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AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE ANTECEDENTS OF PROSOCIAL SERVICE
BEHAVIOURS: A TRAVEL SERVICE CONTEXT

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Doctor of Philosophy

ASTON UNIVERSITY

November 2006

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Aston University

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THESIS SUMMARY

Frontline employee (FLE) attitudes and behaviours during service encounters influence customers' perceptions of service quality and customer satisfaction. The identification of variables that influence FLEs service behaviours is, therefore, important. Much remains unknown about the factors affecting prosocial service behaviours (PSBs). This thesis answers the following question: What are the antecedents of PSBs in a travel service setting? It is argued that managerial strategies indirectly influence PSBs via their direct influence on job attitudes. This thesis represents an attempt towards an increased knowledge about the antecedents of PSBs by seeking answers to the question.

A conceptual model was developed from the literature. Briefly stated, the hypothesised model proposed that job attitudes mediate the relationship between managerial strategies and the PSBs. In-depth interviews provided initial support for the conceptual model. Structural equation modelling techniques were then used to test these relationships on data from 179 travel service employees.

Partial support for the mediational role of job attitudes was found. More specifically, the relationship between professional development and extra-role customer service is mediated by job satisfaction and organisational commitment, but not in-role customer service and cooperation. The managerial strategies influence PSBs directly. Internal communication influences extra- and in-role customer service behaviours positively. The relationship between professional development and the three PSBs constructs is negative. Empowerment influences in-role customer service and cooperative behaviours positively.

Key words: customer contact employees, job attitudes, managerial strategies, service behaviours

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The overall framework for this thesis is established in this chapter. The research problem is discussed and justified first. Next, the methodological framework is outlined. Finally, the dissertation's structure is discussed. Attention now turns to the research context.

1.2 Justification of the research problem

Customers are the reason organisations exist (Drucker 1968). Organisation cannot survive without customer. How well firms satisfy the needs and wants of customers is reflected in the bottom line and the achievement of key organisational goals, such as long-term survival and profitability. Customers, consequently, play a central role in marketing (Adcock 2000), which is reflected in the definitions of marketing, the marketing concept and market orientation (Adcock 2000; Hooley, Saunders and Piercy 2004) as well as the amount of research undertaken within marketing as an academic discipline.

Services is an area of marketing in which interest and research into has increased rapidly over the past three decades. Macro environmental change can partly explain this interest in and need for research into services marketing and the management of

services. In the twentieth century, the value of the service sector in the developed countries' economies increased enormously due to the shift from manufacturing to service (both private and public) based economies (Fornell, Johnson, Anderson, Cha, and Bryant 1996; Hoffman and Bateson 1997).

By the 1990s, the service sector contributed 60-70% of gross domestic product (GDP) in most industrialised nations (Griffiths 2000; Grönroos 2000a). Indeed, the value of the service sector to GDP is ever increasing globally and is approaching 100% in some nations (Grönroos 2000b). Lichtenstein is an example of such a nation. US statistics show that by the late 1990s, 80% of the workforce was employed in the service sector (Chait, Carraher and Buckley 2000). The change from production based to service based economies has implications for developed nations, at not only the macro level but also the micro level.

At the business level, changes to the way of thinking and doing business have been necessary to ensure long-term success in service based economies. This, in turn, has meant that research into various areas of marketing (e.g., services marketing and management, marketing strategy and consumer behaviour) has been undertaken to assist organisations and practitioners in their quest for success in today's increasingly demanding and competitive business environment (Grönroos 2000a; Hooley, Saunders and Piercy 2004; Hoffman and Bateson 1997).

Competition can take different forms, e.g. competition based on innovation, advertising communication and promotion, price and service (Hooley, Saunders and Piercy 2004) or a combination of these. Although all forms of competition are

important to firms, the latter has the most relevance to this dissertation. Service competition applies to all types of firms, regardless of the industry they compete in (Grönroos 2000b). Firms capable of managing this service competition prosper, while those who do not are likely to perish (Grönroos 2000b).

Front-line employees (FLEs) play a vital role in the service delivery process (c.f. Brown, Mowen, Donovan and Licata 2002; Hoffman and Ingram 1992; Kelley 1992; Netemeyer, Maxham and Pullig 2005). FLE behaviour during service encounters influences customer perceptions of the delivered service quality. Service quality perceptions affect the level of satisfaction customers' experience, which, in turn, influence how loyal customers are (Heskett, Sasser and Schlesinger 1997). A growing body of literature asserts that an organisation's ability to produce excellent external service quality is directly related to how it is able to design and implement the necessary internal processes and structures (e.g. Day 1994; Grönroos 2000b; Hartline, Maxham and McKee 2000; Heskett et al. 1997; Kelley 1992; Lytle, Hom and Mokwa 1998). Thus, services management is a key strategic variable in modern organisations.

Due to the importance of FLEs to the overall welfare of organisation, factors that influence positive service behaviours in employees are important to identify and implement. The management of services and human resources has become important factors in providing excellent customer service (Bettencourt and Brown 1997; Bettencourt, Gwinner and Meuter 2001; Chebat and Kollias 2000; Hartline and Ferrell 1996; Lytle, Hom and Mokwa 1998). To deliver high quality customer service, organisations need to hire employees who are capable of and willing to

provide quality service and use induction and training programmes effectively that give their staff the required knowledge and skills to do their job well (Baydoun, Rose and Emperado 2001; Chebat and Kollias 2000). This requires service, operations and human resource managers to collaborate in organisations. Research into service management topics is thus inherently multi-disciplinary in nature, as all management research is (Brown 1997), and aims to improve the performance of the service industry.

The overall aim of this thesis is to identify drivers of prosocial service behaviours (PSBs) in a travel service context, which gives rise to the research question:

What are the antecedents of PSBs in a travel service organisation?

It is important to identify the drivers of employee service behaviours because of the importance of achieving a positive evaluation of the service encounter by customers. This, in turn, positively affects customer perceptions of service quality, satisfaction and loyalty, all these soft performance measures contribute to achievement of key organisational goals, which may include long-term survival and profitability. However, focusing on customers' needs and wants alone is not sufficient for long-term success. The development of appropriate company capabilities that support the delivery of good quality service by FLEs is necessary as well as understanding the needs and wants of customers.

1.3 Original contributions of the thesis

This thesis makes several original contributions to the services marketing and management literature, which are briefly described in this section (refer to section 10.2 for a more comprehensive discussion). Firstly, this thesis contributes to the body of research on employee behaviours by studying PSBs from an employee perspective. More specifically, the conceptual model (see Figure 2.2) proposed that employee cognitive appraisals of organisational level managerial interventions influence their job attitudes, which in turn affect the display of PSBs.

Research into service specific employee behaviours has started to emerge relatively recently in the literature. Research into other types of employee behaviours, such as, organisational citizenship and prosocial organisational behaviours, has enjoyed significantly more attention since the 1980s. This thesis contributes to the literature by validating the PSBs construct, developed in the US by Bettencourt and Brown (1997), in the UK and in a routine type service.

Finally, this thesis contributes to the literature by studying the effect of organisational level internal communication, as perceived by employees, on the formation of job attitudes and the performance of PSBs. Although internal communication has been recognised as being important in the literature, few empirical studies have been published on this topic. The significance of internal communication as well as professional development activities and empowerment on job attitudes and PSBs is highlighted in this study (refer to the Conceptual model of Figure 2.2).

The final contribution of this thesis refers to the research context, that is, the travel service industry. This sector offers routine type services to its customers. Much of the published work in this domain to date has taken place in the retail bank sector, which is very different in nature relative to the travel service industry.

1.4 Methodology

This study adopted a sequential multi-method research methodology to test the theoretical model developed in the fourth chapter, which, in turn, builds on the literature review and the identification of the research gaps in the literature (refer to chapter two). In essence, the research design of this study is a form of data triangulation, which uses both qualitative and quantitative data to evaluate the hypothesised model of Figure 2.2. In-depth interviews were conducted first and then survey data was collected, using self-administered questionnaires.

The questionnaire was divided into four sections. The first two sections included measures that captured information about latent constructs included in the theoretical model. The first section referred to the respondent's own job attitudes and service behaviours, while the second section asked for the respondents' attitudes about managerial strategies. The third section asks for information about individual characteristics. The fourth and final section asked for general demographic information.

The study used structural equation modelling (SEM) as the quantitative analytical technique. The data analysis was divided into four stages. Firstly, the data was screened. Secondly, the reliability of the scales of the latent constructs was assessed. One-factor congeneric models were then estimated to provide an initial assessment of the measures' reliability and validity. Thirdly, measurement models containing the antecedents of PSBs were estimated for a more thorough assessment and a test of discriminant validity. Finally, full structural models were estimated to test the research hypotheses developed in the fourth chapter.

The hypothesised model was estimated and its fit compared against a full structural model. The hypothesised model is referred to as a complete mediation model where the constructs in the employee-manager interface are postulated to influence the PSBs via the effect of job attitudes. To test the mediation hypothesis, a full structural model, which include paths from the managerial strategies to the three PSBs, was estimated. The result of the chi-square difference test indicates that the full structural model fits the data better than the hypothesised model. That is, job attitudes only partially mediate the relationship between managerial strategies and PSBs.

1.5 Thesis structure

This section outlines the structure of this thesis. Each of the ten chapters in this thesis is briefly outlined. This first chapter gives an overview of the research on PSBs, the research problem is outlined and the rationale for the research is given. Chapter one further presents the design of the research and outlines each of the chapters.

Chapter two reviews the literature on employee behaviours and identifies potential antecedents of PSBs based on the identification of research gaps in the literature. The third chapter discusses the research context of the study, that is, a travel service organisation that operates a routine type service. Having identified some research gaps, the conceptual framework and hypotheses are developed in the fourth chapter. The qualitative methodology is discussed in the fifth chapter. This chapter also briefly discusses scientific research traditions, justifies the choice of in-depth interviews as the qualitative technique and qualitative research methodology used in this dissertation. Chapter six contains the discussion of the findings of the analysis of the in-depth interviews.

In the seventh chapter, the methodological underpinnings of the quantitative phase of the study are presented. The sampling techniques and sampling frames used are discussed and the methodological framework used for the data collection is established. The data for the study was collected via self-administered mail questionnaires. The respondents were the employees of an international travel service organisation in the UK. To be consistent with past research, the items in the questionnaire were derived from previous research. This chapter also justifies the choice of SEM as the method for analysis, and describes and discusses a seven-stage approach that may be used in SEM.

Chapter eight presents the results of data analysis. The data screening process is discussed first. Here, the data is screened for missing data, possible data entry errors and response bias. The descriptive statistics are then produced. The next step is to assess the reliability of the latent scales. First, a confirmatory factor analysis of the

constructs was undertaken to ascertain whether the indicators were reliable and good measures of each construct. The indicators for the latent constructs were found to be reliable and good measures overall. Finally, the results of the measurement and structural models are reported.

The estimated measurement models assess convergent and discriminant validity. The model proved to fit the sample data well. The structural models provide the standardised effects for a test of the research hypotheses. The hypotheses are accepted or rejected based on the standardised effects.

In chapter nine, the findings of the data analysis are discussed. In the final chapter, the contributions of the thesis are discussed, as are the implications arising for theory and practice. The limitations of the research are also discussed, as are the opportunities for further research on PSBs.

1.6 Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the overall framework for this thesis and, accordingly, justifies the undertaking of the thesis. The justification of the research problem started this chapter. The methodology used was then briefly discussed and, finally, each of the chapters was outlined. In the next chapter, the literature on employee behaviours is reviewed, followed by the identification of possible predictor variables based on identified gaps in the literature.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW: EMPLOYEE BEHAVIOUR

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the extant literature that constitutes the foundation for the conceptual framework that this thesis builds upon (refer to the fourth chapter for the development of the hypothesised model). The chapter begins by reviewing some of the literature on employee behaviour. The behaviour of its employees is important to the welfare of any firm, regardless of which industry the firm operates in.

The literature suggests that there is a positive link between firm performance and the job attitudes and behaviour of its employees (Bacon 2004; Heskett et al. 1997; Grönroos 2000b; Sergeant and Frenkel 2000). This line of reasoning has a long history in organisational behaviour (Batt and Moynihan 2002). The importance of customer-directed employee behaviours to organisations is supported by the services marketing and management literature as well as by the service profit chain (SPC) (Batt and Moynihan 2002; Heskett et al. 1997). The SPC is a theoretical framework that has been very influential in services marketing and management literature in recent years, which essentially proposes that the link between FLEs job attitudes and behaviour and customers satisfaction is positive and strong (Heskett et al. 1997).

More specifically, it is the customers' perceptions of the quality of their interactions with the firm's staff during service encounters that affect customers' satisfaction, purchase intentions and loyalty (Bacon 2004; Bitner, Booms and Mohr 1994, Heskett

et al. 1997; Netemeyer, Maxham and Pullig 2005; Sergeant and Frenkel 2000).

However, more empirical research into these SPC linkages are needed as the limited results that have been published to date is inconsistent in their support (Varey 1995; Silvestro and Cross 2000). Thus, it is important to study customer-directed employee behaviours and identify their predictor variables, especially from an employee perspective, which this thesis aims to do.

This chapter reviews the employee behaviour literature and the research into the antecedents of these behaviours. Attention first turns to the various forms of employee behaviours that have been identified in the literature.

2.2 Employee behaviours

As discussed in the introductory chapter, the economies of developed nations are dominated by services. Economic, social, technological and political forces have not only contributed to economic change, but also how we live, work, produce and consume goods and services (Ilgen and Pulakos 1999). However, not all things change over time, such as the importance of employees' behaviour and performance at work to the welfare of organisations. On aggregate, individual employee's behaviour and performance at work impacts upon an organisation's results (Ilgen and Pulakos 1999; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998; Motowidlo 2004). Employee behaviour, job performance and work results are, consequently, interrelated concepts in this context.

Employee behaviour refers to what people do at work while job performance is the expected value to the organisation of employee behaviour over set period of time (Motowidlo and Schmit 1999). Work results, in turn, are outcomes of behaviour, which either positively or negatively contributes to the effectiveness of organisations (Motowidlo and Schmit 1999). As individual employee behaviours and job performance impact on organisational effectiveness and performance (Bateman and Organ 1983; George and Bettenhausen 1990; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter 1993; Moorman 1991 Organ 1988; Organ and Konovsky 1989; Organ and Ryan 1995; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994, 1997; Smith, Organ and Near 1983), it is not surprising that scholars and practitioners alike are interested in finding out more about the antecedents and outcomes of employee behaviours and job performance (Organ and MacKenzie 1997).

The interest in the behaviour of employees at work and their job performance is not new, it dates back to the early 1900s (Brief and Motowidlo 1986). However, research into employee behaviours and job performance did not flourish until the late 20th century (Brief and Motowidlo 1986; Ilgen and Pulakos 1999). The huge interest in conducting research into behaviours at work that go beyond job performance can in part be attributed to the increasing levels of competitiveness in the environment firms operate in (Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch 1994). To ensure that key organisational goals, such as long-term survival and profitability, are achieved, firms need to be responsive to changing conditions, flexible and innovative. Employee behaviours, such as customer directed service behaviours, that are important to firms are therefore important to learn more about. Scholars have developed different

conceptualisations and operationalisations of employee behaviours (Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch 1994).

The literature on the different types of employee behaviours is reviewed below.

Different types of behaviours have interested researchers across various disciplines (primarily psychology, management, marketing and human resource management).

In-role, extra-role and prosocial behaviours are the main categories of behaviour that research has been conducted on, but not limited to. A smaller body of work has been conducted on negative employee behaviours at work, such as deviant and antisocial work behaviours, but these are beyond the scope of this thesis. Much of the work on extra-role and prosocial behaviours has been inspired by and builds upon the work of classical theorists in management and psychology, such as Barnard and Katz as well as Katz' work with Kahn (Bateman and Organ 1983; Brief and Motowidlo 1986; Organ 1988). Attention now turns to in-role behaviours.

In-role behaviours

In-role behaviours, also referred to as prescribed behaviours, are behaviours that are specified in job descriptions (Brown and Peterson 1993; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998). The early employee behaviour literature focused primarily on in-role behaviours. This applies to the marketing literature as well. Research into the antecedents and outcomes of sales peoples' in-role behaviours was first carried out. Brown and Peterson's (1993) seminal article, a meta-analysis of the antecedents and

consequences of sales people's job satisfaction and causal effects, focused on in-role behaviours (Brown and Peterson 1993; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998). Although the terms in-role or prescribed behaviours are used in most studies, other conceptualisations exist. Borman and his colleagues developed another concept, primarily based on their work with the US armed forces, labelled task performance. Task performance refers to the effectiveness of the performance of employee behaviours that contribute, either directly or indirectly, to the organisation's technical core (Borman and Motowidlo 1997). The technical core can be either a product or a service. Two types of task performance have been identified. Firstly, the activities that go into the transformation of the raw materials into goods and services and, secondly, the activities that either maintain or service the firm's technical core (Motowidlo, Borman and Schmit 1997).

Although in-role behaviours are important to organisations, so are behaviours of a discretionary nature, commonly referred to as extra-role behaviours, which is reflected in the number of publications from the early 1980s onward. Although these two types of behaviours represent distinctive types of performance, they complement and enhance one another (Williams and Anderson 1991) but the antecedents and outcomes of in- and extra-role behaviours may be different (Motowidlo, Borman and Schmit 1997). In reality, it is often difficult to differentiate between in- and extra-role behaviours, as the boundary between the two behaviours can be fuzzy (George and Jones 1997; Morrison 1994), especially in service settings.

Individuals vary in how they define their roles (George and Jones 1997; Morrison 1994), which has implications for how they interpret what behaviours or tasks they

are required to perform as part of their jobs. Individuals who have a narrower role definition are more likely to only perform those jobs that are explicitly or formally required, even if an action is required to perform the role effectively. People who have a broad role perception, on the other hand, are more likely to view extra-role type of behaviour as being required of them (George and Jones 1997; Morrison 1994). Attention now turns to extra-role behaviours.

Extra-role behaviours

In the latter part of the 20th century, much research in different academic disciplines (e.g. human resource management, psychology, leadership, economics, industrial and labour law, hospital and health administration, strategic management and marketing) was devoted to identifying different types of extra-role behaviours and their antecedents and outcomes (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bachrach 2000). Related constructs in this category of employee behaviours include organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs), organisational spontaneity and contextual performance (George and Jones 1997). In terms of volume, OCBs research dominates (Podsakoff et al. 2000).

There are numerous definitions of OCBs in the literature, which has become extensive (Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997; Podsakoff et al. 2000). The central tenet to all definitions is that OCBs are such behaviours that are not critical to the job or task itself, but serve to facilitate the organisation (Lee and Allen 2002). A commonly used conceptual definition states that OCBs represents behaviours of a discretionary

nature that are directed at either the organisation or its employees (Organ 1988; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994, 1997). Studies by Bateman and Organ (1983), Smith, Organ and Near (1983) and Organ (1988) represent some of the earliest work on OCBs. Although OCBs was a novel concept in the 1980s, it draw on Barnard's 1938 book "The functions of the executive" as well as various works by Katz as well as by Katz and Kahn dating back to the 1960s and 1970s (Bateman and Organ 1983; Borman and Motowidlo 1997; Smith, Organ and Near 1983).

Within the marketing literature, the employee behaviour research has primarily focused on OCBs (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994, 1997) and its antecedents and outcomes. OCBs have been studied in various contexts. Examples of research contexts include: financial services (Donavan, Brown and Mowen 2004); food retail (Ackfeldt and Coote 2005); hospitals (Lee and Allen 2002; Organ and Konovsky 1989); MBA alumni (Robinson and Morrison 1995); managers (Rotundo and Sackett 2002); manufacturing (Moorman 1991; Tepper, Lockhart and Hoobler 2001); restaurants (Bienstock, DeMoranville and Smith 2003; Koys 2001); sales (e.g. MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter 1993; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Paine 1999; Netemeyer, Boles, McKee and McMurrian 1997; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994); higher education (Settoon and Mossholder 2002; Werner 1994); and the utility industry (Deckop, Mangel and Cirka 1999).

Although OCBs research is in its fourth decade, there is still a lack of consensus regarding how to measure the construct (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter 1993; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997; Podsakoff et al. 2000; Smith, Organ and Near 1983;

Werner 1994; Williams and Anderson 1991). The body of literature on the topic has identified a number of conceptually distinct dimensions (Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997). Examples of OCB dimensions include sportsmanship, civic virtue, conscientiousness, courtesy, peacekeeping, altruism and cheerleading (Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997; Podsakoff et al. 2000). Empirical research, however, suggests that practitioners find the distinctions between these dimensions blurry (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter 1993; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994, 1997). Recent OCBs studies tend to use a three-dimensional version of OCBs, which to a degree alleviates the “blurriness” between some of the dimensions listed above.

These three main OCB dimensions are 1) sportsmanship, 2) civic virtue and 3) helping behaviours (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997). The first category, *sportsmanship*, is defined as the inclination to tolerate minor inconveniences and impositions arising from the job without complaint or demands for compensation and relief. *Civic virtue* refers to practising constructive and suitable forms of involvement in the governance of the workplace, such as attending meetings, and reading and answering mail (Konovsky and Organ 1996). The final category of OCBs is *helping behaviour*, which refers to behaviours that are directed at co-workers that are of a helping or co-operative nature (Konovsky and Organ 1996; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997).

As mentioned above, empirical research has found that respondents have had difficulties differentiating the fine distinctions between some dimensions. The problem with differentiation applies particularly to the dimensions that share a

helping or cooperative theme (Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997), which were identified by Organ (1988). Organ (1988) labelled these dimensions altruism, courtesy, peacemaking and cheerleading. *Altruism* encapsulates voluntary acts of assisting people with work-related problems, for instance sharing sales strategies. *Courtesy* describes gestures that people display at work to help prevent problems encountered by others, such as checking with the manufacturing plant before finalising a large order. *Peacemaking* refers to unofficial mediating actions that help to stop, resolve or alleviate destructive interpersonal conflict in the work place. The aim is to stabilise the work environment by reducing volatility associated with conflict. Finally, *cheerleading* is defined as encouraging and reinforcing colleagues' achievements and professional development, such as encouraging co-workers (Konovsky and Organ 1996; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998).

As is clear from the conceptual definitions above, altruism, courtesy, peacemaking and cheerleading all share a theme of assisting co-workers in avoiding or solving work related problems (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997). The solution to the low face validity has been to create a single helping behaviour dimension by combining the four dimensions into a single one, which is technically referred to as a second-order latent construct (Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997).

As mentioned above, past research has shown that the effectiveness of the organisation and work units is enhanced by OCBs (c.f. Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994, 1997). For instance, OCBs have an impact on sales managers' performance appraisals of salespeople and thus are important to managers. Managers typically rate

employees' helping behaviours more highly than sportsmanship and civic virtue (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Paine 1999; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994). Managers generally consider helping behaviours to increase the effectiveness of sales units (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Paine 1999; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994). However, this intuitively appealing hypothesis has not been consistently supported. Some studies have found helping behaviours to have a negative impact on sales unit performance while sportsmanship and civic virtue have a positive effect (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Paine 1999; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994).

There may be several plausible explanations for the conflicting evidence regarding the positive outcomes of helping behaviours on performance. For instance, as Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994) note, assisting a new co-worker may reduce efficiency, as experienced staff has to monitor the new colleague. Similarly, experienced staff may help new team members to "learn the ropes" at the expense of concentrating on their own performance. However, helping behaviours may have a long-term impact on performance (Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994). Helping behaviours may consequently be detrimental to short-term performance but beneficial in the long-term at an individual level.

Helping behaviours in particular and OCBs in general have been found to affect work group performances (Podsakoff, Ahearne and MacKenzie 1997). Here, research indicates that helping behaviours and sportsmanship increase the quantity of work. Helping behaviours also enhance the quality of work compared to work-groups that do not display these behaviours (Podsakoff, Ahearne and MacKenzie 1997). A work-group's effectiveness increases with both individual and collective

experience and the length of time the members of the team have worked together (Podsakoff, Ahearne and MacKenzie 1997). The length of time and the synergy effects from experience in conjunction with the type of discretionary behaviour determine the quality and quantity of group work and, thus, its effectiveness.

It is, consequently, important for organisations to encourage employees to display OCBs in addition to in-role behaviours. Because of these behaviours, organisational performance should improve. There are three different classes of OCBs: sportsmanship, civic virtue and helping behaviours. These classes of OCBs affect the performance of organisations in different ways depending on the structure, experience and the length of time employees have worked in a particular setting. Managers need to recognise that each organisation is different and requires various types of strategies and interventions.

Additional research into other types of extra-role behaviours than OCBs has been conducted, particularly by organisational psychologists, such as organisational spontaneity and contextual performance. The concept of organisational spontaneity was developed by George and Brief (1992). Organisational spontaneity is defined as the voluntary performance of extra-role behaviours, which contribute to organisational effectiveness (George and Brief 1992). Five types of organisational spontaneity were identified: 1) helping co-workers, 2) developing one-self, 3) spreading goodwill, 4) protecting the organisation and 5) making constructive suggestions (George and Brief 1992; George and Jones 1997). Based on face validity, the dimensions of organisational spontaneity largely overlap the three main OCBs dimensions as discussed previously.

Contextual performance is another extra-role behaviour type of concept, which was developed primarily by Borman and Motowidlo during the 1990s. Contextual performance contributes to organisational effectiveness, but in a different manner to task performance. As stated in the in-role behaviour section, task performance relates to activities that are needed to either produce the firm's goods or services (i.e. technical core) or maintain/service these products. Helping behaviours that promote the social and organisational network help create a positive psychological climate that helps the technical core to function properly (Motowidlo, Borman and Schmit 1997). Contextual performance activities act as catalysts for task performance. While task performance is primarily in-role in nature, contextual performance has a voluntary and helping flavour (Borman and Motowidlo 1997).

Thus, prescribed and discretionary behaviours represent distinctive types of performance. Both types of behaviours are important to an organisation as they complement and enhance each other (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998; Williams and Anderson 1991). In reality, it may be difficult for managers and employees alike to differentiate between what is a role prescribed or discretionary behaviour, especially in a service context as many behaviours occur when the employee interact with customers (Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Bowen and Waldman 1999; Morrison 1994). Despite this difficulty, it is important that managers understand and take both the performance of prescribed and discretionary behaviours into account in performance appraisals because of their effect the overall financial performance of firms. In addition, employee behaviours have an effect on the resource allocation of firms. For instance, employee performance affects managerial decisions regarding training, compensation and promotion (MacKenzie, Podsakoff

and Ahearne 1998). Hence, in- and extra-role employee behaviours are important to understand and manage as organisational performance is affected.

MacKenzie and his colleagues (1998) identified two major reasons why there is need to consider both in-role behaviours and extra-role behaviours' in evaluating employee performance evaluation. First, both factors affect the overall financial performance of marketing and sales organisations. Second, employees' performance affects managerial decisions regarding training, compensation and promotion, both types of behaviour need to be taken into account because they may have different implications for the allocation of firm resources. However, the factors have different antecedents and outcomes. For instance, in-role performances are antecedents of job satisfaction while extra-role performances are consequences (MacKenzie et al 1998). Essentially, both in-role behaviours and extra-role behaviours affect organisational performance and consequently warrant academic and managerial attention. Research on concepts that involve both prescribed and discretionary behaviours are discussed next.

In- and extra-role behaviour combination constructs

As discussed above, the performance of both in- and extra-role behaviours by employees are important to organisations. Researchers have recognised this by developing concepts that include both in-role and extra-role behaviours. Prosocial organisational behaviour (POB) is possibly the most known concept in this category of employee behaviours. Prosocial service behaviours (PSBs) is a more recently

developed construct, which may be seen as an extension of POBs and OCBs. POB and PSB are discussed in turn next.

Prosocial behaviours

POB is defined very broadly as the performance of behaviours that are intended to promote the welfare of the individual, or a group of people, to whom behaviour is directed (Brief and Motowidlo 1986). POB consist of different behaviours, such as “...*helping, sharing, donating, cooperating, and volunteering...*” (Brief and Motowidlo 1986, p. 710).

From the list of behaviours that characterise POB, it is evident that OCBs, organisational spontaneity, contextual performance and POB are similar concepts in that these encompasses behaviours that are internally directed (Borman and Motowidlo 1997; Brief and Motowidlo 1986; George and Brief 1992; Organ 1988). These concepts also differ in that OCBs and organisational spontaneity represents solely discretionary behaviours while POBs encompasses both in- and extra-role behaviours (Borman and Motowidlo 1997; Brief and Motowidlo 1986; George and Brief 1992).

Furthermore, the performance of POB may have negative consequences for the organisation but can be positive for the individual (Borman and Motowidlo 1997; Brief and Motowidlo 1986; George and Jones 1997). An example of the latter would

be an employee who misses an important deadline at work because he or she helped a colleague with a problem of a personal nature (Borman and Motowidlo 1997).

Building primarily on OCBs and POB, Bettencourt and Brown (1997) developed a more broad generic construct that consist of both in-role and extra-role behaviours that are directed at customers as well as the organisation, namely, prosocial service behaviours (PSBs).

PSBs

PSBs are defined as behaviours of a helpful nature that employees' direct towards the organisation, co-workers and/or customers (Bettencourt and Brown 1997, 2003).

PSBs are similar to OCBs, especially the helping behaviour dimension. Although OCBs have a strong flavour of service orientation (Bowen and Waldman 1999; Organ 1988), these behaviours are not directed at customers per se. For this reason, more research into customer directed service behaviours has been called for (Bowen and Waldman 1999; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997). To date, Bettencourt and Brown (1997, 2003) and Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie (2005) are among the few academics to have contributed to our knowledge of customer directed service behaviours and their antecedents.

Although PSBs and OCBs are related concepts, they are not identical. PSBs are conceptualised to include both prescribed and discretionary behaviours that can be directed at co-workers and/or external customers (Bettencourt and Brown 1997,

2003; George 1991), as opposed to OCBs that are internally directed and consists solely of discretionary behaviour. It is of interest to study all types of employee behaviours as the welfare of organisations, ultimately, benefit from positive employee behaviours.

Using Bettencourt and Brown's (1997) conceptualisation, PSBs consist of three dimensions: 1) *in-role customer service*, 2) *extra-role customer service* and 3) *cooperation* (Bettencourt and Brown 1997, refer to Table 2.1 below for an illustration of the service behaviour typology). *In-role customer service* is defined as the performance of expected service behaviours by employees in serving customers (Bettencourt and Brown 1997). *Extra-role customer service*, refers to the discretionary service behaviours that service employees' perform (Bettencourt and Brown 1997). The third and final dimension of PSBs is *cooperation*, which is synonymous with the helping behaviour dimension of OCBs.

Customer service behaviours that are role prescribed consists of regular duties and responsibilities that are expected and required of employees and are generally outlined in job descriptions. It is expected that employees fulfil duties specified in job descriptions, i.e. in-role behaviours, failure to do so may lead to reprimands and/or risk being terminated from the position (Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer 1996; Van Dyne and LePine 1998).

Table 2.1
PSB typology



Sources: Adapted from Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997), p. 147. Podsakoff and MacKenzie's (1997) terminology is listed in brackets, while Bettencourt and Brown's (1997) conceptualisation of PSBs, in italics, is fitted into Podsakoff and MacKenzie's (1997) employee behaviour typology.

The second dimension of the PSB construct is *extra-role customer service* (Bettencourt and Brown 1997). Discretionary behaviours go beyond formal role requirements and are valued by firms due to the positive association with organisational effectiveness and performance (Netemeyer, Boles, McKee and McMurrian 1997; Organ 1988, 1997; Orr, Sackett and Mercer 1989; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997).

The final dimension of PSBs is *cooperation*, which is synonymous with the helping behaviour dimension of OCBs (Bettencourt and Brown 1997) and has a particularly strong flavour of service orientation (Bowen and Waldman 1999; Organ 1988). As discussed in the OCBs section above, cooperation is, conceptually speaking, a second-order construct identified by Organ (1988), which shares a theme of assisting co-workers in avoiding or solving work related problems (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998).

Based on the above discussion, it is clear that our knowledge about PSB as a construct is limited. Due to the important of services worldwide, furthering our

knowledge about PSBs and its predictor variables is worthwhile. This leads us to the first research gap, which concerns the conceptualisation of the different employee behaviour constructs discussed above. Researchers working on organisational citizenship and related employee behaviours by and large conceptualise and model these constructs as being multi-dimensional. However, adopting this approach would assume that all proposed antecedents influence the different dimensions of PSBs in the same way.

Consistent with Bettencourt and Brown's (1997) study, the extra- and in-role customer service behaviours and cooperation are modelled as separate constructs. By adopting this modelling approach, this thesis is able to contribute to the understanding of the causes of different forms of behaviours, which range along the in- to extra-role behaviour continuum. Such knowledge is especially important to service managers as it enables them to develop multiple mechanisms through which they can influence the behaviour of customer contact employees. Even small positive changes in behaviour at the individual level will, in turn, impact upon the attainment of key organisational goals, such as long-term survival and profitability, at the aggregate level.

Having reviewed the literature on employee behaviours, attention now turns to the antecedents of employee service behaviours.

2.3 Antecedents of employee service behaviour

As the performance of positive employee behaviours in general and extra-role behaviours in particular have been positively linked to organisational effectiveness (Bateman and Organ 1983; George 1990; George and Bettenhausen 1990; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Fetter 1993; Moorman 1991 Organ 1988; Organ and Konovsky 1989; Organ and Ryan 1995; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994, 1997; Smith, Organ and Near 1983), it is not surprising that much research has been focused on identifying factors that promote the performance of such desirable behaviours (Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997).

The early sales marketing studies on the topic of job performance generally focused on the in-role aspects of sales performance such as dollar sales and sales volume (Brown and Peterson 1993; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998), i.e. hard performance measures. This narrow view of job performance was later broadened to include extra-role aspects of performance (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998). The majority of the empirical research into employee behaviours has been published since the 1980s and most attention has been given to the antecedents and outcomes of OCBs and related POB research.

The primary construct of interest to marketing scholars, especially in sales marketing and management, has been OCBs. There have been calls for further research into specific service behaviours in recent years (Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997; Podsakoff et al. 2000). Despite these calls, little research has to date been published

on service specific employee behaviours (Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie 2005). Thus, further research into the drivers of employee service behaviours is warranted.

As research into service specific employee behaviours at the individual level is in its infancy, there is a natural paucity of research into and identification of predictor variables. The services literature asserts that there is a positive relationship between employee job attitudes and behaviours and customers' perception of service quality and customer satisfaction (Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie 2005; Hartline and Ferrell 1996; Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry 1988). Therefore, forwarding our knowledge of the drivers of service specific employee behaviours is important, and it also contributes to the existing body of knowledge.

Job attitudes are linked to employee behaviour. Attitudes and behaviour/performance are two areas that are very well researched and represent two central constructs in organisational research at the individual level (Harrison, Newman and Roth 2006). The proposition that job attitudes predict employee work behaviours is not new, it has enjoyed attention since the 1930s (Harrison, Newman and Roth 2006; Judge, Thoresen, Bono and Patton 2001; Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky and Chermont 2003). A job attitude is defined as the knowledge structure that summarises and organises the array of emotions and thoughts that stem from actual work experiences with a specific job (George and Jones 1996).

Much research has been conducted on job attitudes and their antecedents and outcomes. In the OCB area, the interest in explaining the job attitude-OCB relationship dates back to Organ's early work (Organ 1988). In essence, Organ

contended that employees who have favourable job attitudes are more likely to perform OCBs more often than those with negative job attitudes (Organ 1988). Job satisfaction and organisational commitment are two of the most commonly researched job attitudes as predictors of employee behaviour.

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment both represent positive job attitudes. If employees are satisfied with their jobs and committed to the organisation they work for, they are less likely to consider leaving the firm and more inclined to perform extra-role behaviours. The reciprocity principle (Gouldner 1960) supports this line of reasoning (Bettencourt and Brown 1997; Bettencourt, Gwinner and Meuter 2001; Netemeyer, Boles, McKee and McMurrian 1997). Thinking about leaving the job is referred to as having turnover intentions, which is a negative job attitude.

Productivity losses and financial costs for the employer are associated with turnover intentions. Negative or low affect towards the job itself and/or the organisation is associated with work role withdrawal, absence and actual turnover (Harrison, Newman and Roth 2006) that lowers productivity levels before actual turnover occurs. The recruitment costs for replacing employees who have left the organisation can be substantial. Also, it may take time before a new member of staff is as productive as experienced staff members.

There is, consequently, a strong connection among job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intent (Koslowsky 1991; Lok and Crawford 1999). Job satisfaction is seen as a more specific attitude but less stable and enduring than

organisational commitment (Harrison, Newman and Roth 2006; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998). More specifically, the target of affect for job satisfaction is the individual's work role or position while for organisational commitment it is the organisation as a whole (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998). For this reason, job satisfaction is thought to be a precursor to organisational commitment (Brown and Peterson 1993; Koslowsky 1991; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998). Turnover intention, in turn, is an outcome of both job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Koslowsky 1991; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998), but the relationship is negative. That is, if the employees is happy with his/her job and is committed to the organisation (s)he works for, then turnover intentions are low.

Research on the job attitudes and their antecedents and outcomes is essential, since knowledge derived from this directly impacts on managerial practices and firms' performance outcomes (Russ and McNeilly 1995; Shaw, Delery, Jenkins and Gupta 1998). Organisational commitment and job satisfaction are seen as central job attitudes. Both concepts are highly correlated job-related attitudinal constructs, but they are not identical (Meyer, Irving and Allen 1998; Schappe 1998). The most important concept for managers to foster in their employees, however, can be said to be job satisfaction because of its influence on organisational commitment. However, both these job satisfaction and organisational commitment have important consequences for organisational efficiency and performance, which makes them important to study jointly as predictors of PSBs. Thus, the second research gap identified pertains to job attitudes as predictors of PSBs.

It is unfortunate but true that it is hard to both explain and predict human behaviour (Ajzen 1991), whether it is predicting the outcomes of election polls, understanding how come some individuals successfully stop smoking and others do not or cannot, why not all university students are awarded firsts or why some employees go the extra mile in serving customers and others do not. From a managerial perspective, understanding how to successfully promote PSBs and other desirable employee behaviours can be likened to searching for the “Holy Grail” of management. As discussed above, job attitudes influence employee behaviours. Positive job attitudes are consequently important to foster by managers in general and those operating in service firms in particular.

As all attitudes are learned (Hogg and Vaughan 2005) they can be influenced. In an organisational context, it is the responsibility of senior managers to devise and implement strategies that influence their staff in a desired manner. The ability to influence others is vital to managerial success (Cable and Judge 2003). Indeed, the implementation of managerial interventions that affect employee job attitudes and service behaviours favourably is crucial to service organisations as it influences customer assessment of service quality during a service encounter (Kelley and Hoffman 1997). Research has consistently found a positive relationship between positive FLE displays, such as positive affect and job attitudes, and customer satisfaction with service encounters (Bitner 1990; Grandey, Fisk, Mattila, Jansen and Sideman 2005; Kelley and Hoffman 1997).

The role of internal processes and strategies implemented by service managers in influencing employees’ work attitudes and service behaviours, which, in turn, are

positively influence customer evaluation of service quality and satisfaction is highlighted in the services and organisational behaviour literatures (c.f. Babakus, Yavas, Karatepe and Avci 2003; Bettencourt and Brown 1997; Bitner 1990; Bitner, Booms and Mohr 1994; Donovan, Brown and Mowen 2004; Hartline and Ferrell 1996; Hartline, Maxham and McKee 2000; Heskett, Sasser and Schlesinger 1997; Kelley 1992; Schneider, White and Paul 1998; Sergeant and Frenkel 2000; Singh 1993, 1998). Effective management of service employees is accordingly essential to organisation success.

Based on a scan of the employee behaviour literature, it is clear few studies have been published where organisational level managerial variables of a strategic nature are modelled as predictor variables of job attitudes and/or employee service behaviours from an employee perspective. There are, however, some related studies in the marketing literature, which this thesis builds upon and complements.

A recent study by Babakus et al. (2003) investigated the effects of employee cognitive appraisal of management commitment to service quality (MCSQ) on the formation of job attitudes and service recovery performance. Babakus et al.'s (2003) study builds, in turn, on Hartline and Ferrell's (1996) study. In this study, MCSQ was found to indirectly influence customer perceptions of service quality via employee emotional and behavioural responses. In this study, customers rated employee behaviours as an indicator service quality (Hartline and Ferrell 1996). This thesis, consequently, builds on and complements these two studies by investigating the effect of organisational level managerial strategies, which may be viewed as

signals by management that they are committed to service quality, on the formation of positive job attitudes and the performance of PSBs from an employee perspective.

Furthermore, studies by Bettencourt and Brown (1997, 2003), Bettencourt, Gwinner and Meuter (2001) and Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie (2005) have also investigated the antecedents of various types of customer/service-oriented behaviours, which have primarily been of an extra-role nature. The predictor variables of the different types of employee behaviour are primarily of an attitudinal nature. Examples of attitudinal predictor variables include job satisfaction (Bettencourt and Brown 1997, 2003; Bettencourt, Gwinner and Meuter 2001), organisational commitment (Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie 2005), role stressors (Bettencourt and Brown 2003), organisational justice (Bettencourt, Brown and Mackenzie 2005). Bettencourt, Gwinner and Meuter (2001) also studied the influence of personality and customer knowledge variables on service-oriented OCBs).

However, individual employee perceptions of managerial interventions on employee job attitudes and customer/service-oriented behaviours have to date not been included in this body of work. The identification of variables that influence job attitudes is of interest to both scholars and practitioners. It is clear that there are many factors that influence the formation of job attitudes. For instance, we know from recent meta-analyses on the topic of job satisfaction that traits explain up to 35 percent of the variance in job satisfaction (Dormann and Zapf 2001; Dormann, Fay, Zapf and Frese 2006). At least 65 percent of the variance of job satisfaction is, consequently, attributable to other variables. The identification of organisational

variables that affect the formation of job attitudes has the potential to contribute to the literature. The third research gap, consequently, refers to the identification of organisational level managerial strategies that influence employee job attitudes positively.

