DETERMINANTS OF SERVICE BEHAVIOUR AMONG CUSTOMER CONTACT PERSONNEL

by

Kerry Daniel

B. Bus (FIT), MCom (UNSW)

A thesis
submitted for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

University of Technology, Sydney
May, 1998

CERTIFICATE

I certify that this thesis has not already been submitted for any degree and is not being submitted as part of candidature for any other degree.

I also certify that the thesis has been written by me and that any help that I have received in preparing this thesis, and all sources used, have been acknowledged in this thesis.

Production Note:
Signature removed prior to publication.

.....

Kerry Daniel

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

In completing this dissertation I have been supported 'backstage' by family and colleagues. I would like to thank these very special people for the guidance they have given me on my voyage to completion.

First, I would never have had the courage to embark on this journey without the encouragement of my husband, Kelvin, who has never wavered in his support of my ability. My mother, Nancy, has also been a backbone to the cause, forever available for babysitting and help around the house when I needed those extra hours at the computer.

Second, I cannot thank my supervisors enough for their support. Professor Ken Miller provided me with constructive criticism and insightful comments that helped shape and develop my dissertation. Professor Lester Johnson instilled excitement in me for the research process and gave me invaluable guidance and assistance throughout the long haul, always being available for consultation and contemplation of thoughts and ideas. I will be forever grateful for their commitment to helping me complete this thesis.

All my colleagues at work have also been especially supportive of my endeavours. I would particularly like to thank Associate Professor Nigel Barrett for his ongoing consideration of my personal needs over the recent years.

Third, I am most grateful to Qantas Airways for all the assistance they have given me with this research. In particular I would like to thank James Strong, C.E.O., for supporting my research proposal and Shayne Nealon, Cabin Crew Operations Manager, for her invaluable liaison, interest and enthusiasm in my research.

Lastly, I dedicate this dissertation to my precious daughter Kirby, who has just turned three. Kirby has demonstrated such determination in her young life that her accomplishment in surviving serious illness, involving many operations and prolonged hospitalisation, can only be described as miraculous. Kirby's courage and determination

to 'go on' against all odds proved an invaluable source for my own purpose, allowing me to view my task in context. How could I surrender if my small daughter refused?

To this end I must restate how indebted I am to my family. They have been my backbone, providing me with the emotional support that I needed at various difficult stages over the last few years. I will always be grateful for their support.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

ABSTRACT

Customer contact personnel (CCP) are recognised as a key determinant in the attainment of customer satisfaction and service quality. While they are readily acknowledged as often representing the service in the eyes of the customer, almost no attention has been given to researching the determinants of service behaviour among CCP, *from the perspective of CCP.*

The work of Shamir (1980), over fifteen years ago, acted as a catalyst for the development of the conceptual model of this thesis. Of particular interest was the inclusion of the first empirical examination of propositions concerning relative status and role conflict. The conceptual model of this thesis extended and developed this work by representing relative status as two constructs, perceived self-status and perceived recognition status, then further, developed the discussion to include the dependent variable of this thesis, service behaviour. Additionally, the conceptual model included other key variables suggested by the literature (uniform perceptions and customer orientation), that directly and indirectly influence service behaviour.

Airline flight attendants were considered suitable respondents for this research as they hold a high boundary spanning position. The useable data from the survey of 446 respondents represented a 36% response rate. The data analysis undertaken included path analysis and structural equation modelling.

Investigation of the data found that greater insight and better managerial diagnostics could be obtained by splitting the sample dependent on the relative status perspective respondents held concerning their perceived self-status, and refining the conceptual model by dividing the dependent variable, service behaviour, into positive and negative service behaviour.

The research findings indicated that the customer orientation of CCP had the greatest influence on service behaviour. Importantly, perceived self-status had a moderating

influence on service behaviour, with the direction dependent on the status perspective of 'not superior' or 'superior'. All other variables of the model were generally found to have significant direct or indirect effects on service behaviour, again influenced by direction if they were mediated through perceived self-status. The structural equation modelling also provided acceptable fits to the data.

Although, the study examined relationships that essentially had never previously been empirically tested and therefore, in their research infancy, the findings considerably aid our understanding of antecedents of service behaviour among CCP. Further, the findings have significant implications for management in service organisations where their frontline service personnel occupy a service role that is considered subordinate, both to the customer and the company.

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Statement of the Problem

A major goal of organisations, particularly service organisations during the 80s and 90s, has been the achievement of a high level of customer service. Many books on the 'how, what and why' of customer service have been written for practitioners (for example; Albrecht and Zemke, 1985; Davidow and Uttal, 1989; Martin, 1993), while academics have actively researched the areas of customer satisfaction and service quality (for example; Oliver, 1980; Westbrook, 1981; Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry, 1988).

The marketing literature readily acknowledges the importance of customer contact personnel (CCP), the 'frontliner', in the attainment of both customer satisfaction and service quality (for example; Bitner, Booms and Tetreault, 1990; Boles and Babin 1996; Schneider and Bowen, 1985). Many studies agree that there is a significant positive correlation between the attitudes of CCP and customer satisfaction (for summary see, Schneider and Bowen, 1993).

> ... *our findings suggest that the attitudinal and behavioral responses of customer-contact employees are the primary determinants of customers' perceptions of service quality* (Hartline and Ferrell, 1996:62).

However, there has been a shortage of work that specifically addresses the antecedents and consequences of the attitudes of CCP (Bowen, 1990; Kelley, 1992).

> ... *there is little known concerning the factors that affect customer oriented behavior* (Hoffman, 1988:113).

Accordingly, the main objective of this thesis has been to empirically examine and extend our knowledge of the antecedents of service behaviour of CCP. Specifically, the aim is to

consider these relationships in terms of CCP occupying subordinate service roles, as characterised by Shamir (1980), *from the perspective of customer contact personnel*, as opposed to the customer. A main component of this thesis relates to an often-cited publication by Shamir (1980) which proposed and discussed, but did not empirically test, relationships that may influence the service behaviour of CCP in subordinate service roles. Hence, a key objective of this current research is to empirically test these relationships, in conjunction with other constructs identified in the literature that may influence CCP service behaviour, so as to extend our limited knowledge of these relationships.

Specifically, the independent variables of interest in this research study include the perception of the intangible cue of uniform of CCP, the perceived relative status of CCP, the role conflict of CCP and the customer orientation of CCP, on the dependent variable of CCP service behaviour (see Figure 1-1, Initial Conceptual Model). The research context is set within the airline industry. The respondents are airline flight attendants, well recognised for their high contact (Chase, 1978), high boundary spanning position (Sellers, 1994), which is generally considered subordinate relative to that of the customer (Hochschild, 1983; Shamir, 1980).

The aim of this chapter is first, to establish both the academic and managerial importance of the topic area. Second, the context in which the study will be undertaken is discussed. Third, the study objectives and the key research questions are stated. Fourth, the definitions of the constructs under investigation are presented and finally, the remainder of this thesis will be outlined.

1.2 Academic Importance of the Topic Area

It is well acknowledged that due to the unique characteristics of services, CCP are key players in shaping the expectations of customers, managing and controlling the customer's experience, and ultimately in shaping the customer's overall evaluation of the service they have received (Berry, 1980; Shostack, 1977; Lovelock, 1981). In essence, they represent a significant component in 'tangiblising the intangible' (Levitt, 1981) aspect of services, with

often the customer using the service employee as a 'contextual cue' by which to evaluate the service (Bitner, 1991).

While marketing has traditionally been concerned with making promises and building expectations of a service, organisational behaviour has often had the task of delivering these promises. More and more there is a realisation that the two disciplines need to be integrated if superior service is to eventuate (for example; Schneider and Bowen, 1995). However:

> *The organizational behaviour literature has generally paid little attention to the customer, whereas the marketing literature has largely ignored the employee* (Mindak and Folger, 1990:1).

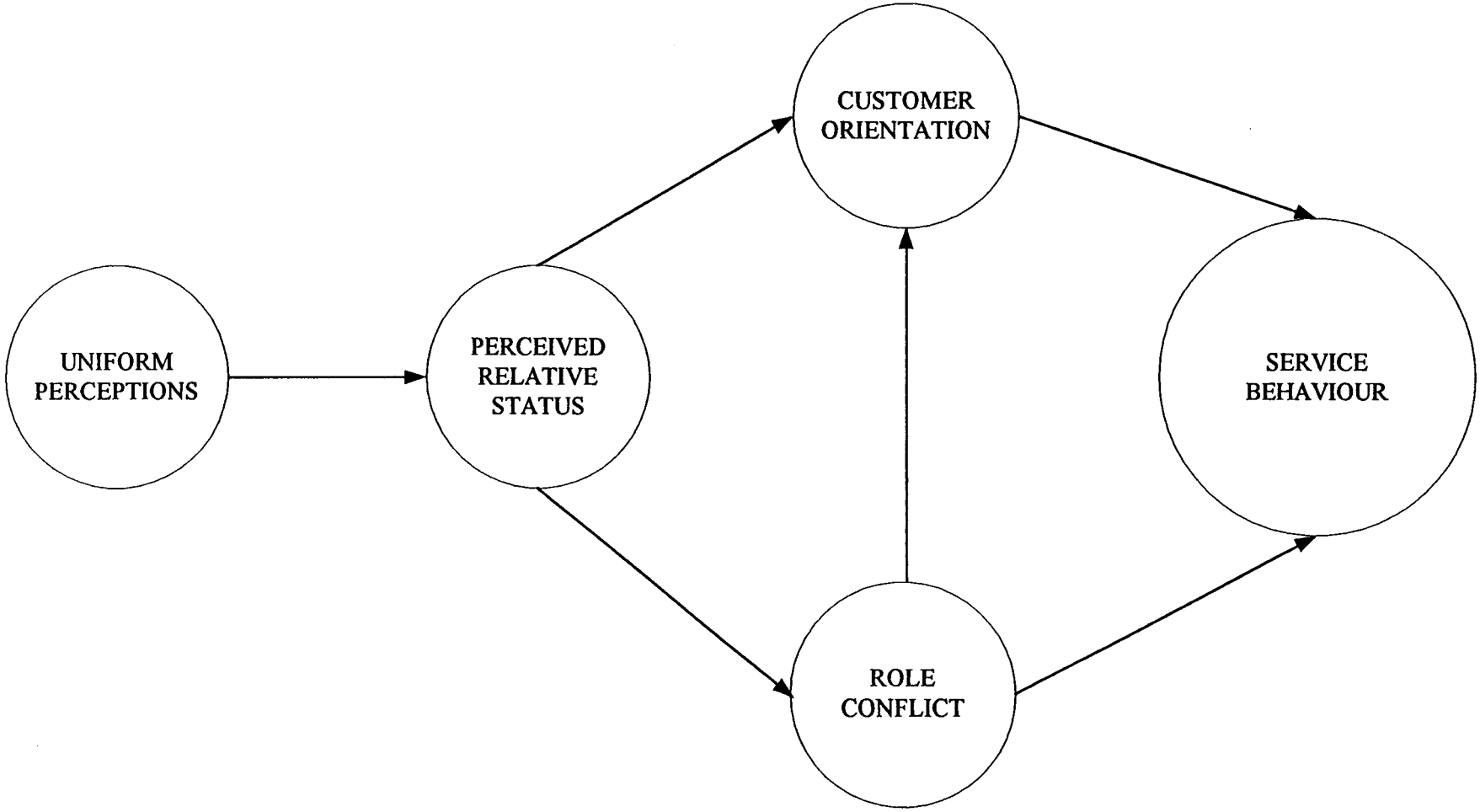
In recognition, this marketing thesis focuses on the employee, the CCP of the service organisation and attempts to delineate the factors influencing CCP service behaviour. It thereby adds to the body of literature that discusses the importance and management of the 'frontline' service provider.

Within services marketing, Mayo (1990) considered there were four areas for discourse: selling services, product/service mix, service as strategy and ... *organising to provide service focuses on the internal systems required to enable employees, and hence the organization, to become a superior service provider* (Mayo 1990:34). It is the last area that this thesis addresses, using a theory testing/development approach (Mayo, 1990) which aims to understand conceptual relationships and derive insights related to the provision of superior service.

Hartline and Ferrell (1996) perceived that the body of research that addresses these issues had three perspectives: manager-employee, employee-customer and employee-role. This thesis is concerned with the latter of these perspectives, employee-role:

> ... *which deals with the relationships among contact employee behaviors, responses and attitudes* (Hartline and Ferrell, 1996:52).

Figure 1-1 - Initial Conceptual Model



Since a service organisation's offering is intangible, often customers perceive the service providers as the service (Solomon, 1985; Tansik, 1990). Therefore, their service behaviour becomes of paramount consideration for the organisation. With the provision of superior service being the major focus of service industries today, it makes sense to investigate the nature of service behaviour and the antecedents that may influence the service behaviour of CCP. To date there has been limited empirical research undertaken on the nature of service behaviour. The exception is the work of Weatherly and Tansik (1993a; 1993b), which has not since been validated. This research aims first to further develop this initial study among a considerably larger group of a new cohort of respondents, airline flight attendants, who arguably occupy a higher 'boundary spanning position' than the respondents of the Weatherly and Tansik study. Second, this research aims to delineate a model of antecedents of service behaviour that has not been empirically tested previously.

The service provider is considered to occupy a 'boundary spanning role' (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal, 1964), in that their position or role in the company is to link the organisation with its environment through their interaction with customers. As boundary spanning is highly correlated with role conflict and role ambiguity (Jackson and Shuler, 1985; Fisher and Gitelson, 1983), ... *it seems reasonable that customer-contact workers experience high levels of role stress* (Weatherly and Tansik, 1993b:5). Shamir's (1980) discussion, based on a review of the literature and a critical incident study of Israeli bus and taxi drivers, proposed characteristics and behavioural responses that he considered unique to certain types of boundary spanning roles. He defined service workers in 'non-professional' employment as occupying subordinate service roles.

However, while Shamir's work has been referred to by a considerable number of academics over the past decade (for example; Schneider and Bowen, 1985; Bateson, 1995), it would appear that there has been no confirmatory empirical study of the proposed relationships noted in Shamir's work, i.e., the relationship between perceived relative status and role conflict, nor the service behaviours that were discussed as being the consequence of the proposed relationships.

Although organisational life is formed around implicit and explicit status rankings, status has not been a focus of mainstream organisational research. Sociologists have tended to be more interested in objective status differences rather than the meanings people attach to status differences. (Bacharach et al., 1993). While relative status has been alluded to by researchers within the services marketing literature (Hochschild, 1983; Rafaeli, 1989; Boles and Babin, 1996), the only study found in the services marketing literature that tested the influence of perceived relative status was undertaken by Goodwin and Frame (1989). This study took the perspective of the customer, rather than the service provider, which is the focus of the current research. Certainly, no studies have investigated the influence of relative status on role conflict, service behaviour or customer orientation, which are objectives of this research.

Role conflict is well recognised in the organisational behaviour literature (Fisher and Gitelson, 1983; Jackson and Schuler, 1985). Employees with low authority (*aka* status) suffer the greatest conflict, where one's work environment offers the least effective environment for coping with conflict (Deluga, 1989). This highlights the role stress that CCP in subordinate service roles are likely to experience and the need for research in this area, along with associated constructs. However, studies that investigate the relationship between role conflict and customer orientation or service behaviour are extremely limited. The few studies include: Hoffman and Ingram (1991), who reported that role conflict had a negative indirect influence on customer orientation; Weatherly and Tansik (1993), who reported a positive relationship between role conflict and negotiation tactics among CCP, but no significant relationship between role conflict and overall service behaviour; and Deluga (1989), who found a positive relationship between role conflict and the behaviour strategies employees use to influence their managers. Due to the noted limited empirical work in this area, relationships between these variables are proposed in this thesis.

> ... *few studies have examined antecedents and consequences of role stress among employees in non-professional positions*...(Babin and Boles, 1996:62).

Another objective of this research is to empirically test the influence of tangible cues, in this case uniforms, on the perceived relative status of CCP. It is well accepted that due to the

intangibility of services, customers will search for implicit cues to formulate their expectations and assessment of service quality (Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1993; Crane and Clarke, 1988). Corporate uniforms have become part of the 'packaging' (Solomon, 1987), an extension of the service image and orientation that the company wishes to communicate to the marketplace.

> *The symbolic nature of apparel and appearance plays very heavily on both [the customer's] willingness to try a service and their satisfaction with it* (Shostack, 1985:251).

The majority of the clothing and textile literature addresses the role of clothing and uniform from the viewer's perspective (Kaiser, 1990). For example, studies have investigated the role of clothing and uniform in the formulation of the viewer's perception of the wearer's character and status (Giles and Chavasse, 1975; Giles and Farrar, 1979; Singer and Singer, 1985; Johnson, Nagasawa and Peters, 1977; Coursey, 1973). However, few studies have researched the perception of clothing and appearance from the wearer's perspective (Kaiser, 1990).

Within the marketing literature it is recognised that dress is frequently associated with both high and low status by consumers (Assael, 1992). It can be useful in the formulation of expectations of consumer power at the service encounter - for example, as in the case of airlines that may implement a style of 'military' uniform for flight attendants in an effort to reduce consumer power at the service encounter, emphasise emergency preparedness, and change consumer perceptions of service provider control of the situation (Goodwin, 1986). Service employee dress is also considered to influence customer assessment of service quality in the form of an implicit service contract (Rafaeli, 1993).

While Rafaeli (1993) and Rafaeli and Pratt (1993) identified the meaning-laden symbolism of dress and uniform in service organisations, they did not focus on the influence of uniform from the service provider's perspective. Therefore an objective of this research study is to

investigate the relationship between the tangible cue of uniform and relative status from the perspective of CCP.

The intent of this study is to begin to fill the gaps in the literature as outlined. In doing so the research model addresses the variables of uniform perceptions, relative perceived status, role conflict, customer orientation and service behaviour.

1.3 Managerial Importance of the Topic Area

Employees are considered the highest cost element of service organisations as well as the greatest asset, as they have the largest impact on customer satisfaction and service quality (Lewis and Entwistle, 1990). Past research has identified the importance of a customer service orientation and the need to foster this in order to achieve positive customer evaluation. For example; customers and employees of a service organisation both experienced positive outcomes when the service organisation had a 'climate for service' (Schneider, 1980). Customer and employee perceptions of service quality were found to be shared (Schneider and Bowen, 1985). A service-orientated culture was found to be a function of the people who worked in the organisation (Schneider, 1987). The SERVQUAL 'service quality gap' was found to be positively related to the size of the 'service performance gap', which was a function of contact service employees and management (Parasuraman, Berry and Zeithaml, 1991).

It is sometimes assumed that service-orientated personnel will 'self-select' themselves into service positions (Schneider and Schechter, 1991), which agrees with Holland's (1985) belief that people search for the right environment or job position which allows them to express their attitudes and values. Vocational preferences thereby are an indication of personality traits, with occupations tending to attract and retain similar 'types' of people. However, one's own experience with service organisations highlights that, clearly, some service employees are more service orientated than others (Schneider and Schechter, 1991). Employee actions, while critical to customer satisfaction, are less subject to management control than other marketing inputs such as communication. While management cannot be present at every

service encounter (Lockwood and Jones, 1989), management can use their selection, recruitment and training policies to hire service providers with the appropriate service orientation (Bitner, Booms and Tetreault, 1990; Schneider and Schechter, 1991; Schneider, Wheeler and Cox, 1992). This is now particularly relevant in Australia, where political commentators have predicted that changes to industrial relations legislation will result in lengthy and expensive legal processes to dismiss employees (McGuinness, 1994; Way, 1994).

Improved knowledge of service behaviour, the outcome of the conceptual model tested in this thesis, should be of significant importance to service management as its influence on subsequent customer service has serious ramifications for any business (Blancero, Johnson and Lakshman, 1996; Lux, Jex and Hansen, 1996; Bowen, 1996). As often discussed (for example, Oleck, 1994; Shamir, 1980), many CCP have a very negative opinion of their job for various reasons. Therefore, an increased understanding of antecedents that may influence service behaviour should be a valuable diagnostic tool to management, especially in the areas of recruitment, training and internal communication. The managerial importance of uniform perceptions from the wearer's perspective centres on management's need to better understand the role uniform may be able to play in the delivery of superior customer service, thereby enabling management to provide the most appropriate uniform design to ensure customer service is maximised.

Examples of the possible areas of use for the research in this thesis include:

- Selection and recruitment of service employees, since the constructs investigated can be measured by Human Resources divisions among potential personnel. For example, given a better understanding of the impact of relative status on customer orientation and service behaviour, ascertaining issues of relative status among candidates could be incorporated into screening procedures. Parasuraman, Berry and Zeithaml (1991) commented that service organisations should endeavour to hire service employees that can handle stress, rather than aim to reduce stress in ill-qualified employees.
- Development and enhancement of training program 'scripts' and 'roles' for service providers, given a better understanding of the effect of relative status and role conflict on CCP service behaviour.

- Future uniform re-design and replacement, by better understanding the influence of uniform on CCP.

In summary, the value of 'detail' in service design (Shostack, 1985) is well noted. Similarly a more 'detailed' understanding of the influences upon service behaviour from the perspective of CCP would assist management in the compilation of strategies to effect superior customer service among CCP.

1.4 The Research Context

Since the conceptual model of this thesis is concerned with the service behaviour of CCP in subordinate service roles it was necessary to conduct the research among a cohort of CCP that were appropriate to this characterisation. Shamir's (1980) connotation of service providers in subordinate service roles involved frequent, high contacts coupled with a service role considered lower in status to that of the customer and the management of the service organisation. Frontline service personnel of the hospitality and tourism industries are well described by this classification. Notably, Shamir (1980) described the responses of flight attendants to role stress and Hochschild (1983) extensively discussed the stress that flight attendants incurred from the constant demeaning of their own status in the eyes of the customers.

Therefore, following the direction of Shamir (1980) and Hochschild (1983), this research chose the setting of an airline and the population of flight attendants to investigate the propositions raised by the research inquiry. Flight attendants are considered most appropriate survey respondents due to the considerable 'boundary spanning' role they occupy. They encounter 500 to 1000 people per day and must continually be performing their role for their clientele (Sellers, 1994). Flight attendants represent the airline company to the public and are the contact point between the faceless corporation and the passenger (Reiss, 1994). Over the years flight attendants have been the subject of various forms of research investigation (Murdy, Sells, Gavin and Toole, 1973; Terkel, 1974; Hochschild, 1983; Ferris, Bergin and Gilmore, 1986; Williams, 1988).

The research reported in this thesis was conducted with a cross-section of airline flight attendants from an Australian airline company that carries passengers both domestically (Shorthaul) and internationally (Longhaul). Due to an historical employment policy, a considerable number of the flight attendants are male, rather than the often-stereotypical female complement. The focus of this study will thus build on the existing literature related to subordinate service providers in general, and in particular flight attendants.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

The preceding discussion has sought to demonstrate the importance of understanding the nature of the relationships between factors that influence CCP service behaviour in subordinate service providers in general, and among flight attendants in particular. Further, it has been argued that the importance of the specified antecedents of service behaviour warrant further investigation, both to academic researchers and practitioners. More specifically the study attempts to address the following research problem and research questions.

1.5.1 General research problem

The goal of this research is to empirically examine and extend our knowledge of the determinants of service behaviour among customer contact personnel; specifically, those who work in a high contact service organisation, where the employees' status is generally considered subordinate, relative to that of the customer and management. Importantly, this research is to be undertaken from the perspective of customer contact personnel. A key aspect of the thesis is the extension and empirical testing for the first time of relationships proposed by Shamir (1980).

1.5.2 Research questions to be addressed

1. What is the relationship between the relative status and the role conflict of CCP? Or to what degree are the propositions of Shamir (1980) concerning relative status and role conflict found to be empirically supported?

2. What is the relationship between the role conflict and the service behaviour of CCP? Or to what degree are the discussions of Shamir (1980) concerning role conflict and service behaviour found to be empirically supported?
3. What is the relationship between the relative status and the service behaviour of CCP?
4. What is the relationship between the customer orientation and the service behaviour of CCP?
5. What is the relationship between the role conflict and the customer orientation of CCP?
6. What is the relationship between uniform perceptions and the relative status of CCP?
7. Which antecedents of service behaviour impact directly and which impact indirectly?

1.6 Definitions

The following definitions have been used for the variables under investigation in the conceptual model. A more detailed explanation of these variables is reported in the literature review Chapters 2 and 3.

Service Behaviour is defined as:

> *The behaviors CCP engage as a response to role conflict that entails endeavouring to fulfil demands placed upon them through seeking to lessen demands or by avoiding completely demands placed upon them* (Weatherly and Tansik, 1993a).

Relative status is defined as:

> *The status of CCP relative to the status of customers, and relative to management, as perceived by CCP* (Shamir, 1980).

Role conflict is defined as:

> *The situation when role expectations from one source oppose those from another source and when role expectations are incongruent with orientations, internal standards, or values of the role occupant* (Shamir, 1980).

Customer orientation is defined as:

> *The ability of the service provider to adjust their service to take account of the circumstances of the customer* (Daniel and Darby, 1997).

Uniform Perceptions is defined as:

> *A service employee's perception of the effect of their service uniform on their service role self-concept* (Daniel, Johnson and Miller, 1996).

1.7 Conclusions and Outline of Thesis

This chapter has sought to establish the academic and managerial importance of the topic area as well as outline the fundamental research problem and seven specific research questions, which are the focus of the study. Following this chapter, Chapters 2 and 3 will provide a review of the literature germane to this research and those empirical and theoretical works relevant to this study. The purpose of these chapters is to provide the background and historical support for this study. Chapter 2 will discuss the body of research that this study is located within and the pertinent literature concerning the dependent variable, service behaviour. Chapter 3 will review the relevant literature pertaining to the discussion of relative status, role conflict, customer orientation and uniform perceptions.

Following the literature review, Chapter 4 will develop the specific propositions to be tested. Chapter 5 will discuss the methodology to be used, including the research setting and justification for the use of flight attendants as respondents. Also, the research design is outlined, which encompasses data collection, pre-testing and scale development and the research instrument. Finally the operational definitions of the constructs are described.

Chapters 6 and 7 will then present the research findings. Chapter 6 will describe the descriptive statistics of the study and details of the construct validation, which includes exploratory factor analysis, reliability analysis, validity and confirmatory factor analysis. Chapter 7 will report the results of proposition testing by way of data analysis using path analysis and structural equation modelling.

Chapter 8 will present a summary and discussion of the research results along with the managerial implications of the research. The contributions of the research will be outlined and the limitations of the research addressed. Finally, the possible future research directions will be considered.

CHAPTER 2
SERVICE BEHAVIOUR AMONG CUSTOMER CONTACT PERSONNEL

2.1 Introduction

While some studies have found differences between customers' and service providers' perceptions of service encounter experiences (for example, Brown and Swartz, 1989), numerous studies have found a positive correlation between the attitudes of CCP and customer satisfaction (for summary, see Schneider and Bowen, 1993). This therefore leads us to expect that there will be more similarities than differences between customer and CCP perceptions of service experiences (Bitner, Booms and Mohr, 1994).

Service organisations need to generate two types of climate: a climate for service which facilitates customer needs and a climate for employee well-being which focuses on human resources management practices to meet employee needs (Bowen, 1996). This thesis is concerned with a better understanding of the latter climate, as it measures relationships between key variables proposed to be antecedents of service behaviour, from the perspective of CCP. It is important that we understand antecedents of service behaviour of CCP as it is known that these behaviours ultimately affect customers in some manner and reflect on the overall performance of the organisation (Lux, Jex and Hansen, 1996; Bowen, 1996).

The key objective of this chapter (2) and the following chapter (3) is to discuss the literature germane to the variables under investigation in the conceptual model (see Figure 1-1, Section 1.2), and the theoretical foundation that links these variables. This is in order to provide background and demonstrate support for the propositions, which are developed in Chapter 4. The conceptual model, which delineates variables proposed to influence the service behaviour of CCP, has not been previously empirically tested.

The literature review proceeds as follows. First, the area of research in which this study is located is discussed. This is followed by a review of the pertinent literature concerning the dependent variable of this study, service behaviour among CCP.

In the following chapter (3), there is a review of the literature concerning the variables proposed as antecedents to service behaviour within the model. This entails a discussion of relative status, role conflict, customer orientation and uniform perceptions.

2.2 Area of Research

The research area of this thesis lies within the field of services marketing which highlights the role CCP perform in service provision and therefore the need of organisations to better understand their employees. Traditional marketing theory alone does not provide insight into how CCP fit into the hierarchy of the service firm. Services marketing draws on concepts from organisational behaviour in order to better understand CCP, so that marketing strategies that incorporate the utilisation of CCP as the service product can be developed and actioned (Bateson, 1995).

Due to the unique characteristics of services, CCP are a major influence in forming expectations, managing and controlling customer's experience, and in shaping the overall evaluation of the received service (Berry, 1980; Shostack, 1977; Lovelock, 1981). They contribute to the tangiblisation of the service and except for remote encounters (Shostack, 1985), cannot be separated from the provision of the service. They often represent the variability of the service provision and while they themselves do not vanish overnight, as may bed-nights in a hotel, their service provision is only for that moment in time. In short, employee performance is considered the most important intrinsic cue for services (Hartline and Ferrell, 1996).

> *Service employee performance that falls short of consumer expectations leads to consumer dissatisfaction and poor service quality* (Guiry, 1992:666).

However, the contribution of CCP to the customers' service experience and the manner by which organisations have traditionally dealt with their service providers would appear incongruent with the attainment of superior customer service. They often receive fewer or none of the traditional benefits of pensions, holiday pay or insurance cover and may only work part-time with no continuity in scheduling work hours. They are often expected to routinely work nights and weekends or whenever customer demands dictate with little orientation offered by the organisation nor on-going training or performance appraisal. Yet managers 'wonder' as to the high turnover, low morale and poor job performance (De Vader and Cooper, 1989). On one hand, CCP assume the mantle of the service in the eyes of the customer (Czepiel, 1990; Tansik, 1990); yet on the other, CCP generally occupy the lowest rung in the organisation hierarchy.

> *Though the service provider is typically the very last link in the chain of production and is, ironically, often the least-valued member of the service organization in terms of status and pay, this person is invested with enormous responsibility for conveying the 'personality' of the service offering to the consumer* (Surprenant and Solomon, 1987:88).

2.2.1 The employee-role interface

Hartline and Ferrell (1996) proposed that the services marketing literature discussed the management of CCP from three perspectives: manager-employee, employee-customer and employee-role. This study is concerned with the latter perspective, employee-role, ... *which deals with the relationships among contact employee behaviors, responses and attitudes* (Hartline and Ferrell, 1996:52).

Role stress among CCP has often been a focus of this perspective (for example, Babin and Boles, 1996; Hoffman and Ingram, 1991; Parasuraman, Berry and Zeithaml, 1991). Organisational theorists have extensively researched the topic of role stress in the work environment and found that both role conflict and role ambiguity are highly correlated with 'boundary spanning' roles (Fisher and Gitelson, 1983; Jackson and Schuler, 1985; Parkington and Schneider, 1979). CCP are 'boundary spanners', the company's most immediate interface

with customers. They are both gatekeepers and image-makers within a service organisation (Bowen and Schneider, 1985). Further, they are often perceived by the customer as the service (Solomon, 1985; Tansik, 1990).

> *Employees not only deliver and create the service, but are actually part of the service in the customer's view* (Bowen and Schneider, 1985:129).

Considered a stressful element of the role of CCP is the requirement to perform 'emotional labour' (Bowen, 1996; Hochschild, 1983). Emotional labour .... *requires one to induce or suppress feeling in order to sustain the outward countenance that produces the proper state of mind in others* (Hochschild, 1983:7). Service organisations such as Walt Disney World are redesigning their training to place more emphasis on emotionally contacting with customers and less emphasis on policies and procedures (Henkoff, 1994). Emotional labour in CCP is achieved through deep acting, surface acting or genuine emotion. Deep acting is considered the best approach for a sustained delivery of emotional labour as it allows CCP to distance themselves from stressful, anger-inducing incidents during service encounters with customers (Hochschild, 1983). Emotional labour is controlled by service organisations through the delineation of display rules for CCP. While this may facilitate a degree of control for the organisation and encourage task effectiveness, it can also lead to emotional dissonance and emotional deviance among CCP (Rafaeli and Sutton, 1987; Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993; Sutton and Rafaeli, 1988), which presents as adverse behaviour in the eyes of the customer.

Antecedents and consequences of role stress, specifically role conflict, from the employee-role perspective comprise relationships under investigation in this thesis. Of particular interest to this study are the propositions and discussions raised by Shamir (1980) but not empirically tested, concerning the antecedents and consequences of role conflict among service employees in subordinate service roles (SSRs). Shamir proposed relationships between the relative status and the role conflict of SSR, then discussed the resulting service behaviours that followed.

It is the potential service behaviours of CCP that form the dependent variable of the conceptual model of this study. As noted, service behaviours ultimately influence the customer's overall evaluation and therefore warrant further study.

2.3 The Service Behaviour of Customer Contact Personnel

2.3.1 Clinical responses to role stress

In response to role stress, some form of coping behaviour is required (Biddle, 1986; Endler and Parker, 1990). ... *[S]tress implies a disturbed person-environment relationship that coping is meant to change* (Folkman and Lazarus, 1985:150). Coping is defined as: ... *to struggle or contend, especially on fairly even terms or with a degree of success ... to have to do* (Macquarie Dictionary, 1988:410), and refers to *cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage (master, reduce, or tolerate) a troubled person-environment relationship* (Folkman and Lazarus, 1985:152).

Coping was originally conceptualised as a defence mechanism and an unconscious process. More recently coping has been conceptualised as a response to stressful or negative events and represents conscious strategies on the part of the individual. The consensus of thought on coping draws the distinction between emotion-focused and problem-focused coping. Emotion-focused coping refers to a person orientation such as self-preoccupation and fantasising reactions and is used more often in encounters that are viewed as unable to be changed or affected. By comparison, problem focused coping refers to a task orientation and is used more often in encounters that are viewed as changeable (Folkman and Lazarus, 1985; Endler and Parker, 1990; Oakland and Ostell, 1996).

In their review of the measurement of coping, primarily within the clinical psychology field, Oakland and Ostell (1996) reported that situational factors, personality characteristics, cultural practices and preferences and cognitive appraisal were some of the many factors which influenced the coping process and how it has been conceptualised. They considered that there were five approaches to studying the stress, coping and health relationship: psychoanalytic, personality-trait, situation-specific, stage-sequential and methods-foci

approach, the latter being the most widely used. Dimensions of coping identified in a well-known clinical scale, the Ways of Coping Checklist (WCCL) (Folkman and Lazarus, 1985), suggested strategies that included wishful thinking, distancing, emphasising the positive, seeking social support and self-isolation.

On review of studies that had used the WCCL, Oakland and Ostell (1996) surmised that:

A. Problem solving was used with a favourable outcome in terms of health when the respondent appraised a situation as changeable or challenging, and

B. Emotion-focused efforts were used with generally an unfavourable health outcome when the respondent appraised the situation as unchangeable or when the stakes involved physical or psychological loss or threat.

However, they found inconsistent and contradictory findings among the studies and suggested that the effectiveness of a coping strategy would vary depending on the context within which it was used, the situation and the individual. They considered that qualitative methodologies or more probing questions were needed in quantitative assessments of coping in order to capture the dynamic nature of the construct. This is consistent with Folkman and Lazarus' (1985) own research that indicated that coping changed between problem-focused and emotion-focused as a stressful encounter unfolded, as it was a dynamic, not static, event. Also, people coped with the stress in complex ways and were likely to experience contradictory states of mind and emotions, no doubt due to the substantial differences in emotion, cognitive appraisal and coping of individuals. Similarly, service encounters are dynamic events incorporating the interaction of a diverse range of individuals.

2.3.2 Organisational responses to role stress

Responses to organisational role stress have been noted to include friendliness with supervisors in order to create a favourable image, reliance on reason and bargaining and the use of assertiveness, appealing to a higher authority, and building coalitions when initial attempts are resisted (Deluga, 1989); talking to others, working harder and longer, changing to an engrossing non-work or play activity, analysing the situation, changing the strategy of attack, and physically withdrawing from the situation (Burke and Belcourt (1974);

assertiveness, ingratiation, rationality, sanctions, exchange, upward appeals, blocking and coalitions (Kipnis, Schmidt and Wilkinson, 1980).

As a facet of role stress (Kahn et al., 1964), resolution of role conflict is considered to encompass three steps. First, there is the choice among norms, where anticipated sanctions and legitimacy judgments are appraised. Second, if this is not possible, a compromise among norms is taken. Third, when there is no other solution, there is withdrawal from the situation or conflict (van de Vliert, 1981):

> ... *choice is the most frequent reaction to role conflict. Compromise and avoidance only play an important part in the minority of situations in which the role prescriptions are equally legitimate or illegitimate, as well as simultaneously associated or not associated with sanctions* (van de Vliert, 1981:82).

2.3.3 Responses to role stress within service industries

Within service industries, responses to role conflict among CCP result in the service behaviour delivered to the customer. Service behaviour is defined as:

> *The behaviors CCP engage as a response to role conflict that entails endeavoring to fulfil demands placed upon them, or seeking to negotiate and satisfy lesser demands or avoiding demands placed upon them* (Weatherly and Tansik, 1993a).

There have been few studies that have specifically addressed the different service behaviours CCP engage in as a response to role conflict. Rafaeli's (1989) study of supermarket cashiers found a continuum of behaviours, from passive to reactive to proactive. These were termed ignoring, rejecting, reacting and engaging. Shamir's (1980) study also identified a range of behaviours engaged by CCP in subordinate service roles.

Weatherly's (1991) review of the services marketing literature suggested there were nine responses used by CCP to control their interactions with customers:

1. Avoiding the customer to prevent communication of an expectation (Shamir, 1980; Rafaeli, 1989);
2. Rejecting and not acting upon the customer's communicated expectation (Rafaeli, 1989);
3. Communicating their rejection to the customer (Rafaeli, 1989);
4. Educating the customer by explaining policy restrictions imposed by the organisation (Shamir, 1980);
5. Mindlessness or automatic behaviour achieved through following 'scripts', so as to avoid information processing of conflicting demands (Shamir, 1980);
6. Overacting the service role to distance themselves between their ego and the role (Shamir, 1980);
7. Physical control,[1] to restrict the behaviours of customers (Shamir, 1980);
8. Engaging customers in conversation to distract them from making demands (Rafaeli, 1989);
9. Rewarding or cultivating customers so as to obligate the customer to the CCP and reduce the incidence of customer demands (Shamir, 1980).

A qualitative study of CCP employed as retail sales clerks, bank tellers, waiters and a loan officer delineated nine behaviours, termed 'typology of tactics', that are used by CCP towards customers and supervisors who place demands upon them (Weatherly, 1991; Weatherly and Tansik, 1993a; Weatherly and Tansik, 1993b). The typology closely followed the literature review (Weatherly, 1991). The behaviours were viewed as being either those of

A. Satisfying demands, or
B. Managing demands.

Within the first category the behaviours noted were:

1. Effort, and

[1] Bateson (1985) discussed the conflict arising from the three-cornered fight for perceived behavioural *cognitive* control evident in a service encounter between the customer, the CCP and the organisation.

2. Delegation - previously not reported in the services literature. Here, CCP will first attempt to satisfy demands placed upon them by the performance of tasks efficiently themselves or by getting another organisational member to perform some aspect of the service.

The second category of 'managing demands' included the behaviours of:

3. Explanation - giving reasons why expectations cannot be fulfilled,
4. Rewarding - giving extra service in return for demands that weren't stressful,
5. Ingratiation - creating a good mood to ensure they were favourably viewed and not overloaded with demands,
6. Distraction - preventing the opportunity of expression of demands through engrossment,
7. Reinterpreting - comprehending the demands so as to minimise stress,
8. Punishing - penalising those whose demands create stress,
9. Ignoring - providing no feedback to those who try to gain the attention of the CCP.

A subsequent quantitative phase examined these specific behavioural tactics, the strategic grouping of these tactics, and the existence of relationships with predictor variables (Weatherly, 1991; Weatherly and Tansik, 1993a; 1993b). The findings concerning the influence of role conflict on service behaviour are outlined in Chapter 3. Applying principal components factor analysis, the nine behaviours noted in the 'typology of tactics' were reduced to four basic service behaviour strategies. These were:

1. Effort - working hard,
2. Negotiating - bargaining to lessen demands,
3. Pre-empting - seeking to stop communication of expectations,
4. Avoiding - pretending not to notice.

The quantitative study (Weatherly and Tansik, 1993a) did not have a large sample size (n=45) nor did it account for a large percentage of the total variation of the items.[2] However there

[2] Weatherly and Tansik (1993a) reported an explained variance of 8.16%, which represented the three factors of pre-empting, negotiating and avoiding. The factor effort was not included.

are considerable similarities between their findings and the responses suggested by Adams (1965) that occur in order to reduce the tension or stress from the inequity derived from a perceived status incongruency. These are discussed in Chapter 3 in the review of literature pertaining to relative status.

2.4 Service Behaviour among Airline Flight Attendants

In order to ascertain whether the same dimensions of service behaviour as suggested by Weatherly and Tansik (1993a; 1993b) would apply to a different cohort of CCP, Daniel, Johnson and Miller (1997) undertook a study among flight attendants from a major public Australian airline company.[3] In explaining how CCP respond to demands placed upon them by their company and/or their customers, five factors explaining 60.7% of the variance emerged from the data. The first factor, named 'supervisor retaliation', included behaviours of inconveniencing, ingratiating, distracting and ignoring the supervisor. The second factor represented the 'team support' behaviours, which surfaced during focus groups (details concerning this research are detailed in Section 5.5.2). Included were behaviours that addressed reliance, protest and retaliation. The third factor, named 'customer annoyance', comprised items which included behaviours directed at the customer. Included were the behaviours of inconveniencing, distracting and avoiding the customer. The fourth factor included items that involved behaviour interaction with customers and was named 'artful endeavours'. Behaviours included those of rewarding, explaining and delegating. Finally, the fifth factor represented the dimension of positive customer orientated behaviours and was therefore named 'customer action'.

There were a few key distinctions between the Daniel et al. (1997) study and the previous work of Weatherly and Tansik (1993a; 1993b). First was the emergence of a five-factor solution compared to the previous four-factor solution of Weatherly and Tansik. In part this was due to the emergence of the dimension entitled 'team support'. This dimension highlighted the unity and solidarity experienced by CCP within the study. This dimension included behaviours of turning to teammates for moral support when demands

---

3 This study reported on the findings from Pilot B, which are discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

upon CCP increased or alienating demanding supervisors from social activities. The similar strategy of 'social support' is noted within the Ways of Coping Checklist (WCCL). This strategy describes ... *efforts to mobilize advice, information and emotional support to help with either the problem and/or the distress experienced* (Oakland and Ostell, 1996:136). Such behaviour has rarely been noted in the services literature. An exception is Hochschild (1983), who noted the team solidarity of flight attendants, which she considered positive, as it tended to improve morale and service.

As service behaviours are a means of coping with role demands, they have both positive and negative implications for management. They can improve morale and service or form the nucleus for grudges against customers and the organisation, which in turn must affect service standards. This behaviour has also been described within the sociology literature in the discussion of 'occupational communities', where there is considerable interrelation between work and leisure (Williams, 1986; 1994).

The second difference between the Weatherly and Tansik study and the Daniel et al. (1997) study was that the customer-orientated dimension of 'customer action' (effort in Weatherly and Tansik's study), was multi-item rather than a single-item measure. The third difference was that the remaining dimensions (supervisor retaliation, customer annoyance and artful endeavours) differentiated supervisor-focused behaviours from customer-focused behaviours, whereas the Weatherly and Tansik dimensions incorporated both supervisor- and customer-focused behaviours in the same dimension.

The third difference between the Weatherly and Tansik study and the Daniel et al. study was the difference in the boundary spanning function of the respondents. The former study surveyed store managers, whereas the latter study used flight attendants as survey respondents. Airline flight attendants are considered to perform an exceptionally high 'boundary spanning' function (Sellers, 1994; Reiss, 1994; Hochschild, 1983), which may provide a different factor solution of potential service behaviours compared to CCP who do not perform to the same 'boundary' level. It is considered that store managers do not generally engage in such a heightened boundary spanning function as regularly as airline

flight attendants. Similar to the Weatherly and Tansik study (n = 45), the Daniel et al. study used a small sample (n = 83). However, in the Daniel et al. study this did comply with the minimum sample size suggested by Lawley and Maxwell (1971).

Weatherly (1991) noted that in response to multiple demands, a CCP's ... *first response typically is to work harder in an attempt to get everything done...* (Weatherly, 1991:79). Similarly, the study by Daniel et al. (1997) found that 'customer action' (the positive service behaviour) had a significantly higher mean score than the other dimensions. This suggested that on average, respondents engaged in the positive service behaviours more often than in any of the negative service behaviours.

2.5 Comparable Constructs to Service Behaviour

Considered consistent with the concept of service-oriented behaviours are organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs) (Bowen, 1996). OCBs represent service behaviours that go beyond the job description of the employee. They can be transactional, i.e., specific and economic (such as pay or advancement), or relational, i.e., the performance of non-required extra role behaviours, loyalty or working extra hours (Blancero, Johnson and Lakshman, 1996). Five dimensions of OCBs are altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness and civic virtue. These appear likely to be associated with customer perceptions of the Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988) SERVQUAL dimensions of responsiveness, assurance, empathy, reliability and tangibles (Bowen, 1996).

Employees hold psychological contracts with their organisations that represent the perceptions of both parties' expectations and obligations to each other. When a firm violates this contract, employees may withhold positive OCBs or exhibit negative OCBs. Positive OCBs equate with altruism, conscientiousness and courtesy, while negative OCBs equate with destruction, theft and violence. As CCP are the most influential employees during the service encounter, their reaction to contract violations can have serious repercussions, harming the overall performance of the organisation. They are more likely to retaliate directly to the customer than the organisation as they realise their individual actions can have little

impact unless customer directed. In particular it is considered that transactional violations will have the most serious impact as these tend to be organisationally based, whereas relational violations tend to be managerially based. Relational violations are likely to affect the withholding of positive OCBs, whereas transactional violations are considered to affect the demonstration of negative OCBs. For example, if CCP have a problem with their pay they may 'hurt' the organisation by accepting kickbacks from customers or misusing promotional give-aways. Similarly if CCP perceive they have been overlooked in advancement they may attempt to redress the situation by hurting the image of the company through 'bad-mouthing' the organisation to customers. The implications of OCBs imposes human resources with the task of ensuring that CCP are an integral component of strategic customer planning (Blancero et al., 1996). Since the focus of this thesis is also CCP, antecedents of service behaviour among CCP similarly represent an important component of strategic customer planning.

2.6 Summary

In summary, the service behaviour of CCP is the outward demonstration of a climate for service, which should be a pivotal goal of any organisation. Hence, management must ensure that the appropriate human resources practices and support resources are available for CCP to ensure that positive service behaviours succeed. The empirical research to date that specifically addresses service behaviour among CCP is limited and suggests that future work in this area is required to:

A. Specify potential service behaviours,

B. Provide an accurate measure of service behaviour,

C. Test the relationship between service behaviour and potential antecedents, and

D. Recommend managerial actions to control service behaviours.

Reference to research that addresses comparable constructs indicates that negative behavioural aspects can have serious repercussions. Hence, research that attempts to further delineate antecedents of service behaviours among CCP should provide a most useful addition to the services marketing literature.

CHAPTER 3
ANTECEDENTS OF SERVICE BEHAVIOUR

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter sought to indicate within which area of research this study is located. Further, a review of the pertinent literature was discussed concerning the dependent variable of the conceptual model, service behaviour among CCP. This chapter aims to complete the review of the germane literature concerning the antecedents depicted in the conceptual model that are proposed directly or indirectly to influence service behaviour among CCP.

This chapter proceeds as follows. First, a review of the literature concerning relative status is undertaken. Second, role conflict is discussed. Third, the concept of customer orientation is addressed. Fourth, the uniform literature is reviewed. Finally, a summary of the literature reviews of Chapters 2 and 3 is presented.

3.2 The Relative Status of Customer Contact Personnel

3.2.1 Social stratification

The four dimensions of social stratification include occupation, power, class and status (Gerth and Mills, 1954), where status is defined as:

> ... *the successful realization of claims to prestige; it refers to the distribution of deference in a society* (Gerth and Mills, 1954:307).

Weber (1948) considered that one's power in society was earned through economic order or social order. Class was related to economic order and distinguished by the basic categorisation of 'property' or 'lack of property', where one had the ability to acquire and dispose of goods for the sake of income. Status related to power earned through 'social order' and to those aspects of life that give a social estimation of honour. Gough (1948)

considered that status is generally recognised as the most important variable that determines an individual's behaviour.

> *With some oversimplification, one might say that 'classes' are stratified according to their relations to the production and acquisition of goods; whereas 'status groups' are stratified according to the principles of their consumption of goods as represented by special 'styles of life'* (Weber, 1948:193).

Behavioural differences associated with class included: 1. Life's chances - where life expectancy in the past increased with one's social class, 2. Childbearing and child rearing - where upper classes traditionally had fewer children, 3. Marital and family relations - where upper classes tended to marry later, 4. Social relations - where contact with other members of other class groups was discouraged (Assael, 1992), 5. Values and standards - where education was more valued the higher the class, 6. Lifestyle - where leisure pursuits differed, and 7. Personality - where self-confidence was more apparent in the higher classes (Berelson and Steiner, 1967).

Although status related to social order and class to economic order, status was generally reliant upon economic order, thus creating considerable overlap (Weber, 1948; Gerth and Mills, 1954). For example, property would not always be recognised as a status qualification. However, it regularly has been, although status groups may have both property-holders and non-property-holders. Also, within classes individuals recognised that status differences occurred and that ... *different classes have diverging amounts of prestige, power, and privilege* (Mowen, 1990:647).

> *Claims for prestige are raised on the basis of consumption; but since consumption is limited by income, class position and status position intersect* (Mills, 1953:241).

The overlap and blurring between class and status is compounded since the terminology of class and status are often used interchangeably.

> *Little distinction has been made between 'class' and 'status' consciousness, and class identification often has been used to cover both of these constructs* (Kluegel, Singleton and Starnes, 1977:599).

Of the two concepts Weber (1948) considered status to be the more important since he believed it would increase in importance as the general economic order of a country became relatively stable. Mills (1953) also believed that white-collar hierarchies would emphasise prestige and strive for symbols that represented status. Status is more likely to determine conduct when a society is not experiencing social change (Gerth and Mills, 1954).

Within the marketing field, the concept of social class has been of great interest due to the influence it can have on consumption, as a result of the differing behaviours that social classes may exhibit (Hawkins, Best and Coney, 1992; Fisher, 1987; Coleman, 1983).

> *Marketers are concerned with how the buying patterns of social classes differ rather than with the political, institutional and cultural reasons for their existence* (Mowen, 1990:647).

3.2.2 The concept of status

Status is a non-reciprocal or asymmetrical rule (Brown, 1965). A reflection of prestige, it involves a minimum of two people, one to claim prestige and another to honour the claim (Gerth and Mills, 1954). Status is defined as:

> *... a number of individuals ordered on an inferiority-superiority scale with respect to the comparative degree to which they possess or embody some socially approved or generally desired attribute or characteristic* (Benoit-Smullyan, 1944:151).

> *The ranking of people within a society, by other members of the society, into higher or lower social positions so as to produce a hierarchy of respect or prestige* (Berelson and Steiner, 1967:71).

To arrive at this ranking people in a society are judged and classified against the society's concept of an ideal. Although society is comprised of individuals, they are seldom classified in this manner. Instead they are ... *defined as an aggregate of individuals in the society who occupy a broadly similar position on the scale of prestige* (Howard, 1989:237) and who are honoured and acknowledged by others (Mills, 1953; Brown, 1965; Gerth and Mills, 1954).

> ... *status honor is normally expressed by the fact that above all else a specific style of life can be expected from all those who wish to belong to the circle* (Weber, 1948:187).

Benoit-Smullyan (1944) argued that there were three types of status: economic, political and prestige, where one's status was generally derived through the importance of one of these dimensions. The key difference between the three types is that prestige status cannot be totally described in behaviouristic terms as it involves the sentiment of how individuals *feel* towards other individuals. On the other hand, economic and political status can be defined entirely in terms of how individuals behave towards other individuals. Eventually though, status equilibrium finds a common level between the three different types of status, i.e., a person's position in the economic hierarchy matches their position in the political hierarchy and this then accords with their position in the social hierarchy.

Occupation groups denote a status group due to the lifestyle the occupation can determine (Weber, 1948; Brown, 1965). It is occupation and the income derived that principally determine one's status. The more equal people are in public status, the more likely they are to socially interact. Further, they will also tend to become similar in other respects besides the income and occupation that initially cast them together. People equal in status tend to have similar attitudes, values and styles of life. If these similarities become well developed between people, then they may continue to interact as equals even when one's status rank on a particular dimension, e.g., occupation, falls above or below that of the other (Homans, 1961). Classifying people in this manner (e.g., doctors or truck drivers, immigrants or established wealth) enables society and people themselves to locate their position without the need of an individual-by-individual classification. This classification of a society implies ... *that certain*

members of society rank higher than others in prestige and power (Assael, 1992:335). People are surprisingly accurate in their perceptions of status and generally agree with each other on the status rankings of others (Wright, 1974; Baker, 1983; Homans, 1961).

The characteristics that determine a society's ideal may change over time and between societies. Berelson and Steiner (1967) noted the following criteria for determining status:

1. Authority
2. Power (political, economic, military)
3. Ownership of property, relation to the means of production, control over land (feudal state)
4. Income - amount, type and sources
5. Consumption patterns and style of life
6. Occupation or skill, and achievement in it
7. Education, learning, wisdom
8. Divinity, relationship to the supernatural
9. Altruism, public service, morality
10. Place in 'high society', kinship connections, ancestry (i.e., inherited position)
11. Associational ties and connections
12. Ethnic status, religion, race.

One or combinations of these criteria that are considered most important by the society are used in the classification process:

1. Which is made informally and unofficially,
2. Which is established by the consensus of the community, not by law,
3. Which is brought about by judgments made collectively about groups of people that need not associate together, and
4. Where the 'whole' person is not classified but only those differentiating characteristics deemed good or bad by the society (Berelson and Steiner, 1967).

This century, in the new middle class, education has often been the basis through which people have lain claim to 'prestige' and the assurance of social position. The affordance of a

good education has often replaced property inheritance, which has been associated with the old middle class (Mills, 1953).

