Service Employee Citizenship Behaviour: An Empirical Study Conducted in the Thai Airline Industry

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DECLARATION AND STATEMENTS

DECLARATION

This work has not been previously accepted in substance for any degree and is not concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree

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"Effort only fully releases its reward after a person refuses to quit"
Napoleon Hill, n.d.

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ABSTRACT

The main purpose of the study is to advance the organisational citizenship literature in the non-Westernised service context. An extant literature review revealed several gaps in the current understanding of the phenomenon including: (1) lack of studies looking at service-specific organisational citizenship behaviours, (2) limited research that has examined the effect of job satisfaction and three components of organisational commitment on citizenship behaviours in a simultaneous manner; and (3) lack of studies attempting to identify 'new drivers' of citizenship behaviours. As a result, the present study develops a social structure explanation of service-specific citizenship behaviour (i.e. service employee citizenship behaviour), emphasising the importance of job satisfaction, three components of organisational commitment, co-worker support and passenger cooperation. In addition, the current study explores the moderating role of cultural orientation (i.e. individualism/collectivism).

Using a survey approach, questionnaires were distributed to employees in an airline company based in Thailand. An effective response rate of 53.60% resulted in 335 questionnaires being collected for analysis. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) procedures were followed using AMOS 6.0 to analyse the data. The findings reveal significant contributions of job satisfaction, affective commitment and normative commitment in predicting service employee citizenship behaviour. The examination of individual differences in terms of individualism/collectivism values highlights the different tendencies of employees to engage in different forms of service employee citizenship behaviour. Additionally, the conceptualisation along with empirical results not only emphasise the significant contribution of co-worker support and passenger cooperation on service employee citizenship behaviour, but also illustrate the importance of identifying job attitudes as a key mediator of the support-performance relationship. By this, this study extends the current understanding on determinants of service-specific organisational citizenship behaviours as well as the influence of individual difference with regards to individual/collectivism on such citizenship behaviours.

Keywords: Organisational citizenship behaviour, prosocial service behaviour, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, co-worker support, customer cooperation, individualism/collectivism.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AC	Affective Commitment
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CC	Continuance Commitment
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CMB	Common Method Bias
COOP	Cooperation
CUL	Individualism/collectivism
CVP	Customer Voluntary Performance
CWS	Co-worker Support
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EXR	Extra-role Service Delivery
EXT	External Representation
GOCB	Group Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
INR	In-role Service Delivery
INT	Internal Influence
JS	Job Satisfaction
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange
MSQ	Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire
NC	Normative Commitment
OC	Organisational Commitment
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
OCBI	Individual-directed Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
OCBO	Organisation-directed Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
POB	Prosocial Organisational Behaviour
POS	Perceived Organisational Support
PSB	Prosocial Service Behaviour
PSC	Passenger Cooperation
SD	Social Desirability
SECB	Service Employee Citizenship Behaviour
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
TMX	Team-Member Exchange

Chapter 1

Chapter 1

Introduction and Background of Research

"If thinking is an intellectual response to a problem,

then the absence of problem leads to the absence of thinking"

Levitt, 1960

1.1 Introduction

Since the early 1980s, there has been a dramatic increase of interest in the service sector as academicians and practitioners realised the profound structural shift towards services in every advanced economy (Oliver *et al.* 1997) along with an awareness of the economic contribution of the service sector. Academics have shown that the service sector has grown to become one of the largest and most important sectors in many countries within advanced economies. (Korczynski 2002; Lovelock and Wirtz 2007; Sun *et al.* 2007), and continues to perform an increasingly important role within the economies of developing countries (Kosonboon 2006; Bitner and Brown 2008). According to Ahmad *et al.* (2003), services account for approximately 70% of aggregate production and employment in most developed economies. This is also true in developing economies such as Asia where the service sector is becoming increasingly important (Lovelock *et al.* 2005). For instance, in Thailand, services account for 37.1% of total employment or around 50% of the country's GDP (Asian Development Bank 2008). Services have been included in the Uruguay Round of trade negotiations leading to General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS), and have become the subject of multilateral trade negotiations since early 2000 (WTO 2004).

Given the increasing level of competition in today's business environment, mere customer satisfaction is no longer a fair predictor of customer loyalty and future patronage (Schneider and Bowen 1999). Many academics and practitioners have already accepted the low correspondence between customer satisfaction data and loyalty figures (Reichheld 1993). Thus, the pursuit of service excellence is now considered as an essential strategy (Gould-Williams 1999). Increasing numbers of service providers, including those who continue to compete in terms of costs, seek to deliver superior service to customers in order to exceed customer expectations (Peccei and Rosenthal 2001). It is suggested that quality is most easily enhanced by efforts to do "that little bit extra" for their customers (Ennew and Binks 1999, p. 129). As a result, recent research attention has focused on identifying determinants of employee organisational citizenship behaviours which are believed to lead to customer delight.

This introductory chapter attempts to present the rationale for this research by providing a brief review of important outcomes and antecedents of employee citizenship behaviours. The research problems are identified along with the gaps in the extant knowledge. Finally, the objectives of the study and the specific research questions are highlighted

1.2 Importance of organisational citizenship behaviours

Interest in extra-role behaviours of employees amongst scholars has probably stemmed from the long-standing belief that such behaviours enhance levels of organisational effectiveness. These behaviours are referred to as 'organisational citizenship behaviour: OCB' by newer-generation researchers (e.g. Bateman and Organ 1983; Smith *et al.* 1983; Organ 1988; Organ and Konovsky 1989; Podsakoff *et al.* 2000). Organ (1988, p. 4) formally defined OCB as "behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation". There are several reasons why OCB may be positively related to work group or organisation effectiveness (see Table 1.1)

It must be noted that there are other closely related literatures on positive discretionary behaviours which also serve as a viable source of this review (See Chapter Two: Section 2.2 for full detail on definitions and the development of OCB construct). Therefore, when citing specific studies, the present study will use the same terms used by researchers in order to be consistent with methodologies and measures. The general term 'citizenship behaviour' adopted is this study's attempt to represent various types of extra-role behaviours drawing from the OCB literature and other aligned literatures.

Table 1.1: Summary of reasons why OCBs might influence organisational effectiveness

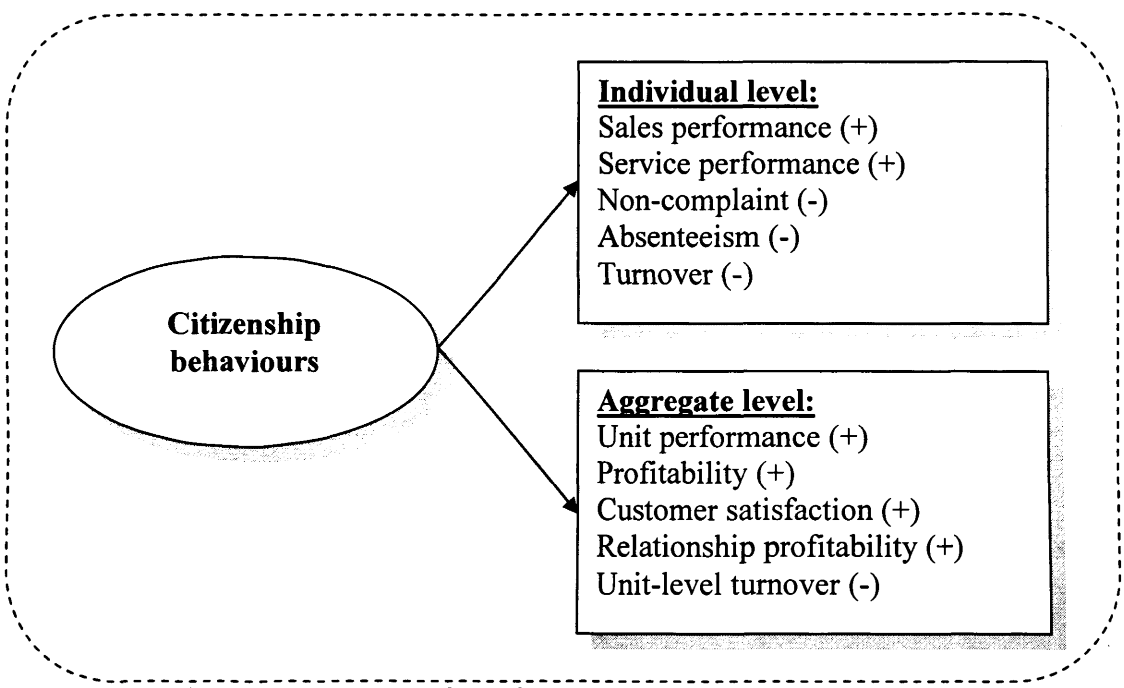
Potential reasons why OCBs influence organisational performance	**Examples**
OCBs may enhance co-worker productivity	- Employees who help another co-worker "learn the ropes" may help them to become more productive employee faster - Overtime, helping behaviour can help to spread "best practices" throughout the work unit
OCBs may enhance managerial productivity	- If employee engage civic virtue (i.e. a dimension of OCB which represents employee's initiation to improve the company), the manager may receive valuable suggestions for improving unit effectiveness
OCBs may free resources up for more productivity	- If employees discretionarily help each other with work-related problems, then the manager does not have to; consequently, the manager can spend more time on productive tasks - To the extent the experienced employees help in the training and orienting of new employees, it reduces the need to devote organisational resources to these activity
OCBs may reduce the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions	- A natural by-product of helping behaviour is that it enhances team spirit, morale, and cohesiveness, thus reducing the need for group members (or managers) to spend energy and time on group maintenance functions
OCBs may serve as an effective means of coordinating activites between team members and across work groups	- Exhibiting civic virtue by voluntarily attending and actively participating in work unit meetings would help the coordination of effort among team members, thus potentially increasing the group's effectiveness and efficiency - Exhibiting courtesy with other team members reduces the likelihood of the occurrence of problems that would otherwise take time and effort to resolve
OCBs may enhance the organisation's ability to attract and retain the best people by making it a more attractive place to work	- Helping behaviours may enhance morale, group cohesiveness, and the sense of belonging to a team, all of which may enhance performance and help the organisation to attract and retain better employees
OCBs may enhance stability of organisational performance	- Picking up the slack for other who are absent, or who have heavy workloads, can help to enhance the stability (reduce the variability) of the unit's performance
OCBs may enhance an organisation's ability to adapt to environmental changes	- Employees may have personal contract with market information sources and make suggestions about how to respond to them - Employee who attend and actively participate in meetings may aid the dissemination of information in an organisation, thus enhancing its reponsiveness

Source: Adapted from Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997, pp. 136-137) and Podsakoff *et al.* (2000, pp. 544-545)

Beside the importance of citizenship behaviours to organisational effectiveness, scholars have empirically discovered that such behaviours lead employees to many forms of organisational-desired outcomes at both individual and aggregate levels. At the individual level, studies conducted in various organisation and industry contexts have shown that employee citizenship behaviours are positively related to individual performance (Baruch *et al.* 2004), individual sales performance (e.g. Puffer 1987; George 1991), customer perceptions of service quality (e.g. Kelly and Hoffman 1997; Bell and Menguc 2002; Yoon and Suh 2003), customer satisfaction (Adcock 1999), and productivity (Sun *et al.* 2007). Such behaviours are also found to have negative relationships with undesirable employee behavioural outcomes such as noncompliant behaviour which represents "non-task behaviours that are dysfunctional to the organisation" (Puffer 1987, p. 615) and employee turnover intention (Coyne and Ong 2007).

Regarding outcomes at the aggregate level, the first empirical investigation of the relationship between OCB and organisational effectiveness was carried out by Karambayya in 1990. The findings indicated that employees in high-performing work units were satisfied with their job and expressed more citizenship behaviours than those in low-performing work units. Her research has led subsequent studies to examine the relationship between OCB and unit performance in various research contexts ranging from restaurants (e.g. Koys 2001), retail stores (e.g., George and Bettenhausen 1990), insurance agents (e.g. Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994; Rego and Cunha 2008), banks (e.g. Bettencourt and Brown 1997), paper mills (e.g. Podsakoff *et al.* 1997), the military service (e.g. Ehrhart *et al.* 2006), to supply relationships (e.g., Wuyst 2007). The general conclusion is that OCB enhances organisational-level performance (for review see Podsakoff *et al.* 2000 and Podsakoff *et al.* 2009). Figure 1.1 summarises important consequences of citizenship behaviours

Figure 1.1: Important outcomes of citizenship behaviours



- negative relationship, + positive relationship

Source: Based on Padsakoff *et al.* (2000) and Podsakoff *et al.* (2009)

Although most studies have shown robustness of the relationship between OCB and unit performance, it is still questioned whether OCB predicts unit performance or the other way round. Koys's (2001) study addressed this issue by using the longitudinal approach to examine the causal relationship between unit-level OCB and performance outcomes (i.e. profitability). Based on cross-lagged regression equation, he suggested that the causal arrow pointed from OCB to profitability, rather than the reverse.

While OCB is generally important for all organisations, it is especially more important for certain types of organisations (Organ 1990; Borman and Motowidlo 1993; Lee 2001). It is suggested that the effectiveness of certain types of organisations involving 'treating a patient' or 'servicing a client' is more dependent upon individuals' spontaneous cooperative behaviours than on standardised procedures (Organ 1990).

The preceding discussions on the consequences of OCB and the importance of OCB in business organisations provide a justification of the present study's interest in modelling service employee citizenship behaviour (i.e. a tailored form of OCB, see Chapter Two: Section 2.4) as the ultimate dependent variable.

1.3 An overview of OCB antecedents

Recognising the importance of employee citizenship behaviours, antecedents of such behaviours have attracted a lot of research attention and numerous factors have been identified as potential predictors. To organise the studies on antecedents of OCB, Podsakoff *et al.* (2000) collected the past fifteen years of OCB studies and reviewed the literature on its antecedents. They systematically reported that the research examining antecedents of OCB can be grouped into four broad categories: employee characteristics, organizational characteristics, job characteristics and leader behaviours. These categories cover both contextual (i.e. work attitudes, job characteristics, and leadership styles) and dispositional (i.e. personal traits) determinants of OCB. See Table 1.2.

Table 1.2: An overview of OCB antecedents

Category	Antecedents
Individual characteristics	<u>Employee attitudes</u> Satisfaction (+) Fairness (+) Affective commitment (+) Normative commitment (+) Continuance commitment (-) <u>Dispositional variables</u> Conscientiousness (+) Agreeableness (+) Positive affectivity (+) <u>Employee role perceptions</u> Role ambiguity (-) Role conflict (-) <u>Employee abilities and individual differences</u> Ability/experience/training/knowledge (+) Professional orientation (-) Indifference to rewards (-)
Task characteristic	Task feedback (+) Task routinisation (-) Intrinsically satisfying task (+)
Organisational characteristic	Organisational formalisation (-) Organisational inflexibility (-) Cohesive group (+) Rewards outside the leader's control (-) Spatial distance from leader (-) Perceived organisational support (+)
Leader behaviours	Core transformational leadership (+) Articulating a vision (+) Providing an appropriate model (+) Fostering the acceptance of group goals (+) High performance expectations (+) Intellectual stimulation (+) Contingent reward behaviour (+) Noncontingent reward behaviour (-) Leader role clarification (+) Supportive leader behaviour (+) Leader-member exchange (+)

- negative relationship, + positive relationship

Source: Based on Podsakoff *et al.* (2000)

Of the four categories, employee characteristics have attracted research attention the most. It is possible that these variables are conceptually more important or more theoretically justified than the others. Within the group of factors regarding individual characteristics, there are two streams of research namely 'morale factors' and 'dispositional factors'. The morale factor is viewed by Organ and Ryan (1995) as underlying employee satisfaction, organisational commitment, perceptions of fairness and perceptions of leadership support. At the early development stage of OCB, Bateman and Organ (1983) conceived the concept of OCB out of a conviction that job attitude (i.e. job satisfaction) affected employee's willingness to engage in helping behaviour toward their co-workers in varied and mundane forms in order to maintain organised structures that govern work. Since then, job attitudes have been widely examined as potential antecedents of employee motive to engage in extra-role behaviours. Of these moral or attitudinal factors, Organ and Ryan (1995) found that job satisfaction appeared to have the highest correlation with OCB. Also, other variables (i.e. organisational commitment, perceptions of fairness) revealed significant contributions in predicting OCB, thus suggesting the potential of job attitudes in determining employee OCB.

The other stream of research is built on an argument regarding interpretations of findings of relationships between contextual variables and OCB on the basis that contextual attitudes are at least partly dispositional in nature (in Konovsky and Organ 1996). Built on prior work, Organ (1990) stated that there may be a set of dispositional variables, traits, or temperaments that combine to predispose someone to OCB or a specific type of OCB. As such, there has been an on-going debate amongst scholars that personal characteristics, or dispositional factors, should be strong determinants of discretionary work behaviours, given the OCB concept that represents work behaviours which are not recognised by the formal reward systems (Organ 1988).

Despite this promising proposition, subsequent studies, however, found only limited empirical support for dispositional factors as potential determinants of OCB (e.g. Organ and Ryan 1995; Konovsky and Organ 1996). In Konovsky and Organ's (1996) study, it was revealed that all but one dimension of OCB are accounted by work attitudes. The addition of dispositional variables into the analysis does not make any significantly contribution to the variance beyond that accounted by work attitudes. Subsequently, Hurtz and Donovan (2000) investigated the relationship between the Big Five personality and job performance and contextual performance (i.e. a form of citizenship behaviours). They reported that contextual performance was no more strongly related to the five-factor model of characteristics than was job performance. These findings rejected the early assumption that dispositional variables should be a strong determinant of citizenship behaviours. A recent study conducted by Lester *et al.* (2008) provides additional evidence to clarify the inconsistencies and weak findings regarding the relationship between these individual differences and OCB. Based on empirical findings, they reported that the influence of individual difference (i.e. other orientation) is shaped by job attitudes. Their findings are consistent with Organ and Ryan (1995) who suggest that dispositional factors may actually play a moderator role.

Regarding the impact of structural factors (i.e. task and organisational characteristics) on OCB, the extant review of OCB literature reveals that most studies conceptualise these factors as influencing employee attitudes, with these attitudes thereafter affecting citizenship behaviours (e.g. Netemeyer *et al.* 1997; Ackfeldt and Cooote 2005; Paulin *et al.* 2006; Todd and Kent 2006). This conceptualisation reinforces the importance of employees' job attitudes in determining their subsequent behaviours. Given that the role of different facets of job attitudes in influencing OCB is not well understood in the non-Westernised service context, the present study, therefore, focuses attention on examining the influence of different components of individual attitudes on citizenship behaviour.

1.4 Significance of this study

In service organisations, human resources are probably the most important source of the organisation's success (Guest 1997; Lovelock *et al.* 2005; Browning 2006) as they represent the organisations and produce the service (Zeithaml and Bitner 1996), carry the responsibility of projecting their organisation's image and creating a satisfying service experience for the customer (Bowen and Lawler 1992). Nonetheless, many of the variables affecting employee behaviours in service settings remain unknown (Ackfeldt and Wong 2006).