How to manage FLEs is discussed at length in the services marketing literature (Hartline and Ferrell 1996). The issue of providing good quality service to customers is part of this discussion. The role of a genuine commitment of top management to provide excellent service cannot be understated. Such a commitment this increases the likelihood that it translated into an actual implementation of service quality improvement and maintenance programmes. Studies by Babakus and his colleagues (2003) and Hartline and Ferrell (1996) suggest that management commitment to service quality has an important effect on FLEs behaviours. Although the relationship is recognised in the literature, few empirical studies has been published supporting such assertions with respect to employee service behaviours from an employee perspective.

Babakus et al. (2003) argue that empowerment and professional development and training programmes are some of the best indicator of management commitment to service quality. A synthesis of the literature also highlights the role internal communication in influencing employee attitudes and behaviours. However, empirical research on how organisational level internal communication affects employee service behaviours is scarce. It is also rare that the perceptions of aforementioned interventions are measured from an employee perspective. Thus, this thesis contributes to the literature by investigating the effect of internal

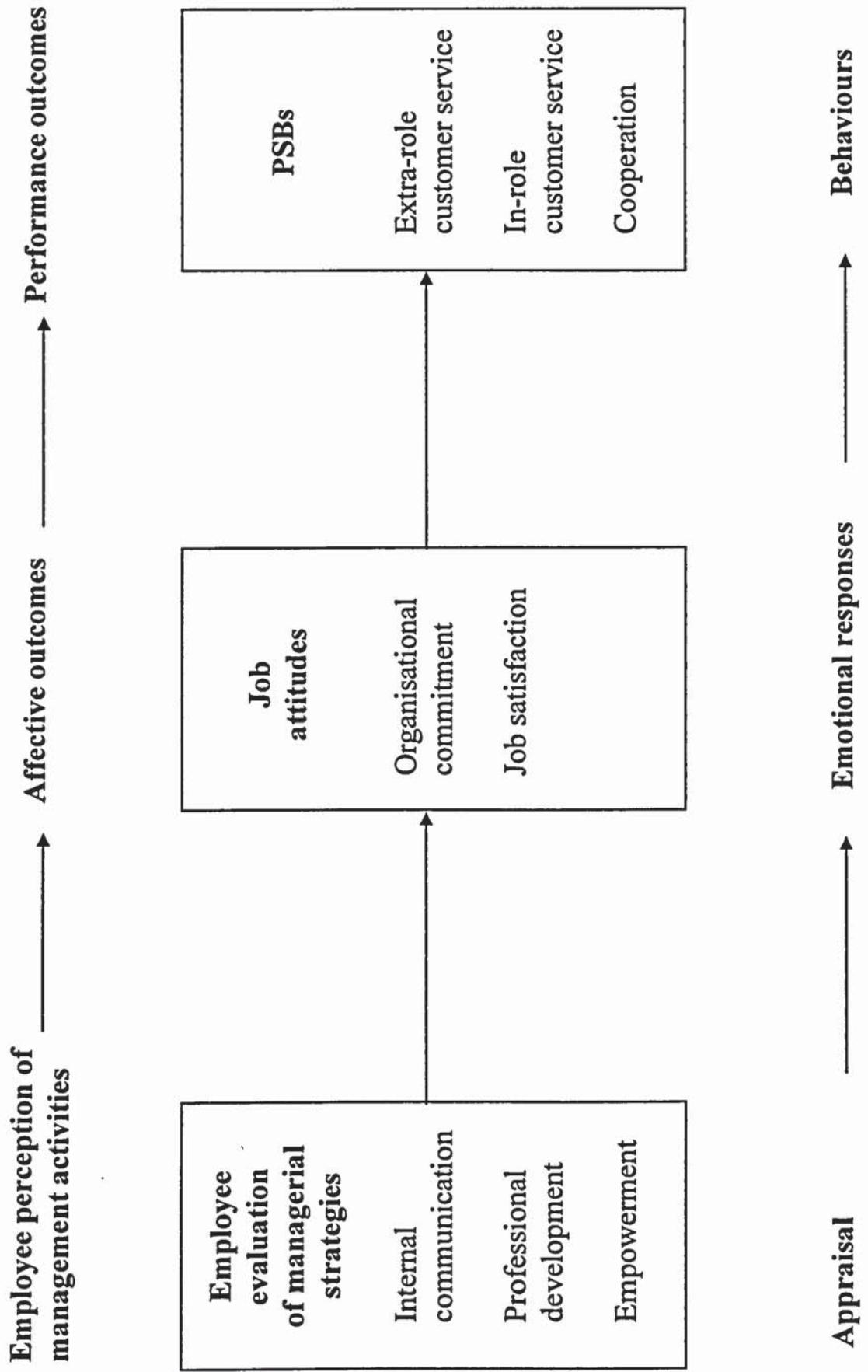
communication, professional development and empowerment on employee job attitudes. The aforementioned interventions are seen as important managerial tools that influence employees positively.

The above discussion is summarised into a conceptual framework below, which examines the direct and indirect predictors of PSBs as perceived by employees. The unit of analysis is consequently the individual. To restate for emphasis, the basic premise of the framework is that employee's cognitive appraisal of the implementation of managerial interventions influence their affective responses, i.e. the formation of positive job attitudes (job satisfaction and organisational commitment). These job attitudes, in turn, affect employee performance of PSBs.

2.4 Conclusion

In closing, the aim of this chapter has been to describe how this dissertation fits within the existing literature. The employee behaviour literature was reviewed first. Based on the literature, specific research gaps were identified and addressed. The relevant literature utilised to provide the foundation for the conceptual model was presented in this chapter. The literature reviews of the constructs in the conceptual framework are presented in chapter four. The hypotheses relating to this framework are also developed in chapter four. In the next chapter, the research context of this thesis is presented.

Figure 2.1
Conceptual framework



3. RESEARCH CONTEXT

3.1 Introduction

The primary aim of this chapter is to explain the research context of the dissertation, which is the UK travel service industry. The justification for conducting research into this industry is provided first. The UK travel and tourism sector is then briefly discussed. As the sponsoring organisation operates in the UK ferry industry, this industry is discussed next. The chapter concludes with a summary of the research gaps and the research objectives of this dissertation.

3.2 Justification of the choice of research context

One of the research gaps identified in the employee behaviour literature refers to research contexts. Service work is very varied in nature, which means there are many different work contexts where employees have to meet unique job demands (Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie 2005; Podsakoff et al. 2000). Recent research suggests that the OCB/POB research on FLEs apply equally across work contexts and jobs (Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie 2005), but little is known about if the same applies to service behaviours. Therefore, more studies on employee service behaviours are needed to determine whether there are differences in antecedents across contexts and jobs.

Past research into employee service behaviour has been concentrated to the US financial service sector (Bettencourt and Brown 1997, 2003; Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie 2005; Bettencourt, Gwinner and Meuter 2001). This study is one of the first to take steps to address the need for research on PSBs in other service settings and in the UK. Here, PSBs are studied in a travel service context. The organisation studied offers fairly routine types of services, which are very different in nature compared to financial services. Thus, the research context for this thesis is a travel service organisation in the UK, which is a new context to this body of literature. Attention now turns to the description of the participating organisation, which operates in the UK ferry industry.

First, the UK travel and tourism sector will be briefly described, as sea travel is included in this part of the economy. Second, the UK ferry industry is discussed. The section concludes with a brief description of the organisation that took part in the study.

3.3 A brief overview of the UK travel and tourism sector

In 2003, the turnover of the UK travel and tourism industry was £67.32bn (excluding international fares) which represents a 2% growth on 2002 (Key Note 2004). A total of 1.31 billion overnight stays and 237.3 million trips were made during 2003. Three main markets are served: *domestic* (domestic tourism by UK residents), *outbound* (UK residents travelling abroad) and *inbound* (overseas residents travelling to the UK) tourism. The domestic market accounted for 39.3% (£26.48bn) of the total

expenditure while the outbound for 43% (£28.94bn) and the inbound for 17.7%, £11.90bn (Key Note 2004).

The worldwide demand for travel has slowed down since 2001, due to both extraneous and unusual circumstances. North Atlantic travel, for instance, was badly affected by the 11 September 2001 events in New York. The UK travel and tourism market has, on the whole, grown in volume in the 1999-2003 period, with the exception of 2001 (Key Note 2004). The domestic and inbound markets contracted in 2001 because of the 11 September events, while the outbound market grew, albeit at a slower rate than normal. The inbound market has continued its contraction since 2001. Unusual and extraneous factors, including foot and mouth disease, SARS and the Iraq war, have affected upon the travel and tourism market's growth in the UK (Key Note 2004).

As mentioned above, the UK outbound market grew between 1999 and 2003, but not to the same extent as prior to 11 September 2001. Until 2002, the growth in the outbound sector was driven by the rise of the value of the sterling. The major reason for the growth in this market in recent years is the increase in outbound air travel in general and low-cost airlines in particular. The outbound market increased by 31.4% from 1999 to 2003, while the inbound decreased by 4.8% and the domestic market grew by 3.3%. The trips taken by sea and the Eurostar and Eurotunnel, on the other hand, have decreased because of the growth in routes by the low-cost airlines during this period of time (Key Note 2004). In the first half of 2004, the outbound market has remained stagnant relative 2003 while the inbound market grew by 17% (Key

Note 2004) whilst the ferry industry continues to experience difficult times in 2004 (Ferry Stat 2004).

The main passenger transport providers in the travel and tourism sector are commercial airlines as well as operators of passenger trains (including the Eurotunnel), busses, coaches and ferries (Key Note 2004). However, in the domestic travel and tourism market, private transport, primarily by car, dominates the sector. 84.6% of all travel within the UK and almost 75% of domestic tourist trips are by car (Key Note 2004). Attention now turns to the UK ferry industry as the organisation participating in this research project operates within this sector of the travel and tourism industry.

3.4 The UK ferry industry

The year of 2002 was good for the UK ferry industry, but the following years have been more challenging for the industry in general (P&O 2004; Passenger Shipping Association (PSA) 2004; Stena AB 2004). Increased competition from the low cost airlines is the main reason for the contraction of the ferry industry as a whole, but foot and mouth disease, the Iraq war and increased terror threats also contributed to this contraction. The good summer weather in 2003 and a weaker pound against the euro also had negative consequences for the UK-Continent and UK-Republic of Ireland routes during the all important summer season. The Eurotunnel and Eurostar services have also suffered decreased passenger volumes of for the same reasons, but not to the same degree as the ferry industry (Key Note 2004; P&O 2004; PSA 2004;

Stena AB 2004). Thus, the ferry industry is currently contracting, mainly due to a turbulent external environment. Although the ferry industry is experiencing reduced demand, a large number of passengers and vehicles are transported annually.

During 2003, approximately 44.2 million passengers travelled on 95 ferries operated by 16 organisations (excluding subsidiaries) on the Domestic routes (18.2 million), to the Continent (22.3 million) and to the Republic of Ireland (3.7 million). This represents a fall in the volume passengers of 3.5% relative 2002 and 1.4% compared to 2001 (PSA 2004). Similarly, car and coach traffic were down by 1% (a little less than 8.9 million) and 11.2% (to 270 000) respectively. The 33 International routes to the Continent and the Republic of Ireland are contracting, primarily due to the expansion of low-cost airlines (Key Note 2004; PSA 2004). Passenger demand on the Domestic routes, however, has experienced annual increases since 1998. During 2003, 18.2 million passengers, up 3.6% from 2002, travelled on the Domestic ferry routes (PSA 2004).

The UK-Continent ferry routes have suffered the largest decrease in passenger demand since the low cost airlines entered the market in the 1990s and the latter part especially (PSA 2004). The liberalisation of air travel within the EU, the rapid penetration of Internet access in UK households (48% in 2003 compared with 10% in 1999), a fall in the cost of travel and the trend to take shorter holidays have contributed to both changes in travel purchasing behaviour patterns and the growth of the airlines' share of the passenger market (Key Note 2004).

Between 1997 and 2003, the airline share of the UK Continent passenger market increased from 48.4% to 62.2% (PSA 2004). The largest increase in the airline sector's share was seen during 2003, which resulted in the contraction of all ferry routes by country except the UK-Holland routes that increased by 2.7%.

Disregarding the airline industry, the ferry's share of the passengers were 57.8% compared to 16.3% (6.3 million) for Eurostar and 25.9% (10 million) for the Eurotunnel (PSA 2004).

The UK-Continent routes are divided into Short Sea, North Sea and Western Channels Routes (PSA 2004). The Short Sea routes have contracted substantially in the 1997-2003 period, 37.7%, while the Western Channel routes' demand fell marginally by 2.6% and the North Sea routes by 12.6%. During 2003, the Short Sea routes fell by 11.2% and the Western Channel and North Sea routes by 5.6% and 0.1% respectively. The downward trend in cars during 2003 was 4.1% for ferries and 2.3% for the Eurotunnel and for coached 14.4% for ferries and 0% for the Eurotunnel respectively (PSA 2004).

Although the Irish Sea is divided into three corridors, North, Central and South, the northerly corridor falls in the Domestic sector as the routes in this corridor are operated between Scotland and Northern Ireland (PSA 2004). The UK-Republic of Ireland routes, thus, consists of two corridors: the Irish Sea Southern and Central Corridor routes. The demand for travel by ferry fell by 15% in this sector of the market during 1997-2003, and by 2.3% during 2003. The Southern Corridor has declined by 25.7% during this period and the Central Corridor by 9%. The Central

Corridor is more than twice the size of the South Corridor in terms of how many passengers, cars and coaches are transported (PSA 2004).

The UK-Domestic routes are four: the Channel Islands, Irish Sea Northern Corridor, Isle of Wight and Scotland (Clyde & Western Isles) routes. In total, the Domestic routes transported 18.2 million passengers, 3.5 million cars and 0.48 million coaches in 2003 (PSA 2004). The Isle of Wight routes are the largest, about 9.4 million passengers, 1.7 million cars and just over 0.25 million coaches were ferried in 2003. The routes in Scotland transported 5.2 million passenger, 1 million cars and 0.13 million coaches in 2003. The Northern Ireland and Channel Island routes transported 3 million respectively 0.55 million passengers, 0.7 million respectively 0.1 million cars and 9000 coaches to NI (PSA 2004).

Competitors in the UK ferry market

In 2003, sixteen organisations operated in the UK ferry industry (refer to Table 3.1, PSA 2004). Two of the sixteen organisations dominate the UK ferry sector: The Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company, more commonly known as P&O, on the UK-Continental routes and Stena Line on the Irish Sea (both the UK-Domestic and UK-Republic of Ireland routes). P&O operated four business units in the P&O Group's Ferry Division and Stena Line two (PSA 2004; P&O 2004a; Stena AB 2004). P&O underwent a re-branding exercise in 2003 when the ferry division was consolidated into P&O Ferries (P&O 2004a). Stena Line operates as Stena Line in the Irish Sea and Stena Line BV on the UK-Continent routes (Stena AB 2004).

P&O Ferries divested its Irish Sea operations in March, 2004. In 2003, Stena Line and P&O employed 49.4% out of the total number of employees in the ferry industry (9.472 out of 19.187). Stena Line operated thirteen vessels and P&O twenty-seven out of the total of ninety-five (P&O 2004a; Stena AB 2004).

Table 3.1
Operators in the UK ferry industry in 2003



Source: PSA 2004

Customer segments

Passengers travel for a variety of reasons and make up very different target markets for the ferry companies (PSA 2004). The purpose for travelling gives the following passenger segments: holiday (comprising of independently organised and packaged tours), visiting friends and relatives (VFR), business and other (such as commuters

on the domestic routes). A separate customer group is the truck drivers. Truck drivers are passengers but are part of the freight segment. Freight is an important source of revenue, but is not included in the ferry statistics (PSA 2004). (N.B. the importance of carrying freight is reflected in the organisations' tonnage. A versatile fleet, consisting of a mix of traditional multi-purpose vessels, RoPax, RoRo and high-speed vessel, is essential to achieve profitability for the larger organisations.)

Ferry passengers can be segmented into several categories, the main being the "low-cost" and "premium" segments (P&O 2004a; Stena AB 2004). P&O Ferries and Stena Line, the two dominating organisations, aim to provide their customers with a high quality of service but are also able to satisfy the needs of the "low-cost" segments during off-peak times by offering a lower cost product (P&O 2004a; Stena AB 2004). In addition, P&O Ferries and Stena Line have recently implemented CRM programmes to improve service quality levels throughout their organisations. CRM programmes in conjunction the investment in new routes, vessels and ports as well as the consolidation and restructuring of the organisations that have taken place over the past few years are aimed at increasing their profitability (P&O 2004a, b; Stena AB 2004).

3.5 Summary of research gaps

Four research gaps were identified in the second and third chapters, which are summarised next. The first research gap refers to the common practice of modelling OCBs and related employee behaviour constructs as multi-dimensional construct.

Doing so does not allow us to identify differential effects of predictor variables on different types of behaviour, which is particularly important to do when constructs are complex. Job attitudes are generally modelled as predictors of employee behaviours (refer to the OCBs literature in general). However, few studies have been published on service specific employee behaviours, such as PSBs, so little is known about the job attitude-PSB relationship, which is addressed in the second research gap.

Although the literature is clear in its message that managerial strategies influence employee behaviours, little empirical work on how organisational level managerial strategies influence employee attitudes and behaviours have been published. This is addressed in the third research gap. To address this void in the literature, internal communication, professional development and empowerment are seen as important managerial strategies, which can be said act as indicators of top management commitment to providing excellent service.

The fourth research gap refers to the context the contextual framework is tested in, that is, a travel service organisation. This organisation can be categorised as providing a routine type service to its customers. In the marketing and management studies tend to investigate employee behaviours in sales settings and more professional type services or non-routine services.

Thus, the overall objective of this dissertation is to identify the drivers of PSBs from an employee perspective. These types of employee service behaviours are important to study because of the importance of achieving positive evaluations of all service

encounters by customers. How service encounters are evaluated by customers influence their perceptions of service quality, satisfaction and loyalty towards the organisation. All of the aforementioned soft performance measures are important to the achievement of key organisational goals, including superior performance and long-term survival. In the first chapter, the research question was posed: What are the antecedents of PSBs in a travel service organisation? This question will be addressed through the development of a conceptual model with testable hypotheses. Attention now turns the development of these in the next chapter.

3.6 Conclusion

The research context of this dissertation was presented in this chapter. After justifying the choice of research context, the UK travel service industry was described. The UK ferry industry was discussed next as the sponsoring organisation operates in this competitive industry. The last section of this chapter summarised the research gaps that were identified in the second and third chapters.

Having developed a conceptual framework based on existing literature and theory, the literature on the constructs identified in this model needs to be reviewed and hypotheses developed to arrive at a testable model. This is done in the next chapter.

4. LITERATURE REVIEW AND MODEL DEVELOPMENT

4.1 Introduction

The overall purpose of this thesis is to investigate the factors that influence the performance of PSBs by FLEs. The aim of this chapter is to develop the conceptual framework of Figure 2.1 into a testable model. To accomplish this goal, this chapter is divided into two main sections. In the first section of this chapter, the literature on the constructs of the conceptual framework of Figure 2.1 is reviewed. The testable hypotheses are then developed in the second section. The hypotheses are summarised into a hypothesised model, refer to Figure 4.1 at the end of this chapter.

4.2 Literature review

As previously discussed, the main objective of this thesis is to identify drivers of PSBs because of the importance of such behaviours to organisational performance. In the previous two chapters, several research gaps in the literature were identified, refer to section 3.5 for a summary of these. Based on the research gaps, two important underlying relationships were identified as being crucial to this thesis: job attitudes-employee behaviours and managerial strategies-job attitudes. The literature on employee behaviours was reviewed in the previous chapter. In this chapter, the remaining concepts will be discussed and the hypotheses developed. The literature on the two job attitudes is reviewed first.

Job attitudes

In the previous chapter, two affective job attitudes, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, were proposed to predict the performance of PSBs. The literatures on these two constructs will be reviewed in the first two part of this section. The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment is discussed next. Finally, the hypotheses linking the two job attitudes to PSBs will be developed. Attention now turns to organisational commitment.

Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment may be regarded as the relative strength of individual employees' involvement with, loyalty to and identification with organisations (Russ and McNeilly 1995; Williams and Anderson 1991). Organisational commitment thus symbolises a psychological attachment to the employing firm (Newton McClurg 1999).

Organisational commitment has been conceptualised and measured in different ways (Zeffane 1994). Organisational commitment has come to be viewed as a multi-dimensional construct with three components, whereas in the past it was seen as unidimensional (Allen and Meyer 1990; Clugston 2000; Koslowsky 1991; Meyer and Allen 1991; Meyer, Irving and Allen 1998).

The three-component model, developed in the late 1980s, describes affective, continuance and normative commitment (Allen and Meyer 1990). The *affective* component refers to individual employee's emotional attachment to, association with, and involvement in an organisation. That part of commitment based on the costs associated with leaving a firm is referred to as *continuance* commitment. The *normative* element of commitment refers to employees' feelings of obligation to remain with the firm (Allen and Meyer 1990).

These three elements of organisational commitment are separate but interrelated (Allen and Meyer 1990). Representing a form of psychological attachment, individuals with a strong affective commitment seek to remain in the organisation. Employees who need to remain, for example, for financial reasons, have a strong continuance commitment. The cost of leaving the firm is assessed and compared to available alternatives. When employees have a strong normative commitment, they feel they obliged to stay. Individuals may experience the different psychological states to varying degrees, and accordingly feel committed to an organisation or desire to leave (Allen and Meyer 1990; Clugston 2000; Coleman, Irving and Cooper 1999; O'Neill and Mone 1998). Affective commitment has been studied most often in the literature and is most consistent with the conceptual domain of organisational commitment (Harrison, Newman and Roth 2006; Williams and Anderson 1991; Zeffane 1994).

Organisational commitment is a topic of interest to both academics and practitioners because of the important outcomes it engenders, such as increased job performance (Benkhoff 1997; Cohen 1992; Eby, Freeman, Rush, Rush and Lance 1999).

Employees who are committed to their organisation show better productivity and higher performance and have lower levels of tardiness and absenteeism than those who are not committed (Cohen 1992). Also, commitment has an impact on employee turnover intention (Koslowsky 1991). Turnover intention is the behavioural consequence of employees experiencing low levels of job satisfaction and/or organisational commitment (Koslowsky 1991). It is generally desirable that firms minimise the transformation of turnover intention to actual turnover rate because of the associated costs of recruiting and training new staff (Eby et al. 1999), which affect organisational efficiency and profitability negatively (Schlesinger and Heskett 1991). Turnover intention may also be costly in terms of lowered levels of productivity because of decreased organisational commitment (Koslowsky 1991). Thus, with its overall positive effect on organisations, organisational commitment is important to understand and foster in all level of employees.

It is very clear from the literature that numerous antecedents contribute to the formation of organisational commitment (for instance, Coleman, Irving and Cooper 1999; O'Neill and Mone 1998; Russ and McNeilly 1995; Tansky, Gallagher and Wetzel 1997; Wahn 1998). The work attitudes of employees do not form in a vacuum (O'Neill and Mone 1998), but rather have antecedents that are broadly divided into organisational/situational and demographic/personal characteristics. Regarding organisational commitment, organisational/situational characteristics are seen as the more important antecedents (Meyer, Irving and Allen 1998).

In general, the literature indicates that certain organisational characteristics foster the development of commitment in employees (among others, Eby et al. 1999; Kinicki,

Carson and Bohlander 1992; Tansky, Gallagher and Wetzel 1997; Zeffane 1994).

Organisational support has been found to be positively related to affective commitment as well as job satisfaction, job performance, customer oriented selling style and OCBs, and as negatively correlated with turnover intentions (Boles, Babin, Brashear and Brooks 2001; Lok and Crawford 1999; Newton McClurg 1999; Randall et al. 1999). Other researchers have found a positive correlation between the commitment to and investment in human resource programmes and the formation of organisational commitment (Kinicki, Carson and Bohlander 1992).

A number of situational characteristics precede and affect the formation of organisational commitment in employees. Employees' work status, that is part or full time, may also affect the level of organisational commitment employee's experience (Tansky, Gallagher and Wetzel 1997). The numbers of part-time workers are increasing in most industrialised nations. In general, involuntary part-time employees experience lower levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment compared to voluntary part-time employees (Tansky, Gallagher and Wetzel 1997).

Furthermore, part-time workers' perception of how equitably they are treated relative to full-time staff affects their levels of organisational commitment (O'Neill and Mone 1998). According to equity theory, an individual's equity sensitivity affects the formation of work attitudes in social exchange situations (O'Neill and Mone 1998). Equity sensitivity refers to an individual's response to over and under-reward situations. Equity sensitive people attempt to balance their ratio of inputs and outputs, as opposed to extremists who either desire rewards that exceed their inputs or give more than their rewards indicate (O'Neill and Mone 1998). A study by

Tansky and his colleagues (1997) has shown that the relative equity overall is particularly important to part-time workers. This finding implies that management desiring the same levels of commitment across all categories of staff should treat all members of staff equitably. Equitable treatment affects intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction positively, and such satisfaction is an important predictor of organisational commitment (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998; Tansky, Gallagher and Wetzel 1997).

In addition to organisational/situational factors, there are a number of demographic and personal characteristics that affect organisational commitment to varying degrees. Organisational commitment has been found to increase with age (Lok and Crawford 1999; Newton McClurg 1999). The age-organisational commitment link suggests a reflection of a perceived investment in an organisation that the individual is reluctant to lose (Lok and Crawford 1999). This finding provides some support for the so-called *side bet theory*. Side bet theory refers to important investments in, for instance, money, time and effort or other sunk costs (Wallace 1997), which would be lost if the individual were to leave the firm (Lok and Crawford 1999; Wallace 1997).

Few gender differences are statistically significant with regard to organisational commitment, despite some claims in the literature that men and women differ in this respect (Russ and McNeilly 1995; Wahn 1998; Wallace 1997). However, there are exceptions (Wahn 1998; Wallace 1997). Two recent studies found that women have higher continuance commitment than do men (Wahn 1998; Wallace 1997). This discrepancy between the genders may be attributed to women's feelings of necessity to remain in the organisation (Wahn 1998), particularly when dependents are

involved. Women with dependents experience increased continuance commitment levels, whereas men experience reduced levels (Wallace 1997). The level of education in employees may also affect their organisational commitment.

Some studies have found that non-professionals have a higher level of organisational commitment than professionals' do. This difference in commitment was attributed to a higher level of education and continuance commitment (Cohen 1992; Lok and Crawford 1999; Newton McClurg 1999; Tansky, Gallagher and Wetzel 1997). Cohen's (1992) study also established that people with more education find income and the level of autonomy given them by their firms to be more important for the formation of organisational commitment than do those with lower education. In addition, individuals with lower education are more affected by role ambiguity than more highly educated as regards the formation of organisational commitment. Role ambiguity tends to decrease the level of commitment, particularly in those employees with lesser degrees of education (Cohen 1992). There are other factors than role ambiguity that may be detrimental to the formation of organisational commitment, such as "office politics" and employees' perceptions of poor management.

"Office politics" was found in a recent study to be negatively related to job satisfaction, affective commitment and OCBs. Employees who cannot control or understand politics, which implies junior members of staff, are particularly negatively affected by it (Randall et al. 1999). Poor management, or more precisely, employee perceptions of poor management, also affect organisational commitment negatively. If employees feel that managers are not interested in their staff and their

welfare, the outcome is quite likely less motivated and productive employees as well as less commitment to the organisation (Kinicki, Carson and Bohlander 1992).

The individual characteristic of internal locus of control has also been linked to organisational commitment (Coleman, Irving and Cooper 1999; Lok and Crawford 1999). More specifically, individuals with an internal locus of control, classified as internals, are more likely to have higher organisational commitment than those with an external locus of control, referred to as externals. The reason for this is that internals feel that they have control over their work situation and therefore may be pre-disposed to affective commitment. This contrasts with externals who (feeling that they rely on fate, chance or luck for outcomes) may be pre-disposed to continuance commitment. Internals may also be better to recruit since they have been found to perform higher levels of OCBs (Coleman, Irving and Cooper 1999). Individuals who are satisfied with their level of control in their working environment, experience job satisfaction and organisational commitment and find being empowered important (Lok and Crawford 1999).

In addition, early experiences at work affect the formation of organisational commitment. A recent study established that individuals who had a positive work experience early on in their career were more likely to form a strong affective organisational commitment, but it may be moderated by work values, such as comfort, competence and status (Meyer, Irving and Allen 1998). Individuals who prioritise comfort at work and attribute their growth and development in the job to the organisation would form the strongest affective commitment. It can therefore be deduced that in order to foster a positive affective commitment in their employees,

organisations should ensure that they offer a positive experience and make sure that employees are aware of the organisation's efforts (Meyer, Irving and Allen 1998).

Not only early experiences at work affect the formation of organisational commitment, so does the amount of experience in a profession (Russ and McNeilly 1995). Russ and McNeilly (1995) study suggests that inexperienced sales employees need to be treated differently from experienced sales staff to uphold and increase their loyalty to the firm. Inexperienced employees are more prone to leave due to dissatisfaction with income and developmental opportunities, which affect organisational commitment negatively. Experienced employees, on the other hand, tend to value the work itself and working conditions more highly than income and promotions, perhaps because they already have attained their goals (Russ and McNeilly 1995). The same study also investigated the role of performance in organisational commitment. High performers tend to have a lower level of continuance commitment than low performers, and require promotional opportunities and more control over their working life to stay committed. Low performers may have a stronger continuance commitment because of their lack of other job opportunities (Russ and McNeilly 1995).

Thus, there are a number of antecedents of organisational commitment that need consideration by managers. It is important that managers understand the antecedents because of the impact of commitment on turnover intention (Koslowsky 1991). Turnover intention is the behavioural consequence of employees experiencing low levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Koslowsky 1991). It is generally desirable that firms minimise the transformation of turnover intention to

actual turnover rate because of the associated costs of recruiting and training new staff, which affect organisational efficiency and profitability levels negatively (Schlesinger and Heskett 1991). Turnover intention may also be costly in terms of lowered levels of productivity as a result of decreased organisational commitment (Koslowsky 1991). In addition, managers need to be aware of their employees' levels of organisational commitment because of the commitment's overall positive impact on lowering levels of tardiness and absenteeism as well as on organisational performance and productivity levels (Cohen 1992).

To summarise, organisational commitment is conceptualised as a three-component construct, which is made up of affective, continuance and normative commitment. In this study, affective commitment is included as a predictor variable of PSBs because of its consistency with the conceptual domain of commitment (refer to the conceptual definition above and in Appendix B.2) and its positive relationship with job performance and employee behaviours, such as OCBs (Meyer et al. 1989, 2002). Organisational commitment warrants managerial attention for a multitude of reasons, as discussed above.

Some of the more important include commitment's impact on firms' productivity levels and economic performance. Also, organisational commitment is a complex construct with many antecedents and outcomes. Some precursors of commitment fall into two relatively broad categories of organisational/situational and demographic/personal characteristics. Antecedents of PSBs that fall into the organisational/situational category are studied here, consistent with the research

gaps identified in chapter three. Having discussed organisational commitment, attention now turns to job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a well researched concept. For instance, by the late 1990s, over 5000 academic publications had been published on the topic of job satisfaction (Saura et al. 2005). A commonly used definition of what job satisfaction is offered by Locke (1976), who defined job satisfaction as “*a pleasurable or positive state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences*” (p. 1300, italics added). Job satisfaction may be seen as a subjective feeling reflecting the extent to which an individual feels his or her needs are being fulfilled. Individual employees within the same organisation experience job satisfaction to varying degrees. Individual response levels vary because of internal and external factors, such as needs, expectations and values (Locke 1976).

Job satisfaction is believed to be the difference between two major factors: 1) what an individual wants out of a job and 2) what is received from that job (Keller, Bouchard, Arvey, Segal and Dawis 1992). To restate for emphasis, job satisfaction is a positive emotional state, which results from employees' assessment of their job situation (Babin and Boles 1998; Brown and Peterson 1994; O'Neill and Mone 1998).

Numerous factors in the work environment affect job satisfaction either directly or indirectly. Some of the antecedents will be discussed in this section, and they will be broadly divided into the categories used in the organisational commitment section, that is, organisational/situational and demographic/personal characteristics.

Organisational/situational factors will be discussed first.

Person-organisation fit is important to job satisfaction. Individual workers who experience job satisfaction fit the organisation better, remain longer on the job and in the organisation. This in turn, affects organisational profitability positively since the cost of actual turnover is high (Netemeyer et al. 1997; Schlesinger and Heskett 1991). Research shows individuals working in a flatter organisation and autonomous work groups experience higher levels of job satisfaction than those working under more traditional and bureaucratic work structures (Cordery, Mueller and Smith 1991). This finding implies that work-design is important to both organisational performance and job satisfaction.

There are negative organisational factors that have a detrimental affect on the formation of job satisfaction. Role stressors, that is, role conflict, role ambiguity and role overload, generally undermine job satisfaction (Babin and Boles 1998; Singh 1998). Role conflict increases job tension, which affects job satisfaction negatively (Brown and Petersen 1994; Rogers, Clow, and Kash 1994). Role ambiguity indirectly affects job satisfaction negatively through the mediating effect of effort (Brown and Peterson 1994). Role stressors affect individuals differently depending on gender. Women are affected more by role conflict than men, because women tend to assume more family and domestic responsibilities (Babin and Boles 1998). Thus,

organisational/situational factors, such as person-organisation fit, organisational design and role stressors, affect the formation of job satisfaction in employees. However, there are additional demographic/personal variables that are as important, and these will be discussed next.

There is a significant relationship between age and job satisfaction (Clark, Oswald and Warr 1996; Hellman 1997). This relationship is not linear, it has been found to be U-shaped (Clark, Oswald and Warr 1996). Really young and older workers tend to be more satisfied at work. Young employees tend to think they are fortunate to have a job, and have fewer expectations because of their lack of work experience. Job satisfaction levels starts to decline with experience and reaches a minimum in the early thirties (Clark, Oswald and Warr 1996). This downward turn has been considered to derive from a desire to hold a position of more authority and other perceived attractive awards, such as higher income (Hellman 1997). Also, expectations of what a good job entails have formed because of more experience, and the comparison between the present job and a desired job may be negative (Büssing, Bissels, Fuchs and Perrar 1999; Clark, Oswald and Warr 1996; Hellman 1997). Dissatisfaction is the outcome, which leads in turn to turnover intent, and actual turnover may occur since there is less psychological investment in the organisation and greater mobility is likely (Clark, Oswald and Warr 1996; Hellman 1997).

More mature age groups, on the other hand, tend to experience higher levels of job satisfaction (Clark, Oswald and Warr 1996; Russ and McNeilly 1995). This may stem, singly or in combination, from reduced ambitions, fewer available positions for

established workers, more rewarding jobs being held and a change in priorities. An individual's level of education, health and tenure also affect job satisfaction. A negative relationship between level of education and job satisfaction has been established in the literature (Clark, Oswald and Warr 1996). In addition, a positive relationship exists between good health and tenure and job satisfaction (Clark, Oswald and Warr 1996; Hellman 1997).

Furthermore, gender also has an impact on the job satisfaction. A study by Russ and McNeilly (1995) found that women, generally speaking, are more committed to organisations than men are, even if they are dissatisfied with either the job itself or their co-workers. The gender difference in loyalty has been attributed to the fact that men find new jobs easier and more quickly than women do. There also tend to be more and better paid jobs available to men. In contrast, women experience a lack of available options and as a result, unhappy women are forced to remain in their current role out of economic necessity (Russ and McNeilly 1995).

In addition, individual personal characteristics or factors also affect the formation of job satisfaction. One personal factor is the level of effort an employee expends (Brown and Peterson 1994). The level of effort expended has a strong effect on job satisfaction, which is in keeping with theories of intrinsic motivation, meaning that people need to feel effective and competent at work. To satisfy such intrinsic needs, high degrees of involvement are necessary. Researchers have also suggested that managers need to recognise and reward effort, particularly in sales organisations,

because effort then impacts positively on both performance and job satisfaction (Brown and Peterson 1994).

Furthermore, both performance and experience have a moderating effect on the link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment. One study's findings indicate that long-tenured employees are satisfied with both the job itself and their co-workers (Russ and McNeilly 1995). It is also the case that proficient employees who experience job satisfaction have a higher performance level than new employees. High performance levels and positive job satisfaction increase organisational commitment, which in turn reduces turnover intentions (Clugston 2000; Russ and McNeilly 1995). Moreover, positive affect in employees is transferred to performance evaluations.

Motivational theories state that positive affect, a stable unchangeable trait (Dormann, Fay, Zapf and Frese 2006), can facilitate employee performance or achievement (Wright and Staw 1999). Individual employees benefit from displaying positive affect because this facilitates exertion and the acceptance of more difficult tasks, which increases self-efficacy and the outcomes of the individual's performance evaluations. Motivated employees also tend to perform OCBs to higher degrees. Essentially, motivation is associated with job satisfaction, and this increases an employee's efficacy and productivity (Allen and Rush 1998; Wright and Staw 1999). Personality traits, such as positive/negative affect, self-efficacy and locus of control, have been found in recent meta-analyses to contribute 30-35 percent of the variance in job satisfaction (Dormann, Fay, Zapf and Frese 2006; Dormann and Zapf 2001).

Employees' attitudes and behaviour thus contribute to desirable performance outcomes.

To conclude, job satisfaction is an attitudinal construct. Feelings of satisfaction vis-à-vis the job or the overall job experience are reflected at an individual level. Job satisfaction is affected indirectly, directly, or both by numerous factors.

Organisational/situational variables including person-organisation fit, organisational design and the amount of role stressors, are influential, as are number of demographic/personal factors, such as age, level of education, good health, tenure, gender, how much effort is spent at work, performance, experience and positive affect. In addition, job satisfaction has important implications for organisational performance and productivity levels. Both individuals and organisations benefit from job satisfaction, and this makes it imperative for managers to understand what the antecedents are.

Organisational commitment and job satisfaction have been discussed above in some detail. The hypotheses linking these positive job attitudes to PSBs can now be developed, which is done in the following section. Attention now turns to the literature on management strategies.

Managerial strategies

In this section, the literature on the indirect antecedents of PSBs will be reviewed. Based on the research gaps (refer to summary of these in section 3.5), the indirect

antecedents of PSBs are internal communication, professional development and empowerment. Attention first turns to internal communication.

Internal communication

For an organisation to reach its goals, effective communication is essential (Kitchen and Daly 2002; Ober 2003). Communication refers to the process of sending and receiving messages (Ober 2003). Messages can be sent in either a verbal or a non-verbal form and received by listening or reading. Non-verbal communication occurs through gestures, touch, facial expressions, eye contact and/or voice qualities (Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens 2002; Ober 2003). Communication is a two-way process, where information is exchanged and understanding, ideally, enhanced (Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens 2002).

Effective communication is a prerequisite for organisational survival and growth, particularly in today's knowledge intensive business climate (Kitchen and Daly 2002; Ober 2003). An organisation can be defined as a group of people who collaborate to achieve a shared goal. Communication is an essential part of that collaborative process to determine what that common goal is. Individuals in organisations interact with one another. Thoughts, needs and plans are examples of things individuals communicate to co-workers and superiors. Communication can be up, down and horizontal. Without communication, there is no means of sharing information, co-ordinating activities or make decisions (Ober 2003).

Communication can be of two types: external and internal (Oliver 2000; Roy and Roy 2002). Both types of communications are part of firms' management of knowledge (Roy and Roy 2002). Knowledge management is an important concept for firms to grasp and apply to its functions. Knowledge management is defined as the formal process of deciding what internally held information should be disseminated for the benefit of the firm (Roy and Roy 2002). This process also ensures that the identified information is made easily available to those who require it to do their jobs properly (Roy and Roy 2002) and ensure that employees understand their work context (Rafiq and Ahmed 1998a, b). Thus, knowledge management is an important process to the long-term success of firms, and encompasses two types of communication.

External communication has been studied extensively in the literature (Roy and Roy 2002) and especially within the marketing discipline. External communication plays, without a doubt, an important part in knowledge management. In this type of communication, information intended to raise awareness about the firm's goods/services and future direction and create goodwill towards the firm is released to its public (customer, partners, government and media). Information about its public, such as market trends, is also generated in knowledge management through external communication. Collectively, the gathering and dissemination of information play a crucial role in the marketing and customer relationship management activities. All relevant information put together assists managers to create the right message for selected target audiences (Roy and Roy 2002). Although external communication contributes substantially to organisational performance, internal communication cannot be neglected.

Not only external communication is important to knowledge management, but also internal communication (Roy and Roy 2002). As the name suggests, the information disseminated is for internal use only and with the organisation's employees as the specific target audience. The messages that are sent out tend to contain very specific information. Examples of such messages include the announcement of new policy and the implementation of a new corporate strategy. Internal training and professional development programmes are also important tools for disseminating information to employees (Roy and Roy 2002). Hence, internal communication is important to the effective functioning of organisations.

Despite the interest in internal communication in recent years, the construct is not really defined in the literature (Kitchen and Daly 2002). Terms such as employee-, organisational-, business- and corporate-communication are often used interchangeably with internal communication (Kitchen and Daly 2002).

Organisational communication, for instance, has been defined as the process by which information is exchanged and understood by others, generally with the intent to either influence or motivate behaviour. The crucial component of this definition is that internally directed communication goes beyond mere information transfer, a behavioural response by the recipient of the information is sought (Kelly 2000). Regardless of term used for internally directed communication, the gist of these different labels of the same phenomena is similar. As organisations become more focused on retaining a happy and effective workforce with changing values, attention must be paid to how they communicate with employees through what may be referred to as internal communication (Kitchen and Daly 2002; Roy and Roy 2002).

Internal communication is an important area for all organisations to master as it affects organisational performance (Oliver 2000; Roy and Roy 2002). Despite this recognition, only a minority of organisations appear to allocate a separate budget to internal communication (Oliver 2000). A UK survey found that the annual average expenditure per employee on internal communication was £290, which amounts to a sizeable sum of money in firms with many employees. Traditionally, the public relations department was responsible for both external and internal communications, particularly in multi-national organisations. However, in recent years it has become the responsibility of executive line management in many organisations (Oliver 2000).

As managers increasingly are responsible for the internal communication in firms, mastering the art of competent communication has become a key skill, not only for their own managerial success but also for the welfare of their organisation (Kelly 2000; Oliver 2000). Managers, especially middle management and supervisor, must also be willing to share information with junior colleagues to avoid communication breakdowns (Kelly 2000). Today, many organisations have become more employee-centred, which also applies to internal communication. Employees at all levels rely on effective communication to do their jobs properly. That is, internal communication has changed to become demand-driven information pull as opposed to the supply-driven information push of yester years (Oliver 2000).