Apart from the societal level, status can also be observed from the organisational level (Bacharach et al, 1993), within sub-societies of the larger society, e.g., university, industry, or airline cabin crew. In this instance, a similar ranking procedure is adhered to in that what is valued most by that sub-society is ranked most highly and awarded the higher status, e.g., the knowledge of the professor in a university, the authority and power of the CEO in industry, or the years of employment or service (i.e., seniority) in the case of cabin crew.

3.2.3 Status congruency and incongruency

Status congruency[1] (also termed status consistency and status crystallisation) represents the degree to which one's rank on one dimension is in agreement with one's rank on another dimension, relative to the ranks of other members of a group (Homans, 1961). Early work in this area generally discussed the difference between the two status rankings, *ascribed* and *achieved* status. The former described status out of one's control (e.g., ethnicity), observable by others and used to form expectations of the person. The latter described the way in which one defined oneself via the expectations that were under that person's control, e.g., education (Jackson, 1962; Sampson, 1969). These measures were objectively obtained (e.g., income) to draw conclusions in studies that were interested in the effect of status incongruency at the societal level, e.g., political upheaval and voting behaviour (Sampson, 1969; Stryker and Macke, 1978).

During the 60s and 70s sociologists became interested in the impact of status incongruency on role stress and the resulting behaviours adopted in response to the stress. It was argued that status incongruency, which arose from an individual's inconsistent rank among different status hierarchies, e.g., occupation, education and racial-ethnic origin, resulted in conflicting expectations that caused psychological stress (Jackson, 1962). The frustration the individual experiences with the variance in the ranking positions between ascribed and achieved status causes conflicting demands, which lead to the emergence of role conflict. Hence, it has been

---

[1] In this review, the terms status congruency and incongruency have been adopted.

generally agreed that status incongruency is conceptualised as a model of conflicting expectations with status congruency relieving the individual of tension and stress (Sampson, 1969).

Sampson (1969) proposed a model of status incongruency that incorporated the factors of mastery and justice. He proposed that these were the two interpersonal issues people must deal with when they encounter each other. Mastery comprised cognitive, physical or resource power or control by the individual. Justice comprised two meanings: equity, that a person gets what they deserve; and equality, that all people should share equally in resources. Sampson concluded that the specific social context would determine if justice was perceived as equity or equality. In a similar vein, Homans (1961) discussed the notions of distributive justice and reciprocity in relation to status incongruence. His theory of distributive justice purported that when there was a relationship where one party perceived that an inequality existed between ratios of profits to investments, then that party would experience injustice and relative deprivation. Adams (1965) suggested that several types of responses would occur to reduce the tension or stress from the inequity derived from the perceived status incongruency. These were:

1. Varying the inputs, i.e., by working harder or less hard, or performing work of poorer quality.
2. Varying the outcomes, i.e., seeking greater rewards or moving up the status hierarchy or even downward and seeking lesser rewards, depending on whether the inequity was advantageous or disadvantageous.
3. Engaging in psychological distortion of either the inputs or the outputs, e.g., altering the importance or relevance of inputs and outcomes.
4. Leaving the situation either psychologically or physically, e.g., quitting a job, obtaining a transfer or absenteeism within the employment situation.
5. Trying to influence the other partner to change their inputs or leave the field, e.g., firing an individual, withholding salary increases or divorce.
6. Changing the object of comparison so as to cease focusing on the incongruency, e.g., perceiving that the other party belonged to a different organisational level.

Adams' (1965) suggestions are similar to the responses to role conflict noted by Weatherly and Tansik (1991; 1993a; 1993b), which therein form the basis of the work by Daniel et al., (1997).

A more recent proposition by Bacharach et al. (1993) is that the theories linking status incongruency and role stress are grounded in Person-Environment Fit Theory and the interactionist notion of congruence. The former relates to status incongruencies where the person faced with unclear tasks and an unmanageable workload becomes stressed. Also conflict may arise when the obligations of one status role are incompatible with another. The latter pertains to the situation where persons who are objectively (i.e., judged by demographic profiles rather than how one 'feels') status incongruent and therefore unlikely to experience role stress, interact with other individuals who impose expectations upon them that highlight incongruencies, resulting in their inability to ignore incongruent expectations.

While limited, there is empirical support for the relationship between status incongruency and role stress (Bacharach et al., 1993). Stryker and Macke (1978) maintained that certain types of status inconsistencies are unrelated and others are highly related to role stress. Therefore, the specific situations of interaction to which the status incongruencies are involved need to be specified, rather than a generalisation regarding the relationship.

> *Status inconsistency* [incongruency] *and role conflict research cannot rest with generalized assertions of the linkages among these classes of variables* (Stryker and Macke, 1978:84).

Status incongruencies that might affect role conflict are those related to ... *certain socially expected behaviors and attitudes typically associated with the individual's dual positions on parallel hierarchies* (Bacharach et al., 1993:29).

3.2.4 Status incongruency in the workplace

Generally, studies in the area of status incongruency and role conflict have been undertaken at the societal level. By comparison the influence of status incongruency in the workplace has

not been widely investigated (Bacharach et al., 1993). Additionally, ... *sociologists have tended to show more interest in status differences as objective facts than in meanings which individuals attach to these differences* (Bacharach et al, 1993:23). As status incongruency affects an individual's attitudes and behaviours (Jackson, 1962; Holmes and Butler, 1987), it is argued that a subjective interpretation is needed in addition to the objective measure in order to reflect the attitudes experienced by status incongruency (Bacharach et al., 1993).

> ... *the individual consequences of status inconsistency* [incongruency] *are viewed primarily as the outcome of an individual's cognitive interpretation of his or her rankings on several relevant status hierarchies* (Bacharach et al., 1993:23).

Within the work environment, Bacharach et al. (1993) proposed that *ascribed* status described rank according to what an individual brought to the organisation, e.g., education. *Achieved* status described the individual's rank controlled by the organisation, e.g., job grade. Outcomes of status incongruency include status enhancement (where the individual occupies a more prestigious position as an association member than in an outside status, such as occupation, education or income) and status detraction (where the individual occupies a relatively less prestigious position in the association than outside) (Zurcher and Wilson, 1979). This may manifest itself at the organisational level as low education-high occupational position for status enhancement and high education-low occupational position for status detraction. For example, enhancement inconsistencies may include information-processing capabilities where one's education does not equate with that of one's peers or subordinates. Detraction forms may include information transferral, advice giving and underutilised personal resources; these often become more salient as the worker ages. This may occur when the 'old subordinate' needs to acquaint the new, younger boss with their work (Bacharach et al., 1993).

Bacharach et al. (1993) proposed a model where status incongruency resulted in role stress.

> ... *the relationship between status inconsistency and role stress is most likely unidirectional* (Bacharach et al., 1993:28).

Four broad relationships were conceptualised to exist between status incongruency and aspects of role stress in the work environment, where status incongruencies would increase aspects of role stress levels (Bacharach et al., 1993). The incongruencies stemmed from:

A. Information processing status attributes (e.g., education) and job complexity status attributes (e.g., grade level),

B. Various social role related demographic attributes (e.g., youth in a senior position),

C. Aging in the organisation and the associated information transferral-related status attributes and,

D. Heightened detraction status incongruency.

Bacharach et al. (1993) considered that status incongruency was a valuable and long-neglected social psychological variable in the field of organisational behaviour and felt that it would have implications beyond the literature on occupational stress. Worthy of note is the suggestion of Holmes and Butler (1987) that status incongruency may be influenced by the characteristics of the situation in which it is experienced. Hence, status incongruency in one organisation may influence an individual's attitudes and behaviours, while it may not in other organisations, dependent on the structure of the organisation.

Research in status incongruency has generally centred on the incongruency one feels from the different rank positions one holds between ascribed and achieved status. Of particular interest to this thesis topic is the work of Homans (1961) which is concerned with the dyadic interaction of the service encounter. Homans noted that status incongruency may also be apparent between two people, thus giving rise to tension. Here the fundamental dimensions of each person differ, i.e., age, ethnicity, occupation, education. For example, the incongruency between cashier and bundler in a supermarket may entail differences between gender, full-time/part-time position, and educational background (such as high school casual or college casual). In this situation the contradictory stimuli of each person fail to allow the parties to engage or respond with each other in an integrated manner. Polar responses to this incongruency range from mutual joking to ease a situation, through to avoidance.

People who are more distant in status from each other generally apply norms of behaviour regarding social interaction with each other. For example, the subordinate must wait for the 'boss' to invite them to dinner. In such status differences, certain lines of behaviour can be found to be threatening, e.g., the concern that a superior may be drawn down to the level of the inferior when engaging in social events. However, sometimes there is even greater tension when a line of demarcation separates relatively equal parties, e.g., the relationship between low-esteem psychiatrists and high-esteem psychologists (Homans, 1961). In short, Homans' work drew attention to the problems that emanate from status incongruency between people as compared to incongruency within a person. It is this former perspective that is the central theme of this study. The literature review now continues, utilising this theme to discuss relative status within services marketing.

3.2.5 Relative status in services marketing

By definition the service encounter reflects a status interaction. As status refers to 'social honour' and 'consumption" (Weber, 1948), the 'inseparability' of services means consumption of the service generally occurs at the service encounter (Gronroos, 1984; Bateson, 1995), which is considered to be a 'social' interaction (Macmullan and Harrison, 1985; Siehl, Bowen and Pearson, 1992). A distinguishing characteristic of service encounters is the temporary status differential that may occur during a service encounter. Here, the roles of customer and service provider may be inverted. For example, the normally higher-status lawyer may work for clients of a lower social status (Czepiel, Solomon, Surprenant and Gutman, 1985). In other situations service providers in certain roles, such as waiters, may find that they are required to ... *conserve norms of interpersonal behavior that no longer exist in other social institutions* (Shamir, 1980:744), for example, by way of the mutual address form of 'sir' and 'madam' in a service situation. Hence, the status differential is inherent in the service encounter:

> *As a form of human behavior, service encounters are characterized by their purposiveness, the motivation of the provider and their ability to allow strangers to interact in a way that transcends the barriers of social status* (Czepiel et al., 1985:14).

Just as the study of status incongruency in organisational research has been overlooked (Bacharach et al., 1993), there has been little conceptual or empirical work undertaken that directly addresses the impact of status incongruency on aspects of the service encounter. Following is a review of discussions and empirical work within service organisations that has drawn attention to status incongruency between persons, as may occur in a service encounter between CCP and customer.

While 'service' in some cultures is considered an honourable and noble career path, in others it is synonymous with 'servitude' and 'unskilled labour' (Ament and Deszca, 1992). Whyte's (1948) study of human relations in the restaurant industry highlighted some interesting issues concerning status. Whyte reported that European waiters were more comfortable with their position than American waiters, as they were accustomed to class distinction. This was also aided by the greater prestige enjoyed by waiters in Europe. In Europe, generally one inherited one's occupation from one's father. Hence, the son of a waiter was assumed to inherit this role. In such 'order' neither customer nor waiter questioned the waiter's role, e.g., by asking the waiter why they did not want to be something 'better'. However, European waiters that immigrated to the USA, although earning significantly more money, experienced a substantial fall in status. Whyte concluded that even among waiters who did not seem particularly concerned over status, there was .... *deep resentment concerning their position in relation to the customers* and that they .... *recognized the seriousness of the status problem* (Whyte, 1948:97).

Whyte (1948) also found that the optimal performance by a waitress varied with the status of the restaurant. When waitresses performed their duties to the status level of the restaurant (i.e., higher-class, middle-class, lower-class), they received larger tips than those who performed their duties at a level higher than the restaurant's perceived status. For example, waitresses who acted in a middle-class manner, while in a lower-class restaurant, received fewer tips than waitresses who acted in the less courteous 'norm' of lower standard restaurants. By comparison, waitresses in high-standard restaurants, while earning greater incomes than department salesgirls, had to often endure disrespectful behaviour from their

customers. They could not 'talk back' to their customers, as their counterparts did in lower-class restaurants.

> *The trouble is, when the guests get nasty with you, you can't tell them off. You have to keep it all inside you. That's what makes it so nerve-wracking. It would be easier for us if we could talk back* (Whyte, 1948:94).

Mills (1953) noted that CCP are often able to borrow 'prestige' from their customers. For example, the salesgirl from Bonwit Teller's (upmarket) will assume a different countenance to the salesgirl from Macy's (middle-class), as prestige is borrowed from the 'expensiveness' of the typical customers. The notion that prestige is contagious is a common-place phenomenon that extends throughout society, not only among CCP, and exists even when only fleeting, i.e., *Shake hands with the man who shook hands with the president* (Benoit-Smullyan, 1944: 157). Duncan (in Goodwin and Frame, 1989:66) classified services into high, medium and low status, where lawyers and dentists were classified as high status, bank tellers and nurses as middle status and gas station attendants and waiters as low status. Hochschild (1983) recognised that emotional labour often required the enhancement of the customer's status. This was found particularly with flight attendants.

> *The project of the flight attendant is to enhance the customer's status, to heighten his or her importance* (Hochschild, 1983:139).

> *... a flight attendant is encouraged to elevate the passenger's status by lowering her own* ... (Hochschild, 1983:143)

Hollander (1985) recognised the occurrence of both absolute status, which one earned through income, education, ancestry and occupation, and relative status, which depended on the differential absolute rankings of participants in a service encounter, including their relative power and need for each other. Goodwin and Frame (1989) provided insight into the customer's perceived status relative to their service provider in their investigation of formality as a dimension of the service encounter. They found that first, customers preferred to relate to

service providers as friends rather than strangers when the provider's status was similar to their own, and second, that customers allowed service providers who were perceived to have a higher status than their own to address them on a first-name basis.

3.2.6 Subordinate service roles

The principal work in the services literature that addresses the concept of status incongruency was undertaken by Shamir (1980) in his critical incident study of Israeli service providers. Shamir proposed influences resulting from the status incongruency among service providers whom he considered occupied subordinate service roles. CCP in subordinate service roles were characterised to have:

A. Relatively high boundary relevance, in that they had a high frequency of contacts with persons outside the organisation,
B. A high degree of exposure during outside contacts,
C. Lower status relative to outside contacts, and
D. Lower status relative to the senders (managers) inside the organisation.

As his study is specifically concerned with the consequences of status incongruency in a cohort of CCP, the definition of relative status employed in this thesis is:

> *The status of CCP relative to the status of customers, and relative to management, as perceived by CCP* (Shamir, 1980).

Shamir (1980) also discussed the types of conflict to which CCP in subordinate service roles are often exposed, due to the nature of their position being high contact and relatively low status, compared to their customers and the organisation. For example, they are often required to address customers differently, compared to their civilian role; they are often required to adhere to intimacy and control as determined by the customer; they are often required to surrender their workspace territory to customers and they are often required to adjudicate on the outcome of conflicting expectations from management and customers, or between different customers.

Shamir's discussion and propositions concerning relative status impacted on two types of role conflict: 'person-role' ... *when role expectations are incongruent with orientations, internal standards, or values of the role occupant* (Shamir, 1980:744, interpreted from House and Rizzo, 1972) and 'intersender' ... *a situation in which role expectations from one source (role-sender) oppose those from other sources. Such a conflict can be created by incompatible policies, conflicting requests from others and incompatible standards for evaluation* (Shamir, 1980:748, interpreted from Rizzo, House and Lirtzman, 1970). Shamir presented, but did not empirically test, the following propositions:

1. The level of person-role conflict will be inversely correlated with the status difference between the client and the role occupant - the more equal the status of the two parties, the higher the level of person-role conflict (Shamir, 1980:745) and,

2. Intersender conflict in subordinate service roles will be directly related to the extent that the client has control over rewarding and sanctioning of the role occupants' behaviour. .....The level of intersender conflict is also related to the status (and power) of role senders *relative to each other.* The more equal the status of the role senders the higher the expected level of intersender conflict (Shamir, 1980:749).

Shamir went on to discuss the types of behaviours CCP in subordinate service roles might initiate in order to resolve the stress induced by their status incongruency. While he acknowledged that negative behaviours need not be the norm in service organisations, his discussion centred on responses to role conflict that would negatively influence perceived customer service. The behaviours he noted were:

A. Avoidance of contact with the customer,
B. Alienation from the service role through psychological withdrawal or automatic behaviour,
C. Overacting the role to gain role distance, or role embracement,
D. Controlling the interaction through physical control, through leadership or taking the initiative, through anticipation of needs, or through the cultivation of customers, and
E. Educating the customer to ensure they understand the rules of the organisation.

Shamir noted that the most frequently discussed form was that of gaining control over the interaction with clients, where control implied an authoritarian role. However, control of a situation may also be interpreted positively, if it is related to a service provider's ability to adapt their behaviour in the service encounter to the needs of the customer (Bateson, 1985), thus gaining control of the service encounter in a positive manner. Certainly, Goodwin and Verhage (1989) found that the greatest likelihood of customers complaining was associated with CCP that occupied roles where the customer had high power and low commitment, i.e., roles synonymous with subordinate service roles, for example, bank tellers.

Although Shamir (1980) initiated discussion concerning the influence of status incongruency between parties to a service encounter, little is known of the generalisability of this work. First, it is important to recognise that Israel, the country where Shamir's study is placed, ranks highly as an open stratification system within Hofstede's (1991) study of the Power Distance dimension. Israel is ranked 52 out of 53 on power distance. Similarly, Australia is ranked 47, also demonstrating a small power distance and therefore indicating that the country's values lean towards an open class stratification. It would be interesting to consider the influence of status incongruency in countries that had a high power distance, for example, Malaysia, Panama or the Philippines.

Second, Shamir's discussion centred around subordinate service roles. The consequences of status incongruency among professional service workers may also be interesting. For example, behaviours emanating from professional service personnel (e.g., doctor, dentist or architect) may be quite different, yet also have the ability to adversely affect customer evaluation.

Third, Shamir's perspective bundled both types of status incongruency (internal and external to the organisation) into one dimension. It would be interesting to investigate the influences that may ensue from the two types of status incongruency among CCP.

3.2.7 Comparable constructs to relative status

There have been limited studies that have specifically addressed the influence of status incongruency among CCP or customers (i.e., Shamir, 1980; Goodwin and Frame, 1989). Certainly, the impact of role congruency, both intra-role and inter-role, has been discussed as a critical factor in achieving customer satisfaction at the service encounter (Solomon, Surprenant, Czepiel and Gutman, 1985), although the underlying causes of role incongruency were not specified.

> ... *role congruence in a service setting is actually a two-dimensional issue for intra-role and inter-role congruence. Intra-role congruence reflects the degree to which the service provider's conception of his/her own role is concordant with the organization's conception of that role. Inter-role congruence is the degree to which provider and client share a common definition of service roles* (Solomon et al., 1985:104).

Therefore, it is necessary to review studies that discuss comparable constructs to that of status incongruency (or relative status) among service employees and the influence derived from these constructs. Status relative to role senders outside the organisation (e.g., customers) has received little attention, save by Goodwin and Frame (1989), albeit from the customer's perspective; whereas constructs of management style, which may be considered comparable to CCP status relative to role senders inside the organisation (e.g., management), have had some discussion and research in the literature. Following, the pertinent studies of the latter perspective are reviewed.

3.2.7.1 Comparable studies to CCP status, relative to role senders inside the organisation

Climate for service ultimately influences customer perceptions through the service behaviours displayed (Kelley, 1992; Bowen, 1996; Blancero et al., 1996). Schneider's (1980) study of bank tellers and customers concluded that the perceived service climate of the organisation was crucial to both employees and customers. From the employee's perspective, Schneider found that a service orientation discrepancy, i.e., incongruence between

perceptions of management's service orientation and CCP's own service orientation, was an antecedent, positively related (r = .45; p reported as significant) to role conflict. Increasing incongruency resulted in negative employee feelings, whereas a reduction in the incongruency facilitated a customer orientation.

> ... *they experience less role conflict and role ambiguity when the branch is more like employees feel it should be - that is, more enthusiastic in its approach to service* (Schneider, 1980:63).

Schneider and Bowen (1985) investigated employee perceptions of their organisation's human resources practices and customer descriptions of service. They found that customers' perceptions of employee morale ($r = .54$; $p < .05$), branch administration ($r = .46$; $p < .05$) and overall quality ($r = .56$; $p < .05$) were positively related to service employees with an enhanced perception of their own status.

Supervisory support is concerned with the support and concern that supervisors offer their employees. Babin and Boles (1996) found that employee perceptions of supervisory support negatively effected role conflict ($r = -.49$; $p < .01$) in their study of restaurant employees. Their results suggested that role conflict would decrease when CCP perceived their supervisory staff as supportive and concerned. Boshoff and Mels (1995) found supervisory consideration negatively related to role conflict in their study of insurance salespeople ($r = -.290$, $p < .01$). Role conflict would decrease when supervisors adopted a more considerate leadership approach. Similarly, Ross (1995) reported in his study of hospitality employees that better communication from management emerged as the preferred solution to role stress, especially among female hospitality employees. Ross suggested that an understanding of why employees had developed perceptions of poor communication was needed as these results may indicate that a less traditional approach should be adopted.

Similarly one may align organisational support, which is reflected in management style, to service behaviour in research undertaken by Kelley, Longfellow and Malehorn (1996) among bank CCP. In this study, Kelley et al. found organisational support positively related to

routine and creative discretion. Routine and creative discretion reflected the service behaviours of caring, helping and consideration. Kelley et al. suggested that management could increase this type of discretion and hence positive service behaviours in an organisation through the development of increased perceived organisational support. They did not find organisational support significantly related to deviant discretion, i.e., discretion that leads to service behaviours that the employee is not empowered to perform or behaviours involving ill-formed judgments. Although they proposed a negative relationship, it was not supported. However, they did find a negative direction. In an earlier study Kelley (1992) found organisational climate for service and organisational commitment positively related to customer orientation.

Overall, it is considered that supportive supervisory behaviours are associated with lower levels of role stressors and higher levels of job outcomes (Singh, Vewrbeke and Rhoads; 1996). Singh et al.'s (1996) study of the influence of organisational practices on role stressors among boundary spanners found them to matter significantly. However, they cautioned that as role stress and organisational practices involved a complex trade-off, completely purging role stress in a boundary spanner's job may be ill advised. Rather, aspects of role stress could be utilised to provide employees with a chance to use their own discretion in the work environment, given that the organisation accommodated the employee with the necessary resources to effect such discretion.

As status and occupation are intertwined (Weber, 1948), the influence of occupational image on role conflict is also of interest. Birnbaum and Somers (1989) considered that occupational image influenced one's view of one's job, so that positive or negative images could be formed dependent on the social cues that one received. They felt that training programs needed to carefully consider occupational image so as to ensure positive work attitudes developed. Further, they considered occupational image an antecedent of role conflict. The profession of flight attendant, the cohort of investigation in this thesis, represents an occupation where the service employee is required to be a 'server' one minute and potentially a 'leader', for example in an emergency, the next

minute. Hollander (1985) suggested that this partial status relationship could create tension during the service encounter.

It would appear that some practitioners within the service arena, specifically the hospitality industry, have implicitly recognised the concept of status in their service philosophy and training regime. The credo of the Ritz-Carlton hotel chain (see Appendix 3A - Ritz-Carlton Credo), the 1992 winner of the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award is, *We are Ladies and Gentlemen Serving Ladies and Gentlemen* (Watkins, 1992; Partlow, 1993; Duarte, 1993; Henderson, 1992). This motto suggests that an equal status between employee and guest is advocated by management in the attainment of customer orientation among employees and positive service behaviour within the company, in order to gain customer satisfaction or delight. By contrast, many anecdotal tales exist of the disrespect given by customers and managers to waiting staff who are generally hired to work with little or no training. This latter management approach could reflect the exceptionally high annual turnover rate of service staff of 108% in 1991 in the USA (Oleck, 1994).

3.2.8 Summary – Relative status of CCP

Sociology research has formed the basis for this discussion of relative status or status incongruency among CCP. In particular, the work of Homans (1961) has given support for the notion that status incongruency between persons may give rise to tension or role stress. Service organisations are confronted with the need to manage each and every service encounter; a most daunting task. As service encounters are essentially social interactions, they are therefore potential minefields for status incongruency between the parties to the encounter. Hence, it seems only logical that further insights into the antecedents and consequences of status incongruency should be investigated if we are to better understand and manage service encounters.

To date, there have been few studies that have investigated relative status within service organisations. In particular, there have been no empirical studies that have examined the relationships proposed in the conceptual model of this study between relative status and other variables. Comparable constructs within the organisational behaviour literature

suggest that key relationships may exist between relative status and other variables. Additionally, business practice within the leading hospitality chain Ritz-Carlton arguably incorporates the notion of relative status in their service philosophy. Therefore, it is considered that further research into antecedents and consequences of relative status during a service encounter, in particular from the perspective of CCP, would prove most fruitful in better understanding and devising strategy to manage the social interaction of CCP and customers during their service encounter.

3.3 Role Conflict among Customer Contact Personnel

3.3.1 Role theory

The role metaphor is often used to analyse a service encounter (Solomon et al., 1985; Grove and Fisk, 1983). Role theory is concerned with:

> ... *the fact that human beings behave in ways that are different and predictable depending on their respective social identities and the situation* (Biddle, 1986:68).

Role theory is based upon three interrelated concepts: (1) social behaviours are characteristic or patterned, (2) identities are assumed by the participants, and (3) scripts or behaviours are followed or understood by the participants (Biddle, 1986). In the services marketing literature, role theory is used to interpret the dyadic interaction between customer and CCP. The interaction between customer and CCP encompasses instinctive and learned behaviours, assumed demeanour and expectations of each other's behaviour. Management implications from role theory include the design and realistic communication of roles that will fulfil the needs of both customer and CCP (Bateson, 1995).

Expectations are the major focus of role theory (Biddle, 1986). Incompatible role expectations result in role conflict (Biddle, 1986; Katz and Kahn, 1978; Rizzo et al., 1970) which, along with role ambiguity, are facets of role stress (Kahn et al., 1964). Role

stress has generally been found to affect job outcomes in a negative manner (Boshoff and Mels, 1995).

3.3.2 The impact of role conflict

Role conflict has been rigorously examined in the organisational literature (Jackson and Schuler, 1985; Fisher and Gitelson, 1983). Consequently, it is not the objective of this thesis to review all the literature concerning role conflict, rather to consider the literature pertinent to the influence of role conflict on service behaviour and customer orientation among CCP, as relevant to this thesis.

> *Role conflict is positively related to boundary spanning and negatively related to commitment; involvement; satisfaction with pay, co-workers, and supervision; and participation in decision making* (Fisher and Gitelson; 1983:325)

CCP as boundary spanners are more prone to role conflict (Kahn et al., 1964). Organisationally, the foreman's position was considered to best represent the conflict of one ...*caught in the middle* (Rizzo et al., 1970:153) between conflicting demands from superiors and subordinates. The CCP, like the foreman, is often caught in the middle between the demands of the customer and the policies or demands of the company. To adhere to company policy may well produce customer dissatisfaction. However, to please some customers may require going outside company policy and may well result in company reprimand.

When role conflict occurs, the person subjected to conflicting pressures suffers role stress. To resolve this conflict and decrease the stress some form of coping behaviour is required (Biddle, 1986; Endler and Parker, 1990). Resulting negative service behaviours include ingratiation, punishing and ignoring. Positive service behaviours centre around the use of extra effort on the part of CCP (Weatherly and Tansik, 1993a). As customer service has become a major objective of many organisations (Albrecht and Zemke, 1985; Davidow and Uttal, 1989), antecedents, particularly to negative service behaviour, need

to be recognised and managed if service organisations are to ensure their CCP will routinely deliver superior customer service.

While role conflict is a generalised term, it incorporates the notions of person-role conflict, intersender conflict, interrole conflict and intrasender conflict (Kahn et al., 1964). Miles and Perreault (1976) proposed that organisations needed to know the nature of the role conflict their CCP were experiencing if they were to be successful in implementing strategies to relieve the conflict. Shamir (1980) highlighted person-role conflict and intersender conflict among CCP, along with a discussion about the various service behaviours that may occur due to heightened role conflict. These included avoidance of the customer, psychological withdrawal from the service encounter and overacting one's role. Therefore, following the work of Shamir, for the purpose of this research, role conflict is defined as:

> *The situation when role expectations from one source oppose those from another source and when role expectations are incongruent with orientations, internal standards, or values of the role occupant* (Shamir, 1980).

There has been minimal empirical research into the relationship between role conflict and the service behaviour exhibited by CCP. The only work that directly addresses this relationship was undertaken by Weatherly and Tansik (1993a; 1993b) who set out to examine the relationship between specific behavioural tactics and proposed predictor variables. They hypothesised that role conflict would be positively related to effort, negotiation and avoidance tactics. However, they found no significant relationship between role conflict and any of the four behaviour dimensions that had emerged in their work. Likewise, hypotheses concerning relationships between role ambiguity and behavioural tactics were not confirmed, except for that between role ambiguity and negotiating behaviour. They concluded that service behaviour was not influenced by role conflict.

3.3.3 Research into role conflict and comparable constructs

Reviewing the research on the influence of role conflict on constructs that are comparable to service behaviour found various outcomes. For example, Parasuraman, Berry and Zeithaml (1991) found no strong support for the influence of role conflict on the service performance gap. However, Boshoff and Mels (1995) found that role conflict negatively influenced internal service quality indirectly through organisational commitment in their study of insurance salespeople. Hartline and Ferrell (1996), while hypothesising a negative relationship, found a positive relationship between role conflict and self-efficacy, which refers to an employee's belief in their ability to perform a job. They concluded that belief in one's ability to perform a role increased as one learnt how to cope with one's role conflict, which was inherent in the position of CCP. Singh, Goolsby and Rhoads (1994) found that role stressors, which included role conflict, had a positive effect on burnout. In turn, burnout had a negative effect on both behavioural outcomes and psychological outcomes.

Babin and Boles (1996) reported that research on role conflict and job performance was equivocal. They suggested that this might explain why some people appear to thrive on role conflict while others clearly do not. They proposed that when CCP experienced a setting where escape was not possible they would resolve their role conflict by positively increasing their performance, thereby resolving their conflict. Their research supported this proposition. However, they suggested, given the results of previous studies, that the characteristics of the job and environment may well moderate this relationship, as in the example of their no-escape retail setting. Finally, Schneider's (1980) discussion concerning incongruency between employee perceptions of management service orientation and their own service orientation noted that role stress led to frustration, dissatisfaction and intention to quit.

> ... *a host of negative consequences follow when employees think customer service should be handled in ways that differ from the way they believe management wants service given* (Schneider, 1980:60).

A small number of studies have investigated the relationship between role conflict and customer orientation. Hoffman and Ingram's (1991) study of health care workers found that role conflict negatively influenced customer orientation, indirectly through job satisfaction. By comparison, Siguaw, Brown and Widing (1994) proposed customer orientation to be an antecedent of role conflict, although this was not supported. Siguaw and Honeycutt (1995) found a negative relationship between role conflict and customer orientation in their study of gender differences in selling behaviours.

3.3.4 Summary – Role conflict among CCP

Role conflict is an extensively researched area within the literature and a key area of study within organisational behaviour. Consequently, as services marketing borrows extensively from other disciplines, including organisational behaviour, the investigation of role conflict within service organisations is a logical extension. Work in this area already exists.

However, with reference to the conceptual model of this study, only one study (Weatherly and Tansik, 1993a; 1993b) was found that specifically addressed the relationship between role conflict and service behaviour. Other studies, which investigated the relationship between role conflict and constructs considered comparable to service behaviour, have been equivocal. Since there is no clear empirical evidence as to the type of relationship, if any, that exists between role conflict and service behaviour, it is appropriate that further research is conducted in this area.

Similarly, the limited number of studies that have researched the relationship between role conflict and customer orientation prompts reinvestigation of this relationship. Future research that addresses antecedents and consequences of role conflict within service organisations would represent a most useful addition and extension to the existing literature.

3.4 The Customer Orientation of Customer Contact Personnel

3.4.1 The concept of customer orientation

To deliver superior customer service company-wide, a customer-oriented culture needs to be established within the company. This culture is reflected in customer-oriented employees, a developed infrastructure and a leadership committed to support a service culture (Davidow and Uttal, 1989). A customer orientation enables the company to create superior value for its customers because their needs are better understood (Narver and Slater, 1990). Deshpande, Farley and Webster (1993:27) defined corporate customer orientation as:

> ... *the set of beliefs that puts the customer's interest first, while not excluding those of all other stakeholders such as owners, managers, and employees, in order to develop a long-term profitable enterprise.*

A customer-orientated company requires every single employee to become part of the communication chain to the customer and to understand that their actions, even if they are disconnected from the customer, influence the satisfaction of the customer. If non-CCP do not consider themselves part of the customer chain, then they do not possess the shared focus of those that are CCP. Communicating to employees their 'fit' in the customer chain requires the same persuasion skills utilised in external marketing and is aptly described as 'internal marketing' (Reardon and Enis, 1990).

A market-focused management approach emphasises the satisfaction of customer needs and identifies three strategies: operational excellence (akin to Porter's 1980 'cost reduction'), product leadership (akin to Porter's 1980 'differentiation') and customer intimacy. The latter strategy typifies the company that rises to the top through customer excellence; that lives, eats and breathes the customer (Schuler, 1996).

While a climate of customer orientation must emanate from senior management (Berry and Parasuraman, 1991; Gronroos, 1990), the actions of individual service providers are

also crucial. Since ... *the people make the place* (Schneider, 1987), the service provider and the service are often seen as synonymous in the eyes of the customer (Bowen and Schneider, 1985; Solomon, 1985; Tansik, 1990). For example, the 'personal contact' of the service provider was the strongest influence on overall customer service satisfaction (Crosby and Stephens, 1987); satisfaction with salespersons was a good predictor of satisfaction with a retail outlet (Westbrook, 1981), and in the professions, ... *interactions with the primary service provider are the most important in assessing service quality* (Brown and Swartz, 1989:96). The customer orientation of the service provider becomes an integral part of service provision and hence of customer evaluations of the service. Arguably, due to the intangible offering of services, customer orientation takes on more importance in service organisations (Kelley, 1992). Research indicates that when employees perceive that the organisation is strongly service oriented, customers also report superior service (Schneider, 1980). In essence, the customer orientation of CCP is directly related to the marketing concept of the organisation (Saxe and Weitz, 1982).

Investigation of customer orientation at the individual provider level requires an understanding of what occurs during the service encounter, the interface between the customer and the service provider (Czepiel et al., 1985). Orientation relates to adjusting to one's surroundings: ...*to adjust with relation to, or bring into due relation to, surroundings, circumstances, facts, etc.* (*Macquarie Dictionary*, 1987:1203). Therefore, customer orientation for the purposes of this thesis is defined as:

> *The ability of the service provider to adjust their service to take account of the circumstances of the customer* (Daniel and Darby, 1997).

3.4.2 Comparable constructs to customer orientation

There has been little research that has attempted to improve our understanding of customer orientation or describe its antecedents (Kelley, 1992). Customer orientation has most often been discussed as an aspect of similar constructs: A. Customer service, B. Service Quality, C. Service provider performance and D. Customer satisfaction. The

dimensions discussed within these constructs tend to focus on the orientation that CCP must have in order to perform their role.

A. Customer service dimensions have been discussed by known authors including Albrecht and Zemke (1985), who identified four critically important factors of customer service - Care and concern, Spontaneity, Problem Solving and Recovery; Heskett (1986), who noted that a successful high-contact employee should display flexibility, tolerance for ambiguity, the ability to monitor and change behaviour during the service encounter and empathy for the customer; Mill (1986), who noted that employees with a customer orientation exhibit behavioural flexibility, display empathy and demonstrate strong interpersonal skills; and Becker and Wellins' (1990) literature review of over 100 articles which identified 17 dimensions of customer service.[2]

B. Service quality incorporates notions of technical and functional quality (Gronroos, 1984). Functional quality which discusses the 'how' of service quality addresses the dimensions of assurance, empathy, responsiveness and reliability which were identified by Parasuraman et al. (1985; 1988) as four of the five dimensions of service quality. Examination of the scale items used to measure these quality dimensions indicates that many relate to human interaction (Bitner et al., 1990), hence emphasising the importance of the customer orientation aspects of service quality.

C. Research concerning service provider performance also highlights the need for a customer orientation. Dimensions reported by customers as relating to service provider performance include: attention to detail, sensitivity, informing customers and being courteous (Schneider and Schechter, 1991); competence, helpfulness and sociability (Surprenant and Solomon, 1987); courtesy, competence and attitude (Schneider, 1980), and recovery, adaptability and spontaneity (Bitner,

---

[2] Customer service dimensions: communication, customer sensitivity, decisiveness, energy, flexibility, follow-up, impact, initiative, integrity, job knowledge, judgement, motivation to serve customers, persuasiveness/sales ability, planning, resilience, situation analysis, work standards (Becker and Wellins, 1990:49).

Booms and Tetreault, 1990; Gremler and Bitner, 1992). Further, service providers reported that their ability to recover from a dissatisfying service encounter, their adaptability and their spontaneity are key dimensions in their ability to influence service encounters. Service employees also perceived that problematic customer behaviour contributed to dissatisfactory service encounters (Bitner, Booms and Mohr, 1994). Price, Arnould and Tierney (1995) created a measure of service provider performance that included the emotional and relational aspects involved in service provision. Items demonstrated the customer orientation of CCP. For example, items such as 'provides challenges', 'performed as expected' and 'made things fun' loaded on the factor labelled 'provider performance'. Items that emphasised emotional and relational aspects, such as 'understood me' or 'went out of his/her way', loaded on either 'authentic understanding' or 'provision of extras' factors.

D. Customer satisfaction forms a measure of consumer evaluation which is conceptualised as 'encounter satisfaction' with a specific transaction or service encounter and as 'overall service satisfaction' with global measures of satisfaction (Bitner and Hubbert, 1994). Appraisal of the service provider in the measurement of customer satisfaction has typically involved measures of his or her performance from the customer's perspective, which as noted emphasises customer orientation. This type of evaluation is usually elementary and generally part of a global measure of satisfaction or quality (Westbrook, 1980).

There have been many specific measurements of service quality, customer satisfaction, customer service and service provider performance within the marketing literature (for example, Parasuraman et al., 1988; Oliver, 1980; Price et al., 1995). Often the Selling Orientation, Customer Orientation (SOCO) scale (Saxe and Weitz, 1982) has been used to assess customer orientation (for example, Swenson and Herche, 1994; Kelley, 1992; Honeycutt, Siguaw and Hunt, 1995; Howe, Hoffman and Hardigree, 1994; Hoffman and Ingram, 1991; Siguaw, Brown and Widing, 1994; O'Hara, Boles and Johnston, 1991; Siguaw and Honeycutt, 1995).

However, many service settings, such as the airline services or hospital services, do not always have a sales element in the job specification of all their employees. In recognition of this, Hoffman and Kelley (1994) derived a customer orientation scale (COS) from the original SOCO scale for their research among bank CCP. This entailed the selection of items that pertained to only the customer orientation aspects of the scale, amounting in total to 12 items (e.g., 'I try to help customers achieve their goals', 'I try to find out what kind of product would be most helpful to a customer'). Daniel and Darby (1997) utilised an adapted COS scale for their dyadic research of customer orientation between nurses and patients. Their findings suggested that two dimensions may exist within the construct of customer orientation, 'information exchange' and 'professional relationship'. The former concerns both parties to the service encounter seeking and receiving information in order to determine the needs of the customer. The latter concerns both parties endeavouring to provide an outcome that is in the best interest of the customer.

3.4.3 Recruiting customer-orientated CCP

Knowledge of the skills needed by CCP is crucial for recruitment and selection (Bitner, Booms and Tetreault, 1990). It cannot be assumed that service providers will automatically develop customer-oriented behaviour. First, they need the right mental attitude .... *for treating customers with genuine empathy, concern, respect, civility and affability* (Dubinsky, 1994:36). Second, the creation of a customer-oriented demeanour in service personnel requires a concerted effort from management. This includes the company-wide adoption of a belief system that puts the customer first; management that demonstrates care and empathy; training for the service encounter; and monitoring of the service environment (Dubinsky, 1994). Therefore, human resource management becomes critical in ensuring that CCP are customer orientated (Bowen, 1996; Schneider and Bowen, 1993; Lewis and Entwistle, 1990).

While CCP can be trained in the short term to exhibit preferred behaviours, long term they need the right psychological makeup (Lockwood and Jones, 1989). Personality is considered a predictor of potential employees propensity for job positions, such as the need for a

customer or service orientation (e.g., Barrick and Mount, 1991; Day and Silverman, 1989). Personality instruments measuring service (or customer) orientation are available through industrial psychologists. Considered among the best for measuring one's innate service orientation (Morgan and Smith, 1996) is the instrument developed by Hogan, Hogan and Busch (1984). Hogan et al. considered service orientation to be a behavioural syndrome ... *the disposition to be helpful, thoughtful, considerate, and co-operative* (Hogan et al., 1984:167), and not correlated with verbal and quantitative aptitude. Named the Hogan Personality Instrument (HPI), the instrument measures 7 dimensions, from which the service orientation scale comprises 14 items from the Adjustment, Prudence and Likeability dimensions. The scale identifies ... *persons who are pleasant, courteous, cooperative, and helpful in dealing with customers, clients, and co-workers* (Hogan and Hogan, 1992:64). Previous studies among flight attendants, the cohort of investigation in this thesis, have found that personality characteristics have influenced job performance (Murdy et al., 1973) and training performance (Ferris et al., 1986).

Certainly, Schneider, Wheeler and Cox (1992) found that hiring procedures were the most strongly correlated non-service theme (r=.64) with service employees' 'passion for service'. Further, a factor analysis of an employee-completed SERVQUAL which resulted in three distinct dimensions found hiring procedures also the strongest correlate (r=.45) of the Dependability/Trust dimension. This dimension included items such as 'When (the company) promises to do something by a certain time, it does so' and 'Customers feel secure in their dealings with (the company)'. Findings such as these underscore the importance of selection procedures in hiring employees with a positive customer orientation.

Bowen (1996) suggested that the following issues are crucial in ensuring customer orientated CCP:

1. The need to hire CCP that match the organisation, not only the job position. As cross-training between departments increases, in an effort to reduce role stress, organisational competence will become increasingly important. Generally, CCP

that 'fit' the organisation also exhibit employee satisfaction which is evident at service encounters.

2. The need to rigorously hire the right personality type. This can be facilitated through the use of personality instruments such as that of Hogan and Hogan (1992).
3. The need to train employees in the performance of 'emotional labour' (Hochschild, 1983). This concept refers to the ability of CCP to subsume their own feelings at the service encounter and endeavour to cater to the emotional needs of their customer.
4. The need to train CCP to manage or train their own customers, especially when the customer is required to participate in the service encounter, e.g., filling in a form.

Care needs also to be given to matching CCP behaviour with customer expectations across a range of potential service expectations. Schneider and Bowen (1995) suggest there are eight potential customer service segments, from adequate service to terrific service, requiring one of three possible categories of customer expectations; 'speed', 'tender loving care' or 'customisation'. The issue here is the need to match hiring and training procedures with the particular market segment of the business and the category of customer expectation. Effective training needs to be line-driven, involve everyone, include and involve staff and their viewpoints, and should start with the C.E.O (Lewis and Entwistle, 1990). Delivering excellent service ... *requires people with appropriate inclinations and competencies* (Schneider and Schechter, 1991:353).

3.4.4 Summary – The customer orientation of CCP

Customer orientation at both the corporate level and individual level is recognised as critical for success. A customer orientation is implicit in various constructs that are investigated within service organisations; namely, service quality, customer service, customer satisfaction and service provider performance. These constructs all rely on CCP assuming a customer orientation if superior levels are to be attained. The search for customer-orientated CCP is a crucial task for the human resource division of any service

organisation. Here it is essential that the right candidate is matched to the right market segment and given adequate training to ensure they are equipped with customer orientated competencies.

Research has indicated that some personality instruments may be successful in screening potential candidates for CCP positions. However, it must always be remembered that a climate for service originates at the top of the organisation with the C.E.O. Interestinly, despite the importance of customer-orientated CCP to an organisation, there have been few studies that have specifically measured customer orientation among CCP. In light of this, it would appear that studies that aim to investigate aspects of customer orientation, including antecedents and consequences, would be a most useful addition to the services marketing literature.

3.5 Uniform Perceptions of Customer Contact Personnel

3.5.1 The tangible cue of uniform

While service organisations have no tangible products to display and sell, they do have service providers who are often perceived by the customer as the service (Solomon, 1985; Tansik, 1990). Just as the product marketer carefully considers brand packaging, the service marketer must carefully consider the presentation of service employees.

It is well accepted that, due to the intangibility of services, customers will search for implicit cues to formulate their expectations and assessment of service quality (Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1993; Crane and Clarke, 1988). Service uniforms are a component of the 'implicit cues' that customers use as a stimulus or cue to the formation of an impression (Kaiser, 1990). Corporate uniforms have become part of the 'packaging' (Solomon, 1987), an extension of the service image and orientation that the company wishes to communicate to the marketplace. These uniforms contribute to expectation formation and service evaluation by the customer (Joseph and Alex, 1972; Rafaeli, 1993). In fact, Solomon (1985:66) suggested that:

> ... *clothing well may be the single most potent medium to communicate desirable service attributes.*

While uniform acts as a cue for the observer, one's clothing also symbolises or describes the wearer to others. Appearance-related products denote one's self and role-appropriate actions and attitudes (Veblen, 1953).

> *Apparel is always in evidence and affords an indication of our pecuniary standing to all observers at the first glance* (Veblen, 1953:119).

Although the importance of dress to the wearer has been duly reported, it would appear that there have been few studies that have researched the perception of clothing and appearance from the *wearer's perspective* (Kaiser, 1990). Exceptions include a study that investigated the relationship between dress and personality in males and females (Rosenfeld and Plax, 1977) and a study that identified the dimensionality of clothing interest in wearers (Gurel and Gurel, 1979). Since such importance is attributed to service employees within service organisations, it would appear that due consideration has not been given to the effect and influence of their dress, i.e., uniform, from their *own perspective*. An exception was the recent study undertaken by Daniel et al. (1996) to develop a scale for measuring uniform perceptions among service providers.

3.5.2 The effect of the influence of uniform

In general, the uniform literature has primarily highlighted the components of uniform as being that of a group emblem, a revealer and concealer of status, a certificate of legitimacy, and a suppressor of individuality (Joseph and Alex, 1972).

> ... *uniform identifies group members, helps insure that organizational goals will be attained, and orders priorities of group and status demands for the individual* (Joseph and Alex, 1972:719).

Dress promotes control over the utilisation of human resources by helping members and nonmembers identify each other and by helping these groups to discern patterns of authority and responsibility in organizations (Rafaeli and Pratt, 1993:48).

First, a uniform serves as an emblem of group membership, to the point that the uniform becomes the group, as in the case of the army or police force. In fact, the uniform is often referenced instead of the wearer, for example in the expression 'disgracing the uniform' (Joseph and Alex, 1972). Rafaeli and Pratt (1993) termed the extent to which employees stand out from non-employees as 'conspicuousness', and proposed that greater conspicuousness would lead to greater compliance by service employees.

Second, a uniform both reveals and conceals the status of the wearer (Joseph and Alex, 1972).

... *every complex social order uses dress to mark status* ... (Kaiser, 1990:389).

A uniform reveals status since it makes the wearer of the uniform more visible than the wearer of street attire, where one can never be certain, but can only suspect status. This aids, for example, the customer in their interactions with a service organisation, as it minimises confusion while indicating the hierarchy that exists when the uniform wearer has a superior. A uniform accords the wearer authority from the observer's perspective (Singer and Singer, 1985), and also from others within the organisation by virtue of inbuilt status cues (for example, the four gold bars of the airline captain). It can be useful in the formulation of expectations of consumer power at the service encounter, as in the case of airlines that may implement a style of military uniform for flight attendants in an effort to reduce consumer power at the service encounter, emphasise emergency preparedness, and change consumer perceptions of service provider control of the situation (Goodwin, 1986). In effect, following Homan's (1961) tenet that status incongruency can be apparent between persons, uniform serves as an immediate cue for status congruency; for example, persons in the armed forces and the technical crew or flight crew of a commercial airline.

The importance of clothing to the wearer was reported by Creekmore (1963), who found that clothing was used as a status symbol by people and a means by which to enhance one's self-esteem. Further research (Creekmore, 1974) indicated that clothing may help strengthen assessments of self when esteem is low, or alternatively provide a means of expressing one's self when esteem is high. Gurel and Gurel (1979) found that the concept of clothing interest, the attitudes and beliefs about clothing, on the part of the wearer, involved five dimensions: concern with personal appearance, use of clothing as enhancement of security, use of clothing as enhancement of individuality, heightened awareness of clothes, and experimenting with appearance.

Third, the service employee's uniform legitimises the claim of the wearer in the eyes of the observer, and conveys the legitimacy of the organisation on the wearer (Joseph and Alex, 1972; Kaiser, 1990; Rafaeli and Pratt, 1993). For example, Bickman (1974) cited the case of physicians who are able to have patients comply with a request to undress in the privacy of an examining room.

> *Legitimation allows employees to do things that would otherwise be unconventional or illegal, such as handle other people's food, enter homes, or make judgements about other people* (Rafaeli and Pratt, 1993:45).

The degree of homogeneity and conspicuousness of the uniform, especially through vividness, increases the legitimacy of the employee in the eyes of the observer (Rafaeli and Pratt, 1993). Rafaeli and Pratt (1993) proposed that organisational dress enabled comparisons among members of the organisation, and between members of the organisation and non-members of the organisation. Rafaeli and Pratt referred to the variance among members as 'homogeneity of dress', which was related to comparisons of colours, materials and styles. Rafaeli and Pratt proposed that as homogeneity of dress increased, organisational control over individual behaviour, values and priorities would increase.

Fourth, a uniform suppresses individual idiosyncrasies, thereby facilitating group cohesion, as deviations in the behaviour of the wearer are more visible when wearing uniform, since

observers generally have knowledge of the behaviour standards uniform wearers should be undertaking (Joseph and Alex, 1972; Solomon, 1985). Solomon (1985) suggested that in facilitating group cohesion, the uniform may contribute to productivity and aid in bolstering employee morale. This in part may be due to the fact that the 'wearing' of the uniform aids the wearer in identifying more closely with the organisation to which he or she belongs (Solomon, 1985; Rafaeli, 1993) and reinforces the values of the organisation to the wearer (Rafaeli and Pratt, 1993).

In keeping with the existing literature concerning uniform, for the purpose of this thesis, uniform perceptions of CCP are defined as:

> *A service employee's perception of the effect of their service uniform on their service role self-concept* (Daniel, Johnson and Miller, 1996).

Some countervailing aspects of uniform have also been outlined by researchers. First, the deindividuation of the employee by strict uniform code may adversely affect their performance (Rafaeli, 1993), as their appearance is an outcome of direction rather than individual choice (Rafaeli and Pratt, 1993). Second, individual achievement may be more difficult to distinguish in an atmosphere of standardisation (Solomon, 1987). Third, a uniform can conceal the personal status of the wearer compared to the organisational status of the wearer, by equalising class among employees, as it overrides and suppresses all other status cues the wearer may normally hold of their own status (Joseph and Alex, 1972; Solomon, 1987).

Studies that have highlighted the impact of appearance from the observer's perspective include; Giles and Chavasse (1975), who found that housewives responded more positively to a smartly dressed interviewer than a casually dressed interviewer, irrespective of the status title used by the interviewer; Johnson, Nagasawa and Peters (1977), who found that fashionability of attire favourably influenced the perceptions of sociability of the wearer - the more fashionable the clothing, the more sociable the wearer was perceived to be; Singer and Singer (1985), who found that observers of police officers perceived those in uniform as more

competent, reliable and intelligent than those in civilian clothes; and Coursey (1973), who found that respondents perceived the appearance of instructors in a 'roman collar' (religious dress), as more moral, reputable, unusual and unique than other instructors in coat and tie.

Colour, style and material of service apparel, termed 'meaning-laden symbols', are suggested as useful tools for management to influence customer expectations (Rafaeli and Pratt, 1993). Likewise, these symbols represent a useful vehicle for management to regulate wearers or CCP perceptions of their own service role (Daniel et al., 1996).

3.5.3 Dimensions of uniform among service providers

Since few studies had researched uniform from the wearer's perspective (Kaiser, 1990), Daniel et al. (1996) undertook to develop a multi-item scale to measure uniform from the service provider's perspective.[3] The study, which investigated uniform perceptions among airline flight attendants, found four dimensions:

1. 'Service attitude', the perception that uniform encouraged a service/work orientation and fostered a positive attitude towards their service position,
2. 'The Look', the perception that uniform afforded the wearer a degree of professionalism, sophistication and style,
3. 'Customer influence', the perception that uniform enabled the attainment of influence over customers, and
4. 'Company identification', the perception that uniform contributed to group identification.

The study confirmed that the uniform elements of status, authority, legitimacy and group identification are salient to the wearer as well as to the observer. Importantly, the study drew attention to influences of uniform among CCP that had not previously been extensively recognised; namely, the influence of the wearer's perceptions concerning their outward appearance of style, highlighted in the dimension of 'the Look', and the influence of the wearer's perceptions concerning their work orientation, highlighted in the dimension of 'service attitude'. These are not issues that the uniform literature has

---

[3] This study reported on the findings from Pilot A, which are discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

customarily dwelt upon, as the observer's perspective has generally been the focus of the research (Kaiser, 1990). Interestingly, while Rosenfeld and Plax (1977) did not investigate uniform, they did report a dimension that bears a close resemblance to 'the Look' of the Daniel et al.,(1996) study. The factor, entitled 'clothing consciousness', represented the degree to which an individual is concerned with his or her clothes. The other dimensions noted were 'exhibitionism', 'practicality' and 'designer'.

3.5.4 Symbolic interactionism

As the observer is influenced by uniform to assess the wearers status, authority, legitimacy, group association and expectations of behaviour, the wearer understands the influence their uniform affords them through symbolic interactionism (Kaiser, 1990; Solomon, 1983; Joseph and Alex, 1972). The symbolic interactionist perspective of role theory captures the essence of the dynamics of the service encounter, as it deals with role enactment and the effect of this on the observer (Biddle, 1986; Grove and Fisk, 1983) - for example, the performance of both the customer and CCP and the effect of performance on each other.

> *Symbolic interactionism focuses on the process by which individuals understand their world* (Solomon, 1983:320).

Symbolic interactionism ... *views the self as a function of interpersonal interactions* (Sirgy, 1982:287). The 'self' is viewed as both a perceiver trying to interpret symbolism in clothing, and as a reflection of others' observations (Kaiser, 1983). Symbolic interactionism proposes that the service provider's self-concept is based upon their perception of the customer's or observer's responses toward themselves (Solomon, 1983). This has often been referred to as the 'looking-glass self', where one's self-concept is that which one believes others hold (Sirgy, 1982). If the observer perceived uniform as denoting status and authority, this would be communicated to the wearer by the nature of the observer's interaction with the wearer. For example, an airline customer who observes the uniform of the technical crew in the cockpit notes the four gold bars of the Captain and the one gold bar of the Second Officer. The degree of status and authority they accord these uniforms is reflected in the manner by which the customers interact with each of the pilots. The pilots would observe the responses

of the customers towards them, based in part on the uniform they are wearing. The perceptions the pilots interpret from the customers' responses would contribute to their own self-concept.