An increasing interest in job attitudes of frontline employees has been witnessed, given their prominent role in developing customer relationships (Schneider and Bowen 1993; Heskett *et al.* 1994; Paulin *et al.* 2006). Indeed, recent marketing studies identify relationships between contact employee job attitudes and several customer-related outcomes. For example, many studies reported associations between service employee job satisfaction and customer perceptions of service quality, (e.g. Yee *et al.* 2008);

service evaluation (e.g. Crosby and Stephen 1987), customer value perceptions (e.g. Hartline and Ferrell 1993) and customer satisfaction (e.g. Parasuraman 1987; Bitner *et al.* 1990; Yee *et al.* 2008) as well as the association between organisational commitment and service orientation (e.g. Beatson *et al.* 2008). This, as a result, establishes the importance of employee job attitudes to service excellence.

In addition to the preceding discussion about the importance of service employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment, there are calls for research regarding these two attitudinal constructs and tailored forms of OCB. The following subsections aim to provide rationale for the present study. First, the gaps within the OCB literature are introduced and discussed, and then the industry-specific context of this study is introduced and justified.

1.4.1 Gaps in the literature and calls for research

Despite a plethora of studies in the employee citizenship behaviour domain, the review of relevant literature revealed several gaps in our current understanding of service-specific OCB and its antecedents, especially in non-Westernised business contexts, which constitutes a fruitful avenue for investigation.

1.4.1.1 Calls for research on tailored forms of OCB

Bell and Menguc (2002) observed that the majority of citizenship behaviour studies have relied on the generic OCB measures which are assumed to be equally applicable across contexts. With the observation that some forms of OCB may be more appropriate for certain sectors than others (Borman and Motowidlo 1993; LePine *et al.*

2002), Podsakoff *et al.* (2000) therefore called for tailored forms of OCB that are specifically developed for a particular context. Owing to the limited insights into the tailored forms of OCB, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1997) have also called for further studies on customer-directed OCB.

While there have been calls for consideration of OCB-tailored to the context of customer service, a few studies have attempted to understand service employee discretionary behaviours (i.e. Bettencourt and Brown 1997; Bettencourt and Brown 2001; Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Bettencourt *et al.* 2005; Ackfeldt and Wong 2006). Given the very limited number of relevant studies, future research on OCB-tailored to the service context is warranted. Also, its determinants are worth studying as those of generic OCB may not be applicable to this unique form of citizenship behaviour. Indeed, it is implicitly noted that different forms of OCB may have different antecedents (Podsakoff *et al.* 2000). In addition, research on the interrelationship among citizenship behaviour components would add more understandings of employee behaviour.

1.4.1.2 Calls for research simultaneous examining the effects of job satisfaction and organisational commitment on citizenship behaviours

Although existing research has produced a considerable amount of empirical evidence concerning the relationships between employee job satisfaction, organisational commitment and OCB, few OCB studies have examined these two attitudinal constructs at the same time. With recognition of the interdependence between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Luthans 2002; Rayton 2006) and the importance of both constructs in understanding employee behaviour (Tett and Meyer 1993; Harrison *et al.* 2006), services scholars have called for further studies to investigate and to incorporate both attitudinal variables in future research on prosocial service behaviour (Bettencourt and Brown 1997; Ackfeldt and Wong 2006).

Additionally, no study has generally investigated the range of employee attitudes the present study considers. To the knowledge of the author, only four citizenship behaviour studies have examined all three components of organisational commitment at the same time (i.e. Chen and Francesco 2003; Kwantes 2003; Gautam *et al.* 2005; Cichy *et al.* 2009), and yet, none of the studies has considered the potential effects of job satisfaction. In addition, the first three studies (i.e. Chen and Francesco 2003; Kwantes 2003; Gautam *et al.* 2005) used traditional measures of OCB and two of the studies (i.e. Chen and Francesco 2003; Gautam *et al.* 2005) were carried out in manufacturing industries. The final study (i.e. Cichy *et al.* 2009) conceptualised contextual performance as their ultimate dependent variable. Thus, the present study can be considered as the first services marketing study to examine the synergistic role of multi-component organisational commitment and job satisfaction, in influencing service-specific OCB.

1.4.1.3 Limited amount of OCB studies in non-Westernised business contexts

To date, there are few studies of OCB in non-Westernised contexts. Scholars have called for a re-examination of theories and practices that have been developed in the United States for their applicability and generalisibility to other countries and cultures (e.g. Randall 1993; Kwantes 2003). Most management theories originating from the

United States are anchored on a self-interest motive that may not be applicable in other cultures (Cohen and Avrahami 2006).

Similar to other management theories, Farh *et al.* (2004) pointed out that most of the OCB studies, both conceptual and empirical, rely heavily on the United States context, using the American worker population. Limited research attention to cultural context of OCB was noted by several leading scholars in the area (e.g. Podsakoff *et al.* 2000; Farh *et al.* 2004; Organ *et al.* 2006; Rotunda and Xie, 2008). It is possible that cultural differences may encourage or discourage employees in respect to OCB (Dimitraides 2007). Thus, the relationship between specific determinants and specific dimensions of OCB in the US context may not hold in other countries where culture and values significantly differ. As OCB holds great promise for organisational behaviour research, Silverthorne (2005) therefore called for further OCB research in other cultures. Hence, it can be concluded that OCB research in non-Westernised societies is widely forwarded as a worthy avenue for future empirical research.

In addition, acknowledging the lack of studies on individual difference in terms of individualism/collectivism and its role in the OCB literature, together with scholarly suggestion that it would be insightful to examine cultural variables at individual level (e.g. Wagner 1995; Farh *et al.* 1997; Lam *et al.* 2002; Coyne and Ong 2007), the present study incorporates individual difference in terms of individualism/collectivism into the conceptual framework. Understanding of individual-level differences in values could provide insights into better ways of managing different employees (Francesco and Chen 2004).

1.4.1.4 Lack of study attempting to identify new antecedents of OCB

In the commitment and the OCB literatures, scholars note that there is a lack of studies attempting to identify new antecedents of OCB (Graham and Dienesch 1991; Williams and Anderson 1991) and normative and continuance components of commitment (Iverson and Bittigieg 1999) which limits our understanding about the relationship between such attitudes and citizenship behaviours. Therefore, scholars suggested future studies should explore determinants that may account for these two commitment components and citizenship behaviours.

It has been acknowledged that OCBs are dependent on the behaviours of others (i.e. they are interpersonally reciprocal in nature) (Koster and Sanders 2006). However, few studies have examined horizontally interpersonal exchange relationships (Ladd and Henry 2000; Sherony and Green 2002). Specifically in the service context, little attention has been given to the support that employees can receive from other concerned parties during service provision despite its promising effects on employee responses (Yoon *et al.* 2004). Recognising the service provider-customer interdependence (Schneider and Bowen 1992; 1995; Netemeyer *et al.* 1997; Schneider *et al.* 2003) and the essence of co-worker cooperation (Azzolini and Shillaber 1993) in the delivery of excellent service, the present study is considered as the first empirical investigation attempting to explore these two interpersonal variables in explaining service employee attitudes and citizenship behaviour which would consequently extend our current understanding.

1.4.2 Context of the study

The airline industry is considered as an ideal context for employee citizenship behaviour studies for two main reasons. First, the airline industry is recognised as a vital component of the world economy, facilitating international trade, investment and tourism. According to IATA (2008), the global commercial aviation industry generates approximately $510 billions in revenue in 2007 and is forecast to stably generate this amount throughout this decade. The industry employs about 1.7 million people and is the key element in the world's largest industry, travel and tourism, which accounts for approximately 10 percent of the world's gross domestic product (Hanlon 1999). However, to the best knowledge of the author, no citizenship behaviour study has been conducted in the airline industry, thus suggesting a need for future research in to demystify this industry.

Second, the characteristics of cabin service work lend themselves to the study of citizenship behaviours. For instance, cabin service work is relatively of long duration of service in comparison to other service work (i.e. retail banking or grocery store work). Despite the importance of citizenship behaviours for every organisation, the nature of customer contact employee work in many services does not fully facilitate the engagement of such behaviour as employees are required not only to serve customers but also to concentrate on other aspects of their work (e.g. retail banking wherein bank tellers are required to concentrate on making accurate financial transactions and interacting with customers). Unlike those service contexts, the primary aim of cabin crew is servicing passengers. This, together with the long duration of cabin service (usually several hours), provides more opportunities for flight attendants to engage in citizenship behaviours. Although it is recognised that the main activities of the cabin work are safety and customer services, in normal flight conditions excellent customer service is likely to be the only focus of the crew. Thus, this research context is particularly relevant to the study of citizenship behaviours and has advantages over several other service contexts. Also, given the economic importance of the industry and the nature of cabin work, the contextual focus of this research is justified.

1.5 Objectives of the study

The main objective of the present study is to extend the current understanding of organisational citizenship behaviour literature by empirically testing the conceptual model outlined in Chapter Five among Thai cabin attendants (see Figure 5.1, p. 125). Drawing on literatures based on organisational citizenship behaviours, organisational behaviour and service consumer behaviour, the main objectives of this study are:

1. To conceptualise and operationalise the tailored form of organisational citizenship behaviour in the service context as well as examine the nomological network of components of the tailored form.
2. To simultaneously examine the relationship between job satisfaction, the three components of organisational commitment and service employee citizenship behaviour.
3. To explore the effects of co-worker and customer behaviours on service employee attitudinal and behavioural consequences.

4. To investigate the role of the service employee's level of individualism/collectivism in conditioning the links between the job attitudes and service employee citizenship behaviour, and the relationships among the service employee citizenship behaviour components.

1.6 Research questions

To accomplish the aforementioned objectives, the following set of specific questions is formulated:

1. What are tailored forms of OCB in the service context? How should these tailored forms be operationalised? What is the nomological network of these components?
2. What are the relationships between job satisfaction, aff ective commitment, normative commitment, continuance commitment, and service employee citizenship behaviour?
3. Do co-worker support and passenger cooperation have significant impacts on service employee job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and service employee citizenship behaviour?
4. Does the effect of co-worker support and passenger cooperation have differential strengths in predicting different components of service employee citizenship behaviour?
5. Do differences at the individual level, in terms of individualism/collectivism, moderate the relationships between job attitudes and service employee

citizenship behaviour, and the relationships among the service employee citizenship behaviour components?

1.7 Research methodology and sample description

This study is positioned within the critical realism paradigm. Lower-level methodological considerations are considerably shaped by the scientific position. Briefly, this study is descriptive cross-sectional survey based on deductive approach. All items of the questionnaire were adapted from previous scales (see Chapter Six: Section 6.3.1.1). An exploratory interview was conducted to inform modifications of these items in the questionnaire to fit the research context. A rigorous translation process was followed as suggested by Douglas and Craig (2006; 2007).

The data for the present study were collected through a questionnaire. A total of 625 questionnaires were distributed to the airline participating in this project. Six of the returned questionnaires were discarded since one respondent put the same answers on all the seven-point Likert scale items and five respondents ignored to answer substantial numbers of questions. Thus, the final number of usable questionnaires was 335 (53.60 % response rate). A series of *t*-test (two-tailed) were conducted for all the variables indicated on the Likert-type scale and some key demographic variables. The results showed that the non-response bias was not a concern in the present study. The demographic profile of the participants showed that 45.4% of the respondents were male and 54.6% female. The largest age group consisted of those aged 26-35 years (57.6%), followed by the age group below 25 years (22.4%). Of the respondents, 80.9% were single and 98.1% identified themselves with Thai ethical background. In terms of education, almost all of the respondents obtained at least a Bachelor's degree (99.1%).

1.8 Structure of this thesis

To accomplish the research objectives outlined in Section 1.6, the thesis is organised into ten chapters.

Chapter Two focuses on the revolution of OCB research which subsequently leads to the development and operationalisation of a tailored form of citizenship behaviour called 'service employee citizenship behaviour'. Theoretical foundations for the present study are also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter Three begins the critical review of extant literature focusing on research concerning the relationship between job attitudes, particularly, job satisfaction and the three components of organisational commitment, and employee performance. Theoretical foundations of the job attitudinal constructs are also discussed. Furthermore, this chapter introduces the moderating role of a cultural aspect (i.e. individualism/collectivism) on the job attitude-performance relationship.

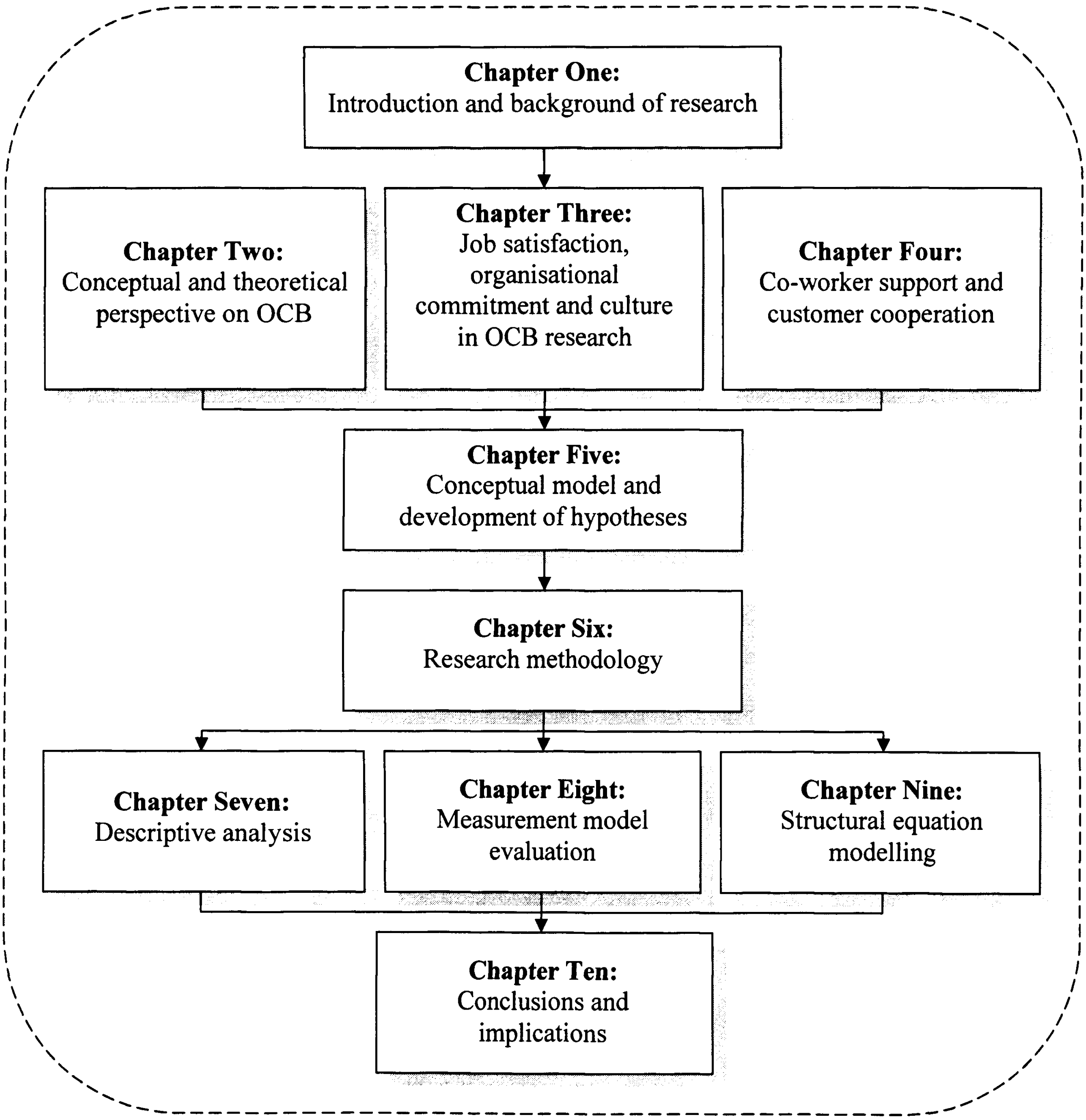
Chapter Four documents and reviews literature relating to the concepts of co-worker exchange and customer cooperation. This chapter draws on studies from several different management and service literatures including: co-worker exchange, emotional labour, customer as 'partial employee', customer participation and customer voluntary performance to garner insights into the possible influence of co-worker support and customer cooperation on service employee attitudinal/behavioural outcomes. Also, the theoretical framework used to specify the linkages is discussed.

Chapter Five proposes a conceptual model based upon the literature review presented in chapters two to four. This chapter also establishes hypotheses to test the relationships between the factors outlined in the research framework. ***Chapter Six*** explains the position of the present study in relation to the major scientific research paradigm and describes the methodological considerations adopted to collect and analyse the data for explaining the research questions. This chapter focuses on explanations of data collection procedures, questionnaire development and translation process, issues of common method bias, and data analysis techniques.

Chapter Seven mainly presents the general profile of the survey participants and their response to survey questions by using basic descriptive statistics. ***Chapter Eight*** presents the first step of structural equation modelling. This chapter focuses on two primary objectives. First, diagnosis and, where necessary, remedial methods of issues relating to data including: missing data, outliers, normality and multicollinearity. The second objective of this chapter is to validate the construct measures. In the present study, the utilised constructs are rigorously validated through items analysis, exploratory factor analysis and confirmative factor analysis.

Chapter Nine details the structural model. Having established that all constructs in the present study exhibit unidimensionality, reliability and validity, this chapter aims to examine whether there is statistical support for each of the hypothesised relationship between the constructs. The moderating role of individualism/collectivism is also explored. Finally, ***Chapter Ten*** summarises the empirical findings and explains their theoretical and practical implications. Furthermore, the contributions and limitations of the study are presented together with suggestions for future research (see figure 1.2)

Figure 1.2: Thesis structure



Chapter 2

Chapter 2

Conceptual and Theoretical Perspectives on Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

"...we come back to the hotel

because the people who run it, not the hotel itself"

Earl of Glasgow, 2009

2.1 Introduction

The behaviours of helping, sharing, donating, cooperating, and volunteering are forms of prosocial behaviours (Lee 2001). These behaviours have drawn remarkable attention from a number of behavioural and social scientists since the 1960s (e.g. Berkowitz and Daniels 1963) and organisational scholars since the 1980s (Bateman and Organ 1983; Smith *et al.* 1983; Brief and Motowidlo 1986). Indeed, the current interest in organisation citizenship behaviours can be traced back to Katz (1964) who argued that effective organisations have three things in common: (1) they retain employees within the system, (2) they ensure that employees carry out specific role requirements in a dependable fashion, and (3) they allow for innovative and spontaneous activities by employees that are beyond role prescriptions. With reference to this third point, organisations should have employees who are willing to contribute more than the minimal formal and specified technical aspects of their jobs, if they are to become effective.

Service scholars have proposed that discretionary citizenship behaviours are also considerably important in the service context (e.g. Lee 2001; Lee *et al.* 2006; Sun *et al.*

2007) where employees act as boundary spanners, wherein service behaviours have both short-term (e.g. likeability and perceived service quality) and long-term (e.g. trust and loyalty towards the organisation) effects on customer perceptions (Lemmink and Mattsson 2002). For example, an empirical study conducted in a large retail insurance organisation with eight branches by Bell and Menguc (2002) showed that customer perception of service quality is positively associated with insurance salesperson level of OCB. Other research findings of effects of OCBs on customer service quality mostly correspond to Bell and Menguc's findings (e.g. Bettencourt and Brown 1997; Niles-Jolly 2003). To this end, it is clear that competition level and customers' standard requirements of service quality have risen, and encouraging OCB may be a possible way to cope with continuously rising customer expectations. Therefore, the present study emphasises OCB as the ultimate dependent variable.

