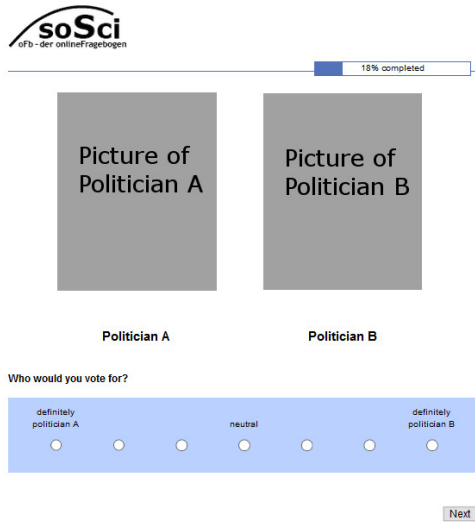


Figure S1. Election questions in Studies 1, 1b, 5, 6, and 7.

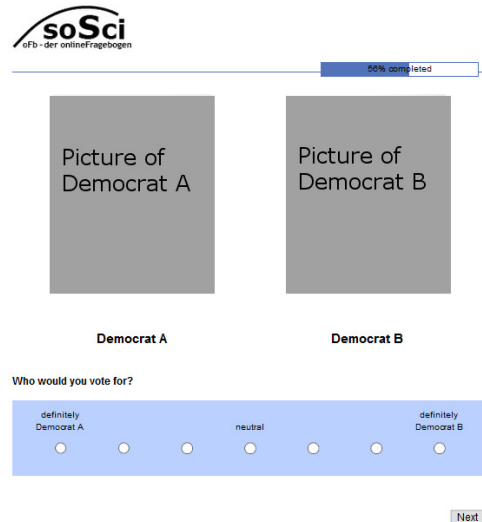


Figure S2. Election questions for Democratic politicians in Study 2a.

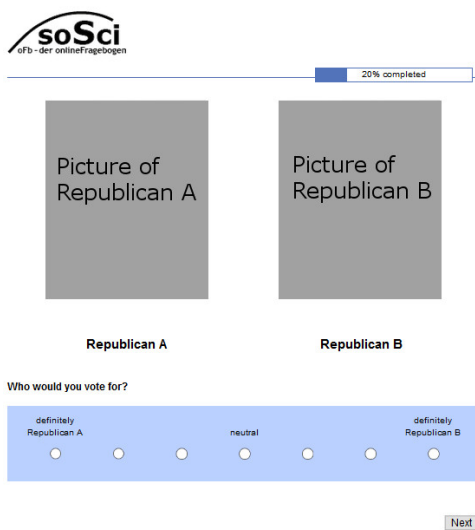


Figure S3. Election questions for Republican politicians in Study 2a.

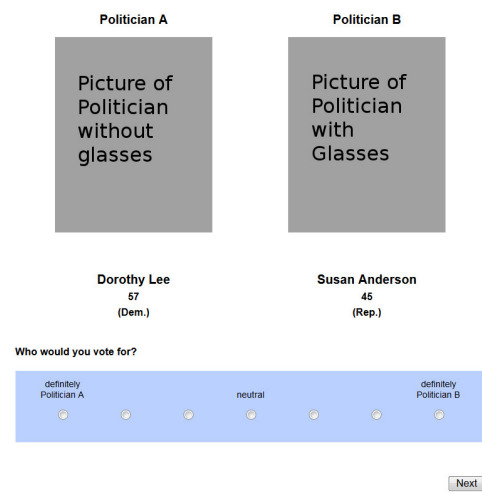


Figure S4. Election questions in Study 2b. Example for female politicians.

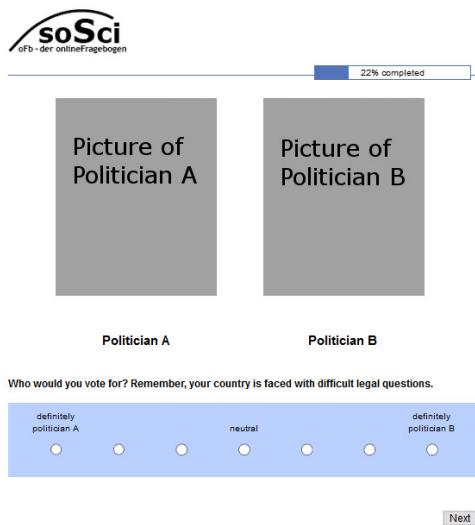


Figure S5. Election questions in peace condition in Study 3.