Recent research on organisational health supports claims in literature that internal communication has an effect on organisational health (Kitchen and Daly 2002; Lyden and Klingele 2000). Lyden and Klingele (2000) identified a number of

symptoms of declining organisational health. One of these symptoms is the existence of barriers to open communication within the organisation (Lyden and Klingele 2000). Barriers to communication are important to identify so that they can be overcome and enable the communication to be effective (Kelly 2000). Other common symptoms include a lack of organisational commitment, training and development programmes and mentoring, declining profits, increasing absenteeism, decreasing productivity and centralised decision-making (Lyden and Klingele 2000).

To assess the prevalence of organisational health problems, Lyden and Klingele (2000) suggests surveying employees' perceptions on eleven interrelated dimensions to assess difficulties that are employee centred. These dimensions are 1) internal communication, 2) leadership, 3) employee morale, 4) loyalty and organisational commitment, 5) professional development opportunities, 6) employee participation and involvement, 7) resource utilisation, 8) ethics, 9) goal alignment, 10) organisational reputation and 11) recognition of employee contribution (Lyden and Klingele 2000).

Managers need to be effective communicators to be true leaders and successfully manage people (Johlke and Duhan 2000; Kitchen and Daly 2002; Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens 2002; Oliver 2000). Communication, whether direct or indirect, is part of all managerial activities and functions. Organisational policies and managerial decisions need to be conveyed in such a way that the employees who will implement these policies and decisions can understand them. If organisational policies and managerial decisions are not communicated clearly, the policies and decisions are likely to be ineffective (Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens 2002; Oliver 2000). Thus,

effective internal communication is a key success factor for both managerial and organisational success.

Over time, it has become increasingly challenging for managers to identify who should have what information due to flatter organisations with more or less formal structures and the many different categories of employees in modern firms, i.e. full and part-time, contract/project, and temporary (Kitchen and Daly 2002). Yet, the need for internal communication in modern stream lined organisations has never been greater. Employees need to have up-to date and accurate information to be effective in their jobs (Roy and Roy 2002).

Effective internal communication means that managers need to take into account what organisational members *must*, *should*, and *could know* (Kitchen and Daly 2002). Key job specific information belongs to the *must know* category. Desirable organisational information, such as changes to senior management, is *should know* information, while *could know* information is relatively unimportant information or office gossip (Kitchen and Daly 2002).

Organisations require different approaches to internal communication depending on, for instance, the type of business they are in, organisational culture, managerial style, financial resources, staff and stability/volatility of the business environment (Kitchen 1997; Kitchen and Daly 2002). For these reasons, it is generally felt that it is difficult to standardise internal communication (Oliver 2000). Oliver, on the other hand, disagrees. She argues that internal communication can be standardised the implementation of the national standard communication assessment framework. The

framework is in essentially audits the communication activities that aim to improve the overall communication efficiency (Oliver 2000). Thus, firms may require different approaches to internal communication, but there are tools available to ensure it is effective.

In summary, internal communication warrants managerial attention due to its effect on many outcome variables of importance to firms. The development of effective internal communication contributes to firm productivity levels by its influence on employee attitudes and behaviours, which, in turn, affect economic performance.

The internal communication literature has been reviewed above, and attention now turns to professional development.

Professional development

Human resource development is one part of the broad concept of employee management. Training, education and development are three interrelated concepts, which are important parts of human resource development (Muchinsky 1997).

Training and education are both forms of learning. Training programmes are tailored to impact on the learner's present job. Learners enrol in education with a future job in mind. Development, in contrast, has to do with individual growth but has no reference to the learner's present job (Muchinsky 1997). Training is a planned activity. The purpose of training is to increase the employees' job skills and knowledge. Another managerial aim of training, which may be covert, is to shape or

change employee attitudes and social behaviour so that these are consistent with organisational goals.

Learning, conversely, is an internal process of a fairly permanent change in behaviour, which stems from experience (Muchinsky 1997). Although being different concepts, training, learning and development are commonly used interchangeably in the literature. The term training tends to be used for a skill enhancement process for non-managers. Development is often used for managers undergoing the same process (Muchinsky 1997). Professional development and training will be discussed further below as those activities are interrelated and affect organisations and individuals alike. Prior to this, the change of employee attitudes from a managerial strategy perspective will be discussed.

As mentioned above, a common managerial aim of implementing training programmes is to change trainee attitudes (Cran 1994) and behaviours. Research into the effectiveness of training programmes tends to find them to be effective (Arthur, Bennett, Edens and Bell 2003). Contrary to the wishes of practitioners, the process of attitude change is often difficult to master. Research on training suggests that trainees who are motivated to learn new skills may wish to apply these given the opportunity to do so, both short and long-term. Employees' who are not motivated to change, may still apply newly learned skills and behaviours in the short-term but revert to old practices over time (Arthur et al. 2003; Cran 1994; Kelman 1958; Lam and Schaubroeck 2000).

One explanation for the lack of long-term success to attitude and behavioural change may be found in Kelman's (1958) three levels of attitude change: compliance, identification and internalisation. The first two levels of attitude change are relatively straightforward to accomplish in the short term via induction and training programmes. After the completion of a training course, employees tend to be highly motivated to show what (s)he has learned or merely give "lip service" by displaying the newly learned skills and behaviours. Appropriate supervisory practices and internal communication can also assist in the display of newly learned behaviour. To avoid the regression to old behaviours and practices, regular follow-up procedures are required (Cran 1994; Kelman 1958). However, to achieve long-term success the third level, internalisation, is critical.

Internalisation is the highest level of attitude change and is difficult to accomplish but is necessary to long-term success (Cran 1994; Kelman 1958). The adoption of a desired attitude depends largely on whether or not it is congruent with the individual's attitude and values systems (Cran 1994). With regard to service attitudes, individuals who are more successful than others at internalising such attitudes are said to be service oriented (Cran 1994; Hogan, Hogan and Busch 1984; Dale and Wooler 1991; Schneider and Schechter 1991). Service orientation in this context is a predisposition (Hogan, Hogan and Busch 1984). Thus, highly service oriented individuals who undergo services training are more likely to internalise learned attitudes.

As we just have seen in the preceding discussion, attitude change has been seen as leading to behavioural change in employees. Supporters of this line of thinking are

called attitude change theorists, however, not all scholars agree with the attitude-behaviour sequence (Wohlking 1970). Cognitive resonance theorists, for instance, suggests that induced behavioural changes may be more effective in changing attitude. Behavioural change is seen as the antecedent of attitude change in this school of thought. In order to avoid cognitive dissonance, attitudes are changed to agree with the behaviour displayed (Wohlking 1970). Based on this discussion, one can argue that what matters most is actual employee behaviour but that long-term behaviour depends on the adoption of an attitude that supports the behaviour in question.

With regard to the aim of creating desired changes in employee behaviour by firms, opinion leaders can be used as change agents. A recent study by Lam and Schaubroeck's (2000) sought to test whether opinion leaders could be used as change agent to produce changes to bank tellers' entrenched service delivery behaviours. They found that units who used FLEs, as change agents to improve service quality were more successful than other units were (Lam and Schaubroeck 2000). A caveat, using employees in such a role too often is not recommended as this can lead to an erosion of their influence over their peers over time. Moreover, managers need to be aware that using employees as change agents can work against the organisation as well as for it (Rogers 1985). Having discussed the relationship between attitude and behavioural change, the time has come to focus on staff development and training programmes in organisations.

Professional development and training has become increasingly important over time to both individual employees and organisations (Arthur et al. 2003; Koonce 1997,

1998). Developing one's professional skills in order to further one's career and/or avoid becoming obsolete in the work force has become crucial (Koonce 1997, 1998). An individual's career may be viewed from the individual and organisational perspectives. The decision to undertake professional development from an individual's perspective may be for reasons of personal growth and success, career advancement, because of the nature of the work, or a combination of motives (Koonce 1998; Mathieu, Tannenbaum and Salas 1992). Professional development from an organisational perspective has more to do with human resource management, resource allocation and maximising the use of resources (Muchinsky 1997).

Staff training and development programmes are used for a variety of reasons by firms. The development, of both individuals and organisations, is linked to organisational efficiency, productivity and competitiveness. Training and development programmes may also be used as tools to retain key staff members. Organisations, thus, need to train and develop their employees' skills as both activities are linked with the achievement of key organisational goals, including long-term survival and profitability (Arthur et al. 2003; Muchinsky 1997; Saks 1996). However, to ensure that employees participate in and are satisfied with their training programme(s), it is prudent to give employees a greater choice in programmes (Mathieu, Tannenbaum and Salas 1992). Thus, it is in the best interest of both individuals and organisations to participate in and to promote professional development activities. Training will be discussed in more detail from an organisational perspective next.

Training, in the context of this study, refers to raising the potential performance of an employee. Training is a process that is closely related to an organisation's recruitment and selection process of its employees. Training, by way of induction sessions, is also an important part in the socialisation process of new employees (Arthur et al. 2003; Saks 1996). Managers design and implement policies regarding training and development programmes for their organisations. When training programmes are seen as needed in an organisation, the next management decision is to either buy or recruit the necessary skill externally, or develop their staff's skills internally (Saks 1996). Several factors contribute to the effectiveness of training in an organisation. Examples of such factors include the management's skill and knowledge in developing and implementing personnel training, and the organisation's attitude towards training (Muchinsky 1997). Consequently, it can be said that it is a managerial responsibility to both develop a positive organisational attitude towards training and to regard training as a means to improve an organisation's effectiveness.

Moreover, since it has the potential to enable firms to attain key long-term organisational goals, including long-term survival and profitability, firms may benefit financially from investing in employee training programmes. One of the major reasons for training staff is to remove their performance deficiencies since that increases the overall productivity of the firm (Arthur et al 2003; Saks 1996). Training reduces costly mistakes, for instance by minimising waste and defective products. Training employees also reduces the need for managerial overseeing, which enables managers to spend time on more productive duties. Decreased costs and increased organisational efficiency and productivity are also important organisational outcomes

of successful training programmes. Decreased levels of turnover, absenteeism, accidents and grievances are also commonly seen positive effect of employee training programmes (Kinicki, Carson and Bohlander 1992).

Additionally, training can also use to prepare employees for technological change, prohibits skills from becoming obsolete and makes the staff more adaptable and flexible. Another reason for investing in training programmes is that the levels of organisational commitment trainees experience may increase. Organisational commitment is important to foster if possible as it is linked to reduced levels of absenteeism, turnover intention and actual turnover, which, in turn, reduces costs and enhances productivity. Training also reduces the cost of efficiently serving customers by improving the flow of goods and services from the company to customers (Muchinsky 1997). Consequently, training benefits organisations by reducing costs and increasing productivity levels, which may enable firms to attain long-term organisational goals such as survival and profitability.

To conclude, training and professional development programmes are important activities for firms to engage as these may enrich the employment relationship and enhance the organisations' performance. The outcome of training and development for firms may be an organisation characterised by motivated employees. Motivated employees tend to perform their duties more effectively and efficiently while the organisation's productivity increases. Having and retaining appropriately skilled and knowledgeable members of staff can be seen as key success factors for organisations. For the individual, taking part in training and development programmes has become necessary to keep their skills up to date and to further their career. Thus,

organisations may increase the chances of attaining key organisational goals by investing in and implementing training and development programmes for their staff.

Empowerment

The empowerment of employees is a topic that has interested scholars and managers alike in recent years (Holden 1999; Koberg, Boss, Senjem and Goodman 1999; Lashley 1999; Wilkinson 1998). More substantial work on employee empowerment started to emerge in the literature in the 1980s and it became an extremely popular management tool in the 1990s (Forrester 2000), which some have referred to as the “empowerment era” (Hardy and Leiba-O’Sullivan 1998).

The word empowerment is derived from the verb to empower, which means to authorise or to give power to someone (Hennestad 1998). In a management context, various definitions of empowerment are used (Cunningham and Hyman 1999). Conger and Kanungo (1988), for instance, refer to empowerment as being a motivational construct. They define empowerment as “*process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy*” (Conger and Kanungo 1988, p. 474), thus using the concept in an enabling sense. Other researchers view empowerment as a tool of delegation (Forrester 1998; Hennestad 1998), which is more in line with meaning of the verb to empower. Regardless of definition, empowered employees are given the authority to make job related decisions (Ford and Fottler 1995; Hennestad 1998).

In a services context the idea of empowering FLEs has been seen by many as an essential managerial technique to increase service quality (Holden 1999; Lashley 1999; Lin 2002; Wilkinson 1998). Indeed, FLEs play an important role during service encounters as it is the customer's assessment of the quality of the customer-employee interaction that determines the customer's level of satisfaction with the service (Bitner, Booms and Tetreault 1990; Holden 1999; Lashley 1999; Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry 1985, 1988). Having FLEs who are able to respond to the needs and wants of customers is desirable from both a firm and customer perspective. Empowerment in a service context may, therefore, be defined as managers' giving employees the discretion to make decisions regarding day-to-day activities to do with meeting customer needs and wants (Bowen and Lawler 1992; Conger and Kanungo 1988; Hoffman and Bateson 1997). The empowerment of employees in general and FLEs in particular is often seen as a pre-requisite for delivering high service quality and customer satisfaction ratings (Bowen and Lawler 1992; Hartline and Ferrell 1996; Lashley 1999; Lin 2002), which is important to organisational performance in the long run. Thus, the empowerment of FLEs is associated with advantages to organisations (Rafiq and Ahmed 1998a, b). The virtues of empowerment will be discussed next, followed by the costs of empowerment to organisations.

The benefits associated with the empowerment of employees to organisations have been extensively discussed in the literature. Empowerment is associated with employee self-efficacy, that is, task specific self-confidence (Chebat and Kollias 2000; Conger and Kanungo 1988; Hartline and Ferrell 1996), which is valuable to both the individual employee and the organisation. Studies by Chebat and Kollias

(2000) as well as Hartline and Ferrell (1996) found that empowerment increases self-efficacy in employees. Self-efficacy is important to foster as it is positively associated with job satisfaction, employee performance and customer's service quality perceptions (Chebat and Kollias 2000; Hartline and Ferrell 1996).

The empowerment of FLEs in a service context is particularly important as research has shown that customers prefer to be served by empowered employees, especially if the service is customised (Sparks, Bradley, and Callan 1997). Empowered employees are able to respond faster to customer needs and wants during service delivery as well as starting service recovery faster (Bowen and Lawler 1992), which generally speaking affects customer perceptions of the service encounter positively. However, if the service has a low-cost or high volume focus, empowerment levels may not matter (Sparks, Bradley, and Callan 1997) or even be undesirable as service delivery may become slower and the quality inconsistent (Bowen and Lawler 1992). Another aspect of employee empowerment is the communication style. An accommodating communication style is essential to teach employees. Failure to do so will undermine the potential benefits of empowerment (Sparks, Bradley, and Callan 1997).

There are several other organisational benefits associated with work place empowerment. Research has shown that empowerment of subordinates is associated with increased managerial and organisational effectiveness, which stem from the power and control sharing between managers and subordinates (Conger and Kanungo 1988). Another benefit of empowerment is that it plays a key role in building effective work groups/teams (Bowen and Lawler 1992; Conger and Kanungo 1988). Empowerment is also a process that has been found to increase

employees' intrinsic task motivation (Conger and Kanungo 1988). Thus, it is important to empower employees because of the resulting increase in effectiveness that helps to attain organisational goals of long-term survival and profitability. Furthermore, management can create intrinsic motivation by taking action that affects the different dimensions of empowerment.

The dimensions of empowerment are shown in Table 4.1 below. The list of actions leads to the empowerment of employees on the aggregate level. First, an employee's job has *impact* if it makes a difference in accomplishing the purpose of the task. Second, if an employee can do a job skilfully while trying, it increases self-efficacy – *competence*. The third dimension is *meaningfulness*, which means a task is worthwhile to undertake if it provides a purpose. Finally, there is *choice* if an employee is allowed self-determination in performing task activities (Robbins, Waters-Marsh, Cacioppe and Millett 1994).

Although the empowerment of employees has its advantages and is favoured by many managers, at least in theory (Argyris 1998), it has to be recognised that there are also costs associated with it. To be an effective managerial intervention, empowerment requires an investment in, among other things, an effective training and development programme, which can be costly (Bowen and Lawler 1992; Forrester 2000) both in terms of time and money. There also is a positive correlation between labour intensive services, such as retail stores and banks, and the cost of such training programmes. Many service organisations have a high proportion of part-time staff and a fairly high turnover of staff, all of which adds to the cost of training and, consequently, the cost of labour. Organisations operating in labour

Table 4.1
Empowerment dimensions



Source: Robbins et al. (1994, p. 811)

intensive industries may also benefit from screening prospective candidates so that poor empowerment candidates are not hired. This practice will also increase the cost of recruitment (Bowen and Lawler 1992).

As mentioned above, research has shown that customers in general prefer to be served by empowered FLEs (Bowen and Lawler 1992; Sparks, Bradley, and Callan 1997), which means that FLEs play an important role during service encounters (Holden 1999; Lashley 1999). However, the benefit of differential treatment of customers that is an outcome of employee empowerment also may also give rise to a potential cost for the firm and cause customer dissatisfaction (Bowen and Lawler 1992). That is, customers who are waiting to be served may feel that the service is

unduly delayed because FLEs customise service delivery, which may mean inconsistencies in service delivery and customer perceptions of unfair treatment (Bowen and Lawler 1992). Thus, there are both advantages and disadvantages associated with empowerment.

Managers need to be aware of what the pros and cons of empowerment are and understand the needs and want of their customers and employees are so that they can make informed decisions about whom to empower and to what extent these individuals need to be empowered. Different groups of employees may require different degrees of empowerment (Ford and Fottler 1995), which is determined by the job description of a particular job. Furthermore, Bowen and Lawler (1992) advocate a contingency approach to empowerment in organisations. Essentially, there are alternative models of service delivery that range from mass production to virtually complete customisation.

The mass production model of service delivery, essentially industrialising service delivery, is appropriate when the goal is to offer a high volume, routine type services at a low cost (Batt and Moynihan 2002; Bowen and Lawler 1992). The speed of service delivery tends to be important as well in this business model. Skills requirements of employees are often low and the jobs are typically low involvement in nature. A more autocratic leadership style is common (Batt and Moynihan 2002; Bowen and Lawler 1992). When the goal is to offer a high quality service, then the service ought to be more customised to meet the needs and wants of customers. These types of services tend to be non-routine and more complex in nature, which generally require formally educated employees who have special skills. Such

services also often require a high level of trust between FLE and customer, which implies that long-term relationships are often formed or desired. To succeed, managers need to be willing and able to empower their staff and have a generally supportive leadership style (Batt and Moynihan 2002; Bowen and Lawler 1992).

It is fairly easy for senior managers to take the decision to empower its staff but to achieve empowerment is more challenging (Ford and Fottler 1995; Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens 2002). Indeed, Argyris (1998) claims very little real empowerment has taken place in organisations over the past thirty years. Research suggests that there are barriers to empowerment both on an organisational and individual level, which requires careful consideration, planning and persistence on behalf of senior management to overcome (Forrester 2000; Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens 2002).

To enable empowerment to succeed, senior managers are more than likely need to make internal changes to processes and systems, which individual employees may resist (Forrester 2000). Research into the successful implementation of empowerment highlights the importance of sharing information, the use of training and the creation of a supportive environment where the change is gradual to succeed (Ford and Fottler 1995; Forrester 2000; Kreitner, Kinicki and Buelens 2002).

Further, Robbins et al. (1994) state that empowerment may also be incongruent with the organisation's corporate culture. That is, if a control oriented culture exists, employees may fear retribution from managers for actions taken without consultation (Lashley 1999; Robbins et al. 1994). Such a psychological climate is hard to change (Forrester 2000; Robbins et al. 1994), but it is important to try to change it as

empowerment requires a trust oriented culture to succeed (Lashley 1999). This issue is closely related to leadership style. As discussed above, not all leadership styles are suited to the successful implementation of an empowerment programme.

The traditional command-and-control model of management is not conducive to the implementation of empowerment, but this tried and trusted management style remains favoured by many (Argyris 1998; Forrester 2000). The so called Theory X managers feel employees have to be closely supervised to perform well implies that fostering empowerment will be very challenging (Bowen and Lawler 1992). The easiest way out in such cases may be to change the management (Bowen and Lawler 1992; Robbins et al. 1994), which may not be possible due to legal reasons. Koberg et al. (1999), on the other hand, found that people working in groups under an approachable leader that encourage effectiveness feel empowered. Long tenured and high ranking employees also tend to feel empowered, which can be attributed to person-organisational fit (Koberg et al. 1999).

Also, even if managers are supportive of employee empowerment in principle and practice, individual employees may not wish to be empowered (Forrester 2000; Robbins et al. 1994). These individuals are likely to prefer a production-line approach over a service oriented approach to operations as it requires less of an involvement on their behalf (Bowen and Lawler 1992). Thus, there are barriers to empowerment within organisations that makes the empowerment a long-term commitment.

To summarise, it is important for firms to empower their employees since it increases the employees' intrinsic task motivation and allows FLEs to respond better to customer needs and wants during a service encounter, which enhances customer perceptions of the quality of service they receive and their level of satisfaction. Empowerment is also associated with a higher degree of organisational and managerial effectiveness that helps to attain key organisational goals, such as long-term survival and profitability. However, implementing empowerment in organisations is in practice often challenging.

4.3 Hypotheses development

Having reviewed the background literature in order to develop a conceptual framework as well as reviewed the literature on the construct within this framework, the development of hypotheses can now begin. Recall that job attitudes are proposed to mediate the relationships between managerial strategies and PSBs. Therefore, two sets of hypotheses needs to be developed to test the conceptual framework. The first set of hypotheses refers to the job attitude-PSBs linkage as well as the relationship between the two job attitudes. The second set of hypotheses deals with the impact of managerial strategies on job attitudes.

Hypothesised relationships between job attitudes and PSBs

In this section, the relationships between the job attitudes in the manager-employee interface and PSBs will be discussed.

To date, few studies have looked into job attitudes as antecedents of PSBs. Studies by George (1991), Bettencourt and Brown (1997) and, most recently, Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie (2005) are among the first to address this dearth in knowledge.

Bettencourt and Brown (1997) investigated job satisfaction as an antecedent of PSBs but found no support for this path. George (1991), on the other hand, did not investigate a job attitude per se but positive mood (as a state), which is seen as an indicator of job satisfaction. George (1991) found support for the positive mood-organisational spontaneity, a category of extra-role behaviours, relationship in her study. In their 2005 study, Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie proposed that organisational commitment and job satisfaction completely mediate the relationship between organisational justice and customer-oriented boundary-spanning behaviours. Complete mediation between these variables was not supported. More specifically, neither job attitude was found to influence service delivery behaviours in FLEs but did influence other types of employee behaviours.

As there is little research to date on the antecedents of PSBs, the argument for including organisational commitment and job satisfaction as job attitudes draws

mainly on the findings from related areas in the employee behaviour literature, such as OCBs, organisational spontaneity and POB. Job attitudes and fairness cognition are seen key antecedents of the OCBs, POB and organisational spontaneity literature (George and Jones 1997). Much of the OCBs research to date has investigated a sole job attitude, that is, either job satisfaction or organisational commitment. Many OCBs studies have chosen to model job satisfaction as a sole job attitude (including Moorman 1993; Netemeyer et al. 1997), which has led to conflicting evidence in the literature with regard to which, if any, job attitude is an antecedent of OCBs. Becker, Randall and Riegel (1995), Randall et al. (1999) and Schappe (1998) are examples of studies that have found support for organisational commitment as a predictor of OCBs. Williams and Anderson (1991), on the other hand, failed to find support for such a path.

Based on Bettencourt and Brown's (1997) recommendation to include organisational commitment as well as job satisfaction in future research on the topic of PSBs and based on Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie's (2005) study, it seems reasonable to do so in this study as well. Moreover, Meyer and his colleagues (2002) recommend that both positive job attitudes should be considered in empirical studies so that employee behaviour can be better understood and managed. Including the paths from organisational commitment to the PSBs, consequently, seems reasonable. It is intuitively appealing to postulate that employees who engage in positive behaviours directed at customers and colleagues would do so, in part, because they are committed to their employers.

Furthermore, the inclusion of these paths may also help avoid misspecification of the hypothesised model. As discussed above, the finding from the growing body of literature on employee behaviours also supports the inclusion of organisational commitment as well as job attitude in this dissertation.

Hypothesis 1: Organisational commitment is positively related to a) extra-role customer service, b) in-role customer service and c) cooperative behaviours.

Reciprocity norms suggest that employees who experience high levels of job satisfaction are more likely to engage in service-oriented behaviours than those who are dissatisfied with their jobs (Bettencourt and Brown 1997; Bettencourt, Gwinner and Meuter 2001; Netemeyer, Boles, McKee and McMurrian 1997). Hoffman and Ingram (1992) propose that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and customer oriented employee behaviours. Bettencourt and Brown (1997) investigated the job satisfaction-PSB path in their study. They found that job satisfaction had a small positive effect on PSBs. Based on this line of reasoning above, a positive relationship between job satisfaction and the PSBs is put forth.

Hypothesis 2: There is positive relationship between job satisfaction and a) extra-role customer service, b) in-role customer service and c) cooperative behaviours.

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment are both individual employee job attitudes concerning the job and has been found to be the outcome variables of a number of antecedents. The link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment is strong (George and Jones 1996; Harrison, Newman and Roth 2006; Koslowsky 1991; Lok and Crawford 1999). A number of studies has found that job satisfaction precede organisational commitment (for instance, Babin and Boles 1998; Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie 2005; Brown and Peterson 1994; George and Jones 1996; Netemeyer et al. 1997; Singh 1998). The literature on job satisfaction and organisational commitment provides ample support for the hypothesised positive link between these two constructs. It is, consequently, reasonable to hypothesise that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Hypothesis 3: There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The relationships between the job attitudes and the effect they have on PSBs has now been explored. The focus now shifts to managerial strategies and how these influence employee job attitudes.

Hypothesised relationships between managerial strategies and job attitudes

In this section, the hypotheses for the managerial strategies' effect on job attitudes will be developed. In other words, it is postulated that internal communication, professional development and empowerment are indirectly related to extra- and in-role customer service and cooperative behaviours through their effect on job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

As discussed in the previous chapter, internal communication plays a vital role to firms' knowledge management (Roy and Roy 2002). Internal communication goes beyond the transfer of information; a behavioural response to is also required (Kelly 2000). Also, employees require, and to some extent demand, an effective flow of information to perform work roles adequately (Oliver 2000). For this reason, internal communication is proposed to contribute positively the performance of PSBs by employees indirectly via the effect of internal communications on employee job attitudes.

Past research suggests that internal communication is important to organisations as it has a positive influence on job satisfaction on an individual level and organisational performance and productivity at the global level (Asif and Sargeant 2002; Clampitt and Downs 1993; Goris, Vaught and Pettit 2000; Roy and Roy 2002). Mueller and Lee's (2002) findings suggest that employee satisfaction with internal communication is linked to affective responses, such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Affective responses, in turn, are correlated with behaviour. This provides further support the proposed internal communication-job

satisfaction link, but also suggests that a relationship between internal communication and organisational commitment. Moreover, Lyden and Klengale's (2000) research suggest that internal communication is a predictor of organisational commitment, although little empirical support has been found to support this link. Thus, internal communication is posited to be an antecedent of organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4: Internal communication has a positive effect on a) organisational commitment and b) job satisfaction.

Few studies appear to have investigated the relationship between professional development and job attitudes. It is argued here that the constructs of professional development and organisational commitment and job satisfaction are interrelated. Any training, learning or self-development activities undertaken by an individual not only increases knowledge but may also increase self-efficacy and self-esteem. Some literature in the area of job attitudes links feelings of self-efficacy and self-esteem and knowledge to performance, which, as shown, is associated with job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Locke 1976; O'Neill and Mone 1998). One relatively recent study did conclude that it is essential to get induction programmes right as early as possible as future career development and job attitudes are positively affected (Saks 1996). Those employees who perceived induction programme as helpful and sufficient, found their anxiety levels were reduced and that positive job attitudes increased in general and organisational commitment in particular (Saks 1996).

Significantly, too, research has shown that if employees perceive managerial commitment to their employees is positive, employee attitudes, such as commitment and productivity levels, are positively affected. In this context, managerial commitment to providing training and development opportunities to their employees should lead to more positive employee behaviours and attitudes (Kinicki, Carson and Bohlander 1992). Accordingly, positive relationships between professional development and job attitudes are hypothesised.

Hypothesis 5: Professional development positively affects employees' levels of a) organisational commitment and b) job satisfaction.

Research suggests that empowered employees experience more positive job attitudes, display higher levels of self-efficacy and respond better to customer wants than employees that are not (Bowen and Lawler 1992; Koberg et al. 1999; Singh 2000). Empowering employees in the service sector is, therefore, particularly important because it gives staff greater task autonomy, control and flexibility when responding to customers' needs (Bowen and Lawler, 1992), which can enhance customer satisfaction. Although empowerment has long been discussed in the organisational strategy literature, empirical support for the benefits claimed has only recently emerged. For example, Chebat and Kollias (2000) and Hartline and Ferrell (1996) found that empowerment increases employee self-efficacy (task specific self-confidence). Interestingly, self-efficacy is also positively linked with job satisfaction as well as employee behaviour on one hand, and customer's perceptions of service quality, on the other (Chebat and Kollias 2000; Hartline and Ferrell 1996). While Singh (2000) reports a positive correlation between empowerment and employees'

affective states, Hartline and Ferrell (1996) report a negative relationship. Lytle and his colleagues (1998), on the other hand, reported a positive correlation between employee empowerment and service-oriented behaviours, but Hartline, Maxham and McKee (2000) found a non-significant correlation. Thus, the empirical evidence for the attitudinal and behavioural consequences of empowerment is mixed.

It is possible that the contradictory findings are due to differences in industry contexts of the research reported. Alternatively, it may be that the some of the impacts of empowerment on employee behaviour are mediated by job attitudes. Overall, it seems reasonable to expect that empowerment will lead to more positive employee job attitudes in a service context. Hence, it is suggested:

Hypothesis 6: Empowerment positively influences employee's level of a) organisational commitment and b) job satisfaction.

Thus, the testable hypotheses have been developed in the sections above and they are summarised in Table 4.2 and Figure 4.1 below.

Table 4.2
Summary of hypotheses

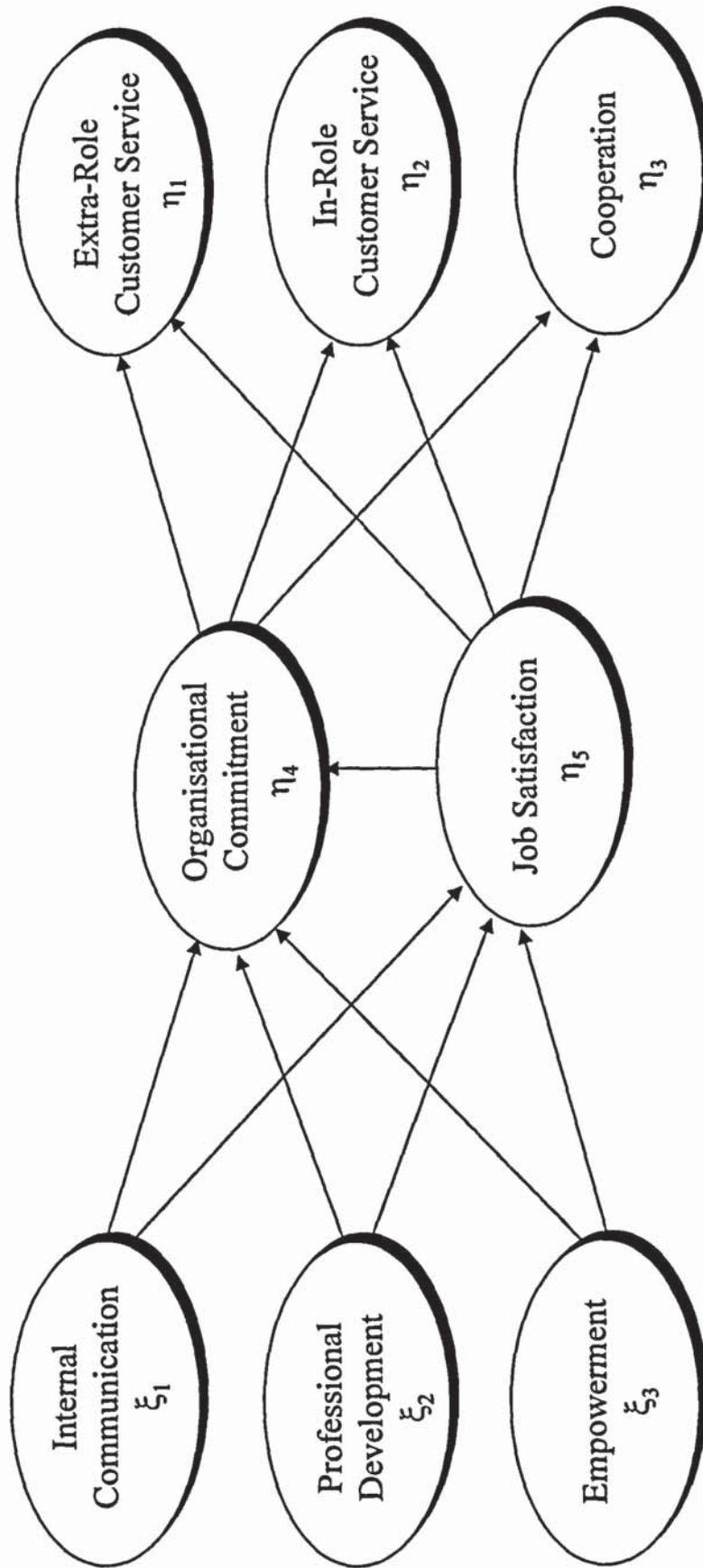
H1: The relationship between organisational commitment and a) extra-role customer service, b) in-role customer service and c) cooperative behaviours is positive.
H2: The relationship between job satisfaction and a) extra-role customer service, b) in-role customer service and c) cooperative behaviours is positive.
H3: The relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment is positive.
H4: Internal communication has a positive effect on a) organisational commitment and b) job satisfaction.
H5: Professional development positively affects employees' levels of a) organisational commitment and b) job satisfaction.
H6: Empowerment positively influences employee's level of a) organisational commitment and b) job satisfaction.

4.4 Conclusion

At the start of this chapter, the literature reviews of the constructs, i.e. organisational commitment, job satisfaction, internal communication, professional development and empowerment, in the conceptual model developed in the second chapter was presented. The testable hypotheses were then developed (see Table 4.2 above), which are summaries into a hypothesised model (refer to Figure 4.1 above).

In essence, the hypothesised model proposes that the relationships between managerial strategies and PSBs is completely mediated by job attitudes. To be more precise, internal communication, professional development and empowerment are

Figure 4.1
Hypothesised model



hypothesised to influence extra- and in-role customer service and cooperative behaviours indirectly via their effect on organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Thus, a model with testable hypotheses has been developed in this chapter.

Before the research hypotheses can be empirically tested, the research methodology needs to be designed. In this thesis, a multi-method research design was used. To be more precise, a sequential research design as in-depth interviews were conducted first and followed by a survey. The next chapter of this thesis contains the qualitative methodology, which is followed by the analysis of the in-depth interviews in the sixth chapter. Chapters seven and eight contain the quantitative methodology and analysis respectively.

5. QUALITATIVE METHOD

5.1 Introduction

In order to conduct any type of research, at least one research method has to be selected. Research methods are the tools we use to conduct research (Mingers 2001). Before the research methods used to address this dissertation's research problem can be discussed, a brief discussion of scientific research tradition(s) is warranted. As both qualitative and quantitative research methods are used in this dissertation, both methods are compared and contrasted in the second section. To be more precise, the in-depth interview and mail survey techniques were used in a sequential order, which is a type of sequential multi-method research design. The rationale for using a multi-method research design is offered next. Finally, in-depth interviews are discussed as this technique was deemed the most appropriate technique to validate the conceptual framework presented in the previous chapter. The findings of the in-depth interviews are presented in the next chapter. Attention now briefly turns to research philosophy.

5.2 Research philosophy

We all view the world we live in differently and what we believe in influence our thoughts and behaviour, which also applies to research. The researcher's belief system or chosen research paradigm has a profound influence on all research projects. If teams of researchers collaborate, there may be more than one paradigm

used in that project. Guba defines a paradigm as the “basic set of beliefs that guides action” (Guba 1990, p. 17, cited in Denzin and Lincoln 2000, p. 19).

Paradigms consist of three key elements: ontology, epistemology and methodology (Healy and Perry 2000). *Ontology* deals with the nature of the world - reality. *Epistemology* is about the relationship between the researcher and reality, how the world is understood. *Methodology* has to do with how knowledge is generated, that is the technique(s) used in the discovery of reality (Carson, Gilmore, Perry and Grønhaug 2001; Guba and Lincoln 1994). All paradigms have different assumptions with respect to these elements.

There are a number of established paradigms and many more emerging (Lincoln and Guba 2000). Examples of established paradigms include positivism, realism, constructivism, hermeneutics, grounded theory and critical theory. To simplify the world of research philosophy, positivism and interpretivism will be discussed here in terms of basic beliefs. These two research traditions can effectively be compared and contrasted as these paradigms represent philosophical extremes (Carson et al. 2001; Miles and Huberman 1994). Please note, interpretivism is used here as an umbrella term for qualitative research methods. Interpretivism is derived from the Greek verb *hermeneuin*, which means to interpret (Carson et al. 2001, p. 5). The term interpretivism is used here in favour of hermeneutics, which was typically used in the past.

In terms of ontology, positivists assume that reality is real and apprehensible. Positivist epistemology holds that researchers/observers are objective and value-free

(Carson et al. 2000; Lincoln and Guba 2000; Healy and Perry 2000). Objectivity is crucial (Guba and Lincoln 1994), although complete objectivity is not attainable in social sciences (Gummesson 2001; Healy and Perry 2000; Hogg and Vaughan 2005). The researcher observes the world/phenomenon under investigation in a detached manner, which allows for the collection of data that is devoid of the researcher's personal values and thoughts (Guba and Lincoln 1994). True knowledge can only be arrived at by non-critical acceptance of scientific method (Hogg and Vaughan 2005). With respect to methodology, quantitative methods are typically used. Quantitative techniques are used to test and validate theory and verify hypotheses (Healy and Perry 2000; Lincoln and Guba 2000). The data measure independent facts about a reality that is made up of discrete elements, whose nature can be known and categorised (Guba and Lincoln 1994).

Interpretivist ontology, in contrast, sees reality as being subjective and, therefore, multiple worlds exist (Carson et al. 2001; Healy and Perry 2000). With regard to epistemology, interpretivists use the available information to interpret what is going on from his/her perspective, which is inherently subjective (Carson et al. 2001; Healy and Perry 2000; Stiles 2003). Subjectivity is not seen as an impediment to good research by interpretivists. On the contrary, subjectivity in this context is viewed more as a virtue (Hogg and Vaughan 2005). The interpretivist methodology concentrates on understanding reality, which helps researchers build and develop theory. Qualitative techniques are used to achieve these goals. The in-depth analysis of peoples' more or less unstructured accounts of their own feelings, thoughts and behaviour is seen as using rich data in a manner that helps enhance our understanding of what is being studied. As opposed to objects or sets of variables as

positivists are accused of doing, especially by constructivists (Carson et al. 2001; Healy and Perry 2000; Hogg and Vaughan 2005).

Positivism is considered by many to be the dominant research paradigm in the social sciences (Schwandt 2000; Svensson 2001) in general, which includes marketing. However, it has to be acknowledged that there are exceptions to such generalisations. For instance, work outside the scope of traditional marketing has focused on theory building using interpretive paradigms. Examples include the network approach to B2B marketing as advocated by the IMP group and the Nordic School of Services and Relationship marketing (Gummesson 2001).

As seen in the previous chapters, the conceptual framework and hypotheses are derived from theory. Job attitudes and managerial strategies are proposed to explain PSBs. This explanation of PSBs indicates causal relationships among multiple variables, some which are inter-related. Two theory confirmation processes are used for this dissertation. In-depth interviews and structural equation modelling are used sequentially to explain the performance of PSBs by FLEs. (The methodologies and analyses of these two techniques are discussed in to chapters five to eight). Based on this, it can be deduced that the positivist paradigm is more appropriate than the interpretivist for this project. The interpretivist approach is consequently rejected. However, there is an alternative paradigm that is closely related to positivism that is better approach for this dissertation, namely, postpositivism.

The ontology and epistemology of postpositivism is similar to positivism (Denzin and Lincoln 2000). Healy and Perry 2000). Reality is both real and apprehensible in

positivism. In postpositivism, reality is seen as being imperfectly real, complex and probabilistically apprehensible. With respect to the epistemology, there is a degree of difference with regard to objectivity between positivism and postpositivism. While positivism assumes findings are true (objectivist), postpositivism assumes that findings are most probably true, that is, modified objectivist (Denzin and Lincoln 2000). In terms of methodology, postpositivism allows the use of qualitative techniques to a higher degree than positivism (Denzin and Lincoln 2000; Lincoln and Guba 2000). Thus, it is appropriate to espouse a postpositivistic approach for this dissertation.

As discussed above, this thesis uses qualitative and quantitative techniques in a sequential order to answer the research problem. This can be referred to as using a pluralistic research method, which is justified next.

5.3 Justification for adopting the pluralistic research method

Researchers have adopted the pluralistic research method because it gives them the advantages of both the qualitative and quantitative methods (Burns and Bush 2000; Mingers 2001). Exploratory qualitative research is commonly the foundation for subsequent quantitative research. Researchers gain first hand knowledge about the research problem during this initial stage, which invariably improves the quantitative phase. However, there are occasions when the qualitative phase is employed after the quantitative phase to help researchers interpret and comprehend the findings from the first phase (Burns and Bush 2000; Hair, Bush Ortinau 2000; Mingers 2001). The

pluralistic approach is being used increasingly, especially when complex marketing decision situations are to be made (Burns and Bush 2000). In sum, a pluralistic research approach is a combination of qualitative and quantitative research that is particularly useful when the marketing research problem is complex. A form of pluralism is used in this dissertation, which is justified next.