The aim of this chapter is to review and evaluate the literature on OCB and closely related constructs: prosocial organisational behaviour, extra-role performance, and customer-oriented behaviour. Given the lack of consensus on conceptualisations of the OCB constrict domain, the first objective of this chapter is to clarify these definitional ambiguities and, if possible, their originalities. This links to the second objective of this chapter, which is to conceptualise a tailored form of organisational citizenship behaviour in the service context. The final aim of this chapter is to identify the relevant theoretical perspectives underpinning OCB research.

2.2 Organisational citizenship behaviour and related constructs

Behaviours that go beyond prescribed role requirement are referred to as 'organisational citizenship behaviour' by newer-generation researchers (e.g. Bateman and Organ 1983; Smith *et al.* 1983; Organ 1988; Organ and Konovsky 1989; Podsakoff *et al.* 2000). According to Brief and Motowidlo (1986), OCB is one form of prosocial organisational behaviour (hereafter POB). Despite differences, contemporary researchers however still use the terms referring to positive extra-role behaviours interchangeably. For example, Lee (2001) refers to POBs as "those aspects of job performance that are not prescribed within a job description and which, therefore, do not necessarily represent duties" (p. 1030). She said that such behaviour is variously conceptualised as 'prosocial organisational behaviour', 'organisational citizenship behaviour', and 'contextual performance'. This implies that she takes prosocial organisational behaviour as the same behaviour as organisational citizenship behaviour and contextual performance. Does this mean that the OCB concept also includes role-prescribed behaviour, in line with the concept of POB and contextual performance? It is noted that the literature on OCB and related concepts is fairly diverse with respect to both the nature of behavioural dimensions and terminology used to label the constructs (LePine *et al.* 2002). The next subsection clarifies what is meant by OCB and other related constructs.

2.2.1 Differences between POB, contextual performance, and OCB

Brief and Motowidlo (1986, p. 711) defined prosocial organisational behaviour by stating that "prosocial behaviour is behaviour which the actor expects will benefit the person or persons to whom it is directed". Contextual behaviour, similar to POB, refers to "behaviours [that] do not support the technical core itself so much as they support the broader organisational, social, psychological environment in which the technical core must function" (Borman and Motowidlo 1993, p. 73). POB, as well as contextual performance, can therefore be either in-role or extra-role behaviours directed toward individuals, groups, or the organisation which in aggregate will benefit the organisational effectiveness.

The rapid surge in interest among researchers on OCB has resulted in conceptual confusion about the nature of the construct (Podsakoff *et al.* 2000). The first conceptualisation of OCB can be traced back to Organ and his colleagues who were first to coin the term "organisational citizenship behaviours". At the early stage of OCB conceptual development, Organ (1988, p. 4) formally defined OCB as:

> "...individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation. By discretionary, we mean that the behaviour is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specificable terms of the person's employment contract with the organisation; the behaviour is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable."

From Organ's definition, citizenship behaviour must have at least these three characteristics: (1) the behaviour is discretionary; (2) the behaviour is not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system; and (3) in the aggregate, the behavior promotes the effective functioning of the organization. Schnake (1991), later, agreed with Organ's definition that OCB, unlike POB, should not include formal in-role behaviours, and defined organisational citizenship behaviours as:

"...functional, extra-role, prosocial behaviours, directed at individuals, groups, and/or an organization (p. 738)."

According to Smith *et al.* (1983), OCB is made up of two components, one made up largely of prosocial acts toward individuals and the other, which was labeled "generalised compliance", made up largely of acts performed "for the sake of the system rather than for specific individuals" (p. 662). The definition implies that OCB is a subset of POB, comprising only extra-role behaviour directed towards only to two targets; individuals within the organisation and/or the organisation, whereas the POB includes all positive behaviours benefiting co-workers and the organisation as well as behaviours directed towards other groups of individuals such as customers. This might be a way to distinguish OCB from POB at the early stage of conceptual development. Figure 2.1 shows the four types of behaviours which pertain to organisational goals and achievement. According to the definition of POB by Brief and Mototwidlo (1983), these behaviours can be regarded as being within the broad limit of the construct.

Figure 2.1: Employee behaviour typology

	Company-directed	**Customer-directed**
In-role	Work-oriented behaviours (WOBs)	Sales-/Service-oriented behaviours (SOBs)
Extra-role	Organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs)	Customer-oriented behaviours (COBs)

Source: Podsakoff and Mackenzie's review of earlier work (1997, p. 147)

The definition of OCB in early work shown in Figure 2.1 is regarded as only behaviours that are extra-role and organisation-directed. More recently, researchers have acknowledged the problem of requiring that OCB must limit to only extra-role behaviour (e.g. Graham 1991; Organ 1997; Pond *et al.* 1997). One of these problems is that there is no consensual agreement among employees or between employees and supervisors about whether a specific behaviour is prescribed by the role or beyond the role. Other researchers found that supervisors had a broader definition of behaviour that is expected to be part of the subordinates' jobs than did their subordinate (Lam *et al.* 1999). Several scholars suggest that supervisors value OCBs and take these behaviours into account when evaluating their subordinates (MacKenzie *et al.* 1993; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994; MacKenzie *et al.* 1999). In fact, some extra-role behaviour measurement items are formally evaluated as a part of the employee job by supervisors (Pond *et al.* 1997). Besides, recent studies observed that employees feel that some discretionary behaviours, which are not prescribed by task, are expected at the workplace (Organ *et al.* 2006; Vigoda-Gadot 2007).

Organ (1997) therefore suggested that it is no longer useful to require that OCB must be extra-role behaviours. Rather, he suggests that it be defined more in line with the concept of contextual performance and redefined OCB as "contributions to the maintenance and enhancement of the social and psychological context that supports task performance (Organ 1997, p. 91)." The more contemporary definition of OCB includes work-oriented behaviours (i.e. WOBs) which are behaviours that are prescribed by role and directed at the organisation. Contemporary researchers support the notion that organisational citizenship behaviours should be conceptualised as a global concept that includes all positive work behaviours, both in-role and extra-role behaviours, directed at the organisation (e.g. Graham 1991; Van Dyne *et al.* 1994; Niles-Jolly 2003; McKenna 2006). This broad conceptualisation of OCB converges with the conceptualisation of contextual performance (Conway 1999). Organ *et al.* (2006), however, emphasised that "even though measures of OCB and contextual performance look much alike, the concepts operationally defined by those measure are different" (p. 32). Similarly, Hoffman *et al.* (2007, p. 556) argued that "at a conceptual level, the operationalisation of contextual performance is far less consistent than that of OCB". For example, items used to measure contextual performance are frequently ambiguous or deal with other constructs such as work motivation (Stone-Romero *et al.* 2009). Moreover, the idea of contextual performance has a different origin than OCB. Whereas the idea of OCB was originally conceived as a result of an interest in behavioural outcomes of job satisfaction that were recognised as having important consequences for organisational effectiveness, the concept of contextual performance stemmed from the question of why personnel selection research only focused on task performances and ignored activities such as volunteering and helping which seemed to impact organisational effectiveness (Motowidlo 2000).

In service contexts, recent studies have added customer-oriented behaviours (i.e. customer-directed extra-role behaviours), and service-oriented behaviours (i.e. customer-directed role-prescribed behaviours), to OCB and termed the concept as 'prosocial service behaviour' (e.g. Bettencourt and Brown 1997; Ackfeldt and Wong 2006), 'customer-oriented prosocial behaviour' (Lee *et al.* 2006), or 'customer-oriented boundary-spanning behaviour' (e.g. Bettencourt and Brown 2003; 2005). Others focus more on extra-role component, 'extra-role customer service' (e.g. Moliner *et al.* 2008) as well as on the traditional conceptualisation of Organ's (1988)

OCB termed as 'customer-oriented OCB' (Dimitriades 2007). Details on the tailored forms of OCB in services are discussed in Section 2.4 of this chapter.

Nonetheless, many researchers still believe that there is no clear-cut definition of the concept of prosocial behaviour in the area of extra-role behaviours and considerable overlap exists with other related concepts (Baruch *et al.* 2004). Some others have noted the overlap among these concepts related to positive extra-role behaviours. For example, Turner *et al.* (1999) analysed ratings on eighty six items from previous studies developed to measure the constructs of OCB, organisational spontaneity, prosocial behaviour, and contextual performance. Results showed overlapping dimensions among the constructs. Motowidlo (2000), therefore, stated that using different terms such as extra-role, or contextual performance, or OCB is not particularly important except to explain why they want to study helping and what it is about helping behaviour they want to study. Similarly, Podsakoff *et al.* (2009, p. 122) stated that "regardless of which of Organ's definition one relies on, one of the main reasons for the interest in OCBs is that they are expected to be positively related to measures of organisational effectiveness".

Given the above discussion regarding the terms used in this area and the broader definition of OCB, the conceptualisation of OCB adopted in this study refers to employee behaviour that is intended to help either individuals (i.e. co-workers, supervisors, or customers) or the organisation as a whole. This behaviour may be either role-prescribed or extra-role; depending on the tasks assigned to the employee by the organisation, the same behaviour may be role-prescribed in some organisations and be extra-role in others. From this perspective, OCB and POB are most likely the same concept, which is in line with Brief and Motowidlo (1986)'s definition of POB. Thus, the empirical work on OCB, in particular, and other related constructs (i.e. POB and contextual performance), in general, is a viable source for this literature review and empirical study in the area of OCB. Although there may be different types of cooperative behaviour, it is suggested that "employees who perform one type of helping behaviour (e.g. OCBs) are more likely to perform other types of helping behaviour... due to personal values acquired through the socialisation process" (Bell and Menguc 2002, pp. 132). However, when citing specific studies, the present study will use the term that the researchers used in order to be consistent with specific methodologies and measures.

2.3 Dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviours

Dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour can be classified from various perspectives depending on criteria and purposes of a specific study. From the literature review, two main categories of OCB dimensions have emerged (i.e. traditional OCB and service-specific OCB). It is important to understand how OCB is classified as each dimension of OCB may have different antecedents (For example, see Williams and Anderson 1991; Konovsky and Organ 1996; Masterson *et al.* 2000; Bettencourt *et al.* 2005).

2.3.1 Traditional OCB dimensions

The most frequently studied OCB dimensions are altruism and generalised compliance originally developed by Smith *et al.* (1983) and three additional dimensions introduced by Organ (1988) including sportsmanship, courtesy, and civic virtue. It should be noted that Organ's altruism and generalised compliance (or called 'conscientiousness' in Organ's taxonomy) were narrower forms of Smith *et al.*'s (1983) original concepts. Based on Organ's (1988) conceptualisation of five-dimension OCB, Podsakoff *et al.* (1990) were among the first to generate a measure which has become very popular among researchers in the field. They developed a twenty-four-item measure of the five OCB dimensions that were subject to a 'Q-sort' and a confirmatory factor analysis.

Altruism refers to acts of voluntarily helping specific individuals at work in face-to-face interactions. This OCB dimension is also defined as 'helping behaviour'. Measures of this dimension appear to overlap with other constructs related to employee cooperative behaviour such as organisational spontaneity (George and Brief 1992; Katz 1964), prosocial organisational behaviour (Motowidlo and Brief 1986), and interpersonal helping (Karambayya 1990). Although variously termed, items of the constructs mainly aim to capture employee helping behaviour that is directed at specific individuals rather than at the organisation. Examples of altruism items are "help others who have been absent (Smith *et al.* 1983)" or "goes out of way to help new employees (William and Anderson 1991)".

General compliance refers to employee contributions in the form of exemplary adherence to rules regarding attendance, punctuality, use of time while at work, and respect for organisational property and resources (Konovsky and Organ 1996), or norm compliance (Koster and Sander 2006). Simply, it is a form of employee contribution to the overall organisation. Sportsmanship is viewed as a "willingness on the part of the salesperson to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining... railing against real or imagined slights, and making federal cases out of small potatoes" (Organ 1988, p. 11). However, this definition was too specific to the context in which it was developed. To a broader context, sportsmanship can be defined as "a willingness of the part of employees to tolerate less than ideal circumstances without complaining and making problems seem bigger than they actually are (Podsakoff *et al.* 2009, p. 123).

Courtesy refers to helping other by taking steps to prevent the creation of work-related problems for co-workers (Podsakoff *et al.* 2000). This construct is similar to altruism, but the distinction is that this behaviour aims to prevent a concurrence of problems. Finally, civic virtue reflects employee behaviours that show concern for the company as well as employee initiative in recommending how the firm can be improved (Netemeyer *et al.* 1997).

Although scholars have identified OCB as having more than thirty potential forms (For more details, see Podsakoff *et al.* 2000, pp. 518-524), several forms, however, overlap with each other and with Organ's (1988) OCB domain in varying degrees (Coleman and Borman 2000). For example, Van Dyne *et al.*'s (1994) OCB framework includes social participation, which overlaps with altruism and courtesy; loyalty, which overlaps with sportsmanship and civic virtue; and obedience, which overlaps with civic virtue and conscientiousness. Morrison (1994) offered another OCB framework. However, her conceptualisation of OCB dimensions, again, overlaps parts of Organ's (1988) framework.

2.3.2 Operationalisation of OCBs

In conducting OCB research, inconsistency in operationalisation approach of OCB exists. Scholars link predictors to an overall measure of OCB (i.e. treating OCB as high-order construct with different dimensions), or, alternatively, they link predictors to particular dimensions of OCB (i.e. treating each OCB dimension as first-order construct) as outlined by Organ (1988). Although the research from both approaches has generated some very interesting and important findings, the questions of which OCB operationalisation is most appropriate remains unclear. Five meta-analyses were undertaken to provide comprehensive reviews of the OCB area (Organ and Ryan 1995; Podsakoff *et al.* 1996; Podsakoff *et al.* 2000; LePine *et al.* 2002; Hoffman *et al.* 2007). Three studies (Organ and Ryan 1995; Podsakoff *et al.* 1996; Podsakoff *et al.* 2000) did not investigate the robustness of results of different versions of the OCB constructs. Noticing this gap and a considerable overlap among the dimensions of OCB, LePine *et al.* (2002) meta-analysed the previous OCB studies based on five dimensions outlined by Organ (1988). Results indicated that the five dimensions of OCB are highly correlated and have similar determinants which include job satisfaction, orgnisational commitment, perceived fairness, leader support, and conscientiousness.

Moreover, the different dimensions of OCB did not account for variance beyond an overall measure in any of the attitudinal constructs (e.g. job satisfaction and commitment) they investigated Therefore, LePine *et al.* (2002) suggested that measures of the five dimensions of OCB are best viewed as "equivalent indicators of OCB" and that "scholars begin to explicitly think of Organ's (1998) OCB as a latent construct" (p. 61). Also, Hoffman *et al.*'s (2007) meta-analysis findings correspond to LePine *et al.*'s (2002) contentions that all the five OCB dimensions represent a single OCB construct enhancing the argument that a single-factor model of OCB is the best representation of OCB. Yet, other scholars argue that the OCB dimensions can be discriminated between one another (e.g. Todd and Kent 2006). Not surprisingly, differing conceptualisations of the OCB construct continue to be published in leading journals (e.g. unidimensional OCB by Allen and Rush (1998) in Journal of Applied Psychology, multidimensional OCB by Materson *et al.* (2000) in Academy of Management Journal). As a result, LePine *et al.* (2002) called for further research to determine the meaningfulness of specific OCB conceptual perspectives as different conceptualised dimensions may have differing effects on organisational consequences.

2.3.3 Organisation-directed OCB and individual-directed OCB

Recognising that the behavioural dimensions of OCB overlap with each other (e.g. Organ 1997; LePine *et al.* 2002), scholars considered that OCB dimensions could be integrated into conceptually distinct groups. For example, researchers began to conceptualise OCB on the basis of whom the behaviours are directed (e.g. Williams and Anderson 1991; Masterson *et al.* 2000). Williams and Anderson (1991) were the first to develop a different approach to assess OCB. They proposed a two-category approach: individual-directed OCB (hereafter OCBI) and organisation-directed OCB (hereafter OCBO), as they indicated that empirical and conceptual work in this area suggests these two broad categories of citizenship behaviours. OCBOs are behaviours that are directed at the organisation in general whereas OCBIs are behaviours that are directed at specific individuals, which may, as a result, indirectly benefit the organisation. It should be noted that Williams and Anderson's development of this approach was heavily based on Organ's (1988) taxonomy of OCB dimensions. Particularly, they suggest that Organ's taxonomy of altruism and courtesy should be viewed as OCBI whereas the remaining three dimensions (i.e. conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) should be regarded as OCBO. Some researchers may term these OCB dimensions differently. For example, Coleman and Borman (2000) proposed a two-category model of citizenship behaviour: interpersonal citizenship performance and organisational citizenship performance. Despite different terms used, their dimensions are similar to those proposed by Williams and Anderson (1991).

The idea of distinguishing OCB regarding its target enables researchers to investigate the strengths of these relationships. At the early stage, Robinson and Morrison (1995) proposed that psychological contract fulfilment or violation would have an impact on OCBO. Their longitudinal study found that employee perceived psychological contract at one time (Time 2) led to the employee's reduction of civic virtue at another time (Time 3). They used civic virtue to represent the OCBO with justification that this dimension of OCB is the most clearly organisationally directed. However, their study only considered one dimension of OCB. Moreover, they omitted to incorporate OCBI into the study. Later studies have filled this gap by considering both OCBO and OCBI simultaneously. For example, Turnley *et al.* (2003) empirically investigated the relationships between the role of psychological fulfilment and both OCB dimensions (OCBO and OCBI), and found that organisation fulfilment of supportive employment relation (organisation-related factor) was more strongly associated with OCBO than to OCBI.

2.4 Developing tailored forms of OCB in service contexts

There are a number of citizenship behaviour studies that have now been conducted across industries and organisations. Bell and Menguc (2002), however, points out that the majority of studies have relied on the generic measures of OCB. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) observed that some types of OCB may be more appropriate for certain sectors than others. As a consequence, in the service sector, where employees "have special requirements on dimensions related to dealing with customers and representing the organisation to outsiders" (p. 90), studies have attempted to identify specific forms of OCB. One prevalent stream of work (e.g. Bettencourt and Brown 1997) has emphasised prosocial service behavior (PSB), which represents positive behaviours that service employees direct at customers and co-workers. However, the service literature reveals two other dimensions of employee behaviour, namely internal influence and external representation, which are critical to success of service organisations (cf. Bowen and Scheider 1985; Zeithaml *et al.* 1988). While the literature has paid some attention to identifying drivers of PSB, the origins of internal influence and external representation remain largely unknown. This section discusses the development and operationalisation of the specific form of organisational citizenship behaviour examined in this study (i.e. service employee citizenship behaviour).

After calls for the tailored form of interpersonal helping behaviour in a specific context (Podsakoff *et al.* 2000), especially customer-directed OCB (Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1997), Bettencourt and Brown (1997) were among the first to respond. Based on the POB and OCB literature, with particular reference to the role of service employees, they conceptualised the term 'prosocial service behaviour' (hereafter PSB). This represents two dimensions of discretionary behaviours which employees directed at external customers (i.e. extra-role service delivery) and, internally, at their co-workers (i.e. cooperation) in the organisation at which they work. Moreover, PSB also includes role-prescribed tasks that employees are required to perform for the external customers. Taken together, PSB can be defined as behaviours, both in-role and extra-role, directed towards customer and co-workers that would ultimately affect the service performance perceived by customers.