The customer's perception of the status and authority of CCP, which in part is determined by the uniform of CCP, is reflected in the manner by which the customer interacts with CCP. CCP observe customer's responses towards them and interpret their own status and authority through the manner and interactions of their customers. Therefore, customer responses contribute to CCP's own self-concept and allow them to interpret their relative status.

Importantly, from the perspective of service quality of the organisation, the service employee's uniform can project outwardly an image of quality, good service, uniqueness and credibility, while boosting customer confidence in an organisation (Solomon, 1987). Through symbolic interactionism, these image perceptions are reflected to the wearer from the customer, enabling the wearer to perceive similar images to that of the observer (Kaiser, 1990; Joseph and Alex, 1972). Also, as product symbolism influences behaviour (Solomon, 1983), uniform cues interact with the wearer to help define their 'self' and role performance, thereby influencing their own perspective of the service offered by themselves and their organisation.

3.5.5 Summary – Uniform perceptions of CCP

Uniform perceptions are well accepted as tangible cues within service organisations, primarily for the customer's benefit, as they are often utilised as the packaging process for the intangibility of service. While the literature abounds with information on the influence of uniform from the observer's perspective, there is little research that concentrates on the wearer's perspective. The limited studies that have specifically addressed this issue indicate that uniform dimensions incorporating status issues are salient to the wearer of the uniform, as well as the observer.

To what degree uniform may influence the wearer's perception of their own status or status relative to others has not been investigated. Therefore, given that CCP are considered such a

critical component of the service 'product', research that investigates the potential consequences of uniform perceptions among CCP would be most useful in better understanding the tangible cue of uniform that service organisations have at their disposal to manage.

3.6 Summary - Literature Review (Chapters 2 and 3)

The preceding chapter (2) and this chapter (3) have aimed to review the pertinent literature that supports the relationships proposed in the conceptual model of this research. The tenet of this thesis is that further research at the employee-role interface needs to be undertaken due to:

A. The critical position CCP hold in the final service outcome,

B. The bearing they have on the customer's evaluation of the service experience, and

C. The limited studies that have been undertaken in this area.

While the untested propositions of Shamir (1980) have formed the starting point of the conceptual model and hence the literature review, the conceptual model proposed in this research has been considerably developed and extended. First, Shamir dwelt primarily on role conflict in his discussion, with the concept of status being a given characterisation of the respondents he interviewed. By comparison, this literature review has aimed to explain the notion of status incongruency between persons (i.e., CCP and customers) and the influence this may have, not only on role conflict but also on service behaviour and customer orientation. Also this review aimed to describe the possible antecedent to status incongruency that may exist through uniform perceptions. Further, the notion of status incongruency among CCP has been discussed from two perspectives, internal and external congruency, i.e., from inside the organisation (management) and from outside the organisation (customers).

Second, Shamir's propositions did not extend beyond the relationship between status and role conflict. By comparison, the influence of role conflict on the service behaviour of CCP has been explored in the literature review. Although limited studies exist that have investigated this relationship, support has been drawn from research with comparable constructs.

Similarly, the influence of role conflict upon customer orientation has been proposed in the conceptual model and explored in the literature review.

Third, the nature of service behaviour among CCP has been extensively reviewed and proposed as the dependent variable within the conceptual model. Future research work in this area has been noted to include specification of service behaviours, the development of an accurate measure of service behaviour, investigation of antecedents and the need to provide managerial recommendations in order to control service behaviour among CCP.

Due to the limited empirical work in this research area, a considerable portion of the literature review has aimed to support the study's propositions by reference to research that has investigated relationships with comparable constructs.

Finally, the objective of this literature review has been to present evidence for further research in line with the relationships depicted by the conceptual model. These relationships and the ensuing propositions are further developed in the next chapter.

Essentially, it is considered that additional research for the relationships depicted in the conceptual model is warranted since:

A. There is essentially no empirical work in the services literature that investigates the antecedents and consequences of status incongruency among CCP in service organisations. This includes the influence of uniform perceptions on status incongruency from the perspective of the service provider.
B. Existing research into the relationships that may exist between role conflict and service behaviour reports equivocal findings.
C. Limited studies exist within the germane literature that pertain to research concerning the relationship between customer orientation and service behaviour and the relationship between role conflict and customer orientation.
D. There are no studies that investigate the relationships between the noted variables in one model.

CHAPTER 4
PROPOSITION DEVELOPMENT

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is twofold. First, it further develops the initial conceptual model of the thesis. Second, from this refined model a series of research propositions are developed that form the basis of this study.

The need for an examination of the antecedents of service behaviour among CCP appears necessary due to the generally accepted axiom that the behaviours of CCP influence customer evaluations of the service organisation. Further, there is limited empirical research that addresses this employee-role aspect of the service encounter (Hartline and Ferrell, 1996; Bowen, 1990; Kelley, 1992; Hoffman, 1988; Lux, Jex and Hansen, 1996).

The variables under investigation in the conceptual model as antecedents of service behaviour among CCP have been selected on the basis of 1. The existing literature that discusses, by way of conceptual argument or general discussion, aspects of the model, and 2. Empirical data that has found comparable variables to hold significant relationships (e.g., Shamir, 1980; Schneider, 1980; Schneider and Bowen, 1985; Babin and Boles, 1996; Kelley, 1992; Weatherly and Tansik, 1993a; Boshoff and Mels, 1995; Hartline and Ferrell, 1996; Hoffman and Ingram, 1991; Bowen, 1996; Hogan, Hogan and Busch, 1984; Schneider, Wheeler and Cox, 1992; Joseph and Alex, 1972; Kaiser, 1990).

Therefore, the primary purpose of this thesis is to empirically test for the first time and extend our knowledge of the determinants of service behaviour among CCP. A key aspect of this thesis is the extension and empirical testing for the first time of relationships proposed by Shamir (1980) concerning the relationship between relative status and role conflict. A further goal of this thesis is the development of propositions as

a result of Shamir's discussion of the ensuing negative service behaviours that may develop from role conflict.

4.2 Refinement of Conceptual Model Incorporating Multiple Status Constructs

The preceding literature review found support for the influence of status relative to senders inside the organisation. However, few studies have earmarked status relative to outside senders, save Shamir's characterisation of relative status among subordinate service roles and a study from the perspective of the customer (Goodwin and Frame, 1989). Given this support, this thesis extends Shamir's notion of relative status by investigating relative status from two perspectives. These are identified as perceived recognition status, (i.e., status relative to senders inside the organisation) and perceived self-status, (i.e., status relative to outside contacts), i.e., customers. These constructs have replaced the relative status variable in the initial conceptual model and are depicted in Figure 4-1, Refined Conceptual Model.[1] However, role conflict is defined as a composite measure in the conceptual model as it is considered that there is more support for relationships between general role conflict, and service behaviour and customer orientation.

Support for the approach of separating relative status into two perspectives can also be found in the literature. Bacharach et al. (1993) argued that the status incongruency of the individual should be interpreted across several status hierarchies rather than only one. While the ascribed status of CCP incorporates the individual characteristics the CCP brings to the service encounter (e.g., education, external experience), the achieved status of CCP can be seen to incorporate two levels: first, the rank the organisation gives to the individual, which operates at the *organisational* level; and second, the degree of incongruency between the status of CCP and the status of customers, which operates at the *societal* level. The former is considered to portray perceived recognition status and the latter, perceived self-status. The notion that status could be measured from different perspectives is also consistent with

[1] Hereinafter referred to as the conceptual model.

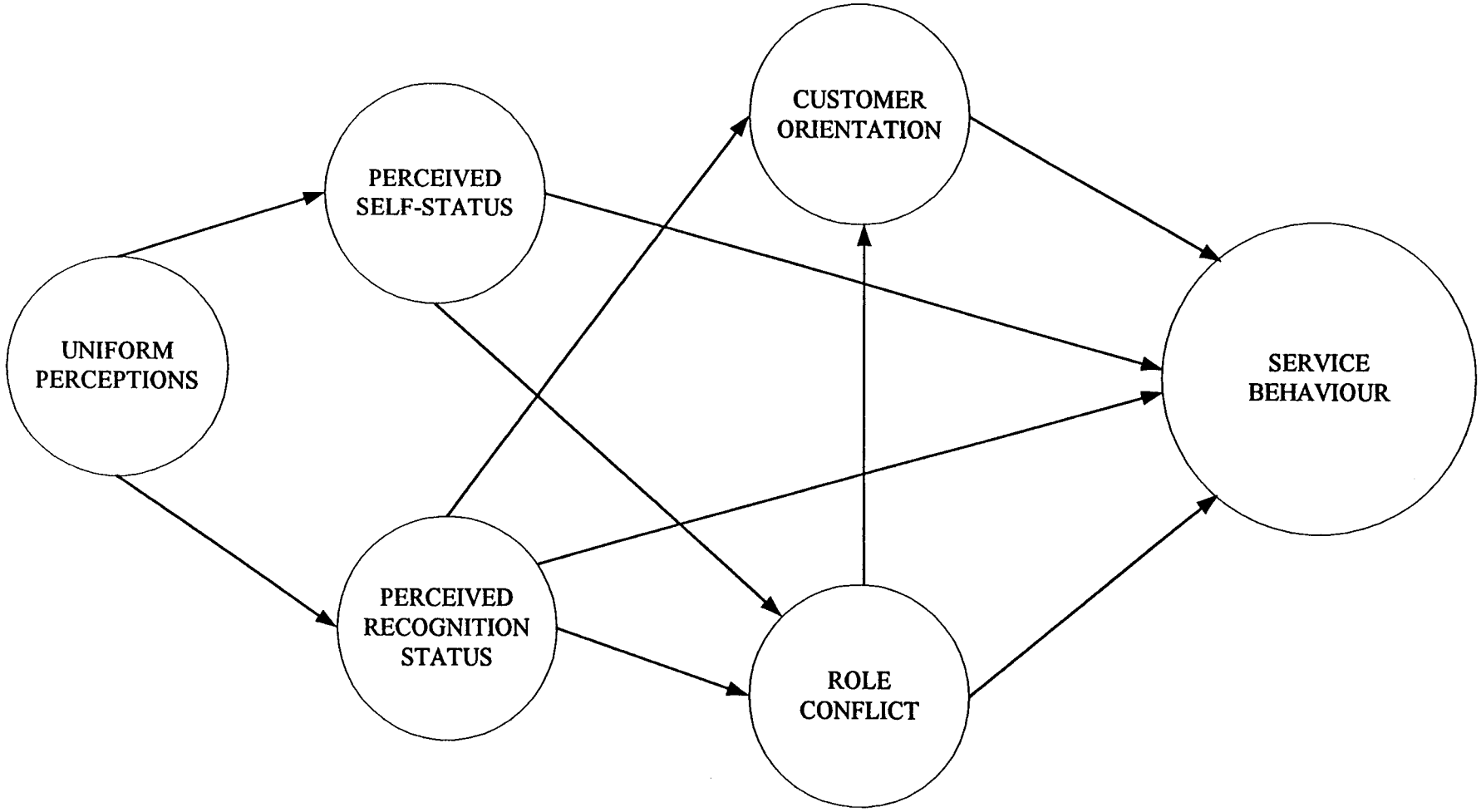
Benoit-Smullyan (1944), who noted that three hierarchies existed within status: economic, political and prestige.

Further to the extension of propositions concerning relative status and role conflict initially suggested by Shamir (1980), the conceptual model depicts the formalisation of propositions concerning the relationship between role conflict and service behaviour among CCP. This relationship was discussed but not delineated by Shamir. Finally, as a result of these propositions and the support of existing literature, the model describes relationships between the two perspectives of relative status and the service behaviour among CCP.

Additionally, the conceptual model defines relationships proposed to exist between other variables that have been noted and supported in the literature review, specifically, customer orientation and uniform perceptions. Customer orientation has been selected for inclusion in the thesis due to the logical association with service behaviour (the dependent variable) and the literature that supports this relationship (e.g., Hogan, Hogan and Busch, 1984), plus its relationship with role conflict (e.g., Hoffman and Ingram, 1991). The variable uniform perceptions has been selected for inclusion in the thesis due to the uniform literature within the clothing and textile field of study that highlights the influence uniform has on status (Daniel et al., 1996).

Support for the inclusion of perceived recognition status and customer orientation in a model that incorporates the investigation of role stressors and resulting responses or behaviour is also found in Burke and Belcourt (1974). They considered that an investigation of role stressors and the responses or behaviours that emanated required the assessment of a number of other variables, among which included the personality of the individual and the state of the interpersonal relations between the focal person and others in the environment. The conceptual model of this thesis addresses these issues as it includes the customer orientation of CCP which reflects personality, and perceived recognition status which reflects the nature of the relations between CCP and management, which represents the 'others' in the environment.

Figure 4-1 - Refined Conceptual Model



4.3 Proposed Relationships between the Determinants of Service Behaviour

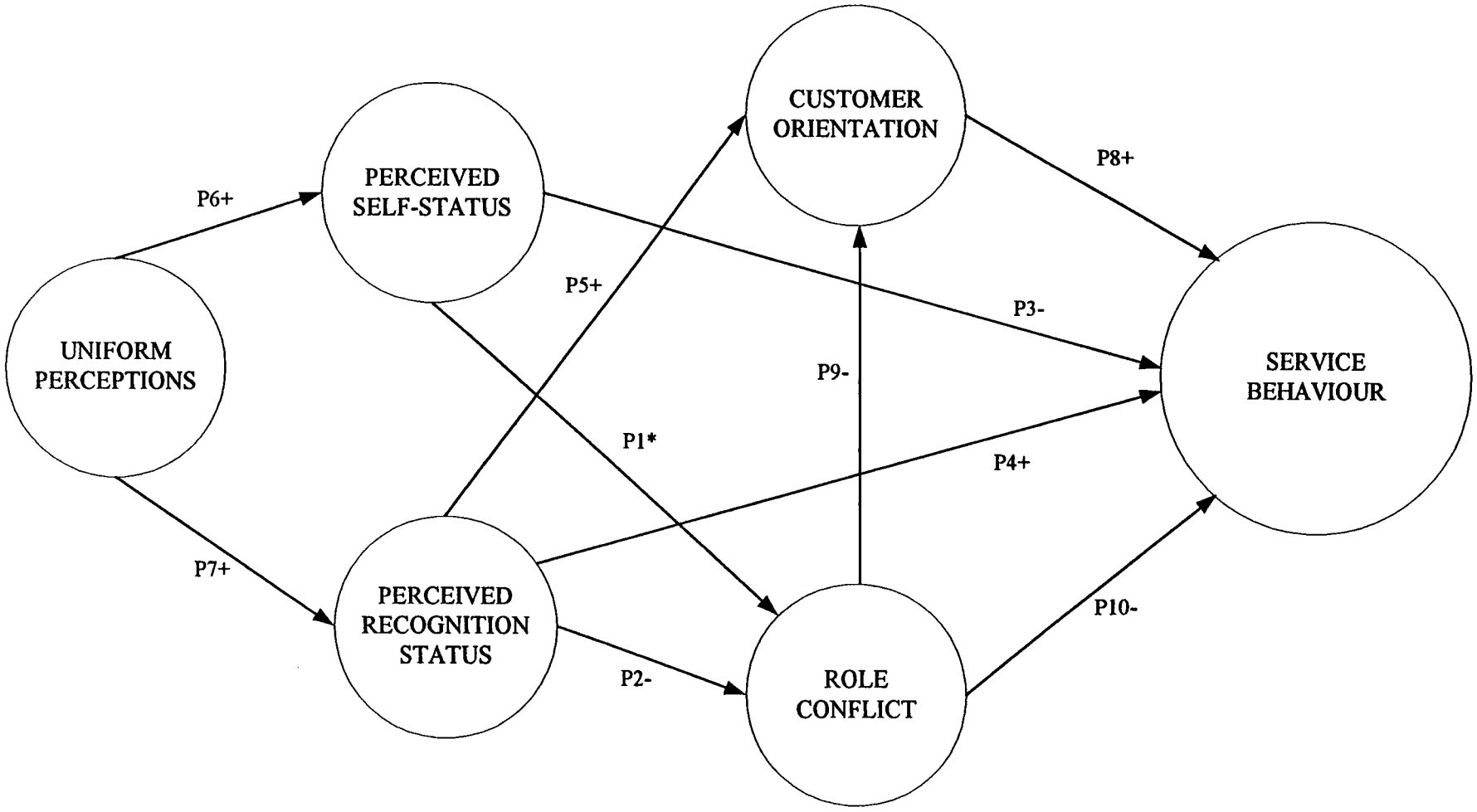
The remainder of this chapter will now present support for the propositions of this thesis. First, support is presented for the propositions concerning relative status as an antecedent to role conflict, customer orientation and service behaviour, along with propositions for uniform perceptions as an antecedent of relative status. Second, support is presented for the proposition concerning customer orientation and service behaviour. Finally, support is presented for the propositions concerning the relationship between role conflict, customer orientation and service behaviour. (Refer to Figure 4-2, Conceptual Model – Proposition Development, for a graphic depiction of the directionality of each of the propositions within the conceptual model. This figure can also be referenced as Appendix 4A).

4.3.1 Relative status and role conflict

4.3.1.1 Perceived self-status

Shamir's (1980) primary discussion revolved around the relationship between relative status and role conflict; both person-role and inter-role. In each of his propositions, relative status was considered a single construct with role conflict defined as two constructs. However, his characterisation of subordinate service roles incorporated two notions of status, i.e., status relative to outside contacts and status relative to senders inside the organisation. While Shamir did not specifically indicate whether the propositions related to internal or external role senders, since his propositions referred to the 'client' it is considered that his focus was on the external role sender, the customer (refer to Section, 3.2.6). Therefore, it is considered that Shamir's (1980) propositions generally depicted the relationship between CCP and customer. Hence, his original propositions are used as the basis for the development of the relationship between the thesis variables, perceived self-status and role conflict.

Figure 4-2 - Conceptual Model - Proposition Development



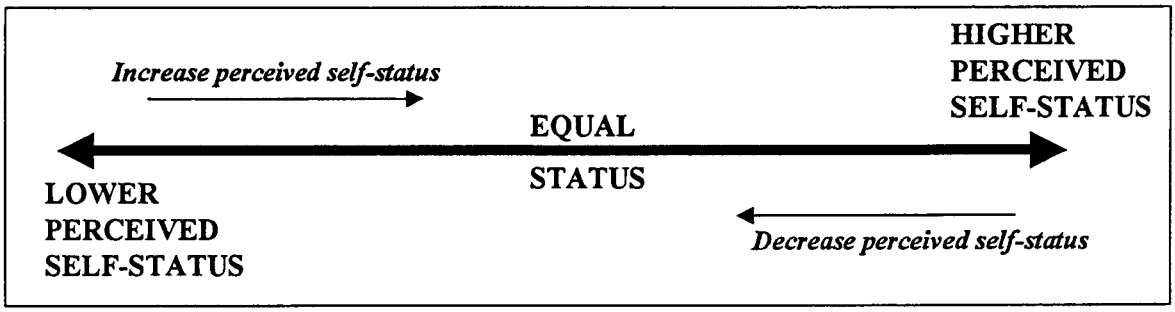
* direction not proposed

Shamir proposed that the more equal the status of two parties the higher would be both person-role and inter-sender role conflict, i.e., status equality leads to increased role conflict. For example: ... *person-role conflict will be inversely correlated with the status difference* ... (Shamir, 1980:745). However, two very different scenarios emerge dependent on whether the initial status incongruency emanates from CCP perceiving themselves to have a higher status than customers, or CCP perceiving customers to have a higher status than they do, i.e., CCP perceiving themselves to have a lower status than customers. Consider the following (Refer to Figure 4-3, Perceived Self-Status of CCP, below) in light of Shamir's proposition that status equality increases role conflict.

A. When CCP consider themselves *higher* in status to their customer. Does this mean that, as their relative status decreases to status equality with their customers, their role conflict increases? or

B. When CCP consider themselves *lower* in status to their customer. Does this mean that, as their relative status increases to status equality with their customers, their role conflict increases?

Figure 4-3, Perceived Self-Status of CCP



Although each scenario represents the situation of CCP attaining perceived status equality with their customers, it is unlikely that the same management implications would arise. For example, consider the ramifications of CCP perceiving themselves higher in status, relative to customers! Would management be concerned about increasing role conflict if perceptions of relative status decreased from higher perceived status, to status equality?

It is noteworthy to recognise the manner by which the Ritz-Carlton guides their employees' claims to perceived relative status. Their credo[2] suggests management supports the notion of status equality between CCP and customer. One would assume they do not do this to increase role conflict among their personnel but to aid in superior customer service. Interestingly, Bacharach et al. (1993) proposed that status incongruency would increase aspects of role stress, which is directly opposed to Shamir's propositions and appears to be more akin to the Ritz-Carlton stance.

Of the two scenarios depicted, it is more likely that the latter scenario (B), is the one proposed by Shamir (1980), considering he noted that European waiters who accepted a lower status in the society did not appear to experience problems through resentment to social distinctions. However, the problem remains that two very different scenarios might present themselves dependent on the manner by which CCP perceive themselves relative to their customers. Further, the notion of status equality inducing role conflict does not appear to sit comfortably with the Ritz-Carlton service philosophy, as purported in their service credo, nor with Bacharach et al. (1993). Reference to the literature found no other discussion or research that addressed the relationship between relative status and role conflict. Accordingly, proposition 1 is:

Proposition 1:

There is a relationship between perceived self-status and role conflict.

4.3.1.2 Perceived recognition status

A few studies were found that discussed comparable concepts to the second perspective of relative status that this thesis investigates, i.e., perceived recognition status. These studies suggested that a negative relationship existed between the comparable concepts and role conflict. Schneider (1980) found service orientation incongruency positively related to role conflict, equivalent to service orientation congruency being negatively related to role conflict. Babin and Boles (1996) found a negative relationship between supervisory support and role conflict, while Boshoff and Mels (1995) found a negative

[2] Ritz-Carlton Credo - *We are Ladies and Gentlemen Serving Ladies and Gentlemen.*

relationship between supervisory consideration and role conflict. Accordingly, proposition 2 is:

Proposition 2:

There is a negative relationship between perceived recognition status and role conflict. As CCP perceive that management considers their status more highly in the organisation, their role conflict decreases.

4.3.2 Relative status and service behaviour

4.3.2.1 Perceived self status

For many years it has been widely recognised that one's position in the social hierarchy is one of the most important factors shaping one's behaviour (Gough, 1948). Shamir (1980) discussed the potential resulting behaviours that would indirectly follow from status inconsistencies through increased role conflict among CCP. His discussion clearly indicated that increased role conflict would encourage a range of negative service behaviours. Adams (1965) specified six responses to role stress derived from perceived status incongruency. These all represented negative service behaviours. Hence, the discussion both of Shamir and Adams suggested that an indirect relationship existed between status incongruency and service behaviour through role conflict.

Extending the work of these authors, this thesis proposes and tests for a direct relationship between status incongruency and service behaviour. However, Adams (1965) did not directly define the status hierarchy or perspective of the status incongruency. Therefore, since this thesis takes the assumption that Shamir's propositions were consistent with perceived self-status (refer Section 4.2), proposition 3 is:

Proposition 3:

There is a negative relationship between perceived self-status and service behaviour. As CCP perceive their status relative to those outside the organisation (i.e., customers) increases, positive service behaviours decrease, or negative service behaviours increase.

4.3.2.2 Perceived recognition status

By comparison, the effect of perceptions of management's recognition of CCP status on service behaviour suggests a contrasting proposition when comparable concepts are considered. Kelley et al. (1996) found organisational support positively related to routine and creative discretion, which encompassed service behaviours of caring, helping and consideration. Interestingly, the service philosophy of the Ritz-Carlton suggests that heightened recognition of CCP by management delivers improved service behaviours to customers (Watkins, 1992; Partlow, 1993). Accordingly, proposition 4 is:

Proposition 4:

There is a positive relationship between perceived recognition status and service behaviour. As CCP perceive an increase in management's recognition of their status, their positive service behaviours increase, or their negative service behaviours decrease.

4.3.3 Relative status and customer orientation

4.3.3.1 Perceived self-status

There was little support found for a relationship between perceived self-status and customer orientation, hence a proposition relating these two variables is not proposed.

4.3.3.2 Perceived recognition status

There is adequate research to support a positive relationship between perceived recognition status and customer orientation. Empirical work by Kelley (1992) found that comparable constructs to perceived recognition status, i.e., organisational climate for service and organisational commitment, were positively related to customer orientation. Also, the work of Schneider (1980) and Schneider and Bowen (1985) found that the organisation's climate for service, which incorporates management's recognition of the importance of CCP, was positively related to employees' enthusiasm for service, which may be interpreted as customer orientation. More specifically, the Schneider and Bowen (1985) study demonstrated that employee perceptions of status as an aspect of human resources

perceptions positively influenced employees' perceptions of climate for service. Accordingly, proposition 5 is:

Proposition 5:

There is a positive relationship between perceived recognition status and customer orientation. As CCP perceive an increase in management's recognition of their status, their customer orientation increases.

4.3.4 Uniform perceptions and relative status

4.3.4.1 Perceived self-status

The relationship between uniform perceptions and perceived self-status is well supported by the conceptual and empirical work within the clothing and textile literature. While the predominant literature reports the observer's viewpoint rather than the wearer's (Kaiser, 1990), it is widely accepted that uniform performs an important role in communicating status to the wearer (e.g., Joseph and Alex, 1972; Kaiser, 1990; Rafaeli and Pratt, 1993; Daniel et al., 1996). Accordingly, proposition 6 is:

Proposition 6:

There is a positive relationship between CCP's perception of their uniform and perceived self-status among CCP. When CCP's perception of their uniform rises, the perceived self-status of CCP also increases.

4.3.4.2 Perceived recognition status

Within the services marketing literature there have been many discussions of the role that tangible cues, such as uniforms, take in the tangibilisation of services (e.g., Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, 1993; Kaiser, 1990; Solomon, 1987). There have been no studies within the services field that have examined the effect of uniform as an indirect antecedent to service behaviour among CCP nor as a direct antecedent of perceived recognition status.

However, Lux et al. (1996:83) suggested that ... *variables that have been shown to be antecedents of organisational commitment may also influence customer service, albeit*

indirectly. They noted that the variables of job scope, leader communication, recruitment and selection, and career and reward systems were found to influence the organisational commitment of the employee. Uniform could also be considered an antecedent to organisational commitment as it can send a message to CCP concerning how the company wishes to portray its employees with regard to identification, style, influence and attitude (Daniel et al., 1996). Hence, it could be argued that uniform represents the organisation's view of its employees and therefore may well constitute an antecedent to organisational commitment in the minds of its employees and, as Lux et al. suggested, indirectly influence customer service or the service behaviour of CCP. Accordingly, proposition 7 is:

Proposition 7:

There is a positive relationship between uniform perceptions and perceived recognition status among CCP. When perceptions of uniform rise, CCP perceive an increase in management's recognition of their status.

4.3.5 Customer orientation and service behaviour

Intuitively, the relationship between customer orientation and service behaviour points to a proposition that CCP with heightened customer orientation will be more inclined to engage in positive service behaviours over negative service behaviours. As there is now evidence that personality dimensions influence job performance (Fisher, Schoenfeldt and Shaw, 1993), it follows that a cross-section of CCP will no doubt have a variable predisposition to their job, which by definition involves a customer orientation. This is well supported by experience, which indicates that some CCP are more service orientated than others (Schneider and Schechter, 1991). Therefore, CCP exhibiting heightened customer orientation will more likely engage in positive service behaviours (Hogan and Hogan, 1992). Accordingly, proposition 8 is:

Proposition 8:

There is a positive relationship between customer orientation and service behaviour among CCP. When the customer orientation of CCP increases, positive service behaviours will increase or negative service behaviours will decrease.

4.3.6 Role conflict and customer orientation

Limited studies in this area indicate that a negative relationship exists between role conflict and customer orientation. Hoffman and Ingram's (1991) study identified a negative indirect influence while Siguaw and Honeycutt (1995) reported a negative relationship in a correlation of the two variables. Accordingly, proposition 9 is:

Proposition 9:

There is a negative relationship between role conflict and customer orientation. As role conflict decreases, the customer orientation of CCP will increase.

4.3.7 Role conflict and service behaviour

Shamir's (1980) discussion of the ensuing negative service behaviours that potentially could occur due to heightened role conflict left no doubt that an adverse relationship was considered. As role conflict increased, negative service behaviours would predominate or positive service behaviours would decrease. However, studies to date do not appear to have reached a conclusion regarding the direction of this relationship. Studies investigating the relationship between role conflict and comparable constructs have found equivocal support (Babin and Boles, 1996), a positive relationship (Hartline and Ferrell, 1996), and an indirect negative effect (Boshoff and Mels, 1995; Singh, Goolsby and Rhoad, 1994). The only study that has directly investigated the relationship found no significant relationship between the two constructs (Weatherly and Tansik, 1993a; 1993b). Due to the absence of any clear empirical support, the direction discussed by Shamir has been adopted. Accordingly, proposition 10 is:

Proposition 10:

There is a negative relationship between role conflict and service behaviour among CCP. When role conflict increases, positive service behaviours will decrease or negative service behaviours will increase.

4.4 Summary

This chapter has aimed to provide the argument for the development of the conceptual model as depicted in Figure 4-2, which proposes a number of interrelated relationships between variables that have as yet not been empirically tested as a whole, nor, in most instances, as independent relationships. In doing so the discussion has sought to demonstrate support for direct and indirect relationships between the antecedents of uniform perceptions, perceived self-status, perceived recognition status, role conflict and customer orientation, with the dependent variable of service behaviour.

The propositions presented in this chapter will now be empirically tested. The following chapter (5) will outline the questionnaire design and data collection process for the study. Chapters 6 and 7 will then present the research findings and chapter 8 will offer a discussion of the findings and managerial implications.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapters reviewed the relevant literature and outlined the conceptual model for this study. The research propositions to be tested and their development were also presented. This chapter will now discuss the research methodology applicable to this study. First, the research setting and the justification for the use of flight attendants as respondents are discussed. Second, the research design is outlined. This encompasses data collection, pre-testing, scale development and the research instrument. Third, the operational definitions of the constructs are described.

5.2 Research Setting

Customer contact is defined as the ... *percentage of time the customer must be in the system relative to the total time it takes to serve him* (Chase 1978:138). Services and their service providers may be classified as high-contact or low-contact (Chase, 1978), with high-contact service providers employed in pure services such as hotels, the professions and transportation, and low-contact service providers in manufacturing and administration positions. CCP are well recognised for the important role they undertake as 'boundary spanners' in an organisation. They act as information processors, filters, organisation representatives and informal and formal agents that influence the customer (Parkington and Schneider, 1979). As both role conflict and role ambiguity are highly correlated with 'boundary spanning' roles (Fisher and Gitelson, 1983; Jackson and Schuler, 1985; Parkington and Schneider, 1979), it follows that CCP engaged in service

roles requiring a large boundary spanning function will most likely experience heightened role stress.

5.2.1 The suitability of airline flight attendants as research respondents

Kellogg and Chase (1995) determined that communication time between customer and service employee was the key variable that measured the degree of customer contact. When it is considered that many 'moments of truth' (Carlson, 1987) with subordinate service providers are fleeting (e.g., telephone or box office reservations), flight attendants by comparison are generally required to engage in a lengthy customer contact with passengers. Additionally, while a flight attendant may not directly interact with a particular passenger, they are usually in a position to be directly observed and evaluated by other passengers. Thus 'moments of truth' may be observed by passengers and evaluations drawn without a passenger actually engaging in the service encounter. Clearly, few CCP positions assume the same degree of customer contact as that of flight attendants, thereby making them a most appropriate cohort for services research.

Flight attendants arguably work in a service role that potentially generates greater role stress than experienced by most CCP. Flight attendants experience an exceptionally high number of service encounters (Sellers, 1994). They are the 'faces' of the 'faceless' corporation (Reiss, 1994), with the occupational aim to 'serve' customers; to create a good feeling in someone else (Beck, 1994). Flight attendants engage in 'emotional labour', ... *the management of feeling to create a publicly observable facial and bodily display* (Hochschild, 1983:7). This may lead to emotional dissonance, which can engender maladjustment such as poor self-esteem, depression, cynicism and alienation from work (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993). Hochschild chose flight attendants in her investigation of 'emotional labour'. First, she did not consider them 'elite'. Second, they undertook work that enhanced the status of the customer. Third, they represented a service position where both men and women were employed to undertake the same service role, compared to the more female-biased service roles, such as receptionist.

Over the years, flight attendants have been the subject of various forms of research investigation (Murdy, Sells, Gavin and Toole, 1973; Terkel, 1974; Hochschild, 1983; Ferris, Bergin and Gilmore, 1986; Williams, 1988; Shamir, 1980). Notable researchers that have specifically investigated the responses of flight attendants due to their heightened boundary spanning position include Hochschild (1983), who extensively discussed the anxiety flight attendants incurred from the constant demeaning of their own status in the eyes of the customers; and Shamir (1980), who interviewed flight attendants in his investigation of service providers in subordinate service roles considered to hold lower status to that of the customer and the management of the service organisation.

In the sociology literature, Williams (1986) described flight attendants as an 'occupational community'. First, they socialised more with their colleagues in their off-duty time than did a cross-section of other occupational types. Second, they 'talked shop' in their off-duty time. Third, their skills were rarely transferable to other professions, and fourth, they had great pride in their profession. Williams proposed that the description of flight attendants as an 'occupational community' was important in explaining the militancy and active trade unionism in their profession.

> *The more the media derided flight attendants as 'glorified waitresses' and 'spoiled brats', the stronger their solidarity* (Williams, 1986:248).

In fact, Williams (1994) likened flight attendants to coalminers, describing them as 'coal miners in dresses'. First, as the job they undertook included a dangerous aspect. Second, the respect for their occupation is nurtured by union leaders who have been part of the group and know the difficulties of the job. Third, the nature of their job produces solidarity rather than fragmentation because of the occupational homogeneity and ... *absence of a boss in the air beyond one of their own rank, the purser or flight service director* (Williams, 1994:8). Finally, like coal miners, there was considerable interrelation between work and leisure. Hochschild (1983) also noted the team solidarity of flight attendants, which was considered positive, as it tended to improve morale and service.

However, it also had the inverse effect, as it was often the basis for shared grudges about passengers and the company.

Therefore, given the suitability of flight attendants as respondents for services research, the propositions of this thesis will now be examined using a cross-section of airline flight attendants from an Australian airline company that flies passengers both domestically (Shorthaul) and internationally (Longhaul). Shorthaul customer contact ranges from one hour to five hours, while Longhaul customer contact ranges from three hours to sixteen hours.

5.3 Research Design

Research design provides the answers to research questions while controlling for variance and gives us the framework for our study by suggesting the types of observations to make, how to analyse them and the possible conclusions that can be drawn from the analysis (Kerlinger, 1973). Survey research, specifically a mail questionnaire, was chosen to assess the propositions raised by this study. The survey research method is the most commonly used method for assessing employee role perceptions (Jackson and Schuler, 1985). The advantages of the survey research method include normality of surroundings for the sample respondents, thereby limiting responses from artificial environments; easy replicability to verify results; generalisability of results from sample to population; and relative accuracy of data, regardless of sampling error. Disadvantages of the method include time and cost issues; sources of sampling error; and that respondents may answer in terms of preferred rather than actual behaviours (Kerlinger, 1973).

This thesis used a three-stage approach in its research design, which included two pilot studies and the main survey (see Table 5.1 - Research Design). Following well-accepted practice (Dillman, 1978), the research instrument was comprehensively tested prior to its

distribution. Two pilot studies were undertaken prior to the main study, both comprising a qualitative and quantitative phase. The qualitative component comprised focus groups with the respondents and the qualitative component was a mail survey. The focus groups had two purposes (Calder, 1977). First, they allowed further item generation over and above the findings from the literature. Second, they allowed a pilot test of potential items in the scale. The focus group respondents were all from the same Australian airline company, as were the final survey respondents. The final stage of the research was a questionnaire mailed to a large sample of the population. Demographics and background information were collected in all mail surveys.

Table 5.1 - Research Design

Stage	Study	Component	Dates
1	Pilot A	Qualitative Quantitative	May 1994 July 1994
2	Pilot B	Qualitative Quantitative	December 1994 February 1995
3	Main Survey	Quantitative	May 1996

5.4 Data Collection

5.4.1 Pilot A

Pilot A was directed at the scale development of the uniform perceptions construct and a pre-test of the perceived self-status and role conflict measures (see Table 5.2 - Measures Tested in Pilot Studies).[1] Development of the uniform perceptions measure followed Churchill's (1979) recommended procedure. As discussed in Daniel et al. (1996), this involved the generation of items from the existing uniform literature and from four focus groups held with flight attendants.[2] A total of 700 self-completed questionnaires were

1 Uniform perceptions is further discussed in Section 5.5, Scale Development of Construct Measures and in Section 5.6, Operational Definitions of Research Variables, where the measures for perceived self-status and role conflict are also outlined.

2 Two groups were conducted with international flight attendants and two groups with domestic flight attendants.

placed in the personal company mailboxes of flight attendants, using a random skip procedure. The survey assured total anonymity to the respondents and included a letter of support from the company. It was requested that on completion, the survey should be mailed directly to the researcher in the postage-paid envelope, which was supplied with each survey. A final sample size of 208, which represented a response rate of 29.7% (25.25% Longhaul and 35.66% Shorthaul) was used for the analysis. Flight attendants were predominantly female (63%), due to the higher numbers of female flight attendants found in the Shorthaul division.[3] The mean age of flight attendants was 33 years, within a range of 22 years to 53 years.[4] The mean number of years flight attendants had been 'flying' was 7.7 years, within a range of 1 month to 32 years.[5]

Overall, the study's respondents tended to be biased towards those who had flown less than eight years (compared to more than eight years) and also, within Shorthaul, biased towards females. This is not unexpected since the topic of the survey was probably of more interest to females, while those with more employment years may tire of ongoing company surveys.

Table 5.2 - Measures Tested in Pilot Studies

Pilot Study	**Constructs pre-tested**
Pilot A	Uniform Perceptions Perceived Self-Status Role Conflict
Pilot B	Service Behaviour Customer Orientation Perceived Recognition Status Perceived Self-Status

3 Female respondents accounted for 53% of the sample within Longhaul, compared to Shorthaul where female respondents accounted for 73%.

4 The mean age within Longhaul was 35 years, and within Shorthaul was 31 years.

5.4.2 Pilot B

Pilot B was directed at several issues. The key issue was a pre-test of the service behaviour measure (Daniel, Johnson and Miller, 1997). This involved the application of the Weatherly and Tansik (1993a) scale to a different cohort of CCP, namely airline flight attendants compared to the store managers of their study, to see if a similar factor structure would result. This was deemed necessary due to the very different service environment flight attendants worked within compared to many other CCP positions, as outlined in Section 5.2.1, The suitability of airline flight attendants as respondents.

Other important issues addressed in Pilot B were the pre-testing of the customer orientation measure, which was an abridged SOCO (Saxe and Weitz, 1982) scale, the perceived recognition status scale, and a further pre-test of the perceived self-status scale. Pre-testing for the service behaviour and customer orientation scales involved both a qualitative[6] and quantitative phase.

The quantitative data was collected by way of a self-completed questionnaire, using a convenience sample of 100 international flight attendants from the aforementioned Australian airline company. A university researcher administered the questionnaire in the crew lounge prior to flight attendants commencing a trip. Flight attendants were assured of total confidentiality and given a monetary incentive to participate in the survey. An abridged version of the Crowne Marlowe (Strahan and Gerbasi, 1972) test was also administered to respondents in Pilot B. In total, 17 respondents were removed from the data set as they scored 17 or more out of a possible 20 on the test. This represented more than one positive standard deviation (3.164) from the mean (13.51). The demographics of the final 83 respondents approximated the company population data. The service behaviour measure is further discussed in Section 5.5, Scale Development of Construct Measures and Section 5.6, Operational Definitions of Research Variables

---

5 The mean number of years 'flying' within Longhaul was 9.6 years, and within Shorthaul was 6 years.

6 Four focus groups were conducted - Two groups with international flight attendants and two groups with domestic flight attendants.

where the measures for customer orientation, perceived recognition status and perceived self-status are outlined.

5.4.3 Main survey

The questionnaires were distributed to 1250 flight attendants from the participating Australian Airline Company, 700 to the Longhaul crew (international) and 550 to the Shorthaul crew (domestic). The questionnaire was placed in the personal company mailboxes of flight attendants, using a random skip procedure generated from the company's human resources database. All Longhaul flight attendants operated from the one base, whereas the Shorthaul flight attendants operated from three bases around Australia. Therefore, in the case of Shorthaul respondents, a stratified sampling approach (Kinnear, Taylor, Johnson and Armstrong, 1993) based on the number of flight attendants operational at each base was undertaken, prior to the random placement of surveys in their mailboxes.

The difference in sample sizes between Longhaul and Shorthaul was decided upon as a result of information received from management concerning prior response rates achieved from each group. This was supported by sociology research completed by Williams (1986) on domestic (Shorthaul) flight attendants within Australia, which achieved a 50% response rate. Additionally, response rates achieved in the pilot tests indicated a greater response from Shorthaul flight attendants was more likely; Pilot A. - 25.25% Longhaul, 35.66% Shorthaul and Pilot B. - 29.7% Longhaul.

Following Dillman's (1978) recommendations, a comprehensive promotional approach was used in an endeavour to ensure a high response rate, given the variability of previous survey work with this cohort of CCP. First, each questionnaire 'booklet' that was distributed included a covering letter from the researcher ensuring responses would be kept strictly confidential (see Appendix 5A - Covering letter). In addition, a letter from

the flight attendant's union[7] accompanied the booklet, endorsing the completion and return of the questionnaire to the researcher.

Second, an incentive was included in the covering letter. This was a donation of $1.00 per returned questionnaire to a welfare fund administered by flight attendants to help impoverished children in Zimbabwe. This was considered an appropriate incentive as it was altruistic and did not require the identity of the respondents to be revealed.

Third, at the same time as the questionnaire was being distributed a small editorial piece concerning the survey appeared in a company newsletter[8] that was received by all flight attendants (see Appendix 5B - Cabin crew news). Following on from this article, approximately 3-4 weeks later another small editorial piece with a photograph of Zimbabwean children appeared in a glossy cabin crew magazine (see Appendix 5C - CrossCheck magazine).

Fourth, approximately two weeks after the survey was initially distributed the first follow-up postcard was distributed to the same personal mailboxes as had been the surveys (see Appendix 5D - First follow-up postcard). This postcard thanked those who had returned questionnaires and reminded those who hadn't that their co-operation would be greatly appreciated. Information was also given for obtaining additional questionnaires in lieu of misplaced ones. The confidentiality of the survey was reiterated as was the endorsement of their union and the approval of the researcher's university ethics committee.

Fifth, a further two weeks on, a final reminder was once more posted to the same personal mailboxes, this time in a different colour so as to be recognised as different (see

---

7 Longhaul and Shorthaul flight attendants belonged to two different unions.

8 This newsletter communicated a range of issues to flight attendants including work practice changes, outbreaks of infection overseas, warnings overseas, changes to inflight product, etc.

Appendix 5E - Second follow-up postcard). This postcard thanked flight attendants for returning the survey and reminded them that they had contributed to a worthwhile fund. It also extended the closing date by two weeks to enable those who had not completed the survey to do so. Information concerning misplaced surveys and the endorsement of their union and the researcher's university ethics committee was again given.

In total, flight attendants had approximately six weeks to complete and return the surveys. An analysis of response bias was not undertaken due to the inability to accurately assess when respondents received their surveys and therefore how long they took to return their surveys. This is due to the fact that it is not possible to ascertain at which point during the six-week period an individual flight attendant may have received the survey. This is especially true in the case of Longhaul flight attendants as they may be outside the country for two weeks, then on days off for one week or more after a duty. Hence, they may not clear their mailboxes for periods of up to three weeks or more. The work roster for Shorthaul flight attendants could also mean that they do not access their mailboxes for long periods of time, although it is unlikely to be as prolonged a break as the Longhaul scenario.

5.5 Scale Development of Construct Measures

5.5.1 Uniform perceptions

The uniform perceptions scale was developed in Pilot A. First, the domain of the construct was specified. As this study was interested in measuring the effect of the influence of uniform on the service provider from their *own* perspective, it was necessary to understand the influence of uniform on the service provider's self-concept. This was important as role theory suggests that a service provider's self-concept of their service role provides them with a role identity, which enables the successful enactment of a service scenario (Bateson, 1995). In this study the definition of 'uniform perceptions of service employees' used for the purpose of scale development was:

A service employee's perception of the effect of their service uniform on their service role self-concept.

A number of items (39) were generated in line with the stated domain. These items were generated from:

A. The uniform literature,

B. A 12-item instrument designed to measure the views of nurses concerning their uniform (Sterling and Dinning, 1980), and

C. Four focus groups held with the designated service employees and 'uniform wearers' of this research, namely airline cabin crew.

A literature search had located one study that had operationalised the influence of uniform from the wearer's perspective (Sterling and Dinning, 1980). The study used a small sample (N=62) and was designed as a pre-experimental measure of nurse's bias prior to the main study (Sterling, 1980) which investigated the effect of nursing personal attire on psychiatric inpatients. This scale, while useful, needed development as it was a unifactor solution, whereas the uniform literature suggested a multifactor construct. It was designed to measure the views of psychiatric nurses on the influence of nurse's uniform *versus* street attire. As a result, the Sterling and Dinning (1980) scale offered six qualifying either/or choices between wearing street clothes to wearing nurse's uniform. As the objective of the thesis research was to understand the wearer's perception of their uniform, rather than whether they felt uniform or street clothes helped them to better perform their duties, this was not considered to be within the confines of the stated domain. However, as the scale tapped issues concerning the influence of uniform, it was adapted and incorporated in the item generation of the research.

Purification of the instrument began with a principal components factor analysis of the 39 items, since there was the acceptable number of five times as many observations as there were variables to be analysed (Hair, et al., 1992). After items with communalities of less than .45 were deleted, varimax rotation resulted in a 4-factor solution. This solution, presented in Table 5.3, Uniform Perceptions - Initial Factor Analysis Results, was considered acceptable since it was in accord with the dimensionality suggested by the literature, it was supported by

the scree test criterion which suggested a 4 factor solution, and the solution explained 64.8% of the variance (Hair et al., 1992).[9]

The items that made up each of the four factors were then assessed for internal consistency with the computation of coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951), in accordance with Churchill's (1979) recommendation of assessment of reliability. The value of alpha for each of the four factors ranged from .6846 to .9288. Items were then deleted with item-to-total score correlations that did not contribute substantially to the alpha coefficients of each factor. This resulted in Factor 1 comprising 5 items (alpha=.8761), Factor 2 comprising 5 items (alpha=.9011), Factor 3 comprising 5 items (alpha=.8935), and Factor 4 comprising 2 items (alpha=.6846). These high alpha values indicated good internal consistency among items within each factor dimension (Peter, 1981).[10]

On examination of the remaining items within each factor, it was found that the dimensions depicted by the solution were in accord with the uniform literature discussed. Factor 1 emphasised uniform's role in employee morale, work productivity and identification with company values (Solomon, 1985; Rafaeli, 1993; Rafaeli and Pratt, 1993). The five items of Factor 1 represented the respondents perception of the uniform's ability to encourage a service/work orientation, while incorporating the uniform's ability to make respondents feel positive about their service position. This factor therefore was entitled 'service attitude'.

Factor 2 concurred with the literature that highlighted the role uniform plays as a tangible cue in service quality, both to the observer and to the wearer, and the role clothing can play in lifting one's self-esteem (Solomon, 1987; Joseph and Alex, 1972; Rafaeli, 1993; Creekmore, 1963; 1974). The five items of Factor 2 represented the degree of professionalism,

---

9 An exploratory split-half analysis indicated support for the 4-factor solution. Similar to the main analysis, the split-half 4-factor solutions accounted for 65.8% and 65.5% of the variance. All of the items within each subset loaded on the same factors as the main analysis. When the subsets were left 'unforced' the analysis suggested 5-factor solutions explaining 69.8% and 69.2% of the variance. However in each case the additional factor was insignificant, containing only 1 and 2 items in each subset. Neither of these items were found in the final scale developed from the main analysis.

10 Split-half reliability co-efficients: Equal-length Spearman-Brown .90, Guttman split-half .90.

Table 5.3 - Uniform Perceptions - Initial Factor Analysis Results[11]

Question No.[12]	Final Items	F1[13]	F2	F3	F4
18	1	.76647			
21	2	.72814			
16	3	.72593			
25	4	.71335			
13	-	.71117			
17	5	.67042			
5	-	.64978			
7	-	.61988			
14	-	.61756			
6	-	.61551			
31	-	.58714			
37	-	.54042	.50366		
24	8		.78916		
4	7		.77382		
19	6		.76750		
28	10		.72491		
1	9		.70583		
36	-		.69517		
22	-		.68444		
26	-		.67065		
34	11			.86617	
35	12			.86491	
33	13			.84094	
38	14			.71547	
39	15			.60019	
23	-			.54198	
10	16				.85317
12	17				.83774
% of Variance Explained		41.5	10.8	7.5	5.0

[11] Variables with less than .45 communality excluded from analysis.

[12] Original items generated from literature search and focus groups excluding (11) and (13). Further details regarding these can be found in Daniel et al. (1996).

[13] Loadings less than .5 deleted from all factors.

sophistication and style the uniform afforded the wearer. These items had a similar tone to the items in Gurel and Gurel's (1979) Clothing interest factor - Concern with personal appearance, therefore this factor was entitled 'The look'.

Factor 3 corresponded with the literature concerning the status, authority and legitimacy a uniform may endow upon the wearer (Joseph and Alex, 1972, Solomon, 1987; Rafaeli and Pratt, 1993; Kaiser, 1990, Bickman, 1974). The five items of Factor 3 represented the influence, due to the uniform, the wearer attained over customers. This factor was therefore entitled 'customer influence'. Interestingly, the five items were adaptions of five of the items from the Sterling and Dinning (1980) scale.

Although Factor 4 comprised only two items, it conformed with the literature that emphasised the role that uniform played in group identification (Joseph and Alex, 1972; Solomon, 1985; Rafaeli and Pratt, 1993). This factor was therefore entitled 'company identification'.

Hence, the purified scale comprised four dimensions: 'service attitude', 'The look', 'customer influence' and 'company identification', totalling 17 items. The study did not demonstrate construct validity through convergent or discriminant validity, primarily because suitable comparable measures could not be determined. However, some degree of convergent validity may be inferred in the relationship of factor 3, 'customer influence', with Sterling and Dinning's (1980) work. Content validity was assessed through the examination of the research instrument by cabin crew trainers, considered to be expert judges.

5.5.2 Service behaviour

The service behaviour scale was further developed in Pilot B as it was necessary to ascertain if a similar factor structure existed among airline flight attendants as was found among the store managers of Weatherly and Tansik (1993a; 1993b). Hence, the 17-item scale (Weatherly and Tansik, 1993a; 1993b) based upon the 'typology of tactics' (Weatherly, 1991) was used as the starting base. The nature of the 17-item scale has previously been discussed in Section 2.2.3, Responses to role stress within service industries. To ensure

domain consistency in item generation and item confirmation between the Weatherly and Tansik study and this study, the four focus groups followed the interview schedule set out by Weatherly (1991). For example, 'how do you deal with difficult customers when they make your job more difficult?' and, 'what are some of the tricks of the trade for handling tough bosses or tough customers that you have learned since you started working here?'

After modification to the airline context, the wording of the 17-item scale was considered appropriate with only minor changes required, i.e., the word 'punish' was changed to 'inconvenience'.[14] A further 15 items in total, generated from the focus groups were included in the survey. These additional items were considered important inclusions for several reasons. First, personal correspondence from Weatherly suggested that additional 'effort' items were needed as the existing scale had a one-item 'effort' factor, compared to the other factors which were multi-item (Weatherly, 1994). Second, the focus groups all suggested that another service behaviour was prevalent among the respondents. This behaviour was termed team support as it related to the manner in which respondents would turn to their colleagues for support when role demands became overwhelming. This is consistent with the sociology literature that notes the solidarity of the 'occupational community' (Williams, 1986). The 15 additional items comprised 5 'effort items', 5 'team support' items and 5 items covering the Weatherly and Tansik factors of 'avoiding', 'pre-empting' and 'negotiation' which were included as the group discussion raised issues not covered in the original 17-item scale. The final scale used in the survey comprised 32 items and used a 7-point Likert scale. It was recommended that the scale was increased to 7 points from the original 5 points (Weatherly, 1994).

The first step of the data analysis ascertained whether the 17-item scale and the ensuing four-factor solution (Weatherly, 1991; Weatherly and Tansik, 1993a; 1993b) was suited to the context of the different service setting. Hence, the analytical approach described by Weatherly and Tansik (1993a) was applied to the data. This involved the constraint of factors after reference to eigenvalues and the separation of the positive behaviours, i.e.,

[14] Refer to Question 3 in Appendix 5F - Items 3.6 and 3.8.

'effort' based behaviours, from the factor analysis. The analysis did not yield a similar factor solution to that reported by Weatherly and Tansik. Where Weatherly and Tansik reported clearly defined 'pre-empting', 'avoiding' and 'negotiating' factors, these were not evident within the data using the original 17 items.

Therefore, the second step was the analysis of all 32 items presented in the survey to determine if a better factor solution could be achieved using part, or all, of the 32 items. As the initial principal components varimax rotation gave an unworkable solution the scree plot was referenced.[15] As this suggested a 5-factor solution the data was accordingly constrained, producing a solution that accounted for 60.7% of the variance. The items that made up each of the five factors were then assessed for internal consistency with the computation of coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951). Items were deleted from each factor that did not contribute substantially to the alpha coefficients of each factor. The final 20-item scale comprised 11 items from Weatherly (1991), plus 9 items generated from the focus groups undertaken for the study, representing 5 factors each with 4 items (see Table 5.4, Service Behaviour Dimensions).