To date, little research has been published on customer directed service behaviours in general and the effect of managerial strategies on such behaviours from an employee perspective in particular. It can be argued that according to popular belief, it is virtually axiomatic that managerial strategies influence employee attitudes and behaviours positively. Adopting a single company and sector approach allows the researcher to gain a deeper understanding of these issues, as opposed to a typical cross-sectional study.

A UK branch of the organisation taking part in this study operates, as discussed in the third chapter, in the travel service sector and can be classified as a routine type service. This setting and culture is different compared to previous research in the area. The research to date on customer directed service behaviours has primarily been conducted in more specialised services, which may be referred to as non-routine services. For instance, three studies have been conducted in US retail banks (Bettencourt and Brown 1997, 2003; Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie 2005) and one among US university librarians (Bettencourt, Gwinner and Meuter 2001). The differing cultural and organisational contexts in these studies relative this dissertation suggests that it is prudent to conduct in-depth interviews prior to larger scale survey research. It cannot be taken for granted that relationships between different

antecedents and employee behaviours are the same in all cultural contexts (Podsakoff et al. 2000).

Consequently, qualitative and quantitative research methods are not viewed as contradictory approaches, but as being complementary to one another. This can be referred to as using methodological pluralism (Mingers 2001). The results of research using the pluralistic approach are believed to be more valid (Brewer and Hunter 1989; Jick 1979) and reduce the effects of bias (Brewer and Hunter 1989), which is invariably introduced in social science research (Burns and Bush 2000; Zikmund 1997).

In this thesis, the aim of undertaking qualitative research is to seek general support for the validity of the theoretical model developed in the fourth chapter. The same said theoretical model includes hypotheses that can be empirically tested, provided support is found in the qualitative phase of research. Assuming general support for the theoretical model is found, the next stage is to test the model empirically, which is referred to as using a sequential multi-method research design. The methodology and design of the quantitative study are discussed in chapter seven. Attention now turns to in-depth interviews, as this technique was the selected for the initial confirmatory part of this study.

5.4 A comparison of quantitative and qualitative research methods

Researchers have a choice of using a qualitative or a quantitative research method, or both. The choice of method(s) and technique(s) and the order in which they are undertaken depends on the purpose of the research at hand. Qualitative research is essential when the existing body of knowledge in a particular area is limited (Bonoma 1985). Collecting exploratory qualitative data may help researchers crystallise or gain understanding of a problem or break down a vague research problem into sub-problems that are more precise, for instance into hypotheses (Churchill 1979; Zikmund 1997). Researchers acquire, so to speak, a 'feel' for the problem by conducting qualitative research, which is necessary before conducting a more analytical study (Aaker, Kumar, and Day 1995).

Quantitative research, on the other hand, is the most suitable method if the purpose of collecting data is very specific (Burns and Bush 2000), that is, if the research problem is well defined and stems from clear and defined sources. The data collection and formatting then follows orderly procedures (Burns and Bush 2000). Also, the data can be statistically analysed to obtain information to develop recommendations for a certain course of action (Malhotra and Birks 2003). Nevertheless, qualitative research is advantageous in that it helps researchers to determine the appropriate course of action, which may lead to conclusive research that quantifies or finds answers to questions. Thus, qualitative research is often conducted prior to quantitative research, which can be referred to as using a sequential multi-method research a design.

Although valuable, there are some limitations associated with the use of qualitative research methods. Qualitative research aims to give an in depth knowledge and understanding about a specific problem and is more subjective by nature than quantitative research. In most cases, little is known about a particular problem initially, meaning that researchers, generally speaking, start the research process by making assumptions based on anecdotal evidence or educated guesses (Churchill 1979; Zikmund 1997). Qualitative research is, therefore, a learning process, where researchers need to explore what is in the mind of their subjects. The thoughts, intentions, feelings, values, needs and behaviours of respondents are explored since these cannot be directly measured or observed in quantitative research (Aaker, Kumar, and Day 1995; Burns and Bush 2000). Data of qualitative nature are collected that reflect the mindset of selected respondents.

Exploratory qualitative research is widely used in services marketing and management research (Meuter 1999). Although the qualitative research methods have its shortcomings, as discussed above, it gives valuable insights into the problem being studied. For instance, exploratory qualitative research has been applied to research on: service quality (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry 1985); service relationships (Gwinner et al. 1998); and service orientation (Lytle, Hom and Mokwa 1998). However, little qualitative research has been published on the topic of employee behaviour.

Several qualitative techniques may be used to gain important insights into the problem of interest to the researcher (Aaker, Kumar, and Day 1995; Burns and Bush 2000; Malhotra and Birks 2003). There are two direct (or non-disguised techniques):

focus groups and in-depth interviews. The in-depth interview technique was used in the qualitative part of the study, and this technique will be discussed in more detail in section 5.6. The other category of qualitative techniques is indirect, or disguised, which include projective techniques; some of these are association, completion, construction and expressive (Malhotra and Birks 2003). Before selecting a particular technique, it is important as a researcher to know the limitations of the technique that is used.

In general, all techniques have limitations, making it vital for researchers to have an initial appreciation of when and how the techniques are to be used (Burns and Bush 2000; Zikmund 1997). This is particularly important since the more exploratory methods are costly by nature. Since the starting point, typically, is based on researchers' subjective views, bias is likely to be introduced. Also, the samples used in exploratory work are not representative, which limits the generalizability of results (Burns and Bush 2000; Zikmund 1997). An advantage of exploratory research is that conclusions may be based on small sample sizes (Zikmund 1997).

Qualitative research is a valuable tool for gaining insights into research problems but it cannot take the place of larger scale quantitative studies (Hair, Bush and Ortinau 2000). Quantitative research may be conducted after a qualitative study, which has given researchers valuable insights they need or wish to follow up. The aim of quantitative research is to quantify data by collecting data in a structured fashion from a large number research of cases that are representative of a population (Aaker, Kumar and Day 1995; Burns and Bush 2000; Hair, Bush and Ortinau 2000; Zikmund 1997).

Quantitative research can be classified as descriptive or explanatory (Aaker, Kumar and Day 1995; Hair, Bush and Ortinau 2000; Zikmund 1997). Descriptive research designs aim to describe the characteristics of a specific population, marketing variable or phenomenon (Aaker, Kumar and Day 1995; Burns and Bush 2000; Hair, Bush and Ortinau 2000; Zikmund 1997). *Who, what, when, where* and *why* types of question are asked to obtain the information required to clearly define, say, the marketing research problem at hand and to derive at conclusive answers to those questions (Aaker, Kumar and Day 1995; Burns and Bush 2000; Hair, Bush and Ortinau 2000; Zikmund 1997). The main methods to find the answers to the “*W...*” questions above can include collecting primary data by, for instance, conducting survey research or obtaining secondary data (Burns and Bush 2000; Hair, Bush Ortinau 2000).

There are two sub-categories of descriptive research: cross-sectional and longitudinal research. The difference between these is that cross-sectional studies collect data from a certain sample of a population at one point in time, while the specified sample is measured repeatedly in longitudinal studies (Burns and Bush 2000). Cross-sectional studies can be further classified as either single or multiple cross-sectional. One sample is drawn from the target population, which is measured once in a single cross-sectional study. Single cross-sectional studies are also referred to as sample survey when the sample is representative of the target population in question. In a multiple cross sectional study, several samples of respondents from the target population are sampled once (Burns and Bush 2000). There are also two types of longitudinal studies.

Longitudinal studies (referred to as panels) are very common in marketing research (Burns and Bush 2000). Panels consist of samples with respondents. The composition of a panel remains the same over time and the panel members are surveyed repeatedly. There are two types of panels: traditional and omnibus (Burns and Bush 2000). The same questions are asked on each panel when a traditional type is used while the questions vary from group to group in omnibus panels. Cross-sectional studies, thus, give researchers an idea of a sample's attitude towards a variable at one particular time. Longitudinal studies, on the other hand, give a clearer, deeper picture of the sample's attitude towards a variable over time (Burns and Bush 2000).

Quantitative data of descriptive nature can be classified further into survey data, as mentioned above, and observational and other data, such as situational data (Burns and Bush 2000). This study used a survey to collect the data. The justification for this decision and a general discussion on survey research is found in chapter seven. The second sub-category of descriptive data, that is observational and other data, will not be discussed here as it is outside the scope of this dissertation.

This discussion now turns to explanatory or causal research design. As with descriptive research, this is also a form of conclusive research. The main reason for conducting casual research is to determine cause-and-effect relationships between variables (Burns and Bush 2000; Zikmund 1997). Causal research is essential to undertake to understand which variable(s) are independent and dependent when a phenomenon is studied. When this is known, researchers and practitioners can

manipulate the independent variable(s) of interest to obtain a desired effect (Burns and Bush 2000).

To examine the interaction(s) between independent and dependent variable(s), researchers commonly use experiments (Burns and Bush 2000). Such experiments tend to make causal research complex, time consuming and expensive. Causal research designs are rarely used in marketing research for those reasons (Burns and Bush 2000). Thus, causal research designs are often set up as experiments in which the independent variable(s) is/are manipulated in order to study the effect on the dependent variable(s). Going into further detail on causal and experimental research designs is beyond the scope of this thesis.

Having discussed some of the qualitative and quantitative research methods, attention now turns to the combination of those methods referred to as the pluralistic research method (Burns and Bush 2000).

5.5 In-depth interviews

As stated previously, in-depth interviews were deemed the most appropriate technique to initially explore whether and how managerial strategies affect employee attitudes and customer directed employee behaviours, i.e. PSBs in this thesis. In-depth interviews have been found in the literature to be effective in eliciting respondent's attitudes, behaviours and reasons for behaviour, future intentions and feelings (Kerlinger 1986).

Researchers may conduct in-depth interviews in various ways ranging on a continuum from low to high in structure (Lievens and De Paepe 2004; Strauss 1987). The researcher tends to control the highly structured interview, which is based on an interview guide. In an interview guide, the sequence of questions is ordered and all respondents answer the questions in that predetermined order (Denzin and Lincoln 1994). Consequently, the respondent has no control over either the questioning or the topics, meaning there is little deviation from the interview schedule (Carruthers 1990). Although Lievens and De Paepe (2004) state that highly structured in-depth interviews have been found to be more reliable and valid than unstructured in-depth interviews, the highly structured interviews tend to be less well regarded as a qualitative method (Carruthers 1990). The unstructured interview, on the other hand, tends to be held in higher esteem as a qualitative research technique as a highly skilled, expert interviewer is required in order to obtain information that is meaningful (Carruthers 1990).

The semi-structured interview is an alternative to the structured and unstructured interviews (Carson et al. 2001). Although the semi-structured interview is similar to the structured interview in that all respondents are asked the same questions, the questions are open-ended in nature. Open-ended questions have the advantage of encouraging flexibility. Moreover, the ordering of questions is not rigid and follow-on questions may be used, which has the advantage of allowing the researcher to gain a thorough understand of the area under research while a degree of structure and control is maintained (Carson et al. 2001). Semi-structured interviews were used in this study for the reasons given above. Next, the planning of the in-depth interviews is discussed.

According to general practice, the interviews were planned in three ways (Carson et al. 2001). First, the overall objective of the interviews was established, that is, to explore the interrelationships of the conceptual model and ascertain that nothing of importance was omitted. The second stage of the planning process was to write an interview guide (refer to Appendix A), with open-ended questions on the general topics. Third, probes were added under each general topic to ensure that the research objectives were reached if the general discussion had not covered the areas of interest (Carson et al. 2001). Having developed the interview guide, the actual interviews could take place.

In this study, face-to-face in-depth interviews of employees of the sponsoring organisation were undertaken. As stated previously, the overall aim of these face-to-face in-depth interviews was to provide general support for theoretical model (refer to Figure 4.1) using the respondents' own level of language and vocabulary. More specifically, determine whether the management strategies of interest in this study (internal communication, professional development and empowerment) have an impact on job attitudes (job satisfaction and organisational commitment) and, ultimately, PSBs. The methodology for conducting the in-depth interviews is discussed next.

5.6 In-depth interview methodology

The methodology for conducting in-depth interviews is discussed in this section. A four-stage approach is taken: 1) sampling approach, 2) sample selection, 3) interview format and 4) data analysis.

First, the *sampling approach* for qualitative research differs from that of quantitative studies. In quantitative studies, it is a requirement that the sample is representative of the population as a whole. In qualitative research, however, the generalizability of results is not a pre-requisite and, thus, the sample does not need to be representative of the population. For this study, it was desired that the sample was as varied as possible to ensure that divergent experiences and attitudes were encountered. In this way, emerging patterns or themes can be searched for in the collected data (Lincoln and Guba 1985; Miles and Huberman 1994).

The researcher was given access to the participating organisation's staff. It was agreed that ten employees could be interviewed. Should this number of interviews not be sufficient for saturation (that is, no new information is emerging) to be achieved (Lincoln and Guba 1985), additional interviews could be discussed. Furthermore, it was agreed that the *selected sample* should consist of both gender, employees at different levels of the organisation with varied length of tenure and age and be from all functional departments with customer contact. The organisation then randomly assigned staff to be interviewed, subject to their consent to participate. The researcher was given a list of ten interview subjects and an interview schedule that would not interfere too much with subjects' duties. Nine of the ten interviews were

completed. The tenth interview subject could not attend due to his duties at work would not permit him to do so due to an emergency. However, it was felt that nine interviews were sufficient, as saturation had been achieved. Thus, interview subjects were recruited consistent with a so-called maximum variation approach.

An *interview format* was developed and adhered to. The purpose of the interviews was briefly explained to all interview subjects after introductions had been made. After the briefing, the interview subjects were then given an interview-respondent-version of the researcher's interview guide to look at. Then, the researcher asked the interview respondents for permission to tape the interview, which was granted by all subjects.

Following the interview guide (please refer to Appendix A for a copy), the same sequence of questions was followed. However, the aim of the interview guide was not to dictate the structure of the interview but to direct it. Additional questions were added and lines of questioning were explored during the interviews when interesting and related topics emerged. Prompts were given when necessary. The approximately length of each interview was thirty minutes.

Having conducted the interviews, the tapes were transcribed into text format. In addition to taping the interviews, detailed notes were taken. These notes would serve as aids to memory as well as a back up should technology fail. The notes were added to the transcripts when so required. Having transcribed the data into text format, the *data analysis* could commence.

As stated before, the overall aim of the qualitative research phase in this dissertation was to find general support for the theoretical model. To achieve this goal, the raw data needs to be put through an analytical process, which enables the researcher to develop meaning and generate tentative conclusions. The transcriptions of the interviews were repeatedly read to enable the researcher to identify recurring themes and ideas. These were then sorted into pre-selected categories, which were based on the questions in the interview guide. These themes and ideas were then summarised under each category and quotes were selected to provide support for the conceptual model or illustrate points made during the in-depth interviews by the respondents.

5.7 Conclusion

This chapter started by briefly discussing research philosophy. Next, the use of qualitative and quantitative research methods was discussed and a justification for using a pluralistic research method was offered. The research design for this thesis is a form of data triangulation where the conceptual model is evaluated by both qualitative and quantitative data. In essence, conducting qualitative research is seen as a good starting point of the research project and in combination with quantitative research, it strengthens the research. In addition, the in-depth interview technique has been discussed and the methodology used described.

The results of the qualitative analysis are the focus of the next chapter.

6. RESULTS OF THE QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of the in-depth interviews. The semi-structured interviews are used to explore the study's conceptual framework. That is, managerial strategies have a direct effect on employee job attitudes and an indirect affect on PSBs via the effect on job attitudes.

This chapter starts by describing the interview respondents' characteristics. The second section discusses the results of the qualitative analysis. The discussion of the findings is divided into sub-sections where the relevant themes and constructs are discussed and supported by relevant quotes. Attention now turns to the sample characteristics of the interview respondents.

6.2 Sample characteristics

This section contains a brief description of the sample characteristics of the in-depth interview respondents. The information is summarised in Table 6.1 below.

As discussed above, the researcher was given permission by the sponsoring organisation to interview ten employees. It was agreed that the selected respondents consist of employees who have customer contact and that half of the respondent

should work on-shore and half on-board. The sponsoring organisation selected employees on a random basis based on these criteria. In this organisation, most employees have some degree of customer contact, including managers.

For instance, the operations manager and dock supervisor both take part in the processes that relates to the checking-in and security screening of passenger luggage, which takes place prior to passenger embarkation. Upon debarkation, passengers also collect their luggage ashore. This means that neither of these work roles is entirely behind the line of visibility from the passenger perspective. Although these individuals are not full-time FLEs, they have daily customer contact when on duty. Respondent E5 has in his current work role limited customer contact. He interacts with passengers when he travels with the HSS. However, he has had several FLE jobs prior to taking on his current job in IT-support. Based on this, the researcher accepted the inclusion of this respondent.

Table 6.1
Sample characteristics of in-depth interview respondents

Respondent Identifier	Gender	Age Group	Tenure	Present position	Note
E1	Male	25-30	6	Cabin assistant	Fills in as a supervisor
E2	Male	30-35	15	Cabin assistant	Fills in as a supervisor
E3	Female	25-30	6	Cabin assistant	
E4	Female	25-30	6	Supervisor, onboard services	Internal promotion
E5	Male	40-45	23	IT-support	Internal promotion
E6	Female	40-45	15	Travel centre team leader	Internal promotion
E7	Male	45-50	25	Dock supervisor	Internal promotion
E8	Female	30-35	7	Travel centre assistant	
E9	Male	50-55	32	Operations manager	Internal promotion

All interview respondents have permanent positions at present, but most started as casual employees. One of the nine interview respondents has a Bachelor degree (respondent number three) while two have the equivalent of 'O'-level (respondents seven and nine) and six 'A'-level qualifications. Attention now turns to the discussion of the findings of the qualitative analysis.

6.3 Discussion of qualitative results

In the previous chapter, the process of the data analysis was discussed. In this section, the findings from the analysis of the in-depth interviews are summarised into five sub-sections: the interview respondents' job experience in the organisation; interview respondents' job attitudes and factors that affect job attitudes; customers, customer orientation and service behaviours; leadership style and behaviour; and as a final step in the interview a general question was asked to conclude the interview as a form of debrief.

As it is well known that the analysis of qualitative data has a tendency to be a subjective process, care was taken to analyse the data as objectively as possible. After the data was transcribed, each interview was photocopied onto different colour paper. The interviews were then literally cut up into questions. All responses to a question were then analysed. This process was repeated until all questions had been answered. Attention now turns to the findings of the qualitative data analysis.

The interview respondents' job experience with the organisation

In order to find out more about the interview respondents and make them more at ease, the first part of the interviews elicited information about their job history with the organisation.

Tenure

Regarding the interview respondents' tenure, it ranges from six to thirty-two years. Four of the nine interviewed started working for the company on a casual basis around the time when the current vessel arrived in 1997 but all are now tenured. Three out of the four work on board the vessel and the fourth onshore. The remainder of the interviewed have a tenure ranging from 13 to 32 years (refer to Table 5.1 above).

Some of the interviewed have very long tenures, for instance E9 has worked 32 years in the organisation. When asked if he was the longest serving member of staff, interviewee E9 stated that:

You tend to find that there are a lot of employees that stay with the one company. It is not like down south, for instance, where employees change job quite frequently. You tend to find that if you took the profile of the staff that is here, a lot have been here a long, long time. And I am by no means anywhere near the longest. People have been here, one of the other corporations managers, right, has been here 34 years. One or two of the dock staff have been here 32 and 33 years.

(N.B. Many of the employees on the route (mainly men) have a long employment history with the organisation; it is common to have spent one's entire work life on the route. The ownership, however, has changed several times over the years.)

Current positions

The employees with the shortest tenures work in the same positions that they started in at the time of the interviews. The first four interviewed all work on the vessel as cabin assistants. Cabin assistants work in teams supervised by a senior team member. Job rotation is the norm, most have three areas they rotate between. E1 and E2 fill in as stewards from time to time.

The only employees in the organisation that do not work shift are office employees. All other employees (including supervisors and managers) work either on a four-days-on/four-days-off or on a week-on/week-off schedule. All shift workers also work a day shift followed by a night shifts all year round. A standard shift is 12 hours.

Other positions held in the past

The interviewees with the longer tenures have changed jobs over the years. Most of them have been in their present jobs for 10 years or more. They have generally had two or three jobs before they came into their present positions. These interview

respondents also have supervisory or managerial positions now, with the exception of E5. E5 has a specialist job.

Having explored the job history of the interview respondents, the next interview topic is the respondents' job attitudes.

Interview respondents' job attitudes and factors that affect job attitudes

Employee job attitudes and the factors, managerial strategies in particular, which have an impact on job attitudes represent one of the essential parts of the in-depth interviews. Interview respondents spoke at length about their levels of job satisfaction and organisational commitment and the factors that they perceive to have an effect on these.

The first question leading in to this topic area was asking the interview respondents how good they felt they were at their jobs.

How good do you think you are at your job?

All of the interviewed felt they were good to very good at their jobs. The employees with the highest customer contact all commented on that they enjoyed the interaction component (most of the time).

E1 and E4 have received service excellence awards. Both E1 and E4 said they felt they had good people skills and enjoyed the customer interaction. E4 felt that helping people gave her satisfaction.

E6 felt she was very suited to what she does and really enjoys her job. Especially in the past year or so since they have good news about the future (building a new port, which is taken as a sign of long-term commitment from the organisation to remain in town).

Ah, I think lately, especially, that a lot of us, most of us, have started to be more confident because we've had good news lately about the move and the new port is coming. I think from time to time when things, morale has been down a wee bit when we've not been sure about what's happening but lately it's been really good and morale has gone up a lot and I think that helps a lot with job satisfaction. You actually look forward to going to your work because you know things are positive again. And I think that contributes to the satisfaction in the job. Sometimes you're not really sure what's happening and it can rather awkward.

How satisfied are you with your job overall?

Generally speaking, all of the interview respondents were satisfied to very satisfied with their jobs at the time of the interviews. The exception was E5 who at the time of the interview was less satisfied than normal due to changes to the organisation that affects him negatively. (My note: IT services in the organisation will be centralised to the head-office overseas. E5's job will be phased out due to the planned technological change, all other aspects of service and running of operations are decentralised). Normally, he was very satisfied but currently only moderately so due to the changes, although he understands the reason for why the changes are made.

Factors that contribute to experienced job satisfaction/dissatisfaction

The interviews suggest that there are many factors that contribute to the job satisfaction, and often high levels of job satisfaction, the employees' experience. Most of the interviewed said that they enjoyed interacting with customers in general and several felt they were service and customer oriented by nature, which means they enjoy the service jobs that they have. Another factor that affects job satisfaction positively is the ability to provide good service to customers. The appropriate support systems are put in place that enables the FLEs to give good service and service recovery. The service recovery strategy implemented by the route director makes the employees feel empowered, which for the most part is perceived to be positive. Also, the service training that has been implemented has enabled many to get the confidence to dare to be empowered. Some also suggested that they often go out of their way to help satisfy customers now that they dare to take such initiatives, which is a cause of satisfaction to them.

Supportive supervisors/managers that trust and empower their staff is also a key contributor to job satisfaction according to the interview respondents. E6 expressed it in the following manner:

I like people that I work with. I feel quite happy with the management and it is just a good place to work... We have a new operations manager and onboard manager who entrusts us to get on with our own job, which, I think, is a good thing because it gives you confidence because if you feel they are confident in you then it gives you inner confidence in yourself. When you think of management that they don't trust you to get on with the job you actually starts thinking yourself that you're not particularly good at it and loose interest. I think it is important that they do show that trust, I mean, that is what's been happening so it increases you inner confidence.

Another important factor for job satisfaction is team support and good communication. E7 suggests that most important thing is team support and get a good working relationship going.

Well, you've got to be friendly. I suppose, what else could you say to that? I don't know. A friendly attitude and communicate, aye.

E8 thinks a cohesive and heterogeneous team at work is important to job satisfaction. Her team has been working together for five years and they know each other very well now. She also referred to the good personal chemistry in her team:

We work pretty much together and we are the same type of people, it has just worked out that way that we are similar people with similar interests, which helps. We just got on with each other from the very start. I've heard tales from the other shifts that they argue and we argue but it is for fun. I've heard stories from the other shifts where grudges have been held and you know they don't get on well with each other I don't know if I'd like to ... I probably would think differently about my job if it was that atmosphere on my shift, but it is not, so... it is fine.

The varied nature of the jobs people have in the organisation (i.e. job rotation and the multiple roles employees commonly play) was seen as a positive factor by several of the interviewed. The feeling that was generally expressed was it prevented boredom that is caused by monotony, which is perceived as being negative.

Although most of the points expressed were concerning factors affecting job satisfaction, some factors cause dissatisfaction at work as well. For instance,

although empowerment was seen as being positive in general it could lead to role stress. E2 and E3 both expressed that role overload could be an issue at times.

Job rotation and performing several tasks as part of the job was mainly a positive factor. The exception to this on board was the job that all have to do and most people dislike: cleaning toilets. E3 suggested this job is particularly disgusting in rough weather as vomit is a particularly big turnoff in her case.

Communication is an issue of importance that affect job satisfaction as well dissatisfaction. Several of the interviewed commented on how the break down in communication between departments at times affected their ability to perform their job adequately at times. E4 commented on the common break down in communication from shore to on board, especially when something has gone wrong. Oftentimes there is a lack of information from onshore to those onboard so they have no information to tell passengers, which is stressing and leads to irritation among both FLEs and passengers. E5 felt that information regarding the changes to the computer systems was not conveyed adequately by the Swedish head-office. The English IT staffs feels as if they have no idea what is going on, which makes him and his colleagues feel out of control and disempowered with regard to some aspects of their job and their future work roles.

One common factor that several of the interviewed felt was a source of some dissatisfaction is the shift pattern. However, the general feeling was that the time off compensated well for the inconvenience of shift work and the long hours.

One of the interviewed, E2, also felt that the lack of promotion was a source of dissatisfaction. He has worked without internal promotion for fifteen years.

Organisational commitment

As most of the interviewed felt they had a good person-organisation fit as well as job-person fit, it is not surprising that all but one expressed a high commitment to the organisation. With the exception of E3, all expressed high affective and continuance commitment to the organisation. E3 said that her continuance commitment was high, but she is looking to change jobs in the next couple of years. At the moment, her partner was locked into the area so the switching costs were too high to contemplate a move. E5, despite his relatively low level of job satisfaction said the following of his organisational commitment:

Well, I might be contradicting myself here but despite the feelings that I have just described to you I am still committed to the job and doing the job properly. I can never be the kind of person to just turn up for the sake of just turning up. I would say despite the problems, about 8/10 for the job and the organisation, hmm, a little lower. Say 7/10.

E8 feels very committed to the organisation, she said:

I would say would like to stay for the rest of my working life if they would have me. It would be all right with me, fine.

E9 is also very committed to the organisation as well as the job.

At the end of the day, you're the manager and the commitment has to be there. If, not that anyone is in management, you are shown to be ... negative it would be cracked down by management. The commitment is there, not only do you do your four days on, but you also are committed to come in to meeting and training courses and times of disruptions and major delays when they need you to assist. So the commitment is there to make sure the job gets done - even when the job can't be done by one person.

With regard to the continuance commitment, the other interview respondents expressed that because they have mortgages and their families in the area, they cannot move even if they would like to. However, their overall job satisfaction (including pay satisfaction) was important parts of their commitment to the organisation.

As discussed in chapter four, affective organisational commitment is included in the hypothesised model. Many of the interview respondents reported that they also experienced continuance commitment, which the above paragraph illustrates. As the correlation between affective and continuance commitment is low, and consequence of continuance commitment on desirable work behaviour was in a recently meta-analyses found to be near zero (Meyer et al. 2002), it seems appropriate to not amend the hypothesised model by including continuance commitment as well as affective commitment.

If you were free to move, would you look for a similar job elsewhere?

When questioned whether they would look for a similar job outside the organisation if they were free to move, there were mixed opinions that supports the high

continuance commitment. E1, E5, E6 and E8 would move into similar jobs. E3 would not as she would like to pursue her teaching career. However, E3 likes the interaction with people, which is essential in all service occupations. E7 would not like to move away from the region at all, but pursue a career as fireman (if he could reverse time). E2 would never want to work on a ship again, while E9 would not take the opportunity to move away from the region. He appreciated the high quality of life and is born and bred there.

Overall, the interview respondents suggested that they would like to continue working within the service sector. This suggests the interview respondents are in an industry that suits them despite the high levels of declared continuance commitment.

Having explored job attitudes, the next area of interest relates to customers, customer orientation and their customer directed service behaviours.

Customers, customer orientation and service behaviours

This second key area of the interviews aims to find out who interview respondents view as their customers, how customer oriented they feel they are and the organisation is and how they feel about their own customer directed service behaviours and what factors affect such behaviours.

Who do you think your customers are?

E5, E7, E8 and E9 all referred to internal as well as external customers. The remainder only considered external customers to be customers, despite probes regarding internal customers. Families, football fans, business travellers and freight customers were generally considered customers of the organisation. (NB. Although freight customers travel with the ships, this customer segment is handled by a separate freight organisation. The drivers have their own services and mess onboard the vessels.)

E5 clearly stated that although his work was had ninety percent to do with internal customers, the focus of the organisation was really on treating external customers well. Regarding customer service levels, E9 had the following to say:

I probably feel it is better external than internal. There is a great emphasis placed on pleasing external services, fare paying customers but the internal customers could get better. ...Communication ... Yes, everything seems to stem through communication [meaning that the internal communication could improve, he considers it to be the weakness of the organisation].

What do you think about customer service the organisation offers?

All interview respondents felt that the organisation provides really excellent customer care. The commitment is definitely there to provide excellent customer service. There is a real emphasis on service, which is supported and promoted heavily by the management team in general and the route director in particular. It is felt that he has made a huge difference.

The implementation of the service excellence awards (a monthly award where employees are nominated and the winner received an award and a mention in the newsletter), the service training, service recovery procedures, true empowerment and the good service procedures that are put in place are factors that the interviewed brought up.

E2 also felt that the HSS and its crew provide great customer service. E4 shared that sentiment and also felt the cleanliness of the ship made a good impression on customers. E1 said the Organisation has a good reputation for giving service that is prompt and efficient.

E5 said the following on the topic of what he thought about the customer service:

I can only really speak for this route. We are really proud of the way we try to satisfy our customers.

E6 felt that customer care has improved a lot over the past few years:

... I think that shown the competitors that we're serious and it's been worked on a lot. We are keen on customer service. Having been on the ship myself as a passenger and watched the crew, and I know myself how we deal with customers at the travel centre. I would say we're good. ... Since the HSS came, it is been a change. Obviously because of the craft it is obviously revolutionary because it is the biggest craft it's come a long, long way and it shows. It shows through the passengers and they state that. It is part of the business. We're really customer care orientated now.

E8 also agrees with her colleagues, but that one weakness – communication:

9 out of 10 times it is AI, but sometimes when things go badly it can slip (My note: by this is meant long delays or cancellations of the service due to technical reasons or bad weather). It is really only when something goes wrong that it is bad. Information is really needed to provide good customer service. The likes of me who is at the front line needs to have information to hand to the customers and a lot of the time we just don't get that information. ... Well, the main thing that happens, like last night for example, whether the HSS could sail out again due to bad weather. If the ship doesn't know, then we don't and have nothing to tell the customers. We found out about 8 minutes before the actual sailing time that she was actually going.

How do you rate your own ability to provide customer service? Why?

All interviewed felt their ability to provide customer service was good or very good.

E1 thought that the service levels varies a bit depending on how many passengers the HSS takes, i.e. a very busy crossing may have implications on the quality of service delivered but the service orientation is still there. For him and E6, the team effort is the most important factor in providing good service. His own customer orientation and helping behaviours have increased over time and now he enjoys responding to customer needs and providing efficient service. E2 also felt that in addition to displaying helping behaviours, being service and customer orientated having good managers and having the perception of organisational support was important to providing good customer service.

E3 stated much the same, with the addition that the service training the organisation provides its employees with had made a difference to her. The training has really made a difference and increased her self-confidence and ability to provide good

service. E6 also felt the customer care courses had been instrumental in her ability to provide good customer care and foster a service culture within the organisation. E5 felt for him, more training courses would improve his customer service efforts at this point in time.

E6 suggested that her team works well together has an effect on job satisfaction, which customers notice as well:

I think it is good that we, like work like we do in four different shifts and going by how my team work well we all work together I should think is very, very important 'cos I think the customers can see you're not happy in your job and own environment then that's gonna show through. I think it the team work is a very important thing and as I say, the customer can see that you're not happy with your work environment and come out with that long face and that you're not happy with things they're going to be confused. So I think it is important that the team like to work together and that does happen.

E8 also felt that her ability to provide customer service sometimes was negatively affected by a lack of information.

What does the organisation do to influence your ability to provide customer service?

The service training that the organisation has provided over the past few years is a very important factor to many of the interviewed. As has been noted above, attending these courses have increased their self-confidence and enabled them to dare to be empowered for service delivery. E3 and E6 especially felt that empowerment was a

key issue and that they are truly empowered and have the support from managers to do what it takes.

Do you think the organisation 'genuinely' puts the customers first?

All interview respondents felt that the customer oriented strategy the organisation has implemented via its CRM programme is genuine. (N.B., there are more customer compliments coming in now than complaints.)

What other things influence your customer service delivery?

No new topics emerged in this section of the interviews, but comments regarding the service climate, service and customer oriented employees, positive employee attitudes and empowerment for service delivery were key factors according to the interview respondents.

6.4 Conclusion

In summary, the aim of the in-depth interviews was to provide support for the conceptual model, which was developed in chapter three based on the literature review in chapter two. Overall, the results of the in-depth interviews provide support for the theory-driven conceptual model of chapter three. More specifically, the

findings of the qualitative analysis suggest that internal communication, professional development and empowerment have a positive effect on their positive job attitudes. Job attitudes, in turn, have an impact on their customer directed service behaviours. In addition, the findings also suggest that managerial strategies may have a direct effect on customer directed service behaviours as well as the indirect effect via job attitudes.

In the next chapter, the quantitative methodology and the analytical technique (i.e. SEM) used for this thesis is discussed.

7. QUANTITATIVE METHOD

7.1 Introduction

The research strategy, qualitative methodological approach and in-depth interview technique were discussed in the fourth chapter of this dissertation and the fifth chapter provided an analysis of the conducted in-depth interviews. This seventh chapter details the methodological approach that this research used to further examine the hypotheses derived from the extant literature.

This chapter is organised as follows. In the first section, the justification for using survey research is offered. The next two sections discuss measure development and the layout of the questionnaire respectively. In section four, the sampling methodology is outlined. The data collection is discussed in section five and ethical considerations in the sixth. An overview of the analytical technique, i.e. structural equation modelling (SEM), used in this dissertation is presented in the seventh section. In the final section, the justification of SEM as the analytical technique is given. Attention now turns to the justification of survey research.

7.2 Justification of survey research

This section will describe the survey technique, as postal surveys were used to collect the survey data for this study.

There are two basic ways to collect primary data: observation and communication (Churchill 1995). Employing observation as the means of collecting data is not appropriate in this study as attitudinal data is primarily sought after. Using a questionnaire as the mode of communication, on the other hand, is appropriate as the survey method can be used to obtain both attitudinal and demographic information from respondents. Surveys are versatile data collection instruments as questions regarding respondent behaviour, awareness, intentions, and lifestyle characteristics can be posed in addition to attitudinal and demographic information (Churchill 1995). The purpose of using the survey method is also to collect primary data from a large number of respondents (Churchill 1995; Hair, Bush and Ortinau 2000; Zikmund 1997), which this study aims to do.

Having determined the data collection method, the degree of structure and disguise needs to be determined before the method of administration can be selected. In this context, structure refers to how standardised the questionnaire will be (Churchill 1995). Data collection using the survey method is usually standardised, meaning a formal questionnaire is developed with the questions in a pre-arranged order (Burns and Bush 2000; Malhotra et al. 1996). Disguise refers to how clearly the purpose of the study is communicated to respondents. Surveys may be disguised or undisguised. A disguised survey does not reveal the true purpose of the study while the undisguised type of survey does (Churchill 1995).

There are some benefits associated with the use of standardised surveys (Malhotra et al. 1996). These include that they are easy to administer, code, analyse and interpret, all of which increases reliability. The reliability stems from the typical format of

direct standardised surveys that have fixed alternative answers that the respondents select from (Malhotra et al. 1996). A standardised and undisguised survey instrument is used in this study.

Although the survey method is associated with advantages, as illustrated above, there are some disadvantages. Disadvantages of the survey method include that respondents may be unwilling and/or unable to provide the information researchers' seek (Aaker, Kumar, and Day 1995; Burns and Bush 2000; Hair, Bush and Ortinau 2000; Malhotra et al. 1996). It may be impossible to get accurate answers about motivation, such as for making specific purchases, as consumers often are unaware of their motives. Respondents may be unwilling to respond to questions accurately because they perceive the issues being to be of as sensitive nature. Personal information, such as age and income, is often perceived by respondents as being sensitive (Aaker, Kumar, and Day 1995; Burns and Bush 2000; Hair, Bush and Ortinau 2000; Malhotra et al. 1996).

Respondents may also be unable or unwilling to answer questions due to poor wording of statements or questions (Churchill 1995). The technical term for refusal to answer questions is item non-response. Item non-response is undesirable as it can create problems during data analysis. Poor wording can also cause measurement error, which occurs when a question is not answered correctly whether knowingly or by misunderstanding (Churchill 1995). Structured questionnaires with fixed alternative answers may also reduce the validity of data due to the limited amount of probing that can be done relative qualitative research (Aaker, Kumar, and Day 1995; Burns and Bush 2000; Hair, Bush and Ortinau 2000; Malhotra et al. 1996).

Having determined the degree of structure and disguise in the questionnaire, the next step is to determine the method of administration (Churchill 1995). Telephone, mail and personal interviews are the traditionally most commonly used methods of survey administration (Churchill 1995; Hair, Bush and Ortinau 2000). Computer-assisted surveys (using the Internet) are increasingly being used (Hair, Bush and Ortinau 2000; Forrest 1999).

It is not always a straightforward decision to select a method for survey administration (Churchill 1995). Culture will to a large degree dictate which form of survey administration is used, which in turn also means that the advantages and disadvantages associated with these will vary (Churchill 1995) but it is beyond the scope of this thesis to discuss this issue in any detail. Self-administered surveys and the associated advantages and disadvantages will be described next. A justification for adopting this approach in the current study will also be offered below.

Pre-selected respondents are posted a survey package when the traditional mail survey approach is used (Aaker, Kumar, and Day 1995; Burns and Bush 2000; Churchill 1995; Malhotra et al. 1996). A survey pack generally includes a cover letter, the questionnaire and a return envelope. An incentive for respondents to reply may also be included (Aaker, Kumar, and Day 1995; Burns and Bush 2000; Malhotra et al. 1996). Respondents complete the surveys themselves when the postal survey is employed by researchers, hence the term self-administered (Churchill 1995). There are advantages and disadvantages associated with the self-administered mail survey. Self-administered surveys are advantageous to use because they offer the researcher a high control of the field force, high levels of perceived amount of respondent-

anonymity (meaning that perceived sensitive information may be obtained) and a low cost of collecting the data. Other advantages of the self-administered postal surveys include the ability to collect moderate levels of data, the diversity of questions that may be asked and that there is no introduction of interviewer bias (Hair, Bush and Ortinau 2000; Malhotra et al. 1996). The disadvantages of the postal survey include the low flexibility of data collection, low sample control, low response rates, low social desirability, and that it tends to be a slow data collection method (Hair, Bush and Ortinau 2000; Malhotra et al. 1996).

The postal survey was appropriate to use in this study for several reasons. The primary reason for choosing this technique was for the relative low cost of collecting data, compared with, for instance, personal interviews. Financial restrictions would make it difficult to collect the moderate amount of data needed from the participating organisation, as it is located some distance away from the researcher's locus of employment. The organisation also operates in geographically different locations and employees work in a four- shift pattern, which would also increase the cost of collecting data.

The next section discusses the measure development process of the study.

7.3 Measurement development

The conceptual definitions of the constructs in the proposed model in Figure 4.1 are presented in this section. Refer to Appendix B for a summary of the conceptual and operational definitions of the latent constructs in the model as well as the sources of these scales. The theoretical constructs in this model are established in the marketing, management and organisational psychology/behaviour literatures. The constructs were operationalised using pre-existing scales, which is consistent with common practice, and adapted when necessary to suit the research context. Before the concepts are explored, their measurement needs to be discussed.

The indicators for the constructs in the conceptual framework are measured on Likert scales. Likert scales are summated scales that consist of an item and an evaluative part (Kumar, Aaker and Day 2002) that are commonly used in organisational and services research. The item is a statement about a particular attitude in this case, but can also be about events or products in other contexts. The evaluative part consists of a list of response categories, which range from “Strongly Disagree” to “Strongly Agree” in this instance. It is appropriate to use the Likert scale for this study as it is assumed that the resulting scale is unidimensional (Kumar, Aaker and Day 2002). Regarding the optimum number of response alternatives, there is little consensus in the literature (Churchill 1995; Cox 1980).

Recent research suggests the reliability of measures increases when the number of scale points increases (Churchill 1995). Cox (1980) found proponents of two to twenty anchor points in the literature. However, his general recommendation is to

use seven plus or minus two response alternatives. Cox (1980) suggests that five to seven response options are appropriate in subject-centred research and up to nine when stimulus-centred scales are used. Based on the discussion above, a seven point Likert scale is used for study. The respondents are asked to circle the alternative that best captures their beliefs or attitudes towards each item. The statements were anchored with “1 = Strongly Disagree” and “7 = Strongly Agree”. Attention now turns to the constructs in the theoretical model.

PSB

The first three constructs in the hypothesised model are the PSB constructs, that is, extra-role customer service, in-role customer service and cooperation. Consistent with Bettencourt and Brown’s (1997) study, the three PSB constructs are modelled as separate constructs.

Extra-role customer service refers to the discretionary service behaviours that service employees perform (Bettencourt and Brown 1997). Discretionary behaviours go beyond formal role requirements and are valued by firms as they are positively associated with organisational effectiveness and performance (Netemeyer, Boles, McKee and McMurrian 1997; Organ 1988, 1997; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997). The scale for extra-role customer service was developed by Bettencourt and Brown (1997, p.41) and measures the extent to which employees go beyond the call of duty in serving customers.