In Bettencourt and Brown's (1997) work, items on cooperation have been taken from Podsakoff *et al.* (1990) comprising of a five-question subscale of the OCB scale. These questions were slightly modified to refer more specifically to helping other service employees. The extra-role and role-prescribed service delivery items were developed based upon Organ's (1988) conceptualisation of in-role and extra-role behaviours. The new items are particularly focused on the customer in the service context. After a number of statistical tests, the final version of PSB comprising fifteen indicators (five for each dimension) exhibited high reliability and validity levels for role-prescribed customer service, extra-role customer service, and cooperation. These scales have been used in subsequent research in the area. For example, the three-component PSB scale has been used in a study conducted by Ackfeldt and Wong (2006). In their study, measurement items were slightly modified, with some rewording and two indicators added to each dimension. The extra-role component of PSB was also used in other studies with slight modifications (i.e. Lee *et al.* 2006; Moliner *et al.* 2008).

Later, Bettencourt *et al.* (2001) introduced a new tailored form of OCB called 'service-oriented OCB' which consists of three fundamental roles of service employees that derive from the position of boundary spanners. Bettencourt *et al's.* (2001) sixteen-item measure of service-oriented OCB is based significantly on Van Dyne *et al.*'s (1994) conceptualisation of loyalty, participation, and conscientiousness. The main difference is that Bettencourt *et al.'s* (2001), the three constructs emphasises specifically on employee behaviour in the service context.

Loyalty reflects allegiance to the organisation through the promotion of its interests and image to outsiders (Bettencourt *et al.* 2001, p. 29). Items measuring this dimension were taken from various sources (i.e. Van Dyne *et al.* 1994; Moorman and Blakely's 1995) with slight adjustments on wording to suit the service context. Participation, in Bettencourt *et al.*'s (2001) study, refers to involvement and contribution of constructive ideas to improve service quality delivered by the company, co-workers, and oneself. Five items contribute to the overall score of this dimension. Three were drawn from Van Dyne *et al.*'s (1994) participation OCB whereas the remaining items were from Moorman and Blakely's (1995) individual initiative OCB. The final dimension of service-oriented OCB, service delivery, comprises six items derived from four sources (i.e. Van Dyne *et al.* 1994, Moorman and Blakely 1995, MacKenzie *et al.* 1993, and Parasuraman *et al.* 1988). This dimension aims at measuring whether employees are behaving in a conscientious manner in activities related to providing services to customers. In subsequent studies (i.e. Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Bettencourt *et al.* 2005), two of the three dimensions of service-oriented OCB namely 'loyalty' and 'participation' have been renamed to 'external representation' and 'internal influence', respectively. See Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Service-related OCB and their foundations

Original foundations	Service-related OCB and indicators
Loyalty (Van Dyne et al. 1994) -Does not tell outsiders this is a good place to work (Reverse coding) -Actively promotes organisation's products and services -Represents organization favourably to outsiders *Loyal Boosterism (Moorman and Blakely 1995)* -Encourages friend and family to utilize organization products -Show pride when representing the organization in public	*Loyalty (i.e. External representation)* -Tell outsiders this is a good place to work -Says good things about organization to others -Generates favourable goodwill for the company -Encourage friends and family to use firm's products and services -Actively promotes the firm's products and service
Obedience (Van Dyne et al. 1994) -Follow work rules and instructions with extreme care -Regardless of circumstance, produces highest quality work *Personal industry (Moorman and Blakely 1995)* -Perform duties with unusually few errors -Perform job duties with extra special care *Conscientiousness (MacKenzie et al. 1993)* -Conscientiously follows company regulations and pricedures -Returns phone calls and respond to other messages and requests for information promptly *Service qualily (Parasuraman et al. 1988)* -You do not receive prompt service from XYZ's employees (Reverse coding) -Employees of XYZ are polite	*Service delivery* -Follow customer service guidelines with extreme care -Conscientiously follows guidelines for customer promotions -Follows up in a timely manner to customer requests and problems -Performs duties with unusual mistakes -Always has a positive attitude at work -Regardless of circumstances, exceptionally courteous and respectful to customers
Participation (Van Dyne et al. 1994) -Shares ideas for new projects or improvement widely -Frequently make creative suggestions to co-workers -Keeps well-informed where opinion might benefit organisation *Individual initiative (Moorman and Blakely 1995)* -Often motivates others to express their ideas and opinions -Frequently communicates to co-workers suggestions on hoe the group can improve	*Participation (i.e. Internal influence)* -Encourages co-worker to contribute ideas and suggestions for service improvement -Contributes many ideas for customer promotions and communication -Make constructive suggestions for service improvement -Frequently presents to others creative solutions to customer problems -Take home brochures to read up on products and service

Source: Bettencourt *et al.* (2001, p. 41)

Surprisingly, the later studies (i.e. Bettencourt *et al.* 2001; Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Bettencourt *et al.* 2005) mainly focus on organisational-related OCB (i.e. external representation and internal influence) and ignore the importance of the extra-role customer service delivery element and cooperation among co-workers proposed by Bettencourt and Brown (1997). Extra-role behaviour can be regarded as a way to go beyond customer expectations which can in turn delight customers. Positive correlations between extra-role service delivery behaviour and customers' perceptions of service quality have been widely revealed in empirical studies (e.g. Hoffman and Kelly 1994; Bettencourt and Brown 1997; Kelly and Hoffman 1997; Bell and Menguc 2002; Niles-Jolly 2003). Others even found a positive relationship between OCB and customer satisfaction (e.g. Adcock 1999). Also, cooperation among service workers is crucial for successful delivery of superior service quality (Azzolini and Shillaber 1993). Conceptual and empirical studies support the importance of cooperation among service workers for the provision of exceptional service quality (Zeithaml *et al.* 1988; Hoffman and Kelly 1994; Kelly and Hoffman 1997). Due to the conceptual and empirical importance of extra-role service and cooperation, this present study therefore includes these two dimensions of service employee behaviour into the conceptual model.

To the best of my knowledge, no study has simultaneously examined all these five dimensions of service-specific OCB (i.e. in-role service delivery, extra-role service delivery, cooperation, internal influence, external representation). Therefore, a good opportunity exists for the present study to fill the gap. Given that there is no existing term for the construct that includes all these dimensions, the present study terms this set of constructs as ***'service employee citizenship behaviour'*** (hereafter as SECB) for the ease of clearly distinguishing between this construct and other service-related OCB constructs. See Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Dimensions of SECB and their definition

Dimensions	Definitions
Role-prescribed service delivery	Service delivery behaviours that are formally prescribed by roles or job description. Neglect of performing these tasks will consequently lead to punishment.
Extra-role service delivery	Helpful service delivery behaviours that are not formally prescribed by roles or job description. These behaviours are non-rewardable and non-punishable
Cooperation	Helpful work-related discretionary behaviours among service workers target at other members of their work group.
External representation	Being vocal advocates to outsiders of the organisation's image, products, and services
Internal influence	Taking individual initiative in communications to the firm and co-workers to improve service delivery by the organisation, co-workers, and oneself.

Sources: Based on Bettencourt and Brown (1997) and Bettencourt *et al.* (2005)

2.4.1 Operationalisation of SECB

Inconsistencies in operationalisation OCB have been witnessed as discussed earlier in this chapter (Section 2.3.2). Similarly, this is also the case with tailored forms of OCB in the service context. The problem seems to be exacerbated by the very small number of papers on the specific form of OCB. Moreover, the available studies employed different operationalisation approaches (cf. Bettencourt and Brown 1997, Ackfeldt and

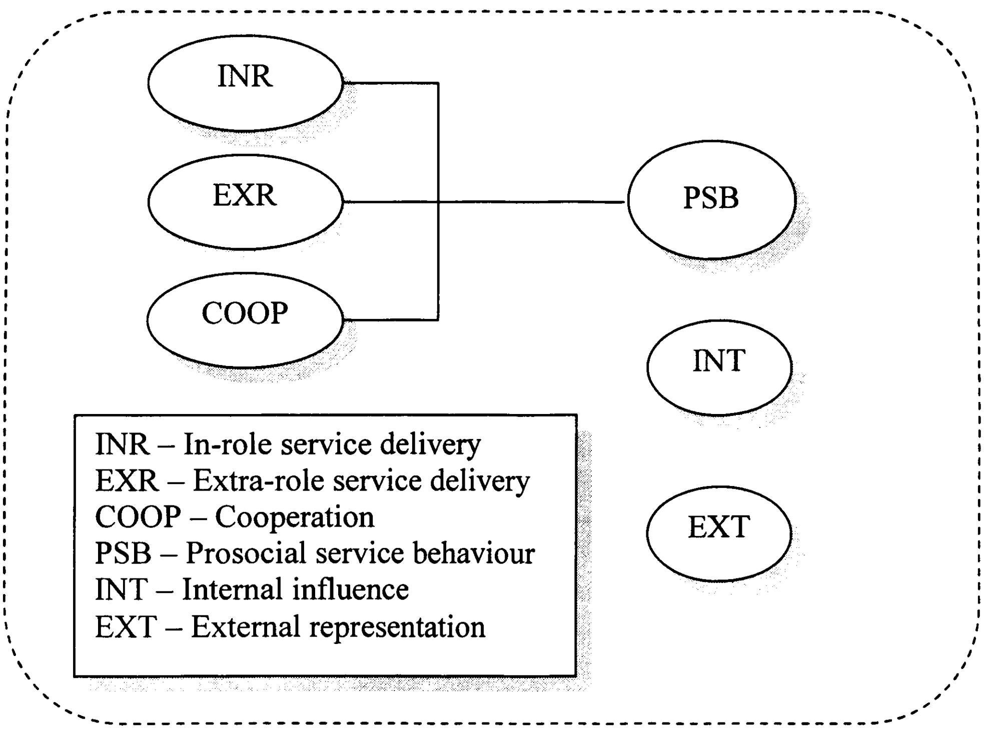
Wong 2006). This subsection discusses how SECB should be modelled in the subsequent analysis of the study.

Three of the five dimensions of SECB (i.e. in-role service delivery, extra-role service delivery and cooperation) were identified in Bettencourt and Brown's (1997) study. Specifically, the dimensions were in-role service delivery, extra-role service delivery, and cooperation. Although their study's measurement model provided acceptable fit indices, the structural model which separated the three constructs (i.e. multi-components) did not provide satisfactory fit indices to the data (χ^2/df > 2, CFI < .90). In Ackfeldt and Wong's (2006) study, consistent with suggestions made by prior studies (i.e. LePine *et al.* 2002; Hoffman *et al.* 2007), PSB was measured as a multidimensional construct (i.e. higher-order latent construct) with cooperation, extra-role behaviour, and role-prescribed behaviour being latent components of higher-order PSB. In contrast to Bettencourt and Brown's (1997), this operationalisation approach of PSB provided an excellent fit to the data in the structural stage (χ^2/df < 2, CFI > .95).

There is growing evidence and arguments supporting the conceptualisation of the three PSB components (i.e. in-role service, extra-role service, and cooperation) within a higher-order structure. There is no easy distinction between in-role and extra-role service behaviours, especially, in the Asian context where much is expected from service providers. To this point, Morrison's (1994) study showed that variation exists in how individuals implicitly define and measure OCB. The boundary between what is perceived as in-role and extra-role varies. Some people may view specific behaviours as in-role while others may view these same behaviours as beyond their duties (Farh *et al.* 2004; Kwantes *et al.* 2008; Turnipseed and Wilson 2009). Similar variations were empirically found in other studies (Pond *et al.* 1997; Lam *et al.* 1999). To detail, Lam *et al.* (1999) empirically showed that employees in more collectivistic societies (i.e. Hong Kong and Japan) were more likely to define OCBs as part of expected job behaviours than employees in a more individualistic society (i.e. Australia and the United States). Employee perceptions of extra-role behaviours as in-role may result in employee engagement of such behaviours (Coyle-Shapiro *et al.* 2004). It is, therefore, more appropriate to consider extra-role and in-role service behaviours within a higher-order construct, as per Ackfeldt and Wong (2006). Based on the above discussion, the present study employed a higher-order conceptualisation of the individual-directed service-related behaviour constructs, i.e. in-role service delivery, extra-role service delivery, and cooperation (also see Chapter Six: Section 6.3.1 for the empirical qualitative insights from field interview). To be consistent with prior work, this factor construct is termed 'prosocial service behaviour'.

Following prior studies (Bettencourt and Brown 2003: Bettencourt *et al.* 2005), the remaining two dimensions of SECB (i.e. internal influence and external representation) are modelled as separated, distinct constructs. The justification is that: (1) these constructs are not closely connected to the customer service delivery, thus allowing employee to more easily to separate them from their role-prescribed duties. Similarly, Moorman and Blakely (1995) believe that individual initiative and loyal boosterism (i.e. internal influence and external representation in this study) can be relatively easily distinguished from in-role behaviour. Moreover, the fact that external representation, by definition, occurs outside the work setting enhances the argument; (2) with reference to Williams and Anderson's (1991) two-factor approach to OCB (as discussed in Section 2.3.3), internal influence and external representation constructs are conceptually distinct groups of behaviours which are target to improve the organisation rather than directly promoting immediate customer service. Figure 2.2 shows how five dimensions of SECB are modelled in the subsequent analysis.

Figure 2.2: Modelling service employee citizenship behaviour

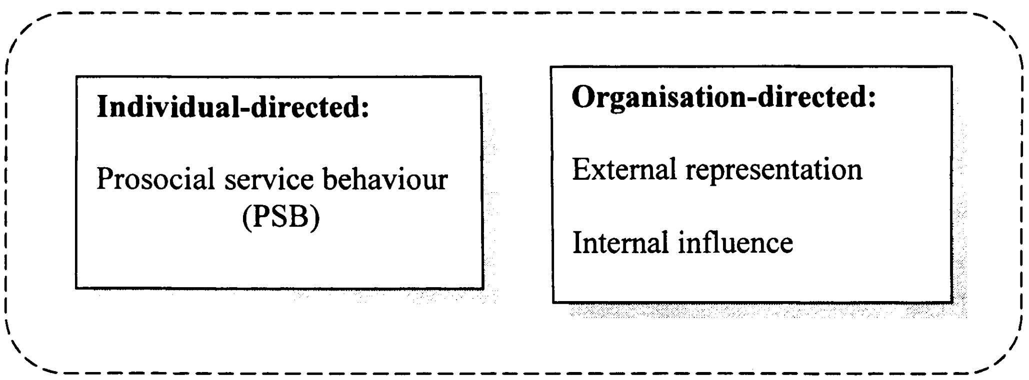


2.4.2 Individual-directed SECB and organisation-directed SECB

In the service context, Bettencourt *et al.* (2005) employed the two-category approach of OCB (i.e. individual-directed OCB and organisation-directed OCB) to hypothesise the strengths of the relationships between three types of fairness and three forms of customer-oriented boundary-spanning behaviour. Of these three types of justice, they identified procedural justice as the most strongly related to organisation control. Using a sample of 281 frontline service employees from a national retail bank, they found partial support for their initial hypotheses. Specifically, they found that the indirect effect of procedural justice on external representation is stronger than the indirect effect of distributive justice and interactional justice on external representation. Also, they found that the indirect effect of procedural justice on internal influence is stronger than the indirect effect of distributive justice on internal influence.

From the above discussion and existing empirical studies, it seems evident that all research findings comply with the central mechanism of social exchange theory called the "norm of reciprocity" that emphasises the return of favour to the donor. It is possible that the effects on OCB would vary depending on the unit under consideration. For instance, organisational factors (such as organisational justice) would have a stronger effect on OCBO than on OCBI. In the same token, it would be expected that individual-related factors (e.g. co-worker behaviour) would have a stronger effect on OCBI than on OCBO. Bettencourt *et al.*'s (2005) results have demonstrated the usefulness of future investigation offering theoretically derived predictions concerning the differential strength of antecedents on distinct components of citizenship behaviours. In accordance to the two-category approach, SECB can be modelled as shown in Figure 2.3.

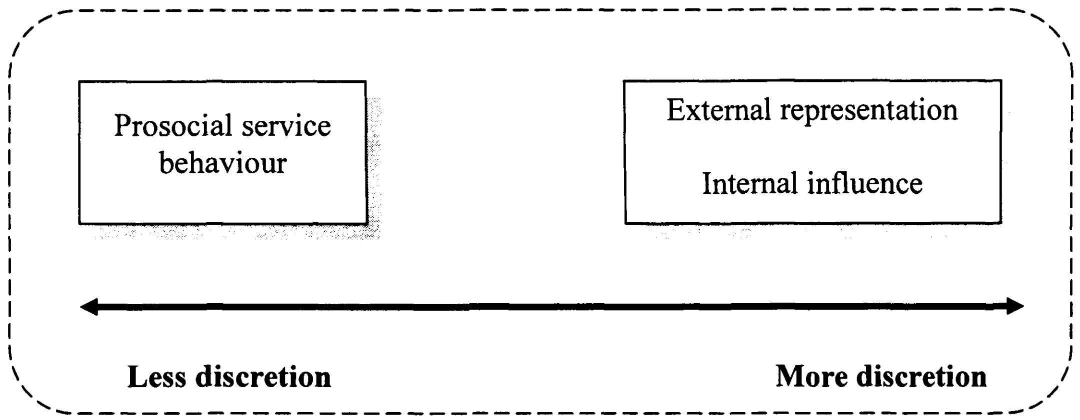
Figure 2.3: Dimensions of SECB according two-category approach



2.4.3 SECB on a discretion continuum

Beside Williams and Anderson's two-factor approach to OCB, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) offered a perspective to distinguish citizenship behaviour based on the nature of a particular construct in relation to job requirement and systematic rewards. Accepting that there is no clear-distinction between in-role and extra-role behaviours (e.g. Baruch *et al.* 2004; Turnipseed and Wilson 2009), Tepper *et al.* (2001) asserted that it is more appropriate to view a variety of positive citizenship behaviours as existing on a discretion continuum ranging from entirely extra-role to entirely in-role. This alternative perspective would enable the present study to systematically investigate the nomological network among the SECB components (see Chapter Five). Figure 2.4 shows the three constructs (i.e. PSB, internal influence, and external representation) on a continuum based on the extent of discretion.

Figure 2.4: Discretion continuum of SECB



2.5 *Social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity*

Increasing awareness of the importance of OCB among scholars from various disciplines, ranging from applied psychology to services marketing, has resulted in conceptual confusion. Besides the issue surrounding its conceptualisation, the underpinning theories of OCB have been the subject of controversy in literature (Van Dyne *et al.* 1994). Some researchers believe that OCB research lacks a clear theoretical approach (Koster and Sanders 2006). Thus, OCB research has been investigated from many different theoretical perspectives (e.g. social exchange theory, social identification theory, organisational support theory, and psychological contract theory). Indeed, OCB studies have investigated a range of variables at different levels derived from different theories (Frenkel and Sanders 2007). For instance, the relationship between job attitudes and OCB was proposed from social exchange theory, whereas the relationship between some organisational characteristics and OCB was proposed from the organisational support theory. The general aim of this section is to discuss the theory underpinning the present research.