Table 5.4 - Service Behaviour Dimensions

Factor	Name	Cronbach Alpha
1	Supervisor retaliation	.86
2	Team support	.76
3	Customer annoyance	.77
4	Artful endeavours	.63
5	Customer action	.62

In explaining how CCP respond to demands placed upon them by their company and/or their customers, five factors emerged from the data (as shown in Table 5.5, Service Behaviour Factor Analysis Results). Factor 1 comprised 4 items (alpha = .86) which included behaviours of inconveniencing, ingratiating, distracting and ignoring the

[15] Weatherly and Tansik (1993a) reported that they constrained their data based on the scree plot and theoretical consideration.

supervisor. This factor was named 'supervisor retaliation'. Factor 2 comprised 4 items that represented the 'team support' behaviours (alpha =.76). Included were behaviours that addressed reliance, protest and retaliation. Factor 3 comprised 4 items which included behaviours directed at customers (alpha = .77). Included were the behaviours of inconveniencing, distracting and avoiding the customer. This factor was named 'customer annoyance'. Factor 4 comprised 4 items that involved behaviour interaction with customers (alpha = .63). Included were the behaviours of rewarding, explaining and delegating. This factor was named 'artful endeavours'. Factor 5 represented the dimension of positive customer-orientated behaviours (alpha = .62) and was therefore named 'customer action'.

Weatherly (1991) reported three factors with alphas of .72, .79 and .95. The fourth, positive behaviour factor, was only a single-item measure. Although factor 4 and factor 5 in Pilot B indicated only modest reliability, they were considered satisfactory for early stages of research (Nunnally, 1967). The 20-item scale was also considered appropriate for use in the main study since:

A. Three of the four items in Factor 4, 'artful endeavours' are from the original Weatherly and Tansik scale,
B. Factor 5, the positive behaviour of 'customer action', is multi-item, compared to the previous single-item scale in the Weatherly and Tansik study, and
C. The revised scale accounted for considerably greater variance (60.7%), than the original 17-item scale which accounted for only 8.16% of the variance.

Validity of the measure was not directly assessed due to the lack of suitable measures to test convergent or discriminant validity. Content validity was assessed through the examination of the research instrument by the operational training manager and several cabin crew trainers, all considered to be expert judges.

5.6 Operational Definitions of Research Variables

Following is a discussion of the measures used for the dependent and explanatory variables in the model outlined in Chapter 4 (Refer to Appendix 4A). As recommended, all variables utilise multi-item measures in an attempt to achieve validity, reliability and reduce measurement error (Churchill, 1987; Nunnally, 1967). The exception is the measurement for perceived recognition status. The single item nature of this measure is discussed in Sections 5.6.4 and 5.6.5. All multi-items scales are tallied in an additive manner, after designated items are reverse scored. The exception to this is service behaviour, which is calculated by deducting the items of the four negative behaviour factors from the items of the positive behaviour factor,[16] and the perceived self-status scale, which is calculated by deducting customer scores from CCP scores to get a relative score.[17] These measures are further discussed in 5.6.1 and 5.6.4 respectively.

5.6.1 *Dependent variable - service behaviour*

The service behaviour measure used in this study is a modification and extension of the Weatherly and Tansik (1993a) scale as described in Section 5.5.2 - Scale development of construct measures - service behaviour. The Weatherly and Tansik scale had been the only existing scale in the literature that purported to measure service behaviours of CCP. However, since the respondents of the Weatherly and Tansik study, that of store managers, were very different to the research setting proposed in this study, it was considered necessary to pre-test the scale among a sample of this study's respondents (Daniel, Johnson and Miller, 1997).

The service behaviour measure utilised in this study comprises the 20-item scale developed in Pilot B, which consists of 11 items from Weatherly and Tansik plus 9 items generated from the focus groups undertaken for Pilot B. Together this represents 5 factors of 4 items each. A final item was added to the scale, making a total of 21 items, as boundary spanning personnel ... *attempt to reduce stress by seeking sympathy from the customer* (Bateson, 1995:128). When pre-tested in Pilot B the final 20-item solution

---

16 This follows the work of Weatherly and Tansik (1993a).

17 This follows the work of Goodwin and Frame (1989).

Table 5.5 - Service Behaviour Factor Analysis Results

ITEM	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4	FACTOR 5
Supervisor Retaliation					
1 I try to keep my supervisor busy so he or she won't be able to ask me to do anything *[18]	.86				
2 I inconvenience my supervisor (e.g., make him or her wait longer than necessary) when he or she asks me to do too much *	.92				
3 I try to put my supervisor in a good mood so he or she won't want to ask me to do too much *	.62				
4 I ignore my supervisor and pretend that I did not hear his or her request *	.88				
Team Support					
5 I rely on my other crew members for moral support		.61			
6 When my supervisor's requests are excessive I turn to my crew members to vent my annoyance (and then get on with the job)		.79			
7 I retaliate against a demanding supervisor by not including him/her in social activities at slip ports		.73			
8 I try to keep out of the way of a demanding supervisor during the flight		.77			
Customer Annoyance					
9 I try to keep out of the way of a demanding customer inflight			.61		
10 I inconvenience the customer (e.g., make then wait longer than necessary) when he or she asks me to do too much *			.61		
11 I pretend not to understand what the customer is asking for and act as if the customer is asking for something else *			.81		
12 I ignore the customer and pretend that I did not hear his or her request *			.82		
Artful Endeavours					
13 I'll do a favour for a customer who makes my job easier *				.69	
14 I enlist the help of crew members that handle 'types' of customers well				.60	
15 I suggest to the customer how to do something for himself or herself*				.50	
16 I'll do a favour for a supervisor who makes my job easier *				.72	
Customer Action					
17 I work extra hard to get everything done without neglecting the customer's needs *					.61
18 I try to show extra sympathy or friendliness when listening to a customer					.75
19 I set myself priorities for customer and company tasks.					.76
20 I attempt to anticipate problems that may arise with customers then try to curtail them early.					.48
Variance explained	**21.7**	**13.2**	**10.5**	**8.9**	**6.4**

[18] * Represents items in original Weatherly and Tansik scale. Only factor loadings > .45 are displayed

accounted for 60.7% of the variance, compared to the Weatherly and Tansik study where three of the four factors were reported to account for 8.16% of the total variation. The scale used a 7-point Likert scale anchored by never (1) and very often (7). The scale is incorporated in the survey as Question 3 (see Appendix 5F - Survey).

5.6.2 Explanatory variable - customer orientation

The customer orientation scale (COS) used in this study is an abridged form of the SOCO (Saxe and Weitz, 1982) scale. An overview of the SOCO scale follows prior to a discussion of the COS scale used in this research.

The SOCO scale has been routinely used to measure salespeople's customer-oriented selling from a behavioural perspective (for example, Siguaw and Honeycutt, 1995; Siguaw, Brown and Widing, 1994; Howe, Hoffman and Hardigree, 1994). Developed by Saxe and Weitz (1982), the SOCO scale is a 24-item self-assessment measure that gauges six behavioural components:

1. A desire to help customers make good purchase decisions
2. Helping customers to assess their needs
3. Offering products that will satisfy those needs
4. Describing products accurately
5. Avoiding, deceptive or manipulative influence tactics and
6. Avoiding the use of high pressure (Bearden, Netemeyer and Mobley, 1993).

SOCO's 24 items are measured on a 9-point scale, where 1 equals low and 9 equals a high level of customer orientation. Comprised of two factors, 'relations' and 'ability to help', positively worded items load on one factor and negatively worded items load on the other factor (Saxe and Weitz, 1982; Michaels and Day, 1985; Brown, Widing and Coulter, 1991). Where SOCO has been used as a self-assessment scale by sales personnel, reported scale means have been 7.6 and 7.7 (Saxe and Weitz, 1982), 8.1 (Hoffman and Ingram, 1991), 7.81 (Siguaw et al., 1994), 7.9 (Siguaw and Honeycutt, 1995) and 6.5 on a 7-point scale (Howe et al., 1994). Reported Cronbach alphas for

studies using the original or modified SOCO scale versions have been acceptable; for example, .86 and .83 (Saxe and Weitz, 1982), .91 (Michaels and Day, 1985), .70 (Hoffman and Ingram, 1991). In summary, the SOCO instrument's reliability and validity have been regularly demonstrated:

> *The scale seems to be a very useful tool for tracking salesperson performance from the customer's viewpoint, as well as its initially intended purpose of obtaining salespersons' self-assessments* (Brown, Widing and Coulter, 1991:351).

However, many service settings do not have a sales element in the service role of CCP, hence all items of SOCO (i.e., the selling-orientated items), are not always appropriate. Accordingly, Hoffman and Kelly (1994) modified the 24-item SOCO to measure 'customer-directed helping behaviors', by dropping the twelve items representing selling behaviour. The resulting 12-item scale tested on bank customer contact personnel reported a coefficient alpha of .90.[19] Daniel and Darby (1997) also used a modified 13-item SOCO scale[20] to measure COS from the perspective of both CCP and their customers in a hospital setting, i.e., nurses and patients. They respectively reported Cronbach alphas of .86 and .88 and mean scores of 7.3 and 7.8, accounting for 65.8% and 66.4% of the total variation. In a slightly different manner, Wray et al. (1994) restructured SOCO into three separate constructs: selling orientation, customer orientation and ethical orientation to measure customer assessment of salespeople. The 8-item customer orientation construct tested on adult household members who purchased financial services also had good internal reliability (Cronbach alpha .82).

Following the work of Hoffman and Kelley (1994) and Daniel and Darby (1997), the measure used in this survey for customer orientation was an abridged SOCO scale adapted for use in an airline context. This SOCO modification was used in a pre-test

---

19 The mean score was not reported. A 6-point scale was used.

20 The 13 items were the 12 items selected by Hoffman and Kelley (1994) plus the item 'I pretend to agree with customers to please them' from the SOCO scale.

during Pilot B where two of the items generated during the focus groups were retained in the final survey. These items were 'Some customers deserve rude behaviour from flight attendants' (reverse scored) and 'I find personalised service difficult to offer to customers' (reverse scored). The Cronbach alpha and mean score of Pilot B, .78 and 7.06 respectively, were similar to other reported COS and SOCO studies. Therefore, the final COS scale used in the main survey comprised the 12 items noted by Hoffman and Kelley plus a further two items generated from the qualitative phase of the research in Pilot B. The scale is incorporated in the survey as Question 4 (see Appendix 5F - Survey).

5.6.3. Explanatory variable - role conflict

The eight-item scale developed by Rizzo et al. (1970) has predominantly measured role conflict (Jackson and Schuler, 1985). This scale, along with its sister construct role ambiguity, have been in existence for over twenty years and used in more than 100 studies (King and King, 1990). Criticisms have been leveled against the scale, primarily based on concerns regarding the discriminant validity that exists between role conflict and role ambiguity and the negative and positive wording bias of the scales (King and King, 1990; Shepherd and Fine, 1994). However, after a review of the literature and an empirical study, Smith, Tisak and Schmieder (1993) concluded that the Rizzo et al. role conflict and role ambiguity scales had discriminant validity and were suitable for future use. This was particularly the case when certain sub-types of role stress, i.e., specifically intrasender role conflict, were not the major issue of the research.

> *These results support the continued use of the Rizzo et al. (1970) scales, if certain sub-types of role stress are not at issue* (Smith, Tisak and Schmieder, 1993:47).

In this thesis person-role conflict and intersender conflict (Shamir, 1980) are the two types of role conflict at issue. Therefore, according to Smith et al. (1993), the use of the Rizzo scale would be appropriate. Shepherd and Fine (1994) suggested that the original scale for role conflict might be more appropriate when the issue is global or general role

conflict. However, when the issue is specific sources of role conflict, a multi-dimensional scale may be more appropriate. While some recent studies have opted for alternative scales (e.g., Hartline and Ferrell, 1996), other studies that have specifically investigated role conflict among CCP in a service setting have continued to use the Rizzo scale (e.g., Boles and Babin, 1996; Babin and Boles, 1996).

As there has been continued support for the Rizzo scale, this was deemed appropriate for the main survey after modification for an airline setting. The modified scale was pre-tested in Pilot A and yielded a 2-factor solution explaining 56% of the variance.[21] Coefficient alpha was deemed acceptable at .79, given similar results have been reported (King and King, 1990). Six of the eight items in the Rizzo scale pertain to intersender conflict and person-role conflict (Miles and Perreault, 1976), the two types of role conflict that most interested Shamir (1980). The scale is incorporated in the survey as Question 5 (see Appendix 5F - Survey).

5.6.4 Explanatory variable - perceived self-status

Few studies have measured perceived status from a relative stance. Goodwin and Frame (1989) used a calculated score in their measurement of perceived relative status from the customer's perspective. Respondents (customers) were required to estimate service providers as well as their own status, using a unidimensional scale of 1 to 7, where 7 equalled 'high status'. The perceived relative status measure was the difference between the two scores, their own and the service provider.

Kluegel et al. (1977) reported that research on subjective class identification tended to use a unidimensional approach, with class and status generally used interchangeably. As discussed in Section 2.3.2, people are surprisingly accurate in their perceptions of status and generally agree with each other on the status ranking of others (Wright, 1974; Baker, 1983; Homans, 1961). So as to improve the reliability of subjective class measures, Kluegel et al. (1977) tested a multi-item measure based upon Weber's (1948)

---

[21] Generally the factor solution of role conflict is reported as unidimensional when analysed with Rizzo role ambiguity items (Bearden et al., 1993).

dimensions of economic class (occupation and income), status (life-style) and power (influence). The multi-item measure asked respondents to rank themselves in one of four classes, lower through to upper, over five items: A. a standard general identification item, B. where they felt their occupation placed them, C. where they felt their income placed them, D. where they felt their lifestyle placed them, and E. where they felt their influence placed them. Kluegel and colleagues found that the assumption of unidimensionality could not be disconfirmed and that the standard general item or the lifestyle item offered the best unidimensional measure of subjective social class.

> ... *a model assuming unidimensionality among a set of indicators of subjective social class provides a better fit to the data than plausible models assuming more than one dimension* (Kluegel et al., 1977:608).

However, they concluded that the ... *reliability of the conventional measure can be improved by constructing a composite measure* (Kluegel et al., 1977:610).

As airline travel has an implicit status cue within the three seating classes of first class, business class and economy class and the work of Kluegel et al. (1977) suggested composite measures to be more reliable, the measure for perceived self-status in this research employed a multi-item approach. To calculate the 'relative' aspect of the measure the approach of Goodwin and Frame (1989) was followed. This involved a 'difference from own status' score which was calculated from respondents' (customers') answers to their estimate of service provider's status as well as their own status.

Therefore, following Goodwin and Frame (1989), flight attendants were required to rate the status of the three customer segments (first class, business class and economy class) and their own status on a 7-point Likert scale. The relative score for each customer group was then calculated by deducting customer status scores from their own status score. The summation of the scores represents the perceived self-status score.

In Pilot A, pre-testing of the three-item construct yielded a unidimensional factor explaining 77% of the variance and a coefficient alpha of .85. In Pilot B, a fourth 'overall' item was added to the measure again resulting in one factor explaining 72% of the variance, with a coefficient alpha of .86.[22] The final survey employed the four-item scale as the measure of perceived self-status. The scale is incorporated in the survey as Question 7 and Question 8.1 (see Appendix 5F - Survey).

5.6.5 Explanatory variable - perceived recognition status

A single-item approach was used for the second relative status measure of perceived recognition status. This was considered the most appropriate approach as no natural status cues seemed apparent and unidimensionality had been endorsed (Kleugel et al., 1977) and used previously in relative status research (Goodwin and Frame, 1989).

As people appear to have a good grasp of status ranking (Homans, 1961; Baker, 1983; Wright, 1974), a question termed in a relative context was used for the measure of perceived recognition status in the survey. The scale is incorporated in the survey as Question 8.2 (see Appendix 5F - Survey).

Peter (1981) reported that in a review of studies within the *Journal of Marketing Research*, of 450 publications only twelve had the major objective of construct validation and of these eight studies used a single-item for one or more measures. He concluded that this highlighted the difficulty in developing multi-item measures for all constructs.

5.6.6 Explanatory variable - uniform perceptions

The uniform perceptions measure used in this study is a completely new scale developed specifically for the purposes of this study. Prior to the development of this scale there had been limited studies which had researched the perception of clothing from the wearer's perspective (Kaiser, 1990) and certainly none pertaining to service uniform from the wearer's perspective (Daniel et al., 1996).

---

[22] The original three items from Pilot A again resulted in a unidimensional factor explaining 75% of the variance with a coefficient alpha of .83.

The uniform perceptions measure utilised in this study comprises 17 items, representing 4 dimensions. The development of this scale has been described in Section 5.5.1, Development of construct measures - uniform perceptions. The scale is incorporated in the survey as Question 2[23] (see Appendix 5F - Survey).

5.6.7 Social desirability bias

Social desirability bias involves respondents presenting themselves in a positive manner when questioned about culturally derived norms and standards. Hence, people may over-report desirable personal characteristics and under-report undesirable ones. The major concern of social desirability bias is that it may inflate observed correlations, create a relationship where one does not exist or suppress relationships. A remedy to combat this is to include a measure of social desirability within the research, such as the Crowne Marlowe (1964) scale (Bagozzi, 1994).

As the nature of this study requires respondents to answer questions that infer their ability to undertake their role, and due to concerns raised by Weatherly and Tansik (1993a) and following the development of SOCO by Saxe and Weitz (1982), an abridged version of the Crowne Marlowe (Strahan and Gerbasi, 1972) test was also administered to respondents. The abridged scale was formulated as studies indicated that several of the items in the original scale did not contribute greatly to the overall measure. The resulting 20-item scale was found to be as internally consistent as the original 33-item scale and considered to be suitable for use when a shorter measure of social desirability bias was required (Strahan and Gerbasi, 1972). The scale is incorporated in the survey as Question 9 (see Appendix 5F - Survey).

5.6.8 Background information

A range of demographics and background information was considered suitable for the purposes of the survey and the research setting. These included: Service division - Longhaul or Shorthaul (Question 10); Years spent 'flying' (Question 11); Home base (Question 12); Customer class last assigned (Question 13); Cabin crew classification -

[23] Question 1 was placed in the survey on request from company management.

this was primarily to check that the correct classification of flight attendants had been sampled (Question 14); Gender (Question 15); Age (Question 16); Education (Question 17) and Language spoken with parents - this attempted to gauge whether respondents had been raised in the Australian culture or overseas (Question 18). See Appendix 5F - Survey - to review Questions 10-18.

5.7 Research Instrument

The research instrument (questionnaire) employed in this study can be found in Appendix 5F - main survey. The research instrument was designed following Dillman's (1978) recommendations. The questionnaire was printed in booklet form (A5) with consideration given to cover design and paper quality to ensure that the 'first impressions' of the booklet suggested quality. Accordingly, the cover used two colours with a contemporary graphic design on a linen-finish paper.

The questionnaire was organised into five sections, commencing with more enjoyable or non-threatening questions first and more personal data requests towards the end of the questionnaire (Dillman, 1978; Bagozzi, 1994). The first page of the questionnaire contained the covering letter, as described in section 5.4.3. A return postage-paid envelope to the researcher at the university was provided with the questionnaire. There were no identifying codes on the questionnaire or envelope to ensure complete anonymity for the respondents.

Section One, entitled 'perceptions of your uniform'[24] measures perceptions of uniform by the respondents. Section Two, entitled 'aspects of your service work',[25] measures the dependent variable, service behaviour and explanatory variables, customer orientation and role conflict. Section Three, entitled 'perception of yourself and others', measures

[24] Question 1 was included on management request.

[25] Question 6 was included on management request.

perceived recognition status and perceived self-status. Section Four, entitled 'personal attitudes', was a 20-item abridged version of the Crowne-Marlowe scale (Strahan and Gerbasi, 1972). It was felt prudent to incorporate this measure, following the approach of Saxe and Weitz (1982) and the noted concern by Weatherly and Tansik (1993a) for a social-desirability bias in their own research. Section Five, entitled 'background information', measures a range of demographic data.

5.8 Summary

This chapter has described the research and questionnaire design and the data collection for this thesis, along with the justification for choosing airline flight attendants as respondents in this study. Two pilot studies and a main survey were undertaken to effect this research. Respondents in the main survey were randomly selected and assured total anonymity. A multi-stage approach was taken in the administration of the main survey so as to maximise respondent's response rate. This included a covering letter, two promotional editorials, union support, an altruistic incentive and two follow-up reminders.

Most of the construct measures required initial development or further development of scales for this study to proceed. Specifically, uniform perceptions was a completely new scale developed for this study, reported in Section 5.5, Development of construct measures. The further development of the service behaviour measure was also reported in this section, as the scale was an extension of the Weatherly and Tansik (1993a; 1993b) scale. The two relative status scales, perceived recognition status and perceived self-status, were also designed specifically for this study and were accordingly pre-tested in the pilot studies. The measure for customer orientation was a modification of the well-known SOCO (Saxe and Weitz, 1982) scale, which has only recently been adapted for use in this context (Hoffman and Kelley, 1994). Accordingly, this was also pre-tested during the pilot studies. The only measure that was not developed or extended was the role conflict measure, which utilised the well-referenced Rizzo et al., (1970) scale. This

was also pre-tested during the pilot studies. Validity and reliability were discussed for each measure. The next chapter (6) will now present the preliminary results of the data from the main survey.

CHAPTER 6
PRELIMINARY DATA ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter outlined the research methodology for this study. This comprised a review of the research context and the suitability of the study's respondents, airline flight attendants. An overview of the research design was presented. This included data collection, scale development, the pre-testing of the survey instrument over two pilot studies encompassing qualitative and quantitative stages, a description of the research instrument and the operational definitions of the research variables.

The aim of the current and following chapter is to present the preliminary analysis of the data and testing of the propositions developed in Chapter 4. This chapter commences with a discussion of the sample profile, namely the final sample numbers, the characteristics of the sample, the comparison of the sample data to the population data and the descriptive statistics of the sample data. Following, the results of construct validation are presented, which include exploratory factor analysis, reliability analysis, discriminant analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. The next analysis chapter, Chapter 7, addresses the results of the proposition testing by way of path analysis and structural equation modelling.

6.2 Sample Profile

6.2.1 Final sample

From the 1250 surveys that were distributed to flight attendants, 602 were returned, representing a response rate of 48.16%. This was apportioned as Longhaul 337/700= 48.1% and Shorthaul 265/550= 48.1%. Of the 602 surveys that were returned, 44 were deleted from the sample since they had missed sections in the booklet. This reduced the sample to 558, which represented a response rate of 44.6% apportioned as Longhaul 312/700 = 44.6% and Shorthaul 246/550 = 44.7%.

Due to concerns regarding social desirability bias from respondents, as discussed in Section 5.6.7 - Social desirability bias, those respondents that had scored more than one positive standard deviation from the mean on the abridged Crowne-Marlowe scale (Strahan and Gerbasi, 1972) were deleted from the sample. This meant respondents scoring 17 or less (out of a possible 20) were retained. This reduced the sample to 446 which represented a final response rate of 35.68% apportioned as Longhaul 254/700 = 36.2% and Shorthaul 192/550 = 34.9%. Since the sampling objective was to secure a representative sample across the flying population, the final sample was considered adequate. The analysis reported in this chapter and the following chapter has been conducted on the final sample of 446.[1]

6.2.2 Characteristics of the sample

The characteristics of the sample are displayed in Table 6-1, Characteristics of Sample - after deletion due to social desirability (comparison to company data is outlined in 6.2.3). In summary, of the 446 respondents 57% were from Longhaul, and 43% were from Shorthaul. There was a bias towards females with 66% in Longhaul and 73% in Shorthaul. The mean age (34 years Longhaul, 33 years Shorthaul), mode age (31 years) and median age (34 years Longhaul, 32 years Shorthaul) of respondents were similar across service divisions. There was a bias towards higher tertiary qualifications among Longhaul respondents (51% compared to 33%). The mean number of years spent flying (7.9 years Longhaul, 7.6 years Shorthaul) and median (8 years Longhaul, 7 years Shorthaul) were similar but the mode was markedly different (7 years Longhaul, 2 years Shorthaul). All Longhaul respondents are based in Sydney, but Shorthaul respondents originate from the eastern ports of Melbourne, Sydney and Brisbane. Foreign languages spoken at home were more prevalent among Longhaul (16.9% compared with 2%). Longhaul and Shorthaul respondents reported working very different crew positions in First and Business class. A chi-square goodness of fit test indicated that there were significant differences between Longhaul and Shorthaul among the descriptors of:

---

[1] Analysis on the larger sample (n=558) indicated there were no major differences between the results of the smaller and larger samples.

Table 6-1 - Characteristics of Sample - After deletion due to social desirability bias

		LONGHAUL		SHORTHAUL		COMBINED	
		Count	*Percentage*	*Count*	*Percentage*	*Count*	*Percentage*
Respondents		254	57%	192	43%	446	100%
Gender	Female	167	66%	138	72.6%	305	68.8%
	Male	86	34%	52	27.4%	138	31.2%
Education	< HSC[1]	44	17.2%	55	28.7%	99	22.2%
	H.S.C.	81	31.9%	73	38%	154	34.5%
	Uni +	129	50.8%	64	33.4%	193	43.3%
Home Base	Sydney	254[2]		76	39.8%	330	74.2%
	Melbourne			90	47.1%	90	20.2%
	Brisbane			25	13.1%	25	5.6%
Home Language	English	211	83.1%	188	97.9%	399	89.5%
	Other	43	16.9%	4	2%	47	10.5%
Section last worked	First	32	12.6%	60	33.7%	92	21.3%
	Business	43	16.9%	5	2.8%	48	11.1%
	Economy	179	70.5%	113	63.5%	292	67.6%
Age	Mean	34		33.01		33.6	
	Mode	31		31		31	
	Median	34		32		33	
Years Flying	Mean	7.93		7.64		7.8	
	Mode	7		2		7	
	Median	8		7		7	

1 H.S.C. - Represents completion of Secondary School. University placement is awarded on grades obtained in the H.S.C.

2 Longhaul has only 1 base available, i.e., Sydney.

1. Years spent flying (Chi-square 25.43, df = 3, p = .000),
2. Educational qualifications (Chi-square 17.4, df = 5, p = .004),
3. Language spoken at home (Chi-square 27.5, df = 4, p = .000), and
4. Crew position worked (Chi-square 41.43, df = 2, p = .000).

The reasons for these differences include:

1. Industrial relations policies prior to the 1980s meant that Longhaul males were given career opportunities where females were not entitled to any career advancement. In fact, females were terminated from their positions at 35 years of age. Added to this was the predominant staffing of flight attendant positions by males, due to historical reasons. While there have been immense changes since this period, the residual effect is a tier of long-serving, senior male flight attendants within the Longhaul division.
2. Over the years of recruiting, higher educational prerequisites have been formally or informally required of Longhaul flight attendants.
3. The nature of international travel necessitates a greater number of multi-lingual flight attendants. Additionally, Longhaul recruitment targets ethnic communities and language colleges.
4. Crew positions worked are likely to be an artefact of domestic vs international incabin service procedures.

6.2.3 Comparison to company data

At the time the survey was administered, the flight attendant population in the participating airline company was 4085 in total; 1538 Shorthaul = 37.6% and 2547 Longhaul = 62.4%. While the survey requested demographic information over a range of issues, i.e., questions 11-18 in the survey, the company kept only a limited amount of information on file that was pertinent to the survey. The available information is contained in Table 6-2, Characteristics of Company Data. The respondents that chose to complete and return the survey are very similar in age and gender allocation to the company data. The only key difference is the more equal number of Longhaul and Shorthaul fight attendants in the sample, which had been a key objective of the sampling.

Similar proportions of Shorthaul flight attendants from each of the home bases to that of the population also replied. Therefore, evidence suggests that the sample data is similar to the population data.

Table 6-2 - Characteristics of Company Data

		LONGHAUL		SHORTHAUL		COMBINED	
Flight attendants		F 2547	% 62.5%	F 1528	% 37.5%	F 4075	% 100%
Gender	Female Male	1617 930	63% 37%	999 529	65% 35%	2616 1459	64% 36%
Home Base	Sydney Melb. Brisbane	4054[2]	100%	578 676 274	38% 44% 18%		
Age	Mean	34		34		34	

6.2.4 Descriptive statistics

The discussion in Section 5.6, Operational definitions of research variables, outlined the rationale for the utilisation of the various scales used in this research. Following is a brief overview of the descriptive statistics for the variables investigated in this research (see Table 6-3 - Descriptive Statistics).

Table 6-3 - Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation
Service Behaviour	-14.97	12.09
Customer Orientation	7.2	.8574
Role Conflict	4.2	1.22
Perceived Recognition Status	3.27	1.76
Perceived Self-Status	.3049	3.8132
Uniform Perceptions	80.0538	15.4248

[2] Longhaul has only 1 base available, ie., Sydney.

1. Service behaviour, the dependent variable of this research, was measured with a 21-item scale, based on the scale development undertaken during Pilot B. After purification of the scale (see Section 6.3.3, Reliability Analysis), 18 items remained. The mean (-14.97) reflects the scoring nature of the construct, i.e., the service behaviour score is calculated by deducting the items of the dimensions of supervisor annoyance, customer annoyance, artful endeavours and team support, from the items of the dimension, customer action. The higher the score, i.e., the less negative the score, the more positive behaviours the respondent engages in and/or the less negative behaviours. The lower the score the more negative behaviours the respondent engages in and/or the less positive behaviours.

   The descriptive statistics of each of the dimensions of service behaviour are outlined in Table 6-4. This shows that customer action is undertaken far more frequently than any of the other service behaviour dimensions. The frequency count of the service behaviour dimension scores (see Table 6-5) further supports this observation. This will be discussed further in Chapter 8.

Table 6-4 - Descriptive Statistics – Dimensions of Service Behaviour

Dimension	**Min Score**	**Max Score**	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**
Customer Action	11	28	23.30	3.182
Customer Annoyance	4	23	9.213	3.739
Artful Endeavours[3]	2	14	9.513	3.28
Supervisor Retaliation	4	18	6.3	2.942
Team Support	4	28	13.262	4.866

2. Customer orientation was measured with a 14-item scale which is an extension of the Saxe and Weitz (1982) SOCO scale, undertaken during Pilot B. After purification of the scale (see Section 6.3.3, Reliability Analysis), 13 items remained. The scale is calculated by summing the items after recoding reversed items. Measured on a 9-point Likert scale, the higher the score, the higher the

[3] All dimensions had 4 items with the exception of Artful Endeavours, which had 2 items.

level of customer orientation. The mean of 7.2 is similar to previously reported means of the SOCO scale.

Table 6-5 - Frequency Count of Service Behaviour Dimension Scores

Dimension	Low Scores in Range			High Scores in Range		
	Score	Freq.	%	Score	Freq.	%
Customer Action	11-20	84	18.8	21-28	362	81.2
Team Support	4-16	339	76	17-28	107	24
Supervisor Retaliation	4-11	419	93.9	12-18	27	6.1
Artful Endeavours	2-8	160	35.9	9-14	283	64.1
Customer Annoyance	4-13	385	86.3	14-23	61	13.7

3. Role conflict was measured with the 8-item Rizzo et al. (1970) scale. Measured on a 7-point Likert scale, the higher the score the higher the level of role conflict experienced by the respondent. The mean of 4.2 represents that on average respondents experienced heightened role conflict.
4. Perceived recognition status was measured with a single-item measure on a Likert scale of 1-7. The mean score of 3.27 represents that on average respondents felt management perceived their status to be below average within the company. The frequency count of perceived recognition status (see Table 6-6) demonstrates the considerable variation in their response.

Table 6-6 - Frequency Count of Perceived Recognition Status

Status	Frequency	Percent
Low 1	92	20.6
2	90	20.2
3	63	14.1
4	76	17.0
5	70	15.7
6	41	9.2
High 7	14	3.1

5. Perceived self-status was measured with the three-item scale developed in Pilot A and Pilot B.[4] As the score is the summation of three relative scores, possible scores range from the negative, through 0 (status equality) to the positive (see Table 6-7, Frequency Chart of Perceived Self-Status). The mean of .3049 represents that on average respondents perceived themselves as slightly higher in status than their customers. This is further discussed in Chapter 7.

Table 6-7 - Frequency Chart of Perceived Self-Status

Score	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
-15.00	2	.4	.4
-14.00	1	.2	.7
-12.00	4	.9	1.6
-11.00	2	.4	2.0
-10.00	1	.2	2.2
-9.00	7	1.6	3.8
-8.00	2	.4	4.3
-7.00	2	.4	4.7
-6.00	9	2.0	6.7
-5.00	6	1.3	8.1
-4.00	10	2.2	10.3
-3.00	27	6.1	16.4
-2.00	31	7.0	23.3
-1.00	34	7.6	30.9
.00	116	26.0	57.0
1.00	38	8.5	65.5
2.00	40	9.0	74.4
3.00	38	8.5	83.0
4.00	22	4.9	87.9
5.00	28	6.3	94.2
6.00	12	2.7	96.9
7.00	4	.9	97.8
8.00	3	.7	98.4
9.00	3	.7	99.1
10.00	2	.4	99.6
11.00	1	.2	99.8
12.00	1	.2	100.00
TOTAL	446	100.00	

[4] Due to a design issue with the questionnaire, many respondents did not complete the fourth perceived self-status item developed in Pilot B. Therefore, the perceived self-status scale utilised the three items tested in Pilot A.

6. Uniform perceptions was measured with the 17-item scale developed in Pilot A. A summated score, with a possible minimum of 17 and maximum of 119, a higher score reflects that respondents perceive their uniform more positively, particularly in the areas of customer influence, company identification, service attitude and the look. The mean of the 17 items (4.7) indicates that respondents considered their uniform to be above average.

6.3 Construct Validation

As the constructs in this study, with the exception of role conflict, have had minimal if any prior measurement undertaken, the recommendations of Gerbing and Anderson (1988) were followed in the assessment of the unidimensionality of the measurement constructs. Traditionally, the development of measurement scales has relied on one or more of coefficient alpha, item-total correlations and exploratory factor analysis. Gerbing and Anderson suggest that to ensure unidimensionality, a confirmatory factor analysis also needs to be undertaken in order to assess ... *internal consistency* and *external consistency criteria of unidimensionality implied by the multiple-indicator measurement model* (Gerbing and Anderson, 1988:191). This represents the first step of a 'two-step' approach that establishes the meaning of the relationships between the constructs under investigation. The second step is obtained through a full structural model, which is reported in Chapter 7.

Therefore, following Gerbing and Anderson (1988) and in preparation for the analysis of the data and the testing of the study's propositions, the following procedures have been undertaken. First, the expected dimensionality of the constructs is discussed. Second, exploratory factor analysis is undertaken on each of the constructs to investigate the proposed dimensionality. Third, reliability of the scales is assessed through Cronbach alpha (Cronbach, 1951). Fourth, discriminant validity is assessed through factor analysis and method correlation. Fifth, confirmatory factor analysis is undertaken for each of the multi-item constructs.

6.3.1 Dimensionality of constructs

Most of the constructs measured in this study have had minimal research undertaken to determine their dimensionality. While role conflict has previously been extensively researched, the reported dimensionability of the other constructs has been very limited. The expected dimensionality of the measured constructs follows:

6.3.1.1 Service behaviour

Weatherly and Tansik (1993a, 1993b) found 4 dimensions in their work. However, since Pilot B (Daniel et al., 1997) reported 5 dimensions in their study of flight attendants, a 5-dimension result is expected.

6.3.1.2 Customer orientation (COS)

While Hoffman and Kelley (1994) measured COS they did not report dimensionality. In the absence of further evidence and since Daniel and Darby (1997) reported three dimensions in their work, a multi-dimensional construct is expected.

6.3.1.3 Role conflict

Role conflict (and role ambiguity) was conceptualised as a distinct construct (Rizzo et al., 1970). While there has been debate over the dimensionality of the two scales, there appears to be support for their convergent and discriminant validity (Smith et al., 1993). Since multiple dimensions within role conflict are not reported in the literature, a uni-dimensional result is expected.

6.3.1.4 Uniform perceptions

Since Pilot A (Daniel et al., 1996) reported 4 dimensions for this construct, the same result is expected in this study.

6.3.1.5 Perceived recognition status

Since this has been measured with one item, a single dimension is the default.

6.3.1.6 Perceived self-status

It would appear that measurement of this construct has previously not been reported in the literature. Since both pilot studies of this research found perceived self-status to be a uni-dimensional construct, the same result is expected in the main study.

6.3.2 Exploratory factor analysis

The exploratory factor analysis of the multi-item constructs supported the purported dimensionality outlined in the previous Section 6.3.1, Dimensionality of Constructs. Table 6-8 - Exploratory Factor Analysis - summary, reports the number of factors extracted from each of the constructs and the variance explained by the analysis, using principal components extraction with varimax rotation. Variance explained by the constructs ranges from 48.9% to 75.2%. Variance extracted values are recommended to exceed .50 (Hair, Anderson, Tatham and Black, 1995). Three constructs[5] are recognised as marginal, customer orientation and service behaviour at 49% and role conflict at 50%, which may reflect the reliability of the measures (Hair et al., 1995).

Essentially, the items in each construct loaded on the factors as they had in previous pilots or reported studies. This was particularly the case with perceived self-status and role conflict, while service behaviour had some discrepancies evident when compared to the earlier pilot study. The factor analysis of service behaviour utilised the approach of Weatherly and Tansik (1993a). This involved the positive items of the dimension 'customer action' being separated from the data prior to performing a principal components analysis retaining the four negative dimensions. In the negative dimensions, three of the items loaded on alternate factors to that found in the pilot studies (see Appendix 6A - Table 1). However, since this scale has only been tested once previously, it was decided to allocate these three items to their original dimensions for the reliability analysis.

---

5 In previous studies (see Section 5.6) these constructs had previously accounted for 65.8%, 60.7% and 56% of the total variation.

There were one or two items in uniform perceptions that loaded equally on alternate dimensions (see Appendix 6A - Table 3). However, it was decided they should be retained in the original dimensionality, as they made more sense. Appendix 6A - Exploratory Factor Analysis, details the factor loadings for each of the constructs in the following tables: Table 1- Service Behaviour, negative dimensions; Table 2 – Service Behaviour, positive dimension; Table 3 - Uniform Perceptions; Table 4 - Role Conflict, Table 5 - Perceived Self-Status and Table 6 – Customer Orientation.

Table 6-8 - Exploratory Factor Analysis - summary

Construct	**Number of factors extracted**	**Proposed Dimensionality**	**Variance Explained**
Uniform Perceptions	4 factors	Expected	63.9%
Role Conflict	1 factor	Expected	50.1%
Perceived Self-Status	1 factor	Expected	75.2%
Customer Orientation	3 factors	Expected	48.9%
Service Behaviour	5 factors	Expected	48.9%

6.3.3 Reliability analysis

> *A high internal consistency estimate provides support for the construct validity of a measure of a unidimensional construct (or for separate subscales of a measure of a multidimensional construct)* ... (Peter, 1981:136).

A reliability analysis was undertaken on each of the dimensions identified in the exploratory analysis using Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951). With the exception of role conflict, measurement of the constructs is still in the early stages of research. Hence, Nunnally's recommendation of accepting modest alpha reliabilities of .60 or .50 was taken.

> *In the early stages of research on predictor tests or hypothesized measures of a construct, one saves time and energy by working with instruments that have only modest reliability, for which purpose reliabilities of .60 or .50 will suffice* (Nunnally, 1967:226).

Table 6-9 - Reliability Analysis of Construct Dimensions, describes the coefficient alphas that were obtained for each of the factors of the constructs.[6] All the alphas fell above the acceptable lower limit of .50 for research in the early stages, with the exception of the dimension 'company identification' in uniform perceptions (.48), which only marginally fell below the limit. All alphas were generally lower than the previous reliability analysis of construct measures, as described in Section 5.6 - Operational Definitions of Research Variables.

[6] No reliability estimate was possible to assess the reliability of the single-item measure, perceived recognition status.

Table 6-9 - Reliability Analysis of Construct Dimensions

Construct	Factor/Dimension	Items	Standardised alphas
Service Behaviour	Customer Action	3.5, 3.10, 3.15, 3.20	**.5769**
	Team Support	3.12, 3,17, 3.2, 3.7	**.6323**
	Supervisor Retaliation	3.1, 3.11, 3.16, 3.6	**.6331**
	Artful Endeavours	3.19, 3.4	**.7548**
	Customer Annoyance	3.13, 3.18, 3.8, 3.3	**.6293**
Customer Orientation	Factor 1	4.11, 4.1, 4.12, 4.13, 4.9, 4.14	**.7222**
	Factor 2	4.10, 4.5, 4.6, 4.7	**.6974**
	Factor 3	4.3, 4.4, 4.8	**.5137**
Perceived Self-Status	One factor only	JRSAT, PRSTAT, YRSTAT	**.8345**
Role Conflict	One factor only	5.1, 5.2, 5.3, 5.4, 5.5, 5.6, 5.7, 5.8.	**.8577**
Uniform Perceptions	The Look	2.10, 2.1, 2.13, 2.4, 2.7	**.8498**
	Customer Influence	2.11, 2.14, 2.17, 2.2, 2.8	**.8375**
	Service Attitude	2.12, 2.16, 2.3, 2.6, 2.9	**.7999**
	Company Identification	2.15, 2.4	**.4753**

6.3.4 Validity

The scales used in the analysis required initial development, further development, or modification to the research context. Hence, it was deemed necessary to assess the construct validity of the scales, ... *the extent to which an operationalization measures the concept it is supposed to measure* ... (Bagozzi, 1994:20). This assessment can only be inferred, it cannot be assessed directly (Peter, 1981). In order to assess the construct validity for this research the following analyses were undertaken:

1. A factor analysis of each of the construct measures to assess if the expected dimensionality of each construct is achieved. This was obtained with each of the

constructs of the study, as described in Section 6.3.2 - Exploratory Factor Analysis, thereby providing supportive evidence of construct validity (Peter, 1981).

2. A factor analysis of all the items representing constructs in the model in order to evaluate discriminant validity (Sweeney, 1995), and
3. A pairwise correlation between construct measures to assess convergent and discriminant validity (Ruekert and Churchill, 1984; Bagozzi, 1994).

6.3.4.1 Factor analysis

Factor analysis essentially tells us the extent to which measures relate to the same thing (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Therefore, a factor analysis of all the items that load on multi-item constructs[7] will demonstrate the amount of overlapping items that may exist between constructs. The factor analysis undertaken utilised a principal components analysis with oblique rotation constrained to five factors. The solution explaining 38.8% of the variance discriminated most efficiently between the constructs (See Table 6-10 - Factor Analysis of Items to Evaluate Discriminant Validity).

The factors extracted represented the following constructs: Factor 1, customer orientation explaining 14.4% of the variance; Factor 2, uniform perceptions explaining 9.2% of the variance; Factor 3, role conflict explaining 6.6% of the variance; Factor 4, perceived self-status explaining 4.6% of the variance; and Factor 5, service behaviour explaining 4.2% of the variance.

Essentially, each of the five factors demonstrated discriminant validity. There appeared to be reasonable and acceptable explanations for the few items that loaded on alternative factors to those initially proposed. First, among the uniform perceptions items, two that described the 'company identification' dimension, loaded on the perceived self-status factor. Possibly this indicates the association between relative status and identification of oneself. Second, each of the items that represented the 'customer action' dimension of service behaviour loaded on the customer orientation factor of the analysis.

---

[7] Items from 5 constructs were used in the factor analysis as 1 construct used a single item.

Table 6-10 - Factor Analysis of Items to Evaluate Discriminant Validity

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Customer Orientation					
Personalised service difficult					
Discuss needs	**.532**				
Accurate expectation of service	**.593**				
Offer service best suited	**.578**				
Achieve goals by satisfying	**.664**				
Service helpful to customers	**.641**				
Good flight attendant	**.555**				
Beyond my control					
Influence with information	**.474**				
Achieve expectations	**.658**				
Answer questions correctly	**.491**				
Deserve rude behaviour					
Figure out needs	**.651**				
Uniform Perceptions					
Feel professional		**.740**			
Makes me feel drab		**.505**		.507	
Customers to be civil		**.661**			
Feel good about myself		**.698**			
'Stylish' in uniform		**.439**		.559	
Enforces safety regulations		**.616**		-.307	
Indistinguish' fr. Corporates				*.540*	
Company standard		**.602**			
Positive attitude towards me		**.699**			
Enforces rules and regs.		**.706**			
Customer focus		**.670**			
Feel sophisticated		**.528**		.430	
Indistinguish' fr. Airlines				*.377*	
Lift self-esteem		**.712**			
Embarrassed in uniform		**.492**		.368	
Customers listen to me		**.657**			
Helps efficiency at work		**.550**			

NB. Loadings of less than 0.30 have been suppressed for clarity.
Loadings in *italics and underlined* represent items that loaded substantially on other factors.

Table 6-10 - Factor Analysis of Items to Evaluate Discriminant Validity (cont.)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Role Conflict					
Tasks done differently			.665		
No support to complete			.676		
Bend a rule or policy			.720		
Operate differently			.592		
Incompatible requests			.735		
Accepted by one			.652		
Without adequate resources			.726		
Unnecessary tasks			.696		
Perceived Self Status					
Economy Self Status				.468	
Business Self Status				.494	
First Self Status				.479	
Service Behaviour					
Supervisor busy					.398
Extra friendliness	*.430*				
Supervisor in good mood					.503
Don't include slip ports					.521
Pretend with customer					.338
Set myself priorities	*.391*				
Ignore my supervisor					.359
Out of way of supervisor					.669
Ignore the customer					
Do a favour for supervisor					.611
Moral support from crew					.376
Anticipate problems	*.567*				
Out of way of customer					.601
Favour for a customer					.587
Work extra hard	*.438*				
Make supervisor wait					.531
Vent annoyance with crew					.455
Make customer wait					.584

NB. Loading of less than 0.30 have been suppressed for clarity.
Loadings in *italics and underlined* represent items that loaded substantially on other factors.

This is not surprising as each of these items represent positive behaviours closely aligned to a superior customer orientation. Given the small amount of overlapping of items between factors, it is considered that this analysis provides support for an acceptable level of discriminant validity between the measures.

6.3.4.2 Pairwise correlations

Construct validity generally involves correlations to ... *provide evidence about the structure of a domain of observables relating to a construct* (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994:89). A heterotrait-monomethod correlation (Bagozzi, 1994; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994) of the six constructs was undertaken to further assess the validity (see Table 6-11 - Pairwise correlations of Constructs to Evaluate Construct Validity). This matrix depicts correlations between measures that share a common method but different attributes, as in the construct measures of this research. It is considered that *A more stringent test of discriminant validity results when methods are similar* (Bagozzi, 1994:21), as similar methods tend to inflate correlations among divergent concepts. Each of the construct measures in the matrix is derived by calculating the overall mean value of each construct (Ruekert and Churchill, 1984). Convergent validity is demonstrated when trait correlations are significantly large. Discriminant validity is demonstrated when method correlations are low (Bagozzi, 1994; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994).

Table 6-11 shows a total of fifteen possible correlations between six construct measures. Of these, ten correlations represent those proposed by the conceptual model. Of these, seven are significant at the .01 level with correlations ranging between -.198 and +.498 (shown in bold in Table 6-11). None of these can be considered to be large, indicating that these measures are indeed discriminating between the constructs. Therefore, this also indicates that there is no convergence between the construct measures, the favoured and expected outcome of the analysis. Arguably, the correlation between customer orientation and service behaviour (.498) may demonstrate convergent validity. However, it is acknowledged that the criteria for assessing convergent and discriminant validity is not without its problems, in that a researcher in one study may determine a

correlation representative of discriminant validity while in another study may present it as representative of convergent validity (Peter, 1981).

Table 6-11 - Pairwise Correlations (Pearson r) of Constructs to Evaluate Construct Validity

Construct	Customer Orient'n	Self-Status	Role Conflict	Recogn't Status	Uniform Percept'ns	Service Behav'r
Customer Orient'n	1.000					
Self Status	-.028	1.000				
Role Conflict	**-.198****	**-.057**	1.000			
Recongt'n Status	**.215****	.120*	**-.234****	1.000		
Uniform Percept'ns	.188**	**.068**	-.275**	**.285****	1.000	
Service Behav'r	**.498****	**-.077**	**-.262****	**.244****	.122*	1.000

** Pearson r correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2 tailed)
* Pearson r correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2 tailed)
Bold numbers indicate correlations proposed in the conceptual model
Underlined correlations show significant but not predicted relationships

A further four significant correlations indicate that relationships not proposed in the conceptual model may exist between the constructs; Specifically, between:

1. Customer orientation and uniform perceptions,
2. Perceived self-status and perceived recognition status,
3. Role conflict and uniform perceptions, and
4. Uniform perceptions and service behaviour.

Some of these relationships, while not proposed in the conceptual model, appear consistent with aspects of the literature:

1. 'Service attitude', which is aligned to customer orientation, was identified as a dimension of uniform perceptions (Daniel et al., 1996);
2. A correlation between perceived self-status and perceived recognition is logical given these are characteristics of subordinate service providers (Shamir, 1980);

3. Uniform identifies one to the observer and enables the wearer to understand the service role they must perform (Daniel et al., 1996). It is likely that any discrepancies in such perceptions may cause role conflict in the wearer; and
4. Items in the uniform perceptions scale discuss service behaviour that results from the wearer's perception of the uniform.

A concern of the pairwise correlations matrix is that three of the proposed relationships in the conceptual model are not significant, although they have the conjectured directionality. However, it should be noted that the construct in the three non-significant relationships, i.e., perceived self-status, demonstrated:

1. A most acceptable coefficient alpha in the main survey (75.2%),
2. Consistent reliability and dimensionality in the two pilot studies undertaken prior to the main study, depicting unidimensionality and explaining 77% and 72% of the variance with coefficient alphas of .85 and .86 respectively, and
3. That it was clearly discriminated from the other constructs in the previous validity analysis reported in Table 6-5, Factor Analysis of Items to Evaluate Discriminant Validity.

Finally, it must be remembered, as these results show, that there is rarely clear-cut evidence concerning construct validity. Also, self-reported data often presents a problem with validity due to method variance (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994).

In summary, given the limitations discussed concerning validity and remembering that efforts have been undertaken to eliminate sources of variance through the calculation of social desirability bias in the study, the three analyses undertaken as validity checks on the construct measures indicate that there is modest support for construct validity. However, it is recognised that construct validation is a continual process of investigation and development that requires many reliability and validity studies (Peter, 1981). The non-theoretically supported correlations in the pairwise matrix suggest the possibility of further theoretically valid relationships, which may be considered in future research.

6.3.5 Confirmatory factor analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was completed to further ensure that scale items were reliable indicators of the constructs or latent variables. Unlike traditional factor analysis, where there is no control over which variables describe each factor, in CFA specific variables define each factor. CFA represents the measurement model of structural equation modelling and through goodness of fit measures identifies how well the items represent the latent variable. The measurement models are linked by a structural model in structural equation modelling (Schumacker and Lomax, 1996; Hair et al., 1995).

Analysis involving structural equation modelling generally requires large sample sizes to ensure accuracy and representativeness (Schumacker and Lomax, 1996). It is considered that the size of the model to be estimated, particularly the number of parameters to be estimated, is the critical issue in sample size (Tanaka, 1987). The sample size for this study (446) was considered acceptable, given the minimum sample size is considered to be 100 - 150 cases and most published accounts of structural equation modelling have been between 250 - 500 cases (Schumacker and Lomax, 1996). Hoelter (1983) proposed the critical sample size to be 200. In fact, there is some concern that large samples (exceeding 400-500) may be overly sensitive, with any difference being detected, thereby making all goodness-of-fit measures indicate a poor fit (Hair et al, 1995; Tanaka, 1987).

Of particular concern is the chi-square statistic, which provides information concerning whether the whole model has an acceptable fit to the data. A non-significant chi-square indicates an acceptable fit. However, this should be viewed with caution when sample sizes are large, as correct models may be rejected (Diamantopoulos, 1994; Joreskog and Sorbom, 1989; Tanaka, 1987). Joreskog and Sorbom (1989) cautioned that the chi-square statistic is generally not valid in such instances. This is due to the chi-square statistic being sensitive to departures from multivariate normality, sample size and related problems of power (Diamantopoulos, 1994).

> ... *it must be emphasized that such use of $\chi 2$ is not valid in most applications* (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1989:42).

Hence, normed and non-normed fit indices have been developed for latent variable models (Tanaka, 1987). Normed indices are constrained to lie between 0 - 1, while non-normed indices, although not holding this constraint, generally do in practice. Normed and non-normed indices are free of sample size concerns and measure the adequacy of the model fit to the data relative to some baseline. The criterion of .90 or greater has been widely adopted as representative of a good-fitting model (Tanaka, 1987; Hair et al., 1995).

The normed goodness-of-fit measures that are referenced in this research include the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1984) and comparative fit index (CFI) (Bentler, 1990). The non-normed goodness-of-fit measures referenced in this research include the Tucker-Lewis measure (TLI) (Bentler and Bonett, 1980) and the root mean squared residual (RMSR) (Arbuckle, 1997). The latter has a perfect fit with values close to zero. Hair et al. (1995) categorised the goodness-of-fit measures as:

1. Absolute fit measures, which includes the GFI, the likelihood ratio Chi-square statistic and the RMSR,
2. Incremental fit measures, which includes the TLI, and
3. Parsimonious fit measures, which includes the AGFI.

In this study, the CFA utilised the AMOS structural equation modelling program (Arbuckle, 1997). The next section outlines the results of the CFA on each of the multi-item constructs. It was not possible to undertake a CFA on perceived recognition status, as this is a 1-item scale. The perceived recognition status construct was accepted, although it is recognised that structural equation modelling prefers multi-item constructs (Schumacker and Lomax, 1996). Fit statistics were not available for perceived self-status, as there were no degrees of freedom, therefore chi-square was not calculated. The

perceived self-status scale was considered acceptable due to the substantial standardised regression weights (0.786, 0.891, 0.704), the high variance (75.2%) explained in the exploratory factor analysis and the acceptable coefficient alpha (.8345) reported in the reliability analysis (see Figure 6-1 - CFA – Perceived Self-Status).

6.3.6 Measurement model fit

All the constructs in the CFA reported a large chi-square, producing a significant p value, thereby normally suggesting the model does not fit the data. However, it is considered that this fit statistic is not applicable due to:

1. The large number of respondents (446) within this sample which questions the validity of this fit statistic (Diamantopoulos, 1994; Tanaka, 1987; Joreskog and Sorbom, 1989).
2. The large number of degrees of freedom for each of the 4 constructs analysed using CFA (20, 62, 114, 125), which is preferred for model parsimony (Hair et al., 1995).
3. The alternate goodness-of-fit measures, which indicate that overall the items are acceptable indicators of the latent variables. A description of the goodness of fit measures for each of the multi-item constructs with sufficient degrees of freedom follows.