In-role customer service is defined as the performance of expected service behaviours by employees in serving customers (Bettencourt and Brown 1997). In-role prescribed behaviours consists of regular duties and responsibilities that are required of employees and are generally outlined in job descriptions (Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie 2005; Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer 1996; Van Dyne and LePine 1998) but may also be communicated to employees in training material and performance evaluations (Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie 2005). The items in this scale aims to assess, firstly, whether employees know what their duties at work are and, secondly, the extent to which these tasks are fulfilled in the minds of the individual employee. The in-role customer service behaviour scale was developed by Bettencourt and Brown (1997, p. 42).

Cooperation refers to cooperative/helping behaviours that are directed towards the fellow coworkers in the organisation, but these types of behaviours have a strong flavour of service orientation (Bowen and Waldman 1999; Organ 1988). Examples of helping behaviours include assisting coworkers in avoiding or solving work related problems (MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998). The cooperation scale endeavours to reflect the extent to which team members engage in behaviours that are aimed to assist fellow coworkers with their work related problems (Bettencourt and Brown 1997, p. 42). Next, the two job attitudes are explored: first organisational commitment, then job satisfaction.

Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment is the first proposed direct antecedent of PSB.

Organisational commitment may be regarded as the relative strength of individual employees' involvement with, loyalty to and identification with organisations (Russ and McNeilly 1995; Williams and Anderson 1991), thus, symbolising a psychological attachment to the employing firm (Newton McClurg 1999).

Using Allen and Meyer's (1990) conceptualisation of organisational commitment, the construct is conceptualised as a multi-dimensional construct with three components: affective, continuance and normative commitment (Allen and Meyer 1990; Clugston 2000; Koslowsky 1991; Meyer, Irving and Allen 1998). In this thesis, it is the affective component of organisational commitment that is studied as this component is often linked in the literature to actual behaviour.

The affective component organisational commitment refers to individual employee's emotional attachment to, association with, and involvement in an organisation. The aim of the affective organisational commitment scale is to assess the individual's emotional attachment to their place of work and fellow employees as well as measuring the strength of the affective commitment and was developed by Allen and Meyer (1990), which is commonly used in the literature. Other sources include Babin and Boles (1998), Hartline and Ferrell (1996) and Netemeyer et al. (1997). Organisational commitment is commonly discussed in conjunction with job satisfaction, which is explored next.

Job satisfaction

Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as “*a pleasurable or positive state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences*” (p. 1300). The items in the job satisfaction scale intend to assess the global level of experienced job satisfaction and are derived from the publications by Babin and Boles (1998) and Singh, Verbeke and Rhoads (1996). Job satisfaction is also a commonly used construct in the literature. The independent variables in the conceptual model are explored next. Having explored the job attitudes, attention now turns to the managerial strategies in the conceptual model. Internal communication is explored first.

Internal communication

Employees may be more or less satisfied with different aspects of internal communication as it is viewed as a multi-dimensional construct (Clampitt and Downs 1993; Kitchen and Daly 2002). Internal communication refers to how the organisation communicates with its employees (Kitchen and Daly 2002). Data on three dimensions of internal communication are used in this thesis: organisational perspectives, organisational integration and media quality. Conduit and Mavondo (2001) and Mueller and Lee (2002) are the sources for the three scales that intent to capture internal communication.

The *organisational perspectives* dimension deals with general information about the company as a whole (Clampitt and Downs 1993). The scale includes items

concerning information about: changes in the organisation, overall goals and policies of the organisation and the financial performance and standing of the firm (Clampitt and Downs 1993).

By *organisational integration* is meant the extent to which individual employees receive information about their work environment (Clampitt and Downs 1993). The items tap into the degree of satisfaction with information about job requirements, personnel news and departmental plans.

Media quality is defined as the degree to which meetings are well organised, the amount of communication is adequate and written instructions are short and clear (Clampitt and Downs 1993), which the items in the media quality scale reflects. The second construct to explore is professional development.

Professional development

Professional development exists when employees are given learning and growth opportunities (Hart 1994). Growth may occur when a team member is given training opportunities and provided with provided with professional development opportunities. The measures of professional development have been designed to assess the degree to which individual employees feel they are able and encouraged to learn new skills, develop and grow as professionals as well as being given the opportunity to do so by their employer (Hart 1994). The source for this scale is Hart

(1994). The final managerial strategy in the hypothesised model is empowerment, which is described next.

Empowerment

Empowerment is a process that increases employees' intrinsic task motivation and can be defined as "*giving discretion to front-line personnel to meet the needs of customers creatively*" (Hoffman and Bateson 1997, p. 244). The empowerment scale aims to capture the degree to which employees feel they are empowered at work by their superiors, and the source of this scale is Hartline and Ferrel (1996).

Having discussed the conceptual and operational definitions of the constructs in the hypothesised model, attention now turns to the layout of the questionnaire.

7.4 Layout of the questionnaire

The questionnaire is divided into four sections. The first three sections contain the items used to measure the theoretical constructs contained in the hypothesised model. Section one aims to elicit the respondents' work attitudes and beliefs, i.e. job attitudes and PSBs. The second section intends to capture employee perceptions of managerial strategies at the organisational level, namely, empowerment, professional development and internal communication. Section three, on the other hand, asks for

information about individual characteristics. The final section elicited the respondents' demographic information.

Having generated the pool of items for the questionnaire and designed the layout, the next stage is to pre-test of the questionnaire. The overall aim of the pre-testing of the questionnaire in this case was to test the survey instrument as a whole. The more specific aims of the pre-test were to test the language used (wording, meaning and choice of words) as well as the length of the questionnaire. (As the researched is not a native English speaker, wording was, therefore, a particular concern.). The questionnaire was pre-tested with these aims in mind on fifteen employees in various types of position, but all were front-line employees.

The next section discusses the sampling methodology.

7.5 Sampling methodology

There are many decisions to make prior to data collection in order to avoid a flawed sampling process (Zikmund 1997). The first decision is to define the target population needs. The next stage is to determine the sampling frame followed by selecting the appropriate sampling technique for the study. Finally, the required sample size needs to be determined. These decisions will be briefly discussed below.

The first stage is to define the target population, which is a collection of objects, or elements, that have the information required by researchers from which deductions

are to be made (Malhotra et al. 1996). Service employees were required for this piece of research. The second stage is to determine the sampling frame. A sampling frame is defined as a list of members of a population that generates a random sample (Aaker, Kumar and Day 1995). The sampling frame in this study is identical to the target population, i.e. census sampling. This eliminates sampling frame error, that is, the difference between the target population and the sampling frame (Aaker, Kumar and Day 1995; Malhotra et al. 1996).

The third step is to select the appropriate sampling technique for the study. There are a number of decisions to be made when the appropriate sampling technique is to be selected, including whether to use probability or non-probability sampling (Malhotra et al. 1996). All sample designs fall into one or the other category (Burns and Bush 2000). If a *probability sampling* technique is used, all elements of a population have a known, non-zero probability of selection. In *non-probability sampling*, each member of a population has an unknown chance of being chosen. The basis for selection in non-probability sampling is convenience or personal judgement (Aaker, Kumar, and Day 1995; Zikmund 1997). Thus, sample designs fall into either the probability or non-probability sampling techniques. Probability sampling will be briefly explained below as a census of the organisation under study was conducted.

Researchers choose a suitable probability-sampling technique after considering the following variables: a defined population, sample selection, sample size, desired accuracy, cost constraints, the variation within the population, available resources, geographic location and the statistical analysis needed (Aaker, Kumar, and Day 1995; Zikmund 1997). The sampling efficiency, that is, the ratio of accuracy over

cost, is of interest to researchers. It is desirable to have a high level of sampling efficiency. This implies high cost, but there are feasible ways of increasing sampling efficiency. These include decreasing cost while maintaining accuracy, holding cost levels constant while increasing accuracy, increasing the accuracy rate faster than costs increase, or decreasing costs at faster pace than accuracy is decreased (Aaker, Kumar, and Day 1995). Plainly, different variables have to be considered to obtain a probability technique that will yield the desired sampling efficiency notwithstanding cost constraints.

The last issue of relevance to the research process to discuss is the sample size. Sample size refers to the number of elements to be included in the study. Several considerations make the determining the size of the sample a complex process, including such factors as the nature of research and analysis, number of variables, incidence and completion rates, similar research in the past and resource constraints (Malhotra et al. 1996). The unit of analysis is the individual (refer to section 2.3 for a further discussion on the unit of analysis in this thesis), as this is a multi-level study.

The organisation participating in this study employs approximately 550 people, which represent the population size of this study. This size was considered sufficient based on similar studies with respect to completion rates, number of variables and using SEM as the analytical technique (Hair et al. 1998). A minimum of 150 respondents is generally seen as sufficient to run the analysis using SEM, especially when using the ML estimation procedure (Hair et al. 1998). This is further discussed in section 7.8.

With the sample size determined, the sampling process can be executed. The next section discusses the actual process of collecting the data in this study.

7.6 Data collection

The data from the travel service organisation was collected in two waves using its internal mail-system to distribute the surveys to the units. The organisation provided the researcher with the number of employees per work unit. The dissemination process of the surveys is described in more detail below.

It was decided to use a mail-out, despite the generally lower response rate associated with this method compared to data collection in controlled environments (Malhotra et al. 1996; Zikmund 1997). Alternative collection methods, such as face-to-face interviews, telephone interviews, were considered but decided against owing to time and budget constraints (refer to the discussion in section 7.2 above).

Self-reports are used for this thesis. The data provided by the individual concerns attitudes, behaviours and demographic information (refer to the section 7.4 for additional information relating to the layout of the questionnaire). Self-, peer- and supervisor/manager-ratings of behaviours are also used in the bodies of literature on employee behaviours (Allen, Barnard, Rush and Russell 2000; Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie 2005; Moorman 1991; Organ and Konovsky 1989) and job performance (Borman 1997). However, all behaviours an individual employee

displays cannot be observed or known by others (Allen et al. 2000; Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie 2005).

Discretionary behaviours in general may not be noticed by others, i.e. co-workers, supervisors and/or managers (Allen et al. 2000; Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie 2005). Behaviours of a discretionary nature are generally more difficult to observe than prescribed behaviours (Allen et al. 2000; Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie 2005). Managers in particular cannot be omni present, which implies that they are likely to have a limited knowledge about the extent to which members of staff engage in PSBs in general and discretionary behaviours in particular (Allen et al. 2000; Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie 2005). Past research into this area often use self-reported data for these reasons (Bettencourt, Gwinner and Meuter 2001).

It has to be recognised that bias is introduced in research, which also applies to ratings of performance and behaviour. Scullen, Mount and Goff (2000) suggest that the least bias is associated with self-reports but other researchers disagree. Podsakoff and his colleagues (2000) state that although the problem has not been studied, it is possible that common method variance bias the observed relationships and employee behaviours when both behaviours and antecedents are rated by the same source. (The single/multiple-rater issue will be discussed further in section 10.4 in the final chapter of this thesis.) As this thesis is investigating employee perception of how managerial strategies influence their job attitudes and PSBs, it was felt that self-ratings were the most appropriate.

Survey packs (consisting of the questionnaire, a covering letter explaining the purpose of the study and a free post envelope addressed to the researcher) were bundled and labelled for distribution to each of the organisation's units. The boxes were then sent to the organisation's head office. The bundles of surveys were then distributed to the respective units via the organisation's internal mail system.

Employees were requested to return the questionnaire directly to the researcher in the provided pre-paid envelopes. Using pre-paid envelopes is one measure that can help to overcome the generally lower response rate associated with mail surveys, another such measure is pre-notification, which was also used.

Pre-notification was undertaken by the senior management of the organisation in another attempt designed to increase the participation in the study by the organisation's employees. Notices were posted in the weekly internal newsletters where the study was endorsed. The notices appeared in the newsletters that preceded the mail out of the first wave of surveys. In addition, the management team was informed about the up coming study. The management team were asked to inform their subordinates in the weekly meeting each work unit holds. The questionnaires were, as previously mentioned, mailed out by the head office.

A two-wave mail-shot was used (refer to section 8.2 for a brief discussion about and test for non-response bias). The first wave was closed out after four weeks. 103 surveys had been returned to the researcher at this time. Consistent with the first wave, the second wave of the survey was pre-notified using the internal newsletter and the management team was informed and asked to promote it to their teams. The second wave of the survey was also closed out after four weeks. A reminder about

the study was posted in the internal newsletter after two weeks. 85 surveys were returned in the second wave.

The total number of returned questionnaires was, consequently, 188. Missing data analysis and final response rate will be discussed in the next chapter in section 8.2. Briefly, as nine questionnaires were discarded due to missing data, the total number of usable completed questionnaires is 179, which represents an adequate response rate of 32.5%.

Next, ethical issues in the context of survey research will be discussed.

7.7 Ethical considerations

The procedure of collecting, analysing and generating information raises some ethical considerations with regard to respondents, sponsors of the research and the researcher (Malhotra et al. 1996). Societal norms dictate to a large degree what practices are considered ethical or unethical in different cultures (Hair, Bush and Ortinau 2000; Zikmund 1997). Societal norms are codes of behaviour regarding acceptable behaviour under certain circumstances that are embraced by members of society. Societal norms affect the general rights and obligations of both researchers and respondents (Zikmund 1997), which may differ quite substantially amongst different populations and countries (Burns and Bush 2000). There are a number of rights and responsibilities that researchers, sponsors of research and respondents need to be aware of and adhere to in market research.

Ethical issues may vary to some degree depending on the type of research. For example, different ethical issues occur depending on whether the respondent is willing and informed, such as when filling in a survey, or where unobtrusive observations are conducted (Zikmund 1997). This study relied on willing participants.

The main obligation of respondents is to be honest and answer questions truthfully (Malhotra et al. 1996; Zikmund 1997). The rights of respondents include the right to privacy and the right to be informed. The right to be informed includes honesty with respect to the true purpose of the research, achieved prior to the study or in debriefing immediately afterwards (Malhotra et al. 1996; Zikmund 1997). Generally, researchers abide by codes of ethics that are meant to protect the rights of respondents. The main issues include researchers' obligations to not misrepresent the purpose and statistical accuracy of the research, maintain objectivity and respect both clients' and subjects' privacy and anonymity (Malhotra et al. 1996; Zikmund 1997). Thus, there is an interaction between the rights and obligations between the parties in market research. Societal norms and codes of ethics guide what is considered appropriate practices.

With respect to this study, the questionnaire had no identifying information. This was to protect employees' anonymity and confidentiality. Further, only aggregated statistical results have been reported. The management of the organisation was also provided with aggregated statistical results to preserve the anonymity and confidentiality of the employees. This measure is also designed to protect the anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents.

Attention now turns to the SEM, which is the analytical technique used in this thesis. Following an overview of SEM, a justification of the selected analytical technique will be offered.

7.8 An overview of SEM

This section contains a seven-step approach, as outlined by Hair et al. (1998), that researchers may follow in using SEM.

Step 1: Developing a theory-based model

The first step is to develop a theory-based model (Hair et al. 1998). The theoretical justification provided supports the analyses and gives the strength and conviction to the researcher's assumption regarding the causal ordering of the variables studied. The theoretical model should include all key predictor variables to avoid a specification error, that is, the omission of predictor variables (Hair et al. 1998).

The researcher has three choices of modelling strategy: a confirmatory modelling, a competing modelling or a model development strategy. The *confirmatory modelling strategy* is the simplest as only a single model is statistically assessed for its fit to the observed data. However, the confirmatory modelling strategy does not consider alternative models and is not as rigorous as the competing models strategy. In contrast to the confirmatory modelling strategy, the *competing modelling strategy*

identifies one particular model that fits the data the best from a number of alternatives. The aim is to demonstrate that no other reasonable model fits the data better than the chosen model. The third strategy, *model development*, is theory driven. That is, it allows researchers to study alternative model formulations based on the underpinning theory and then to select the most appropriate (Hair et al. 1995). This thesis may be said to use a combination modelling strategy as it uses both the confirmatory and competing modelling strategies (refer to the analysis chapters).

Step 2: Constructing a path diagram

The second step of SEM involves drawing a path diagram of relationship between constructs (Hair et al. 1998). The path diagram is a graphical representation of dependence relationships between various elements of a model, which most people find easier to comprehend a path diagram than mathematical equations or verbal hypotheses (Bollen 1989; Diamantopoulos 1994). Path diagrams are also used to identify both observed and unobserved variables as well as error terms (Holmes-Smith 2000). A path diagram can be very useful in formulating the conceptual model, allowing errors to be detected more easily, such as reducing specification error or omitted links (Diamantopoulos 1994), and the relationships among the components are clearly specified (Hair et al. 1998).

A path diagram depicts multiple dependence structures between exogenous variables and endogenous constructs (Hair et al. 1998; Holmes-Smith 2000). Arrows or curves in path diagrams indicate the nature of relationships between constructs. Straight

arrows indicate a direct causal relationship between constructs, whereas curved lines show correlation. The term '*causal*' here is used in a qualified sense. The criteria for causal assertion include shared variation between two variables, the temporal antecedents of the cause versus the effect, the lack of alternative causal variables and the theoretical basis for the relationship (Garver and Mentzer 1999; Hair et al. 1998). The path diagrams for this thesis can be seen in chapters three and seven.

Step 3: Converting the path diagram into structural equations

The path diagram is converted into structural equations in the third step of SEM. The causal relationships in the conceptual model are written in (linear) equation form (Diamantopoulos 1994; Holmes Smith 2002). The structural equations consist of two parts: measurement and structural models.

The measurement model describes to what extent observed indicators (manifest variables) serve as a measurement tool for latent variables. That implies that a measurement model is helpful in evaluating construct validity (Garver and Mentzer 1999). The measurement model considers measurement error. A structural model, on the other hand, shows the dependence relationships that link the model constructs (Hair et al. 1998; Hu 1997). The measurement and structural models in conjunction provide a confirmatory assessment of construct validity and reliability (Anderson and Gerbing 1988; Bentler 1978). At this stage, the process cannot proceed if the measures do not have sufficient validity (Hair et al. 1998).

Step 4: Choosing the matrix type and estimating the proposed model

The fourth stage involves selecting the matrix type and estimating the proposed model. This stage is vital because decisions made here may affect the results. The appropriate input matrix type is chosen and then the proposed model is estimated (Fan and Wang 1998; Hair et al. 1998). The type of data and the outcomes of the appropriate diagnostic tests on the data determine whether a variance-co-variance or correlation matrix will be used. The co-variance and correlation matrices are very similar (Kelloway 1998). In the co-variance matrix, co-variance is measured in the off diagonal and has measures of variance in the main diagonal. The correlations matrix is a standardised co-variance matrix, which means the matrix has ones (1) in the main diagonal (Kelloway 1998). Moreover, there are different types of correlations or co-variances used.

Pearson's product-moment correlation is commonly used for calculating co-variances or correlations between manifest variables (Baumgartner and Homburg 1996). However, metric data is assumed, which some suggests makes it inappropriate for non-metric measures (Hair et al. 1998). The data for the survey were collected on 7-point Likert scales, meaning the data were treated as ordinal data (Bollen 1989; Zikmund 1997). Bollen (1989) argues that treating ordinal data as continuous increases the risk of correlated error variance, particularly if the initial factor loadings are large. Kelloway (1998), on the other hand, generally recommends that the co-variance matrix should be used, even for ordinal data. The correlation matrix removes important information from the data about the scale of measurement of the individual variables and may produce a model that does not fit a co-variance matrix.

Also, the hypothesis test in SEM assumes the use of co-variance matrix (Hair et al. 1998; Kelloway 1998). Based on Kelloway's (1998) recommendation, the co-variance matrix was used for the input matrix.

The issue of missing data also needs to be addressed (Hair et al. 1998). Four methods are commonly used to replace missing data: listwise deletion, pair wise deletion, missing value replacement (Nunnally and Bernstein 1994) and EM algorithm. All these methods are considered to be adequate methods, but no method can be judged to be the best (Hair et al. 1998). For instance, if the data set is poor the use of listwise deletion may eliminate too many cases. The drawback of pair wise deletion is that irregularities can be introduced that may cause problems later on in the estimation process (Hair et al. 1998). For this dissertation, missing values were imputed using the EM algorithm method (refer to section 8.2 for more information).

Sample size is also of interest. SEM is described as a large sample technique; although there are differences in opinion as to what a large sample is (Kelloway 1998). Some scholars recommend a minimum number of 200 cases (Kelloway 1998; Steenkamp and van Trijp 1991) while other sources state that 100 to 150 cases are sufficient (Hair et al. 1998). A minimum of 100 cases are commonly recommended when latent variables are incorporated in models but the parameter estimates may not be accurate in that those samples (Kelloway 1998). Using an appropriate sample size is important in SEM given that the estimation and interpretation of results greatly depend on it. Sample size requirements are influenced by four factors: model misspecifications, model size, departures from normality and estimation procedure.

First, model misspecification refers to the degree to which the model suffers from specification errors. All models suffer from such errors to varying degrees because it is impossible to include all predictor variables in a model (Hair et al. 1998; Kelloway 1998). In general, a latent construct should have a minimum of three indicators; otherwise, the model may be under-identified. Under-identified models may cause problems, such as a “Heywood” case. By a “Heywood” case is meant that estimated parameters become unstable, producing very large standard error estimates or negative error variances (Bentler and Chow 1987). Increasing the number of indicators per latent variable can reduce the problem of under-identification. It is less clear how many indicators are ideal, but five or more per latent construct is recommended (Baumgartner and Homburg 1996; Garver and Mentzer 1999). Dealing with model misspecification is difficult because the incidence can take many forms and it may be difficult to a priori quantify its extent (Fan and Wang 1998). Further, sample size requirements are increased if specification errors are of concern to the researcher.

Second, a complex model requires a large sample size. The number of cases must be at minimum larger than the number of correlations or co-variances in the data input matrix. Another way of expressing the sample size requirement is to look at ratio of respondents per estimated parameter. The minimum ratio is suggested to be three but five to ten is commonly regarded as more appropriate (Bentler and Chou 1987; Hair et al. 1998; Kelloway 1998). Third, if the data is not multivariate normal the ratio of respondents per estimated parameter increases to 15 to minimise the impact of sampling error (Hair et al. 1998).

Fourth, the most common estimation procedure is maximum likelihood estimation (ML). The fact that the ML method retains validity with fewer cases (Hair et al. 1998; Kelloway 1998) contributes to its popularity. 100 to 150 cases are considered sufficient, but more cases are generally an advantage (Hair et al. 1998). Thus, sample size requirement may vary depending on circumstances. A complex model or non-normal data increases the required sample size whereas the choice of estimation procedure (for example ML) may demand fewer cases.

Having specified the measurement and structural models, the most appropriate technique for model estimation should be selected (Hair et al. 1998). The aim of estimation is to minimise the difference between the sample co-variance matrix (S) and the implied co-variance matrix, $\hat{\sigma}$ (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw 2000; Holmes-Smith 2000). Ideally, the estimated co-variance matrix, which is generated by the model, should be as close to the inputted data as possible, i.e. the co-variance matrix. The function that measures how close $\hat{\sigma}$ is to S is known as the fitting function (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw 2000; Holmes-Smith 2000). There are a number of estimation procedures available to attain parameter estimation and test statistics.

Two-stage least squares (TSLS), instrumental variables (IV), ML, un-weighted least squares (ULS), diagonally weighted least squares (DWLS), generalised least squares (GLS), generally weighted least squares (WLS) are methods that may be used to estimate parameters (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw 2000). These estimation techniques can be divided into two categories: partial, also referred to as limited, and full information techniques. Every parameter (i.e. path values) equation is estimated

separately when partial information techniques, IV and TSLS, are used. Full information techniques, ULS, WLS, GLS, DWLS and ML, estimate all the parameters simultaneously. Partial information techniques are less sensitive to model misspecification but less statistically efficient relative full information techniques (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw 2000; Kelloway 1998). Some estimation techniques are used more frequently than others are.

ML the most commonly used technique, followed by GLS (Baumgartner and Homburg 1996; Diamantopoulos 1994; Hair et al. 1998; Kelloway 1998). It is recommended that results are to be reported using ML estimation (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw 2000). Should ML not be the most suitable estimation method, for instance if the assumptions of normality are not met, other estimation methods are available, i.e. OLS, WLS and GLS, it should be reported whether the results contradict or corroborate ML results (Diamantopoulos and Siguaw 2000; Hair et al. 1998; Kelloway 1998).

Thus, the fourth stage of SEM involves making a number of decisions that will affect the results achieved. An input matrix needs to be selected. The assumptions of SEM have to be evaluated, as does the adequacy of the sample size, and its impact on the outcomes, and finally a method for estimating the model needs to be selected. Based on the discussion above, the co-variance matrix was selected as the input matrix and the ML estimation method of model estimation was selected. Moreover, the sample size of 179 (refer to section 8.2) was considered to be adequate.

Step 5: Identification and assessment of the structural model

The fifth step of SEM involves identifying and assessing the structural model (Hair et al. 1998). When it comes down to model identification, it is an issue of whether sufficient information is provided by the empirical data to allow for a single solution of the system of equations containing the model parameters. It is a pre-requisite for model identification, known as the *t*-rule and order condition, that the number of unknown parameters to be estimated should not exceed the number of non-redundant elements in the co-variance matrix of the observed variables (Baumgartner and Homburg 1996; Diamantopoulos 1994; Hair et al. 1998; Holmes-Smith 2000). To identify a model, the degrees of freedom need to be established. In SEM, degrees of freedom refer to the difference between the number of co-variances or correlations and the number of coefficients in proposed models. Sample size has no effect on the degrees of freedom (unlike other multivariate techniques). The sampling error is estimated from the sample size in SEM (Hair et al. 1998).

In addition and as discussed above, a model may be just identified, under identified or over identified (Bentler and Chou 1987; Diamantopoloulos 1994; Hair et al. 1998). A just identified model has zero degrees of freedom while an over identified model is indicated by positive degrees of freedom and under identified negative degrees of freedom. By a just identified model is meant that all available information has been used to estimate the model so that none is left to test it. Results from just-identified models cannot be generalised. An over identified model generally has a positive outcome. The aim of SEM is to identify a model with a minimum acceptable fit and large number of degrees of freedom as a result then has the greatest ability to

generalise. An under identified model, on the other hand, cannot be estimated unless some parameters are constrained or fixed (Bentler and Chou 1987; Diamantopoloulos 1994; Hair et al. 1998). When a latent construct is measured by fewer than three indicators, the risk of having an under identified model is increased (Bentler and Chou 1987). Although the *t*-rule is an essential test, it is insufficient for model identification (Holmes-Smith 2000).

Further testing may be necessary to assess identification. Hair et al. (1998) discuss two heuristics, order and rank conditions. Order, also known as *t*-rule, conditions have been discussed above. Rank conditions must also be met for a model to be identified (Hair et al. 1998). Rank conditions require an algebraic solution to model identification. Rank conditions are seldom used because it is a very complicated method when models have many observed and latent variables. There are alternative heuristics, such as the 'three-measure rule'. This rule states that a multi-component congeneric measurement model will be identified if (1) there is a minimum of three indicators per latent construct, (2) if every item loads on to just one factor, and (3) if there are no co-variances between the measurement error terms (Hair et al. 1998; Holmes-Smith 2000). Refer to chapter eight for the data analysis, but please note that all the models in this thesis are over identified.

Empirical tests may be performed by structural equation software to diagnose identification problems (Hair et al. 1998). Simply put, an identification problem has occurred when the proposed model is unable to generate unique estimates. For instance, very big standard errors for minimum one coefficient, and/or that the programme cannot invert the information matrix, and/or that correlations that are

larger than |0.90| are symptoms of such problems. Common sources of identification problems include a small number of degrees of freedom and a failure to define a construct's measurement scale. The solution for identification problems is to exclude a few of the estimated coefficients, that is, adding constraint in a structured fashion until the problem is solved. An over identified model results (Hair et al. 1998). Thus, the fifth stage in the seven-step approach to SEM involves assessing the identification of the structural model. To summarise, the model's degrees of freedom need to be established to identify the model. SEM software may assist in determining and solving identification problems.

Step 6: Evaluating the model's goodness-of-fit

When the structural model has been identified, the sixth step is to evaluate the various model fit indices (Hair et al. 1998). Hair et al. (1998) outlines the evaluation of goodness-of-fit-criteria as a six-step process. *First*, results need to be examined for offending estimates, such as, negative error variances, standardised coefficients ≤ 1.0 , or large standard errors linked to any estimated coefficient (Hair et al. 1998).

Problems with regard to offending estimates need to be resolved, as discussed under model identification above. If problems persist after identification problems have been solved, other remedies are available. For instance in "Heywood" cases the error variance can be fixed to 0.005, but this measure only masks any underlying problems and that needs to be taken into account when interpreting results (Hair et al. 1998).

When possible offending estimates have dealt with, the next stage is to assess the overall model fit.

Goodness-of-fit statistics measure the correlation of the co-variance or correlation matrix with that expected from the proposed model (Hair et al. 1998). Minimum one goodness-of-fit index should be used to assess the overall model fit, but preferably from each category of indices described below (Hair et al. 1998). As there are problems associated with the chi-square test in SEM, various alternative indices for evaluating model fit of a descriptive nature have been developed with diverse theoretical rationales (Fang and Wang 1998). Presently, no index exists that meets the criteria for an ideal fit (Fan and Wang 1998). It has been suggested that an index ought to range between zero and one, where zero indicates a complete lack of fit while one indicates a perfect fit. Further, an index should be independent of sample size and have known distributional properties to assist in interpreting its meaning (Fan and Wang 1998).

Most of the indices fall into three categories: 1) absolute (or overall), 2) incremental (or relative) and 3) parsimonious fit measures (Fan and Wang 1998; Garver and Mentzer 1999; Hair et al. 1998). *Absolute fit* indices are based on co-variance reproduction, and evaluate how much of the original sample co-variance matrix has been accounted for in the reproduced co-variance matrix based on the specified model (Fan and Wang 1998; Garver and Mentzer 1999; Hair et al. 1998). The absolute fit measures evaluate the model as a whole and can reveal possible inadequacies but cannot identify what the problem is or which part of the model problems lie (Bollen 1989; Diamantopolous 1994). Examples of absolute fit indices include the goodness-of fit index (GFI) and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). Both indices run on a continuum from zero to one. A value of ≤ 0.9 indicates an acceptable fit for the GFI. A satisfactory RMSEA value, on the other

hand, falls within the 0.05-0.08 interval (Fan and Wang 1998; Garver and Mentzer 1999; Hair et al. 1998).

Incremental fit measures compare the fit of the estimated model against a base line, often called a null model (Hair et al. 1998). Examples of incremental fit measures include adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) or non-normed fit index (NNFI), and normed fit index (NFI). These indices range from zero (poor fit) to one (perfect fit); a value of greater than 0.9 indicates a satisfactory fit (Fan and Wang 1998; Garver and Mentzer 1999; Hair et al. 1998). The third main category of model fit indices is parsimonious fit measures.

Parsimonious fit measures allow for the comparison of models of different formulation, and become important when competing theoretical models are assessed (Fan and Wang 1998; Hair et al. 1998). Both the model fit and the degrees of freedom that are used to specify the model are considered. Examples of parsimonious fit indices include the parsimonious goodness-of fit (PGFI) and normed chi-square. Values approaching one reflect greater model parsimony for PGFI, while the normed chi-square should range from one to five (Fan and Wang 1998; Hair et al. 1998).

After the overall model fit has been estimated by at least one index of goodness-of-fit measures, all constructs in the measurement model need to be assessed for uni-dimensionality and reliability (Garver and Mentzer 1999). Uni-dimensionality needs to be assessed first (Hair et al. 1998). Uni-dimensionality may be defined as the existence of one concept underlying a set of indicators (Steenkamp and van Trijp 1991). To ensure uni-dimensionality of multiple-indicator constructs standardised

residuals and modified indices, collectively known as diagnostic indicators, and relationships between indicators and unobserved variables require examination. Small values of diagnostic indicators imply satisfactory measures of uni-dimensional constructs (Garver and Mentzer 1999).

The direction, size and statistical significance of the parameter estimated between indicators and unobserved variables should be examined as well (Garver and Mentzer 1999; Hulland, Shou, and Lam 1996). There needs to be a consistency between theory and actual outcome of the sign, positive or negative, of parameter estimates. To ensure construct uni-dimensionality, the standardised parameter estimated ought to exceed 0.7. All parameter estimates ought to be statistically significant at $\alpha \leq 0.05$, equivalent to t -value $\geq |1.96|$ (Garver and Mentzer 1999; Hulland, Shou, and Lam 1996).

Turning to reliability, this refers the internal consistency of the construct items and shows to which degree items indicate a shared latent variable (Hair et al. 1998). Multivariate techniques use Cronbach's alpha as an indicator of reliability, but the coefficient alpha has limitations. For example, coefficient alpha is biased towards scales that have larger numbers of items, thus it can over estimate reliability (Garver and Mentzer 1999; Hair et al. 1998). In its place, item and construct (scale) reliability measures are looked at. The squared multiple correlation (R^2) may be used to assess item reliability. A high R^2 value, that is approaching one, indicates the item as reliable (Garver and Mentzer 1999). Next, construct reliability should be computed.

Calculating construct reliability and variance extracted assesses the reliability of the model. Construct validity is a computation of construct's composite reliability (Hair et al. 1998). The formula for construct validity is as follows: the numerator is equal to the summed and squared standardised loadings. The denominator is equal to the numerator with the addition of the summed measurement error term for all indicators. An acceptable value of construct validity is 0.7 and greater (Garver and Mentzer 1999; Hair et al. 1998). The formula for variance extracted is similar to construct validity (Hair et al. 1998).

Variance extracted measures overall variance in the indicators explained by the latent variable (Hair et al. 1998). The numerator equals the standardised loadings squared then summed. The denominator is equal to the summed and squared standardised loadings with the addition of the summed measurement error term for all indicators. An acceptable value of variance extracted is 0.5 and greater (Garver and Mentzer 1999; Hair et al. 1998). The construct validity and variance extracted are reported for all constructs are reported in section 8.4.

Thus, to ascertain the model measurement fit, uni-dimensionality has to be established and both item and construct reliability measures computed. Attention now turns to the structural model.

During this sixth step of SEM, an examination of the structural model's estimated coefficients, standard errors and *t*-values, that is measures of component fit, is also required. The significance level is typically set at the 0.05 level when testing for posited causal relationship, but depending on the technique that is chosen for model

estimation this level may be inappropriate (Hair et al. 1998). Due to the smaller sample size and statistical properties associated with ML estimation method, the significance level ought to be set to 0.025 or 0.1. Further, critical t -values used to assess significance may vary depending on the strength of theory used to specify the model. If it has been pre-specified in which direction a relationship is hypothesised, one-tailed t -tests can be used (critical value ± 1.645 at the 0.05 level) otherwise the two-tailed t -tests should be used (critical value ± 1.96 at the 0.05 level). The calculation of R^2 offers a comparative measure of fit for all structural equations. SEM results are also affected by multicollinearity. Values of 0.9 and greater are considered as an indication of too high levels of correlations amongst constructs, and even at the 0.8 level problems may be indicated (Hair et al. 1998).

The final step in the sixth stage is to determine the best fitting model for the data (Hair et al. 1998). The competing models and model development strategies are amongst the most commonly used modelling strategies. The aim of either strategy is to compare model results and verify the best fitting model from a series of models from overall and parsimonious model fit measures. Overall model fit in absolute terms are measures that provide specific measures of fit, while parsimonious model fit indices denote fit per coefficient (Hair et al. 1998).

Step 7: Interpreting and modifying the model

In the seventh and final step of this outlined approach to SEM, the researcher may examine possible adjustments to improve the theoretical explanation or the

goodness-of-fit (Hair et al. 1998). Two issues of interpretation may need consideration: standardised versus unstandardised solutions and model re-specifications. One part of evaluating an estimated relationship is the gauging of the actual size of the parameters, but there is a difference in the use and interpretation of standardised and unstandardised coefficients. All standardised coefficients have equal variance and the coefficients range from zero to one in value. The importance of causal relationships between variables is indicated by coefficients approaching one. Standardised coefficients are sample specific and cannot be compared across samples. Unstandardised coefficients pertain to the variance across constructs. They can be compared across samples although it is difficult to compare coefficients since scales vary for every construct (Hair et al. 1998). The interpretation phase is completed when standardised and un-standardised coefficients have been scrutinised. After that, model re-specification might be contemplated.

If model re-specification is required for both or either the purposes of improving model fit and its correspondence to underlying theory, a process of supplementing or removing estimated parameters from the original model starts (Hair et al. 1998).

Hair and his colleagues (1998) recommend that if the researcher modifies the model, additional data should be collected and the model should be re-tested.

The rationale for choosing SEM as the analytical technique for this research is outlined next.

7.9 Justification of SEM as the analytical technique

SEM is a term used to encompass a number of models, such as confirmatory factor analysis, co-variance structure analysis, and latent variable analysis. SEM was developed by merging econometrics, which focuses on prediction, with the principles of measurement from psychometric theory that incorporates latent variables directly inferred from manifest variables (Hair et al. 1998). SEM has become a very popular research technique in virtually every academic discipline as well as among managers in industry (Baumgartner and Homburg 1996; Hair et al. 1998). Thus, SEM may be described as a popular new generation of multivariate techniques.

SEM was chosen for this study for two main reasons. *First*, the conceptual framework of this study contains multiple and interrelated relationships among latent variables. With SEM, multiple relationships between constructs can be modelled simultaneously in a straightforward fashion by combining aspects of multiple regression (examines dependence relationships between constructs) and factor analysis (represents unmeasured concepts with multiple variables) is used (Hair et al. 1998). Latent constructs or variables that cannot be measured directly can also be incorporated in models (Hair et al. 1998; Hu 1997). Moreover, SEM facilitates transition from exploratory to confirmatory factor analysis (Hair et al. 1998). SEM may be used to investigate the possibility of theoretical models that contain interrelationship among a set of variables (Hu 1997). The study, thus, suits the properties of SEM.

To expand this, compared to other multivariate techniques SEM is a more flexible method. In SEM, relationships may be modelled amongst criterion variables and multiple predictors and latent variables can also be examined. SEM may also be used to estimate measurement models for manifest variables. Consequently, a priori assumptions about measurement properties of latent constructs may be statistically tested against empirical data (Hair et al. 1998; Hulland, Chow and Lam 1996). While this flexibility is an advantage, it is also a potential disadvantage. SEM can be used inappropriately, particularly amongst inexperienced users (Hair et al. 1998).

Describing findings as confirmatory when SEM has been used in an exploratory way would be an example of inappropriate use of the technique, which would be both unethical and incorrect to do (Baumgartner and Homburg 1996; Hair et al 1998).

From a practical perspective, it is necessary that SEM take a theory-based approach (Hair et al. 1998). Theory is defined here as a set of relationships that provides a comprehensive and consistent explanation of an event. SEM is not, generally speaking, data driven like exploratory factor analysis. The estimated model must be almost completely specified by the researcher. The development of theory is often driven by past empirical research, prior experiences and observations of attitudes and actual behaviour, and other theories that provide a perspective for analysis (Hair et al. 1998).

Second, the research is based on the use of latent constructs, which are represented by imperfect measurements (Hair et al. 1998). That is, the measures contain some measurement error (Hair et al. 1998). In SEM, latent variables may be represented or implied by one or more indicators or measured variables and are specified in the

measurement model (Hair et al. 1998; Hu 1997). Attitudinal constructs, such as organisational commitment and job satisfaction, and behavioural intentions, for instance turnover intention or intention to purchase a good, are examples of latent constructs (Hu 1997). It is desirable to incorporate latent variables and constructs in data analysis for three reasons. First, the statistical estimation of the model will improve. Second, latent constructs and variables can better represent theoretical constructs. Third, measurement errors may be modelled explicitly, which is an advantage as measurements are not perfect (Hair et al. 1998).

7.10 Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the methodological approach used in this research to examine the hypotheses. This research adopted field survey techniques and SEM as the analytical technique to examine the hypotheses. This approach seemed appropriate given the formulation of the hypothesised model.

The results of the data analysis are presented in the next chapter.

8. DATA ANALYSIS

8.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the results of the data analysis are presented. The data analysis was conducted in a four-stage process: 1) *data screening* (screening cases for missing data and entry errors), 2) *scale reliability* (item-total correlations, factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA)), 3) *measurement model*, and 4) *structural models* (hypothesised and full structural models). Two data packages were used to analyse the data. The initial analysis was done with the aid of SPSS (version 12.5). In order to complete the analysis, the SEM technique (using LISREL version 8.53 by Jöreskog and Sörbom) was used for the CFAs, the measurement and structural models. Attention now turns to the steps taken during the data screening process.

8.2 Data screening

Before the analysis of the data can start, the data needs to be screened. Some data entry errors were corrected before the data was screened for missing data and non-response bias.

Missing data

Missing data is an issue that cannot be ignored as doing so could “hidden” biases of results. Data can be missing for different reasons, either external to the respondent or action taken by the respondent (Hair et al. 1998). Examples of the former include problems collecting data and errors during the data entry stage and of the latter respondents not answering part of or the entire questionnaire. In addition, having missing data may greatly reduce the effective sample size. Consequently, missing data is an issue to be dealt with caution.

Nine out of the 188 cases were discarded due to response bias. Four cases were removed because either entire sections of the questionnaire or the whole questionnaire was left blank. An additional five cases were deleted due to missing data (12-33% of the values) were missing in a non-random pattern. Thus, the final sample consists of 179 cases.

32 values were missing from the remaining 179 cases, which is less than 0.3% of the total number of values in the data set. The cases with missing values were examined for possible patterns of non-response, as recommended by Hair and his colleagues (1998). Because the values were found to be missing at random across both variables and cases, the data was assumed to be missing completely at random. The few missing values that remained in the data set were replaced to maximise the effective sample size. The EM algorithm substitution method was used, which is a widely employed method of imputation (Hair et al. 1998). The data set was then screened for non-response bias.

Non-response bias

As a two-wave mail-shot was used to collect the data (refer to section 7.6), non-response bias may be an issue. Non-response error refers to errors that are introduced into the research when a segment of the defined population is either under-represented or not represented and is significantly or systematically different from the respondents (Hair, Bush and Ortinau 2000). Different techniques to test for non-response bias are suggested in the literature (Aaker, Kumar and Day 1995; Armstrong and Overton 1977; Churchill 1995). Armstrong and Overton's (1977) extrapolation technique was used in this study.