For many years, organisational scholars have viewed employment as the exchange of employees' resources (e.g. effort and loyalty) for the organisation's provision of material and socioemotional benefits (e.g. Levinson 1965; Porter *et al.* 1974; Mowday *et al.* 1982; Bateman and Organ 1983; Brief and Motowildo 1986; Organ and Konovsky 1989). These characterisations of organisation-employee relationship focus on reciprocation of organisation's provision of the generous employee treatment by favourable returns (Aselage and Eisenberger 2003). From this perspective, it is believed that people who are well-treated are likely to produce preferred outcomes for the organisation (Mowday *et al.* 1982; Meyer and Allen 1997). In explaining the organisational-employee relationship, the majority of researchers employ social exchange theory as a broad theory, along with other specific theories (e.g. organisational support theory, and/or leader-member exchange theory) in the case of explaining a particular antecedent. Also, Organ (1990) suggests that employees engage in OCB only when they define their employment relationship as one based on social exchange. In the present study, social exchange theory is therefore used as the overarching theory in explaining how the organisation, co-worker, and customer may lead service employees to behave prosocially.

The exchange model was first proposed by Barnard (1938) and later revised by March and Simon (1958), who posited that individuals exchange their contributions for certain inducements that the organisation for which they work offers. Blau (1964) then distinguished between economic and social exchanges which differ on the nature of the offers being provided by the organisation. Economic exchange focuses on tangible aspects of the exchange whereas social exchange focuses on the social-emotional aspects of the exchange.

The norm of reciprocity, obligating the reciprocation between each party, serves as a starting mechanism for interpersonal relationships emphasising that a favour can be provided with the expectation that it will be returned (Gouldner 1960). Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005) pointed out that reciprocity requires "a bidirectional transaction – something has to be given and something returned" (p. 876). Thus, reciprocal interdependence focuses on contingent interpersonal transactions, whereby an action by an individual leads to a response by the other. In other words, it suggests that we owe the counterpart certain things because of what they have done for us in our previous interactions with them. The idea of reciprocation draws on the work of Blau (1964), who argues that the exchange party will strive for balance in the relationship and, if imbalance occurs, efforts will be made to restore the balance. To put this simply, when one person treats another well, the reciprocity norm obliges the return of favourable treatment and vice versa. It is contended that reciprocity contributes significantly to the stability of social systems, stating that it is morally improper to break off relations with those to whom you are still indebted (Gouldner 1960).

2.5.1 Transactions and relationships in social exchanges

Scholars have suggested that types of relationship and types of transaction are crucial for understanding exchanges of resources (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005).

Figure 2.5: Transaction and relationships in social exchanges

		Type of transaction	
		Social exchange	Economic exchange
Type of relationship	Social exchange	Cell 1: **match** Social transaction in a social relationship	Cell 2: **mismatch** Economic transaction in a social relationship
	Economic exchange	Cell 3: **mismatch** Social transaction in an economic exchange	Cell 4: **match** Economic transaction in an economic exchange

Source: Cropanzano and Mitchell (2005, pp. 887)

From the diagram, it is generally suggested that matches between relationship and exchanges occur when such relationships and exchanges are of the same type. Fao and Fao (1980) presented six types of resources in exchange: love, status, information, money, goods, and services. Although it is hardly able to distinguish these resources into entire socioemotional or entire economic dimension, certain types of resources are obviously more socioemotional than another. For example, love is regarded as more socioemotional than is money.

Within the organisational context, economic outcomes are those that address financial need and tend to be tangible, whereas socioeconomic outcomes are those that address social and esteem needs. Matches between relationship and exchange are less likely to be problematic for the organisation's attainment of favourable outcomes (Cell 1 and Cell 4 in the diagram). To the contrary, mismatches between the relationship and resource are more likely to thwart the relationship which in turn affects employee outcomes (Cell 2 and Cell 3). For example, the exchange of organisation's financial resources for employee's socioemotional resources that one might reserve for close friends and family can be stressful for the employee (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005). From this point of view, if the organisation wants to attain socioemotional outcomes, which may in turn lead to discretionary prosocial behaviour, they should provide socioemotional resources or create a sense of employees' socioemotional belongings to the company. In general, the notion of exchanging socioemotional resources (e.g. organisational support) for a return of employees' positive work attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction and organisational commitment) toward the organisation, which in turn leads to their discretionary behaviours, has been supported by numerous studies. Given the discretionary nature of OCB, employees may make it a means to reciprocate with the organisation in their favourable social relationship (Organ 1988).

2.5.2 Social and cultural value orientation

Although reciprocity is a human universal, this is not to claim that all individuals value reciprocity to the same degree (Cropanzana and Mitchell 2005). Within a social exchange perspective, social values can be conceived of as the individual's preferences for their own and others' outcomes (Maki and McClintock 1983). In outcome-interdependent relationships, individuals have consistently been shown to assign different weighting to their own and others' outcomes (see McClintock and Liebrand 1988). This overriding factor may influence how individuals view the exchange situation. Scholars have showed that social and cultural value orientations can provide a basis for better understanding differences in human behaviours across different parts of the world (Hofstede 1980). Hofstede (1980) proposed four main dimensions of cultures: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, and masculinity/femininity. Considerable research has focused on the individualism/collectivism aspect (see Gomez *et al.* 2000), and, although individualism/collectivism is generally regarded as a national-level construct, researchers have also begun to examine the construct at the individual level of analysis (e.g. Moorman and Blakely 1995; Gomez *et al.* 2000; Cohen and Avrahami 2006).

Hofstede (1980) described individualism/collectivism as a polarity contrasting the value placed on autonomy and individual initiative (individualism) with that placed on collective identity and interdependence (collectivism). Thus, individualism reflects the extent to which people emphasise their own goal over those of their group. Members who strive to achieve their own personal goals are characterised by individualistic cultures. Members who focus on the needs of the group over one's self, by contrast, characterise collectivistic cultures. An underpinning mechanism within a collectivistic culture is cooperation so as to attain group goals and to safeguard group welfare (Earley 1989). Earley furthered that people in an individualistic culture feel proud of their own accomplishment and derive satisfaction from performance based on their own achievement. Thus, it is possible that individualistic-oriented individuals are more likely to be minimally concerned about obligation to cooperate, whereas collectivistic-oriented individuals who place more focus on cooperation are more likely to feel obligated to behave in line with group's interests.

2.6 Social exchange relationships in organisations

Organisational and behavioural researches have often drawn upon social exchange theory (Blau 1964) and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner 1960) in their investigation of the employment relationship and other relationships between individuals in the work setting. One stream of research focuses on employee-organisation social exchange relationship. This is concerned with employees' perceptions of the degree to which their organisation supports them and recognises their contribution (Eisenberger *et al.* 1986; Eisenberger *et al.* 2001; Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002). The other lines of research focus on the quality of the relationship between individuals in the organisation (i.e. leader-member exchange and team-member exchange). This section aims to discuss each of these streams of research in relation to the area of OCB.

2.6.1 Perceived organisational support: Organisational support theory

Organisational support theory holds that employees form global beliefs about the extent to which the organisation cares about them and values their contributions to the organisation (Eisenberger *et al.* 1986). The notion that an organisation serves as an exchange partner in the eyes of an employee is not new. For instance, Levinson (1965) suggested that individuals engage in an anthropomorphic ascription of dispositional traits to the organisation leading to organisational personification. This concept is labeled as 'perceived organisational support' (hereafter POS). The theoretical foundation for POS is drawn from social exchange theory (Blau 1964), and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner 1960). The basic premise of POS is that an employee's commitment to the organisation, as well as the amount and nature of effort expended on behalf of the organisation, is strongly determined by their perceptions of the organisation's commitment to them (Eisenberger *et al.* 1986).

The view of the organisation as a party with which individuals may have an exchange relationship has also been supported by psychological contract researchers who suggest that employees form an implicit contract with the organisation as an entity based on perceived mutual obligations (Rousseau 1989; 1995). According to the research in this area, continued reciprocation of resources beyond those required by formal agreements in the employment relationship strengthens the psychological contract. Conversely, an employer's failure to fulfil the implied obligations of the psychological contract is suggested to reduce the employee's inclination to expend work effort beyond their role-prescribed duties (Robinson and Morrison 1995).

Based on the norm of reciprocity, a high level of POS obliges individuals to repay the organisation (Van Dyne *et al.* 1994), and may thus determine employee attitudes and behaviours that are beneficial to the organisation. Organisational support theorists address the psychological processes underpinning consequences of POS as:

> First, on the basis of the reciprocity norm, POS should produce a felt obligation to care about the organisation's welfare and to help the organisation to reach its objectives. Second, the caring, approval, and respect connoted by POS should fulfill socioemotional needs, leading workers to incorporate organisational membership and role status into their social identify. Third, POS should strengthen employees' beliefs that the organisation recognizes and rewards increased performance .... The process should have favourable outcomes for both employees (e.g., increased job satisfaction and heightened positive mood) and for the organisation (e.g., increased affective commitment and performance, reduced turnover) (Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002, p. 699).

Felt obligation, which obliges an employee to reciprocation (Aselage and Eisenberger 2003), would increase job satisfaction and organisational commitment and in turn leads employees to behave prosocially in order to payback the organisation. Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) reported from their meta-analysis that POS was positively related to both role-prescribed and extra-role behaviours, and was negatively related to withdrawal behaviours. As discussed earlier, POS obliges the employee's concern of the organisation's goal achievement; they would therefore engage in extra-role behaviour if they believe that such behaviour is beneficial to the organisation. Likewise, George and Brief (1992) posited that employees with high POS would be willing to engage in spontaneous behaviour (i.e. a form of extra-role behaviour) in response to unforeseen problem facing the organisation. Eisenberger *et al.* (1986) added that work effort should stem from an exchange ideology based upon the norm of reciprocity, thus reinforcing the relevant of social and culture value in social exchange relationship.

2.6.2 Leader-member exchange (LMX)

Similar to organisation-employee exchange, social exchange theory provides the dominant theoretical basis for leader-member exchange (hereafter LMX). In contrast to the 'average' leadership style approach to leadership which focuses on the leader as the unit of analysis and maintains that leaders behave in the same prescribed manner toward each member, LMX suggests that an interpersonal relationship evolves between supervisors and subordinates against the background of a formation organisation and that the leader and each member have a unique relationship (Graen and Cashman 1975).

Early LMX research drew its theoretical foundation from role theory (Katz and Kahn 1978). Later theoretical treatments and empirical examinations of LMX began to also draw upon social exchange theory. From the perspective of role theory, it has been suggested that the relationship between leaders and subordinates develops in a three-phrase socialization process that consists of role-taking, role-making, and role routinisation (Graen and Scandura 1987). This three-phrase process can be further described as the sampling, role development, and commitment phase, respectively of the relationship between leaders and subordinates.

The social exchange perspective of LMX suggests that leaders, largely due to time constraints, are only able to develop close relationships with a few key subordinates (Graen 1976). As a consequence, an 'in-group' (characterised by high levels of trust, interaction, support, and rewards) and an 'out-group' (characterised by low levels of each of the aforementioned categories) are formed based on the quality of the exchange relationship that emerges between the leaders and each of their subordinates (Dienesch and Liden 1986). This distinction was described as the leader's "cadre" (high-quality relationship, in-group members) versus the leader's "hired hands" (low-quality relationship, out-group members) by Dansereau *et al.* (1975). These authors further stated that members of the first group enjoy greater negotiation latitude in defining their roles and in performing tasks whereas the latter-group members enjoy very little negotiating latitude and are therefore relegated to the negotiated form of exchange, which is mainly based on the specified, contractual obligations of the employment contract.

2.6.3 Team-member exchange

The idea of exchange between leader and member provoked the thought of exchange among workers at the same level, or "co-worker exchange". Recognising that this exchange relationship had not been specifically addressed in the social exchange literature in organisations, Seers (1989) introduced the concept of team-member exchange (hereafter TMX) along with its measure. Seers suggested that TMX is the extent to which an individual's perception of his or her willingness to assist other group members and to share ideas and provide feedback. While TMX and LMX are built on the social exchange theory, TMX differ from LMX in that it is not dyadic. It involves an individual's perception of the relationship within a group of peers with whom he or she identifies as a member, rather than with each member individually. Team-member exchanges have also been suggested to be an alternative influence on employee work attitudes and performance (Seers 1989).

Later, Sherony and Green (2002) have extended the work of Seers (1989) and proposed a construct similar to TMX called "member-member exchange". The difference is that member-member exchange is based on individual members' perceptions regarding their relationships with each of their work group. In 2002, Sherony and Green empirically examined this concept in relation to work attitudes and performance. The results supported the link between member-member exchange and work attitudes. Specifically, co-worker exchange was found to have a positive relationship with job satisfaction but not organisational commitment (Sherony and Green 2002). Their work, however, modelled the two job attitude as ultimate variables. Employee performance was, therefore, not examined.

2.6.4 Exchange with 'outsiders'

Apart from the three aforementioned social exchange relationships that can be formed in an organisation, scholars propose that employees can form social exchanges with 'outsiders' (Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005). The applicability of the social exchange theory to explain the relationship between firms and customers is noted in the literature (Sierra and McQuitty 2005). Importantly, in service-based organisations, interdependent interactions exist. The interdependence between customers and service providers can form a sense of reciprocity and obligation (e.g. Houston *et al.* 1992; Gutek 2000). However, most studies take an organisational perspective, thus focusing on answering how an organisation can extract positive attitudinal and behavioural outcomes from the customer by introducing favours to generate the customer's senses of reciprocal obligation.

In service organisations, it is noted that a range of support elements can also stem from the customer (Susskind *et al.* 2003). When perceived asymmetries between an individual's inducements exist, the party with a feeling of indebtedness may be willing to promote a return to a balance, thereby engaging in desirable behaviours toward the other party. From this perspective, the customer who gives socioemotional resources to the service provider may create the feeling of reciprocity to return some resources to the giving party (see Chapter Four).

2.7 Chapter summary

This chapter reviewed the previous research within the area of OCB and sought to achieve three objectives. Firstly, this chapter illustrates the development and evolution of the OCB concept. Also, the relationship of this construct to other closely related constructs such as prosocial organisational behaviours, customer-oriented behaviours, service-oriented behaviours, and contextual performance, is explained. Secondly, based on relevant conceptual and empirical studies, this chapter conceptually developed the service employee citizenship behaviour construct and addressed how this construct should be modelled. The components of service employee citizenship behaviour has been outlined in the light of the two-category approach (i.e. organisation-directed OCB and individual-directed OCB) resulting in individual-directed service employee citizenship behaviours (i.e. PSB) and organisational-directed service employee citizenship behaviours (i.e. internal influence and external representation). Also, the SECB components are outlined on the discretionary continuum. These conceptualisations will inform hypothesis development and guide the data analysis in subsequent chapters.

Theories and perspectives underpinning this study are also addressed. In brief, the social exchange perspective informs that the employee can form social relationship with different groups of people such as organisations, co-workers, and even customers. Based on the norm of reciprocity, these social relationships would oblige the employee to return to favour to the donours. As the focus of the present study is the effect of job satisfaction and organisational commitment on SECB, social exchange theory is of particular relevance. The next chapter discusses these two attitudinal variables in more details, as well as the role of individualism/collectivism in OCB studies.

Chapter 3

Chapter 3

Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment, and Culture in Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Research

"If you are planning to lead a company where all members of your staff are customer-focused, you need their commitment, not their obedience"

Canning, 1999

3.1 Introduction

Job satisfaction and organisational commitment are attitudes that have been frequently used to predict work behaviours (McKenna 2006). According to Luthans (2002), such attitudes can be characterised in three ways. First, these attitudes tend to persist unless something is done to change them. Second, attitudes can fall anywhere along a continuum from very favourable to very unfavourable. And third, attitudes such as job satisfaction and organisational commitment can be directed toward some object about which a person holds feelings and beliefs. The notion that job attitudes are related to job performance has attracted much attention throughout the history of organisational research (Bowling 2007).

Judge *et al.* (2001) pointed out that the causal relationship between job attitudes and job performance is inconclusive. Thus, the first objective of this chapter is to establish an understanding of the relationship between job attitudes (i.e. job satisfaction and organisational commitment) and job performance. Thereafter, the chapter discusses the relevance of job attitudes in OCB research. Additionally, scholars have called for a re-examination of theories and practices that have been developed in the United States for their applicability and generalisibility to other countries and cultures (e.g. Randall 1993; Kwantes 2003). Thus, the second objective of this chapter is to provide critical insights into the effects of culture and the relationships between job satisfaction and organisational commitment and OCB. Here, the focal concept of individualism/collectivism is presented. Following this, empirical OCB studies which incorporate individualism/collectivism are discussed.

3.2 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is not only a widely discussed construct studied by organisational behaviourists, but also by industrial/occupational psychologists and social psychologists (Cranny *et al.* 1992). Indeed, it is asserted to be the most focal employee attitude from the perspectives of both research and practice (Saari and Judge 2004). This section provides definitions and the theoretical framework of job satisfaction adopted in the present study.

3.2.1 Definitions of job satisfaction

The two classic and influential definitions of job satisfaction were offered by Locke (1969; 1976). Locke (1969, p. 317) explained that job satisfaction is the "pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating one's job values [whereas] job dissatisfaction is the unpleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as frustrating or blocking the attainment of one's values". He subsequently described job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from an appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke

1976, p. 1300). Thus, job satisfaction is a result of employees' perception of how well their job provides those things that are viewed as important (Luthans 2002).

Although theoretical analyses have criticised job satisfaction as being conceptually too narrow (Bussing *et al.* 1999), a clear consensus exists among scholars that job satisfaction is defined as an attitudinal construct conceptualised in terms of beliefs (cognitions) and feeling (affect) regarding one's job in general (Cranny *et al.* 1992). Thus, as an attitude, job satisfaction is a "positive (or negative) evaluative judgment one makes about one's job or job situation" (Weiss 2002, p. 175).

3.2.2 Theoretical framework of job satisfaction

Different frameworks to measure job satisfaction have been witnessed. It can be assessed as overall satisfaction or with individual facets of job satisfaction (Johns and Saks 2005). Some scholars use composite measure of satisfaction by aggregating different job dimensions identified as important. For example, Smith *et al.* (1969) developed a composite job satisfaction measure comprising satisfaction with supervision, co-workers, work, pay, and promotion. Others used the index comprising satisfaction with five core job dimensions: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and job feedback, The Job Diagnostic Index (Hackman and Oldham 1975). However, the measure that has been shown to possess good psychometric properties (Weiss *et al.* 1967) and has been widely used in the field of marketing (Brown and Paterson 1993) and prosocial behaviour research (MacKenzie *et al.* 1998) is the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire developed by Weiss et al. (1967). This measure of job satisfaction consists of twenty positively worded items measuring extrinsic, intrinsic, and global job satisfaction.

Noticeably, both cognitive and affective aspects of job satisfaction can be found in most of the definitions. Likewise in the measurement framework of job satisfaction, these two aspects are also presented in the job satisfaction measurement. Among the three job satisfaction measurements commonly used (i.e. Job Descriptive Index-JDI, Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire-MSQ, and the Faces scale), Brief and Roberson (1989) tested the relative presence of cognitions and affects in these measures and generally found that both influences were normally present, but to varying degrees. They found that the MSQ version consisted of the most cognitive-oriented measures whereas the Faces scale consisted of the most affective-oriented.

3.2.3 Causality of job satisfaction and performance

Both scholars and management tend to believe that job satisfaction leads to higher productivity and profits (Schwab and Cummings 1970). However, the most-cited meta-analysis of the research literature found only a .17 true estimate correlation between job satisfaction and performance (Iffaldano and Muchinsky 1985). Yet, there are some conceptual, methodological, and empirical analytical arguments against these weak results (see Judge *et al.* 1995). More recent studies have provided evidence to believe that the satisfaction-performance relationship exists, but may not be as high as conventionally assumed (see, Judge *et al.* 2001; Bowling 2007; Riketta 2008). Importantly, the debate about whether job satisfaction causes job performance, or vice versa, continues to date as it is noted that "the study of the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance has a controversial history" (Saari and Judge 2004, p. 398).