6.3.6.1 Role conflict

The latent variable role conflict showed an acceptable fit of the model to the data with .917 (GFI). The AGFI (.851), CFI (.897) and TLI (.856) fell marginally below the .90 criterion. The RMSR (.171), while not indicating a perfect fit, was deemed acceptable. The standardised regression weights were all significant (t values between 10.023 and 13.490). Therefore, the 8-item Rizzo et al. (1970) scale was accepted for the role conflict construct (see Figure 6-2 - CFA - Role Conflict).

Figure 6-1 - Confirmatory Factor Analysis - Perceived Self-Status

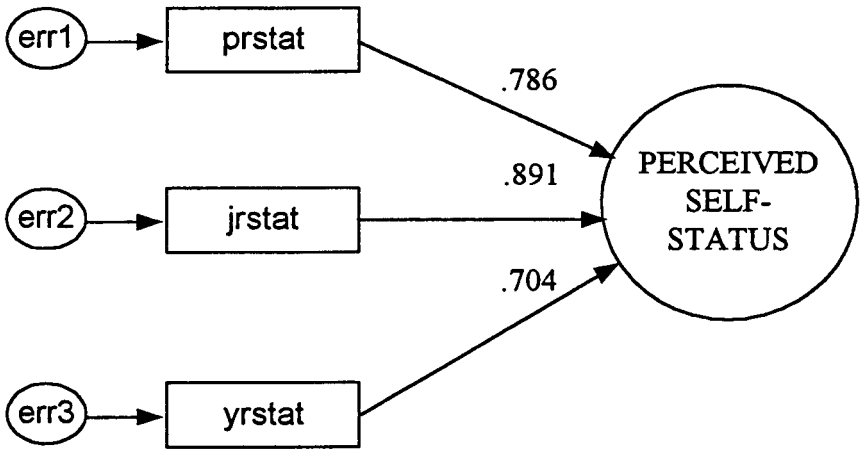
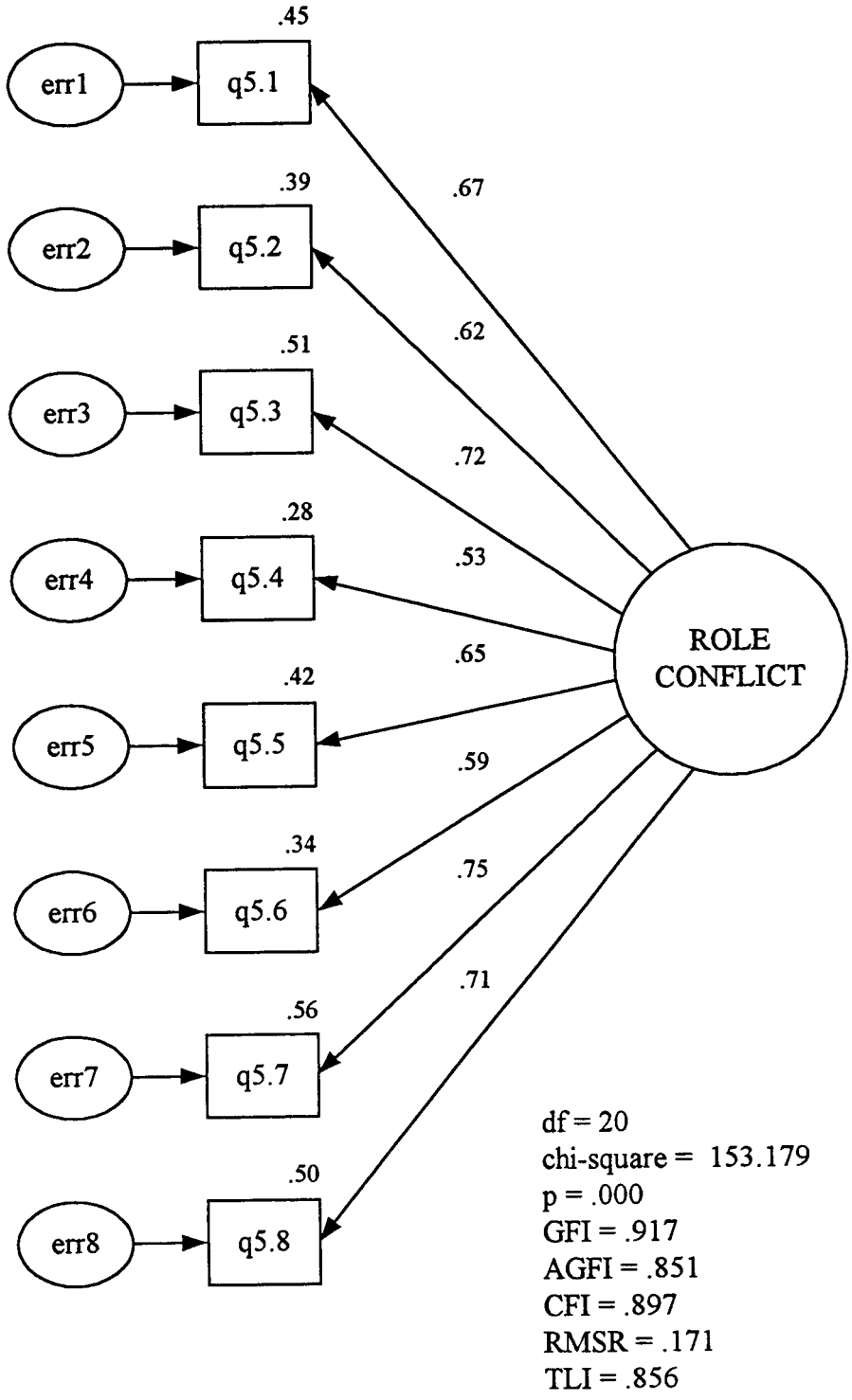


Figure 6-2 - Confirmatory Factor Analysis - Role Conflict



6.3.6.2 *Customer orientation*

Following the reliability analysis of 6.3.3, the CFA on the latent variable customer orientation included 13 of the 14 items from the survey. This model provided an acceptable fit with .927 (GFI). The AGFI (.893), CFI (.870) and TLI (.836) fell marginally below the .90 criterion and the RMSR (.142) approached the preferred score zero. Correlations between factors were all substantial (.58, .72, .68) and in the proposed positive direction. The standardised regression weights were all significant (t values between 4.831 and 11.74). Therefore, the 13-item scale, which is a modified version of the SOCO scale (Saxe and Weitz, 1982), the SOCO scale having been widely validated, was accepted for the customer orientation construct (see Figure 6-3, CFA - Customer Orientation).

6.3.6.3 Uniform perceptions

As the initial CFA on the latent variable, uniform perceptions, indicated there was a very small correlation between the dimensions of 'customer influence' and 'company identification' (.07), this parameter was dropped. This resulted in a final model fit of .878 (GFI), .836 (AGFI), CFI (.876), TLI (.852) and RMSR (.182). The remaining correlations between factors ranged from .26 to .69 in the expected positive direction. The standardised regression weights were all significant (t values between 5.958 and 14.069). While the goodness-of-fit measures fell marginally below the .90 criterion, the analysis did not indicate the fit would benefit by the deletion of any particular items. Therefore, the 17-item uniform perceptions scale (Daniel et al., 1996) was accepted for the uniform perceptions construct (see Figure 6-4, CFA - Uniform Perceptions).

6.3.6.4 Service behaviour

Following the exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis outlined in 6.3.2 and 6.3.3, the CFA tested 18 items on the latent variable service behaviour. This resulted in acceptable fit measures across all measured normed indices: .937 (GFI), .914 (AGFI) and .914 (CFI) with the TLI (.895) falling marginally below the criterion. Also, the RMSR (.097) was well positioned, close to zero. Correlations between factors were all in the expected direction, i.e., the positive factor of 'customer action' was negatively

Figure 6-3 - Confirmatory Factor Analysis - Customer Orientation

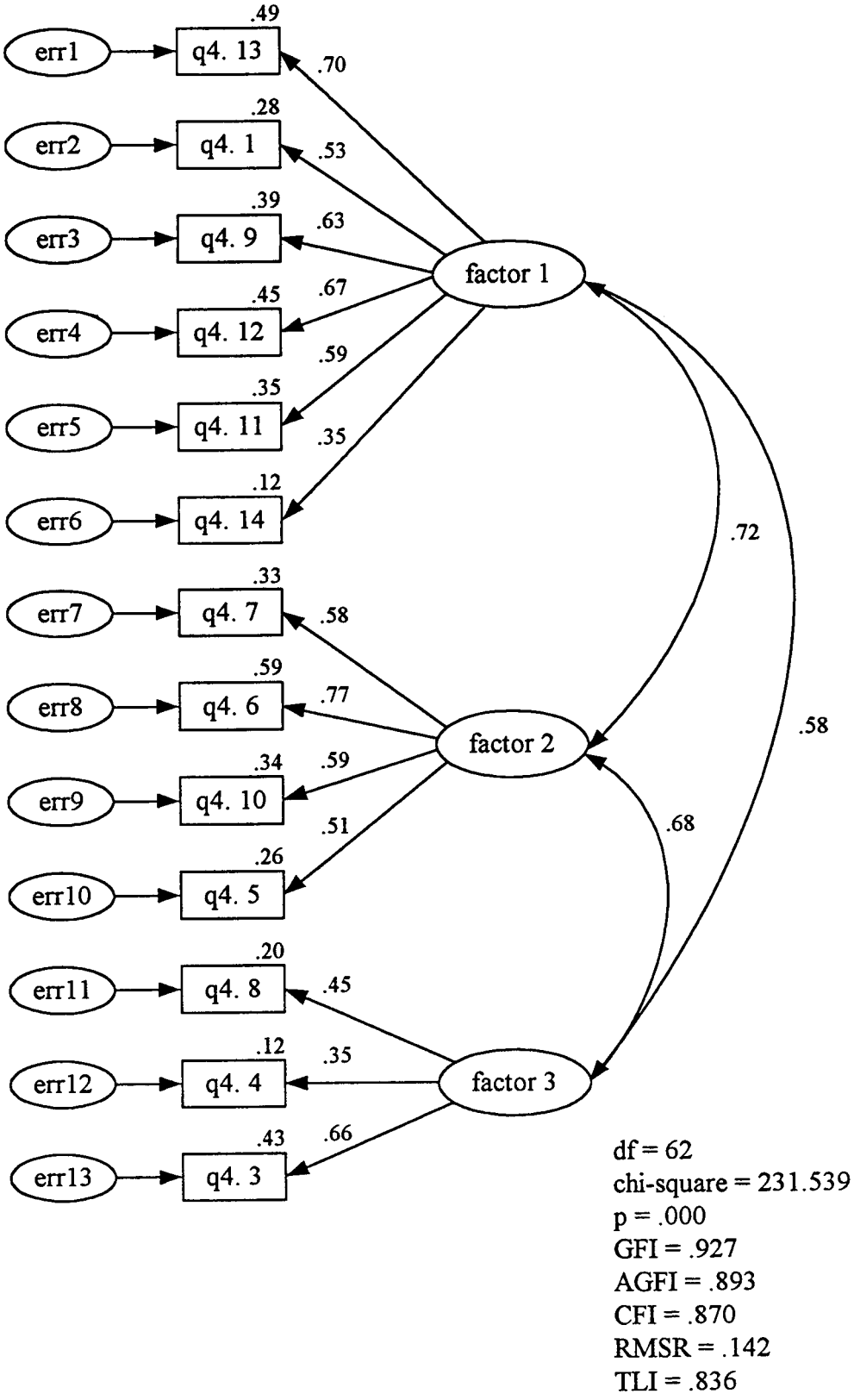


Figure 6-4 - Confirmatory Factor Analysis - Uniform Perceptions

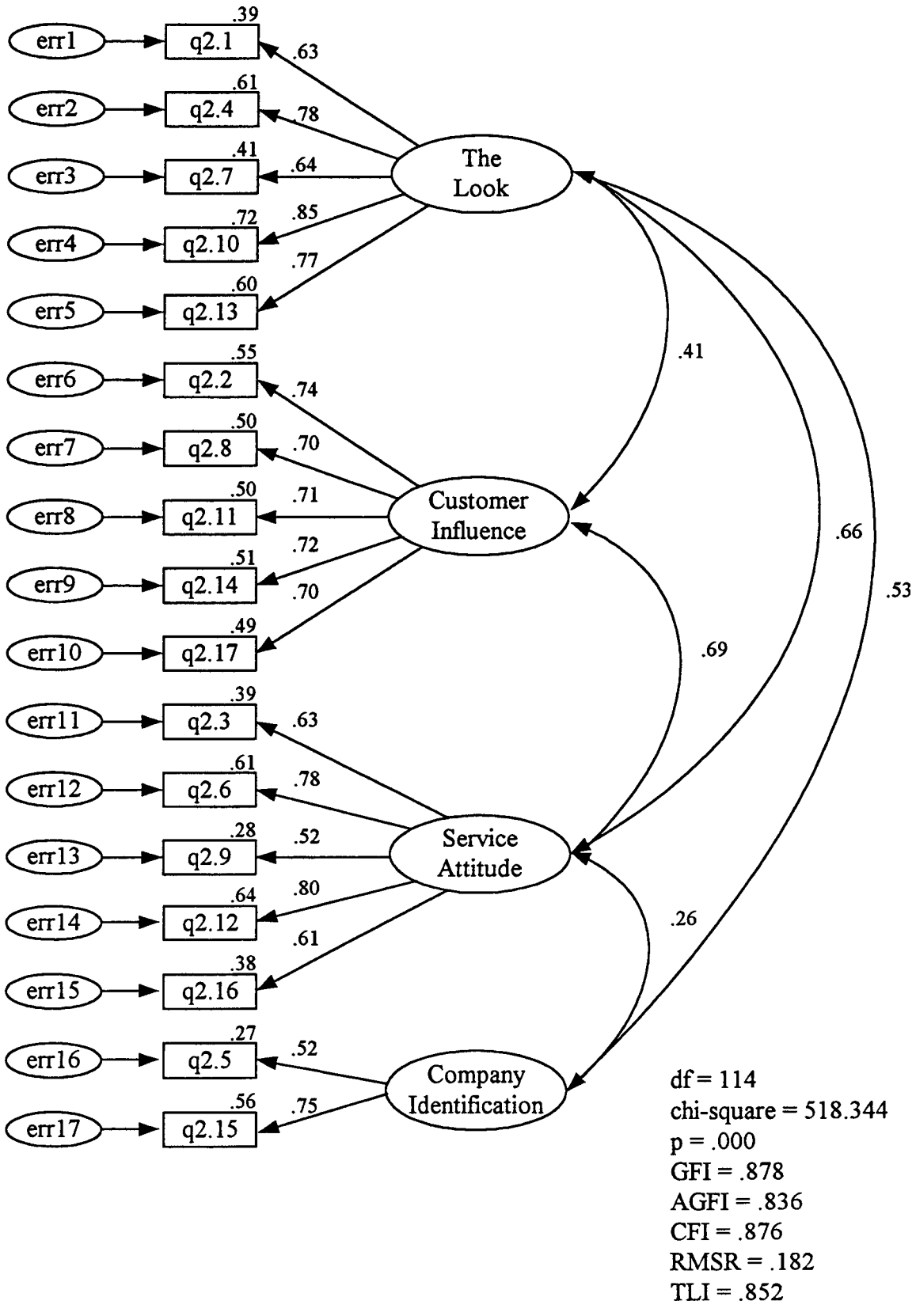
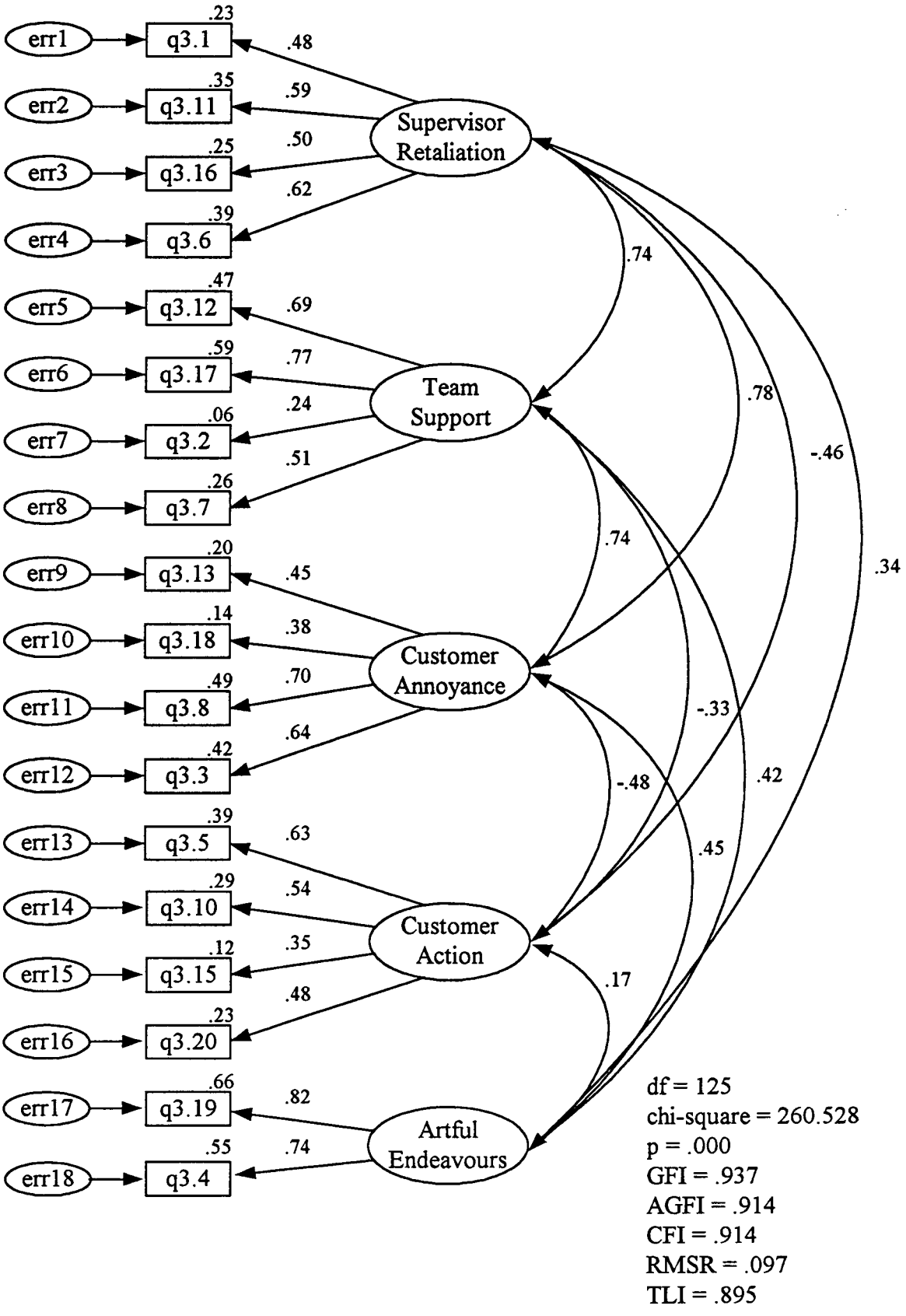


Figure 6-5 - Confirmatory Factor Analysis - Service Behaviour



correlated with the negative factors of 'customer annoyance' (-.48), 'team support' (-.33) and 'supervisor retaliation' (-.46). While a negative correlation between 'customer action' and 'artful endeavours' was proposed, the resulting positive correlation was not considered an issue due to the low estimate (.17). The standardised regression weights were all significant (t values between 4.429 and 12.109). Therefore, the 18-item service behaviour scale (Daniel et al., 1997) was accepted for the service behaviour construct (see Figure 6-4, CFA - Service Behaviour).

6.4 Summary

This chapter first described the sample profile. Through a multi-stage approach in the administration of the main survey, as outlined in the previous chapter, a final 'clean' response rate of 36% was achieved, which represented 446 respondents. Evidence presented suggests that the characteristics of the sample data are similar to the population data.

Exploratory factor analysis found the expected dimensionality of the construct measures. Construct validation found modest coefficient alphas, which were considered acceptable given Nunnally's (1967) recommendations. Discriminant validity was considered modest but acceptable given the results of three analyses of the scale items.

Confirmatory factor analysis was undertaken to further assess whether the scale items were reliable indicators of the constructs. While there was a significant Chi-square statistic, it was considered that the large sample size of the study (446) questioned the validity of this statistic (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1989). Overall, the goodness of fit measures indicated that each CFA on the constructs had an acceptable fit to the data. The next chapter (7) will now present the results of the proposition testing.

CHAPTER 7
RESULTS AND PROPOSITION TESTING

7.1 Introduction

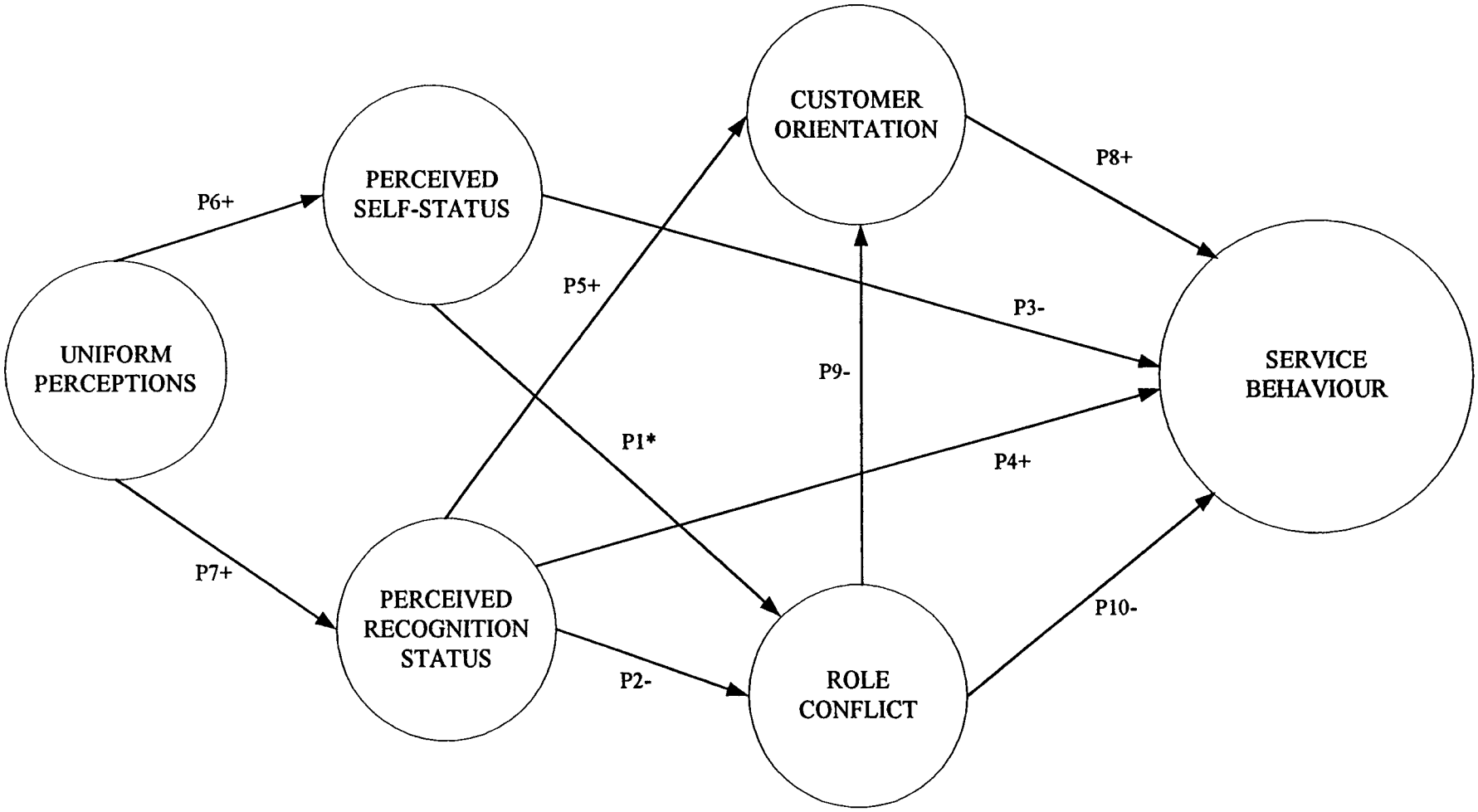
The previous chapter discussed the preliminary results of the analysis. The aim of this chapter is to present the findings of the study, as they relate to the propositions outlined in Chapter 4. To accomplish this objective two forms of analysis will be reported. First, the results of O.L.S. path analysis conducted on the conceptual model will be reported. This will include further investigation of the construct perceived self-status and post-hoc path analysis. Second, the results of structural equation modelling will be reported. Finally, a summary of the findings from the various forms of data analysis will be presented.

7.2 Recursive Path Analysis

A geneticist, Sewall Wright, originally developed path analysis in the early 1920s. The method used regression and correlation to study linear, additive and causal systems of variables where the direction of the causal relationship was already accepted on the basis of genetic theory (Pfaffenberger, 1979). It has often been termed 'causal modelling', although it does not discover causes but rather tests theoretical relationships (Schumacker and Lomax, 1996).

The conceptual model of this research has no feedback loops or reciprocal linkages, hence it is represented as a recursive path model (see Figure 4-2, repeated in this chapter as Figure 7-1). Here, the relationships between constructs are depicted by arrows, with a straight arrow representing a direct relationship between two variables and a curved line indicating a correlation between two variables (Hair et al., 1995). Path analysis assumptions include: 1. A change in one variable is always a linear function of changes in other variables, 2. There are no reciprocal causations or feedback loops, 3. The causal

Figure 7-1 - Conceptual Model



* direction not proposed

relationships are 'undebatable', 4. Dependent variables are uncorrelated with one another, 5. There is a high degree of measurement reliability and validity, and 6. The usual multivarate regression assumptions are met by the data (Pfaffenberger, 1979).

Multicollinearity among independent variables is considered a problem within path analysis as it makes it difficult to ... *make causal inferences since the path estimates can differ dramatically from one sample to another* (Asher, 1983:51). This is not considered a problem in this study due to the low correlations between independent variables as outlined in Section 6.3.4, and the large sample size of this study which reduces the impact of collinearity (Asher, 1983).

The objective of path analysis is to estimate the magnitude of the linkages between variables and then use these estimates to provide information about underlying causal processes. Path analysis specifies the relationships between constructs, then utilises one or more multiple regression analyses to obtain the path coefficients. Simply, estimates of path coefficients are obtained by regressing each endogenous or dependent variable in the model on those variables that directly influence or predict it (Asher, 1983; Hair et al., 1995; Schumacker and Lomax, 1996). The advantages of path analysis over multiple regression include establishment of a causal relationship among independent variables, the specification of relationships among independent variables and the ability to model complex relationships supported by theory (Schumacker and Lomax, 1996). The disadvantages of path analysis include its oversimplification of reality as relationships between variables are depicted as linearly dependent (Pfaffenberger, 1979), the assumption that observed variables are perfectly measured, the propensity to misinterpret path coefficients and the lack of inclusion of interaction effects in many path models (Schumacker and Lomax, 1996).

A key advantage of path analysis over regression is that it allows the researcher to move beyond the estimation of direct effects, which is the basic output of regression analysis. In path analysis, both direct and indirect effects of one variable on another can be estimated. Hence, the total effects of one variable on another may be estimated.

However, it must be remembered that the direction of the linkages between the variables must be specified *a priori* to the numerical estimate of direct and indirect effects (Asher, 1983).

The interpretation of path analysis involves ... *a comparison of the relative magnitudes of the coefficients within the same model and an assertion that a certain change in one variable produces a specified change in another* (Asher, 1983:47). In the path analysis of this study standardised coefficients have been used, as the objective of the thesis is to understand the relative importance of the independent variables (Asher, 1983).

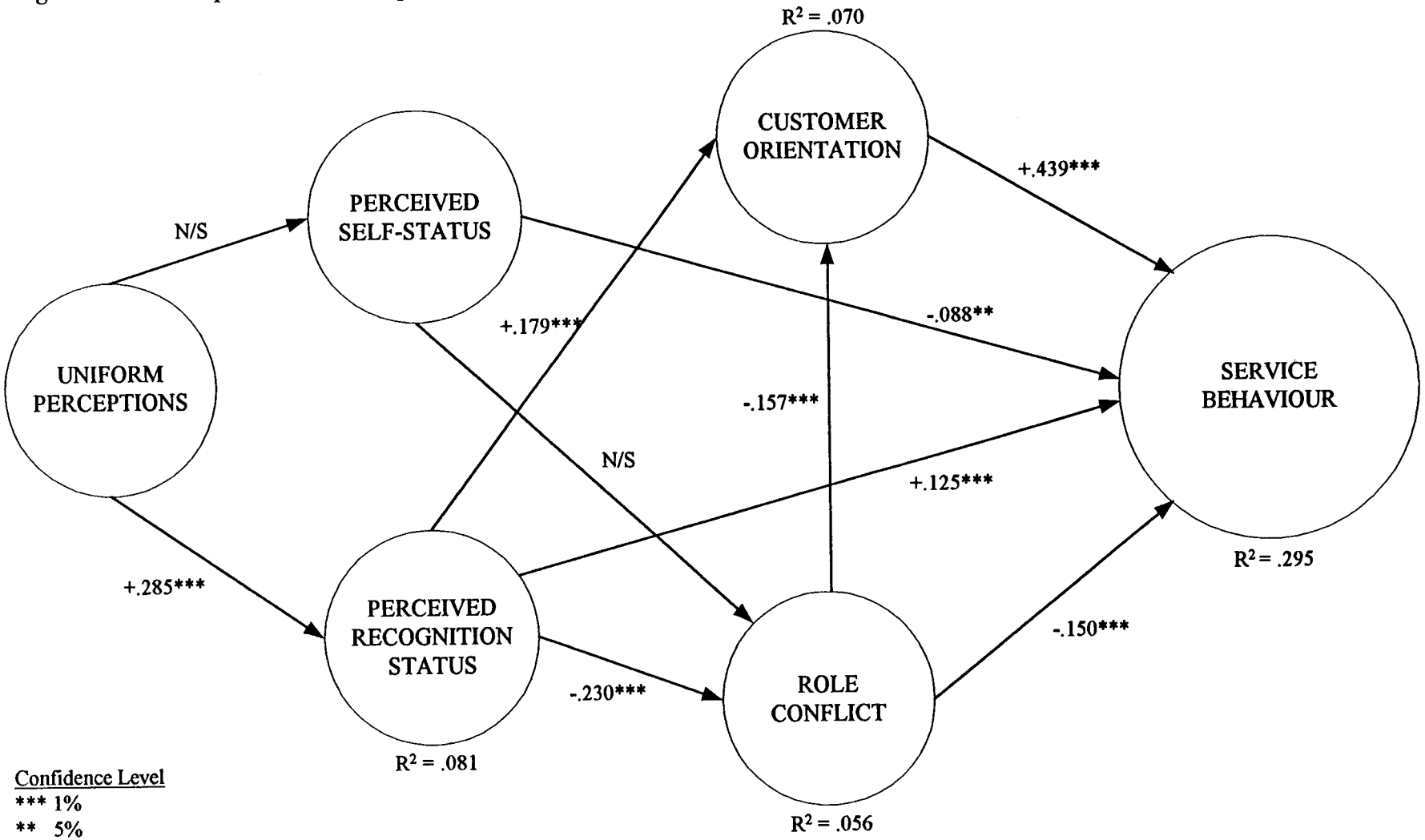
7.2.1 Path model

The conceptual model, as depicted in Figure 7-1, was assessed using procedures for path analysis as advocated by Asher (1983). Therefore, in total five regression equations were estimated to obtain the path coefficients of the model. Results of the full regression models are in Appendix 7A - Table 1, Dependent Variable - Service Behaviour; Table 2, Dependent Variable - Customer Orientation; Table 3, Dependent Variable - Role Conflict; Table 4, Dependent Variable - Perceived Recognition Status; Table 5, Dependent Variable - Perceived Self-Status.

The significant path coefficients are depicted in Figure 7-2, Conceptual Model - Empirical Path Analysis. Only two of the predicted relationships were found to be non-significant; the relationship proposed between perceived self-status and role conflict and the relationship proposed between uniform perceptions and perceived self-status. Of the remaining eight proposed relationships, seven were significant at $p \leq .01$ level and one was significant at the $p \leq .05$ level. The coefficient of determination (R^2) was .29 for the key endogenous variable in the study, service behaviour. Customer orientation and role conflict equations attained an R^2 of .07 and .06 respectively.

When the model was 'trimmed', i.e., the causal linkages found to be statistically insignificant were deleted (Duncan, 1975), and the model was re-run (see Appendix 7A, Table 6, Trimmed model - Dependent Variable - Role Conflict), the coefficients for the

Figure 7-2 - Conceptual Model - Empirical Path Analysis



statistically significant variables were found to be robust with practically no variation in the coefficients (see Figure 7-3, 'Trimmed Model' - Empirical Path Analysis).

7.2.2 Direct and indirect effects

The estimation of the direct and indirect effects between the endogenous and exogenous variables and the final dependent variable service behaviour have been calculated on the 'trimmed' model (see Figure 7-3, 'Trimmed' Model). The indirect effects are calculated using the Simon-Blalock technique which is suited to recursive path analysis (Asher, 1985). The Simon-Blalock technique does not test for direction of causality since theoretical consideration underpins direction (Asher, 1985). The technique involves multiplying the sequential beta coefficients along a given path. The total effects of the variable are the sum of the direct and indirect effects (see Table 7-1, Direct and Indirect Effects on Service Behaviour - Conceptual Model). For example, the indirect path from uniform perceptions to service behaviour is mediated first through perceived recognition status, straight to service behaviour, and through customer orientation to service behaviour. There is also an indirect path through perceived recognition status to role conflict, then through customer orientation to service behaviour, and from role conflict directly to service behaviour: (+.285 x +.125) + (+. 285 x +. 179 x +. 439) + (+. 285 x -. 234 x -. 157 x +. 439) + (+. 285 x -. 234 x -. 150) = +.07262.

Table 7-1 - Direct and Indirect Effects on Service Behaviour - Conceptual Model

Independent Variable	**Direct Effect (1)**	**Indirect Effect (2)**	**Total Effect (1) + (2)**
Customer Orientation	+.439	*np*	+.439
Role Conflict	-.150	-.0689	-.2189
Perceived Self-Status	-.088	*ns*	-.088
Perceived Recognition Status	+.125	+.1298	+.2548
Uniform Perceptions	*np*	+.07262	+.07262

ns not significant, trimmed from theoretical model

np not proposed

Figure 7-3 - 'Trimmed' Conceptual Model - Empirical Path Analysis

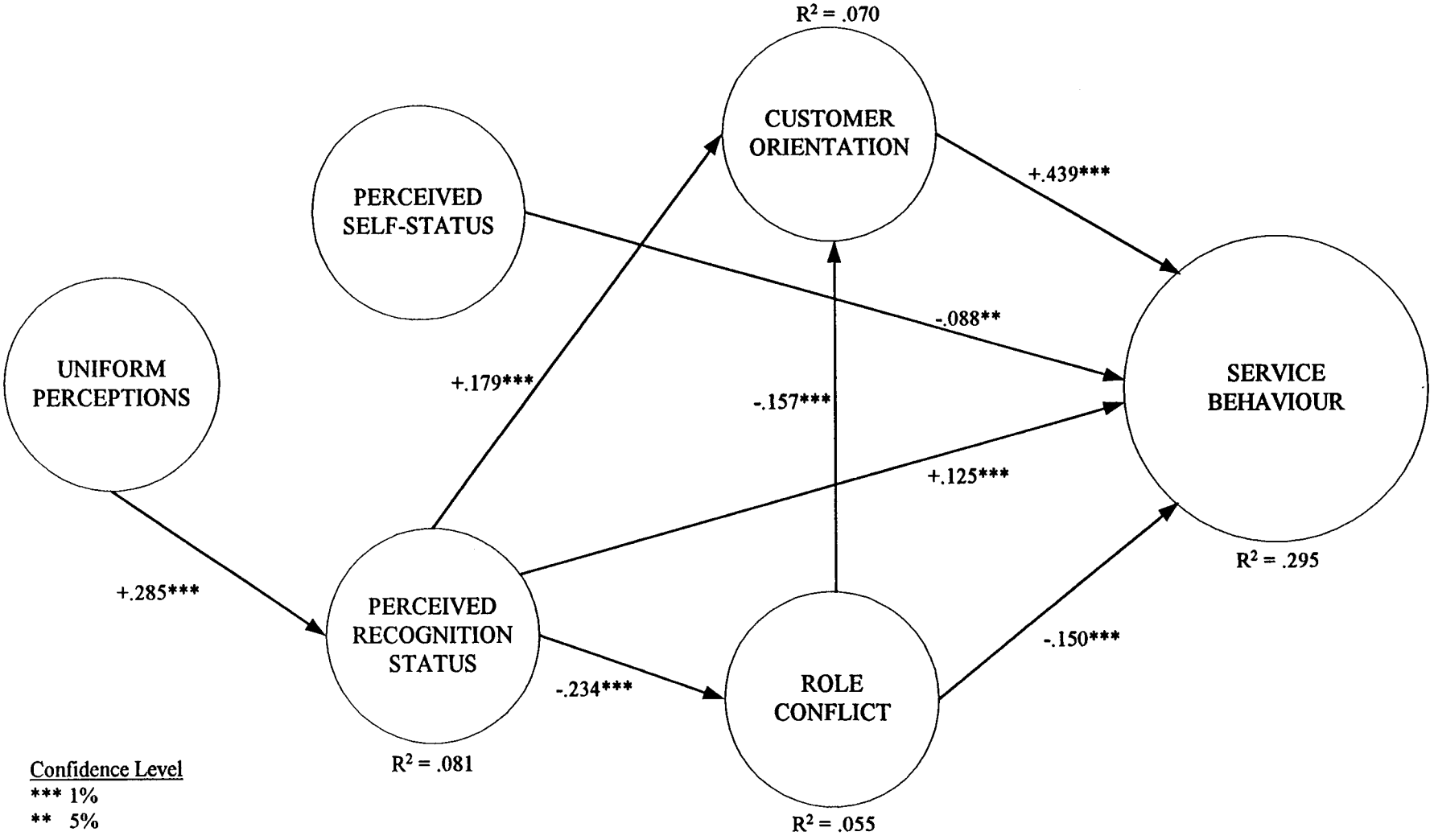


Table 7-1[1] shows that four variables have a direct impact on service behaviour as proposed. These are customer orientation, role conflict, perceived self-status and perceived recognition status. Further, three variables were found to have a significant indirect effect on service behaviour. These are role conflict, perceived recognition status and uniform perceptions. The 'trimmed' model (see Figure 7-3) indicates there was no indirect effect from perceived self-status to service behaviour, although it had been proposed in the conceptual model (see Figure 7-1).

The relative overall importance of each variable in determining service behaviour is depicted in the total effects column in Table 7-1. The results indicate that customer orientation (+.439) has by far the largest effect on service behaviour with role conflict (-.219) and perceived recognition status (+.255) having approximately half the impact. Perceived self-status (-.09) and uniform perceptions (+.07) have a smaller impact on service behaviour. The directionality of the impact is as proposed in Chapter 4.

7.3 Results of Proposition Testing

7.3.1 Proposed relationships between relative status and customer orientation, role conflict, service behaviour and uniform perceptions

7.3.1.1 Relative status and role conflict

Proposition 1

There is a relationship between perceived self-status and role conflict

Reference to the empirical path model (Figure 7-2) shows that the proposed relationship between perceived self-status and role conflict was not supported by the data as the path was not statistically significant (p = .526). Therefore, there is insufficient support for proposition 1 and it is rejected.[2]

---

1 Unless otherwise noted, all tables in this chapter which display direct effects are significant to at least the 5% level.

2 Section 7.5 further investigates the perceived self-status variable and the relationship between perceived self-status and role conflict.

Proposition 2

There is a negative relationship between perceived recognition status and role conflict

The statistically significant ($p \leq .01$) negative path coefficient (-.230) linking perceived recognition status to role conflict in Figure 7-2 (empirical model) and Figure 7-3 (trimmed model) clearly indicates that increasing levels of perceived recognition status among CCP decreases CCP role conflict. Therefore, there is support for proposition 2.

7.3.1.2 Relative status and service behaviour

Proposition 3

There is a negative relationship between perceived self-status and service behaviour

The data indicates that although the path coefficient is only small it is statistically significant at the ($p \leq .05$) level and in the negative direction (-.088) as proposed (see Figure 7-2 or 7-3). This indicates that as the perceived self-status of CCP increases, service behaviour among CCP decreases. Therefore, there is support for proposition 3.

Proposition 4

There is a positive relationship between perceived recognition status and service behaviour

The data indicates that although the positive path coefficient is small (+.125) it is statistically significant at the ($p \leq .01$) level (see Figure 7-2 or 7-3). This indicates that levels of perceived recognition status are positively associated with service behaviour. Therefore, there is support for proposition 4.

7.3.1.3 Relative status and customer orientation

Proposition 5

There is a positive relationship between perceived recognition status and customer orientation

The data indicates that although the positive path coefficient is small (+.179) it is statistically significant at the ($p \leq .01$) level (see Figure 7-2 or 7-3). This indicates that levels of perceived recognition status are positively associated with customer orientation. Therefore, there is support for proposition 5.

7.3.1.4 Relative status and uniform perceptions

Proposition 6

There is a positive relationship between uniform perceptions and perceived self-status among CCP

Reference to the empirical path model (Figure 7-2) shows that the proposed relationship between uniform perceptions and perceived self status was not supported by the data as the path was not statistically significant ($p = .153$). Therefore, there is insufficient support for proposition 6 and it is rejected.

Proposition 7

There is a positive relationship between uniform perceptions and perceived recognition status

The statistically significant ($p \leq .01$) positive path coefficient (+.285) linking uniform perceptions to perceived recognition status clearly indicates that increasing levels of uniform perceptions increase perceived recognition status of CCP (see Figure 7-2 or 7-3). Therefore, there is support for proposition 7.

7.3.1.5 Customer orientation and service behaviour

Proposition 8

There is a positive relationship between customer orientation and service behaviour

The large and statistically significant ($p \leq .01$) positive path coefficient (+.439) clearly indicates that high levels of customer orientation among CCP are positively related to service behaviour among CCP (see Figure 7-2 or 7-3). Therefore, there is support for proposition 8.

7.3.1.6 Role conflict and customer orientation

Proposition 9

There is a negative relationship between role conflict and customer orientation

The data indicates that although the negative path coefficient is small (-.157) it is statistically significant at the ($p \leq .01$) level. This indicates that levels of role conflict are negatively associated with customer orientation (see Figure 7-2 or 7-3). Therefore, there is support for proposition 9.

7.3.1.7 Role conflict and service behaviour

Proposition 10

There is a negative relationship between role conflict and service behaviour

The data indicates that although the negative path coefficient is small (-.150) it is statistically significant at the ($p \leq .01$) level. This indicates that levels of role conflict are negatively associated with service behaviour (see Figure 7-2 or 7-3). Therefore, there is support for proposition 10.

7.4 Summary of Proposition Testing - Conceptual Model - Empirical Path Analysis

In summary, of the ten propositions advanced in Chapter 4, eight were fully supported and two were rejected due to insufficient supporting evidence. Overall, these results support the proposition that the service behaviour of CCP is influenced by role conflict, customer orientation, aspects of relative status and uniform perceptions, either directly or indirectly. Issues concerning the implications of these findings will be discussed in Chapter 8.

The unexpected, non-significant relationship found between perceived self-status and role conflict, which represents the essence of Shamir's (1980) discussion, suggests further investigation of the data may be beneficial. This is undertaken in the next section where the moderating influence of perceived self-status is assessed.

7.5 The Moderating Effect of Perceived Self Status

Due to concern that proposition 1 (There is a relationship between perceived self-status and role conflict) was unsupported in the path analysis and that this relationship was the cornerstone of Shamir's (1980) discussion, it was considered appropriate that further investigation of perceived self-status was undertaken, given:

1. The possibility that perceived self-status may have a moderating effect since the perspective that CCP have of their own status relative to their customer, may initiate very different scenarios (see Section 3.2.1.1 for an explanation of the scenarios), although this was not apparent in the discussion of Shamir (1980).
2. Due to the different perspectives CCP may hold concerning status, it is possible that CCP may enter into the service encounter thinking they are: A. superior to their customer, B. equivalent to their customer, or C. Inferior to their customer.[3]

---

[3] The score for perceived self-status involved the addition of three 'relative' calculations. The calculation of the 'relative' component was the CCP score for the perception of their own status, less the CCP score for the perception of their customers' status. This was calculated for the three classes of travel, first, business and economy. Therefore, final negative scores meant

3. The pairwise correlations analysis in the validity discussion presented in Section 6.3.4.2 found no significant correlation between perceived self-status and three variables, role conflict, uniform perceptions and service behaviour, which were all proposed relationships in the study. This may have reflected an underlying issue concerning perceived self-status that had not been fully explored.

As a result of these inconsistencies, further analysis of the variable perceived self-status was undertaken. Issues of interest included:

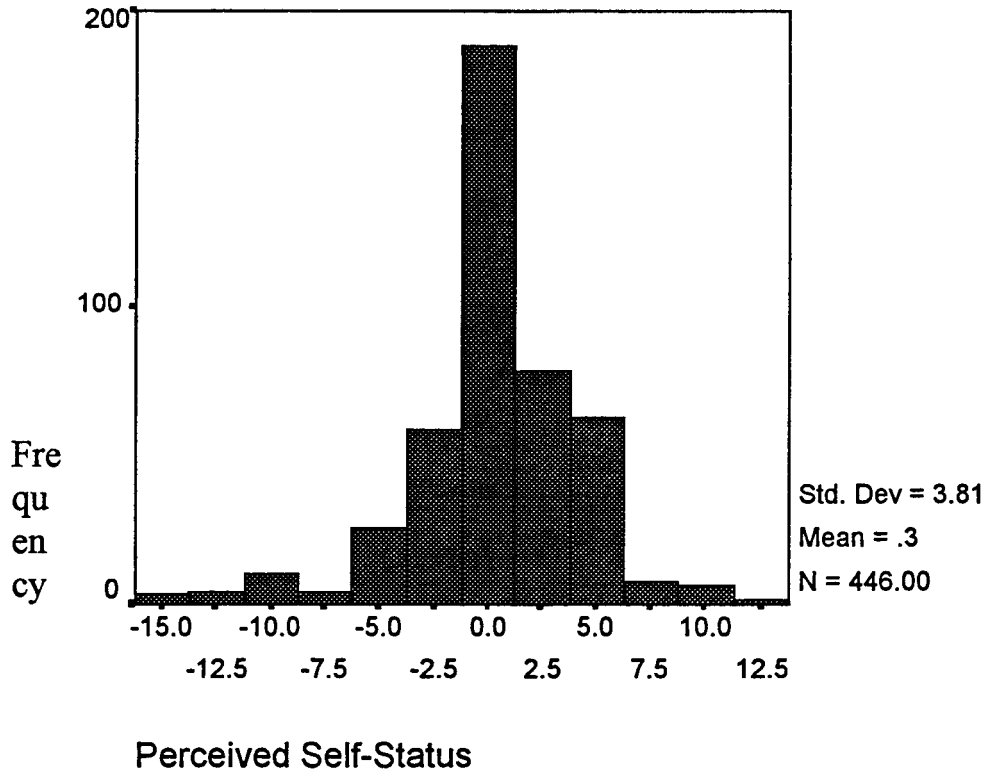
1. The mean was .3049 with a standard deviation of 3.81. As equality was represented by 0, this meant that on average the respondents perceived themselves as slightly 'superior' to their customers (see Figure 7-4, Histogram of Perceived Self-Status).
2. 26% of respondents considered themselves equal in status to their customers (score = 0).
3. 31% of respondents considered themselves to hold less status than their customers (score range = -15 < 0).
4. 43% of respondents considered themselves to hold more status than their customers (score range = 0 > +12). Refer to Table 6-7, Frequency Chart of Perceived Self-status in Chapter 6.

Of further consideration is the Ritz-Carlton credo 'We are ladies and gentlemen serving ladies and gentlemen', which suggests that status equality between customers and CCP is the preferred option for superior service. Hence, the Ritz-Carlton service philosophy would appear to be the complete opposite of Shamir's proposition, since it is not considered that management would actively support behaviour that would encourage role conflict in their employees.

---

respondents considered they held less status than their customers. Scores of zero meant respondents considered themselves equal to their customers. Positive scores meant respondents considered they held more status than their customers.

Figure 7-4 - Histogram of Perceived Self-Status



Therefore, it was decided that the sample respondents should be analysed as separate groups, dependent on their perceived self-status perspective. Two groups were established: those that considered themselves to hold less than or equal status to their customers were termed 'not superior' (n = 254) and those that considered themselves to hold higher status than their customers were termed 'superior' (n = 192).[4] The path analysis of these two groups will now be reported.

7.5.1 Path analysis of 'not superior' and 'superior' respondents

After the sample had been split into two subsamples, 'superior' and 'not superior', they were each assessed using procedures for path analysis (Asher, 1983). Therefore, another five regression equations were estimated for each of the subsamples, to obtain the path

---

[4] Although these numbers (254 and 192) represent the same sample sizes as the Longhaul and Shorthaul divisions, this is not the variable differentiating perceived self-status among the respondents. 55% from Longhaul and 45% from Shorthaul represent the 'superior' group, with 59% from Longhaul and 41% from Shorthaul representing the 'not superior' group.

coefficients for each of the models. Results of these regression models are in Appendix 7B (Tables 1-12).[5] The path models are displayed as Figure 7-5, Path Analysis, 'Not Superior' Respondents and Figure 7-6, Path Analysis, 'Superior' respondents. In each example the 'trimmed' model has been displayed.

The key difference between the two path models is considered to be the significant, yet directionally different relationships between perceived self-status and role conflict. While evident in the 'superior' and 'not superior' models, this relationship was non-significant in the full model. The 'not superior' model (see Figure 7-8) describes a negative relationship between perceived self-status and role conflict, whereas the 'superior' model (see Figure 7-9) indicates there is a positive relationship between perceived self-status and role conflict.

In the 'not superior' sample this suggests that when CCP perception of status moves from a less than or equal position, towards equality with their customers, their role conflict diminishes. This creates a positive total effect from perceived self-status on service behaviour (see Table 7-2, Direct and Indirect Effects on Service Behaviour among 'Not Superior' Respondents).[6]

By comparison, the 'superior' model describes a positive relationship between perceived self-status and role conflict. As CCP who consider themselves superior to their customers increase this superior perception, their role conflict increases. This makes sense intuitively. When one considers themself to be 'beyond' or 'above' a servile position, they will experience increased conflict as a result of the difference in their self - perception and their role. In turn, this will influence indirectly their service behaviour (see Table 7-3, Direct and Indirect Effects on Service Behaviour among 'Superior' Respondents). In this instance, total effects from perceived self-status on service behaviour are negative. These are the mirror results of the 'not superior' model.

---

5 This includes the 'trimmed model' equations.

6 The 'trimmed' model has been used for the calculation of Direct and Indirect effects for the 'not superior' and 'superior' groups.