In essence, Armstrong and Overton (1977) suggest in their classic article that late respondents in mail surveys have more in common with non-respondents than early respondents do. By comparing the responses by early and late respondents to mail surveys, the degree of non-response bias present can be estimated. However, what the classification criteria are for early and late respondents is lacking in the literature (Armstrong and Overton 1977).

The two categories of respondents were created based on which mail-shot the questionnaire was returned. "Early" respondents were those that responded to the first mail-shot and "late" the second. *T*-tests were calculated to test differences across these groups against key variables (PSB, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, internal communication, professional development and empowerment) from the survey. The findings indicate that there are no significant differences across early and late respondents, meaning that non-response errors have not been introduced

(Armstrong and Overton 1977). Refer to Table 8.1 below for a summary of the results.

Table 8.1
Summary of non-response error test

Variable	Early respondents n = 96		Late respondents n = 83		Significance of <i>t</i> ^b
	Mean ^a	Standard deviation	Mean ^a	Standard deviation	
PSB	5.625	0.597	5.512	0.730	0.253
Organisational commitment	3.719	0.899	3.746	0.911	0.843
Job satisfaction	4.922	1.315	4.804	1.267	0.543
Internal communication	4.431	1.047	4.465	1.111	0.832
Professional development	4.020	1.270	4.102	1.386	0.680
Empowerment	4.922	0.967	4.812	1.220	0.516

^a Measured on a seven-point scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree

^b 2-tailed significance (0.05)

Having completed the data screening process, the descriptive statistics of the sample can be produced.

8.3 Descriptive statistics

The demographic variables and indicators of the latent constructs were analysed using descriptive statistics. Measures of central tendencies, dispersion, distribution, frequency tables and charts were produced for each variable. The descriptive analysis

also produced some information about the sample's characteristics, which is shown in Table 8.2 below.

The modal respondent is a 25-34 years old male who works as a team member and holds a permanent position in the organisation. Moreover, he has worked for the organisation for the past five to nine years, regularly attends the training sessions the organisation offers its employees and has completed his "A"-level/HNC degree.

Table 8.2
Survey respondent characteristics

Category		Respondents (n)	Respondents (%)
Gender	Male	112	65.5
	Female	59	34.5
Age	Under 25	19	11.9
	25-34	72	45.0
	35-44	33	20.6
	45-54	28	17.5
	55 +	8	5.0
Contract type	Permanent	159	91.4
	Casual	15	8.6
Tenure (years)	Under 5	34	21.1
	5-9	66	41.0
	10-14	23	14.3
	15-19	19	11.8
	20 +	19	11.8
Position	Team member	106	62.7
	Supervisor/manager	63	37.3
Education	"O"-level or equivalent	48	30.2
	"A"-level or HNC	56	35.2
	Bachelor degree	13	8.2
	Other	42	26.2

Having screened the data and produced a description of the sample, the next step is to assess the reliability of the latent scales.

8.4 Scale reliability

Recall that the measurement development process was discussed in the previous chapter in section 7.3. Also, refer to Appendix B for the conceptual and operational definitions of the constructs used in the conceptual model. In this section, the reliability analysis of each of the scales, the CFAs of the latent constructs and first-order CFAs of the multidimensional constructs are described.

Reliability analysis and factor analysis

A reliability analysis was performed on the indicators for each of the latent constructs. The aim of performing the reliability analysis is to assess the scale reliability and the homogeneity of the items in multi-item scales to ensure a high degree of internal consistency (Cooper and Schindler 2000). Items with a low (under 0.35) item-total correlation were deleted from each scale in an iterative process. All of the scales for the latent construct have a standardised item alpha of 0.7 or higher.

Having ensured a high degree of internal consistency, an exploratory factor analysis was performed to assess the unidimensionality of each scale further. One factor was extracted for all scales. Attention now turns to the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of the latent constructs.

CFAs of latent constructs

This section describes the CFAs of each of the latent constructs. One-factor congeneric measurement models are used as the means of data reduction in this thesis. There are some advantages of fitting congeneric measurement models to data sets (Holmes-Smith 2000). When sample size is a potential issue, such as in this study, large numbers of like observable variables can be reduced to a single composite scale that will reduce the number of variables in structural equation models. Congeneric models also provide information about how much each measure contributes to the composite scale. Moreover, the congeneric model's fit statistic serve as a quasi test of validity because the indicators must all be valid measures of the one latent construct for the model to be accepted (Holmes-Smith 2000). The generalised one-factor congeneric measurement model is illustrated in Figure 8.1 below.

The one-factor congeneric models for the latent constructs are described next.

PSBs

According to the literature, PSBs consist of three dimensions: extra- and in-role customer service and co-operation. However, treating PSBs as a three-dimensional construct will not allow for the identification of differential effects of antecedent variables on the different dimensions of PSBs. The three dimensions of PSBs will therefore be treated as individual but correlated constructs, consistent with

Figure 8.1

A generalised one-factor congeneric measurement model

(Holmes-Smith 2000)

Bettencourt and Brown's (1997) study. This approach was recently suggested by Podsakoff et al. (2000) as appropriate for future research into OCBs and related employee behaviour, which, among others, Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie (2005) adopted in their customer-oriented boundary-spanning behaviour study.

Extra-role customer service

Estimating a six-indicator measurement model of extra-role customer service produced a model with several standardised residuals greater than $|2.58|$ and modification indices greater than 3.84. Through an iterative process of model development, a unidimensional model with four indicators was developed. None of the standardised residuals and modification indices in the model exceeds $|2.58|$ and 3.84 respectively. The goodness-of-fit statistics for the four-indicator model are as follows. The chi-square test statistic (0.512) with 2 degrees of freedom ($p = 0.775$) indicates that the model fits the sample data well. The reported values of additional goodness-of-fit indices are RMSEA (0.000), GFI (0.999), AGFI (0.993), CFI (1.000) and the standardised RMR is (0.008). Thus, the four-indicator model for extra-role customer service fits the data very well.

The parameter estimates for the four-indicator model of extra-role customer service are presented in Table 8.3 (each of the cells holds the parameter estimates, standard error in parenthesis and t -value). All four lambda coefficients for the four-indicator model are 0.7 or above ($p < 0.001$). Thus, the findings suggest that the indicators are good measures of extra-role customer service and provide evidence of convergent validity. The indicators appear to be reliable measures of extra-role customer service based on the composite reliability (0.795) and variance extracted estimate (0.601).

Table 8.3
Parameter estimates for the congeneric model of extra-role customer service

Variable	Regression coefficient	Error variance
x_2 ERCS2	0.700 (0.081) 10.103	0.510 (0.086) 8.031
x_3 ERCS3	0.843 (0.069) 13.012	0.289 (0.058) 5.683
x_5 ERCS5	0.833 (0.078) 10.329	0.305 (0.074) 5.043
x_6 ERCS6	0.712 (0.079) 10.329	0.493 (0.082) 7.930

Table 8.4 exhibits the final measurement items for extra-role customer service. The measure appears to reflect the definition of extra-role customer service.

Table 8.4
Final measurement items for extra-role customer service

Measure: extra-role customer service	
ERCS2	I help customers with problems beyond what is expected or required of me by management.
ERCS3	I often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers.
ERCS5	I frequently go out of my way to help customers.
ERCS6	I enjoy "going the extra mile" to make a customer satisfied.

In-role customer service

When a seven-indicator measurement model of in-role customer service was estimated, a model with several standardised residuals greater than $|2.58|$ and modification indices greater than 3.84 was produced. A unidimensional four-indicator model was developed through an iterative process. None of the standardised residuals and modification indices in the model exceeds $|2.58|$ and

3.84 respectively. The goodness-of-fit statistics for the four-indicator model are as follows. The chi-square test statistic (0.044) with 2 degrees of freedom ($p = 0.978$) indicates that the model fits the sample data well. The reported values of additional goodness-of-fit indices are RMSEA=0.000 GFI=1.000, AGFI=0.999, and CFI=1.000. The standardised RMR is 0.002, which further supports the model.

The parameter estimates for the four-indicator model of in-role customer service are presented in Table 8.5 (each of the cells holds the parameter estimates, standard error in parenthesis and t -value). All but one of the lambda coefficients for the four-indicator model are above 0.7 but all are significant ($p < 0.001$). Thus, the findings suggest that the indicators are relatively good measures of in-role customer service and provide evidence of convergent validity. The indicators appear to be reliable measures of in-role customer service based on the composite reliability (0.752) and variance extracted estimate (0.523).

Table 8.5
Parameter estimates for the congeneric model of in-role customer service

Variable	Regression coefficient	Error variance
x_2 IRCS2	0.739 (0.082) 10.362	0.454 (0.088) 6.760
x_3 IRCS3	0.660 (0.090) 8.996	0.564 (0.108) 7.748
x_4 IRCS4	0.734 (0.077) 10.267	0.462 (0.079) 6.848
x_7 IRCS7	0.756 (0.082) 10.660	0.428 (0.089) 6.467

Table 8.6 displays the final measurement items for in-role customer service. The measure appears to reflect the definition of in-role customer service.

Table 8.6
Final measurement items for in-role customer service

Measure: in-role customer service	
IRCS2	I meet formal performance requirements when serving customers.
IRCS3	I fulfil responsibilities to customers as specified in my job description.
IRCS4	I adequately complete all expected customer-service behaviours.
IRCS7	I know what the expected performance requirements for serving customers are.

Cooperation

A model with several standardised residuals greater than $|2.58|$ and modification indices greater than 3.84 was produced when a seven-indicator measurement model of cooperation was estimated. A unidimensional four-indicator model was developed through an iterative process. None of the standardised residuals and modification indices in the model exceeds $|2.58|$ and 3.84 respectively. The goodness-of-fit statistics for the four-indicator model are as follows. The chi-square test statistic (6.198) with 2 degrees of freedom ($p = 0.051$) indicates that the model fits the sample data adequately. The reported values of additional goodness-of-fit indices are RMSEA (0.109), GFI (0.983), AGFI (0.914) and CFI (0.978). The standardised RMR is 0.036. Consequently, the four-indicator model for cooperation fits the data well.

The parameter estimates for the four-indicator model of cooperation are presented in Table 8.7 (each of the cells holds the parameter estimates, standard error in

parenthesis and *t*-value). Although the lambda coefficients for the four-indicator model are not above 0.7, all exceed 0.570 and all are significant ($p < 0.001$). Thus, the findings suggest that the indicators are relatively good measures of cooperation and provide evidence of convergent validity. The composite reliability and variance extracted for the indicators of cooperation are (0.688) and (0.417) respectively. Overall, the indicators of cooperation are reliable.

Table 8.7
Parameter estimates for the congeneric model of cooperation

Variable	Regression coefficient	Error variance
x_1 C1	0.570 (0.087) 7.090	0.675 (0.102) 7.833
x_4 C4	0.623 (0.095) 7.825	0.612 (0.118) 7.303
x_5 C5	0.698 (0.080) 8.841	0.512 (0.085) 6.201
x_7 C7	0.684 (0.071) 8.651	0.532 (0.066) 6.443

Table 8.8 displays the final measurement items for cooperation. The measure appears to reflect the definition of cooperation.

Table 8.8
Final measurement items for cooperation

Measure: cooperation	
C1	I help my team members who have heavy work loads.
C4	I adequately complete all expected customer-service behaviours.
C5	I willingly help team members who have work related problems.
C7	I share my knowledge and expertise with other team members.

Although the three PSB constructs are modelled as separate constructs, an additional model was estimated where the constructs were allowed to correlate. This analysis shows that extra- and in-role customer service and cooperation related but not identical constructs, refer to Table 8.9 below.

Table 8.9
Phi matrix

	ERCS	IRCS	COOP
ERCS	1.000		
IRCS	0.559 (0.066) 8.430	1.000	
COOP	0.669 (0.062) 10.869	0.738 (0.058) 12.665	1.000

Abbreviations: ERCS extra-role customer service
IRCS in-role customer service
COOP cooperation

Job attitudes

The one-factor models for organisational commitment and job satisfaction are reported in the section below.

Organisational commitment

A model with several standardised residuals greater than |2.58| and modification indices greater than 3.84 was produced when an eight-indicator measurement model

of organisational commitment was estimated. Through an iterative process, a unidimensional six-indicator model was developed where none of the standardised residuals exceed $|2.58|$ but two of the modification indices in the model exceed 3.84 somewhat. The goodness-of-fit statistics for the five-indicator model are as follows. The chi-square test statistic (12.733) with 9 degrees of freedom ($p = 0.175$) indicates that the model fits the sample data well. The reported values of additional goodness-of-fit indices are RMSEA (0.048), GFI (0.977), AGFI (0.946) and CFI (0.995). Standardised RMR is 0.027. Consequently, the six-indicator model for organisational commitment fits the data well.

The parameter estimates for the six-indicator model of organisational commitment are presented in Table 8.10 (each of the cells holds the parameter estimates, standard error in parenthesis and t -value). Four of the six lambda coefficients for the six-indicator model exceed 0.7 but all are significant ($p < 0.001$). Thus, the findings suggest that the indicators are relatively good measures of organisational commitment and provide evidence of convergent validity. The indicators appear to be reliable measures of organisational commitment based on the composite reliability (0.774) and variance extracted estimate (0.565).

Table 8.11 displays the final measurement items for organisational commitment, which appears to reflect its conceptual definition well.

Table 8.10

Parameter estimates for the congeneric model of organisational commitment

Variable	Regression coefficient	Error variance
x_1 OC1	0.706 (0.122) 10.417	0.502 (0.197) 8.348
x_2 OC2	0.626 (0.127) 8.909	0.608 (0.193) 8.411
x_3 OC3	0.660 (0.114) 9.543	0.564 (0.226) 8.775
x_5 OC5	0.786 (0.107) 12.117	0.383 (0.178) 7.747
x_7 OC7	0.866 (0.103) 14.048	0.240 (0.111) 6.266
x_8 OC8	0.834 (0.108) 13.240	0.305 (0.127) 7.020

Table 8.11

Final measurement items for organisational commitment

Measure: organisational commitment	
AOC1	I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.
AOC2	I enjoy discussing my work at this organisation with people outside it.
AOC3	I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.
AOC5	I feel like "part of the family" at "my" organisation.
AOC7	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
AOC8	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.

Job satisfaction

When a six-indicator measurement model of job satisfaction was estimated, a model with a standardised residual greater than $|2.58|$ and modification index greater than 3.84 was produced. The goodness-of-fit statistics for the six-indicator model are as

follows. The chi-square test statistic (15.670) with nine degrees of freedom ($p = 0.074$) indicates that the model fits the sample data well. The reported values of additional goodness-of-fit indices are RMSEA (0.065), GFI (0.971), AGFI (0.933) and CFI (0.994). The standardised RMR is 0.023. Accordingly, the six-indicator model for job satisfaction fits the data well.

The parameter estimates for the six-indicator model of job satisfaction are presented in Table 8.12 (each of the cells holds the parameter estimates, standard error in parenthesis and t -value). All the lambda coefficients for the six-indicator model are above 0.7 and all are significant ($p < 0.001$). Thus, the findings suggest that the indicators are good measures of job satisfaction and provide evidence of convergent validity. The indicators appear to be reliable measures of job satisfaction based on the composite reliability (0.830) and variance extracted estimate (0.665).

Table 8.12
Parameter estimates for the congeneric model of job satisfaction

Variable	Regression coefficient	Error variance
x_1 JS1	0.845 (0.098) 13.739	0.287 (0.095) 7.672
x_2 JS2	0.815 (0.092) 13.009	0.335 (0.089) 8.041
x_3 JS3	0.757 (0.093) 11.661	0.427 (0.103) 8.501
x_4 JS4	0.787 (0.096) 12.341	0.380 (0.105) 8.296
x_5 JS5	0.767 (0.099) 11.888	0.411 (0.126) 8.438
x_6 JS6	0.912 (0.099) 15.589	0.169 (0.080) 5.949

Table 8.13 displays the final measurement items for job satisfaction. The measure appears to reflect the definition of job satisfaction well.

Table 8.13
Final measurement items for job satisfaction

Measure: job satisfaction	
JS1	I feel satisfied with my present job.
JS2	I definitely like my work.
JS3	I am happy that I took this job.
JS4	I am happy that I took this job.
JS5	My job is very pleasant.
JS6	I am very content with my job.

Managerial strategies

The results of the one-factor models of the dimensions of internal communication, professional development and empowerment are discussed in this section. Attention first turns to internal communication.

Internal communication

Recall that internal communication was proposed to be a three-dimensional construct. However, a one factor solution was found to be more appropriate based on the factor analysis and the fact that the three dimensions of internal communication are very highly interrelated. A first-order CFA of internal communication showed that the higher-order factor explains 99.7% of the variation in organisational perspectives, 90.7% in organisational integration and 95.8% in media quality. The

internal communication construct was therefore treated as a uni-dimensional construct with 14 indicators.

When the measurement model of internal communication was then estimated, a model with some standardised residuals greater than $|2.58|$ and modification indices greater than 3.84 was produced. A unidimensional 10-indicator model was developed through an iterative process. Two of the standardised residuals in the model marginally exceed $|2.58|$ but none of modification indices in the model exceed 3.84. The goodness-of-fit statistics for the 10-indicator model are as follows. The chi-square test statistic (56.648) with 35 degrees of freedom ($p = 0.012$) indicates that the model fits the sample data adequately. The reported values of additional goodness-of-fit indices are RMSEA (0.059), GFI (0.940), AGFI (0.906) and CFI (0.987) and the standardised RMR is 0.039. The 10-indicator model for internal communication fits the data fairly well overall.

The parameter estimates for the 10-indicator model of internal communication are presented in Table 8.14 (each of the cells holds the parameter estimates, standard error in parenthesis and t -value). Not all of the lambda coefficients for the 10-indicator model exceed 0.7 but all are significant ($p < 0.001$). Thus, the findings suggest that the indicators are good measures of internal communication and provide evidence of convergent validity. The indicators appear to be reliable measures of internal communication based on the composite reliability (0.746) and variance extracted estimate (0.497). Based on the final measurement item for internal communication, shown in Table 8.15, the measure appears to reflect the definition of internal communication.

Table 8.14

Parameter estimates for the congeneric model of internal communication

Variable	Regression coefficient	Error variance
x_2 IC1	0.678 (0.110) 9.951	0.539 (0.161) 8.662
x_3 IC3	0.781 (0.092) 12.086	0.390 (0.100) 8.017
x_4 IC4	0.712 (0.105) 10.601	0.494 (0.141) 8.506
x_6 IC6	0.789 (0.095) 12.264	0.378 (0.104) 7.941
x_7 IC7	0.651 (0.107) 9.415	0.577 (0.159) 8.771
x_9 IC9	0.713 (0.104) 10.636	0.491 (0.140) 8.497
x_{11} IC11	0.761 (0.096) 11.565	0.421 (0.112) 8.189
x_{12} IC12	0.709 (0.102) 11.638	0.498 (0.151) 8.522
x_{13} IC13	0.549 (0.108) 10.538	0.698 (0.162) 9.045
x_{14} IC14	0.673 (0.104) 9.830	0.548 (0.105) 8.688

Table 8.14

Final measurement items for internal communication

Measure: internal communication	
IC2	I am adequately informed about my company's financial position.
IC3	I am made aware of the overall policies and goals of my company.
IC4	I am information about government action affecting my company.
IC6	I regularly receive information on our department's plans.
IC7	I regularly receive communication from the personnel department.
IC9	I regularly receive information about departmental policies and goals.
IC11	Meetings in this company are well organised.
IC12	We hold personnel meetings to discuss relevant issues only.
IC13	Written internal communication (i.e. newsletters, brochures, magazines, internal memos) is adequate.
IC14	The written instructions and guidelines I receive are clear and concise.

Professional development

Estimating a seven-indicator measurement model of professional development produced a model with several standardised residuals greater than $|2.58|$ and modification indices greater than 3.84 was produced. Through an iterative process of model development, a unidimensional model with five indicators was developed. None of the standardised residuals in the model exceeds $|2.58|$ but not all of the modification indices are below 3.84. The goodness-of-fit statistics for the five-indicator model are as follows. The chi-square test statistic (7.083) with five degrees of freedom ($p = 0.215$) indicates that the model fits the sample data well. The reported values of additional goodness-of-fit indices are RMSEA (0.048), GFI (0.984), AGFI (0.953) and CFI. (0.996). The standardised RMR is equal to 0.025. Consequently, the five-indicator model for professional development fits the data well.

The parameter estimates for the five-indicator model of professional development are presented in Table 8.16 (each of the cells holds the parameter estimates, standard error in parenthesis and t -value). Four of the lambda coefficients for the five-indicator model are above 0.7 and the fifth (PD3) is just below, 0.679, but all are significant ($p < 0.001$). Thus, the findings suggest that the indicators are good measures of professional development and provide evidence of convergent validity. The indicators appear to be reliable measures of professional development based on the composite reliability (0.790) and variance extracted estimate (0.536).

Table 8.16
Parameter estimates for the congeneric model of professional development

Variable	Regression coefficient	Error variance
x_2 PD2	0.730 (0.112) 10.588	0.468 (0.162) 7.599
x_3 PD3	0.679 (0.117) 9.626	0.539 (0.182) 8.067
x_5 PD5	0.815 (0.111) 12.325	0.337 (0.151) 6.251
x_6 PD6	0.712 (0.115) 10.252	0.493 (0.172) 7.780
x_7 PD7	0.717 (0.123) 10.352	0.485 (0.196) 7.728

Table 8.17 displays the final measurement items for professional development. The measure appears to reflect the definition of professional development.

Table 8.17
Final measurement items for professional development

	Measure: professional development
PD2	There are opportunities in this organisation for developing new skills.
PD3	This organisation offers training courses that match my particular needs.
PD5	I am encouraged to seek opportunities for professional growth.
PD6	Leaders in this organisation have encouraged me to think about career planning.
PD7	Opportunities for advancement exist in this organisation.

Empowerment

Estimating a six-indicator measurement model of empowerment produced a model with some standardised residuals greater than $|2.58|$ and modification indices greater than 3.84. Through an iterative process, a four-indicator model was produced with no

offending standardised residuals and modification indices. The goodness-of-fit statistics for the four-indicator model are as follows. The chi-square test statistic (1.494) with two degrees of freedom ($p = 0.474$) indicates that the model fits the sample data well. The reported values of additional goodness-of-fit indices are RMSEA (0.000), GFI (0.996), AGFI (0.979), CFI (1.000) and standardised RMR (0.012). Consequently, the four-indicator model for empowerment fits the data well.

The parameter estimates for the four-indicator model of empowerment are presented in Table 8.18 (each of the cells holds the parameter estimates, standard error in parenthesis and t -value). All but one of the lambda coefficients for the four-indicator model are above 0.7 but all are significant ($p < 0.001$). Thus, the findings suggest that the indicators are good measures of empowerment and provide evidence of convergent validity. The indicators appear to be reliable measures of empowerment based on the composite reliability (0.787) and variance extracted estimate (0.588).

Table 8.17
Parameter estimates for the congeneric model of empowerment

Variable	Regression coefficient	Error variance
x_1 E1	0.880 (0.086) 13.742	0.225 (0.093) 4.408
x_2 E2	0.701 (0.098) 10.097	0.509 (0.127) 8.004
x_4 E4	0.784 (0.108) 11.715	0.888 (0.128) 6.915
x_6 E6	0.686 (0.110) 9.822	0.529 (0.160) 8.125

Table 8.19 displays the final measurement items for empowerment appears to reflect the definition of empowerment well.

Table 8.19
Final measurement items for empowerment

Measure: empowerment	
E1	Leaders in this organisation trust employees to exercise good judgement.
E2	Leaders in this organisation have confidence in my ability to make decisions.
E4	Leaders in this organisation encourage me to use my initiative.
E6	I feel empowered to make day-to-day decisions.

To summarise, all of the congeneric one-factor models reported above fits the data well. Attention now turns to the measurement model.

8.5 Measurement model of PSBs

The estimation of the one-factor congeneric models provides an initial assessment of measure reliability and validity. As seen above, this process revealed no problems. Due to the relatively large number of measured variables (42) in relation to the sample size (179), a partial aggregation strategy was pursued (c.f. Landis, Beal and Tesluk 2000). Item parcels were computed for organisational commitment, job satisfaction and internal communication. Having reduced the number of measured variables in the model, the measurement model can be estimated. A measurement model represents a more thorough assessment of the measures, where the variables are assessed simultaneously. A measurement model is estimated before structural model relationships can be examined (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). Discriminant

validity is also assessed. Thus, a measurement model containing extra-role customer service, in-role customer service, co-operation, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, internal communication, professional development and empowerment was estimated.

The parameter estimates of the measurement model are shown in Table 8.20 (each of the cells holds the completely standardised parameter estimates, standard error in parenthesis and *t*-value). The majority of the parameter estimates are large and significant, which provides evidence of convergent validity. These results provide good evidence of component fit, at least in terms of the relationship between indicators and the theoretical constructs. Also, the value of most of the squared multiple correlations exceed 0.5, which suggests that the latent constructs explain a significant proportion of the variation in the observed variables.

The error variance and explained variance for the indicators are shown in Table 8.21. The majority of the squared multiple correlations exceed 0.5 in value, which implies that the latent constructs explain a significant proportion of the variation in the observed variables.

Table 8.20

Parameter estimates for the lambda-x matrix for the measurement model of PSBs

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
ERCS2	0.726 (0.079) 10.675							
ERCS3	0.833 (0.069) 12.982							
ERCS5	0.827 (0.077) 12.843							
ERCS6	0.708 (0.079) 10.330							
IRCS2		0.737 (0.079) 10.692						
IRCS3		0.675 (0.086) 9.516						
IRCS4		0.746 (0.074) 10.866						
IRCS7		0.733 (0.080) 10.613						
C1			0.592 (0.081) 7.927					
C4			0.643 (0.087) 8.780					
C5			0.684 (0.073) 9.487					
C7			0.661 (0.065) 9.089					
OC_C1				0.869 (0.097) 14.190				
OC_C2				0.809 (0.097) 12.707				
OC_C3				0.818 (0.093) 12.937				
JS_C1					0.908 (0.079) 15.557			
JS_C2					0.868 (0.081) 14.430			
JS_C3					0.938 (0.085) 16.456			

Table 8.20
 Parameter estimates for the lambda-x matrix for the measurement model of PSBs
 (continued)

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6	7.	8.
IC_C1						0.946 (0.072) 16.755		
IC_C2						0.984 (0.069) 18.001		
IC_C3						0.755 (0.072) 11.804		
PD2							0.739 (0.110) 10.955	
PD3							0.698 (0.114) 10.144	
PD5							0.793 (0.110) 12.118	
PD6							0.721 (0.112) 10.594	
PD7							0.706 (0.121) 10.304	
E1								0.856 (0.085) 13.516
E2								0.715 (0.097) 10.467
E4								0.801 (0.099) 12.253
E6								0.684 (0.109) 9.856

1. Extra-role customer service
 3. Co-operation
 5. Job satisfaction
 7. Professional development

2. In-role customer service
 4. Organisational commitment
 6. Internal communication
 8. Empowerment

Table 8.21

Error variance for x_1 through to x_{30} for the observed variables in the measurement model of PSBs

Observed variable	Theta-delta	Observed variable	Theta-delta
ERCS2	0.473 (0.081) 7.955	JS_C1	0.175 (0.048) 6.634
ERCS3	0.305 (0.055) 6.353	JS_C2	0.247 (0.058) 7.688
ERCS5	0.316 (0.070) 6.491	JS_C3	0.120 (0.051) 5.189
ERCS6	0.498 (0.081) 8.100	IC_C1	0.105 (0.034) 5.052
IRCS2	0.457 (0.081) 7.437	IC_C2	0.031 (0.030) 1.641
IRCS3	0.545 (0.101) 8.040	IC_C3	0.430 (0.060) 9.056
IRCS4	0.444 (0.071) 7.327	PD2	0.454 (0.152) 7.868
IRCS7	0.463 (0.083) 7.486	PD3	0.512 (0.171) 8.199
C1	0.650 (0.092) 8.354	PD5	0.371 (0.144) 7.214
C4	0.586 (0.103) 8.004	PD6	0.480 (0.163) 8.026
C5	0.532 (0.072) 7.629	PD7	0.501 (0.192) 8.140
C7	0.563 (0.058) 7.852	E1	0.266 (0.084) 5.758
OC_C1	0.245 (0.094) 6.437	E2	0.488 (0.121) 8.052
OC_C2	0.346 (0.105) 7.636	E4	0.359 (0.118) 7.011
OC_C3	0.330 (0.096) 7.498	E6	0.533 (0.158) 8.282

Table 8.22 shows correlations between the latent constructs of the measurement model of the PSBs. All but one of the factor inter-correlations are significant. One

test of discriminant validity was performed. If the average variance extracted estimate for two constructs was greater than the square of the correlation between the constructs, then discriminant validity is achieved (Fornell and Larcker 1981). This criterion was met across all possible pairs of constructs.

Table 8.22
Correlations among the latent construct in the measurement model of PSBs

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.
1.	1.000							
2.	0.555	1.000						
3.	0.656	0.742	1.000					
4.	0.341	0.103	0.382	1.000				
5.	0.235	0.160	0.406	0.871	1.000			
6.	0.251	0.332	0.276	0.480	0.441	1.000		
7.	0.115	-0.050	0.131	0.616	0.584	0.604	1.000	
8.	0.159	0.330	0.418	0.402	0.437	0.588	0.566	1.000

- | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Extra-role customer service | 2. In-role customer service |
| 3. Co-operation | 4. Organisational commitment |
| 5. Job satisfaction | 6. Internal communication |
| 7. Professional development | 8. Empowerment |

The goodness-of-fit statistics for the measurement model produced a significant chi-square value ($\chi^2(260) = 476.606, p = 0.000$), refer to Table 8.23 below for the other relevant goodness-of-fit statistics. Overall, the measures of component fit and overall goodness-of-fit suggest that the measurement model has an adequate fit to the sample data. Further, the analysis of the measurement model has provided evidence of measure reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity.

Table 8.23
 Goodness-of-fit statistics for the measurement model

Goodness-of-fit statistics	
χ^2/df	1.635
RMSEA	0.060
CFI	0.970
Standardized RMR	0.063
GFI	0.812
AGFI	0.769

Having assessed the measure reliability and validity, the next step is to assess the structural relationships between the latent variables.

8.6 Structural models of PSBs

The conceptual model developed in the third chapter implies that organisational commitment and job satisfaction play an important mediating role between managerial strategies and PSBs. That is, the effects of managerial strategies on PSBs work through organisational commitment and job satisfaction. To test this, two structural models needs to be estimated and compared (Holmes-Smith 2000). That is, a hypothesised model is estimated first, followed by a full model. The chi-square difference test is then used to determine whether the full model has a significantly better fit than the hypothesised model or not. Mediation is supported if the chi-square difference test shows that the full model does not significantly improve the fit over the hypothesised model (Holmes-Smith 2000).

The hypothesised model developed in the third chapter may be described as a mediating model and is estimated first. To test the mediating hypotheses, the second

step is to estimate a full model. Having estimated both models, the issue of mediation will be addressed. Attention now turns to the hypothesised model.

Hypothesised model

The goodness-of-fit statistics for the hypothesised model indicate that the model fits the data adequately. The hypothesised model produced a significant chi-square value ($\chi^2(386) = 667.704, p = 0.00$), however, this value is sample size sensitive so in this case it is more appropriate to look at the normed chi-square value, that is chi-square/df (Byrne 1998). The chi-square/df, value is 1.730 indicates a good fit, as does the CFI value of 0.965 (Hair et al. 1998; Holmes-Smith 2002). The RMSEA and CFI values of 0.064 and 0.965 respectively give further support for the hypothesised model (Byrne 1998; Holmes-Smith 2002; Hair et al. 1998).

Although the values of the GFI and AGFI are lower than the conventional cut-off point of 0.9 (Byrne 1998; Hair et al. 1998; Holmes-Smith 2002), it is recognised in the literature that these two indices are affected by model parsimony and sample size (Bearden, Sharma and Teel 1982; Cheung and Rensvold 2001; Gerbing and Anderson 1993). This means that failure to meet the conventional cut-off value of 0.90 does not necessarily imply fit error. Models that are correctly specified but include a large number of factors as well as indicators per factor can, consequently, will have low GFI and AGFI values (Gerbing and Anderson 1993). There are examples in the literature of models with reported GFI and AGFI values that are close to 0.80 which have been considered to be of an acceptable fit (Mukherjee and

Nath 2003). The standardised RMR value is 0.083, which is mediocre. Given the strengths of the other fit measures, it was concluded that the hypothesised model fits the data reasonable well on the whole.

Further, the analysis of the hypothesised structural model has provided evidence of measure reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity. The explained variance of the endogenous constructs, i.e. extra- and in-role customer service, cooperation, organisational commitment and job satisfaction, is 87.2%, 96.3%, 83.1%, 21.3% and 63.7% respectively. These results of the estimation of the hypothesised model suggest that the overall model fit is adequate.

The path from organisational commitment to extra-role customer service is positive and significant ($\beta_{14} = 0.551$, $t=2.512$), thus supporting H1a. However, the paths from organisational commitment to in-role customer service ($\beta_{24} = -0.202$, $t=-0.897$) and cooperation ($\beta_{34} = 0.028$, $t=0.127$) are not significant. Hypotheses H1b and H1c are consequently not supported. H2a and H2b are not supported as the paths between job satisfaction and extra- and in-role customer service are non-significant ($\beta_{15} = -0.245$, $t = -1.161$, respectively $\beta_{25} = 0.342$, $t = 1.541$). H2c is supported as the path from job satisfaction to cooperation is supported. As expected, H3 is supported as the proposed path from job satisfaction to organisational commitment is both positive and significant ($\beta_{45} = 0.787$, $t = 10.668$). Thus, organisational commitment has a positive influence on extra-role customer service behaviours while job satisfaction influences cooperative behaviours positively and the job satisfaction-organisational commitment path is positive and significant.

The relationship between internal communication and organisational commitment is not supported ($\gamma_{41} = 0.085$, $t = 1.265$). The path from professional development to organisational commitment is supported ($\gamma_{42} = 0.168$, $t = 2.107$) but not the path from empowerment to organisational commitment ($\gamma_{43} = -0.111$, $t = -1.558$). Hypotheses H4a and H6a are as a result not supported but H5a is.

H4b is not supported as the internal communication – job satisfaction path is positive but non-significant ($\gamma_{51} = 0.091$, $t = 0.978$). The relationship between professional development and job satisfaction, on the other hand, is positive and strongly significant ($\gamma_{52} = 0.447$, $t = 4.339$), thus supporting H5b. Finally, H6b is not supported as the path from empowerment to job satisfaction is positive but not significant ($\gamma_{53} = 0.140$, $t = 1.441$). Professional development is consequently the only of the managerial strategies that influence the two job attitudes. For a summary of the findings, refer to Table 8.24, which contains the parameter estimates and t-values for the hypothesised and full structural models.

Full model

Based on the same line of reasoning as the judgment of the fit of the hypothesised model, the goodness-of-fit statistics for the full model indicate that the model fits the data fairly well. The full model produced a significant chi-square value ($\chi^2 (377) = 616.225$, $p = 0.00$). The values of chi-square/df (1.635), RMSEA (0.060), GFI (0.812), AGFI (0.767), CFI (0.970) and standardised RMR (0.063) provide adequate

support for the full model. Further, the analysis of the full structural model has provided evidence of measure reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity. The explained variance of the endogenous constructs, i.e. extra-and in-role customer service, cooperation, organisational commitment and job satisfaction, is 82.5%, 68.9%, 67.2%, 21.8% and 63.8% respectively. These results of the estimation of the full model suggest that the overall model fit is fair (the standardised effects for the full model are displayed in Table 8.24 below).

The path from organisational commitment to extra-role customer service is positive and significant ($\beta_{14} = 0.600$, $t = 2.561$). The paths from organisational commitment to in-role customer service and cooperation, on the other hand, are not significant ($\beta_{24} = -0.085$, $t = -0.389$ and respectively $\beta_{34} = 0.248$, $t = 1.072$). The job satisfaction-extra-role customer service path is negative and non-significant ($\beta_{15} = -0.247$, $t = -1.157$). Although the paths from job satisfaction to in-role customer service and co-operation are positive, these are not significant ($\beta_{25} = 0.241$, $t = 1.175$ and respectively $\beta_{35} = 0.229$, $t = 1.064$). The path from job satisfaction to organisational commitment is positive and significant ($\beta_{45} = 0.776$, $t = 10.461$). Thus, job attitudes do not influence in-role customer service behaviours or cooperative behaviours. However, the organisational commitment-extra-role customer service path is positive and significant, as is the job satisfaction-organisational commitment path.

The path between internal communication and PSBs is positive and significant ($\gamma_{11} = 0.498$, $t = 3.584$). The relationship between professional development and PSBs is negative but significant ($\gamma_{12} = -0.675$, $t = -4.466$). The relationship between empowerment and PSBs is positive and significant ($\gamma_{13} = 0.327$, $t = 2.776$). The three

managerial strategies, consequently, influence PSBs directly. Internal communication and empowerment influence PSBs positively while the professional development-PSB relationship is negative in this sample.

The relationship between internal communication and organisational commitment is not supported ($\gamma_{21} = 0.094$, $t = 1.039$), neither is the path from professional development to organisational commitment ($\gamma_{22} = 0.135$, $t = 1.420$) nor from empowerment to organisational commitment ($\gamma_{23} = -0.067$, $t = -0.857$).

The internal communication – job satisfaction path is positive but non-significant ($\gamma_{31} = 0.081$, $t = 0.685$). The relationship between professional development and job satisfaction, on the other hand, is positive and significant ($\gamma_{32} = 0.450$, $t = 3.848$). Finally, the path from empowerment to job satisfaction was positive but not significant ($\gamma_{33} = 0.119$, $t = 1.178$). Professional development is consequently the only of the managerial strategies influence job satisfaction.

Having analysed the hypothesised and full models, the issue of mediation can now be addressed.

Mediating hypothesis

To recap, the hypothesised model is referred to as a complete mediation model. In this type of model, the effect of an independent variable on a criterion variable is transmitted via an intervening variable, that is, a mediator (Howell, Dorman and Kerr

1986). Job attitudes, organisational commitment and job satisfaction in this instance, are modelled as moderating variables in the hypothesised model. The influence of the managerial strategies on PSBs is transmitted via the job attitudes. In the full model, however, the independent variables are proposed to have impact the PSBs directly as well as indirectly, which means the model can be considered to be a partial mediation model (Howell, Dorman and Kerr 1986). The question to be answered is whether job attitudes mediate the relationships between managerial strategies and PSBs completely, partially or not at all.

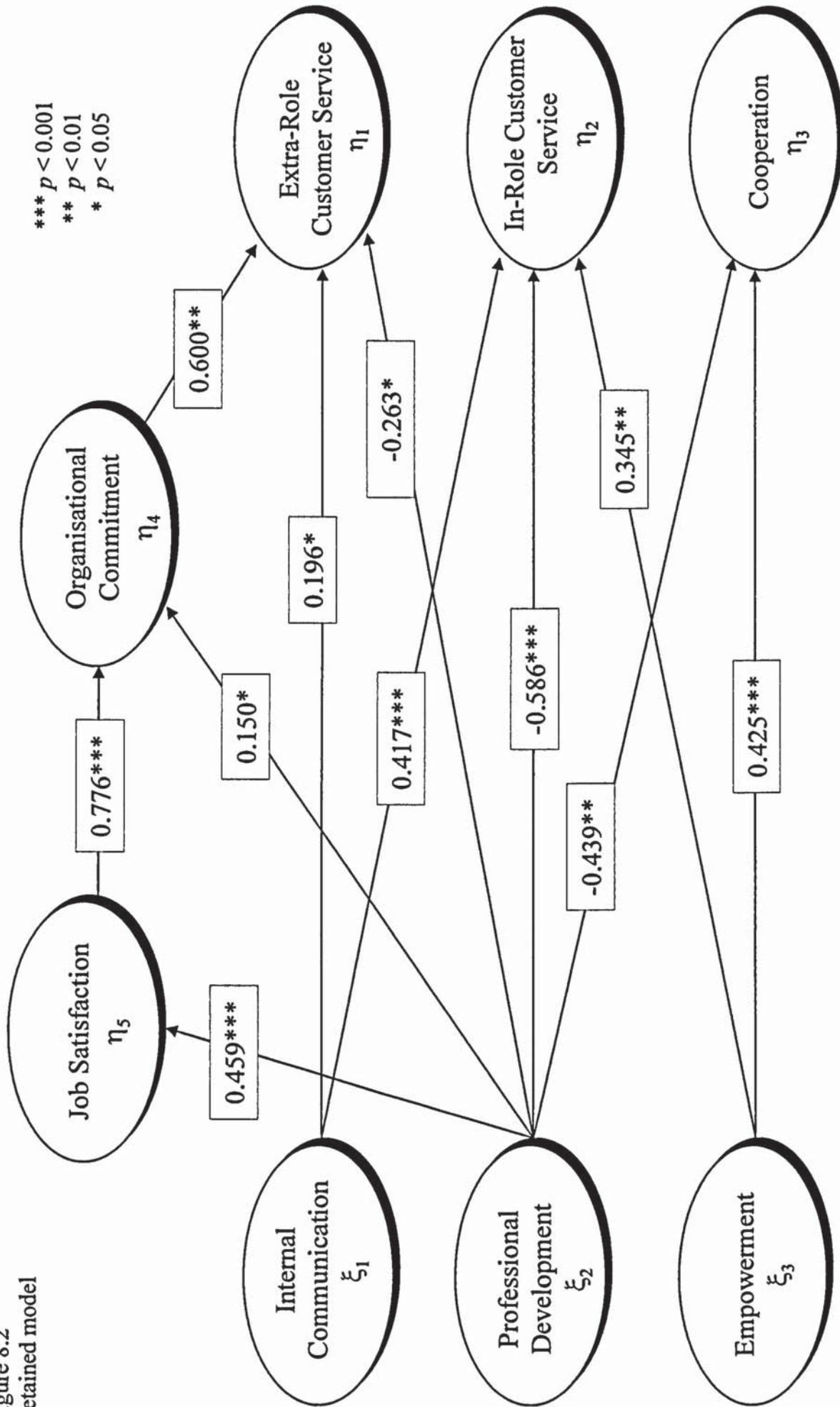
To establish whether which of the two structural models fits the data the best, a chi-square difference test between the hypothesised and full structural model needs to be compared. The chi-square difference is significant ($\chi^2 \Delta(9) = 51.479$), meaning that the full structural model has a significantly better fit to the data than the hypothesised model. It can therefore be concluded that job attitudes do not completely mediate the relationship between managerial strategies and PSBs. The next step is to determine whether job attitudes partially mediate the aforementioned relationships or not at all, which is done by assessing the significance of the individual paths in the full structural model. For the reader's convenience, the standardised parameter estimates and t-values for both the hypothesised and full structural models are given in Table 8.24.