Although the existence of positive relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is likely, the causal relationship between job satisfaction and performance remains unclear (Riketta 2008). A number of scholars posit a causal effect of job satisfaction on job performance (see Judge *et al.* 2001 for review). This proposition adopts the "happy-productive" worker hypothesis and has most often been examined in organisational studies (Wright and Cropanzano 2000). Though it is difficult to exactly know where and how this hypothesis arose (Organ *et al.* 2006), it is probably the oldest specification of the relationship and is often attributed to the human relations school of thoughts (Judge *et al.* 2001). This human relations movement with its emphasis on good interpersonal relations provided an important initial stimulant for the study of job attitudes and their relationship to human behaviour in organisations (Lawler and Porter 1967). This, in turn, is linked to the influence of the Hawthorne studies and their interpretation by Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939). According to this view, happy workers demonstrate higher levels of job-related performance behaviours than do unhappy employees (Spector 1997). The premise that attitudes lead to behaviour is implicitly grounded in the social psychology literature which assumes that attitudes carry with them behavioural consequences (Judge *et al.* 2001). Organ *et al.* (2006) pointed out that it is reasonable to believe that the more positive a person's job attitudes, the more positive the person's job performance. They supported this argument by the following statements:

> We see many apparently confirming instances of this in everyday life. We behave positively toward people we like and respect. We observe that people are generally pretty good at what they like and vice versa. We vote for candidates who support the goals that we favour, just as we also favour the goals endorsed by candidates whom we respect on other grounds. So we naturally would expect that people who like their jobs will be good at those jobs, and vice versa. We would expect them to behave positively in respect to those jobs and to the employer, and we would expect their actions to support supervisors whom they like and respect. Therefore, it would seem to make sense that the greater the overall job satisfaction (including job satisfaction with the work, the pay, the conditions of employment, the treatment by co-workers and the supervisor), the more productive and the better the performance of the individual (p. 67).

An important departure from the earlier view about the relationship between job satisfaction and performance presents the causal effect of job performance on job satisfaction (Schwab and Cummings 1970). According to expectancy theories of motivation, it is generally stipulated that satisfaction follows from the rewards produced by performance (Vroom 1964). Broadly, the model positing that performance leads to job satisfaction is derived from the assumption that enhanced performance leads to valued outcomes which are satisfying to individuals. Thus, based on expectancy perspectives, performance leads to job satisfaction through the provision of intrinsic and/or extrinsic rewards (Lawler and Porter 1967). Locke (1970) argues that this causal effect would occur only when the satisfaction is viewed as a function of goal-directed behaviour and value attainment. In comparison with research positing a unidirectional effect of job satisfaction on performance, more studies have stipulated a unidirectional effect of job performance on job satisfaction (Judge *et al.* 2001). However, a very recent longitudinal analysis of the causality between job satisfaction and job performance favour the proposition that job satisfaction precedes job performance (Riketta 2008). Specifically, his study has empirically revealed that longitudinal effects of performance on job satisfaction were elusive. He then concludes that job satisfaction is more likely to precede job performance than vice versa.

3.2.4 Moderators and the job satisfaction-performance relationship

Recognising the complexity of the satisfaction-performance relationship and the fact that many possible moderating variables are likely (Luthans 2002), scholars increasingly pay attention to potential variables which may moderate the job satisfaction-job performance relationship. Judge *et al.* (2001) point out a number of potential moderators of this relationship which have been examined. These include organisational tenure, cognitive ability, need for achievement, career stage, pressure for performance, time pressure, job fit, and occupational group. However, it appears that few studies consider employees' social and cultural values which potentially could affect job attitudes and in turn job performance. Saari and Judge (2004) noted that research attention is increasingly focusing on the influences of culture on employee attitudes. Thus, there is an important gap in understanding how cultural values may condition the relationship. The present study addresses the existing gap in understanding how a form of cultural value (i.e. individualism/collectivism) can potentially condition the effects of job attitudes on job performance and, more specifically on service citizenship behaviour performance (see Section 3.5).

3.3 Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment is another job attitude which has attracted considerable research attention among management theorists as it depicts important positive work-related behaviours (Meyer and Allen 1997). In reviewing the early literature on organisational commitment, there seems little consensus regarding what the term means. This section aims to provide a comprehensive discussion on the development of the three-component model of organisational commitment and the commitment–performance relationship

3.3.1 Organisational commitment: The three-component model

As with other topics in organisational behaviour, a wide variety of definitions and measures of organisational commitment exist (see Becker *et al.* 1995). It is noted that "researchers from various disciplines ascribed their own meaning to the topic (i.e. commitment), thereby increasing the difficulty involved in understanding the construct" (Mowday *et al.* 1982, p. 20). At the early stage of organisational commitment studies, a number of scholars have defined organisational commitment as either attitudinal or behavioural. Mowday *et al.* (1982, p. 26) discussed these two components of commitments as follows:

> Attitudinal commitment focuses on the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organisation. In many ways it can be thought of as a mind set which individuals consider the extent to which their own values and goals are congruent with those of the organisation. Behavioural commitment, on the other hand, relates to the process by which individuals become locked into a certain organisation and how they deal with the problem.

Attitudinal commitment represents a broad state in which an individual identifies with a particular organisation and its goals and willingness to retain membership in order to facilitate these goals (Mowday *et al.* 1979). In defining organisational commitment from a behavioural perspective, employees may be committed when what they value has been invested by them in the job (e.g. time, effort, money) and when they would consider these investments as lost to them if they leave the organisation. This perspective of commitment originated from Becker's (1960) "side-bets" theory. Becker regarded commitment as "consistent lines of activity". When people can not continue their activities, they will have a sense of loss. This view has been later labelled as "continuance commitment" by Meyer and Allen (1984).

In addition to the above two components of commitment, a third component has emerged from the organisational commitment literature—normative commitment. Marsh and Mannari (1977) described the notion of normative commitment as follows: "the committed employee considers it morally right to stay in the company" (p. 59). This component of commitment is based on a belief that one has responsibility to the organisation reflecting an individual's perception of norms governing the person's behaviour and may, therefore, be the most relevant to cross-cultural situations (Kwantes 2003). In general, organisational commitment can be defined as "a psychological link between the employee and his or her organisation that makes it less likely the employee will voluntarily leave the organisation" (Meyer and Allen 1996, p. 252). Admitting that organisational commitment is a psychological bond; nevertheless, the nature of the bond can differ (O' Reilly and Chatman 1986; Meyer and Allen 1991).

As the body of research on organisational commitment has developed and matured, it seems that scholars now widely accepted that the organisational commitment construct is multi-faceted in nature (Meyer *et al.* 2002). Based on the existing literature, Allen and Meyer proposed and refined the three-component model of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative (Allen and Meyer 1996; Meyer and Allen 1984; 1991; 1997). Meyer and Allen (1991) defined the three components as follows:

> Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. Employees with strong affective commitment continue employment with the organisation because they want to do so. Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation. Employees whose primary link to the organisation is based on continuance commitment remain because they need to do so. Finally, normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they ought to remain with the organisation (p.67).

Referring to the three components, they argued that an employee's relationship with an organisation may simultaneously reflect varying degrees of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. There is considerable research support for this three-component conceptualisation of organisational commitment (Hackett *et al.* 1994; Cichy *et al.* 2009) and its generalisibility across cultures (e.g. Ko *et al.* 1997; Lee *et al.* 2001).

Given the conceptual differences of the three components, each component may develop from quite different antecedents and have differential effects on work behaviour (Meyer and Allen 1991). Not withstanding the multidimensionality of organisational commitment, only a few studies have investigated all three components of organisational commitment at the same time (Hackett *et al.* 1994; Meyer *et al.* 1993; Chen and Francesco 2003). Moreover, it is also surprising that research on organisational commitment in countries outside Western business contexts is rare

(Meyer *et al.* 2002; Francesco and Chen 2004). Our understanding of the relationship between different components of organisational commitment and their relationship to job performance, especially in the area of citizenship behaviours in non-western settings, remains unclear, thus warranting further investigation.

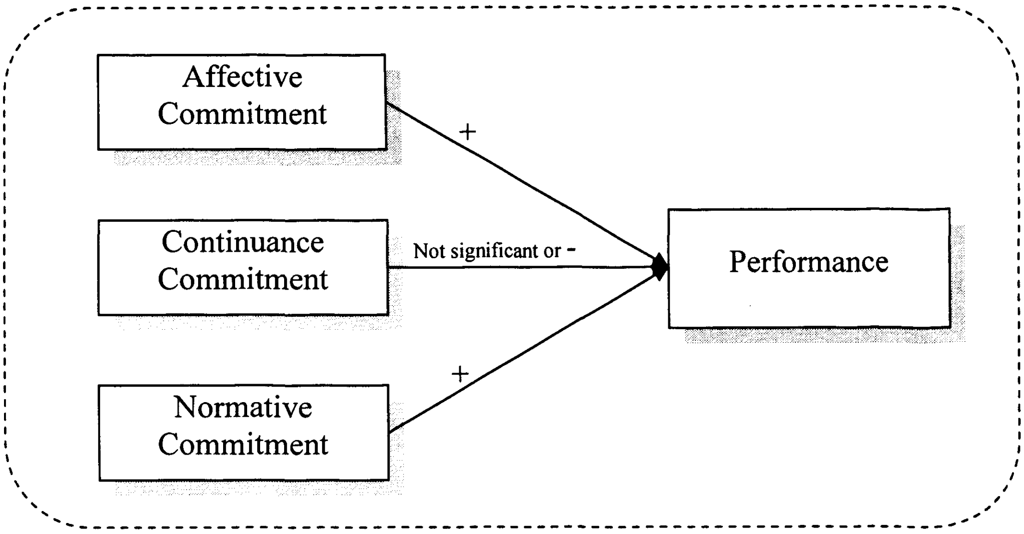
3.3.2 Organisational commitment and performance

The organisational commitment-performance relationship has been examined for decades (Tett and Meyer 1993). Generally, organisational commitment implies that the employee is willing to make an attachment to and exert more effort on behalf of the organisation (Mowday *et al.* 1982). Thus, it could be logically expected that such efforts lead employees to higher performance (Francesco and Chen 2004). In fact, research summaries do show empirical support for a positive relationship between organisational commitment and desirable outcomes such as high performance, low turnover, and low absenteeism (Luthans 2002). Nonetheless, by definition, it seems that the three components of organisational commitment should be differentially related to employee behavioural outcomes. It is reasonable to expect that employees who are affectively committed to the organisation would behave differently from those whose bond is based on costs associated with leaving the organisation (Meyer *et al.* 1989).

As affective organisational commitment is an employee's positive attachment to the employing organisation and a willingness to contribute toward the attainment of organisational goals (Mowday *et al.* 1979), it is proposed that such active relationships are evident in an individual's expressions and subsequent behaviour (Gould-Williams and Davies 2005). Thus, affective organisational commitment can be expected to influence behaviours that are beneficial to the organisation (Mowday *et al.* 1982; Meyer and Allen 1997; Rekitta 2002). Normative commitment, "a feeling of obligation to continue employment" (Meyer and Allen 1991, p. 67), may also be rooted in feelings of obligation or indebtedness arising from an organisation's provision of certain benefits (Chen and Francesco 2003). This feeling may oblige employees to continue their employment with the organisation until they feel that they have paid back their debts (Scholl 1981; Meyer and Allen 1991; Snape and Redman 2003). Also, high performance may be regarded as a means employee use to reciprocate the feeling of indebtedness. Hence, normative commitment can also be expected to influence behaviours that are beneficial to the organisation.

On the other hand, continuance commitment, a sense of commitment out of a sense of perceiving few options or due to a perception that the losses involved in leaving the organisation outweigh the benefits, is not likely to cause high performance. In deed, it can be expected to have negative impact on employee performance (Cichy *et al.* 2009). A possible explanation is that employees with strong continuance commitment believe that they are in a "no choice" situation; as such they react with anger to the situation and, accordingly, may not behave in a desirable manner toward the organisation (Meyer and Allen 1997). In the light of the preceding discussion, affective commitment can be expected to have the strongest positive effect on favourable work behaviours, followed by normative commitment, whereas continuance commitment can be expected to have little or even negative effects on such behaviours (Powell and Meyer 2004; Cichy *et al.* 2009). See Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: The three-component model of organisational commitment and performance



Source: Adapted from Meyer *et al.* (2002, p. 22)

3.4 Job satisfaction and organisational commitment in OCB research

In OCB research, a vast amount of studies have investigated the relationship between job attitudes and citizenship behaviours with causal specifications based on social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity (see Chapter Two). However, there are some issues that need to be addressed. This section aims to provide a comprehensive review of existing studies on these two attitudinal variables in the OCB literature.

3.4.1 Job satisfaction in OCB research

Traditionally, scholars have equated job performance with performance of specific job tasks (Judge *et al.* 2001). It was suggested that the failure to find a sizable relationship between job attitudes and job performance is attributed to the narrow means often used to define job performance (Organ 1988; Organ *et al.* 2006). Organ (1988) argues that when performance is conceptualised more broadly – to include both role-prescribed performance and organisational citizenship behaviours – its correlation with job satisfaction will increase. A number of meta-analytic analyses have provided supporting evidence for the relationship between job satisfaction and citizenship behaviours (e.g., Organ and Ryan 1995; Podsakoff *et al.* 2000; LePine *et al.* 2002; Hoffman *et al.* 2007). In fact, Organ's (1988) proposition was directly supported by a recent meta-analysis study of Hoffman *et al.* (2007). The results showed that "OCB consistently relates more strongly to job attitudes than does task performance..." (Hoffman *et al.* 2007, p. 555).

The extant review of OCB literature reveals two steams of work regarding the job satisfaction construct. First, to the circumstance that an employee's satisfaction is a result of organisational efforts or practices, the person will seek to reciprocate such efforts (Bateman and Organ 1983). This perspective is mainly based on social exchange theory which emphasises on the reciprocation of favour (Blau 1964). The other line of research looks at job satisfaction as a positive mood. It is argued that citizenship behaviours are more likely to occur when a person experiences positive mood characterised by positive affect (Clark and Isen 1982; George 1991; Kelly and Hoffman 1997). To the extent that job attitude is regarded as a positive affect, a person who is satisfied with his/her job is therefore more likely to exhibit citizenship behaviour. With either extent, much contemporary research empirically supports the existence of a positive relationship between job satisfaction and citizenship behaviours (e.g. Organ and Konovsky 1989; Goerge 1991; Williams and Anderson 1991;

Moorman 1993; Organ and Ryan 1995; Kelly and Hoffman 1997; MacKenzie *et al.* 1998; Bachrach and Jex 2000; Podsakoff *et al.* 2000; Donavan *et al.* 2004; Ackfeldt and Coote 2005; Bettencourt *et al.* 2005; Hoffman *et al.* 2007).

Scholars have been interested to establish whether affective and/or cognitive satisfaction lead to OCB (see Section 3.2.2). It is reported that cognitive job satisfaction is more significantly related to OCB (Organ and Konovsky 1989). Other studies have confirmed the contention that job satisfaction with more cognitive orientation tend to demonstrate more robust relationships with OCB (e.g. Moorman 1993).

3.4.1.1 Cognitive job satisfaction versus fairness

Using social justice as the basis of participants' inclination toward OCB together with the argument that cognitive-oriented assessments of job satisfaction primarily deals with the conception of fairness, it is contended that explicit measures of fairness should be better predictors of OCB (Organ 1988; 1990; Organ and Moorman 1993). To the extent that job satisfaction and justice may be indistinguishable and perhaps form part of a broader construct (Organ *et al.* 2006), it is suggested that job satisfaction would only determine OCB when it reflects judgments about fairness (Organ 1988; 1990; Organ and Moorman 1993). This would mean that job satisfaction is unrelated to OCB when fairness is controlled. However, Organ and Ryan's (1995) meta-analysis did not find evidence supporting the preposition that fairness is better than job satisfaction in predicting OCB. In contrast, they found that fairness has slightly lower correlation with OCB than that of job satisfaction.

Although Organ and Ryan's (1995) results provided preliminary evidence to the argument that job satisfaction is different from fairness, it did not directly examine the conceptual relationships between the constructs in relation to OCB. Recognising this problem, a very recent study conducted a meta-analytic review testing four conceptual relationships among fairness, job satisfaction, and OCB (Fassina *et al.* 2008). The results provide support for the independent effects model: job satisfaction and perceived fairness accounted for unique variance in OCB dimensions, thus corresponding with Organ and Ryan (1995).

On top of their empirical findings, Fassina *et al.* (2008) also provided conceptual assertions that the two constructs are distinguishable by the primary objects of evaluation, the nature of evaluation, and the extent to which they are morally laden. The main objects of fairness evaluation are organisational authorities, procedures, and the outcomes of the procedures (Masterson *et al.* 2000). In contrast, the primary object of job satisfaction evaluation is the overall job itself (Smith *et al.* 1969). Secondly, Fassina *et al.* (2008) pointed out that an evaluation of satisfied versus unsatisfied is different from an evaluation of fair versus unfair. An employee with unfair supervisors can be satisfied with their overall job. Finally, they suggested that the moral and emotional underpinnings associated with justice/injustice are stronger than those for job satisfaction/dissatisfaction.

3.4.2 Organisational commitment in OCB research

Another job attitudinal variable which is a common indicator of social exchange (Morgan and Hunt 1994) and has been widely investigated in the area of OCB along with job satisfaction is organisational commitment. Despite the recognition of multi-components of organisational commitment, most scholars only focus on the affective component of commitment. This phenomenon can probably be attributed to the influential meta-analytic study of Organ and Ryan (1995) which suggests that only affective component, rather than the others, should be positively linked to the occurrence of OCB.

With separate analysis of two components of commitment (i.e. continuance commitment and affective commitment), Organ and Ryan (1995) indicated that only affective commitment is related to OCB. This result can probably be explained by tracing back to the origin of two dominant commitment conceptualisations, one given by Porter *et al.* (1974) and the other by Becker (1960). According to Meyer *et al.* (1989), people who are affectively committed to the organisation may behave differently from those with continuance committed to the organisation, as the first group remain because they want to be a part of the organisation, whereas the latter group remain because they need to avoid financial and other costs. Thus, the latter group is less likely to exert efforts besides the minimum role requirements.

As a result, affective organisational commitment, rather than other components of commitment, was employed as representative of organisational commitment in most subsequent citizenship behaviour studies. In other words, scholars simply continue to include only one particular aspect of commitment (i.e. affective commitment) into their work and make a general claim that organisational commitment leads to extra-role behaviours. This leaves current understanding on the relationships between the other components of organisational commitment and OCB quite far behind. Moreover, none of the pertinent reviews of the organisational commitment-OCB relationship mention the normative component of organisational commitment (e.g. Organ and Ryan 1995; Podsakoff *et al.* 2000; Rekitta 2002; 2008; Hoffman *et al.* 2007). It is suggested that normative commitment and its relationship with behavioural outcomes may be influenced and developed by the culture, specifically collectivistic cultures (Meyer and Allen 1997). Chen and Francesco (2003) suggested an enhanced significance of normative commitment in collectivistic cultures, where group expectations and social performance are comparatively more important issues that individual attitudes and attachments.