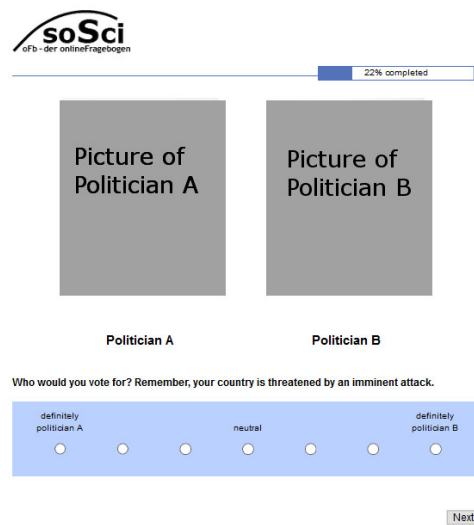


Figure S6. Election questions in war condition in Study 3.

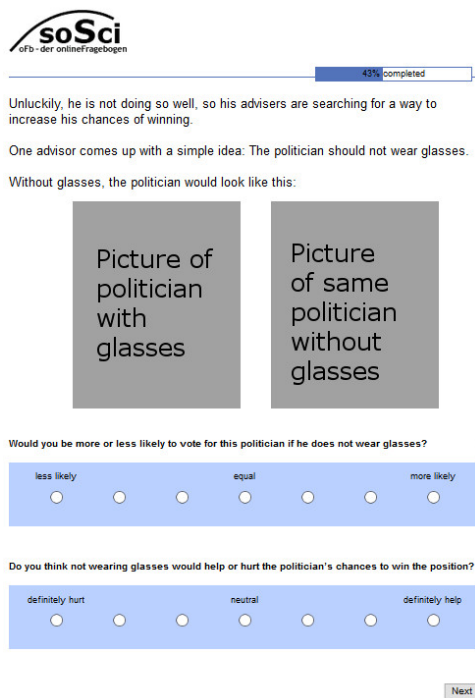


Figure S7. Election questions in the wear glasses-condition of Study 4 and 4b. Female politician, pronouns are adjusted accordingly for male politicians.

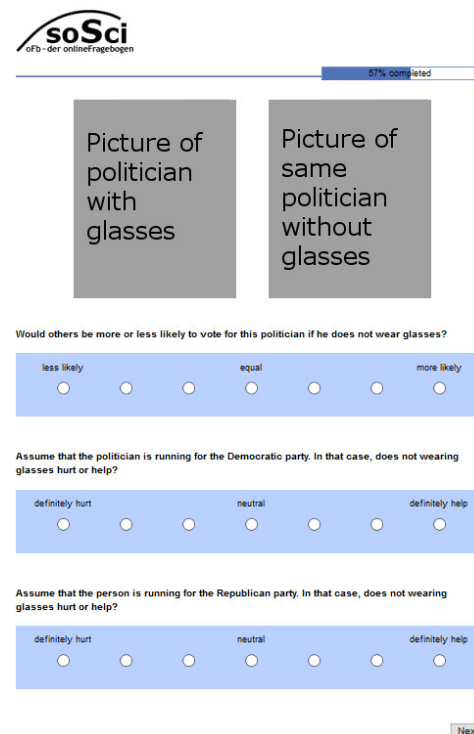


Figure S8. Further election questions in the wear glasses-condition of Study 4 and 4b. Female politician, pronouns are adjusted accordingly for male politicians.

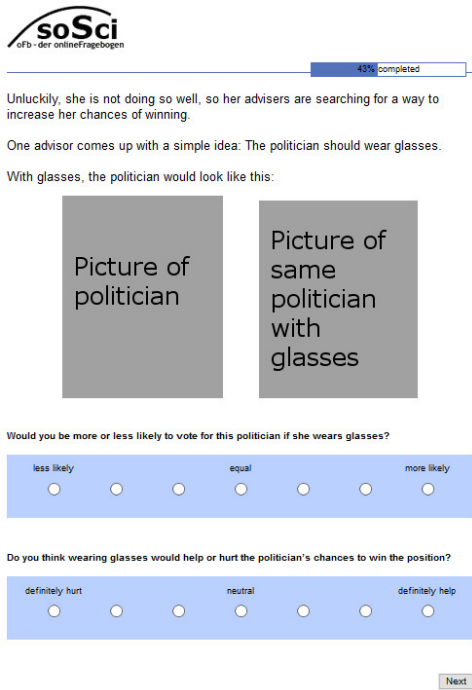


Figure S9. Election questions in the remove glasses-condition of Study 4. Male politician, pronouns are adjusted accordingly for female politicians.