Table 8.24

Standardised parameter estimates for the hypothesised and full structural models

	Hypothesises model		Full model	
	Standardised estimate	t-value	Standardised estimate	t-value
Organisational commitment → Extra-role customer service (β_{14})	0.551	2.512	0.600	2.561
Organisational commitment → In-role customer service (β_{24})	-0.202	-0.897	-0.085	-0.389
Organisational commitment → Cooperation (β_{34})	0.028	0.127	0.248	1.072
Job satisfaction → Extra-role customer service (β_{15})	-0.245	-1.161	-0.247	-1.157
Job satisfaction → In-role customer service (β_{25})	0.342	1.541	0.241	1.175
Job satisfaction → Cooperation (β_{35})	0.387	1.740	0.229	1.064
Job satisfaction → Organisational commitment (β_{45})	0.787	10.668	0.776	10.461
Internal communication → Extra-role customer service (γ_{11})	-	-	0.196	1.733
Internal communication → In-role customer service (γ_{12})	-	-	0.417	3.623
Internal communication → Cooperation (γ_{13})	-	-	0.071	0.622
Professional development → Extra-role customer service (γ_{21})	-	-	-0.263	-1.905
Professional development → In-role customer service (γ_{22})	-	-	-0.586	-4.142
Professional development → Cooperation (γ_{23})	-	-	-0.439	-2.968
Empowerment → Extra-role customer service (γ_{31})	-	-	0.059	0.502
Empowerment → In-role customer service (γ_{32})	-	-	0.345	2.924
Empowerment → Cooperation (γ_{33})	-	-	0.425	3.291
Internal communication → Organisational commitment (γ_{14})	0.085	1.265	0.091	1.316
Professional development → Organisational commitment (γ_{24})	0.168	2.107	0.150	1.837
Empowerment → Organisational commitment (γ_{24})	-0.111	-1.558	-0.075	-1.049
Internal communication → Job satisfaction (γ_{15})	0.091	0.978	0.092	0.984
Professional development → Job satisfaction (γ_{25})	0.447	4.399	0.459	4.500
Empowerment → Job satisfaction (γ_{35})	0.140	1.441	0.123	1.277

Figure 8.2
Retained model



A final model where only the significant parameter estimates are shown also aids interpretation, refer to Figure 8.2 above.

From Figure 8.2, it is clear that job attitudes partially mediate the relationship between managerial strategies and PSBs. More specifically, professional development influence both job satisfaction and organisational commitment positively. Job satisfaction influences organisational commitment positively. Organisational commitment, in turn, influences extra-role customer service positively. All three managerial strategies also impact upon PSBs directly. Professional development's impact on extra- and in-role customer service as well as cooperation is significant but negative. Internal communication influences both extra- and in-role customer service, but not cooperation. Empowerment, on the other hand, influence in-role customer service and cooperation positively.

8.7 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to report the results of the data analysis. The first stage of the data analysis was to do some descriptive statistics as part of the data screening process. Following this, the reliability of the latent scales was assessed. Then, the reliability analysis was conducted and the one-factor measurement models of the latent constructs were estimated. Overall, the one-factor congeneric models provided good support for the measurement properties of the latent constructs. The theoretical framework developed for this thesis needs to be tested next, which is done by estimating measurement and structural models.

To test the conceptual model and hypotheses developed in the third chapter, a measurement model for PSBs was estimated as a first step. The measurement model provided good support for the measurement properties of the latent constructs. Next, structural models were estimated. The hypothesised and full structural models were estimated to assess whether job attitudes mediate the relationship between managerial and PSBs, as the conceptual model indicates. The full model represented a significant improvement over the hypothesised model, indicating that job attitudes do not completely mediate the relationship between managerial strategies. The results show that job attitudes partially mediate the effect of managerial strategies on PSBs. More precisely, job attitudes mediate the relationship between professional development and PSBs but not for internal communication and empowerment. However, managerial strategies directly influence PSBs. The results of the data analysis are discussed in the next chapter.

9. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

9.1 Introduction

This dissertation has examined the antecedents of PSBs. More precisely, the study has investigated the effect of organisational level managerial strategies on employee job attitudes and PSBs from an employee perspective, as opposed to the more common managerial perspective. Research has shown that employee job attitudes and PSBs are related to customer perceptions of service quality (c.f. Hartline, Maxham and McKee 2000; Hoffman and Ingram 1992; Kelley 1992). This topic is, consequently, important to study, as service quality is an important strategic variable and soft performance measure to firms. Having developed a theory-based model, the research process started by conducting nine in-depth interviews (refer to chapters five and six). The survey data that was collected in the main empirical study was used to test the hypotheses that were developed in the fourth chapter. In the previous chapter, the results of the data analysis were presented. In this chapter, these results are discussed.

9.2 Discussion of results

The findings of this dissertation study are discussed in this section. Recall that a summary of the findings of the data analysis in the form of a retained model, which is a basic path diagram, was presented in Figure 8.2. Attention now turns to a

discussion of the specific research outcomes. Each of the hypotheses is re-stated and the findings are discussed in relation to logic and the literature supporting each hypothesis.

PSB

The results of the data analysis show that there are differential effects of the antecedents on the three types of employee behaviours investigated in the study, that is, extra- and in-role customer service and cooperation. Although not hypothesised, the data analysis also shows that the three types of service behaviours are related but not identical construct, which is consistent with Bettencourt and Brown's (1997) study. Although it was not a stated research objective, the validation of constructs across contexts is important.

PSB is a complex idea. The three types of PSBs are internally and externally directed as well as being in- and extra-role in nature, which makes it is important to identify predictor variables that are both common and differential. The results clearly demonstrate that it cannot be taken for granted that managerial interventions will influence the three types of PSBs uniformly, which means that further research on this topic is required.

Although the results of this dissertation provides support for Bettencourt and Brown's (1997) conceptualisation of PSB, the differences between in- and extra-role behaviours is not clear cut. Depending on the role context, the lines between in- and

extra-role behaviours are fluid (Bettencourt and Brown 2003; George and Jones 1997; Morrison 1994; Organ 1988, Organ and Ryan 1995; Paine and Organ 2000; Tepper, Lockhart and Hoobler 2001). Individual employees will vary in their interpretation of where the lines between in- and extra-role behaviours lie, which is referred to as role definition effects (Morrison 1994; Tepper, Lockhart and Hoobler 2001). Employees who have a wider interpretation of their role definition tend to perform more extra-role behaviours than those with a narrower role definition do (Morrison 1994). Furthermore, contextual factors are likely to contribute to the less than clear lines between in- and extra-role behaviours.

Culture is one contextual factor that may contribute to the differences in interpretation of where the boundary between prescribed and voluntary behaviours lies. Culture, whether national, organisational or group, influences how people behave (George and Jones 1997; Paine and Organ 2000). In addition, not all aspects of jobs in general and service jobs in particular can be prescribed and detailed in job descriptions.

It can be argued that job descriptions are difficult documents to write, not to mention well, and particularly so for complex jobs. Too detailed job descriptions reduce the degrees of freedoms an individual has in the job and are, consequently, more likely to hamper than facilitate service delivery. This will apply in particular to non-routine and complex services and/or during service recovery situations. The exception to this would be high routine services, such as in fast-food restaurants. Routine services are similar to manufacturing organisations in that work descriptions can be more detailed to ensure uniform quality and delivery of services. Therefore, routine service

organisations are able to use service scripts to a higher degree than non-routine and complex services to ensure even quality.

A caveat, the implications of using service scripts to standardise services needs careful consideration by managers. A possible outcome is a workforce that displays fewer extra-role behaviours. Also, innovation and other initiatives are also likely to suffer from highly detailed job descriptions. Similar outcomes could also be the outcome of overly prescriptive training courses. Thus, it can be deduced that contextual factors can collectively influence the behaviours of employees, either by dissuading or encouraging what is seen as desirable behaviours in the eyes of firms, managers and customers. Attention now turns to job attitudes-PSBs relationships.

Job attitudes-PSB relationships

The first hypothesis proposed that organisational commitment is positively related to in- and extra-role customer service and cooperative behaviours. Recall from the previous chapter that this proposition was partially supported. The relationship between organisational commitment and extra-role customer service was significant and positive, but not for in-role customer service or cooperation.

This finding is unexpected given that it is reasonable to expect that individuals who are committed to the organisation they work for should be inclined to perform different types of behaviours that are service and customer oriented in nature, and work harder in general (Ricketta 2002). Support has been found in the literature for

the commitment-OCB link (c.f. Chen, Hui and Segal 1998; MacKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998; Morrison 1994; Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer 1996; Schappe 1998). Logic dictates therefore that organisational commitment should act as a predictor of cooperative behaviours in addition to extra-role service behaviours.

An explanation for the findings may partly come from Organ (1988), who argued that job attitudes are stronger predictors of extra-role behaviour than in-role behaviour. Subsequent research has provided some support for Organ's contention (Mathieu and Zajac 1990; Organ and Ryan 1995; Riketta 2002). In addition, Riketta's (2002) meta-analysis found that organisational commitment has a higher correlation with employee behaviours when self-reports are used and for white-collar workers rather than blue-collar worker. Recall that the respondents to this survey work in a routine service and the majority are FLEs, which can be likened to blue-collar work. Although self-report were used for this study, the weaker organisational commitment-employee behaviour relationship reported by Riketta (2002) for blue-collar type work may explain why this relationship was found to be positive but not significant.

The second hypothesis proposed that the relationship between job satisfaction and the three types PSB is positive. This relationship was not supported for any of the three types of behaviours under investigation. Job satisfaction, however, was found to influence extra-role customer service indirectly via the effect of job satisfaction on organisational commitment. This finding is partly consistent with Bettencourt and Brown's (1997) study, where job satisfaction's effect on the PSBs was non-significant in a sample of retail bank employees. However, Bettencourt, Gwinner and

Meuter's (2001) more recent study of employees in non-professional retail banking and professional financial services suggests that job satisfaction and organisational commitment influence customer-oriented behaviours positively.

The empirical findings of this thesis, therefore, add to the empirical literature and reinforce the inconsistency in results relating job attitudes to service behaviours.

While the inconsistency in findings may be explained by contextual differences across reported studies, implying the need for a contingent perspective in evaluating the interrelationships among job attitudes and PSBs, it may also be simply an indication of a weak relationship between these dimensions and/or an issue of statistical power.

It is probably fair to say that there are many researchers who have found it both bewildering and frustrating that their attitude-behaviour propositions have either not been supported by their data or detected weak correlations. Does the fact that there is mixed evidence in the literature to support the intuitively appealing relationship between job attitudes and employee behaviour mean that job attitudes are poor predictors of employee behaviours? Or that the aforementioned relationship is spurious as Bettencourt and Brown (1997) suggest?

Based on the above discussion, it is proposed that the lack of consistency in predicting employee behaviours from job attitudes may stem from a measurement problem. Job satisfaction and/or organisational commitment tend to be the job attitudes that are measured in the employee behaviour literature. Both these job

attitudes are affective in nature, which recognises that affect is a central component of an attitude. However, these job attitudes may not be specific enough to predict specific employee behaviours accurately, whether it is OCB, POB or PSBs.

Stock and Hoyer (2005) state that it is not sufficient to focus on customer-oriented behaviours of FLEs when implementing a customer oriented strategy. Successful implementation of an organisational level customer orientated strategy requires FLEs also to have a strong customer orientation attitude (Stock and Hoyer 2005). Research in social psychology on the attitudes-behaviour relationship supports this line of reasoning. In order for an attitude to predict a specific behaviour, the measure of that attitude also needs to be specific (Ajzen and Fishbein 1977, 2004). Based on this logic, it is also possible that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are not sufficiently specific attitudes to predict PSBs, or OCBs. The development of scales that aims to capture employee attitudes to different types of service behaviours is consequently a promising way forward. This issue will be discussed further in the next chapter under directions for future research.

The job satisfaction-organisational commitment link

A positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment was predicted in the third hypothesis. As hypothesised and consistent with the literature, job satisfaction was found to have a large significant effect on organisational commitment. The job satisfaction-organisational commitment link is well

documented in the marketing, management and psychology literatures (c.f. Babin and Boles 1996; Clugston 2000; McKenzie, Podsakoff and Ahearne 1998; Russ and McNeilly 1995; Schappe 1998; Singh 1998; Singh, Verbeke and Rhoads 1996).

Further empirical support is provided for the intuitively appealing logic that employees who are satisfaction with their jobs also value their organisational membership.

Managerial strategies-job attitude relationships

Hypotheses four to six predicted that the managerial strategies, that is, internal communication, professional development and empowerment, influence both job satisfaction and organisational commitment positively. That is, the hypothesised model proposed that job attitudes mediate the relationship between managerial attitudes and PSBs. This proposition was largely unsupported. The exception being the professional development-extra-role customer service path was mediated by job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

As reported in the previous chapter, the analysis of the data does not lend support the hypothesised positive relationships between empowerment and job satisfaction and organisational commitment. The literature, overall, suggests that there is a positive relationship between empowerment-job attitudes. A positive relationship between empowerment and job satisfaction was reported by Koburg et al. (1999) and Spreitzer et al. (1997). However, the findings from the marketing literature are mixed. For instance, Hartline and Ferrell's (1996) study found a negative effect of

empowerment on job satisfaction for hotel employees. Hartline et al.'s (2000) study in a sample of service employees found no effect of empowerment on organisational commitment. Singh (2000), on the other hand, did find a high correlation between empowerment and organisational commitment in his study.

One reason for the mixed evidence for empowerment as an antecedent of job attitudes may be that it is contextually dependent. Some groups of employees may not want to be empowered as it adds extra responsibility. It may also be an issue of confidence, which the in-depth interviews suggested. An additional reason for the mixed support for the empowerment-job attitude link is that managers may officially empower their employees but not in practice.

Similarly, the paths between internal communication and organisational commitment and job satisfaction respectively were not supported. The in-depth interviews suggest that the lack of communication of relevant information at times has a detrimental effect on employees' perceived ability to do deal with passengers and job dissatisfaction. The latter would then suggest that a positive employee perception of the quality and appropriateness of the information communication internally would influence the experienced levels of job satisfaction positively.

The hypothesised positive relationship between professional development and organisational commitment was supported, as was the professional development and job satisfaction. This finding supports recent findings by Ackfeldt and Coote (2005), Hart (1994) and Hart et al. (2000), which support for the professional development and job attitude link. Professional development activities are, consequently,

important managerial strategy to use to develop and enhance employee skills for present and future jobs as well as influence employee job attitudes positively.

Recall from the previous discussion in section 8.6 that the hypothesised model is a complete mediating model as the two job attitudes mediate the relationship between managerial strategies and the PSBs. However, to assess mediation, a second model was estimated where the management strategies were modelled to influence the PSBs directly as well as indirectly via the job attitudes. The chi-square difference test used to compare the fit between these two structural models revealed that the full model had a significantly better fit to the data than the hypothesised model (refer to Table 8.24 for a comparison of the parameters estimates for these two models). Although the influences of the managerial strategies on the PSBs were not hypothesised, the findings need to be addressed. The next section, consequently discussed the findings in relation to the managerial strategies-PSBs paths.

Managerial strategies-PSB relationships

Internal communication, professional development and empowerment were all found to influence the PSBs. However, all three of the managerial strategies did not influence all three forms of employee service behaviours. The influences of internal communication on the PSBs will be addressed first, followed by empowerment and professional development.

Although common sense, as well as the in-depth interviews, supports the positive influence of internal communication on employee behaviours, no study to date has been found to investigate such effects. This study found a positive relationship between internal communication and PSBs. More specifically, the analysis show that internal communication influences both types of customer directed (i.e. extra- and in-role) service behaviours positively but not internally directed behaviours, that is, cooperation. The relationship was especially strong between internal communication and in-role customer service. This highlights the importance of ensuring that the flow of information throughout an organisation is good.

These findings have important implications for scholars and practitioners alike. For scholars, more research into the effect of internal communication on employee attitudes and behaviours is needed. For practitioners, it suggests that a communications strategy is essential to develop. The results suggest that the dissemination of relevant information to employees has a positive effect on service levels.

Empowerment was found to influence in-role customer service behaviours and co-operation significantly and positively, but not extra-role customer service. This supports Bowen and Lawler's (1992) argument that service employees who are empowered are able to respond to customer needs better than non-empowered service employees. Empowered FLEs are, in turn, important to customers' perceptions of their service experience (Bowen and Lawler 1992). Self-efficacy, that is, task-specific confidence, (Locke and Latham 2002) and organisational socialisation theories provide support for this link (Jones 1986).

It is interesting that the empowerment-extra-role customer service relationship is not supported in this study. One would expect that with the help of experience and increased self-confidence, empowerment may help employees go beyond what has been perceived as formal role requirements in the past to regularly take initiatives and make their own decisions in order to provide better service to customers. The in-depth interviews support such a proposition. This finding has important implications for managers as empowerment in this context is likely to enhance customer satisfaction and increase organisational effectiveness and performance.

The expected positive relationship between professional development and PSBs was not supported. Although the relationship between professional development and PSB found to be significant, the direction was negative. The negative relationship is both unexpected and counterintuitive. The importance of developing service employees' skills is well recognised in the services marketing literature (Babakus, Yavas, Karatepe and Avci 2003; Bitner, Booms and Mohr 1994), although it is not very well documented by empirical studies.

In a related study into the antecedents of OCBs, Ackfeldt and Coote (2005) found a positive relationship between professional development and OCBs (a 0.28 correlation, t -value=2.69), but no study has been found, to date, that has included the professional development-PSB link. The professional development-OCB/PSB relationship may be seen as indicative of a norm of reciprocity or equity (Gouldner 1960; Lane and Messé 1971), whereby employees reward the organisation for its efforts by engaging in OCBs/PSBs as an exchange for learning, development and growth opportunities.

Why, then, is the professional development-PSB link so strongly negative in this study? One explanation may lie in the course content of the training and development programme that was implemented in this particular organisation. If the message delivered was strongly prescriptive, the consequence may very well be that employees engage in behaviours that are prescribed, which may be negatively related to PSBs. Goal setting theory may also be used to explain the negative relationship between professional development and PSB fund in this study.

Goal setting refers “*to the process of motivating employees and clarifying their role perceptions by establishing performance objectives*” (McShane and Von Glinow 2003, p. 151). The aim of goal setting is to improve employee performance by increasing the strength and persistence of employee work effort and clarifying employees’ role perceptions so that their efforts are directed towards behaviours that will improve work performance (McShane and Von Glinow 2003).

Management by objective can often be used to implement goal setting (McShane and Von Glinow 2003). Organisational level objectives are set, which are then cascaded down to work unit and individual employee levels. Goals should be specific, relevant and challenging for employees to perform highly (McShane and Von Glinow 2003). Professional development activities can be part of a goal-setting programme. Employees then know what the goals are, and focus on achieving those. A possible drawback would be that behaviours that are not directly prescribed might not be performed, as they are not part of the goals set for employee performance. Refer to the discussion above concerning job descriptions’ impact on employee behaviours.

Thus, careful attention needs to be paid to the content of training and development programmes by managers, as the effect on employee behaviours and performance can be great, but not always positive. In addition, there is an aggregated knock-on effect of individual employees' behaviour and performance on overall organisational performance, which may be lagged. Therefore, an implications analysis of all interrelated activities is crucial to undertake by managers.

At this point, the research problem can be answered. This asked what the antecedents of PSBs in a travel service context are. This thesis found that the internal communication, professional development and empowerment influence PSBs but job satisfaction and organisational commitment only partially mediate this relationship.

Before the books are closed on the findings of the data analysis, the confounding negative relationship between professional development and the PSBs needs to be addressed further. The question WHY these results were found did not go away and there might just be alternative explanations for the unexpected negative influence of professional development on all three types of PSBs. A closer look at the data suggested that there might be an explanation to be had. The findings from further analysis are discussed next.

9.3 Exploring the negative relationships between professional development and the PSBs

The overall aim of this thesis was to identify determinants of the performance of PSBs from an employee perspective. For this reason, the managerial strategies were modelled as antecedents of employee job attitudes and PSBs. However, no relationships between the managerial strategies were proposed. Recall that the data analysis revealed a counter intuitive negative relationship between professional development and the PSBs. In an attempt to seek an explanation for this finding, further analyses were conducted.

The further analyses revealed more complex relationships between the predictor and criterion variables in the model than the conceptual proposed. Because of the interesting nature of these finding, it seemed appropriate to report them at this point. This section contains the interpretation of the further analyses and Appendix F contains part of the output of these analyses.

Essentially, it is plausible to suspect that the relationship between professional development and the PSBs is influenced by another variable, a so called moderator. A moderator is defined as a variable that influences either the direction or the strength, or both, of a relationship between an independent and a dependent variable (Baron and Kenny 1986; Jaccard and Turrisi 2003). Moderated relationships, in turn, are often referred to as interaction effects (Jaccard and Turrisi 2003). To ascertain whether an interaction effect is present, a series of analyses were run that are described next.

As a first step (refer to Appendices F.1-3), bivariate correlations between professional development and extra- and in-role customer service and cooperation were run. The analyses revealed that the correlations between professional development and extra-role customer service and cooperation are positive. The correlation between professional development and in-role customer service, on the other hand, is negative. However, none of the correlations are significant. This suggests that at least one of the other variables in the model influences the professional development-PSBs relationships. In order to ascertain which variable(s) influence these relationships, partial correlations were run where internal communication, empowerment, organisational commitment and job satisfaction were added as control variables.

When internal communication was added as a control variable, the correlations between professional development and the three PSBs turned from positive to negative for extra-role customer service and cooperation respectively more negative for in-role customer service. The latter correlation was the only significant one. Adding empowerment as the second control variable increased the negative correlations between professional development and three PSBs. At this stage, the correlation between professional development and cooperation became significant. The addition of organisational commitment as the third control variable made all three correlations increasingly negative and significant. All three correlations remained negative and highly significant when job satisfaction was added as the final control variable. The outcome of this first set of analyses, consequently, demonstrates that the other predictor variables in the model have a negative influence on the relationships between professional development and the PSBs.

Further analysis support the initial results from the correlations and partial correlations. In the second step, the SEM technique was used to estimate the relationships between professional development and PSBs simultaneously. The results showed that professional development has a positive influence on all three paths (Appendix F.4, step 1).

The other predictor variables in the conceptual model (internal communication, empowerment, organisational commitment and job satisfaction) were then added systematically to the structural model. This allows for the analysis of the changes in the path coefficients between professional development and the three PSBs as the other predictor variables are included in the model. A reduction in explanatory power is expected when more variables are included in the structural model.

Internal communication was added as a predictor variable in step 2 (Appendix F.4, step 2). The results show that internal communication has a significant positive influence on all PSBs. At the same time, the influence of professional development on extra- and in-role customer service behaviour and cooperation changed substantially from positive to negative.

Adding empowerment as the second predictor variable revealed as similar results as for internal communication (Appendix F.4, step 3); however, the effect on the relationship between empowerment and the PSBs is not very strong. Empowerment has a positive but non-significant influence on extra-role customer service behaviours. It is, however, positive and significant for in-role customer service behaviour and cooperation. At the same time, the influence of professional

development on the PSBs changed but not quite to the same extent as for internal communication (Appendix F.4, steps 2 and 3).

Next, internal communication, professional development and empowerment were all modelled as predictor variables of the three PSBs. The result showed a similar pattern as described above. That is, internal communication and empowerment influence the PSBs positively while professional development has a negative effect (Appendix F.4, step 4). The process was repeated by adding in the job attitudes sequentially as predictor variables (Appendix F.4, steps 5 and 6). Finally, the full structural model was estimated again to compare changes (Appendix F.4, step 7). It appears that internal communication has a significant influence on the professional development-PSBs relationships. However, further analysis is required to test whether an interaction effect is present.

To determine whether an interaction effect is present, multiple and moderated regression analysis were run following Baron and Kenny's (1986) approach. That is, the predictor variables were standardised before entering into the regression equation to avoid problems that are associated with multicollinearity, but not the criterion variable. In the first, step, the predictor variables were entered. In step two, the product term of professional development and internal communications (computed from the standardised variables) was entered. Refer to Appendix F.5 for the presentation of the results.

The results show the interaction between professional development and internal commitment is significant on both extra- and in-role customer service behaviours.

Professional development has a significant negative effect on both extra- and in-role service behaviours, while internal communication has a significant positive effect and the interaction term is positive and significant. These results suggest that internal communication neutralise the effect of professional development activities on the performance of extra- and in-role service behaviours (Howell, Dorfman and Kerr 1986; Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer 1996).

The interaction effects are also shown schematically below in Figures 9.1 and 9.2 for professional development and internal communication on extra-role and in-role behaviours respectively. Referring to the plots, it is clear that regression lines are not parallel, which signifies the presence of an interaction effect (Jaccard and Turrisi 2003).

Although the causal relationship between professional development and extra- and in-role service behaviours is significant, it is not in the desirable direction. As the plots illustrates, the highest performance of extra- and in-role service behaviours as reported by employees is at a low level of professional development and when internal communication is high.

These findings suggest that internal communication is very important to employee performance of service behaviours directed at customers from an employee perspective. From a firm perspective, the allocation of resources to firm level internal communication programmes is important as it has implications for employee performance.

Figure 9.1

Illustrative plot of the interaction between professional development and internal communication on extra-role customer service behaviour

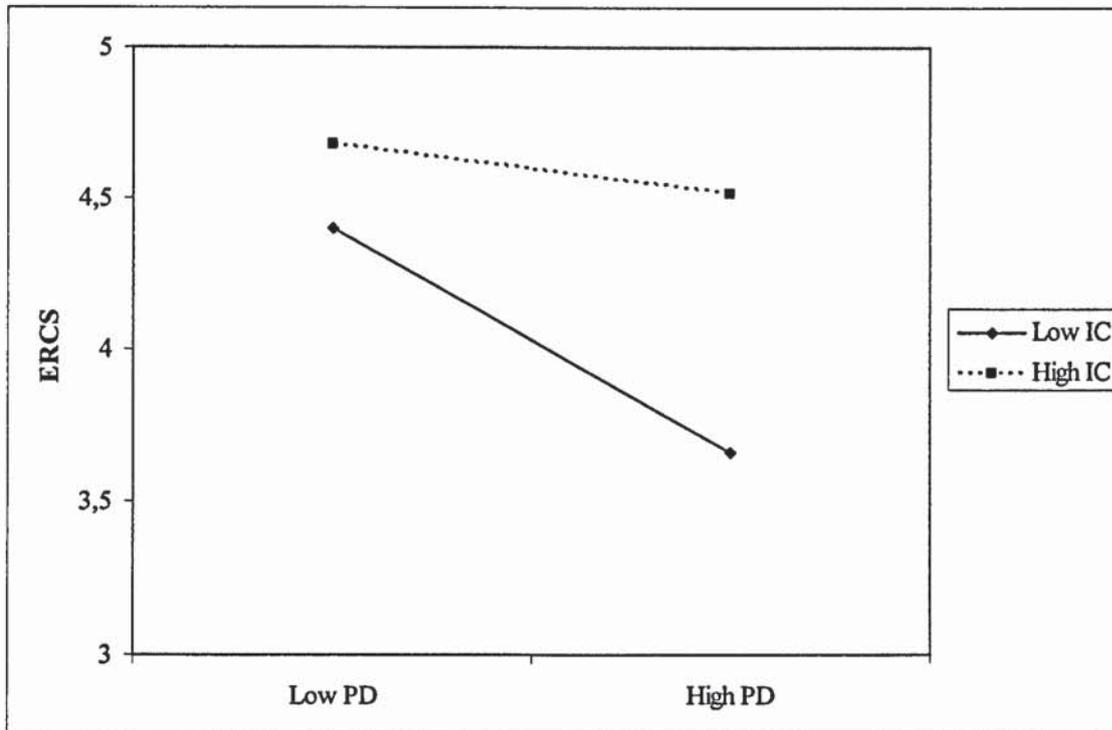
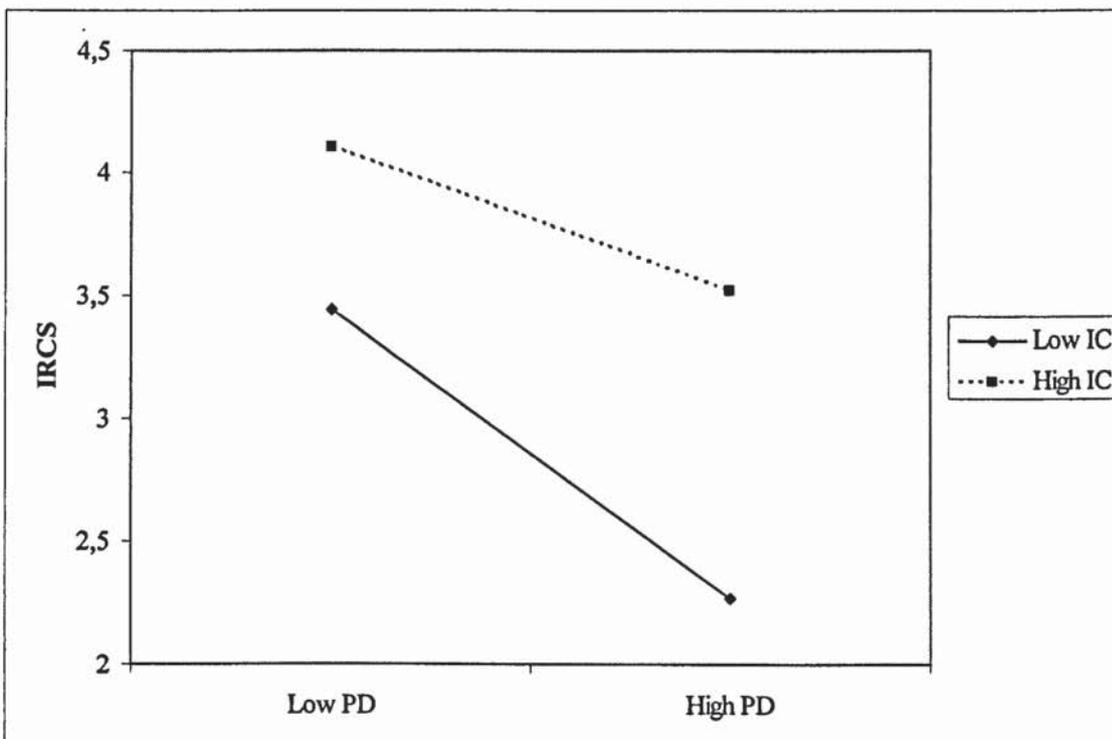


Figure 9.2

Illustrative plot of the interaction between professional development and internal communication on in-role customer service behaviour



9.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, a discussion of the results of the thesis has been presented. Briefly, a theoretical model of the antecedents of PSBs from an employee perspective was tested. Internal communication, professional development and empowerment were shown to influence PSBs directly. Job attitudes, however, partially mediate the relationships between the managerial strategies and PSBs. These findings enhance our understanding of the effect of managerial strategies on employee behaviours.

In the next and final chapter of this thesis, the contributions and implications of this study are described, the research limitations are detailed and, finally, suggestions for further research are explored.

10. CONTRIBUTIONS, IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

10.1 Introduction

Within this final chapter of this dissertation, four topics are covered in three sections. In order to contribute to the literature, a two-phase dissertation was developed, designed and implemented. The contributions of the dissertation are described in the first section. The second section details the implications for theory and practice stemming from the findings of this dissertation. Finally, the limitations of this dissertation are explored and the opportunities for further research are sketched.

10.2 Contributions of the study

In the previous chapter, the results of the study were discussed, which is continued in this chapter by the description of the contribution of this dissertation to the literature. Although the literatures that deal with employee behaviours and services have developed tremendously over the past decades, several contributions to the literature are made by this unique study.

This dissertation contributes to the theoretical body of research on employee behaviour literature by focusing on the determinants of PSBs from an employee perspective. Few studies have investigated service specific employee behaviours and

its predictor variable, which is surprising given the importance of services to most economies around the world. More specifically, organisational level managerial strategies were modelled as predictors of employee job attitudes and PSBs in the conceptual framework of this dissertation.

As the retained model of Figure 8.2 (see page 218) illustrates, internal communication, professional development and empowerment all influence PSBs, but not uniformly, and only partial support for the mediating role of job attitudes was found. The employee perspective on the influence of the aforementioned interventions on their job attitudes and behaviour is important to consider as it is employees, after all, who mainly interact with customers. Managerial perceptions of the effectiveness of interventions may not be shared by employees. Thus, managerial strategies are important determinants of PSBs but job attitudes are less so.

Attention now turns to theoretical contributions of this dissertation at the construct level. Research into service specific employee behaviours is in its infancy compared to other types of behaviours, such as OCBs. Bettencourt and Brown (1997) developed and tested the PSB constructs in the US in a non-routine service context. The validation of the PSBs construct in the UK and the travel service industry is, consequently, an important contribution to theory.

Although internal communication is recognised as being important the literature, little empirical research has been published on this topic. This dissertation and publications that emanate from it, such as Ackfeldt and Wong (2006), therefore contribute to the literature by including organisational level internal communication

as a predictor variable in the conceptual model. The results show that internal communication is an important determinant of PSBs in the participating organisation. Interestingly, internal communication was also found to neutralise the effect of professional development, as the plots in Figures 9.1 and 9.2 (see page 240) clearly illustrate. Thus, the significance of internal communication on professional development and employee service behaviours from an employee perspective has been highlighted in this study.

The final contribution of this dissertation refers to the context of the study. The determinants of the performance of PSBs in a travel service organisation from an employee perspective have been studied. The travel service industry offers routine types of services to its passengers. Routine services are less complex than non-routine services and require fewer specialised skills by the employees who deliver the service and interact with the customers during a service encounter. Much of the published research on employee behaviours in general and service behaviours in particular has studied these behaviours in retail banking.

The importance of the findings of this dissertation is not limited to theoretical and methodological contributions to the literature, as outlined above. The implications for theory and practice emanating from this dissertation are also an important part of this research. These implications are discussed next.

10.3 Implications for theory and practice

This section will discuss the implications for theory and practice that have been derived from the findings of this study. The issues will be linked to each of the theoretical constructs: PSBs (extra- and in-role customer service behaviours and cooperation), organisational commitment, job satisfaction, internal communication, professional development and empowerment. The discussion begins with PSBs.

PSBs

Researchers working on OCBs and related employee behaviours by and large conceptualise these constructs as being multi-dimensional. However, this approach assumes that the proposed antecedents influence different forms of behaviours uniformly. To test this assumption, the three dimensions of PSBs were modelled as separate constructs. The results show that the managerial strategies in the model do not influence job attitudes and the three types of PSBs uniformly, which is important to note for both academics and practitioners.

Although the three types of PSBs are related, they are distinct types of behaviour that future research ought to continue to investigate as separate constructs. Our knowledge of the drivers of employee behaviours can only be significantly forwarded by studying differential effects of posited antecedents on different types of employee behaviours, whether internally or externally directed, in the future.

Possessing both the knowledge about what interventions influence particular forms

of employee service behaviours is important for managers to have but perhaps more importantly being able to act on such knowledge. It is only by implementing appropriate interventions that affect the consistent performance of service related employee behaviours positively during service encounters that customer perceptions of service quality will increase.

From an academic perspective, more research needs to be conducted to identify other drivers of the various forms of PSBs so that practitioners can apply this knowledge. In an increasingly competitive environment where many firms have improved on their service delivery and customers demand better service quality, the importance of FLE behaviour during service encounters cannot be ignored by firms.

With respect to the implications for the organisation that took part in this study, the results of the data analysis suggest the Organisation should re-consider their staff training and development programme and its content. It may be that the importance of training and development of their employees' skills in service delivery has diminished over time. Continuing with the large scale training and development programmes in its current form may be seen counter productive and ought to be stopped as this may be allocating scarce resources ineffectively and could be put to better use.

The importance of internal communication to the performance of service behaviours has, on the other hand, been highlighted in the findings of this study. It appears from the findings that the sponsoring organisation's internal communication strategy has worked very well. The employees perceive that they have the information about what

is going on in the organisation and receive the information they need to do their job well, which translates into how they serve their customers.

Cooperation among colleagues is important to foster as this is likely to mean that customer service is ultimately improved. Empowerment was shown to influence cooperation positively as well as prescribed service behaviours, which means that customers receive better service when employees are free to respond in an appropriate manner.

Job attitudes

The theoretical model proposed that job satisfaction and organisational commitment mediate the relationship between the managerial strategies and PSBs. However, limited support was found for this proposition. Recall that job satisfaction and organisational commitment were found to mediate the relationship between professional development and extra-role customer service behaviours but not for in-role customer service behaviours or cooperative behaviours. This lack of support for the link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment and employee behaviours is not uncommon in the literature. The question is why the theoretical and logical relationship between attitudes and behaviour is lacking in a work context.

As discussed in the previous chapter, it is quite possible that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are not specific enough to act as predictors of employee

behaviours. The development of more specific job attitude scales that match specific behaviour is a possible solution to this lack of consistency in findings.

Managerial strategies

The role of internal communication in employee behaviour research is new, which means there is more work to be done. This thesis found that internal communication influence customer directed employee service behaviours positively. However, this relationship remains to be confirmed by future research. Further research into the domain of internal communication is recommended as this area of communication within a service context is under researched. In addition to organisational level communication, which was studied in this thesis, future research should look at internal communication at the individual level. That is, communication between manager/supervisor and the employee.

The findings of this thesis do suggest that internal communication is important to FLE behaviour, which implies that senior managers should be concerned with the effective flow of information within their firm. This, in turn, suggests that firms should ensure that an internal communication strategy is formulated and implemented. Care should be taken that an employee perspective on the content and delivery modes of internal communication is taken into account during this process, as the employee point of view may be different from a managerial perspective.

The role of professional development in employee behaviour research is relatively new. Ackfeldt and Coote (2005) found in their study in a retail setting that job attitudes mediate the relationship between professional development and OCBs. Based on logic and with the finding from Ackfeldt and Coote (2005) in mind, the counterintuitive negative relationship between professional development and all three PSB constructs found in this thesis was both surprising and unexpected. It is clear that further research is needed to enable us to draw any firm conclusions about the relationship between professional development and employee behaviours. Within the context of this study it is fair to say that the relationship between these variables is more complex than hypothesised, as the additional analysis reported in the previous chapter demonstrates.

In this thesis, internal communication was found to neutralise the influence of professional development on PSBs. A plausible explanation for this finding is that internal communication is more important to employees as relevant information helps them perform their jobs better, not the training and development activities that they have engaged in. The content of the training and development activities may have been designed to influence employee attitudes towards their jobs and customer service rather than their actual behaviour. This may explain the partial support for the mediating role of job attitudes on the professional development-PSB relationship.

A positive indirect effect of professional development on extra-role customer service was found, which is similar to Ackfeldt and Coote's (2005) findings. Professional development and training activities has, consequently, an important role to play in firms as job attitudes are positively affected. Thus, the findings of this study ought

not to be used as an excuse by practitioners to justify a decreased allocation of resources to training and development activities. Rather, senior managers need to consider the reasons for providing staff training and development programmes and what the desired outcomes of such interventions are. Careful consideration with regard to what the content of training and development programmes should be is imperative and what the consequences on jobs and work practices are. It may be that job descriptions need to be amended to reflect such changes. Such amendments communicate that interventions have specific purposes that require some sort of change in the behaviour of employees.

Empowerment is an important to the performance of prescribes service behaviours and cooperation between employees. Employees who feel they are empowered are better able to respond to customer needs and want, which is essential for all levels of managers to recognise.

10.4 Limitations of the study and directions for future research

It has to be recognised that all research efforts suffer from limitations. This dissertation is no exception to the rule. These limitations need to be acknowledged, which this section of the dissertation does as well as sketching the opportunities for future research. The content is divided into the following areas: the research design, measurement issues and response rate.

A limitation, but also strength, of this study is the single company research design, which has implications for the generalisability of the findings emanating from the study. Owing to sample availability, however, it was not possible to study the antecedents of PSBs in other organisations. Repeat studies in additional firms operating within the travel service industry, other service contexts outside the financial service sector and in different countries would be very beneficial. This could enable researchers to generalise the findings. To enable assertions of causality between variables, future studies should also aim to be longitudinal.

Consistent with classical test theory, most research in social science in general and marketing in particular, the indicators for the latent variables in this thesis are assumed to be reflective, as opposed to cause or formative indicators (Bollen 1989; Burke Jarvis, MacKenzie and Podsakoff 2003; Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer 2001). The constructs used in this study are primarily attitudinal, which are generally considered reflective in nature (Bollen 1989; Burke Jarvis, MacKenzie and Podsakoff 2003; Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer 2001). However, it is recognised that this assumption may be erroneous and that the indicators may cause the latent variables measured rather than being caused by it. For instance, PSBs may be considered a formative indicator construct based on the decision criteria developed by Burke Jarvis, MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2003). Further research is needed to ascertain the causal priority between the indicators for PSBs and PSBs itself.

As discussed previously (see section 7.4), this thesis relies on self-reported data. This thesis takes an employee perspective, which means the perception of individual employees about what factors influence their behaviours was sought after. Also,

discretionary behaviours are especially difficult to observe by others organisational members (Allen et al. 2000; Bettencourt, Gwinner and Meuter 2001; Moorman 1991; Organ and Konovsky 1989). Individual employees were consequently seen as the best source for rating his/her behaviour in this instance. However, relying on self-reported data only may not always be sufficient (Allen et al. 2000; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994; Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer 1996; Schappe 1998).