Figure 7-5 - Path Analysis 'Not Superior' - Respondents - Trimmed Model

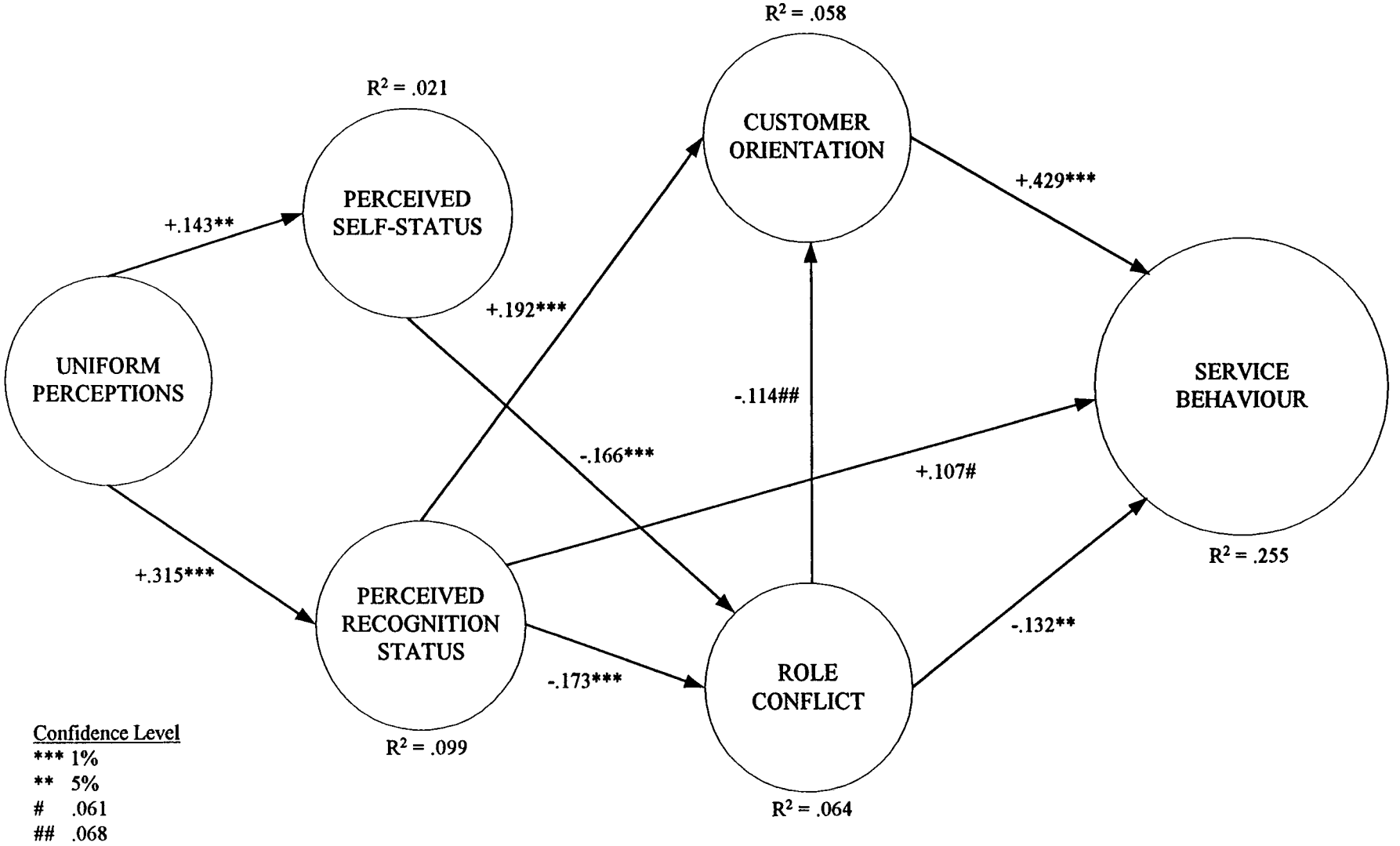


Figure 7-6 - Path Analysis 'Superior' - Respondents - Trimmed Model

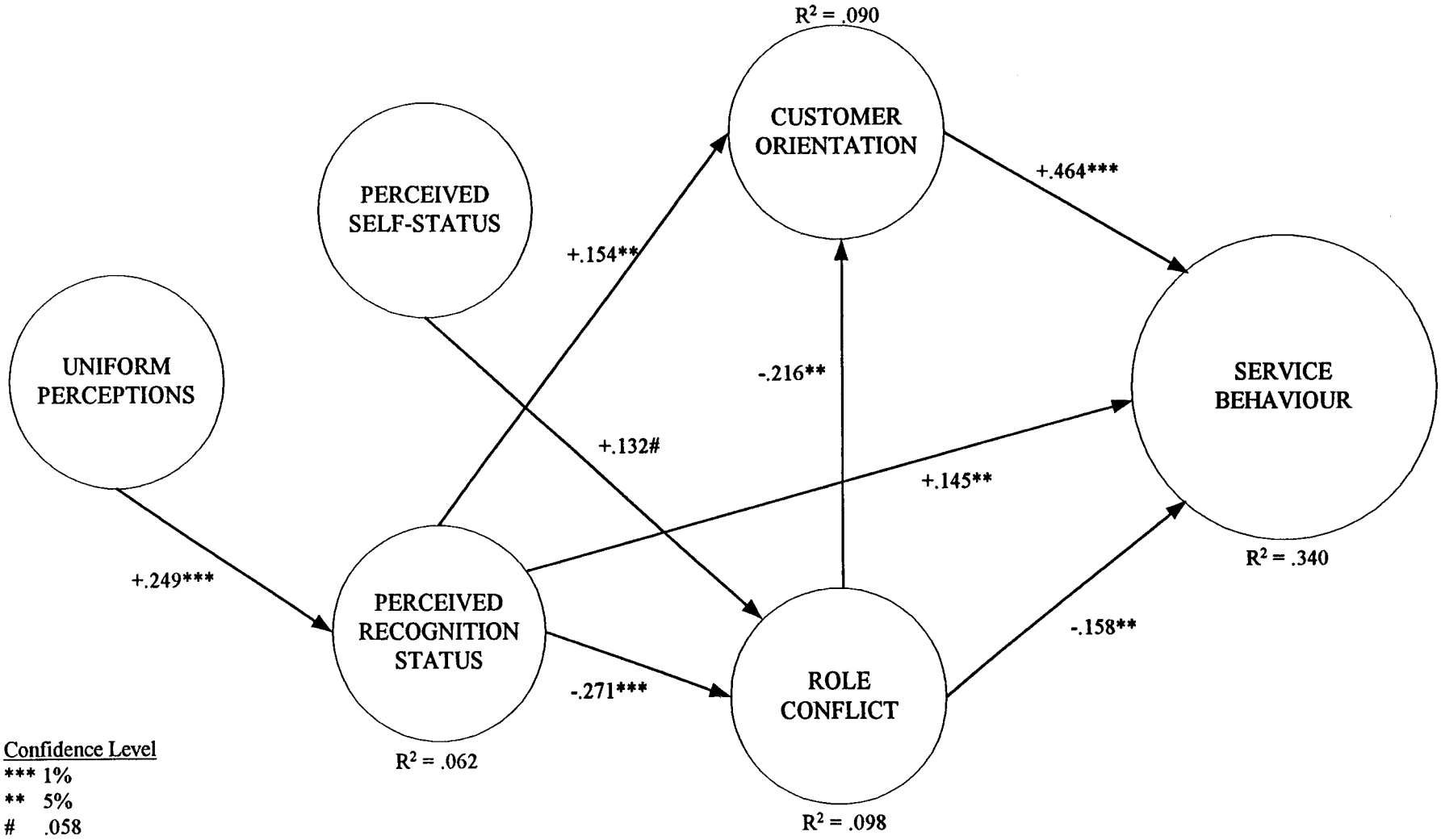


*Table 7-2 - Direct and Indirect Effects on Service Behaviour - **Not Superior** Respondents*

Independent Variable	**Direct Effect (1)**	**Indirect Effect (2)**	**Total Effect (1) + (2)**
Customer Orientation	+.429	*np*	+.429
Role Conflict	-.132	-.0489	-.1809
Perceived Self-Status	*ns*	+.03003	+ .03003
Perceived Recognition Status	+.107*	+.11366	+.22066
Uniform Perceptions	*np*	+.0738	+.0738

ns not significant

np not proposed *p = .061

*Table 7-3 - Direct and Indirect Effects on Service Behaviour - **Superior** Respondents*

Independent Variable	**Direct Effect (1)**	**Indirect Effect (2)**	**Total Effect (1) + (2)**
Customer Orientation	+.464	*np*	+.464
Role Conflict	-.158	-.10022	-.25822
Perceived Self-Status	*ns*	-.03408	-.03408
Perceived Recognition Status	+.145	+.1414	+.28643
Uniform Perceptions	*np*	+.07132	+.07132

ns not significant

np not proposed

These findings indicate that role conflict decreases in the 'not superior' group, from an increase in perceived self-status and in the 'superior' group, from a decrease in perceived self-status. Further, these findings are in accord with the Ritz - Carlton credo,[7] i.e.,

[7] *We are Ladies and Gentlemen serving Ladies and Gentlemen*

management strategy that supports the notion that status equality between CCP and customer eventuates in better service outcomes.

However, these findings do not support Shamir's propositions. Whereas Shamir suggested the more equal the status of the parties, the greater the role conflict, these findings indicate the direct opposite; the more equal the status of the parties, the less the role conflict.

Another difference between the two split samples was the significant relationship identified between uniform perceptions and perceived self-status in the 'not superior' sample (see Figure 7-8) which was not achieved in the 'superior' sample (see Figure 7-9). While this relationship had been proposed in the full model it had not been supported. The positive relationship means that as CCP perceive their uniform more highly, they correspondingly perceive their status more highly, i.e., their uniform can make them feel good about themselves. Apparently, this is the case for the 'not superior' group, but not their 'superior' counterparts.

In summary, it is considered that the analysis available from the original full data model compared to the analysis available from the 'not superior' and the 'superior' groups, offers improved management diagnostics over the original full data model. A comparison of the total effect (see Tables 7-2, 7-3) on service behaviour between the 'not superior' and the 'superior' respondents includes:

1. Customer orientation has a similar positive effect in both groups.
2. Role conflict has a greater negative effect among the 'superior' respondents.
3. Perceived self-status has a negative effect among 'superior' respondents, compared to a positive effect among 'not superior' respondents.
4. Perceived recognition status has a similar positive effect in both groups.
5. Uniform perceptions have a similar positive effect in both groups on perceived recognition status.
6. Uniform perceptions has a significant positive effect on perceived self-status in the 'not superior' group but not in the 'superior' group.

7.6 Post-Hoc Path Analysis

In order to add richness to the findings of the study and to give greater management diagnostics, an alternative path model was estimated that divided service behaviour into two dimensions, positive service behaviour and negative service behaviour (see Figure 7-7, Post-Hoc Path Analysis - Full Model). Positive service behaviour included the dimension 'customer action', while negative service behaviour included the dimensions of 'supervisor retaliation', 'team support', 'customer annoyance' and 'artful endeavour'.

Additionally, the 'not superior' and 'superior' path models were also adjusted to incorporate the two constructs for service behaviour. These path models are shown as Figure 7-8, Post-Hoc Path Analysis - 'not superior' respondents and Figure 7-9, Post-Hoc Path Analysis - 'superior' respondents. For each of the three models, the 'trimmed' model is represented graphically. Results of the additional regression models for each of the three 'trimmed' path models can be found in Appendix 7C (Tables 1 - 6).

7.6.1 Comparison of post-hoc path models

First, a comparison of the earlier conceptual path models to the post-hoc path models indicates that perceived self-status had a similar influence in the post-hoc models and the earlier path models, dependent on its inclusion in the complete data model or the split data of 'superior' and 'not superior'.

In the complete data models, perceived self-status had a significant direct effect on service behaviour (see Figure 7-3) in the conceptual model, and on negative service behaviour but not positive service behaviour in the post-hoc model (see Figure 7-7). Further, perceived self-status also had a non-significant effect on role conflict in both the conceptual and post-hoc models (see Figures 7-3, 7-7).

However, in the 'superior' and 'not superior' samples, in both the conceptual and post-hoc models, perceived self-status had a non-significant direct effect on both positive and

negative service behaviour, yet a significant direct effect on role conflict (see Figures 7-8, 7-9).

Second, a comparison of the direct and indirect effects of each of the post-hoc path models[8] suggests, similar to the conceptual path models presented earlier, that the split models, i.e., 'superior' and 'not superior', offer greater insight to the influence of perceived self-status on the service behaviour of CCP and hence better managerial information. This includes:

1. In the post-hoc complete data model (see Figure 7-7), the positive direct relationship of perceived self-status to negative service behaviour indicates that when perceived self-status increases, negative service behaviour increases. However, it is considered that the total effects of the split models offer more information, even though there are no direct effects with service behaviour, dependent on whether the respondent is from the 'superior' or 'not superior' group. In the split models, respondents from the 'superior' group increase their negative service behaviour, indirectly through role conflict, as their perceived self-status increases, i.e., as their superior perception increases (see Figure 7-9 and Table 7-8). However, respondents from the 'not superior' group will decrease their negative service behaviour, indirectly through role conflict, as their perceived self-status increases, i.e., moves to equality with the customers (see Figure 7-8 and Table 7-6).

---

[8] See Table 7-4, Direct and Indirect Effects of Post-Hoc Path Analysis on Negative Service Behaviour
Table 7-5, Direct and Indirect Effects of Post-Hoc Path Analysis on Positive Service Behaviour
Table 7-6, Direct and Indirect Effects of Post-Hoc Path Analysis on Negative Service Behaviour of 'not superior' respondents
Table 7-7, Direct and Indirect Effects of Post-Hoc Path Analysis on Positive Service Behaviour of 'not superior' respondents
Table 7-8, Direct and Indirect Effects of Post-Hoc Path Analysis on Negative Service Behaviour of 'superior' respondents
Table 7-9, Direct and Indirect Effects of Post-Hoc Path Analysis on Positive Service Behaviour of 'superior' respondents

Figure 7-7 - Post-Hoc Path Analysis - Full Model - 'Trimmed'

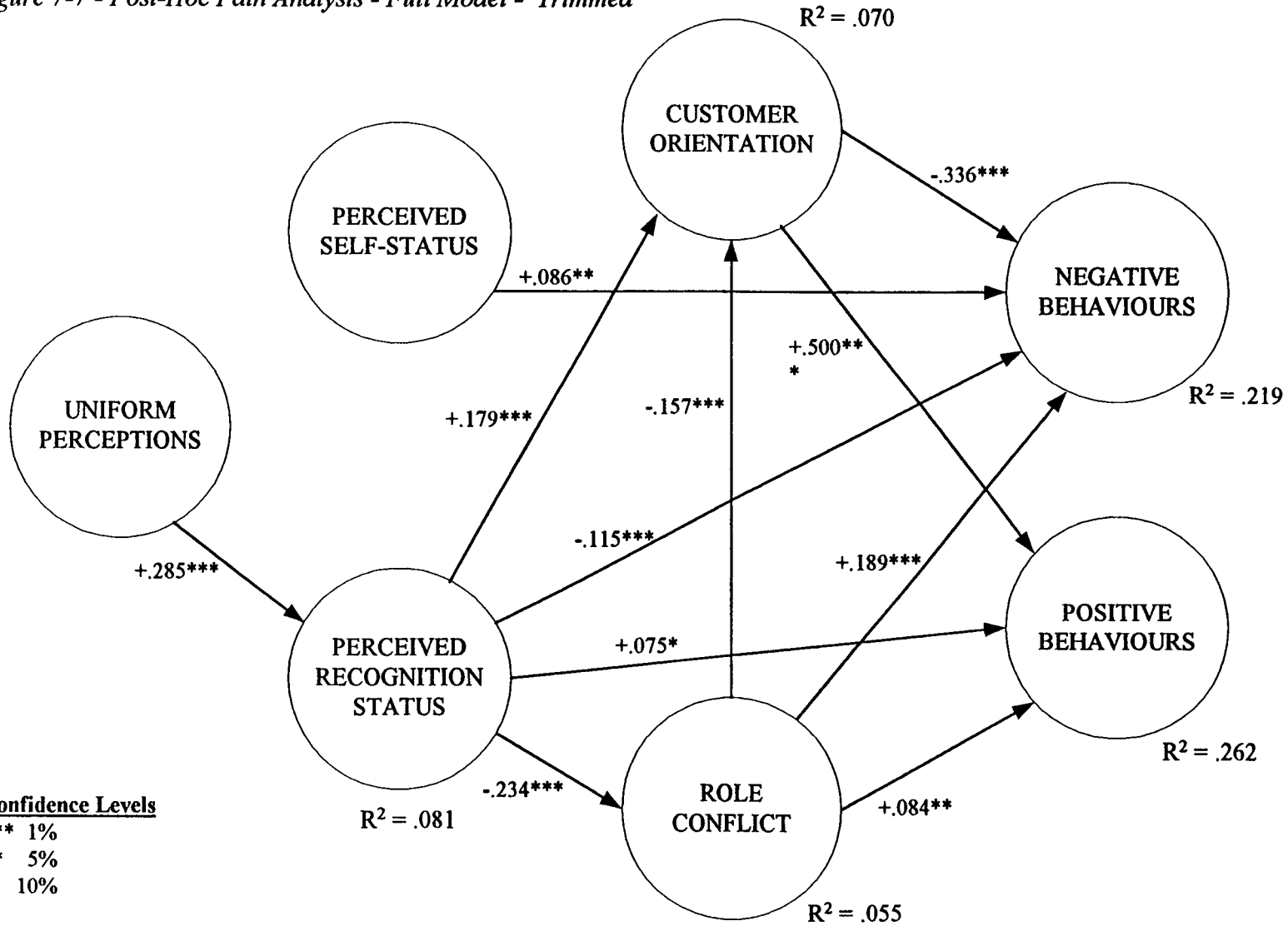


Figure 7-8 - Post-Hoc Path Analysis - 'Not Superior' Respondents - 'Trimmed' Model

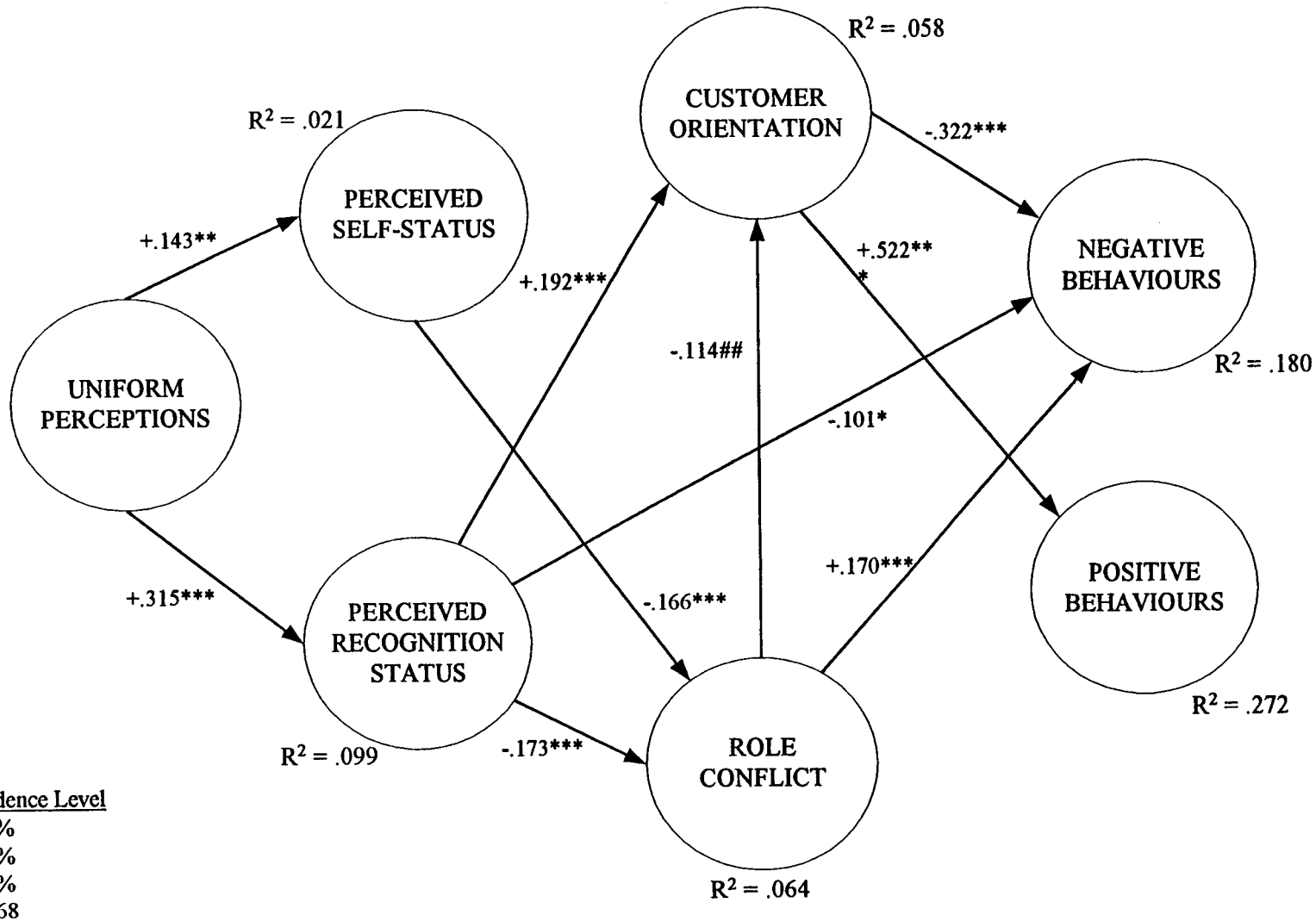


Figure 7-9 - Post-Hoc Path Analysis - 'Superior' Respondents - 'Trimmed' Model

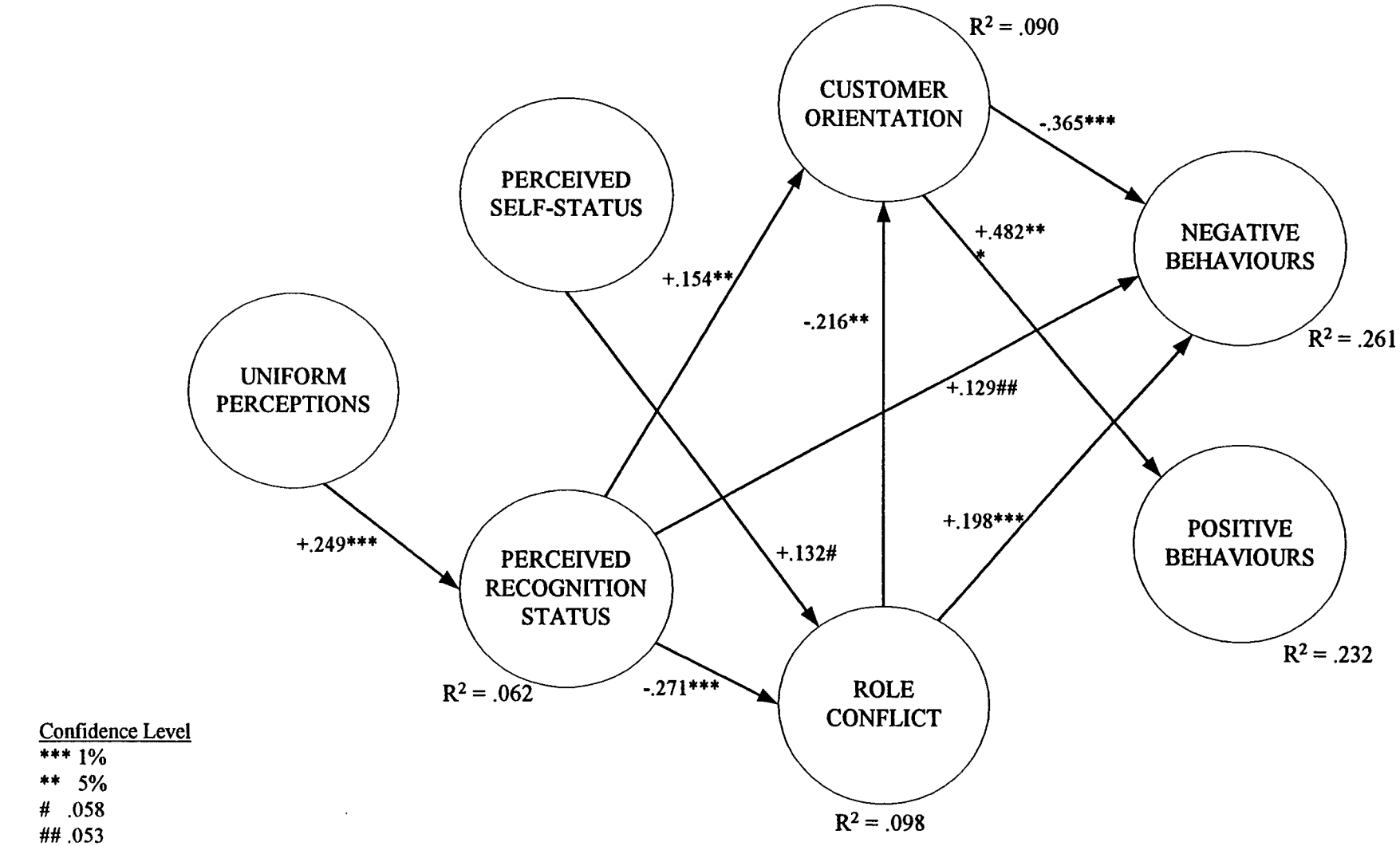


Table 7-4 - Direct and Indirect Effects of Post-Hoc Path Analysis on Negative Service Behaviour

Independent Variable	Direct Effect (1)	Indirect Effect (2)	Total Effect (1) + (2)
Customer Orientation	-.336	*np*	-.336
Role Conflict	+.189	+.0527	+.242
Perceived Self-Status	+.086	*ns*	+.086
Perc'd Recognition Status	-.115	-.1167	-.2317
Uniform Perceptions	*np*	-.0662	-.0662

ns not significant

np not proposed

Table 7-5 - Direct and Indirect Effects of Post-Hoc Path Analysis on Positive Service Behaviour.

Independent Variable	Direct Effect (1)	Indirect Effect (2)	Total Effect (1) + (2)
Customer Orientation	+.500	*np*	+.500
Role Conflict	+.084	-.0785	+.005
Perceived Self-Status	*ns*	*ns*	*ns*
Perc'd Recognition Status	+.075*	+.0882	+.1632
Uniform Perceptions	*np*	+.0465	+.0465

ns not significant

np not proposed

* Confidence level = 10%

2. In the post-hoc complete data model, perceived self-status has no effect on positive service behaviour (see Figure 7-7 and Table 7-5). In the split models, perceived self-status has a negative indirect effect (through role conflict and customer orientation) on positive service behaviour among the 'superior' group, i.e., as their superior perception increases their positive service behaviour decreases (see Figure 7-9 and Table 7-9). Compared to a positive indirect effect

(through role conflict and customer orientation) on positive service behaviour among the 'not superior' group, i.e., as their perceived self-status moves to equality with their customers, their positive service behaviour increases (see Figure 7-8 and Table 7-7).

Table 7-6 - Direct and Indirect Effects of Post-Hoc Path Analysis on Negative Service Behaviour - 'Not Superior' Respondents

Independent Variable	Direct Effect (1)	Indirect Effect (2)	Total Effect (1) + (2)
Customer Orientation	-.322	*np*	-.322
Role Conflict	+.170	+.0367	+.2067
Perceived Self-Status	ns	-.0343	-.0343
Perceived Recognition Status	-.101*	-.09758	-.19858
Uniform Perceptions	*np*	-.6746	-.06746

ns not significant *np* not proposed

* Confidence level = 10%

Third, a comparison of the direct and indirect effects of each of the three post-hoc models concerning the influence of role conflict once more suggests the split models, i.e., 'superior' and 'not superior', offer greater insight for management. In the complete data models (see Tables 7-4, 7-5), role conflict has a positive total effect on both positive and negative service behaviour. This is not consistent with the prior effects of role conflict in the initial conceptual model (see Table 7-1) nor is it expected.[9]

However, in both of the split models, role conflict has a different effect on each of positive and negative service behaviour. When role conflict increases, negative service behaviour increases through a direct and indirect effect (see Tables 7-6, 7-8).

[9] This is discussed later.

Conversely, when role conflict increases, positive service behaviour decreases through an indirect effect (see Tables 7-7, 7-9).

Table 7-7 - Direct and Indirect Effects of Post-Hoc Path Analysis on Positive Service Behaviour - 'Not Superior' Respondents

Independent Variable	Direct Effect (1)	Indirect Effect (2)	Total Effect (1) + (2)
Customer Orientation	+.522	*np*	+.522
Role Conflict	*ns*	-.0595	-.0595
Perceived Self-Status	*ns*	+.00987	+.00987
Perc'd Recognition Status	ns	+.11051	+.11051
Uniform Perceptions	*np*	+.03622	+.03622

ns not significant

np not proposed

Table 7-8 - Direct and Indirect Effects of Post-Hoc Path Analysis on Negative Service Behaviour - 'Superior' Respondents

Independent Variable	Direct Effect (1)	Indirect Effect (2)	Total Effect (1) + (2)
Customer Orientation	-.365	*np*	-.365
Role Conflict	+.198	+.0788	+.2768
Perceived Self-Status	*ns*	+.03654	+.03654
Perc'd Recognition Status	-.129*	-.13123	-.26023
Uniform Perceptions	*np*	-.0005	-.0005

ns not significant

np not proposed * p = .053

Table 7-9 - Direct and Indirect Effects of Post-Hoc Path Analysis on Positive Service Behaviour - 'Superior' Respondents

Independent Variable	Direct Effect (1)	Indirect Effect (2)	Total Effect (1) + (2)
Customer Orientation	+.482	*np*	+.482
Role Conflict	*ns*	-.1041	-.1041
Perceived Self-Status	*ns*	-.01374	-.01374
Perc'd Recognition Status	*ns*	+.10244	+.10244
Uniform Perceptions	*np*	+.02551	+.02551

ns not significant

np not proposed

Finally, review of the three post-hoc models also supports:

1. The strong effect of customer orientation on both positive and negative service behaviour, i.e., when customer orientation increases, negative service behaviour decreases and positive service behaviour increases.
2. The total effect of perceived recognition status on both positive and negative service behaviour, i.e., when perceived recognition status increases, negative service behaviour decreases and positive service behaviour increases.
3. The total effect of uniform perceptions on both positive and negative service behaviour, i.e., when uniform perceptions increase, negative service behaviour decreases and positive service behaviour increases.

In summary, the post-hoc path analysis which separates service behaviour into two constructs, positive service behaviour and negative service behaviour, offers increased diagnostics for management interpretation. Further, splitting the data between 'not superior' and 'superior' respondents offers further management insight. Management implications will be discussed in Chapter 8. The next section will now discuss the analysis of the data utilising structural equation modelling techniques.

7.7 Structural Equation Modelling

The aim of structural equation modelling (SEM) is to ... *explain the structure or pattern among a set of latent (i.e. unobserved or theoretical) variables, each measured by one or more manifest (i.e. observed or empirical) and typically fallible indicators* (Diamantopoulos, 1994:105). SEM is differentiated from path analysis models as it uses latent variables instead of manifest variables and is composed of two models, that together ... *resolve the problem of single observed variables and their related measurement error in path analysis* (Schumacker and Lomax, 1996:55). First, the measurement model describes how the latent variables are operationalised via the manifest variables. This is the model that enables confirmatory factor analysis to be undertaken, as reported in Chapter 6. Second, the structural model specifies the relationships between the latent variables.

SEM takes account of measurement error in order to provide more accurate estimates of the proposed relationships within the model (Hair et al., 1996). However, SEM requires substantive theory to support the causal relationships (Diamantopoulos, 1994; Schumacker and Lomax, 1996; Hair et al., 1995). The path diagram forms the basis for the specification of the relationships in the SEM as it represents the latent variables and pathways to be estimated. The measurement model then specifies the indicators of each latent construct. The proposed relationships in SEM are estimated by a series of simultaneous interdependent multiple regression equations (Hair et al., 1995).

7.7.1 SEM analysis

As indicated at the beginning of this chapter, a second form of analysis, i.e., SEM, was undertaken to test the propositions developed in Chapter 4 and already tested utilising path analysis. Accordingly, a model utilising the initial conceptual model (see Figure 7-1) was used as the starting point for SEM, thereby representing the structural model of the SEM. Then, the measurement model was added which represents the indicators used for measuring the latent variables. This resulted in a SEM diagram as displayed in

Figure 7-10, SEM based on theoretical model 7-1. The SEM analysis was undertaken using the AMOS structural equation modelling program (Arbuckle, 1997) using the Maximum Likelihood procedure for estimation. This program was outlined in the previous chapter's discussion on confirmatory factor analysis.

The analysis of this SEM model, while producing an adequate goodness-of-fit measure[10] (GFI - .907), indicated that several of the path coefficients were not significant. In particular, the key endogenous variable service behaviour had several non-significant paths leading to it. Subsequently, in order to find a suitable model for the data the post-hoc path model (see Figure 7-7), which separated service behaviour into two constructs, positive service behaviour and negative service behaviour, was used as the basis for another SEM.

7.7.2 SEM results

After several iterations an acceptable model was found to fit the data (see Figure 7-11, SEM Complete Data). While the chi-square was significant, comments concerning the validity of this statistic when respondent numbers are large (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1989; Tanaka, 1987), meant that alternate goodness-of-fit measures were considered. The overall fit of the model was acceptable with a GFI of .918. Three additional measures fell just short of the .90 criterion - AGFI (.888), CFI (.889) and TLI (.865). The RMSR was the least acceptable at .948. The standardised regression weights were all significant, although three were at the 10% level[11]. All other t values ranged between 2.262 and 7.920 (see Table 7-10, SEM path coefficients and t values).

Additionally, the split samples of 'not superior' and 'superior' were analysed using SEM. The 'trimmed' post-hoc path models for the split samples (i.e., Figures 7-8, 7-9) were

---

10 Chapter 6 discussed the issues of sample size in SEM and goodness-of-fit measures.

11 Relationship between Role Conflict and Customer Orientation - t value = -1.891
Relationship between Perceived Self Status and Negative Service Behaviour - t value = +1.927
Relationship between Role Conflict and Positive Service Behaviour - t value = +1.860

used as the basis for each of the additional SEM (see Figure 7-12, SEM 'not superior' respondents and Figure 7-13, SEM 'superior' respondents).

Table 7-10 - SEM Path coefficients and t values

Parameter	co-eff	t value
customer orientation → negative service behaviour	-.50	-4.858
perceived self-status → negative service behaviour	+.10	+1.927
role conflict → negative service behaviour	+.31	+2.114
perceived recognition status → negative service behaviour	*ns*	
role conflict → positive service behaviour	+.21	+1.860
customer orientation → positive service behaviour	+.69	+7.920
perceived recognition status → positive service behaviour	*ns*	
perceived self-status → positive service behaviour	*ns*	
role conflict → customer orientation	-.32	-1.891
perceived recognition status → customer orientation	+.17	+2.262
perceived recognition status → role conflict	-.35	-4.910
perceived self-status → role conflict	*ns*	
uniform perceptions →perceived recognition status	+.32	+6.060
uniform perceptions →perceived self status	*ns*	

ns not significant, eliminated in SEM

The SEM for the split samples supported a moderately acceptable fit to the data. The SEM for the complete data represented the best overall fit (see Table 7-11, Comparison of SEM Goodness of fit measures for 'not superior', 'superior' and complete data).

A comparison between the complete data SEM and the split sample SEM shows some clear differences. Whereas t values in the complete data SEM ranged upwards from +1.860, the standardised regression weights

Figure 7-10 - SEM based on theoretical model 7-1

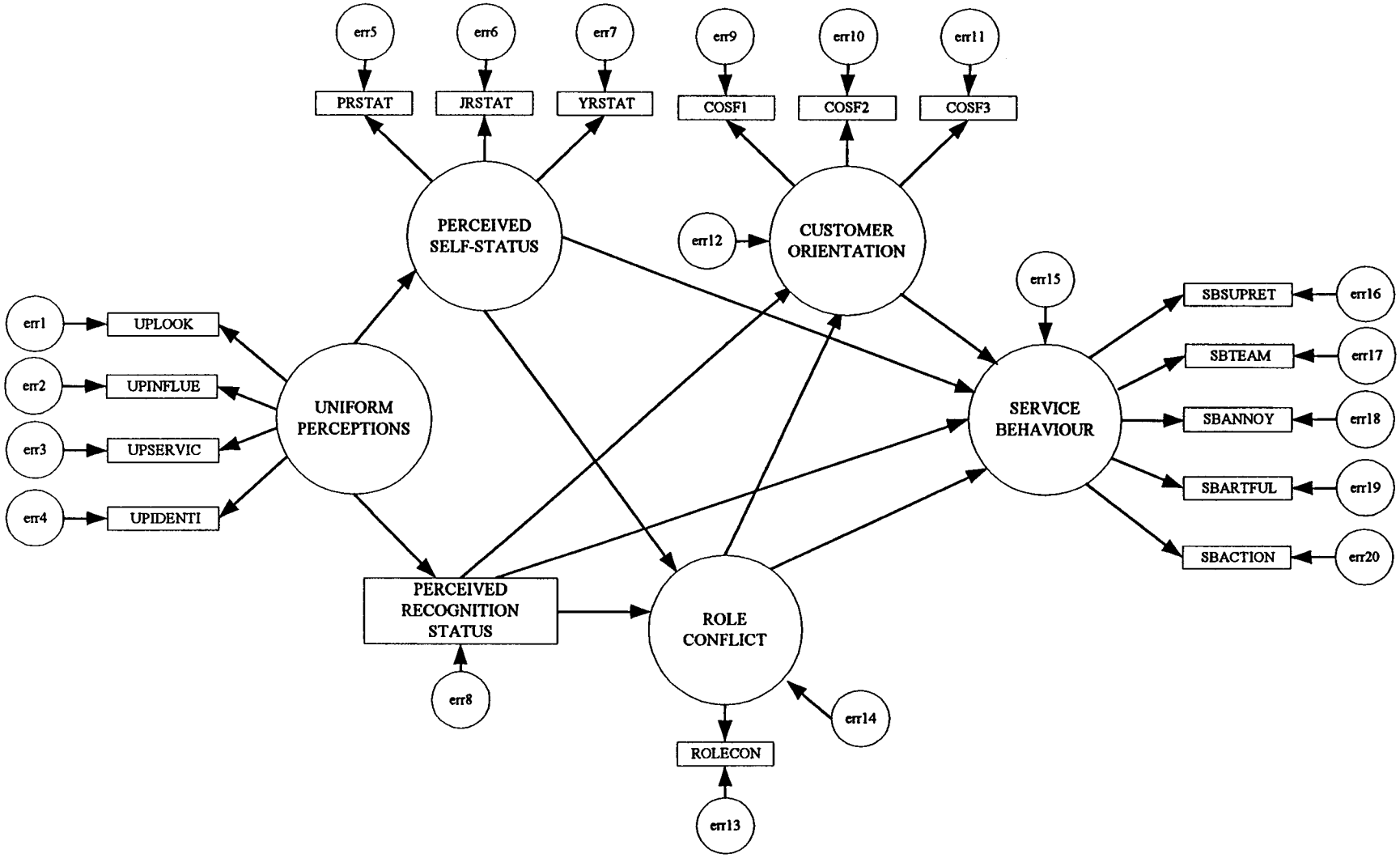
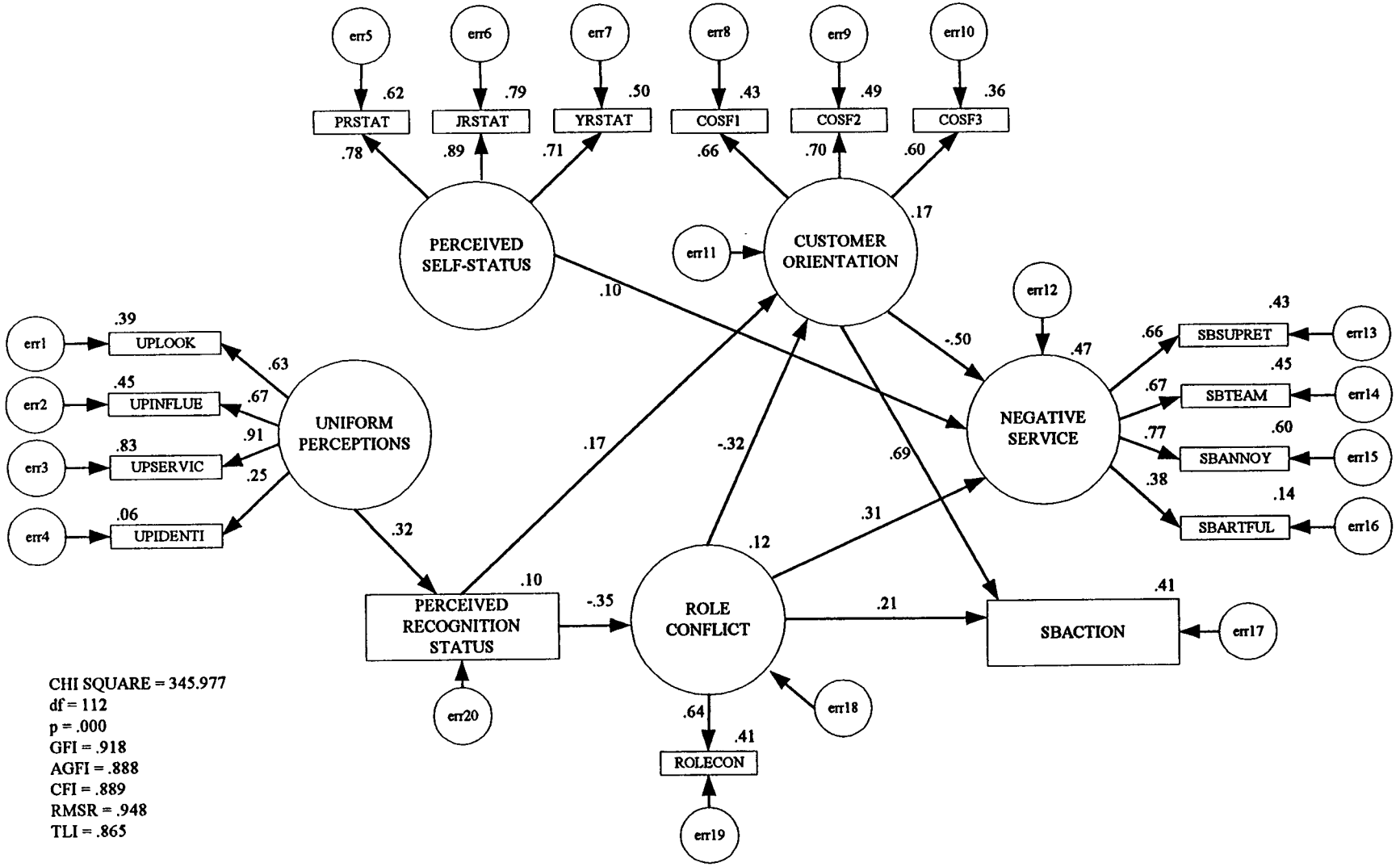


Figure 7-11 - SEM - Complete Data



were not all significant in the 'not superior' and 'superior' SEM[12]. In the 'not superior' group, t values ranged from -0.319 to 7.618 and in the 'superior' group, t values ranged from +0.395 to 6.286. Path coefficients that were marginally significant in the complete data SEM were not significant in the smaller models e.g., role conflict → customer orientation (see Table 7-12, SEM path coefficients and t values for 'not superior' and 'superior' groups).

Table 7-11 - Comparison of SEM Goodness of fit measures for 'not superior', 'superior' and complete data.

Goodness of fit measure	'not superior'	'superior'	complete data
GFI	.909	.872	.918
AGFI	.875	.825	.888
CFI	.899	.812	.889
RMSR	.925	1.180	.948
TLI	.877	.772	.865

However, the path coefficients that were clearly significant in the complete data SEM remained significant in the smaller samples, i.e., customer orientation → negative service behaviour, customer orientation → positive service behaviour, perceived recognition status → customer orientation, perceived recognition status → role conflict, uniform perceptions → perceived recognition status. The strength of the significance of these relationships in the smaller models demonstrates the influence these antecedents have as determinants of service behaviour among CCP, either in a direct or indirect manner.

Importantly, the key difference concerning the results of the path coefficients between the complete and split sample SEMs remains the relationship between role conflict and perceived self-status. Consistent with the path analysis, there was no significant relationship between perceived self-status and role conflict in the complete model, where it was deleted during respecification. However, the split samples demonstrate a significant relationship in different directions between perceived self-status and role

---

[12] Although some parameters had low t values the models were not re-specified, as this did not improve the goodness-of-fit measures, except for the deletion of the parameter between perceived recognition status and negative service behaviour in the 'not superior' sample.

conflict. The significance of this relationship highlights the influence of perceived self-status as a key antecedent on role conflict among CCP. The relationship between perceived recognition status and customer orientation in the split samples also demonstrates a difference between the groups. The parameter between perceived recognition status and customer orientation is marginally significant at the 10% level (t = +1.880) in the 'superior' group, but is highly significant in the 'not superior' group (t = 3.259). While significant in the path analysis, the relationship between uniform perceptions and perceived self-status was not significant in the 'not superior' model.

Table 7-12 - SEM Path coefficients and t values for 'not superior' and 'superior' groups[13]

	not superior		Superior	
Parameter	**co-eff**	**t value**	**co-eff**	**t value**
customer orientation → negative s/behaviour	-.53	-4.198	-.68	-3.302
role conflict → negative service behaviour	+.13	*ns*	+.11	*ns*
perc'd recognition status → negative s/behaviour		*NS*	-.10	*ns*
customer orientation→ positive service behaviour	+.60	7.618	+.56	+6.286
role conflict → customer orientation	-.07	*ns*	-.18	*ns*
perc'd recognition status → customer orientation	+.25	3.259	+.24	+1.880
perceived recognition status → role conflict	-.11	-2.772	-.22	-4.081
perceived self-status → role conflict	-.12	-2.789	+.19	+2.081
uniform perceptions → perc'd recognition status	+.33	4.629	+.32	+4.088
uniform perceptions → perceived self status	+.12	*ns*	*nss*	

NS not significant, eliminated in model respecification
ns not significant – low t value
nss not specified in model

[13] The 'not superior' and 'superior' SEMs were based on the trimmed models of the path analysis (see Figure 7-8 and 7-9).

Figure 7-12 - SEM 'Not Superior' Respondents

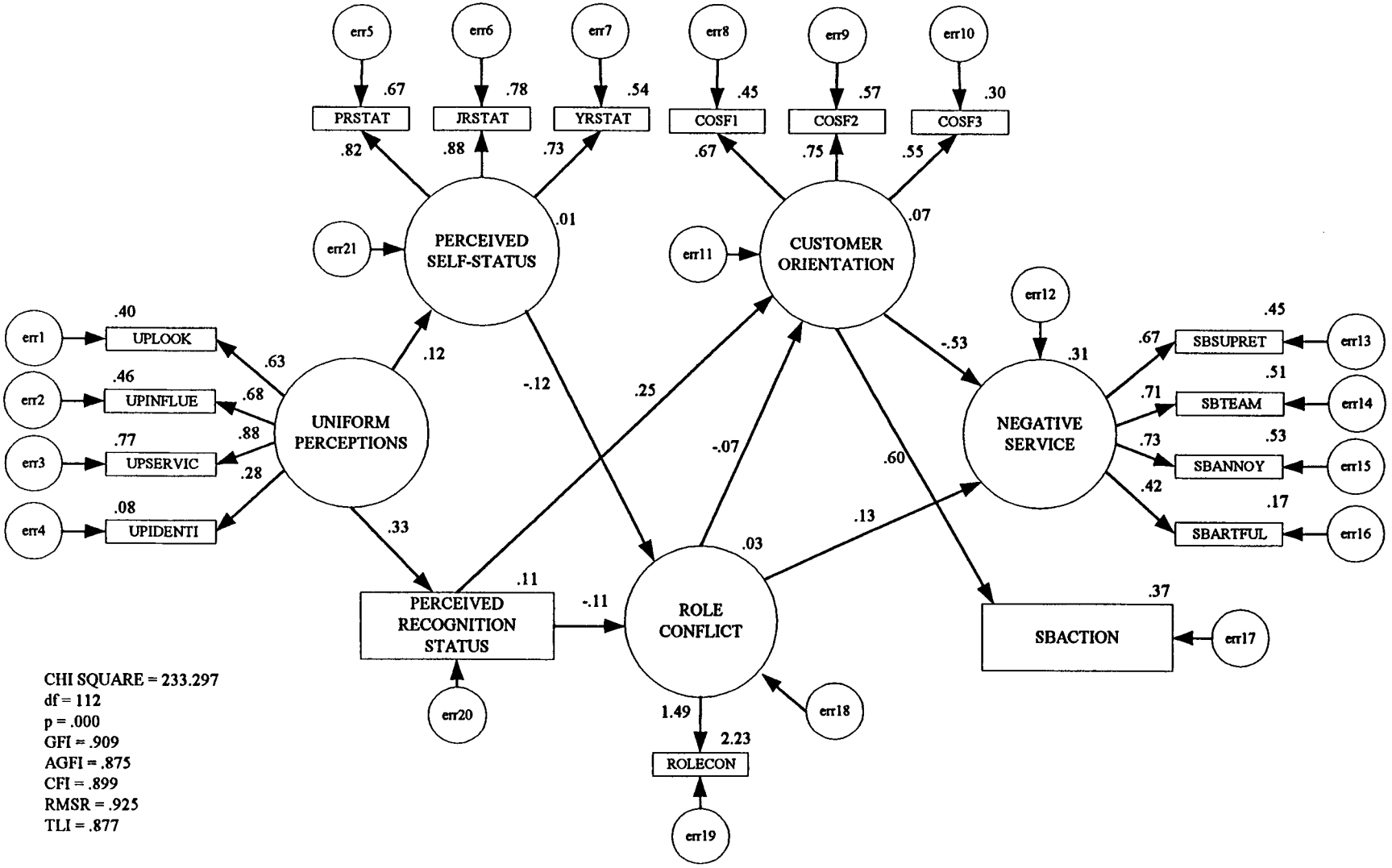
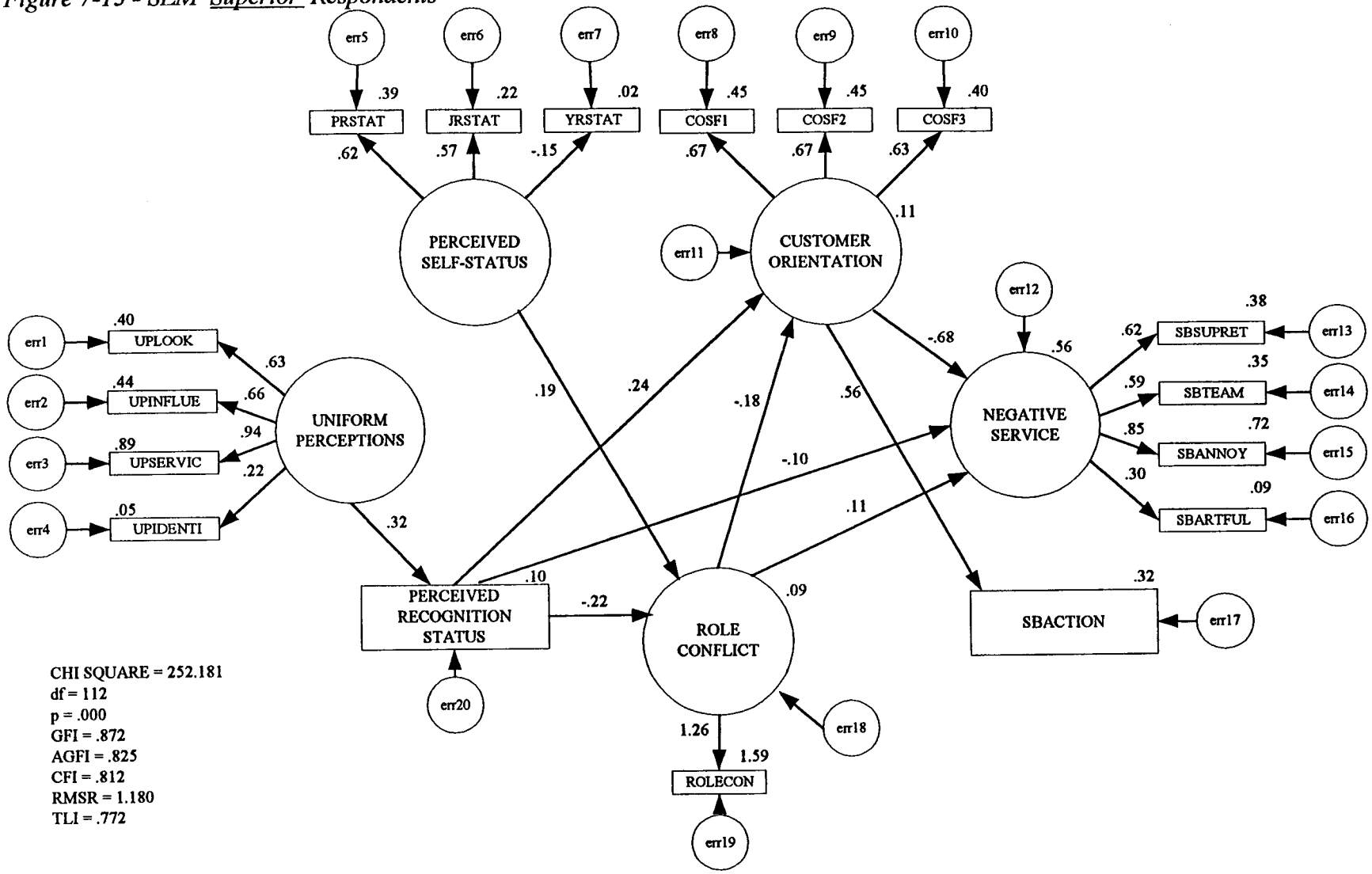


Figure 7-13 - SEM 'Superior' Respondents



7.8 Summary

The initial path analysis based on the conceptual model supported the majority of propositions raised in Chapter 4. Specifically, propositions 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9 and 10 were supported in the empirical path analysis; propositions 1 (relationship between perceived self-status and role conflict) and 6 (relationship between uniform perceptions and perceived self-status) were not supported. While this showed considerable support for the conceptual model, in particular, concern existed as to the non-significant relationship of proposition 1 which depicted the essence of Shamir's (1980) discussion. On further investigation of the data, it was considered that additional analysis of the data would enable a richer diagnosis.

First, the perceived self-status construct was considered to offer greater management understanding of the service behaviour of CCP when the data was split between respondents who considered themselves to hold less than or equal status to their customers; i.e., 'not superior', and respondents who considered themselves to hold more status than their customers; i.e., 'superior'. This division of the data was initiated due to the conflicting message in the propositions of Shamir (1980), concerning relative status and role conflict, and the various scenarios that may eventuate, given the different perspectives CCP may hold concerning their relative status.

Importantly, the results of the path analysis utilising the split sample of 'not superior' and 'superior' indicated that Shamir's (1980) propositions (i.e., the more equal the status of the two parties, the higher the role conflict) concerning relative status (measured as perceived self-status) were not supported. Instead, relationships were supported which depicted the more equal the status of the two parties, the lower the conflict. A significant negative relationship was supported in the 'not superior' group, i.e., as perceived self-status increases (towards equality), role conflict decreases. It was thought that this reflected the management-driven service philosophy of the Ritz-Carlton. By comparison, a significant positive relationship was found between perceived self-status and role conflict in the 'superior' group, i.e., as perceived self-status increases (towards increased

superiority), role conflict increases. In summary, this means that in both groups, as perceived self status approaches equality (0), role conflict decreases, i.e., the more equal the status of the two parties, the lower the role conflict. This finding is the reverse of Shamir's propositions.

Second, it was considered that a richer analysis of service behaviour would emerge if the construct was divided into positive service behaviour and negative service behaviour. Therefore, a post-hoc path analysis was conducted on all three models, the complete data, the 'not superior' group and the 'superior' group. The findings from the post-hoc path analysis suggested that:

1. The divided service behaviour construct offered enhanced information. For example, the complete data analysis indicated that role conflict had a positive total effect on service behaviour. By comparison, the split sample analysis indicated that role conflict had a positive total effect on negative service behaviour and a negative total effect on positive service behaviour, and
2. Once more, the split sample provided very interesting and often diametrically opposed results concerning the influence of perceived self-status in the model. For example:
    A. Perceived self-status had a negative total effect on negative service behaviour in the 'not superior' group and a positive total effect in the 'superior' group. This means that as perceived self-status increases, negative service behaviours decrease in the 'not superior' group, yet increase in the 'superior' group.
    B. Perceived self-status had a positive total effect on positive service behaviour in the 'not superior' group and a negative total effect in the 'superior' group. This means that as perceived self-status increases, positive service behaviour increases in the 'not superior' group, yet decreases in the 'superior' group.
3. The customer orientation construct continued to remain the single most important determinant of service behaviour, both positive and negative across all respondents, both 'not superior' and 'superior' groups.

4. Both perceived recognition status and uniform perceptions, particularly when mediated through perceived recognition status, remain consistently significant across all path models, both conceptual and post-hoc, and including each type of analysis conducted, the complete data sample or the split samples of 'not superior' and 'superior', i.e., both uniform perceptions and perceived recognition status have:

   A. A positive total effect on the composite service behaviour construct of the conceptual model,
   B. A positive total effect on positive service behaviour in the post-hoc model, and
   C. A negative total effect on negative service behaviour in the post-hoc model.

Finally, the three post-hoc path models, i.e., complete data, 'not superior' group and 'superior' group, were used as the basis for SEM. Results indicate a reasonable fit to the data for the complete data set (n=446). A moderately acceptable fit was achieved for the two split samples of 'not superior' and 'superior' groups. Results from all SEMs indicate the significance of:

   A. The influence of customer orientation on both positive and negative service behaviour,
   B. The influence of perceived recognition status on customer orientation and role conflict, and
   C. The influence of uniform perceptions on perceived recognition status.