Moreover, a recent empirical study shows that collectivism is strongly related to normative commitment (Cohen and Keren 2008). Thus, the lack of significant results on the relationship between normative commitment and behavioural outcomes in the United States may need to be addressed in non-Westernised countries. For instance, there is growing support for the notion that normative commitment is more closely related to organisational behaviours in collectivistic cultures than in individualistic cultures (e.g. Triandis 1995; Meyer *et al.* 2002; Gautam *et al.* 2005; Cohen and Keren 2008). This, at least, warrants two further investigations; (1) the effects of normative commitment on SECB; and (2) the simultaneous inclusion of all the three commitment components and their relative effects on SECB. Details on how each component should affect each SECB component are elaborated in Chapter Five: Conceptual model and development of hypotheses.

3.5 Culture and OCB research

Despite the widely accepted essentials of OCB among scholars from various disciplines, most of the conceptual as well as empirical work heavily relies on the United States context, using American worker population (Farh *et al.* 2004). It is stated that "what has not been studied as extensively is the application of OCB in other cultures" (Paine and Organ 2000, p. 46). The lack of research attention to the cultural context of OCB was also noted by several leading scholars in the field (e.g. Podsakoff *et al.* 2000; Organ *et al.* 2006; Rotunda and Xie, 2008). As OCB holds great promise for organisational behaviour research, it should therefore be explored in other cultures since OCB and intrinsic motivation may be culture specific (Silverthorne 2005). With exemption of a handful of recent studies (e.g. Farh *et al.* 1997; Lam *et al.* 1999; Turnipseed and Murkinson 2000; Chen and Francesco 2003; Kwantes 2003; Baruch *et al.* 2004; Farh *et al.* 2004; Kim *et al.* 2004; Chiu and Tsai 2006; Cohen and Avrahami 2006; Lee *et al.* 2006; Coyne and Ong 2007; Sun *et al.* 2007; Vigoda-Gadot 2007; Cohen and Keren 2008; Rotundo and Xie 2008), there remains a relatively small amount of citizenship behaviour research conducted in Asian settings in comparison to the amount of studies conducted in western societies, especially in the United States. Thus, it can be said that research attention on citizenship behaviours in Asian is in its infancy and much remains beyond the current knowledge of the literature has to be accepted.

It is possible that cultural differences may encourage or discourage employees in respect to OCB (Dimitraides 2007). Existence of the relationship between specific determinants and specific dimensions of OCB in the US context may not hold in other countries where culture and value significantly differ. Because there is some empirical evidence supporting the existence of OCB across international contexts (e.g. Farh *et al.* 1997; Turnipseed and Murkinson 2000; Farh *et al.* 2004; Lievens and Anseel 2004), the interest of this study lies in identifying antecedents and their relative influence on the specific form of OCB (i.e. SECB) in an Asian context. Following Cohen and Avrahami's (2006) suggestion that collectivism/individualism is an important cultural variable that a citizenship behaviour study needs to consider, this section aims to explore and address the concept of individualism/collectivism and how this can be related to OCB studies. The extant citizenship behaviour studies which have explicitly incorporated cultural influences on OCB will also be discussed.

3.5.1 Individualism/collectivism and OCB

Scholars who stress the importance of individualism/collectivism for cross-cultural studies contend that US-originated organisational theories reflect an individual bias (e.g. Boyacigiller and Adler 1991; Randall 1993; Kwantes 2003). Most US management theories are anchored on a self-interest motive that may not be applicable in other cultures (Cohen and Avrahami 2006). "Individualism-collectivism is an analytical dimension that captures the relative importance people accord to personal interests and to shared pursuits" (Wagner 1995, p. 153). Individualism reflects the extent to which people emphasise their own goal over those of their group. Members who strive to achieve their own personal goals characterise individualistic cultures. Members who focus on the need of the group over one's self, by contrast, characterise collectivistic cultures. An underpinning mechanism within a collectivistic culture is cooperation so as to attain group goals and safeguard group welfare (Earley 1989).

Earley (1989) further stated that people in an individualistic culture feel proud of their own accomplishment and derive satisfaction from performance based on their own achievement and often drop out of the in-group if membership thwarts the attainment of their goals. In contrast, people in a collectivism culture derive pleasure and satisfaction from group accomplishment.

In accordance with the definitions of individualism and collectivism, existence of citizenship behaviours can be expected in most Asian countries which are widely accepted to be characterised by collectivistic values rather than individualistic values. There are several reasons underpinning this presumption. First, collectivist cultures will place greater emphasis on harmony and interpersonal helping (Moorman and Blakely 1995). Also, OCB requires that time and energy should be spent on helping others, rather than achieving personal goals (Cohen and Avrahami 2006). Therefore, collectivist cultures (which emphasise group achievement and welfare) would obligate individuals to perform desirable discretionary behaviours to a greater extent. Secondly, behaviours which are defined to be extra-role in individualistic societies may be perceived as a prescribed normal duty in collectivist cultures (Paine and Organ 2000; Coyne and Ong 2007). Several empirical studies support this proposition (e.g. Farh *et al.* 1997; Lam *et al.* 1999; Turnipseed and Murkinson 2000; Farh *et al.* 2004).

As individualistic-oriented people view their relationship with the organisation from an economic perspective, whereas the ties between individual and the organisation have a moral component in collectivistic cultures, the OCB concept has very different connotations in different cultures. Cohen and Avrahami (2006, p. 892) indicate that "employees with collectivistic values commit to organisations primarily because of their ties with managers, owners, and co-workers (collectivism), and far less because of the job itself or the particular compensation scheme (individualistic incentives)". Due to these ties, their personal attitudes (i.e. job satisfaction or organisational commitment) would be less influential in determining their performance. In addition, the feeling of obligation might be aroused if a collectivistic person identifies the organisation as an in-group (Francesco and Chen 2004). As a result, employees are likely to engage in behaviours that contribute to the group achievement regardless of their own attitudes toward the organisation. Also, Lester *et al.* (2008) suggest that persons high in other orientations are less sensitive to the norm of reciprocity. According to the preceding discussion, it is anticipated that the relationships between attitudinal variables (i.e. job satisfaction and organisational commitment) and performance would be weaker in high collectivistic societies.

3.5.2 Empirical evidence

Although OCB scholars have begun to pay attention to 'other cultures', empirical studies addressing the cultural effects on OCB and OCB-related relationships are still limited. From reviewing the literature, research on culture and OCB can be classified into three general categories: (1) studies on the perception and applicability of OCB in non-US contexts; (2) cross-nation comparative study; and (3) cultural differences and OCB.

3.5.2.1 Studies on the perception and applicability of OCB in non-US contexts

This first category deals mainly with the generalisibility of the OCB concept across culture and how culture may influence employee's perception of OCB as in-role or extra-role behaviours. Organ and Pained (2000) probably conducted the first empirical study on OCB with a sample from different nations. They investigated the meaningfulness and applicability of the OCB concept across culture. With a sample of 38 respondents from 26 nations, they found that OCB is a global concept that is applicable across cultures. The findings also suggested that the trend is toward higher expectation of OCB in more collectivistic cultures and less so within more power distance cultures. Collectivists perceive that OCBs are something that are expected or required as the norm in the workplace. However, their small sample size and the nature of qualitative approach limits the generalisability of the study. Besides, the study only addressed the occurrence of OCB in different cultures, but not the effect of culture on relationships between antecedents or consequences of OCB.

Farh *et al.* (2004) examined forms of OCB in the People's Republic of China. From the data collected from employees working in 72 enterprises, they found some new forms of OCB are emerging in the Chinese context (e.g. protecting organisation resources, keeping the workplace clean and self-training). Also, a number of OCB forms similar to those initiated in the western OCB literature were also found (i.e. initiative, helping co-workers, group activity participation, and promoting organisation image), thus suggesting the cross-culture applicability of these dimensions.

Another stream of research includes studies examining perceptions of OCB as in-role or extra-role in different cultures. Lam *et al.* (1999) investigated the extent to which supervisors and subordinates agree that the behaviour described as OCB was an expected part of their job. Analysing the data collected from employees of a company operating in four different countries, they found that participants from Asian countries (i.e. Hong Kong and Japan) were more likely to regard OCB as their expected duties than participants from the United States and Australia. Also, the analysis showed that these participants engaged in most forms of OCB. To a broader context, it implicitly suggests that collectivistic people are more likely to engage in OCB because they perceive OCB as part of their jobs.

3.5.2.2 Cross-nation comparative studies

Studies which are classified to be in this group are those investigating relationships between OCB and antecedents in different countries, or studies that directly measured cultural dimensions and incorporated them into the framework. Turnipseed and Murkison (2000) comparatively examined the nature of OCB and its relation to productivity in the US and Romania. Using a sample of 101 Romanian respondents from an agricultural equipment production organisation and 106 American employees from an automotive-part production organisation, they found that the OCB phenomenon in the US and Romania revealed some differences. In general, it appeared that scores on OCB were greater among US sample than those of Romanian sample. Also, the relationship between OCB and productivity is lesser, though positive, in Romanian sample. They offered some explanations in terms of different social and work climates between the two countries for these differences. One concern is that data of this comparative study was collected from the different industry workers. Their findings may therefore be the comparative study of industry difference rather that the national difference.

Kwantes (2003) examined the effects of three organisational commitment components on citizenship behaviours and withdrawal behaviours in American- and Indian-samples with data collected from engineers employed in manufacturing companies. The results showed that relationships between organisational commitment, OCB and withdrawal behaviours are different across samples. Affective commitment was the only component of commitment that has any relationship with OCBs or withdrawal behaviours in the United States sample, whereas all three components of commitment differentially related to OCBs in the Indian sample. Unexpectedly, normative commitment showed no significantly predictive effects on organisational citizenship behaviour in both samples. Scrutinising the Kwantes's study, it was found that reliability for normative commitment in Indian sample was very low (α = .53). His study, therefore, calls for further research to understand more about this construct in different cultural contexts.

More recently, Coyne and Ong (2007) investigated the relationship between OCB and turnover intentions among production workers. Hierarchical regression analysis of self-reported data from 162 workers across three countries (i.e. Malaysia, Germany, and England) revealed that OCB significantly related to turnover intentions, with sportsmanship emerging as the strongest predictor of turnover intention across cultures. The difference in rating was also reported. The Malaysian sample, in general, scored higher than the other two samples. The findings suggested that the relationship between OCB and turnover intention was not affected by cultural differences. Yet, some support was found that collectivistic individuals would exhibit more OCB than individualistic individuals as seen in the higher OCB scores among the Malaysian sample. While the study presents interesting cultural aspects to the phenomenon of OCB, there are some crucial limitations of the argument on cultural effects on OCB. The study made an argument of cultural difference with inference of the Hofstede's (1980) scores on cultural dimensions which Peterson (2003) indicated that Hofstede's data is still controversial given that the data collection was carried out in a single company, and may now be considered as outdated. Moreover, the Hofstede's cultural scores on individualism/collectivism of England and Germany are surprisingly similar.

Another relevant investigation was conducted by Euwema *et al.* (2007). They look at the relationship between leadership styles and GOCB (i.e. Group OCB) across countries. With data collected from employees in 33 countries, they found that different leadership styles had significantly different effects on GOCB in individualistic countries compared to collectivistic countries. Specifically, directive leadership was more negatively related to GOCB whereas supportive leadership was less positively related to GOCB in individualistic countries than in collectivistic countries. However, their study employed the country means for individualism/collectivism reported by Hofstede (2001). Thus, they failed to consider the cultural differences at the individual level. Furthermore, the national culture may not really account for differences arising between the samples as Kwantes *et al.* (2008, p. 231) noted that:

> "at one level, cultural-related variables may be viewed as representing societal norms of values, beliefs, and behaviours. While these variables may describe the society or culture in general, they do not necessarily reflect any given individual society member's values, beliefs, or behaviours".

Therefore, it might be more appropriate to obtain individual measures directly from the sample. Doing so would contribute to the arguments based on cultural differences.

3.5.2.3 Cultural difference at individual level and OCB

Acknowledging the lack of studies on individual difference and its role in the OCB literature, scholars have considered it insightful to examine cultural variables at the individual level (e.g. Wagner 1995; Farh *et al.* 1997; Lam *et al.* 2002; Coyne and Ong 2007). Several reasons were advanced to support the individual level of analysis. Firstly, there is a range of cultural variation within any society (Triandis 1995; Cohen and Keren 2008). Secondly, the inference that differences observed among individuals can be attributed to the clustering variable might still be better explained by a more fine-grained analysis conducted at the individual level (Lam *et al.* 2002). Finally, understanding of individual-level differences in values could provide insights into better ways of managing different employees (Francesco and Chen 2004).

Moorman and Blakely (1995) and Wagner (1995) were among the first to incorporate culture as a predictor of discretionary behaviours (i.e. OCB and cooperation, respectively) in their empirical studies. Moorman and Blakely (1995) approached individual differences in terms of individualism and collectivism to examine whether self-conscious or group-conscious would significantly account for the variance of

OCB. Using self-reported questionnaires with a sample of 210 employees of a financial services organisation in the Southeast of the United States, they reported conclusive findings that people with collectivistic values or norms are more likely to perform OCB. Although all data were obtained from a single source (i.e. using self-reported questionnaire), assessment of common method effects revealed that the relationship between individual/collectivism to OCB was robust. In Wagner's (1995) study, data gathered from college students showed that an individual's level of individualism/collectivism influenced cooperation in classroom groups. Other more recent studies provided that same conclusion (e.g. Van Dyne *et al.* 2000; Cohen and Avrahami 2006).

Using a time-lag designed data collection technique, Van Dyne *et al.* (2000) similarly found that organisational citizenship is predicted by, among other variables, the individual differences in term of collectivism, thus confirming that individual differences in terms of self- or other-oriented, influences the tendency of engaging in citizenship behaviours. Cohen and Avrahami (2006) studied the effect of individual-level difference of individualism/collectivism on OCB. Using a sample of Israeli nurses, their findings were consistent with previous studies, which suggest that people who exhibit higher level of collectivism show higher levels of OCB.

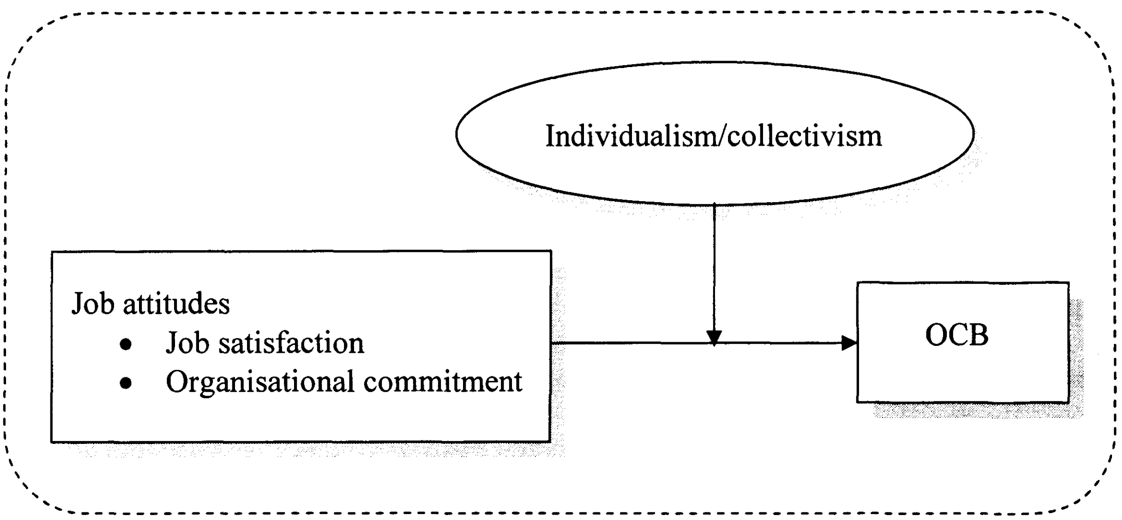
As employees from individualistic/collectivistic cultures will vary in the extent to which they engage in OCB, it is argued that the moderating effect of such culture should be included in the theoretical model. In investigating the relationships between group size, identifiability, shared responsibility and cooperation, Wagner (1995, p.

158) asserted that "collectivists are likely to cooperate for reasons of collectivism – the definition of self they adopt and the priority they give to group well-being" regardless of the aforementioned factors. The results showed supporting evidence that collectivists cooperate more irrespective of group size or identifiability. Specifically, high level of collectivism attenuates the effects of group size and identifiability on cooperation.

More relevant to the present study are the studies conducted by Francesco and Chen (2004) and Lester *et al.* (2008). The first study looked at the effect of a cultural moderator on the relationship between affective organisational commitment, job performance and OCB. They hypothesised that the relationship between affective commitment and job performance, and affective commitment and OCB, are stronger for employees with low collectivism than those with high collectivism. Their results supported both hypotheses.

Also, Lester *et al*'s (2008) study provided supplementary evidence of the potential existence of the moderating role of culture, specifically individualism/collectivism, in the job attitude-OCB relationship. As hypothesised in their study, the relationship between job satisfaction and OCB was found to be significantly conditioned by the individual difference in terms of other orientations. The results provided additional support for the proposition that the job attitude-OCB relationship should be weaker among people high in collectivism. Considering previous studies which found that collectivists are more likely to engage in OCB, the two studies of Francesco and Chen (2004) and Lester *et al.* (2008) extend our understanding only that the extent to which collectivists exhibit OCB is not likely to be influenced by affective organisational commitment or job satisfaction. The influence of individualism/collectivism on relationships between the other components of commitment and OCB, still has no empirical support. Based on both conceptual and empirical studies, Figure 3.2 presents the possible moderating effects of individualism/collectivism in studying the relationship between job attitudes and OCB.

Figure 3.2: The moderating role of individualism/collectivism in the job attitude-OCB relationship



3.6 Chapter summary

This chapter provides an overview of the development of job satisfaction and organisational commitment which are asserted to be central to one's work experience (Harrison *et al.* 2006), and how these two attitudinal variables may lead employees to exhibit high job performance. It is clear to a certain extent that there is an on-going debate about causal effects of job attitudes and traditional employee performance.

However, recent studies suggest that job attitudes are more likely to precede performance than vice versa (e.g. Riketta 2008). Reconceptualising performance and examining potential moderating variables were suggested as ways to better understand the relationship between job attitudes and performance.

This chapter also discussed the relevance of job satisfaction and organisational commitment in investigating organisational citizenship behaviours. Using the social exchange perspective, it is evident that these two attitudinal variables are potential antecedents of citizenship behaviours. The likely effects of culture, particularly individualism/collectivism, in OCB studies were discussed. In short, the common theme which emerged from both conceptual and empirical studies is of higher OCB in collectivistic societies than in individualistic societies. The same tendency also applies to the cultural difference at individual level and the extent to which collectivists engage in OCB is less likely to be affected by their personal feelings. By recognising this pattern, the present study posited that individualism/collectivism moderates the relationship between job attitudes and service employee citizenship behaviour.

To the knowledge of the author, no prior studies have investigated tailored forms of service OCB in the Asian context. Moreover, the question 'how individualism/collectivism may affect the job attitude-SECB relationships' in a collectivistic country remains unanswered. Taking suggestions of previous studies into account in studying cultural aspects of OCB and its relationships, the individual-level approach to individualism/collectivism is employed to investigate the hypotheses relating to the moderating role of individualism/collectivism values. With the focus of employee performance in the service context, Chapter Four discusses the concepts of service encounter, co-workers and customers during service consumption. The next chapter also provides arguments, based on prior conceptual and empirical studies, on how co-workers and customers can influence service employee performance.