Future research into the antecedents and/or outcomes of employee service behaviours should consider collecting data from multiple raters to evaluate said behaviours. That is, managers/supervisors, sub-ordinates, peers and/or customers could be asked to provide service behaviour ratings for individual FLEs in addition to self-reports. Using multiple sources for generating performance evaluations may be referred to as “*360° ratings*” (Borman 1997).

Some organisations use the “*360° ratings*” method for job performance evaluations in order to provide employees with feedback concerning their job performance and developmental needs (Borman 1997). In a service or retail setting, managers and/or supervisors, co-workers and/or customers would be able provide valuable data on employee performance of service behaviours (Hartline and Ferrell 1996). Who the most appropriate raters are will depend on the aim(s) of the research. However, it has to be recognised that it is likely that only large organisations have the resources to implement such a programme. A cost-benefit analysis of implementing a “*360° ratings*” programme would also be needed. Considering the, commonly, high employee turnover in services and retail organisation, it may not be as beneficial as in other contexts.

What customers consider good service to be and what they expect from a service encounter will vary, for instance across services contexts, organisations and national cultures. For instance, what a Japanese customer shopping in a department store expects in terms of service levels is likely to be different compared with a UK shopper. Similarly, what is considered to be good service behaviours will vary. It would be particularly interesting from a managerial perspective to find out what effect cultures, i.e. the culture at large as well as organisational and group cultures, have on the performance of PSBs. Cross-cultural research on OCBs has started to emerge, but to date little is known about PSBs with respect to this issue.

This study is one of the first that has taken place outside the US. Podsakoff and his colleagues (2000) suggest that culture may have several distinct effects on the performance of OCBs, which would also apply to PSBs. For instance, the types of observed behaviours in organisations, thus influencing the factor structure, may differ across cultures. The moderating effects between behaviours and its predictor and outcome variables may also vary, as may the mean levels of behaviour. Furthermore, the mechanisms through which PSBs arise and influence other variables may vary (Podsakoff et al. 2000).

The research on employee service behaviour has so far been at the individual level (c.f. Bettencourt and Brown 1997, 2003; Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie 2005; Bettencourt, Gwinner and Meuter 2001). Future research into employee service behaviour could compare whether the unit of analysis makes a difference to the findings. The unit of analysis in employee behaviour research is typically the

individual. A notable exception is George and Bettenhausen's (1990) study where the unit of analysis is the group.

With regard to the response rate, it is sufficient for the analysis reported in this thesis. However, a larger number of respondents would have enabled the researcher to conduct additional types of analysis, such as multi-group analyses in LISREL, which would have been useful in detecting interaction effects. Larger sample sizes make it easier to identify moderators, even when using multiple regression analysis (Podsakoff et al. 1995). Further research into the predictors of PSBs should therefore strive for larger sample sizes.

Based on the in-depth interviews conducted in the organisation under study, self-efficacy appears to be an important issue for empowerment and service behaviours. Self-efficacy is defined as an individual's beliefs or self-confidence about his/her ability to perform a particular task (Maurer 2001). Some of the employees interviewed suggest that the training and development programme were important to them and terms of building up their self-confidence to dare to be empowered and their ability provide better service to the organisation's customers. This supports the results from psychological and organisational behaviour research, which has found that a positive relationship between self-efficacy and employee attitudes and behaviour (Maurer 2001).

Self-efficacy is consequently a powerful person's characteristic (Maurer 2001). Including self-efficacy in future services marketing and/or management studies aimed at identifying additional factors that enhance the performance of service

behaviours could shed more light on the role of self-efficacy in a service delivery context. Self-efficacy for service delivery could be argued to be particularly important to develop in employees who are new to positions that involve customer service or changing jobs that require new, additional or specialised service delivery or recovery skills.

The effect of some management specific organisational level mechanisms on employee job attitudes and service behaviours were investigated in this study. The outcome of this study suggests that management strategies do have a direct impact upon employee performance of all three types of PSBs, which is positively linked to organisational performance via customers' perceptions of service quality and customer satisfaction. However, additional management strategies that are leadership specific, such as a supportive leadership style and feedback (as a form of internal communication), ought to be investigated in future research.

Leadership research abounds. It is probably more appropriate to refer to column miles rather than inches when referring to publications on leadership and leadership related topics. However, there is a paucity of research into leadership substitute in various service and retail contexts. More specifically, identification of the leadership substitute variables that act as determinants of job attitudes and PSBs would be beneficial to organisations. At present, research into this area has been largely limited to OCBs (Podsakoff et al. 1996). Determining variables that act as substitutes for leadership in service and retail organisation would be beneficial for practitioners.

It is often assumed that the display of high levels of service behaviours by FLEs always is desirable. From a customer's perspective, high or higher than expected levels of service behaviours FLEs perform will generally be perceived as positive. However, it may not be positive from an organisational perspective. For example, higher levels of PSBs are associated with higher costs (e.g. consumption of organisational resources) and implies that reduce time and effort is spent on routine tasks, which reduces productivity. Future studies should, therefore, more fully assess the trade-off between the displays of customer and/or service oriented behaviours and service worker productivity (Singh 2000).

The published research on PSBs is primarily based US data and mainly in retail banking (such as Bettencourt and Brown 1997; Bettencourt, Brown and MacKenzie 2005). A third related study on service oriented OCBs were conducted on call centre and university library employees in the US (Bettencourt, Gwinner and Meuter 2001). Earlier work by George (1990, 1991) as well as by George and Bettenhausen (1990) on service oriented POB were also conducted in the US on sales staff in department stores. This thesis, and publications based on it (including Ackfeldt and Wong 2006), seeks to enhance our understanding of what the antecedent of the performance of employee service behaviours are by conducting research in the UK and in a travel service organisation. Future research into this important area of research ought to be widened further. Research into additional types of service organisations, as well as in other countries, are needed to increase our knowledge further on this important topic.

10.5 Conclusion

This thesis has developed a theoretical framework of PSBs and their direct and indirect antecedents by integrating literature from past research in the areas of marketing, management, organisational behaviour and psychology. The study makes some important contributions to the literature.

Employee performance plays an important part in the viability of organisations because of how organisational effectiveness is affected (Bacon 2004; Ilgen and Pulakos 1999). This applied to all organisations in general (Ilgen and Pulakos 1999) and service organisations in particular, as they tend to be personnel intensive.

In summary, this study represents an attempt to build a more comprehensive model of PSBs and test this model in an area that is under-researched. The initial rest of the conceptual model and competing models in a service context provided, overall, good support for the research hypotheses. However, more work remains to be done.

Further qualitative work is needed to improve and refine the PSBs measures. This foundation of sound measurement is needed before further large-scale quantitative work can proceed with confidence. Only through such systematic and careful research efforts can managers and employees benefit by the development of a more productive and enjoyable work climate, which in the long-term have a positive effect on organisational performance. This study is only a first step towards such an important goal.

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Appendix A
Interview guide

Interview Guide
In-Depth Interviews with Employees

Interviewer copy

Interview: E _____

Date: _____

1. How long have you been employed by the organisation for?

2. What is your current position? How long have you held this position?

3. Have you held other positions in the organisation? If so, for how long have you held each position?

4. How good do you think you are at your job?

5. How satisfied are you with your job overall?

6. What things do you think contribute to your satisfaction/dissatisfaction with your job?

Probe:

- empowerment
- leadership
- communication flow
- team support
- organisational support
- training
- reward based system – behaviour based and outcome based
- role overload
- role conflict and role ambiguity
- role stress

7. How well suited to you think you are to the company as an organisation? Why?

8. How committed to your job and to the company are you? Why?

Probe

- liking
- switching costs – costs are too high to leave
- time (see yourself continuing to work for the organisation for some time to come)

9. If you were free to move, would you look for a similar job outside the organisation?

10. Who do you think are your customers?

Probe

- internal

11. What do you think about customer service at the organisation?

Probe

- Is the company committed to customer service?
- Do they help you to provide good customer service

Additional

- effort to serve needs
- prompt service
- efficient service
- good reputation for service
- service performance emphasised

11. How do you rate your own ability to provide customer service? Why?

12. What things do you think help you to provide customer service?

Probe

- courteous
- helping others
- get along well with others
- respond to customer needs
- efficiency

13. What things does organisation do to influence this?

Probe

- good
- bad

14. Do you think the organisation 'genuinely' puts the customers first?

15. What do you think are the best things that the organisation offers?

16. Why do you think customers choose to travel with the organisation?

Probe

- services
- products

17. What other things make or influence you as a deliverer of customer service?

Appendix B

Conceptual and operational definitions

Appendix B.1
Conceptual and operational definitions of PSBs

Refers back to the POB/OCB definition, and differentiate the target of the behaviour.

POB refers to the helpful behaviours of employees directed towards the organisation or other individuals. These behaviours are part of the employee's organisational role and are intended to promote the welfare of the individual or organisation at which they are directed (Brief and Motowidlo 1986; Organ 1988; Bettencourt and Brown 1997)

Contact employees PSBs may be directed at either co-workers or consumers (Bettencourt and Brown 1997; Brief and Motowidlo 1986; George 1991; Organ 1988). These behaviours are also partly role-prescribed and extra-role, as opposed to OCB, which are all extra-role behaviours.

Extra-role customer service refers to discretionary behaviours of contact employees in serving customers that extend beyond formal role requirements (Bettencourt and Brown 1997, p. 41).

Role-prescribed customer service refers to expected employee behaviours in serving the firm's customers (Bettencourt and Brown 1997; Brief and Motowidlo 1986), which may stem from implicit work place norms and/or explicit obligations specified in job specifications and performance evaluation forms (Bettencourt and Brown 1997, p. 42).

Co-operation refers to helpful behaviours of contact employees to other members of their immediate workgroup (Bettencourt and Brown 1997, p. 42), (i.e. a form of internal service quality) this is an important behaviour to as it affect the provision of exceptional external customer service quality and service delivery (Bettencourt and Brown 1997, p. 42).

Co-operation is considered in the literature to be extra-role behaviours as employees are generally not evaluated on these behaviours and are generally not included in job descriptions (Bettencourt and Brown 1997; Organ 1988; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994).

Appendix B.1 (continued)
Conceptual and operational definitions of PSBs

Extra-role customer service

I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond job requirements.
I help customers with problems beyond what is expected or required of me by management.
I often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers.
I willingly go out of my way to make a customer satisfied.
I frequently go out of my way to help a customer.
I enjoy “going the extra mile” to make a customer satisfied.
I do not feel it is necessary to assist customers above and beyond my job requirements.

Role-prescribed customer service

I perform all of those tasks for customers that are required of me by management.
I meet formal performance requirements when serving customers.
I fulfil responsibilities to customers as specified in my job description.
I adequately complete all expected customer-service behaviours.
I help customers with those things that are required of me by management.
I perform all of those tasks for customers that are required of me by my job description
I know what the expected performance requirements for serving customers are.

*Cooperation**

I help my team members who have heavy work loads.
I am always ready to lend a helping hand to team members.
I take time out of my day to help train new team members, although it is not required of me.
I voluntarily give my time to help my team members.
I willingly help team members who have work related problems.
I touch base with other team members before taking actions that might affect them.
I share my knowledge and expertise with other team members.

Bettencourt and Brown (1997)

* Bettencourt and Brown (1997) modified Podsakoff et al.’s (1997) OCB Helping Behaviour subscale; the other two scales are developed by Bettencourt and Brown (1997) for this study. I added items the last two items of all three scales based on face validity and pre-tests of questionnaire.

Appendix B.2

Conceptual and operational definitions of affective organisational commitment

The affective component of commitment refers to employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation (Allen and Meyer 1990).

I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.

I enjoy discussing my work at this organisation with people outside it.

I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.

I don't think that I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one.

I feel like "part of the family" at "my" organisation.

I feel emotionally attached to this organisation.

This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

I feel a strong sense of belonging to "my" organisation.

Allen and Meyer (1990)

Appendix B.3

Conceptual and operational definitions of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a positive emotional state that results from team members' appraisal of their job situation (Babin and Boles 1998).

I feel satisfied with my present job.

I definitely like my work.

I am happy that I took this job.

My job is very pleasant.

My job is very worthwhile.

I am very content with my job.

Babin and Boles (1998) and Singh, Verbeke and Rhoads (1996).

Appendix B.4

Conceptual and operational definitions of internal communication

There is not really a conceptual definition offered in the literature. Internal communication also discussed as organisational communication, business communication and employee communication in various types of literature.

Organisational perspectives

I am regularly notified about important changes that occur in my company.

I am adequately informed about my company's financial position.

I am made aware of the overall policies and goals of my company.

I am information about government action affecting my company.

I receive information about accomplishments and/or failures of the organisation.

Organisational integration

I regularly receive information on our department's plans.

I regularly receive communication from the personnel department.

I regularly receive information on the requirements of my job.

I regularly receive information about departmental policies and goals.

I regularly receive information about benefits and pay.

Media quality

Meetings in this company are well organised.

We hold personnel meetings to discuss relevant issues only.

Written internal communication (i.e. newsletters, brochures, magazines, internal memos) is adequate.

The written instructions and guidelines I receive are clear and concise.

Conduit and Mavondo (2001) and Mueller and Lee (2002)

Appendix B.5

Conceptual and operational definitions of professional development

Professional growth can occur when team members are provided with training and professional development opportunities that match their particular needs and interests (Hart 1994).

I am encouraged to pursue further learning and development. PD1

There are opportunities in this organisation for developing new skills. PD2

This organisation offers training courses that match my particular needs. PD3

I am provided with opportunities for learning and development. PD4

I am encouraged to seek opportunities for professional growth. PD5

Leaders in this organisation have encouraged me to think about career planning. PD6

Opportunities for advancement exist in this organisation. PD7

Based on Hart (1992)

Appendix B.6

Conceptual and operational definitions of empowerment

Empowerment refers to situations in which the manager gives team members the discretion to make day-to-day decisions about job-related activities (Hartline and Ferrell 1996).

My supervisor trusts me to exercise good judgement.

My supervisor has confidence in my ability to make decisions.

I have the authority to make decisions.

My supervisor encourages me to use my initiative.

My supervisor assigns tasks, and then lets me handle them.

I feel empowered to make day-to-day decisions.

Hartline and Ferrell (1996)

I am empowered at work.

Appendix C
Survey instrument



My name is Anna Ackfeldt. I am currently completing a PhD at Aston University in Birmingham. You are in a position to help me with my PhD by filling in this questionnaire.

This questionnaire attempts to explore your attitudes about your work at Stena Line. Please think about your work environment when you answer. There are no right or wrong answers to these questions. Read each question carefully and answer honestly.

The first three sections of the survey consist of a series of statements. Please answer these questions by circling the number that best reflects your response to each statement. The last section of the questionnaire asks general questions about you.

You will notice that some of the statements are similar. The questions are worded like this on purpose to improve the study's usefulness.

Be assured that your answers are completely confidential. Individuals will not be identified and only aggregated results will be reported to Stena Line.

The example below provides an illustration of how to answer the questions.

	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
I am committed to providing good service.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Employees in this organisation have a positive attitude towards their jobs.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I feel that I work co-operatively with other people in my work unit.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

If you have any questions about the purpose of the study or how to answer the questions please phone me, Anna Ackfeldt, at Aston Business School on 0121 359 3011, ext. 5954 during office hours or e-mail A.Ackfeldt@aston.ac.uk.

Please answer all the questions and return the questionnaire to me in the envelope provided. The questionnaire should take about twenty minutes to complete.

Thank you, I appreciate your help!

Section 1

Think about your work attitudes and behaviours when you answer the questions in the section below.

	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
I enjoy going the extra mile to make a customer satisfied.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I was taught to believe the value of remaining loyal to one organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I work under incompatible policies and guidelines.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I help customers with those things that are required of me by management.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I am always ready to lend a helping hand to team members.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I definitely like my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I willingly help team members who have work related problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I feel satisfied with my present job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I am not always sure that I have divided my time properly between tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I perform all of those tasks for customers that are required of me by management.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I think that people these days move from company to company too often.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I frequently go out of my way to help customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I share my knowledge and expertise with other team members.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I sometimes receive incompatible requests from two or more people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
I do things at work that are considered acceptable by some but not others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
If I got another offer for a better job elsewhere I would feel it was wrong to leave my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I am sometimes given work tasks without adequate resources to complete them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I rarely go beyond my strict job requirements in serving customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I fulfil responsibilities to customers as specified in my job description.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I need more time to do what is expected of me on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
My work tasks have been clearly explained.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I know what my responsibilities at work are.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I help customers with problems beyond what is expected or required of me by management.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I know exactly what is expected of me at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I enjoy discussing my work at this organisation with people outside it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
It often seems like I have too much work for one person to do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
My job is very worthwhile.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
I feel like part of the family at my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organisation for most of their careers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I voluntarily assist customers even if it means going beyond job requirements.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I meet formal performance requirements when serving customers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Wanting to be a company man or woman is a sensible thing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I could easily become as attached to another organisation as I am to this one.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I sometimes have to break a rule or policy to get my work done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I am happy that I took this job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I am afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another lined up.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
A serious consequence of leaving this organisation is the scarcity of available alternatives.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I do not feel it is necessary to assist customers beyond my job requirements.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Meeting the demands of my job is very stressful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I feel emotionally attached to this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I voluntarily give my time to help my team members.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I am very content with my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

	Strongly disagree	1 <th>2 <th>3 <th>4 <th>5 <th>6 <th>7</th> <th>Strongly agree</th> </th></th></th></th></th>	2 <th>3 <th>4 <th>5 <th>6 <th>7</th> <th>Strongly agree</th> </th></th></th></th>	3 <th>4 <th>5 <th>6 <th>7</th> <th>Strongly agree</th> </th></th></th>	4 <th>5 <th>6 <th>7</th> <th>Strongly agree</th> </th></th>	5 <th>6 <th>7</th> <th>Strongly agree</th> </th>	6 <th>7</th> <th>Strongly agree</th>	7	Strongly agree
I feel that the requirements of my job are beyond me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
One of the reasons I stay at this organisation is that I believe that loyalty is important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
There are no clear planned goals and objectives for my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I willingly go out of my way to make a customer satisfied.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I touch base with other team members before taking actions that might affect them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Jumping from organisation to organisation does seem unethical to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I often have to rush to complete my work on time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I know what the expected performance requirements for serving customers are.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I take time out of my day to help train new team members, although it is not required of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
It would be too costly for me to leave my organisation now.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I feel that the demands of my job are overwhelming.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I help my team members who have heavy work loads.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I have to do things at work that I think should be done differently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I adequately complete all expected customer-service behaviours.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I am sometimes given work to do, but not the resources to support me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
My job is very pleasant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

Section 2

When you answer the following questions, think about the work environment in your organisation.

	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
Leaders in this organisation see possibilities rather than problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation assign tasks, and then let employees handle them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I regularly receive information about organisational policies and goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation are very clear about who is responsible for what.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Opportunities for advancement exist in this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation experiment with new ways of doing things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I regularly receive communication from other work units that affect me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders give me recognition for my efforts.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation are friendly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I regularly receive information on the plans for my work unit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation push for growth.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation create an atmosphere free of conflict.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation stand up for their subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I regularly receive information about how the work units should work together as a whole.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation offer ideas about new and different ways of doing things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation make quick decisions when necessary.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
Leaders in this organisation plan carefully.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation have initiated new projects.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders report on how problems in my job are handled.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation create order.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I am encouraged to seek opportunities for professional growth.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation are willing to take risks in decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation analyse and think things through before making decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation are considerate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
We hold personnel meetings to discuss important work issues.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I am adequately informed about my organisation's financial position.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation have an open and honest style.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I am made aware of the overall policies and goals of my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I am provided with opportunities for learning and development.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation like to discuss new ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation encourage thinking along new lines.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Written internal communication (i.e. newsletters, brochures, magazines, internal memos) is adequate.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
There are opportunities in this organisation for developing new skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation follow plans exactly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
I receive information about how my job compares with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation give thought to plans for the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I have the authority to make decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I am regularly notified about important changes that occur in my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I am informed about external events affecting my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation have encouraged me to think about career planning.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation are flexible and ready to rethink their point of view.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation define and explain the work requirements clearly to subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation have confidence in my ability to make decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I receive information about accomplishments (and failures) of this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
The written instructions and guidelines I receive are clear and concise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation allow their subordinates to make decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Meetings in this organisation are well organised.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I know how my job performance is being appraised.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation treat their subordinates fairly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation make a point of following rules and principles.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I feel empowered to make day-to-day decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation give clear instructions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
I periodically receive feedback from leaders on my job performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation encourage me to use my initiative.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation set clear goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation have the trust of their subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation trust me to exercise good judgement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Feedback from leaders has been useful in improving my job performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation rely on their subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I am encouraged to pursue further learning and development.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation are controlling in their supervision of work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
This organisation offers training courses that match my particular needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I regularly receive information on how my job relates to the work of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Leaders in this organisation respect the subordinates as individuals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

Section 3

Think about yourself when you answer the questions below.

	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
The best job I can imagine would involve assisting others in solving their problems.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I sometimes feel resentful when I do not get my way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
I pride myself in providing courteous service.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I enjoy helping others.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I can get along with almost anyone.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
No matter who I am talking to, I am always a good listener.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
It is natural for me to be considerate of others' needs.		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

Section 4

Please answer the following questions about you.

1. I am a male female.
2. I am _____ years of age.
3. I have worked for Stena Line for _____ years.

4. I have a permanent casual position at Stena Line.

5. I work as a:

- Cabin assistant Team member ashore
- Senior cabin assistant Supervisor/manager ashore
- Supervisor/manager onboard other _____

6. I regularly attend Stena Line's training programmes

- yes no

7. Which is your highest achieved level of formal education?

- 'O' level standard Bachelor degree
- 'A' level/HNC other _____

8. Compared to other employees, I am one of the top performers in this organisation.

Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

9. Most of my working day involves interaction with customers.

Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Thank you for completing the questionnaire!

Appendix D

Co-variance matrices for the observed variables

Appendix D.1

Co-variance matrix for the observed variables for extra-role customer service

	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5	x_6	x_7
x_1	1.254						
x_2	0.808	1.361					
x_3	0.546	0.736	1.149				
x_4	0.724	0.759	0.568	1.143			
x_5	0.669	0.805	0.912	0.726	1.443		
x_6	0.473	0.695	0.729	0.651	0.816	1.318	
x_7	0.233	0.338	0.384	0.276	0.399	0.132	2.946

Appendix D.2

Co-variance matrix for the observed variables for in-role customer service

	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5	x_6	x_7
x_1	1.076						
x_2	0.565	1.315					
x_3	0.619	0.684	1.488				
x_4	0.482	0.675	0.632	1.169			
x_5	0.626	0.397	0.485	0.301	1.421		
x_6	0.042	0.390	0.237	0.151	-0.116	2.527	
x_7	0.559	0.739	0.711	0.697	0.356	0.135	1.346

Appendix D.3

Co-variance matrix for the observed variables for cooperation

	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5	x_6	x_7
x_1	1.181						
x_2	0.399	0.706					
x_3	0.406	0.147	2.129				
x_4	0.567	0.347	0.575	1.409			
x_5	0.416	0.456	0.445	0.482	1.028		
x_6	0.284	0.297	0.250	0.485	0.551	1.320	
x_7	0.337	0.338	0.409	0.434	0.471	0.377	0.803

Appendix D.4

Co-variance matrix for the observed variables for organisational commitment

	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5	x_6	x_7	x_8
x_1	3.236							
x_2	1.397	3.256						
x_3	1.516	1.328	2.719					
x_4	-0.365	0.070	0.086	1.847				
x_5	1.509	1.649	1.273	-0.094	2.707			
x_6	0.091	0.065	0.193	0.099	0.346	3.558		
x_7	1.826	1.506	1.605	-0.304	1.927	0.147	2.793	
x_8	1.882	1.605	1.522	-0.089	1.830	0.158	2.063	2.930

Appendix D.5

Co-variance matrix for the observed variables for job satisfaction

	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5	x_6
x_1	2.553					
x_2	1.614	2.135				
x_3	1.335	1.327	2.048			
x_4	1.554	1.417	1.394	2.283		
x_5	1.659	1.431	1.370	1.303	2.374	
x_6	2.123	1.810	1.645	1.860	1.783	2.852

Appendix D.6

Co-variance matrix for the observed variables for internal communication

	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5	x_6	x_7	x_8	x_9	x_{10}
x_1	1.894									
x_2	1.214	2.587								
x_3	1.061	1.344	2.047							
x_4	1.535	1.355	1.178	2.425						
x_5	1.306	1.247	1.328	1.415	2.250					
x_6	1.135	1.140	1.332	1.277	1.107	2.194				
x_7	0.965	0.988	1.074	1.223	1.183	1.271	2.411			
x_8	0.585	0.630	0.713	0.851	0.919	0.791	1.258	2.283		
x_9	0.944	1.279	1.184	1.229	1.286	1.286	1.314	0.622	2.418	
x_{10}	1.017	1.276	1.133	1.273	1.202	1.202	1.353	1.110	1.319	2.211
x_{11}	1.181	1.168	1.210	1.248	1.448	1.448	1.071	0.909	1.190	1.093
x_{12}	1.066	1.265	1.251	1.214	1.240	1.240	1.126	0.934	1.264	1.077
x_{13}	0.906	1.039	0.870	0.799	0.960	0.960	0.721	0.163	0.928	0.885
x_{14}	1.040	0.799	1.065	0.973	1.070	1.071	0.775	0.383	0.788	0.869

	x_{11}	x_{12}	x_{13}	x_{14}
x_{11}	2.170			
x_{12}	1.514	2.586		
x_{13}	0.917	0.652	2.103	
x_{14}	1.021	1.002	0.807	1.662

Appendix D.7

Co-variance matrix for the observed variables for professional development

	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5	x_6	x_7
x_1	2.715						
x_2	1.796	2.637					
x_3	1.865	1.505	2.731				
x_4	1.762	1.756	1.448	2.397			
x_5	1.777	1.595	1.501	1.866	2.807		
x_6	1.544	1.402	1.211	1.293	1.602	2.722	
x_7	1.547	1.371	1.385	1.724	1.784	1.580	3.126

Appendix D.8

Co-variance matrix for the observed variables for empowerment

	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5	x_6
x_1	1.818					
x_2	1.195	1.997				
x_3	1.215	1.146	2.401			
x_4	1.416	1.124	1.336	2.304		
x_5	0.640	0.378	0.445	0.432	1.625	
x_6	1.247	1.085	1.738	1.330	0.371	2.459

Appendix E

Co-variance matrix for the measurement model of PSBs

Appendix E.1

Co-variance matrix for the measurement model of PSBs

	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5	x_6	x_7	x_8	x_9	x_{10}
x_1	1.362									
x_2	0.736	1.149								
x_3	0.805	0.912	1.443							
x_4	0.695	0.729	0.816	1.318						
x_5	0.539	0.381	0.476	0.393	1.315					
x_6	0.584	0.302	0.384	0.331	0.684	1.488				
x_7	0.502	0.428	0.515	0.441	0.675	0.632	1.169			
x_8	0.564	0.320	0.294	0.299	0.739	0.711	0.697	1.346		
x_9	0.497	0.211	0.278	0.232	0.498	0.442	0.521	0.567	1.181	
x_{10}	0.561	0.329	0.382	0.214	0.466	0.539	0.421	0.445	0.567	1.409
x_{11}	0.604	0.499	0.579	0.426	0.445	0.386	0.329	0.358	0.416	0.482
x_{12}	0.371	0.317	0.439	0.267	0.381	0.380	0.363	0.269	0.337	0.343
x_{13}	0.303	0.419	0.401	0.477	0.232	-0.017	0.241	0.090	0.187	0.478
x_{14}	0.367	0.303	0.332	0.322	0.035	-0.003	0.137	0.152	0.277	0.511
x_{15}	0.275	0.486	0.449	0.531	0.122	-0.147	0.159	0.094	0.138	0.440
x_{16}	0.291	0.182	0.269	0.320	0.122	0.182	0.156	0.087	0.225	0.461
x_{17}	0.401	0.211	0.237	0.345	0.186	0.226	0.215	0.216	0.214	0.422
x_{18}	0.356	0.255	0.256	0.334	0.127	0.186	0.217	0.180	0.231	0.536
x_{19}	0.213	0.268	0.279	0.262	0.246	0.314	0.360	0.493	0.319	0.343
x_{20}	0.213	0.284	0.314	0.295	0.249	0.244	0.358	0.434	0.304	0.381
x_{21}	0.274	0.183	0.267	0.208	0.336	0.247	0.429	0.424	0.438	0.367
x_{22}	0.122	0.295	0.262	0.273	-0.135	-0.187	-0.063	-0.007	0.185	0.096
x_{23}	0.076	0.190	0.239	0.262	0.047	-0.016	0.274	0.178	0.278	0.100
x_{24}	-0.065	0.133	0.042	-0.032	-0.071	-0.031	0.021	0.085	0.205	0.248
x_{25}	-0.003	0.107	-0.030	0.336	-0.351	-0.249	-0.304	-0.225	-0.257	0.080
x_{26}	-0.012	0.091	0.078	0.190	-0.094	-0.050	-0.012	0.096	0.225	0.173
x_{27}	0.329	0.136	0.170	0.184	0.346	0.368	0.348	0.438	0.478	0.635
x_{28}	0.135	0.186	0.271	0.213	0.130	0.155	0.333	0.240	0.186	0.427
x_{29}	0.197	-0.015	0.071	0.061	0.246	0.221	0.335	0.351	0.504	0.566
x_{30}	0.355	0.171	0.203	0.138	0.209	0.285	0.263	0.312	0.437	0.550

Appendix E.1 (continued)

Co-variance matrix for the measurement model of PSBs

	x_{11}	x_{12}	x_{13}	x_{14}	x_{15}	x_{16}	x_{17}	x_{18}	x_{19}	x_{20}
x_{11}	1.028									
x_{12}	0.471	0.803								
x_{13}	0.177	0.443	2.482							
x_{14}	0.310	0.304	1.585	2.315						
x_{15}	0.315	0.341	1.732	1.509	2.180					
x_{16}	0.340	0.415	1.454	1.335	1.094	1.818				
x_{17}	0.212	0.331	1.470	1.263	1.126	1.472	1.813			
x_{18}	0.284	0.403	1.757	1.597	1.367	1.699	1.601	2.198		
x_{19}	0.124	0.216	0.715	0.818	0.690	0.743	0.700	0.694	1.646	
x_{20}	0.068	0.190	0.728	0.855	0.716	0.696	0.659	0.697	1.504	1.581
x_{21}	0.170	0.220	0.558	0.686	0.518	0.610	0.589	0.632	1.017	1.051
x_{22}	0.216	0.141	0.894	0.985	0.974	0.771	0.658	0.890	0.961	0.914
x_{23}	-0.031	0.207	1.095	0.915	0.943	0.891	0.855	0.988	0.994	1.045
x_{24}	0.031	0.165	0.911	1.152	1.017	0.900	0.802	1.096	0.990	0.956
x_{25}	0.002	0.005	0.925	1.172	0.959	0.879	0.720	1.018	0.726	0.805
x_{26}	-0.059	0.147	0.851	0.962	0.853	0.985	0.953	1.135	0.843	0.843
x_{27}	0.256	0.227	0.530	0.637	0.454	0.568	0.572	0.687	0.724	0.805
x_{28}	0.048	0.124	0.587	0.821	0.430	0.644	0.580	0.751	0.847	0.946
x_{29}	0.187	0.177	0.659	0.866	0.594	0.665	0.623	0.869	0.807	0.809
x_{30}	0.164	0.223	0.472	0.570	0.436	0.385	0.329	0.511	0.681	0.759

Appendix E.1 (continued)

Co-variance matrix for the measurement model of PSBs

	x_{21}	x_{22}	x_{23}	x_{24}	x_{25}	x_{26}	x_{27}	x_{28}	x_{29}	x_{30}
x_{21}	1.270									
x_{22}	0.765	2.37								
x_{23}	0.889	1.505	2.731							
x_{24}	0.701	1.595	1.501	2.807						
x_{25}	0.373	1.402	1.211	1.602	2.722					
x_{26}	0.762	1.371	1.385	1.784	1.580	3.126				
x_{27}	0.735	0.530	0.734	0.686	0.524	0.802	1.818			
x_{28}	0.837	0.800	0.941	0.912	0.791	0.885	1.195	1.997		
x_{29}	0.768	1.147	0.954	1.119	0.784	0.938	1.416	1.124	2.304	
x_{30}	0.686	0.900	0.785	0.857	0.392	0.565	1.247	1.085	1.330	2.459

Appendix F

Exploring the negative relationships between professional development and the PSBs

Appendix F.1

Bivariate and partial correlations for extra-role customer service

Correlations

		ercs	pd
ercs	Pearson Correlation	1	,091
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,227
	N	179	179
pd	Pearson Correlation	,091	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,227	
	N	179	179

Partial correlations

Correlations

Control Variables			ercs	pd
comm	ercs	Correlation	1,000	-,096
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	,204
		df	0	176
	pd	Correlation	-,096	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)	,204	.
		df	176	0

Partial correlations

Correlations

Control Variables			ercs	pd
comm & empow	ercs	Correlation	1,000	-,109
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	,149
		df	0	175
	pd	Correlation	-,109	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)	,149	.
		df	175	0

Appendix F.1

Bivariate and partial correlations for extra-role customer service (continued)

Partial correlations

Correlations

Control Variables			ercs	pd
comm & empow & aoc	ercs	Correlation	1,000	-,186
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	,014
		df	0	174
	pd	Correlation	-,186	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)	,014	.
		df	174	0

Partial correlations

Correlations

Control Variables			ercs	pd
comm & empow & aoc & js	ercs	Correlation	1,000	-,184
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	,015
		df	0	173
	pd	Correlation	-,184	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)	,015	.
		df	173	0

Appendix F.2

Bivariate and partial correlations for in-role customer service

Correlations

		ircs	pd
ircs	Pearson Correlation	1	-,045
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,552
	N	179	179
pd	Pearson Correlation	-,045	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,552	
	N	179	179

Partial correlations

Correlations

Control Variables			ircs	pd
comm	ircs	Correlation	1,000	-,329
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	,000
		df	0	176
	pd	Correlation	-,329	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)	,000	.
		df	176	0

Partial correlations

Correlations

Control Variables			ircs	pd
comm & empow	ircs	Correlation	1,000	-,365
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	,000
		df	0	175
	pd	Correlation	-,365	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)	,000	.
		df	175	0

Appendix F.2

Bivariate and partial correlations for in-role customer service (continued)

Partial correlations

Correlations

Control Variables			ircs	pd
comm & empow & aoc	ircs	Correlation	1,000	-,350
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	,000
		df	0	174
	pd	Correlation	-,350	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)	,000	.
		df	174	0

Partial correlations

Correlations

Control Variables			ircs	pd
comm & empow & aoc & js	ircs	Correlation	1,000	-,363
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	,000
		df	0	173
	pd	Correlation	-,363	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)	,000	.
		df	173	0

Appendix F.3

Bivariate and partial correlations for cooperation

Correlations

		coop	pd
coop	Pearson Correlation	1	,104
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,166
	N	179	179
pd	Pearson Correlation	,104	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,166	
	N	179	179

Partial correlations

Correlations

Control Variables			coop	pd
comm	coop	Correlation	1,000	-,109
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	,147
		df	0	176
	pd	Correlation	-,109	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)	,147	.
		df	176	0

Partial correlations

Correlations

Control Variables			coop	pd
comm & empow	coop	Correlation	1,000	-,172
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	,022
		df	0	175
	pd	Correlation	-,172	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)	,022	.
		df	175	0

Appendix F.3

Bivariate and partial correlations for cooperation (continued)

Partial correlations

Correlations

Control Variables			coop	pd
comm & empow & aoc	coop	Correlation	1,000	-,249
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	,001
		df	0	174
	pd	Correlation	-,249	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)	,001	.
		df	174	0

Partial correlations

Correlations

Control Variables			coop	pd
comm & empow & aoc & js	coop	Correlation	1,000	-,265
		Significance (2-tailed)	.	,000
		df	0	173
	pd	Correlation	-,265	1,000
		Significance (2-tailed)	,000	.
		df	173	0

Appendix F.4

Path analyses

Step 1

GAMMA

	COMMUN	PROFDEV	EMPOWER
	-----	-----	-----
ERCS	- -	0.147 (0.086) 1.705	- -
IRCS	- -	0.039 (0.089) 0.436	- -
COOP	- -	0.190 (0.094) 2.020	- -

Step 2

GAMMA

	COMMUN	PROFDEV	EMPOWER
	-----	-----	-----
ERCS	0.362 (0.131) 2.752	-0.139 (0.132) -1.054	- -
IRCS	0.830 (0.142) 5.847	-0.622 (0.137) -4.543	- -
COOP	0.481 (0.147) 3.280	-0.195 (0.142) -1.378	- -

Appendix F.4 (continued)
Path analyses

Step 3

GAMMA

	COMMUN	PROFDEV	EMPOWER
	-----	-----	-----
ERCS	- -	0.053 (0.112)	0.143 (0.112)
		0.475	1.277
IRCS	- -	-0.316 (0.113)	0.536 (0.118)
		-2.791	4.545
COOP	- -	-0.145 (0.116)	0.517 (0.128)
		-1.248	4.051

Step 4

GAMMA

	COMMUN	PROFDEV	EMPOWER
	-----	-----	-----
ERCS	0.349 (0.141)	-0.142 (0.137)	0.023 (0.118)
	2.474	-1.042	0.194
IRCS	0.691 (0.143)	-0.708 (0.142)	0.307 (0.114)
	4.824	-4.990	2.684
COOP	0.304 (0.147)	-0.316 (0.145)	0.413 (0.130)
	2.076	-2.178	3.171

Appendix F.4 (continued)
Path analyses

Step 5

BETA

	ERCS	IRCS	COOP	AFFCOMM	JOBSAT
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
ERCS	- -	- -	- -	0.324 (0.087) 3.735	- -
IRCS	- -	- -	- -	0.001 (0.076) 0.014	- -
COOP	- -	- -	- -	0.327 (0.093) 3.506	- -

GAMMA

	COMMUN	PROFDEV	EMPOWER
	-----	-----	-----
ERCS	0.300 (0.137) 2.194	-0.279 (0.134) -2.077	0.015 (0.115) 0.127
IRCS	0.688 (0.143) 4.805	-0.706 (0.142) -4.975	0.307 (0.114) 2.682
COOP	0.256 (0.144) 1.778	-0.456 (0.148) -3.078	0.412 (0.129) 3.188

Appendix F.4 (continued)
 Path analyses

Step 6

BETA

	ERCS	IRCS	COOP	AFFCOMM	JOBSAT
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
ERCS	- -	- -	- -	0.341 (0.087)	-0.028 (0.078)
				3.922	-0.365
IRCS	- -	- -	- -	-0.131 (0.076)	0.192 (0.075)
				-1.732	2.558
COOP	- -	- -	- -	0.160 (0.087)	0.259 (0.089)
				1.837	2.921

GAMMA

	COMMUN	PROFDEV	EMPOWER
	-----	-----	-----
ERCS	0.298 (0.136)	-0.273 (0.133)	0.016 (0.114)
	2.191	-2.043	0.137
IRCS	0.679 (0.141)	-0.717 (0.140)	0.285 (0.112)
	4.828	-5.122	2.548
COOP	0.260 (0.146)	-0.493 (0.153)	0.396 (0.131)
	1.775	-3.226	3.016

Appendix F.4 (continued)
 Path analyses

Step 7

BETA

	ERCS	IRCS	COOP	AFFCOMM	JOBSAT
	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
ERCS	- -	- -	- -	0.471 (0.200)	-0.137 (0.185)
				2.353	-0.738
IRCS	- -	- -	- -	-0.188 (0.188)	0.299 (0.180)
				-1.003	1.667
COOP	- -	- -	- -	0.169 (0.199)	0.269 (0.191)
				0.851	1.410
AFFCOMM	- -	- -	- -	- -	0.747 (0.092)
					8.132
JOBSAT	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -

Appendix F.4 (continued)
 Path analyses

Step 7 (continued)

GAMMA

	COMMUN	PROFDEV	EMPOWER
	-----	-----	-----
ERCS	0.280	-0.300	0.023
	(0.138)	(0.149)	(0.117)
	2.036	-2.022	0.197
IRCS	0.687	-0.747	0.277
	(0.144)	(0.155)	(0.115)
	4.784	-4.817	2.411
COOP	0.242	-0.507	0.374
	(0.141)	(0.161)	(0.127)
	1.711	-3.153	2.951
AFFCOMM	0.094	0.144	-0.059
	(0.085)	(0.091)	(0.073)
	1.101	1.588	-0.802
JOBSAT	0.111	0.425	0.123
	(0.116)	(0.117)	(0.099)
	0.965	3.638	1.243

Appendix F.5

Multiple and moderated regression of extra- and in-role customer service

<i>Extra-role customer service</i>							
	Variables entered	F	R ²	Δ R ²	St. β	t-value	p
Step 1		5.398	0.135				
	Organisational commitment				0.277	2.361	*
	Job satisfaction				-0.003	-0.270	†
	Internal communication				0.250	2.559	*
	Professional development				-0.244	-2.466	*
	Empowerment				0.066	0.752	†
Step 2		5.724	0.166	0.031			
	Organisational commitment				0.239	2.047	**
	Job satisfaction				0.005	0.040	†
	Internal communication				0.345	3.343	***
	Professional development				-0.247	-2.541	*
	Empowerment				0.300	0.764	†
	Interaction effect ¹				0.192	2.549	*
<i>In-role customer service</i>							
	Variables entered	F	R ²	Δ R ²	St. β	t-value	p
Step 1		11.417	0.248				
	Organisational commitment				-0.119	-1.089	†
	Job satisfaction				0.194	1.797	†
	Internal communication				0.476	5.228	***
	Professional development				-0.472	-5.129	***
	Empowerment				0.199	2.417	**
Step 2		11.192	0.281	0.033			
	Organisational commitment				-0.158	-1.464	†
	Job satisfaction				0.202	1.905	†
	Internal communication				0.573	5.979	***
	Professional development				-0.476	-5.268	***
	Empowerment				0.158	1.929	†
	Interaction effect ¹				0.196	2.796	**

Note: All regressions for N=179; *** p<0.001; **p<0.01; * p<0.05; † p<0.001;

¹Interaction effect: Internal communication x Professional development