Importantly, the key difference in the SEM results is the significance of perceived self-status on role conflict. In the complete model this is not apparent but in the smaller models the relationship is significant and the direction of the influence changes dependent on whether the respondent is from the 'not superior' or 'superior' group.

A discussion concerning the managerial implications of these results and a final conclusion and limitations of this study is presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 8
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

8.1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is first, to present a summary, together with a brief discussion, of the research results presented in Chapters 6 and 7. Second, to discuss the marketing implications of this research. Third, to outline the contributions of this study. Fourth, to address the limitations of this research. Finally, the possible future research directions will be considered.

8.2 Primary Research Purpose

The primary purpose of this study was to empirically examine and extend our knowledge of the determinants of service behaviour among customer contact personnel. Specifically, the focus was on those who work in a high-contact service organisation, where the employees' status is generally considered subordinate, relative to that of the customer and management. Importantly, this research was to be undertaken from the perspective of customer contact personnel. One component and a key aspect of the thesis was the extension and empirical testing for the first time of relationships proposed by Shamir (1980).

The research purpose was achieved using both qualitative and quantitative approaches among a cohort of CCP renown for their high 'boundary spanning' position, namely airline flight attendants (Sellers, 1994; Hochschild, 1983), who do not enjoy the status of the professional services, such as lawyers and doctors. The survey instrument measured the constructs of service behaviour, role conflict, customer orientation, perceived self-status, perceived recognition status and uniform perceptions, as depicted in the empirical model (see Appendix 4A). Testing of the propositions proposed by the empirical model utilised both path analysis and structural equation modelling.

8.3 Summary and Discussion of Research Results

The empirical results that have been detailed in Chapters 6 and 7 will now be discussed in the context of the research questions that were outlined in Chapter 1 and which broadened the research purpose of this study.

8.3.1 What is the relationship between relative status and role conflict? or To what degree are the propositions of Shamir (1980) concerning relative status and role conflict found to be accurate?

Shamir (1980) referred to relative status among CCP as one concept in his discussion of role conflict among subordinate service providers, whereas the current research specified relative status as two constructs, following Shamir's description of the characteristics of subordinate service roles. The two constructs measured were perceived self-status and perceived recognition status.

First, in the analysis that utilised the full data set (i.e., did not split the sample), neither the path analysis nor the SEM found a significant direct relationship between perceived self-status and role conflict. However, a significant relationship was found in the analysis that divided the sample between those respondents that considered themselves less than or equal in status to their customers, 'not superior', and those that considered themselves higher in status to their customers, 'superior'. This included both the path analysis and SEM. The relationship varied in direction dependent on whether the respondents were 'superior' or 'not superior'. Results from the analysis indicated that increases in perceived self-status among the 'not superior' group would generate decreased role conflict. In turn, this resulted in preferred service behaviours. By comparison, the results indicated that increases in perceived self-status among the 'superior' respondents would generate increased role conflict. In turn, this resulted in non-preferred service behaviours.

Essentially, as CCP move closer to equality in their perception of relative status, either upwards in the case of the 'not superior' group, or downwards in the case of the 'superior' group, their role conflict reduces and in turn their service behaviours improve.

Second, the analysis clearly indicated that there was a significant, direct negative relationship between perceived recognition status and role conflict. As perceived recognition status increased, role conflict decreased. In turn, this indirectly influenced service behaviour.

8.3.1.1 Discussion

The results indicate that while the split samples support proposition 1 of the study (there is a relationship between perceived self-status and role conflict), they are in different directions.

1. There is a negative relationship in the 'not superior' group between perceived self-status and role conflict, and
2. There is a positive relationship in the 'superior' group between perceived self-status and role conflict.

Further, the results do not support Shamir's proposition (the more equal the status of the two parties, the higher the role conflict). In this research, the more equal the status of the two parties, the lower the role conflict.

Hence, this study, which represents the first empirical investigation of the conjectures of Shamir (1980), does not uphold Shamir's propositions concerning relative status and role conflict. However, the discussion should be noted that relationships between status incongruency and role stress cannot be generalised as they are very dependent on the situation or type of organisation in which the incongruency is experienced (Stryker and Macke, 1978; Holmes and Butler, 1987). This may mean that a study undertaken among a different group of CCP in the same service organisation, e.g., travel booking agents, or a similar cohort in another service organisation, may result in a non-significant relationship being found between perceived self status and role conflict, or a relationship in keeping with Shamir's propositions.

In addition, it should be noted that Shamir's propositions discussed role conflict in the context of two constructs, inter-sender and person-role, whereas this research measured

role conflict as one construct. Likewise, while Shamir studied flight attendants, his discussion embraced other subordinate service positions, whereas this study investigated airline flight attendants exclusively. These differences in measurement may contribute towards the results.

Importantly, there are also other issues that may have influenced the outcome of this research. Cultural differences between the two countries may have influenced the outcome, since Shamir's study was undertaken in Israel, compared to this study which was undertaken in Australia. However, it is noted that Australia and Israel score very similarly on the Power Distance dimension scale of Hofstede (1991).

Alternatively, given there is more than 15 years' difference between the work of Shamir and this research, any differences in anticipated results may reflect changing attitudes within the community concerning service workers. For example, within Australia the service industry has grown exponentially over the last decade resulting in increased recognition of the work that service providers undertake. This is now particularly the case with the advent of the Olympics in the year 2000, with the eyes of the world on Australia and its ability to operate and service this mammoth event. Perhaps a degree of 'superiority' in CCP has been the outcome of this sudden service focus.

Certainly, the results of this study would appear to highlight the importance employees, specifically CCP, attribute to management's recognition of their status within the company (perceived recognition status). While this aspect of relative status was discussed among the characteristics of subordinate service roles, it was not specifically addressed in Shamir's propositions, nor has it been empirically researched previously. The research results indicate that increasing management recognition of CCP results in decreasing role conflict for CCP. This supports Bacharach et al's (1993) model of an inverse relationship between status incongruency and role stress and reflects the anecdotal evidence in the popular press that management needs to give greater consideration to employees. Also, the earlier work of Schneider (1980) and more recently Babin and Boles (1996) and Boshoff and Mels (1995) found negative

relationships between management issues (e.g., supervisory consideration) and role conflict among employees.

In summary, a significant relationship was found between relative status and role conflict. However, the propositions of Shamir (1980) would not appear to support the directionality of the findings of this study concerning the aspect of relative status termed perceived self-status. Furthermore, this study identified a significant relationship between another aspect of relative status, perceived recognition status that was described by Shamir but not directly addressed by his propositions.

8.3.2 What is the relationship between relative status and service behaviour?

The initial findings in the empirical path analysis (see Figures 7-2, 7-3) supported direct relationships between both aspects of relative status and service behaviour. Although, the subsequent post-hoc analysis undertaken on the split samples suggests that overall, at best, a modest direct negative relationship exists between perceived recognition status and negative service behaviour, with no significant relationship found between perceived self-status and either positive or negative service behaviour.

However, the indirect effects of both perceived self-status and perceived recognition status do influence service behaviour, both positive and negative. In the case of perceived self-status, the direction of the impact is dependent on whether the respondents are from the 'not superior' or 'superior' groups and whether the service behaviour is positive or negative (see Section 7.6). By comparison, the status perspective does not vary the direction of the impact in the case of perceived recognition status. Negative service behaviour is influenced negatively and positive service behaviour is influenced positively by the indirect effects of perceived recognition status.

8.3.2.1 Discussion

While this study reflects the first empirical findings of these relationships, previous discussion concurs with these research findings. Perceived self-status (*sic* status

incongruency) was discussed by Adams (1965) as potentially generating negative responses as a result of role conflict. Also, Shamir (1980) outlined negative service behaviours forthcoming from role conflict, which had stemmed from status incongruency.

The positive indirect effects of perceived recognition status on positive service behaviour follows Kelley et al. (1996) which found organisational support generated increased positive service behaviour. It also supports the service philosophy of the Ritz-Carlton, which recognises the status of CCP in their company motto, in their endeavours to ensure the delivery of superior customer service (Watkins, 1992; Parlow, 1993).

8.3.3 What is the relationship between role conflict and service behaviour? Or To what degree are the discussions of Shamir (1980) concerning role conflict and service behaviour found to be accurate?

The initial research findings indicate that a significant negative relationship was found between role conflict and the composite service behaviour construct in the analysis of the conceptual model (complete data, 'superior' and 'not superior' samples). However, further analysis of the service behaviour construct found that role conflict was significantly related to negative service behaviour in a positive manner and not related to positive service behaviour at all. This was also found in the SEM. The exception was the post-hoc path analysis undertaken on the complete data set (see Figure 7-7) which described a weak positive relationship between role conflict and positive service behaviour. This is considered to be an artefact of the effect of perceived self-status.

8.3.3.1 Discussion

The findings from this research add yet another perspective to the current indeterminate support for the direction and significance of the relationship between role conflict and service behaviour or comparable variables. For example, equivocal support was found between role conflict and job performance (Babin and Boles, 1996). A positive relationship was identified between role conflict and self-efficacy (Hartline and Ferrell, 1996). An indirect negative effect mediated through burnout from role conflict was

detected on behavioural outcomes (Singh, Goolsby and Rhoads, 1994). A negative effect was found to be the outcome of role stress on job outcomes (Boshoff and Mels, 1995), while Weatherly and Tansik (1993a) found no significant relationship between role conflict and any of the four behaviour dimensions that had emerged in their own work.

By comparison, given this study analysed the data from several perspectives and two methods of analysis, i.e., path analysis and SEM, the findings concerning the relationship between role conflict and service behaviour remained reasonably consistent, i.e., role conflict is inversely related to composite service behaviour, or positively related to negative service behaviour. But it is not significantly related to positive service behaviour.

Although the small relationship between role conflict and positive service behaviour in the complete data set path analysis (see Figure 7-7) is thought to be an artefact of perceived self-status, it is noteworthy to recall the discussion of Babin and Boles (1996). They suggested that in a no-escape setting employees confronted with increased role conflict may well resolve the conflict by positively increasing their performance. They also noted that some employees appear to thrive on stress more than others do. The setting of this research study most adequately fits the scenario they described. First, operating as a flight attendant on an aircraft, 35,000 feet in the air, truly represents a no-escape setting from the customer. For example, it may be easier to resolve role conflict by acquiescing and providing positive service behaviours rather than the option of negative service behaviour, as the ramifications of the actions may rebound continually for the duration of the trip, as there is no escape. Second, the type of person who wants to be a flight attendant may well be someone who 'thrives on stress'. Accordingly, they self-select (Schneider and Schechter, 1991) themselves for the role.

8.3.4 What relationship does customer orientation have with relative status, role conflict and service behaviour?

The findings from the research indicate that there have been consistently significant relationships found between customer orientation and each of relative status (perceived

recognition status), role conflict and service behaviour in all the data analysis undertaken, including both path analysis and SEM, i.e., customer orientation is:

1. Positively related to perceived recognition status,
2. Negatively related to role conflict,
3. Positively related to the composite service behaviour measure,
4. Positively related to positive service behaviour, and
5. Negatively related to negative service behaviour.

8.3.4.1 Discussion

The relationships between customer orientation and each of relative status, role conflict and service behaviour have never previously been measured together. However, specific results between the measured constructs are consistent with prior research:

1. The positive relationship between perceived recognition status and customer orientation is consistent with studies which investigated the relationship between organisational issues and the customer orientation of employees (e.g., Schneider, 1980; Schenider and Bowen, 1985; Kelley, 1992).
2. The direct negative relationship between role conflict and customer orientation has previously not been investigated. It is consistent with Hoffman and Ingrams' (1991) identification of an indirect negative relationship.
3. Schneider and Schechter (1991) considered that service employees self-selected themselves for their positions. On the other hand, Hogan and Hogan (1992) asserted that some people have an inherent orientation to service while others do not have this orientation. To ensure that truly service-oriented personnel are employed for service positions, rather than those who purport to be, the Hogans advocated screening for service orientation through personality instruments during the selection process. Certainly, the highly significant relationships identified in this study between customer orientation and service behaviour are consistent with the inherent customer orientation claim of the Hogans. Importantly, the highly significant relationship emphasises the need to qualify the customer orientation of potential employees through personality instruments, so as to ensure the output from new employees results in superior service.

8.3.5 What is the relationship between uniform perceptions and relative status?

The findings from both the initial and post-hoc analysis, prior to the division of perceived self-status into 'superior' and 'not superior' groups, only found support for a positive relationship between uniform perceptions and perceived recognition status. However, the results from the analysis on the 'superior' and 'not superior' groups found a consistent positive relationship between both perceived self-status and perceived recognition status, and uniform perceptions among the 'not superior' group. However, among the 'superior' group there remained only a significant relationship between uniform perceptions and perceived recognition status.

8.3.5.1 Discussion

The relationship between uniform perceptions and perceived self-status is strongly suggested in the uniform literature (Daniel et al., 1996) and the findings of this study represent the first empirical study that has specifically measured uniform from the wearer's perspective with relation to relative status.

That the relationship between uniform perceptions and perceived self-status was only significant among the 'not superior' group makes sense intuitively. Those CCP that consider themselves less than or equal in status to their customers are likely to draw inference about themselves from their uniform. However, those CCP that consider themselves higher in status than their customers are unlikely to need the influence of uniform to confirm their self-image to themselves.

The positive relationship between uniform perceptions and perceived recognition status and the ensuing indirect effects on service behaviours possibly tap the suggestion of Lux et al. (1996). They considered variables that could be shown to be antecedents of organisational commitment could also indirectly influence customer service. They noted the variables of job scope, leader communication, recruitment and selection, and career and reward systems. Uniform may also be considered an antecedent to organisational commitment as it can send a message to CCP concerning how the company wishes to

portray its employees with regard to identification, style, influence and attitude (Daniel et al., 1996). Therefore, uniform may represent an antecedent to organisational commitment in the minds of its employees. Perceived recognition status may reflect a degree of organisational commitment to employees, thereby portraying the positive relationship found between uniform perceptions and perceived recognition status. Furthermore, as Lux et al. suggested, uniform perceptions mediated through perceived recognition status may indirectly influence the customer service of CCP. Certainly in this study, uniform perceptions were found to have a positive indirect effect on the composite service behaviour measure and positive service behaviour also, a negative indirect effect on negative service behaviour.

8.3.6 Which antecedents of service behaviour impact directly and which impact indirectly?

Overall, the research findings highlight the significant, direct, indirect and total effect of customer orientation on service behaviour, positive or negative, among 'not superior' or 'superior' groups, using two analysis approaches i.e., path analysis and SEM. Role conflict, perceived recognition status and uniform perceptions also have a consistent impact in all the analyses (for a summary of the direct and indirect effects on service behaviour, see Table 8-1 for the complete data set, Table 8-2 for the 'not superior' group and Table 8-3 for the 'superior' group).

The key differences found in direct and indirect effects in the analysis primarily relate to perceived self-status. Essentially, in the complete data set analysis, direct but not indirect effects are found. However, in analysis of 'superior' and 'not superior' groups, indirect but not direct effects are found. The direction of the effects is dependent on the group under analysis.

Other differences between the complete data set and split samples include no direct effects from role conflict or perceived recognition status on positive service behaviour among the split samples, and no direct effect from role conflict on positive service behaviour in the SEM of the split samples.

Table 8-1 - Summary of Direct and Indirect Effects on Service Behaviour

	Empirical Path Analysis		**Post-hoc Path Analysis Negative Service Behaviour**		**Post-hoc Path Analysis Positive Service Behaviour**		**SEM Negative Service Behaviour**		**SEM Positive Service Behaviour**	
	Direct	Indirect	Direct	Indirect	Direct	Indirect	Direct	Indirect	Direct	Indirect
Customer Orientation	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Role Conflict	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Perceived Self-Status	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No
Perceived Recognition Status	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Uniform Perceptions	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes

Table 8-2 - Summary of Direct and Indirect Effects on Service Behaviour 'NOT SUPERIOR' group

	Empirical Path Analysis		**Post-hoc Path Analysis Negative Service Behaviour**		**Post-hoc Path Analysis Positive Service Behaviour**		**SEM Negative Service Behaviour**		**SEM Positive Service Behaviour**	
	Direct	Indirect	Direct	Indirect	Direct	Indirect	Direct	Indirect	Direct	Indirect
Customer Orientation	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Role Conflict	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Perceived Self-Status	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Perceived Recognition Status	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Uniform Perceptions	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes

Table 8-3 - Summary of Direct and Indirect Effects on Service Behaviour 'SUPERIOR' group

	Empirical Path Analysis		Post-hoc Path Analysis Negative Service Behaviour		Post-hoc Path Analysis Positive Service Behaviour		SEM Negative Service Behaviour		SEM Positive Service Behaviour	
	Direct	Indirect	Direct	Indirect	Direct	Indirect	Direct	Indirect	Direct	Indirect
Customer Orientation	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No
Role Conflict	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Perceived Self-Status	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Perceived Recognition Status	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Uniform Perceptions	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes

8.4 Managerial Implications

Important implications flow from the results of this research. The study's greatest insight for management is that it highlights variables that influence the service behaviour of CCP which previously have not been empirically tested. This provides management with greater insight for policy implementation to ensure excellent service behaviour is forthcoming from CCP.

8.4.1 Service behaviour

To further understand the nature of service behaviour, the summary statistics of each of the dimensions of service behaviour were assessed. Reference to the descriptive statistics of the dimensions of service behaviour reflect that on average, respondents participated in the positive behaviour of customer action far more frequently than any of the other behaviour dimensions. Since so many of the behaviours measured can have disastrous results in the service arena, it is comforting to note that CCP engage in positive behaviours significantly more often than the negative behaviours. This supports Weatherly's (1991) observation that CCP will endeavour to work harder to get the task done, prior to resorting to non-productive behaviours (see Table 6-4, Descriptive Statistics – Dimensions of Service Behaviour). Reference to the frequency count of the service behaviour dimensions also supports this observation (see Table 6-5, Frequency Count of Service Behaviour Dimension Scores).

The frequency count of high and low scores among the dimensions highlights the high incidence of customer action, the positive behaviour in which CCP engage; 81% of scores ranged between 21-28. By comparison high scores among the dimensions of supervisor retaliation and customer annoyance are low. However, artful endeavours, which does not include blatant negative behaviours, i.e., 'I'll do a favour for a customer that makes my life easier', 'I suggest to the customer how to do something for himself or herself', has the second highest frequency count among the high range scores of the dimensions. CCP then turn to the support of their crew in response to conflicting demands. Finally, the lowest counts of high frequencies revolve around the more

damaging behaviours, both to the customer and to the balance of the organisational workplace, i.e., customer annoyance and supervisor retaliation.

These data suggest that CCP engage in the more damaging behaviours the least times of their possible options. This is also reassuring to management that CCP will endeavour to manage their conflicting demands along a frequency continuum that stems from positive (customer action) through manipulative (artful endeavours), supportive (team support) to lastly, damaging (customer annoyance and supervisor retaliation). This highlights the need for management to ensure CCP have the skills and training to enact positive service behaviours to conflicting demands. This will enable CCP to expand their repertoire of positive and less damaging behaviours, rather than relying on their own resources which may trigger negative responses more quickly if not given sufficient resources by management.

While these statistics do not answer all our questions on service behaviour among CCP, they do highlight areas of concern for management and pinpoint the issues that require advanced diagnostic research.

8.4.2 Customer orientation

The data analysis confirmed the importance of customer orientation as an antecedent to service behaviour. This presents two key management issues:

A. The importance of employing customer oriented CCP from the outset. Therefore, this suggests that personality instruments such as the Hogan Personality Instrument (Hogan and Hogan, 1982) are invaluable to management in the screening process of potential employees.

B. The need to address the issue of retaining or improving the customer orientation of existing employees.

Importantly, the results of this research clearly highlight the direct influence role conflict and perceived recognition status have on customer orientation, and also the indirect influence of uniform perceptions through relative status. The results indicate that

management effort to reduce role conflict is most beneficial, not only to employees' customer orientation but also their service behaviour. This requires consideration of issues such as ensuring CCP have the necessary resources to perform their roles, training all CCP to perform to the same level, maintaining adequate staffing levels for the service roles, creating a consistent service philosophy throughout the organisation and ensuring policies and procedures are designed to serve both the customer and the employee.

Similarly, management effort to instil the perception among CCP that they are valued by their organisation will have positive results on levels of customer orientation. Essentially, this focuses on the strong internal customer service philosophy permeating throughout the organisation. Management should also not overlook the influence of cues such as uniform. The results indicate that CCP perception of their uniform indirectly influences customer orientation as it provides a cue that helps CCP to interpret their relative status. Continued research into the antecedents of customer orientation would clearly be most beneficial given the large influence it has on service behaviour.

Paramount to the consideration of strategies to retain and improve the customer orientation of CCP is the need for a concerted effort from management to instil a customer-orientated focus throughout the company. Reardon and Enis (1990) suggest this is most successfully implemented through an internal marketing campaign that makes use of the persuasion strategies that are utilised in external marketing. These include:

1. Clearly defining to all employees, customer orientated and non-customer oriented, how their work contributes to the customer chain. This means employees need to understand the 'big picture' rather than only their own task area.
2. Encouraging feelings of self-efficacy among employees concerning their ability to serve the customer more effectively and allowing them to establish a comfortable timetable to meet their customer orientation goals.
3. Providing rewards for actions that enhance customer satisfaction. This includes giving employees the discretion to determine how they might better meet the needs of the customer and *listening* to employees.

4. Ensuring a maintenance program exists to guarantee a long-term customer focus. This includes attention to continual reward over time, from personal letters and pats on the back, to awards and newsletter stories that highlight to employees the success of a company-wide customer orientation.

8.4.3 Perceived recognition status

This study highlights the direct and indirect influence of perceived recognition status on the service behaviour of CCP. With a mean of 3.27 and standard deviation of 1.76 on a scale of 1-7, CCP demonstrated considerable variation in their response (see Table 6-6, Frequency Count of Perceived Self-Status). Consequently, this study directs considerable attention to the role management can play in creating an environment that is sympathetic to the fostering of positive service behaviour through the influence of perceived recognition status. While this research presented and supported uniform perceptions as an antecedent to perceived recognition status, clearly there are other variables that need to be investigated and researched to understand more fully the influence of perceived recognition status.

Bacharach et al. (1993) considered organisational status incongruency was an important neglected psychological variable. With both direct and indirect effects emanating from the manner in which CCP believe management perceives them, strategic policy needs to be instigated to ensure this view is favourable. However, often these perceptions are culturally entrenched in organisations, thereby requiring considerable thought and clear signals to employees if the organisation truly wishes to arrest declining perceptions in this area.

Meares (1988) suggests one of the key issues for good leadership included the elimination of status symbols for the 'few' of an organisation, instead giving status to a broad spectrum of employees. Further suggestions for managing status within an organisation comes from Pinchot (1992). He believes that the leader of an organisation is the one that must set the standard and systems to ensure all employees have their status needs satisfied. This involves:

1. Ensuring that the employee group is in itself a source of pride and self-esteem where all members are *equally* able to make significant contributions. This requires ensuring the workplace setting assumes each person is of *equally* high value to the organisation.
2. Creating group cohesion by finding a common enemy that cannot retaliate, i.e., a common wrong, e.g., pain, suffering, waste, environmental concerns, etc., rather than a common enemy that can do more harm in the long term, e.g., a competitor, another department within the organisation, or worse the customer.
3. Reducing the dominance and submission in an organisation, which is inherent in the hierarchy of a large firm, by instigating a partnership of *equals* working together, where responsibility is given to use self-guided action.
4. Changing the 'pecking order' status mentality of an organisation to that of territorial status so that everyone gets a chance to show dominance. This of course needs to be undertaken without encouraging territorial ownership, empire building or parochial perspective.

> *The dominance of different functions depends on whose intellectual turf is most relevant to the decision* (Pinchot, 1992:4).

Within the airline setting of this research, Pinchot's recommendations might be implemented through:

1. Territorial status that ensures the CCP of this study, airline flight attendants are given recognition for their 'intellectual turf' of incabin issues. This would mean that any issues pertaining to incabin procedures and policies were not decided solely by senior management, but involve airline flight attendants. Importantly, flight attendants should understand that they have been involved in the planning.
2. The promotion of a benign common enemy, so as to ensure the customer does not become the enemy that keeps the group together. For example, the welfare fund for Zimbabwean children that was the focus of the incentive for the main survey (see Section 5.4.3) represents a common enemy that the group could work together on eradicating, i.e., the malnutrition of orphaned third world

children. This 'common enemy' already exists within the group. Perhaps, more emphasis could be given to it or a like cause, by management to try to increase healthy group cohesion within the organisation.

3. Disabling the existing hierarchy so that management has a less distanced view of what occurs at the 'frontline'.

8.4.4 Perceived self-status

The diagnostics concerning the different influence perceived self-status has on service behaviour, dependent on the status perspective of CCP, was considered to be a particularly interesting managerial outcome of the study. Certainly the findings of the research indicate that a 'healthy' status perspective from the organisation's viewpoint, i.e., 'not superior' perspective, favours reduced role conflict, resulting in decreased negative service behaviour and increased positive service behaviour. However, an 'unhealthy' status perspective from the organisation's viewpoint, i.e., 'superior', incites increased role conflict, resulting in increasing negative service behaviour and decreasing positive service behaviour.

The realisation that, at least among this sample of respondents, such a large proportion (43%) considered themselves superior to their customers must surely cause concern for management. Therefore, the question arises, is Schneider and Schechter's (1991) sentiment that CCP self-select themselves for service roles incorrect? Or, does this have little to do with the appropriate status perspective that they may have; rather does this point to a lack of organisational strategy to ensure that the appropriate status perspective is maintained, or at least is not insidiously changed to an inappropriate status perspective? Alternatively, does this highlight that personality testing for status perspective is required, along with service orientation, during the recruitment of CCP? Certainly, those companies where large numbers of people apply for critical boundary spanning CCP positions can well afford to screen with objective tests during recruitment. Not to do so, in light of the existing literature and the results of this research, would seem foolish.

The research results confirm what makes logical sense; as people perceive themselves to have higher status than others they are less inclined to want to 'serve' them. As to why or how this may occur is outside the realm of this thesis, but given the influence of perceived self-status, would be most interesting research. It is worth noting Mills' (1953) observations that CCP are able to borrow prestige from their customers, as we all are able to do (Benoit-Smullyan, 1944). Perhaps in some people this can be cumulative and detrimental!

Another management concern revolves around the fact that even if the most service-oriented, status-appropriate CCP are recruited, unless the appropriate organisational strategies endeavour to maintain this standard, then events can occur in the life of the employee that can change their 'appropriateness'. The suggestion here is that the implementation of all human resource policy requires management to actively consider what the final message to CCP will be concerning the perspective they have of their status relative to their customers. Perhaps a 'superior' perspective reflects disenchantment with management concerning attendance to customer needs, without concern for employee requirements.

This also raises the problem of how to instil the correct status perspective among staff that may have been recruited without this consideration, or have lost the correct perspective over time, for many and varied reasons. No doubt a strong service philosophy throughout the organisation goes a long way to achieving this as an ongoing objective. For those CCP that over time and after many service encounters have become resentful of customers and acquired the incorrect status perspective, perhaps the suggestions of Hochschild (1983) are useful. Airlie Hochschild considered that training CCP in deep acting, especially the method acting of Stanislavski, would enable them to distance themselves from a stressful event with a customer. Method acting uses emotion memory to recall an automatic feeling without the need to contrive the feeling. For example, CCP would perceive an angry customer as a little child in order to disperse feelings of retaliation, thereby allowing emotions attached to small children to emerge. By comparison, while surface acting may deceive others, it does not deceive the actor.

The other benefit of deep acting is that it enables CCP to gain satisfaction from the degree of personalised service they are able to offer.

The status perspective of CCP should be of real concern to management, not only for the direct impact it has on customers but also for the indirect impact on customers through its ability to insidiously creep through an organisation. Here, 'unhealthy' status perspective employees may represent 'ticking bombs' that infiltrate and contaminate 'healthy' status perspective employees. Possibly, the suggestions noted by Meares (1988) and Pinchot (1992) in Section 8.4.3 would also assist in the maintenance of a 'healthy' status perspective among employees. The question remains as to whether 'unhealthy' service employees could be converted to a 'healthy' status over time or whether they should be identified early and encouraged to change their job position to one that is more appropriate to their status perspective, i.e., does not involve interaction with commercial customers. Also of management interest is the ability to monitor the perceived self-status of CCP over time. Such information would reflect the success of any strategies in place that address this issue. The mirror image is also of interest. Customers with a healthy status perspective no doubt would assist in ensuring CCP maintained their own healthy perspective. Compare those customers who consider CCP to be 'servants' (unhealthy status perspective) with those who consider that CCP deserve courteous and polite interaction from their customers (healthy status perspective). Perhaps another management concern should be the need to educate customers to interact with CCP in an acceptable manner!

Interestingly, the combination of perceived self-status and perceived recognition status, to some extent affords management a double-edged sword. On one hand they must ensure CCP believe management affords them due recognition, but on the other hand they must ensure CCP do not consider themselves 'better' than their customer. Ritz-Carlton's approach to status issues between customer and service employee would appear to have addressed this problem. In their motto 'We are Ladies and Gentlemen Serving Ladies and Gentlemen', they continually reinforce the level of status congruency

management affords them, in order to achieve the level of customer service they demand from their CCP.

8.4.5 Role conflict

Heightened role conflict was also found to have detrimental effects on CCP service behaviour, particularly negative service behaviour. As conflict is often generated internally through the organisation, management needs to fully acquaint themselves with the conflict issues of their CCP and endeavour where practicable, to alleviate the conflict for them. To be remembered is Singh et al.'s (1996) caution concerning the complete alleviation of role stressors from boundary spanners' jobs. Their belief is that role stressors, i.e., role conflict, should be managed by the organisation as a medium through which employees can exercise their discretion. In addition to conflict that may arise through operational procedures, management must also ensure that the expectations generated in the media concerning their service product are realistic and can be fulfilled efficiently by CCP.

Importantly the research results highlight the direct influence relative status can exert on role conflict, both perceived self-status and perceived recognition status. Issues concerning these have been raised in 8.4.2 and 8.4.3.

8.4.6 Uniform perceptions

The significant relationship between uniform perceptions and perceived recognition status and perceived self-status, the latter evident in the 'not superior' group, suggests to management that they should consider uniform as not only a corporate tangible cue for the customer's benefit, but also a useful tangible cue for the benefit of CCP. This is particularly important given the indirect effects uniform perceptions have on service behaviour.

Following the Grove and Fisk (1983) dramaturgy analogy, CCP may use their uniform to inform them of the part they are playing in the service script and of the recognition management affords them. This may be interpreted through the meaning-laden symbols

of organisational dress: colour, material and style (Rafaeli and Pratt, 1993). This would suggest that due consideration given to these factors could facilitate uniform as a cue to CCP that management considers them 'worthy', since people themselves use fabric and colour to enable them to conform to their ideal self-image (Rosenfeld and Plax, 1977). For example, dark colours would enhance status, natural fibres represent quality and garment styling indicates service position (Daniel et al., 1996). As Stone (1962) suggested, wearing a certain uniform assumes a particular identity, an identity that not only elicits a certain response from others but also compels a particular pattern of behaviour from the wearer.

8.4.7 Conclusion – managerial implications

In summary, the findings of this study focus on the variability of service behaviour among CCP, where CCP need to have a clear customer-oriented disposition, minimal role conflict, a 'healthy' self-status perspective and a positive perception of management's recognition of them within the organisation, to ensure the delivery of superior service. Also, the study confirms the influence the tangible cue of uniform can exert in an organisation to initiate positive service behaviour among CCP.

The study highlights the need to make a concerted effort to implement strategic policy that will enable management to first, recruit the most suitable CCP and second, exert influence over the service behaviour of their existing CCP. Key areas for consideration by management include:

1. The introduction of personality instruments for screening potential employees for a customer orientation,
2. Assessment of the status perspective of potential employees,
3. Conveyance to employees of management's appreciation and recognition of the work of CCP,
4. Reduction of the role conflict experienced by CCP that is driven internally by the service organisation,

5. The implementation of a service culture and philosophy that respects the customer's and employee's role in the service encounter, so as to ensure a harmonious status congruency is achieved and perceived by CCP,
6. The importance of ongoing training, seminars and support structures to address key issues that impact service behaviour, and
7. The creative use of uniform as a tangible cue to CCP that conveys the recognition management affords them in their service work.

This research highlights the role customer orientation, role conflict, perceived relative status and uniform perceptions may have on the final service delivered by CCP. Of particular interest were the influence different status perspectives have on role conflict and service behaviour and the managerial implications ensuing. The company's service philosophy and leadership, including human resources policy influence on the status perspective are considered essential inputs to the management of the perceived status perspective. Additionally, training is considered essential for the maintenance of customer orientation, with management modelling the service behaviour they require from their CCP; empowerment of CCP being the key to the implementation of superior customer service (Ament and Deszca, 1992; Firnstahl, 1989). It is considered that this is particularly relevant to service settings that have elongated or sequential service encounters for CCP, as in the case of airline flight attendants, since service behaviour is substantially 'on show' for a much longer period.

A task for management will be to ensure the behaviour the customer experiences, will be service behaviour that has resulted from a problem-focused task orientation rather than an emotion-focused orientation. An emotion-focused orientation is generally used when it is thought that the situation is outside the control of the individual; it can't be impacted. By comparison, in a problem-focused orientation individuals consider that the situation is controllable and changeable (Folkman and Lazarus, 1985). A problem-focused orientation may be viewed as the positive dimension of service behaviour, i.e., customer action. On the other hand, an emotion-focused orientation may be viewed in the negative dimensions of service behaviour, e.g., customer annoyance. Achieving this

aim may require a combination of management approaches including recruitment and selection, training, empowerment and provision of resources, team building and support and reorganisation of work groups, coupled with clear policies and procedures, supported by an integral internal marketing campaign

> *Because managing an organization's human resources equates with managing its customer services* (Smith, 1989:16).

8.5 Contributions of the Study

The major contribution of this research is the development and testing of a path and structural model of determinants of service behaviour among customer contact personnel. Importantly the research addresses the 'employee-role' (Hartline and Ferrell, 1996) perspective of the frontline service provider, giving insight into relationships among employee behaviours, responses and attitudes. The research offers initial findings concerning constructs that have been found theoretically and empirically to influence the service behaviour of CCP. This is an important area for research given we know that the service behaviour of CCP impacts customers and reflects on the overall performance of the service organisation (Lux, Jex and Hansen, 1996; Bowen, 1996).

Further, part of the empirical model extends and empirically investigates propositions presented but not tested by Shamir (1980), concerning the relationship between relative status and role conflict of subordinate service providers and Shamir's discussion of the ensuing service behaviours. Interestingly, the results of this study dispute Shamir's propositions concerning relative status and role conflict. Instead, the results of this study concerning relative status offer for consideration the following:

- The need to ascertain the status perspective of CCP prior to recruitment,
- The need to ensure organisational policy supports a 'healthy' status perspective among CCP and
- The need to identify CCP with an 'unhealthy' status perspective, in order to either reorientate them or relocate them to areas within the organisation that will

not affect the customer's service experience, nor 'contaminate' CCP with a 'healthy' status perspective within the organisation.

The focus of this study has been on service behaviour, where research into antecedents is in its infancy. Therefore, the empirical research offers new research findings in an area where the proposed relationships between constructs have had minimal discussion and/or research in the services marketing literature. These areas include:

- Service behaviour, which has only been measured once previously (Weatherly and Tansik, 1993a; 1993b), among a different cohort of CCP, arguably occupying a lesser boundary spanning role than the flight attendants of this research. Additionally, only one of the antecedents of this study's model, i.e., role conflict, was measured in the previous study.
- The relative status perspective of CCP, which has not been previously measured, excepting a study from the perspective of the customer (Goodwin and Frame, 1989),
- Role conflict, whose antecedents and consequences have rarely been studied among non-professionals (Babin and Boles, 1996) as in this study,
- Uniform perceptions, which have previously not been studied from the wearer's perspective or with the objective of assessing their influence as a tangible cue on service performance (Daniel et al., 1996) and,
- The investigation of customer orientation, which despite much anecdotal evidence, has rarely been specifically measured or had its antecedents or consequences researched (Daniel and Darby, 1997).

Further contributions of this research also include the scale development or extension of several constructs. These include: an extended and revised scale for the measurement of service behaviour among CCP; a modification of the SOCO (Saxe and Weitz, 1982) scale to measure customer orientation; and the development of scales to measure uniform perceptions and relative status.

Importantly, the research draws attention to the role of CCP in the service encounter and offers findings concerning the management of service employees in order to ensure superior service behaviour. This is critical to the objective of customer satisfaction and service quality as researching only the customer's perspective does not provide a holistic understanding of the service encounter which is a dyadic interaction.

8.6 Limitations of the Research

The first limitation of this study is the generalisability of the findings. This study sampled only one cohort of CCP, namely flight attendants. While they were well qualified as boundary spanners in a 'frontline' role, it is not known whether the findings from this study can be generalised to other CCP service positions. Perhaps the glamour stereotype often associated with this role (Hochschild, 1983) may bias responses. For example, airline flight attendants may weight aspects of uniform perceptions concerning appearance more highly than other service providers. Alternatively, flight attendants, often accommodated in the first-class hotels of their first-class customers, may have difficulty embracing the incongruency of their position, where one minute they are 'serving' passengers, then later they are in the same hotel gymnasium with them. This may influence their perceptions of relative status compared to other CCP who do not as obviously partake of the lifestyle of their customers.

Another limitation of this research is that with the exception of role conflict, the measured constructs have had minimal investigation. Scales were extended, modified or developed for this research. Consequently, with several of the scales previously untested, prior to the pilot studies of this study, it is prudent to recognise that they have yet to be verified by other researchers. Construct validity of measures requires a .... ***series of reliability and validity studies*** (Peter, 1981:135) .

A further limitation is the self-report nature of this study. One cannot rule out the possibility of respondents answering in a socially desirable manner. However, the research design of this study did attempt to eliminate this through the use of the Crowne-

Marlowe scale (Strahan and Gerbasi, 1972). Similarly, there may be blurred distinctions between some of the measured variables by our respondents due to the self-report procedure as some of the variables may be intrinsically intermingled (Folkman and Lazarus, 1985).

8.7 Future Research Directions

Recognising the limitations of the research, future studies undertaken with different cohorts of CCP would be beneficial to verify the empirical model presented in this study. Investigation of service employees in similar industries, such as hotels, and in more distantly related service industries, such as banks, would contribute greatly to our understanding not only of the relationships investigated in this study but also of the differences between CCP cohorts. The situation, the context or the individual may change the behavioural response (Oakland and Ostell, 1996).

The managerial implications provided some interesting diagnostics of the structure of service behaviour within the context of this study. Given the importance of this construct, future research that attempts to better understand the nature of service behaviour would be beneficial; for example, what are the key antecedents to each of the dimensions of service behaviour.

While the relationship between relative status and role conflict was found to be significant, albeit not in the direction proposed by Shamir (1980), it should be remembered that these were observations of CCP within two different countries, i.e., Australia and Israel. The possibility of similarities existing between Israel and Australia are strong, given the similarities that exist between Israel and Australia on Hofstede's (1991) power distance dimension. Future research that placed the conceptual model in an alternative power distance context would enable greater understanding of cultural aspects that influence the service behaviour of CCP. For example, Malaysia is ranked 1 and Indonesia 9 on the Power Distance dimension, compared to Australia 41 and Israel 52.

Of particular research interest is an understanding of why some CCP perceive they have a higher status relative to their customers. Since the research found the ramifications of the status perspective of CCP to be significant, it would be immensely useful if future research could delineate the factors that influence this position, i.e., the determinants of 'superiority'. For example, is status perspective personality driven or one that has generated from group cohesion, or management or organisational influence?

While considered an artefact of perceived self-status, the unexpected finding in the complete data path analysis that role conflict was positively related to positive service behaviour, suggests further inquiry in this area be warranted. In particular, whether contributing factors may be a no-escape service setting which may persuade CCP to positively resolve their conflict, or that some people thrive on stress more than others (Babin and Boles, 1996). Also, following Miles and Perreault's (1976) suggestion, perhaps the nature of the role conflict CCP are experiencing needs to be further investigated if the dynamics of the relationships between role conflict, customer orientation, relative status and service behaviour are to be fully understood.

Given the limited amount of research concerning uniform perceptions from the wearer's perspective (Kaiser, 1990) and the importance they play in the 'packaging' of CCP (Solomon, 1987), it would seem sensible that future research investigates this particular tangible cue. For example, an investigation of the effect of uniform change within a service organisation should be useful to management planning.

The significant but non-theoretically supported correlations between the constructs, outlined in Section 6.3.4, Validity, points to the possibility of further theoretically valid relationships that may be worthy of future research consideration. These include the relationships between customer orientation and uniform perceptions, perceived self-status and perceived recognition status, role conflict and uniform perceptions, and uniform perceptions and service behaviour.

Finally, this research studied only a handful of potential antecedents of service behaviour from the perspective of the service provider. An understanding of these issues is paramount to understanding the nature of the service encounter, therefore further research is required to delineate additional antecedents of service behaviour. As the service encounter is a dyadic interaction, mirror image research of this study would also be interesting to understand the customer's perspective.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Adams, J. Stacy (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 2, 267-200, New York: Academic Press.

Albrecht, Karl and Ron Zemke (1985). *Service America.* Illinois: Dow Jones-Irwin.

Ament, Linda M. and Gene Deszca (1992). Service challenge of the 1990s: Part II. Training - the driving force. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 24(9), 18-21.

Arbuckle, James L. (1997). *Amos Users' Guide - version 3.6.* USA: SmallWaters Corporation.

Asher, Herbert B. (1983). *Causal Modeling.* U.S.A.: Sage Publications

Ashforth, Blake E. and Ronald H. Humphrey (1993). Emotional labor in service roles: The influence of identity. *Academy of Management Review*, 18(1), 88-115.

Assael, Henry (1992). *Consumer Behavior and Marketing Action.* 4th Ed., U.S.A.: PWS-Kent.

Babin, Barry J. and James S. Boles (1996). The effects of perceived co-worker involvement and supervisor support on service provider role stress, performance and job satisfaction. *Journal of Retailing*, 72(1), 57-75.

Bacharach, Samuel B., Peter Bamberger and Bryan Mundell (1993). Status inconsistency in organizations: From social hierarchy to stress. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 14, 21-36.

Bagozzi, Richard P. (1994). Measurement in marketing research: Basic principles of questionnaire design. In Bagozzi, R. P. (Ed.) *Principles of Marketing Research*, 1-49, Cambridge: Blackwell.

Baker, Paul M. (1983). Ageism, sex and age: A factorial survey approach. *Canadian Journal on Aging*, 2(4), December, 177-184.

Barrick, Murray R. and Michael K. Mount (1991). The big five personality dimensions and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 44, 1-26.

Bateson, John E.G.(1985). Perceived control and the service encounter. In Czepiel, J.A., M. R. Solomon, C. F. Surprenant (Eds.), *The Service Encounter*. Massachusetts: Lexington Books, 67-82.

Bateson, John E. G. (1995). *Managing Services Marketing*, Text and Readings. 3rd Ed., USA: Dryden Harcourt Brace.

Bearden, William O., Richard G. Netemeyer and Mary F. Mobley (1993). *Handbook of Marketing Scales: Multi-Item Measures for Marketing and Consumer Behavior Research.* USA: Sage publications

Beck, Chris (1994). Are you being served?. *Good Weekend, Sydney Morning Herald,* June 18, 16-24.

Becker, Wendy S. and Richard S. Wellins (1990). Customer service perceptions and reality. *Training and Development Journal,* March, 44(3), 49-51.

Benoit-Smullyan, E. (1944). Status, status types and status interrelations. *American Sociological Review,* 9, 151-161.

Bentler, P. (1990). Comparative fit indexes in structural models. *Psychological Bulletin,* 107, 238-246.

Bentler, P. M. and D. G. Bonett (1980). Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin,* 88, 588-606.

Berelson, Bernard and Gary A. Steiner (1967). *Human Behavior: Shorter Edition.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.

Berry, Leonard L. (1980). Services marketing is different. *Business,* 30, May-June, 24-29.

Bickman, Leonard (1974). The social power of a uniform. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology,* 4(1), 47-61.

Biddle, B.J. (1986). Recent developments in role theory. *Annual Review of Sociology,* 12, 67-92.

Birnbaum, Dee and Mark John Somers (1989). The meaning and measurement of occupational image for the nursing role. *Work and Occupations,* 16(2), May, 200-213.

Bitner, Mary Jo (1991). The evolution of the services marketing mix and its relationship to service quality. In Brown, Stephen W., Evert Gummesson, Bo Edvardsson and BengtOve Gustavsson (Eds.), *Service Quality: Multidisciplinary and Multinational Perspectives.* Massachusetts: Lexington Books, 23-37.

Bitner, Mary Jo, Bernard H. Booms and Lois A. Mohr (1994), Critical service encounters: The employee's view. *Journal of Marketing,* 58, October, 95-106.

Bitner, Mary Jo, Bernard H. Booms and Mary Stanfield Tetreault (1990). The service encounter: diagnosing favorable and unfavorable incidents. *Journal of Marketing,* 54, January, 71-84.

Bitner, Mary Jo and Amy R. Hubbert (1994). Encounter satisfaction versus overall satisfaction versus quality. In Rust, Roland T. and Richard L. Oliver (Eds.), *Service Quality: New Directions in Theory and Practice*, USA: Sage, 73-94.

Blancero, Donna, Scott A. Johnson and C. Lakshman (1996). Psychological contracts and fairness: The effect of violations on customer service behavior. *Journal of Market-Focused Management*, 1, 49-63.

Boles, James S. and Barry J. Babin (1996). On the frontlines: Stress, conflict, and the customer service provider. *Journal of Business Research*, 37, 41-50.

Boshoff, Christo and Gerhard Mels (1995). A causal model to evaluate the relationships among supervision, role stress, organizational commitment and internal service quality. *European Journal of Marketing*, 29(2), 23-42.

Bowen, David (1990). Interdisciplinary study of service: Some progress, some prospects. *Journal of Business Research*, 20, 63-70.

Bowen, David E. and Benjamin Schneider (1985). Boundary-spanning-role employees and the service encounter: Some guidelines for management and research. In Czepiel, J.A., M. R. Solomon and C. F. Suprenant (Eds.), *The Service Encounter*, Massachusetts: Lexington Books, 127-147.

Brown, Roger (1965). *Social Psychology*. New York: Macmillian

Brown, Stephen W. and Teresa A. Swartz (1989). A gap analysis of professional service quality. *Journal of Marketing*, 53, April, 92-98.

Brown, Gene, Robert E. Widing II and Ronald L. Coulter (1991). Customer evaluation of retail salespeople utilizing the SOCO scale: A replication, extension, and application. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 19(4), 347-351.

Burke, R.J. and M. L. Belcourt (1974). Managerial role stress and coping responses. *Journal of Business Administration*, 5(2), 55-68.

Calder, Bobby J. (1977). Focus groups and the nature of qualitative marketing research. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 14, August, 353-364.

Carlson, Jan (1987). *Moments of Truth*. USA.: Harper Row.

Chase, R. B. (1978). Where does the customer fit in a service operation? *Harvard Business Review*, Nov/Dec, 137-142.

Churchill, A. Gilbert Jr. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16, February, 64-73.

Churchill, Gilbert A. Jr. (1987). *Marketing Research: Methodological Foundations.* Chicago: Dryden Press.

Coleman, Richard P. (1983). The continuing significance of social class to marketing. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 10, 265-280.

Coursey, Robert D. (1973). Clothes doth make the man, in the eye of the beholder. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 36, 1259-1264.

Crane, F. G. and T. K. Clarke (1988). The identification of evaluative criteria and cues used in selecting services. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 2(2), Spring, 53-59.

Creekmore, A. M. (1963). Clothing behaviors and their relation to general values and to the striving for basic needs. PhD dissertation, Pennsylvania State University.

Creekmore, A. M. (1974). Clothing related to body satisfaction and perceived peer self. *Research Report 239*, Michigan: Technical Bulletin, Michigan State University Agricultural Experiment Station.

Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*, 16, 297-334.

Crosby, Lawrence A. and Nancy Stephens (1987). Effects of relationship marketing on satisfaction, retention, and prices in the life insurance industry. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 24, November, 404-411.

Crowne, Douglas P. and David Marlowe (1964). *The Approval Motive*. USA: John Wiley and Sons.

Czepiel, John A. (1990), Service encounters and service relationships: Implications for research. *Journal of Business Research*, 20, 13-21.

Czepiel, John A., Michael R. Solomon, Carol F. Surprenant and Evelyn G. Gutman (1985). Service encounters: An overview. In Czepiel, J.A., M.R. Solomon and C.F. Suprenant (Eds.), *The Service Encounter*, 3-15, Massachusetts: Lexington Books.

Daniel, Kerry and David N. Darby (1997). A dual perspective of customer orientation: A modification, extension and application of the SOCO Scale. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 8(2), 131-147.

Daniel, Kerry, Lester W. Johnson and Kenneth E. Miller (1996). Dimensions of uniform perceptions among service providers. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 10(2), 42-54.

Daniel, Kerry, Lester W. Johnson and Kenneth E. Miller (1997). The measurement of service behaviour among customer contact personnel. In Wilson, Elizabeth J. and Joseph F. Hair Jnr. (Eds.), Developments in Marketing Science, 20, 260-261.

Davidow, William H. and Bro Uttal (1989). *Total Customer Service: The Ultimate Weapon.* New York: Harper Collins.

Day, David V. and Stanley B. Silverman (1989). Personality and job performance: Evidence of incremental validity. *Personnel Psychology*, 42, 25-36

De Vader, Christy L. and Philip D. Cooper (1989). Nontraditional employee incentives that impact employee performance in the service sector. In, Bitner, M. J. and L. Crosby (Eds.), *Designing a Winning Service Strategy*, Chicago: AMA.

Deluga, R. J. (1989). Employee-influence strategies as possible stress-coping mechanisms for role conflict and role ambiguity. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 10, 329-335.

Deshpande, Rohit, John U. Farley and Frederick E. Webster, Jr. (1993). Corporate culture, customer orientation, and innovativeness in Japanese firms: A Quadrad analysis. *Journal of Marketing*, 57, January, 23-27.

Diamantopoulos, A. (1994). Modelling with LISREL: A guide for the uninitiated. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 10, 105-136.

Dillman, Don A. (1978). *Mail and Telephone Surveys: The Total Design Method.* U.S.A.: Wiley & Sons.

Duarte, Amalia (1993). Behind the Glitz at the Ritz. *Meetings and Conventions*, June.

Dubinsky, Alan J. (1994). What marketers can learn from the tin man. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 8(2), 36-45.

Duncan, Otis D. (1975). *Introduction to Structural Equation Models*, New York: Academic Press.

Endler, Norman S. and James D. A. Parker (1990). Multidimensional assessment of coping: A critical evaluation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 58(5), 844-854.

Ferris, Gerald R., Gregory T. Bergin and David C. Gilmore (1986). Personality and ability predictors of training performance for flight attendants. *Group and Organization Studies*, 11(4), December, 416-435.

Firnstahl, Timothy W. (1989). My employees are my service guarantee. *Harvard Business Review*, July-August, 28-32.

Fisher, James E. (1987). Social class and consumer behavior: The relevance of class and status. In Wallendorf, Melanie and Paul Anderson (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research*, 14, Utah: Association for Consumer Research, 492-496.

Fisher, Cynthia D. and Richard Gitelson (1983). A meta-analysis of the correlates of role conflict and ambiguity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68(2), 320-333.

Fisher, Cynthia D., Lyle F. Schoenfeldt and James B. Shaw (1993), *Human Resource Management*, 2nd ed., Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin.

Folkman, S. and R. S. Lazarus (1985). If it changes it must be a process: A study of emotion and coping during three stages of a college examination. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 48, 150-170.

Gerbing, David W. and James C. Anderson (1988). An updated paradigm for scale development incorporating unidimensionality and its assessment. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 25, May, 186-192.

Gerth, Hans and C. Wright Mills (1954). *Character and Social Structure: The Psychology of Social Institutions*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.

Giles, Howard and William Chavasse (1975). Communication length as a function of dress style and social status. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 40, 961-962.

Giles, Howard and Kathryn Farrar (1979). Some behavioural consequences of speech and dress styles. *British Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology*, 18, 209-210.

Goodwin, Cathy (1986). Using consumer's roles to classify services. In Venkatesan, M., Diane H. Schmalensee and Claudia Marshall (Eds.), *Creativity in Services Marketing: What's New, What Works, What's Developing*. San Francisco proceeding series: American Marketing Association, 159-163.

Goodwin, Cathy and Charles D. Frame (1989). Social distance within the service encounter: Does the consumer want to be your friend ?. In Hunt, K. (Ed), *Advances in Consumer Research*, 16, 64 - 71.

Goodwin, Cathy and Bronislaw J. Verhage (1989), Role perceptions of services: A cross-cultural comparison with behavioural implications. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 10, 543-558.

Gough, Harrison G. (1948). A new dimension in status: Development of a personality scale. *American Sociological Review*, 401-409.

Gremler, Dwayne and Mary Jo Bitner (1992). Classifying service encounter satisfaction across industries. Proceedings of AMA Educator's Conference, San Antonio, Winter, 111-118.

Gronroos, Christian (1984). A service quality model and its marketing implications. *European Journal of Marketing*, 18(4), 36-44.

Gronroos, Christian (1990). *Service Management and Marketing: Managing the Moments of Truth*. Singapore: Maxwell McMillan.

Grove, Stephen J. and Raymond P. Fisk (1983). The dramaturgy of services exchange: An analytical framework for services marketing. In, Berry, L. L., G. L. Shostack and G. D. Upah (Eds.), *Emerging Perspectives on Services Marketing*. Chicago: American Marketing Association, 45-49.

Guiry, Michael (1992), Consumer and employee roles in service encounters, *Advances in Consumer Research*, 19, 666-672.

Gurel, L. M. and L. Gurel (1979). Clothing interest: Conceptualization and measurement. *Home Economics Research Journal*, 7(5), May, 274-282.

Hair, Joseph F., Rolph E. Anderson, Ronald L. Tatham and William C. Black (1995). *Multivariate Data Analysis with readings*. 4th edition, USA: Prentice Hall.

Hartline, Michael D. and O.C. Ferrell (1996). The management of customer-contact service employees: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Marketing*, 80, October, 52-70.

Hawkins, Del I., Roger J. Best and Kenneth A. Coney (1992). *Consumer Behavior: Implications for Marketing Strategy*. 5th ed. U.S.A.: Irwin.