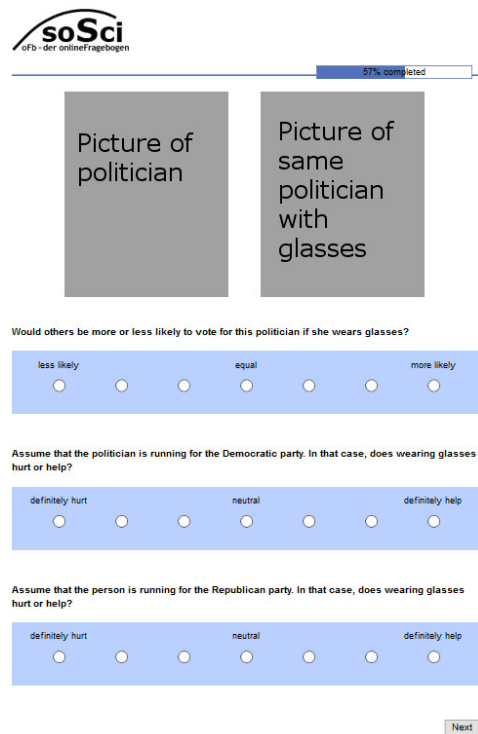


Figure S10. Further election questions in the remove glasses-condition of Study 4. Male politician, pronouns are adjusted accordingly for female politicians.

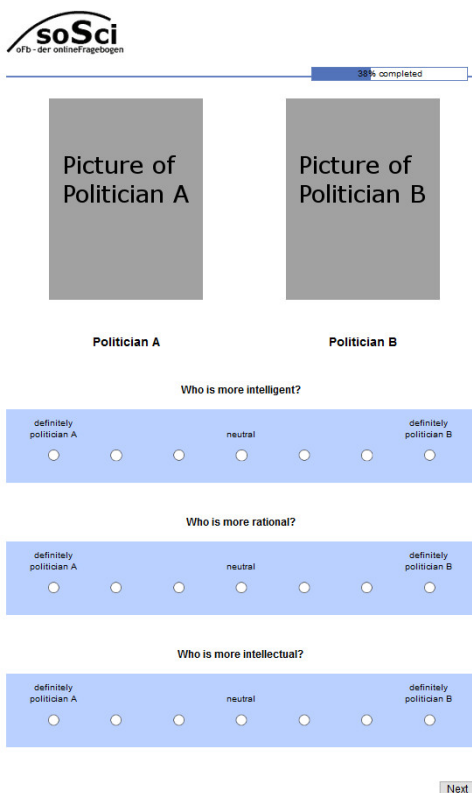


Figure S11. Intelligence questions used in Studies 6 and 7.

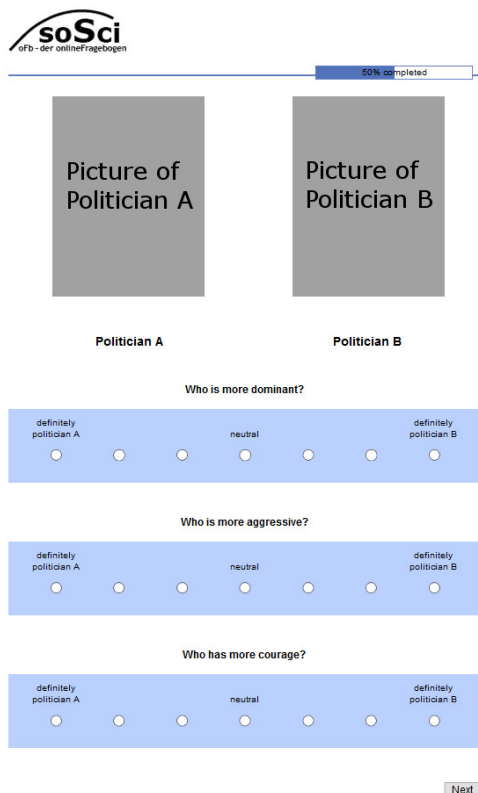


Figure S12. Dominance questions used in Study 6.



Politician A



Politician B

Who is more compassionate?

definitely politician A      neutral      definitely politician B

Who is more friendly?

definitely politician A      neutral      definitely politician B

Who is more honest?

definitely politician A      neutral      definitely politician B

Next

Figure S13. Warmth questions used in Study 7.