Henderson, Cheri (1992). Turning into Ritz philosophy. *Managing Service Quality*, November, 387-389.

Henkoff, Ronald (1994). Finding, training and keeping the best service workers. *Fortune*, October 3, 66-72.

Heskett, J. L. (1986). *Managing in the Service Economy*. Boston: Harvard Business School.

Hochschild, Airlie Russel (1983). *The Managed Heart*. U.S.A.: University of California Press.

Hoelter, J. W. (1983). The analysis of covariance structures: Goodness-of-fit indices. *Sociological Methods and Research*, 11, 325-344.

Hoffman, Kenneth Douglas (1988). The influence of service provider role perceptions and job satisfaction on customer oriented behaviors. D.B.A. Dissertation, University of Kentucky.

Hoffman, K. Douglas and Scott W. Kelley (1994). The influence of service provider mood states on prosocial behaviours and service quality assessments. In, Park, C.W. and D.C. Smith (Eds.), St. Petersburg: AMA Winter Educators Conference, 288-289.

Hoffman, Kenneth Douglas and Thomas N. Ingram (1991). Creating customer-oriented employees: The case in home health care. *Journal of Health Care Marketing*, 11(2), June, 24-32.

Hofstede, Gert (1991). *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind*. England: McGraw-Hill.

Hogan, Robert and Joyce Hogan (1992). *Hogan Personality Inventory Manual.* Hogan Assessment Systems: Tulsa.

Hogan, Joyce, Robert Hogan and Catherine M. Busch (1984). How to measure service orientation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69(1), 167-173.

Holland, John L.(1985). *Making Vocational Choices.* 2nd edition, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Hollander, Stanley C. (1985). A Historical Perspective on the Service Encounter. In Czepiel, J.A., M. R. Solomon and C. F. Suprenant (Eds.), *The Service Encounter.* 49-63, Massachusetts: Lexington Books.

Holmes, M. and J. Butler (1987). Status inconsistency, racial separatism and job satisfaction. *Sociological Perspectives*, 30(2), 201-224.

Homans, George C. (1961). *Social Behavior: Its Elementary Forms.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.

Honeycutt, Earl D., Judy A Siguaw and Tammy G. Hunt (1995). Business ethics and job-related constructs: A cross-cultural comparison of automotive salespeople. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 14, 235-248.

House, R. J. and J. R. Rizzo (1972). Role conflict and ambiguity as critical variables in the model of organizational behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 7, 467-505.

Howard, John A. (1989). *Consumer Behavior in Marketing Strategy.* U.S.A.: Prentice-Hall.

Howe, Vince, K. Douglas Hoffman and Donald W. Hardigree (1994). The relationship between ethical and customer-oriented service provider behaviors. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 13, 497-506.

Jackson, E. (1962). Status consistency and symptoms of stress. *American Sociological Review*, 27(4), 469-480.

Jackson, Susan E. and Randall S. Schuler (1985). A meta-analysis and conceptual critique of research on role ambiguity and role conflict in work settings. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 36, 16-78.

Johnson, B. H., R. H. Nagasawa and K. Peters (1977). Clothing style differences: Their effect on the impression of sociability. *Home Economics Journal*, 6(1), 58-63.

Joreskog, K. G. and D. Sorbom (1984). LISREL-VI user's guide. 3rd edition, Morresville, Indiana: Scientific Software.

Joreskog, K. G. and D. Sorbom (1989). LISREL 7: User's Reference Guide. Morresville Indiana: Scientific Software.

Joseph, Nathan and Nicholas Alex (1972). The uniform: A sociological perspective. *American Journal of Sociology*, 77(4), 719-730.

Kahn, R. L., D. M. Wolfe, R. P. Quinn, J. D. Snoek and R. A. Rosenthal (1964). *Organizational Stress: Studies in Role Conflict and Ambiguity*. New York: Wiley.

Kaiser, S. B. (1983). Toward a contextual social psychology of clothing: a synthesis of symbolic interactionist and cognitive theoretical perspectives. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, 2(1), 1-9.

Kaiser, Susan B. (1990). *The Social Psychology of Clothing: Symbolic Appearances in Context*. 2nd edition, New York: Macmillian.

Katz, Daniel and Robert L. Kahn (1978). *The Social Psychology of Organizations*, 2nd ed., New York: Wiley and Sons.

Kellogg, Deborah L. and Richard B. Chase (1995). Constructing an empirically derived measure for customer contact. *Management Science*, 41(11), November, 1734-1749.

Kelley, S. W. (1992). Developing customer orientation among service employees. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 20(1), 27-36.

Kelley, Scott W., Timothy Longfellow and Jack Malehorn (1996). Organizational determinants of service employees' exercise of routine, creative, and deviant discretion. *Journal of Retailing*, 72(2), 135-157.

Kerlinger, Fred N. (1973). *Foundations of Behavioral Research*. 2nd edition, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

King, Lynda A. and Daniel W. King (1990). Role conflict and role ambiguity: A critical assessment of construct validity. *Psychological Bulletin*, 107(1), 48-64.

Kinnear, Thomas C., James R. Taylor, Lester Johnson and Robert Armstrong (1993). *Australian Marketing Research*. Australia: McGraw-Hill.

Kipnis, David, Stuart M. Schmidt and Ian Wilkinson (1980). Intraorganizational influence tactics: Explorations in getting one's way. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 65(4), 440-452.

Kluegel, James. R., Royce Singleton Jr. and Charles E. Starnes (1977). Subjective class identification: A multiple indicator approach. *American Sociological Review*, 42, August, 599-611.

Lawley, D. N. and A. E. Maxwell (1971). *Factor Analysis as a Statistical Method*. London: Butterworth and Co.

Levitt, Theodore (1981). Marketing intangible products and product intangibles. *Harvard Business Review*, 59, May-June, 94-102.

Lewis, R. Barbara and Thomas W. Entwistle (1990). Managing the service encounter: A focus on the employee. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 1(3), 41-52.

Lockwood, Andrew and Peter Jones (1989). Creating positive service encounters. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 29(4), February, 44-50.

Lovelock, Christopher H. (1981). Why marketing management needs to be different for services. In Donnelly, J. and W. George (Eds.), *Marketing of Services*. Chicago: American Marketing Association, 5-9.

Lux, David J., Steve M. Jex and Curtiss P. Hansen (1996). Factors influencing employee perceptions of customer service climate. *Journal of Market-Focused Management*, 1, 65-86.

McCallum, Richard J. and Wayne Harrison (1985). Interdependence in the service encounter. In Czepiel, J.A., M.R. Solomon and C.F. Suprenant (Eds.), *The Service Encounter*, 3-15, Massachusetts: Lexington Books.

McGuinness, P.P. (1994). Acts of hatred a handicap to business. *The Australian*, 11, April 6.

Macquarie Dictionary (1988). Macquarie University, NSW, 2nd Ed., Australia: The Book Printer.

Martin, William B. (1993). *Quality Customer Service*. 3rd ed., U.S.A.: Crisp Publications.

Mayo, Michael C. (1990). The services marketing literature: A review and critique. *Canadian Journal of Marketing Research*, 9, 33-41.

Meares, Larry B. (1988). What good leaders do. *Personnel*, September, 48-52.

Michaels, Ronald E. and Ralph L. Day (1985). Measuring customer orientation of salespeople: A replication with industrial buyers. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 21, November, 443-446.

Miles, Robert H. and William D. Perreault Jr. (1976). Organizational role conflict: Its antecedents and consequences. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 17, 19-44.

Mill, Robert C. (1986). Managing the service encounter. *The Cornell Quarterly*, 27(4), February, 39-45.

Mills, C. Wright (1953). *White Collar*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Mindak, William and Robert Folger (1990). Toward integration of marketing and organizational behaviour in the service economy. *Journal of Business Research*, 20, 1-2.

Morgan, Ronald B. and Jack E. Smith (1996). *Staffing the New Workplace: Selecting and Promoting for Quality Improvement*. Milwaukee: American Society for Quality Control.

Mowen, John C. (1990). *Consumer Behavior.* 2nd Ed., New York: Macmillan.

Murdy, Lee B., S. B. Sells, James F. Gavin and David L.Toole (1973). Validity of personality and interest inventories for stewardesses. *Personnel Psychology*, 26, 273-278.

Narver, J. and S. Slater (1990). The effect of a market orientation on business profitability. *Journal of Marketing*, 54(4), 20-35.

Nunnally, Jum C. (1967). *Psychometric Theory.* New York: McGraw Hill.

Oakland, Susan and Alistair Ostell (1996). Measuring coping: A review and critique. *Human Relations*, 49(2), 133-155.

O'Hara, Bradley S., James S. Boles and Mark W. Johnson (1991). The influence of personal variables on salesperson selling orientation. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, 11(1), Winter, 61-67.

Oleck, Joan (1994). Why I hate this job. *Restaurant Business*, 10 February, 70-76.

Oliver, Richard L. (1980). A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 17, November, 460-469.

Parasuraman A., Valarie A. Zeithaml and Leonard L. Berry (1985). A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research. *Journal of Marketing*, 49, Fall, 41-50.

Parasuraman A., Valarie A. Zeithaml and Leonard L. Berry (1988). SERVQUAL: A multiple-item scale for measuring consumer perceptions of service quality. *Journal of Retailing*, 64(1), 12-37.

Parasuraman, A., Leonard L. Berry and Valarie A. Zeithaml (1991). Perceived service quality as a customer-based performance measure: An empirical examination of organizational barriers using an extended service quality model. *Human Resource Management*, 30(3), Fall, 335-364.

Parkington, John J. and Benjamin Schneider (1979). Some correlates of experienced job stress: A boundary role study. *Academy of Management Journal*, 22(2), 270-281.

Partlow, Charles G. (1993). How Ritz-Carlton applies 'TQM'. *The Cornell Quarterly*, 34(4), August.

Peter, J. Paul (1981). Construct validity: A review of basic issues and marketing practices. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 28, May, 133-145.

Pfaffenberger, Roger (1979). Using and abusing path analysis as a research tool in the behavioral sciences. In Mowday, R. T. and R. M Stears (Eds.), *Research in Organizations*, 273-286, USA: Goodyear.

Pinchot, Gifford (1992). Rewarding with status. *Executive Excellence*, August, 3-5.

Porter, M. E. (1980). *Competitive Strategy*. New York: Free Press.

Price, Linda L., Eric J. Arnould, and Patrick Tierney (1995). Going to extremes: Managing service encounters and assessing provider performance. *Journal of Marketing*, 59, April, 83-97.

Rafaeli, Anat (1989). When cashiers meet customers: An analysis of the role of supermarket cashiers. *Academy of Management Journal*, 32(2), 245-273.

Rafaeli, Anat (1993). Dress and behavior of customer contact employees: A framework for analysis. In Swartz, Teresa A., David E. Bowen and Stephen W. Brown (Eds.), *Advances in Services Marketing and Management*, 2, 175-211, Connecticut: JAI Press.

Rafaeli, Anat and Michael G. Pratt (1993). Tailored meanings: On the meaning and impact of organizational dress. *Academy of Management Review*, 18(1), 32-55.

Rafaeli, Anat and Robert I. Sutton (1987). Expression of emotion as part of the work role. *Academy of Management Journal*, 12(1), 23-37.

Reardon, Kathleen K. and Ben Enis (1990). Establishing companywide customer orientation through persuasive internal marketing. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 3(3), February, 376-387.

Reiss, Bob (1994). Under that smiling calm exterior is a graduate Deltoid. *Smithsonian*, 24, February, 88-97.

Rizzo, John R., Robert J. House and Sidney I. Lirtzman (1970). Role conflict and ambiguity in complex organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 15, 150-163.

Rosenfeld, Lawrence B. and Timothy G. Plax (1977). Clothing as communication. *Journal of Communication*, Spring, 24-31.

Ross, Glen (1995). Interpersonal stress reactions and service quality responses among hospitality industry employees. *Services Industries Journal*, 15(3), July, 314-331.

Ruekert, Robert W. and Gilvert A. Churchill, Jr. (1984). Reliability and validity of alternative measures of channel member satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 21, May, 226-233.

Sampson, Edward E. (1969). Studies of status congruence. In Berkowitz, Leonard (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 4, 225-270, Academic Press: New York and London.

Saxe, Robert and Barton A. Weitz (1982). The SOCO scale: A measure of the customer orientation of salespeople. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 19, August, 343-351.

Schneider, Benjamin (1980). The service organization: Climate is crucial. *Organizational Dynamics*, Autumn, 52-65.

Schneider, Benjamin (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology*, 40, 437-453.

Schneider Benjamin and David E. Bowen (1985). Employee and customer perceptions of service in banks: replication and extension. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 70(3), 423-433.

Schneider, Benjamin and David E. Bowen (1993). The service organization: Human resources management is crucial. *Organizational Dynamics*, 21, 39-52.

Schneider, Benjamin and David E. Bowen (1995). *Winning the Service Game*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Schneider, Benjamin and Daniel Schechter (1991). Development of a personal selection system for service jobs. In Brown, Stephen W., Evert Gummesson, Bo Edvardsson and BengtOve Gustavsson (Eds.), *Service Quality: Multidisciplinary and Multinational Perspectives*. Massachusetts: Lexington Books, 217-235.:

Schneider Benjamin, Jill K. Wheeler and Jonathon Cox (1992). A passion for service: Using content analysis to explicate service climate themes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77(5), 705-716.

Schuler, Randall S. (1996). Market-focused management: Human resource management implications. *Journal of Market-Focused Management*, 1, 13-29.

Schumacker, Randall E. and Richard G. Lomax (1996). *A Beginners Guide To Structural Equation Modeling*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Sellers, Pat (1994). What it takes to be a flight attendant - the highs and the lows. *Cosmopolitan*, 216, June, 211-213.

Shamir, Boas (1980). Between service and servility: Role conflict in subordinate service roles. *Human Relations*, 33 (10), 741-756.

Shostack, G. Lynn (1977). Breaking free from product marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, 41, April, 73-80.

Shostack, G. Lynn (1985). Planning the service encounter. In Czepiel, John A., Michael R. Solomon and Carol F. Surprenant (Eds.), *The Service Encounter*. 243-254. Massachusetts: Lexington Books.

Siehl, Caren, David E. Bowen and Christine M. Pearson (1992). Service encounters as rites of integration: an information processing model. *Organization Science*, 3(4), November, 537-555.

Siguaw, Judy A., Gene Brown and Robert Widing II (1994). The influence of the market orientation of the firm on sales force behavior and attitudes. *Journal of Marketing Research*, February, 106-116.

Siguaw, Judy A. and Earl D. Honeycutt Jr. (1995). An examination of gender differences in selling behaviors and job attitudes. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 24, 45-52.

Singer, Ming S. and Alan E. Singer (1985). The effect of police uniform on interpersonal perception. *Journal of Psychology*, 119(2), 157-161.

Singh, Jagdip, Jerry R. Goolsby and Gary K. Rhoads (1994). Behavioral and psychological consequences of boundary spanning burnout for customer service representatives. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 31, November, 558-569.

Singh, Jagdip, Willem Verbeke and Gary K. Rhoads (1996). Do organizational practices matter in role stress processes? A study of direct and moderting effects for marketing-oriented boundary spanners. *Journal of Marketing*, 60, July, 69-86.

Sirgy, M. Joseph (1982). Self-concept in consumer behavior: A critical review. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9, December, 287-300.

Smith, Carla S., John Tisak and Robert A. Schmieder (1993). The measurement properties of the role conflict and role ambiguity scales: A review and extension of the empirical research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 14, 37-48.

Smith, Terence J. (1989). Nurturing a cusotmer service culture. *Retail Control*, October, 15-18.

Solomon, Michael R. (1983). The role of products as social stimuli: A symbolic interactionism perspective. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 10, December, 319-329.

Solomon, Michael R. (1985). Packaging the service provider. *The Services Industries Journal*, 5, July, 64-71.

Solomon, Michael (1987). Standard issue. *Psychology Today*, December, 30-31.

Solomon, Michael R., Carol Surprenant John A. Czepiel and Evelyn G. Gutman (1985). A role theory perspective on dyadic interactions: The service encounter. *Journal of Marketing*, 49, Winter, 99-111.

Surprenant, Carol F. and Michael R. Solomon (1987). Predictability and personalization in the service encounter. *Journal of Marketing*, 51, April, 86-96.

Sutton, Robert I. and Anat Rafaeli (1988). Untangling the relationship between displayed emotions and organizational sales. *Academy of Management Journal*, 31(3), 461-487.

Sterling, F. E. (1980). Net positive social approaches of young psychiatric inpatients as influenced by nurses' attire. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 48(1), 58-62.

Sterling, F. E. and W. David Dinning (1980). Street attire vs nurses' uniforms: A brief questionnaire. *Psychological Reports*, 47, 181-182.

Strahan, Robert and Kathleen Carrese Gerbasi (1972). Short, homogeneous versions of the Marlow-Crowne social desirability scale. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 28, 191-193.

Stryker, S. and A. S. Macke (1978). Status inconsistency and role conflict. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 4, 57-90.

Sweeney, Jillian C. (1995). An investigation of a theoretical model of consumer perceptions of value. Unpublished PhD thesis, Curtain University, Western Australia.

Swenson, Michael J. and Joel Herche (1994). Social values and salesperson performance: An empirical examination. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 22(3), 283-289.

Tanaka, J. (1987). How big is enough? Sample size and gooness-of-fit in structural equation models with latent variables. *Child Development*, 58, 134-146.

Tansik, David A. (1990). Managing human resource issues for high-contact service personnel. In Bowen, David, Richard B. Chase, Thomas G. Cummings and Assoc. (Eds.), *Service Management Effectiveness: Balancing Strategy, Organization and Human Resources, Operations, and Marketing.* Jossey Bass: San Francisco, 152-176.

Terkel, Studs (1974). *Working*. New York: Ballantine.

van de Vliert, Evert (1981). A three-step theory of role conflict resolution. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 113, 77-83.

Watkins, Edward (1992). How Ritz-Carlton won the Baldridge award. *Lodging Hospitality*, November, 22-24.

Way, Nicholas (1994). Your job has never been so safe. *Business Review Weekly*, March 28, 42-46.

Weatherly, Kristopher Allen (1991). Managing multiple demands: Examining the behaviors of customer-contact workers in service industries. Unpublished Master of Science thesis, Graduate College, University of Arizona.

Weatherly, Kristopher A. and David A. Tansik (1993a). Managing multiple demands: A role-theory examination of the behaviors of customer contact service workers. In Swartz, Teresa A., David E. Bowen and Stephen W. Brown (Eds.), *Advances in Services Marketing and Management*, 2, 279-300, Connecticut: JAI Press.

Weatherly, Kristopher A. and David A. Tansik (1993b). Tactics used by customer-contact workers: Effects of role stress, boundary spanning and control. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 4(3), 4-17.

Weatherly, Kristopher A. (1994). Personal discussion via telephone.

Weber, Max (1948). Class, status, party. In Gerth, H. and C.W. Mills (Eds.), *Max Weber: Essays in Sociology*, 180-195, Great Britain: Lowe and Brydone.

Westbrook, Robert (1980). A rating scale for measuring product/service satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing*, 44, Fall, 68-72.

Westbrook, Robert A. (1981). Sources of consumer satisfaction with retail outlets. *Journal of Retailing*, 57(3), Fall, 68-85.

Williams, Claire (1986). Domestic flight attendants in Australia: A quasi occupational community? *The Journal of Industrial Relations*, 28(2), June, 237-251.

Williams, Claire (1988). *Blue, White and Pink Collar Workers in Australia.* Sydney: Allen and Unwin.

Williams, Claire (1994). Lessons from the unionisation of flight attendants. International Sociological Association, 13th world congress, Bielefield, Germany.

Whyte, W. F. (1948). *Human relations in the restaurant industry.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Wray, Barry, Adrian Palmer and David Bejou (1994). Using neural network analysis to evaluate buyer-seller relationships. *European Journal of Marketing*, 28(10), 32-48.

Wright, T. L. (1974). Adults in the real world trust professionals and the little man and woman. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 1(1), 171-173.

Zeithaml, Valerie A., Leonard L. Berry and A. Parasuraman (1993). The nature and determinants of customer expectations of service. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 21(1), 1-12.

Zurcher, L. and K. Wilson (1979). Status inconsistency and the Hope technique II: A linear hypothesis about status enhancement, status detraction and satisfaction with membership. *Social Forces*, 57(4), 1248-1264.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX 3A - Ritz-Carlton Credo

THREE STEPS OF SERVICE

1
A warm and sincere greeting. Use the guest name, if and when possible.

2
Anticipation and compliance with guest needs.

3
Fond farewell. Give them a warm good-bye and use their names, if and when possible.

"We Are Ladies and Gentlemen Serving Ladies and Gentlemen"

THE RITZ-CARLTON

CREDO

The Ritz-Carlton Hotel is a place where the genuine care and comfort of our guests is our highest mission.

We pledge to provide the finest personal service and facilities for our guests who will always enjoy a warm, relaxed yet refined ambience.

The Ritz-Carlton experience enlivens the senses, instills well-being, and fulfills even the unexpressed wishes and needs of our guests.

APPENDIX 4A

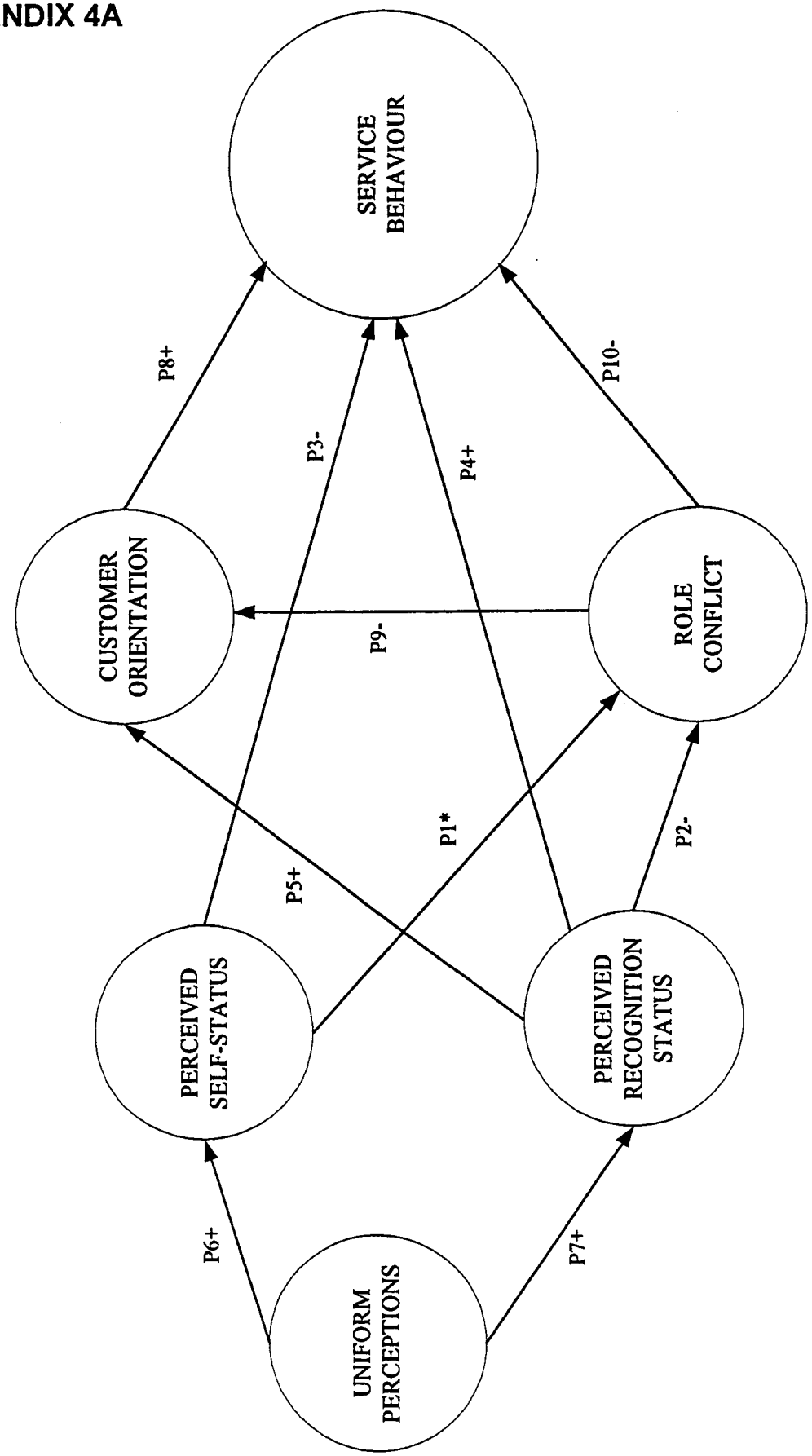


Figure 4-2 - Conceptual Model - Proposition Development

* direction not proposed

APPENDIX 5A – Survey - Covering Letter

Dear Flight Attendant

To date, there has been little research undertaken that investigates the perspective of the service provider. Most research within the service sector has been customer driven. This survey has been compiled so as to better understand the issues that confront flight attendants in the performance of their work (for example, the stress that arises from their work).

This questionnaire has been designed after discussions with both short-haul and long-haul Qantas Cabin Crew. It is a totally independent study conducted within the School of Marketing at the University of Technology, Sydney. While it is not compulsory to complete this survey, your response will be an important contribution to this study. A postage paid enveloped to U.T.S. has been included for the return of the questionnaire.

Each survey completed and returned will earn a donation to The Cabin Crew Team.

CONFIDENTIALITY
Your mailbox has been randomly drawn from the Cabin Crew list. All answers will be treated in complete confidence and no individual results will be reported to anyone. All responses will be in terms of group results. *Please note that your questionnaire does not include any identifying codes so as to ensure your TOTAL anonymity.*

As you read the survey please mark the response that best reflects how you feel about each statement. *There are no correct answers! This is not a test!* The study is just interested in the thoughts and opinions flight attendants have about different aspects of their service work. PLEASE MAKE SURE YOU ANSWER EVERY QUESTION TO THE BEST OF YOUR ABILITY. ALL ANSWERS MUST BE COMPLETE.

If you have any queries regarding this questionnaire please do not hesitate to contact me on (02) 330 3533 or 015 912 862

The time and effort you take to complete this questionnaire is very much appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

Production Note:
Signature removed prior to publication.

Kerry Daniel
University of Technology, Sydney

APPENDIX 5B – Cabin Crew News

NEWS FOR ALL

STAFF CAR PARKS

An issue regarding car parking has been brought to our attention by a number of employees.

Some staff members have begun parking their vehicles outside the marked lines. This often means one car takes up the space of two.

This practice should stop. All drivers should ensure their vehicle is parked wholly within the marked lines. In this way the maximum number of staff vehicles may be safely parked within the car parks.

We thank you for your assistance in this matter.

Paulene Heinonen, Employee Relations Manager Cabin Crew, QCC/4

CABIN CREW SURVEY

Researcher Kerry Daniel, lecturer in the School of Marketing at University of Technology, Broadway (UTS) will be conducting *"A survey of the thoughts and opinions of Australian flight attendants, concerning aspects of their service work."*

To date there has been little research undertaken that investigates the perspective of the service provider. Most research in service industries is customer driven. Kerry's interest lies in better understanding the issues that confront customer contact personnel in the performance of their work (for example, the stress that arises from their work).

The study has been designed after many discussions with both longhaul and shorthaul cabin crew. The survey is totally independent and conducted within the School of Marketing at the University of Technology, Sydney. It has been approved by the Ethics Committee within the University. The survey is completely anonymous and will be randomly distributed to flight attendants during April 1996. On completion, surveys are mailed directly to UTS.

All surveys completed and returned to UTS will earn a $1.00 donation to The Cabin Crew Team Fund.

Steven Morrow, Cabin Crew Communications & Services Manager, QCC/1

APPENDIX 5C – CrossCheck Magazine

FOOD FOR THOUGHT

Kerry Daniel, a lecturer at the University of Technology in Sydney (UTS), is researching issues that affect customer service personnel and have an impact on their work performance (eg stresses arising from work).

Her specific research topic is:
A survey of the thoughts and opinions of Australian Flight Attendants, concerning aspects of their service work.

The survey, put together after discussion with both S/H and L/H crew, will be randomly distributed to flight attendants, along with stamped, self-addressed envelopes to UTS. The survey is completely anonymous. There is no obligation to complete it but the feedback is vital to Kerry's work and **for every survey returned to her, $1.00 will be donated to the Cabin Crew Team fund.** Children like these (pictured) will benefit from the fund. So complete those surveys if you get one *please*.

APPENDIX 5D – First follow-up postcard

Dear Flight Attendant

You may recall receiving a questionnaire concerning aspects of your service work. If you have not had a chance to complete it as yet, it would be greatly appreciated if you could as soon as possible, as your opinions and comments are essential to the success of the study. If you have already completed and returned the questionnaire, please consider this a note of thanks for your participation.

If you have misplaced your questionnaire and require another copy, please telephone me on (015) 912 862 or leave a message on my voicemail (02) 330 3533 indicating 1. your base, 2. if you are long haul or short haul, and 3. your mailbox number. **This study is totally confidential. Your name is not required.** The study has been approved by your union and by the ethics committee of the University of Technology, Sydney.

Yours sincerely,

Production Note:
Signature removed prior to publication.

Kerry Daniel

UTS

University of Technology, Sydney

APPENDIX 5E – Second follow-up postcard

thank you

Please accept this as a note of thanks for your participation in the UTS survey concerning aspects of your service work. Your completed and returned survey earns a $1 donation to the Flight Attendant Welfare Fund. **If you have not had a chance to complete the survey, THERE IS STILL TIME. The closing date for replies has been extended to 11th June.** Surveys should be returned in the postage paid envelope.

If you have misplaced your questionnaire and require another copy, please telephone me on (015) 912 862 or leave a message on my voicemail (02) 330 3533 indicating 1. your base, 2. if you are long haul or short haul, and 3. your mailbox number. The study has been approved by your union and the ethics committee of UTS.

Production Note:
Signature removed prior to publication.

Kerry Daniel

UTS
University of Technology, Sydney

APPENDIX 5F
Main Survey

Printed by Printing Services Branch

WHAT ARE YOUR THOUGHTS ON .....?

SECTION ONE: PERCEPTIONS OF YOUR UNIFORM

This study is interested to know your perceptions of your current uniform. Therefore the questions contained in Section One address this issue.

Q1. Consider your **overall perception of your uniform** and answer the following questions by **circling** the appropriate number, 1 to 7.

1.1 Overall, my opinion of my uniform is .....

Very Unfavourable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Favourable

1.2 Compared to the cabin crew uniforms of other airline carriers I feel that my uniform is .....

Much Worse	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Much Better

Q2. The following statements are about how your uniform makes you **feel** when you are wearing it **on the aircraft.**

Please read each statement carefully and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by **circling** one of the numbers 1 to 7, where;

1 indicates you **strongly disagree** with the statement and

7 indicates you **strongly agree** with the statement.

		STRONGLY DISAGREE						STRONGLY AGREE
2.1	Wearing my uniform makes me feel professional.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.2	My uniform helps me to get favourable responses from customers when I enforce rules and regulations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.3	My uniform helps to give me a customer orientated focus.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.4	My uniform makes me feel unsophisticated.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.5	My uniform is indistinguishable from other airline companies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.6	My uniform helps to lift my self-esteem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.7	I feel embarrassed in my uniform.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.8	Customers listen to me and follow my advice when I am wearing my uniform.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.9	My uniform helps in my efficiency at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.10	My uniform makes me feel drab.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.11	My uniform assists me in influencing customers to conduct themselves in a civil manner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.12	My uniform helps me to feel good about myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.13	I do not feel 'stylish' in my uniform.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.14	My uniform is effective in helping me to enforce safety regulations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.15	I feel my uniform is indistinguishable from any other corporate company in the community.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.16	My uniform conveys to me the standard of customer service that my company expects.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.17	My uniform contributes to customers having a positive attitude towards me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION TWO: ASPECTS OF YOUR SERVICE WORK

An important purpose of this study is to understand how the pressures of Cabin Crew work effect flight attendants. Therefore the questions that follow in Section Two address these issues.

Q3. This question asks you to think about **how you might respond to the demands placed on you by your company and/or your customers.** Some questions are about your customers, and some are about your inflight supervisor. For each question, please circle the number between 1 and 7 which corresponds to your answer where;

1 - never

2 - practically never (once or twice a year)

3 - very seldom (once every three or four months)

4 - seldom (less than once a month)

5 - occasionally (once or twice a month)

6 - moderately often (once or twice a week)

7 - very often (nearly all the time).

		NEVER						VERY OFTEN
3.1	I try to keep my inflight supervisor busy so he or she won't be able to ask me to do anything.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.2	I rely on my other crew members for moral support.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.3	I try to keep out of the way of a demanding customer inflight.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.4	I'll do a favour for a customer who makes my job easier.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.5	I work extra hard to get everything done without neglecting the customer's needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.6	I inconvenience my inflight supervisor (e.g., make him or her wait longer than necessary), when he or she asks me to do too much.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.7	When my inflight supervisor's requests are excessive I turn to my crew members to vent my annoyance (and then get on with the job).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.8	I inconvenience the customer (e.g., make them wait longer than necessary), when he or she asks me to do too much.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.9	I enlist the help of crew members who handle 'types' of customers well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.10	I try to show extra sympathy or friendliness when listening to a customer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.11	I try to put my inflight supervisor in a good mood so he or she won't want to ask me to do too much.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.12	I retaliate against a demanding inflight supervisor by not including him or her in social activities at slip ports.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.13	I pretend not to understand what the customer is asking for and act as if the customer is asking for something else.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.14	I suggest to the customer how to do something for himself or herself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.15	I set myself priorities for customer and company tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.16	I ignore my inflight supervisor and pretend that I did not hear his or her request.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.17	I try to keep out of the way of a demanding inflight supervisor during the flight.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.18	I ignore the customer and pretend that I did not hear his or her request.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.19	I'll do a favour for an inflight supervisor who makes my job easier.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.20	I attempt to anticipate problems that may arise with customers, then try to curtail them early.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.21	I side with the customer in order to gain sympathy from them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q4. The statements below describe various ways a flight attendant might act with a customer. For each statement please indicate the **proportion of your customers** with whom you act as described in the statement. Do this by circling one of the numbers from 1 to 9. The meanings of the numbers are:

1 - True for NONE of your customers i.e., NEVER

2 - True for ALMOST NONE

3 - True for a FEW

4 - True for SOMEWHAT LESS THAN HALF

5 - True for ABOUT HALF

6 - True for SOMEWHAT MORE THAN HALF

7 - True for a LARGE MAJORITY

8 - True for ALMOST ALL

9 - True for ALL of your customers - i.e., ALWAYS

For example

I ask customers a lot of questions

If you circled **6** below, you would indicate that you ask *somewhat more than half* of your customers a lot of questions.

NEVER	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	ALWAYS

Please note:

It is understood that you generally would NOT speak or interact with ALL customers on the aircraft. Therefore please consider each statement in relation to the customers you do speak or interact with on the aircraft.

		NEVER								ALWAYS
4.1	I try to get customers to discuss their needs with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4.2	I paint too rosy a picture of our service, to make it sound as good as possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4.3	A good flight attendant has to have the customer's best interest in mind.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4.4	I imply to a customer that something is beyond my control when it is not.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4.5	I try to influence a customer with information rather than by pressure.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4.6	I try to help customers achieve their inflight expectations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4.7	I answer a customer's questions about our service as correctly as I can.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4.8	Some customers deserve rude behaviour from flight attendants.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4.9	I try to figure out what a customer's needs are.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4.10	I try to give customers an accurate expectation of our service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4.11	I offer the service that is best suited to the customer's requirements.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4.12	I try to achieve my goals by satisfying customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4.13	I try to find out what sort of service would be most helpful to a customer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4.14	I find personalised service difficult to offer to customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Q5. The following statements are about the way you are **expected** to do your job. Please indicate how true each statement is by circling one of the alternatives which follow each statement.

1. **Very False ....**
2. **Mostly False ....**
3. **Somewhat False ....**
4. **Neither False nor True....**
5. **Somewhat True....**
6. **Mostly True ....**
7. **Very True**

		VERY FALSE						VERY TRUE
5.1	I have tasks to undertake that should be done differently	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.2	I have to undertake tasks without the necessary Cabin Crew support to complete them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.3	I have to bend a rule or policy in order to carry out tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.4	I work with various crew members who operate quite differently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.5	I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.6	I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by another.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.7	I have to undertake tasks without adequate resources and materials to execute them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.8	I'm required to undertake unnecessary tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q6. These questions are also about the way you are expected to do your job as a flight attendant. Please indicate how true each statement is by circling one of the alternatives which follow each statement.

1. **Very False ....**
2. **Mostly False ....**
3. **Somewhat False ....**
4. **Neither False nor True....**
5. **Somewhat True....**
6. **Mostly True ....**
7. **Very True**

		VERY FALSE						VERY TRUE
6.1	I have to deal with customers who believe they are 'right', even when they are 'wrong'.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.2	I have to be constantly 'on display'.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.3	I must contend with customers that take liberties of intimacy with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.4	I have to deal with customers that believe they have territorial rights to any part of the aircraft.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.5	I receive requests from customers that require me to deviate from company policy in order to comply with them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.6	I have to deal with customers that expect to be served ahead of other customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.7	I have customers that expect me to provide a different service to that offered.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.8	I have to deal with customers that upset other customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.9	I have customers that expect me to supply more to them than their ticket entitles them to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.10	I have to deal with rude and/or discourteous customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.11	I have to deal with customers who lack concern about safety issues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.12	I have to deal with customers when there are delays or breakdowns in the smooth operation of a flight 'down the line'.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.13	I work with crew who lack concern about the enforcement of safety procedures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.14	I work with crew who lack teamwork.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.15	I work with constantly changing 'Incabin' service procedures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION THREE: PERCEPTIONS OF SELF & OTHERS.

An important part of understanding the work pressures of cabin crew has to do with their perceptions of themselves and their customers.

Q7. The following statements are about **how you perceive the status of your CUSTOMERS.** Please indicate your opinion by **circling** one of the numbers 1 to 7, where:

1 indicates you perceive their status as LOW and,

7 indicates you perceive their status as HIGH.

7.1 **Overall,** what are your perceptions of the **status of your Qantas customers?**

LOW STATUS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	HIGH STATUS

NOW, please complete the following statement for questions 7.2, 7.3, 7.4 -

I perceive the **status of my typical .....**

		LOW STATUS						HIGH STATUS
7.2	**First class passenger to be .....**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.3	**Business class passenger to be.....**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.4	**Economy class passenger to be .....**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Q8. The following statements are about how you perceive **YOUR OWN** status. Please indicate your opinion by circling one of the numbers 1 to 7, where:

1 indicates you perceive YOUR status as LOW and,

7 indicates you perceive YOUR status as HIGH.

8.1 **Overall,** as Cabin Crew, what are your **perceptions of your own status ?**

LOW STATUS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	HIGH STATUS

8.2 How do you feel **Qantas management** perceives your **status** as cabin crew **within the company ?**

LOW STATUS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	HIGH STATUS

SECTION FOUR: PERSONAL ATTITUDES

Next, there are some questions about your attitude to different issues.

Q9. Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal attitudes and traits. Read each item and decide whether the statement is **TRUE or FALSE** as it pertains to you personally, then tick the appropriate box True or False.

		TRUE	FALSE
9.1	I never hesitate to go out of my way to help someone in trouble.	☐1	☐2
9.2	I have never intensely disliked anyone.	☐1	☐2
9.3	I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way.	☐1	☐2
9.4	I like to gossip at times.	☐1	☐2
9.5	There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right.	☐1	☐2
9.6	I can remember 'playing sick' to get out of something.	☐1	☐2
9.7	There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.	☐1	☐2
9.8	I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.	☐1	☐2

		TRUE	FALSE
9.9	I always try to practice what I preach.	☐1	☐2
9.10	I sometimes try to get even, rather than forgive and forget.	☐1	☐2
9.11	When I don't know something I don't at all mind admitting it.	☐1	☐2
9.12	I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.	☐1	☐2
9.13	At times I have really insisted on having things my own way.	☐1	☐2
9.14	There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things.	☐1	☐2
9.15	I would never think of letting someone else be punished for my wrong doings.	☐1	☐2
9.16	I never resent being asked to return a favour.	☐1	☐2
9.17	I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.	☐1	☐2
9.18	There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others.	☐1	☐2
9.19	I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favours of me.	☐1	☐2
9.20	I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.	☐1	☐2

SECTION FIVE: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Finally, there are a few questions about yourself to enable statistical analysis of the results.

REMEMBER, ALL OF YOUR ANSWERS ON THIS QUESTIONNAIRE ARE ANONYMOUS AND COMPLETELY CONFIDENTIAL.

Q10. You are currently with *(Tick one only).*

- QF LONG HAUL ☐1
- QF SHORT HAUL ☐2

Q11. In **total,** with all airlines, how long have you been flying ?

_____ **years.**

Q12. Which port is your home base ? *(Tick one only).*

- SYDNEY ☐1
- MELBOURNE ☐2
- BRISBANE ☐3

Q13. The section of the aircraft that you were assigned to work on your LAST sector as operational crew (i.e., not a paxing sector). *(Tick one only).*

- FIRST CLASS ☐1
- BUSINESS CLASS ☐2
- ECONOMY CLASS ☐3

Q14. Your Cabin Crew classification *(Tick one only).*

- FLIGHT ATTENDANT/2ND SENIOR/AIR CHEF ☐1
- CABIN SUPERVISOR ☐2
- FLIGHT ATTENDANT TRAINER/ENDORSER ☐3

Q15. Gender

- FEMALE ☐1
- MALE ☐2

Q16. How old were you on your last birthday ? _____ **years.**

Q17. What is the highest level of education you have **completed** to date *(Tick one only).*

- SOME SECONDARY SCHOOL ☐1
- COMPLETED H.S.C. ☐2
- COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY - UNDERGRADUATE ☐3
- POSTGRADUATE ☐4
- TRADE APPRENTICESHIP ☐5
- OTHER (please write). ☐6

_____

Q18. What language do you (*did you*) speak with your parents ?

- ENGLISH ☐1
- OTHER (please specify). ☐2

_____

Please turn over.....

Thank you for your time and effort in completing this survey; your help in this research is appreciated.

Please place the completed survey in the reply paid envelope provided and return to U.T.S. **by 20 May, 1996.**

Reply Paid 120
Attention: Ms Kerry Daniel
School of Marketing
University of Technology, Sydney
P.O. Box 123, Broadway NSW 2007

All surveys completed and returned to U.T.S. will earn a $1.00 donation to The Cabin Crew Team fund.

APPENDIX 6A
EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

Appendix 6A – Exploratory Factor Analysis

Table 1 - Service Behaviour - negative dimensions

Item Number	Factor 1 Team Support	Factor 2 Supervisor Retaliation	Factor 3 Artful Endeavours	Factor 4 Customer Annoyance
3.1		**.749**		
3.11		**.655**		
3.16		**.468**		
3.6	.456	**.444**		
3.12	**.612**	.453		
3.17	**.692**			
3.7	**.716**			
3.2	←		**.407**	
3.19			**.762**	
3.4			**.804**	
3.21			*.476**	
3.14			←	*.468**
3.13				**.625**
3.18				**.732**
3.8	.458			**.525**
3.3	**.639**	→	→	→
3.9				
Variance Explained	**25.6%**	**9.14%**	**7.21%**	**6.58%**
Total Variance Explained				**48.54%**

- Principal Component Analysis - varimax rotation
- Loadings of less than 0.40 are suppressed for clarity
- Arrows indicate item was relocated to another dimension.
- *Italic, underlined* numbers with an asterisk (*) represent items that were subsequently deleted after reliability analysis
- **Bold** numbers represent the specific factor loadings selected

Appendix 6A – Exploratory Factor Analysis

Table 2 - Service Behaviour - positive dimension

Item Number	Customer Action
3.5 3.10 3.15 3.20	Only one component was extracted.
Total Variance Explained	**44.21%**

- Principal Component Analysis - varimax rotation

Table 3 - Uniform Perceptions

Item Number	Factor 1 Customer Influence	Factor 2 The Look	Factor 3 Service Attitude	Factor 4 Company Identification
2.1	.461	**.512**	.416	
2.10		**.837**		
2.13		**.815**		
2.4		**.772**		
2.7		**.667**		
2.11	**.716**			
2.14	**.799**			
2.17	**.558**		.438	
2.2	**.794**			
2.8	**.756**			
2.12			**.758**	
2.16			**.634**	
2.3	.525		**.418**	
2.6			**.715**	
2.9			**.696**	
2.15				**.704**
2.5				**.867**
Variance Explained	**37.61%**	**13.86%**	**6.36%**	**6.07%**
Total Variance Explained				**63.91%**

- Principal Component Analysis - varimax rotation
- Loadings of less than 0.40 are suppressed for clarity
- **Bold** numbers represent the specific factor loadings selected

Appendix 6A – Exploratory Factor Analysis

Table 4 - Role Conflict

Item Number	Role Conflict
5.1 5.2 5.3 5.4 5.5 5.6 5.7 5.8	Only one component was extracted
Total Variance Explained	**50.29%**

- Principal Component Analysis - varimax rotation

Table 5 - Perceived Self-Status

Item Number*	Perceived Self-Status
JRSTAT PRSTAT YRSTAT	Only one component was extracted
Total Variance Explained	**75.19%**

- Principal Component Analysis - varimax rotation

* These variables represent the relative score derived from deducting customer scores (7.2, 7.3, 7.4) from respondent's own score (8.1)

Appendix 6A – Exploratory Factor Analysis

Table 6 - Customer Orientation

Item Number	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
4.1	**.646**		
4.11	**.555**	.323	
4.12	**.546**	.414	
4.13	**.710**		
4.9	**.572**	.423	
4.14	**.398**		.363
4.2	*-.593**		
4.10		**.708**	
4.5		**.462**	.369
4.6		**.704**	
4.7		**.723**	
4.3	.321	.305	**.444**
4.4			**.650**
4.8			**.832**
Variance Explained	**29.86%**	**11.12%**	**7.86%**
Total Variance Explained			**48.85%**

- Principal Component Analysis - varimax rotation
- Loadings of less than 0.30 are suppressed for clarity
- *Italic, underlined* numbers with an asterisk (*) represent items that were subsequently deleted after reliability analysis
- **Bold** numbers represent the specific factor loadings selected

APPENDIX 7A
PATH ANALYSIS REGRESSION EQUATIONS

Appendix 7A – Path Analysis Regression Equations

Full Regression Model
Table 1 - Dependent Variable = Service Behaviour

R2	**.295**	F Statistic	46.121
Adj. R2	.289	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	10.198		

Variables Entered	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Customer Orientation	+.439	10.559	.000
Role Conflict	-.150	-3.609	.000
Perceived Management Recognition Status	+.125	2.971	.003
Perceived Self-Status	-.088	-2.187	.029

Table 2 - Dependent Variable = Customer Orientation

R2	**.070**	F Statistic	16.549
Adj. R2	.065	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	10.776		

Variables Entered	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Role Conflict	-.157	-3.326	.001
Perceived Management Recognition Status	+.179	3.787	.000

Appendix 7A – Path Analysis Regression Equations

Table 3 - Dependent Variable = Role Conflict

R2	**.056**	F Statistic	13.021
Adj. R2	.051	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	1.1932		

Variables Entered	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Perceived Management Recognition Status	-.230	-4.951	.000
Perceived Self-Status	-.030	-.635	.526

(n = 446)

Table 4 - Dependent Variable = Perceived Recognition Status

R2	**.081**	F Statistic	39.247
Adj. R2	.079	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	1.69		

Variables Entered	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Uniform Perceptions	+.285	6.265	.000

(n = 446)

Appendix 7A – Path Analysis Regression Equations

Table 5 - Dependent Variable = Perceived Self Status

R2	**.005**	F Statistic	2.053
Adj. R2	.002	Significance	.153
Std. Error of the Estimate	3.808		

Variables Entered	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Uniform Perceptions	+.068	1.433	.153

(n = 446)

'Trimmed Model'

Table 6 – Dependent Variable – Role Conflict

R2	**.055**	F Statistic	25.673
Adj. R2	.053	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	1.1924		

Variables Entered	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Perceived Management Recognition Status	-.234	-5.067	.000

(n = 446)

APPENDIX 7B
PATH ANALYSIS – REGRESSION EQUATIONS
Not Superior and *Superior* CCP analysis

Appendix 7B – Path Analysis – regression equations

Not Superior Regression Model (n = 254)

Table 1 Dependent Variable = Service Behaviour (Not Superior)

R2	**.258**	F Statistic	21.647
Adj. R2	.246	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	10.164		

Variables Entered	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Customer Orientation	+.427	7.587	.000
Role Conflict	-.141	-3.487	.014
Perc'd Recognition Status	+.112	1.964	.051
Perceived Self-Status	-.054	- .975	.330

Table 2 Dependent Variable = 'TRIMMED MODEL' Service Behaviour (Not Superior)

R2	**.255**	F Statistic	28.551
Adj. R2	.246	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	10.163		

Variables Entered	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Customer Orientation	+.429	7.633	.000
Role Conflict	-.132	-2.355	.019
Perc'd Recognition Status	+.107	1.882	.061

Appendix 7B – Path Analysis – regression equations

Table 3 Dependent Variable = Customer Orientation (Not Superior)

R2	**.058**	F Statistic	7.757
Adj. R2	.051	Significance	.001
Std. Error of the Estimate	.838		

Variables Entered	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Role Conflict	-.114	-1.831	.068
Perc'd Recognition Status	+.192	3.068	.002

Table 4 Dependent Variable = Role Conflict (Not Superior)

R2	**.064**	F Statistic	8.626
Adj. R2	.057	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	1.1846		

Variables Entered	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Perc'd Recognition Status	-.173	-2.891	.005
Perceived Self-Status	-.166	-2.692	.008

Table 5 Dependent Variable = Perceived Recognition Status (Not Superior)

R2	**.099**	F Statistic	27.759
Adj. R2	.096	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	1.61		

Variables Entered	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Uniform Perceptions	+.315	5.269	.000

Appendix 7B – Path Analysis – regression equations

Table 6 Dependent Variable = Perceived Self Status (Not Superior)

R2	**.021**	F Statistic	5.275
Adj. R2	.002	Significance	.022
Std. Error of the Estimate	3.013		

Variables Entered	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Uniform Perceptions	+.143	2.297	.022

Appendix 7B – Path Analysis – regression equations

Superior Regression Model (n = 192)

Table 7 Dependent Variable = Service Behaviour (Superior)

R2	**.341**	F Statistic	24.151
Adj. R2	.327	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	10.309		

Variables Entered	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Customer Orientation	+.465	7.393	.000
Role Conflict	-.159	-2.493	.014
Perc'd Recognition Status	+.145	2.316	.022
Perceived Self-Status	.012	.196	.845

Table 8 Dependent Variable = 'TRIMMED MODEL' Service Behaviour (Superior)

R2	**.340**	F Statistic	32.353
Adj. R2	.330	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	10.283		

Variables Entered	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Customer Orientation	+.464	7.467	.000
Role Conflict	-.158	-2.493	.014
Perc'd Recognition Status	+.145	2.318	.022

Appendix 7B – Path Analysis – regression equations

Table 9 Dependent Variable = Customer Orientation (Superior)

R2	**.090**	F Statistic	9.291
Adj. R2	.080	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	.820		

Variables Entered	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Role Conflict	-.216	-2.989	.033
Perc'd Recognition Status	+.154	2.132	.034

Table 10 Dependent Variable = Role Conflict (Superior)

R2	**.098**	F Statistic	10.215
Adj. R2	.088	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	1.179		

Variables Entered	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Perc'd Recognition Status	-.271	-3.908	.000
Perceived Self-Status	+.132	1.905	.058

Table 11 Dependent Variable = Perceived Recognition Status (Superior)

R2	**.062**	F Statistic	12.586
Adj. R2	.057	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	1.76		

Variables Entered	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Uniform Perceptions	+.249	3.548	.000

Appendix 7B – Path Analysis – regression equations

Table 12 Dependent Variable = Perceived Self Status (Superior)

R2	**.001**	F Statistic	.248
Adj. R2	-.004	Significance	.619
Std. Error of the Estimate	2.165		

Variables Entered	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Uniform Perceptions	-.036	-.498	.619

APPENDIX 7C
POST-HOC PATH ANALYSIS
ADDITIONAL REGRESSION EQUATIONS

Appendix 7C – Post-hoc path analysis – additional regression equations

Full Regression Model

Table 1 Dependent Variable = Negative Service Behaviour

R2	**.219**	F Statistic	30.857
Adj. R2	.212	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	9.8042		

Variable	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Customer Orientation	-.336	-7.684	.000
Role Conflict	+.189	+4.306	.000
Perceived Recognition Status	-.115	-2.605	.009
Perceived Self-Status	+.086	+2.018	.044

(n = 446)

Table 2 Dependent Variable = Positive Service Behaviour

R2	**.262**	F Statistic	39.087
Adj. R2	.255	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	2.7469		

Variable	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Customer Orientation	+.500	11.776	.000
Role Conflict	+.084	1.968	.050
Perceived Recognition Status	+.075	1.733	.084
Perceived Self-Status	-.038	-.918	.359

(n = 446)

Appendix 7C – Post-hoc path analysis – additional regression equations

'NOT SUPERIOR' Regression Model

Table 3 Dependent Variable = Negative Service Behaviour

R2	**.180**	F Statistic	18.271
Adj. R2	.170	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	9.7630		

Variable	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Customer Orientation	-.322	-5.457	.000
Role Conflict	+.170	+2.892	.004
Perceived Recognition Status	-.101	-1.694	.092

(n = 254)

Table 4 Dependent Variable = Positive Service Behaviour

R2	**.272**	F Statistic	94.178
Adj. R2	.269	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	2.5697		

Variable	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Customer Orientation	+.522	9.705	.000

(n = 254)

Appendix 7C – Post-hoc path analysis – additional regression equations

'SUPERIOR' Regression Model

Table 5 Dependent Variable = Negative Service Behaviour

R2	**.261**	F Statistic	22.189
Adj. R2	.250	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	9.9172		

Variable	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Customer Orientation	-.365	-5.561	.000
Role Conflict	+.198	+2.956	.004
Perceived Recognition Status	-.129	-1.951	.053

(n =192)

Table 6 Dependent Variable = Positive Service Behaviour

R2	**.232**	F Statistic	57.464
Adj. R2	.228	Significance	.000
Std. Error of the Estimate	2.9911		

Variable	**Standardised Beta (β)**	**t**	**Significance**
Customer Orientation	+.482	7.580	.000

(n = 192)