Chapter 4

Chapter 4

Co-worker Support and Customer Cooperation

"Two people are in a relationship with on another, if they are interdependent in the sense that a change in one person causes a change in the other and vice versa"

Berscheid and Pelau, 1983

4.1 Introduction

The previous literature review chapters have elaborated the importance of job satisfaction, organisational commitment and service employee citizenship behaviour. Chapter Four aims to provide an introductory review of existing literature on services marketing and the role of co-workers and customers. The chapter incorporates two constructs, namely co-worker support and customer cooperation, into the service employee citizenship behaviour framework. However, as there is limited research on customer cooperation, other related literatures that consider the effect of customer behaviours on service attitudes and performance are also considered. Consequently, this chapter is structured as follow:

First, definitions and important characteristics of service are presented. Second, the literature concerning co-worker support is reviewed. Third, literature underpinning the development customer cooperation construct is presented. Here, conceptual and empirical studies which are relevant to the relationship between customer behaviour and service employee attitudes and performance are discussed. Finally, the chapter concludes with a theoretical framework pertaining to the relationship between co-worker support, customer cooperation on job attitudes and service employee citizenship behaviour.

4.2 Definitions and characteristics of service

Scholars have asserted that the concepts and practices that have been developed in manufacturing sectors can not be directly transferable to the service sector (Lovelock *et al.* 2005). It is therefore crucial to understand the boundaries and characteristics of services.

One of the most comprehensive definitions within the service marketing area is provided by Zeithaml and Bitner (2000, p. 3), who define services "to include all economic activities whose output is not a physical product or construction, is generally consumed at the time it is produced, and provides added value in forms... that are essentially intangible concerns of its first purchaser". Subsequently, Zeithaml *et al.* (2006, p.4) define services in more simple and broader terms as "deeds, processes, and performances". The above definitions highlight the wide variety of exchanges which may be classified within the service sector.

The literature on service management and marketing has noted the characteristics that differentiate services from goods. Service scholars outlined three fundamental ways in which services differ from goods (Bowen and Schneider 1985; Schneider and Bowen 1992). Firstly, services are intangible and are therefore difficult to be quantitatively measured. This is because the service is primarily contingent upon the exchange of human action and behaviour. Secondly, service providers typically require input from the customer to successfully produce and deliver the services. Finally, services are frequently produced and consumed at the same time, with the producer and the consumer present during the production and consumption of the service. By contrast, the majority of products are produced and consumed at different places. Contemporary conceptualisations offer a number of differing perspectives. For example, 'intangibility', 'inseparability', 'perishability', 'heterogeneity' and 'lack of ownership' are cited as characteristics which distinguish services from goods (Zeithaml *et al.* 2006). Lovelock and his colleagues (2005; 2007) offer additional criteria in assessing the differences between goods and services. These criteria include time factors, delivery systems, people as part of the service and the physicality of distribution channels.

Although scholars have subsequently modified the criteria to distinguish services from goods, one common feature of services is the employee-customer interaction (Bostrom 1995). That is, the customer and the service provider interact to create the service together. The interaction of service providers with customers results in an important role for the employees who have direct customer contact. Shostack (1977) noted that because the distribution of services does not involve tangible products, it is a system of 'process' that are people-based, with the result that services are often perceived as the people who render the service. Bowen and Schneider (1985) characterised the interaction of the service provider and the customer in the service process as a 'game between persons'. This means that the transaction of a service involves a personal interaction as well as service itself. Due to the nature of real-time interactions between service providers and customers, service organisations require support from both co-workers and customers in order to successfully deliver services. Thus, the following consider the concepts of co-worker support and customer cooperation.

4.3 Co-worker support

Co-workers are not only an important part of the social environments, they can also literally define it (Schneider 1987). According to Ducharme and Martin (2000), a significant amount of research has focused on the organisational causes of job attitudes. However, relatively little research has paid attention to the buffers such as co-worker relations against these causes of stress or dissatisfaction which may be found at the workplace. Positive social relations in the workplace may contribute to employee's job satisfaction (Hodson 1997) and enhance employees' functioning in the organisation (Ng and Sorensen 2008). The shift of job content from steady and routine individual tasks to more complex and collective tasks (Harrison *et al.* 2000) has enhanced co-workers' salience and their essential influence (Chiaburu and Harrison 2008). In order to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomenon of co-worker support, it is useful to consider its definition and associated consequences. Thus, the first subsection discusses the definition and importance of co-worker support. Then, this section moves on to present potential effects of co-worker support on fellow employees' attitudes and performance.

4.3.1 The definition and importance of co-worker support

Based on perceived organisational and leader support (see Chapter Two: Section 2.6), scholars have introduced new forms of support and exchange among group members. Adapted from the definition of perceived organisational support, Ladd and Henry

(2000, p. 2034) formally define co-worker support as "employees' global beliefs concerning their co-workers' attitudes toward them". On this basis, perceived co-worker support is the team-level equivalent of perceived organisational support. The difference is that co-worker support is likely to be more discretionary than vertical support (i.e. organisational/supervisor support) which is governed by authority ranking (Chiaburu and Harrison 2008).

In service organisations, co-worker support is considered as an important source of support (Susskind *et al.* 2007). Scholars observe that service employees who have to confront the conflict between true feeling and expressed feelings—emotional labour (see Hochschild 1983)—can form a community of coping with fellow co-workers at which they can express their true feelings and consequently reduce stress at work (Hochschild 1983; Korczynki 2003). According to Thoits (1983), the provision of support from people who are similar to the support recipients and who share similar work experiences is likely to be more effective than support received from persons in the out-group. As co-workers usually experience similar situations at work, they are able to receive and provide support through sharing these pleasant or stressful experiences with each other. Also, employees are likely to interact more frequently with their co-workers because of their greater presence, in relation to supervisors. Thus, there is plausibility that co-workers significantly influence employees' attitude and behavioural consequences (Chiaburu and Harrison 2008).

Several reasons supporting the impact of co-worker on fellow employee's attitudes and behaviours have been identified. Firstly, co-worker support may create pleasant/unpleasant working environments which would consequently influence employee work attitudes and behaviours. Secondly, based on social exchange theory, positive or negative co-worker behaviours would oblige employees to react by exhibiting helping/hostile behaviours toward the person. Thirdly, groups (i.e. peers) have strong effect on individual behaviour, including providing stimuli to encourage or discourage behaviour (George and Bettenhausen 1990). Some scholars even assert that behaviors are contagious (Zagenczyk *et al.* 2008), meaning that an individual is likely engage in behaviours which are exhibited by other members of the group.

4.3.2 Co-worker support, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment

The preceding discussion presents the importance of co-worker support and highlights the connection between co-worker behaviour and fellow employee's attitudes and behaviours. This subsection will now review previous studies that consider the effects of co-worker support on job attitudes. Although there is a range of job attitudes which may result from co-worker support, this review focuses exclusively on job satisfaction and organisational commitment as they are central to the employee's work experience (Harrison *et al.* 2006).

As job satisfaction is considered a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience (Locke 1976), job satisfaction should be positively associated with co-worker support. A possible rationale for this assertion is that the employee's evaluation of co-workers is one of the most important determinants of overall job satisfaction (Smith *et al.* 1969; Luthans 2002). Empirical research examining the effects of co-worker support and job satisfaction has provided evidence favouring the co-worker support-job satisfaction connection. For instance, Karasek *et al.*'s (1982) empirical study examining the effects of support at work revealed that a lack of co-worker support is directly related to employee job dissatisfaction. Conversely, studies have found that co-worker support is significantly related to job satisfaction in that higher levels of co-worker support are related to higher levels of job satisfaction (Lance 1991; Ducharme and Martin 2000; Chiaburu and Harrison 2008). Thus, the positive role of perceived co-worker support in influencing job satisfaction in the customer service context warrants particular attention (Ng and Sorensen 2008).

Regarding the effect of co-worker support on organisational commitment, to the best knowledge of the author, only a limited number of studies have considered the linkage between co-worker support and organisational commitment (i.e. Iverson 1996; Iverson and Deery 1997; Iverson and Buttigieg 1999; Paulin *et al.* 2006; Knudsen *et al.* 2003; Chiaburu and Harrison 2008; Ng and Sorensen 2008). Despite a few studies, variation in specifying the effect of co-worker on organisational commitment emerges. The first route are those studies that propose a direct relationship between co-worker support and organisational commitment (i.e. Knudsen *et al.* 2003; Iverson 1996; Iverson and Buttigieg 1999; Chiaburu and Harrison 2008). The results within this line of research are somehow mixed. For instance, Iverson and Buttigieg (1999), Knudsen *et al.* (2003), and Chiaburu and Harrison (2008) found that co-worker support has a positive direct relationship with organisational commitment. In contrast, Iverson's study (1996) which incorporated co-worker support, job satisfaction and organisational commitment did not find support for the co-worker support-organisational commitment connection.

Several limitations also need to be noted. For instance, in the first two studies (i.e. Iverson and Buttigieg 1999; and Knudsen *et al.* 2003), job satisfaction was not incorporated into the studies. Moreover, conceptualisation and the measure of co-worker support in Knudsen *et al.* (2003) was more in line with individual-directed OCB rather than the beliefs about co-worker's concern of the employee's well being (see Section 4.3.1). Regarding Chiaburu and Harrison's (2008) exploratory study which aimed to uncover the mechanism in which co-worker influences employee behavioural outcomes, the relationships between constructs were proposed as many as possible and, therefore are less driven by theory.

In the second line of research, scholars have proposed that co-worker support is related to job satisfaction, and job satisfaction is in turn related to organisational commitment (e.g. Iverson and Deery 1997; Paulin *et al.* 2006; Ng and Sorensen 2008). Accordingly, it can be said that job satisfaction is a mediator of the effect of co-worker support on organisational commitment. With recognition of the different nature of development between job satisfaction and organisational commitment, this argument is strongly favoured. It is asserted that job satisfaction reflects immediate reactions to the job and job facets (Locke 1976), thus developing soon after the employee starts working with the organisation. On the other hand, organisational commitment is thought to develop more slowly, and after the employee possesses a good understanding of, not only the job, but also of organisational goals and values, performance expectations and their consequences, and the implications of membership maintenance (Mowday *et al.* 1982). Furthermore, job satisfaction is considered to be less stable than organisational commitment since transitory events may effect job satisfaction, causing employees to re-evaluate their commitment to the organisation (Mowday *et al.* 1979). Additionally, unlike perceived organisational support (i.e. positive perceptions regarding the organisation) which is found to have a robust impact on organisational commitment (for review see Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002), it is less likely that positive perceptions regarding individuals, which, in this case, are co-workers, would result in one's attachment to the other object, or the organisation. Based on the preceding discussion, co-worker support should only have an effect on organisational commitment through job satisfaction.

4.3.3 Co-worker support and employee behaviours

Co-worker support in the workplace can influence several employee behavioural outcomes (Chiaburu and Harrison 2008). Two streams of research regarding the relationship between support and performance are found—one stream proposes a direct effect of support on behavioural outcomes (e.g. Beehr *et al.* 2000; Ladd and Henry 2000; Baruch-Feldman *et al.* 2002; Susskind *et al.* 2003; Susskind *et al.* 2007), whereas the other stream of research proposes job attitudes act as a mediator of the support-performance relationship (e.g. Paulin *et al.* 2006; Chen and Chiu 2008; Ng and Sorensen 2008).

Based primarily on a social exchange framework, the first stream of studies asserts that employees' perception of how their team mates value their contributions to the team and care about their well-being is directly relevant to the amount of extra effort the employees exert on behalf of the team (Bishop *et al.* 2000). Specifically, perceptions of positive inputs from co-workers directly lead to reciprocation and the formation of climates encouraging employees to display more positive and less negative interpersonal actions. Empirical results regarding the direct effect of co-worker support on performance are somehow mixed.

Ladd and Henry (2000) show that employees' perceptions of how they are treated by their peers are positively related to their engagement in individual-directed OCB. Koster and Sanders (2006) found that OCB directed at co-workers is partly a direct reciprocation of their co-workers' treatment. Koster and Sanders (2006) reported that organisational solidarity (i.e. a form of cooperative behaviour) towards co-workers was significantly related to organisational solidarity received from co-workers. Moreover, co-worker support was found to have a significant effect on other forms of behaviours. With the data gathered from 390 workers employed in service-based organisations, Susskind *et al.* (2003) found that co-worker support was positively related to customer-orientation and consequently customer satisfaction. In their study, co-worker support had a higher impact on customer orientation than did supervisor support. Subsequently, Susskind *et al.* (2007) replicated the Susskind *et al.*'s (2003) model in the hotel and restaurant sector. They found that only co-worker support contributed to the variance in guest orientation. Yet, other scholars failed to find empirical evidence to support the proposition that co-worker support is directly related to fellow employee performance. For example, Blau (1981) and Baruch-Felmand *et al.* (2002) studies revealed that co-worker support was not related to job performance.

It is noticed that none of the aforementioned studies that found support for the direct link between co-worker support and job performance (i.e. Ladd and Henry 2000;

Koster and Sanders 2006; Susskind 2003; 2007) considered the potential role of job attitudes on job performance. Indeed, studies have revealed that when a job attitude was included into the analysis, the effect of support on performance was very weak (Beehr *et al.* 2000), or even non-significant (Baruch-Feldman *et al.* 2002). Such results suggest the potential mediating effect of job attitude on the support-performance link.

With this recognition, the second stream of research examining the co-worker support-job performance relationship identifies job attitudes as a mediator between co-worker support and employee behaviours (e.g., Paulin *et al.* 2006; Chen and Chui 2008; Ng and Sorensen 2008). It is argued that co-workers may influence primarily on—perhaps exclusively—work role and work attitude and these attitudes, in turn, carry forward to changes in performance (Chiaburu and Harrison 2008). This basis corresponds to the attitude-intention-behaviour framework advocated by Bagozzi (1992) which is a concept developed to explain the relationship between individual's attitudes and behaviours. The framework has been applied to investigate the perception of support, job attitude, and behaviours in several recent behavioural studies (e.g. Paulin *et al.* 2006; Chen and Chui 2008; Ng and Sorensen 2008). See Section 4.5 for more detail.

4.4 Customer cooperation

The previous section discussed a form of social support which can be found during service provision, this section now elaborates another form of support which stems from the consumer. It is documented that service experiences are the consequences of combination between organisations, service systems and processes, service employees and consumers (Bitner *et al.* 1997). When one thinks of service encounters, what often comes to mind is an interpersonal exchange between the service provider and the customer (Lovelock 1996). Although service encounters differ from industry to industry, many service encounters require consumers to play an active role in the service delivery process, which usually is in the form of interaction with service providers (Lovelock and Wirtz 2004). Thus, it is common for customers to provide a direct input into service provision (Ennew and Binks 1996).

As the customer is considered an important driver of service performance of an employee or the organisation as a whole, Korczynski (2003, p. 79) stated that "to understand service work it is necessary to understand the customer". It is, however, noted that good customer behaviour is often cited as important but is less frequently the subject of empirical study (Anderson *et al.* 1994). Moreover, the customer participation concept "has not been considered in regards to the behaviours of contact employees in service" (Yoon *et al.* 2004, p. 397). In the next subsection, the development of 'customer cooperation' is reviewed. Following this, conceptual and empirical studies that consider the impact of customer behaviours on service employee attitudes and performance are discussed.

4.4.1 Development of customer cooperation

Customer cooperation is one of the components of 'customer voluntary performance' introduced by Bettencourt (1997). Customer voluntary performance (hereafter CVP) refers to "helpful, discretionary behaviours of customers that support the ability of the firm to deliver service quality" (1997, p.384). Because the concept of CVP was an integration of the literature on customer participation and organisational citizenship behaviour, this subsection reviews the literature on customer participation before moving on to a discussion on CVP and, more specifically, customer cooperation.

4.4.1.1 Customer participation

The concept of customer participation during service provision has a long history and is identified as a distinguishing characteristic of services (Ennew and Binks 1996). In the early development of the service quality framework, Gronroos (1983) proposed that service quality can be divided into two components – employee technical quality and employee functional quality. By this, the author refers technical quality to 'what' is being provided by service employees during the encounter process, whereas functional quality refers to 'how' the service is provided by the employees. Recognising the inseparability of services, Kelly *et al.* (1990) extended Gronroos's framework by adding two customer-related components—customer technical quality and customer functional quality. Customer technical quality involves 'what' the customer provides to the service encounter whereas customer functional quality is 'how' the customers behave during the encounter. While customer technical quality focuses on the resources provided by customers during the transaction, customer functional quality focuses on the interpersonal aspects of the interaction between customers and employees such as friendliness and respect (Kelly *et al.* 1992). The notion that the quality of service is influenced by how the customer acts leads to a group of studies that endeavours to comprehend the mutual role which customers also play as participants during service delivery (see Harris *et al.* 2001).

Consistent with Kelly *et al.*'s (1992) customer function and technical quality, Rodie and Kleine (2000, p. 111) define customer participation as "the actions or resources supplied by customers during service production and/or delivery". Resources supplied by the customer during service provision can be classified as mental, physical, and emotional resources (Hochschild, 1983; Larsson and Bowen 1989). In fact, customer participations can take a variety of forms (Harris *et al.* 2001). For instance, Ennew and Binks (1999) suggest that customer participation consists of three broad components: information sharing, responsible behaviour, and personal interaction. First, customers need to disclose information with the service provider in order to ensure that their personal requirements are met. Secondly, taking the role as 'partial employee' means that customers recognise their duty and responsibility to fulfil their side of the relationship with the service provider. Partial employees, in this sense, are temporary participants in the service production and delivery process of the service organisation (Kelly *et al.* 1990). Finally, personal interactions imply the emergence of relationship-type elements such as trust and cooperation.

The extent of customer involvement (Ennew and Binks 1999) and the importance of customer functional and technical quality (Kelly *et al.* 1992) in service delivery have been identified as varying considerably across different service industries. For example, low customised, long-duration services are commonly associated with high levels of customer participation but may require only functional quality from the part of the customer. These differing forms and degrees of labour contributions by customers have implications for the service organisation in employing management strategies (Halbesleben and Buckley 2004). Complementary to Halbesleben and

Buckley's (2004) argument, the service dominant logic paradigm forwarded by Vargo and Lusch (2008) develops the premise of customer participation in formalising the concept of co-creation. Within this paradigm, the customer is believed to be the central service provision (Moeller 2008). Specifically, it is suggested that value is co-created by the active participation of the customer during service provision (Vargo and Lusch 2008).

4.4.1.2 Customer voluntary performance

A conceptual model of CVP comprises three distinct components (i.e. loyalty, participation, and cooperation) corresponding to three important customer roles in the service context (Bettencourt 1997). Bettencourt (1997, p.386) envisioned CVP as behaviours in which customers promote a service establishment by exhibiting loyalty, that is spreading positive word of mouth, by offering an establishment suggestion for improvement (i.e. participation), or by displaying "discretionary behaviour indicating respect for the provision of quality service delivery" to an establishment's employees and other customers (i.e. cooperation).

Of the three facets of this construct, the present study argues that only 'cooperation' would have a direct impact on the quality of interaction between the customer and the service provider. This is principally due to the nature of service interactions which are real-time interactions between humans. In contrast to the 'customer cooperation' component, the other two components (i.e. loyalty and participation), in this sense, are behaviours that are directed toward the service organisation and, therefore, less relevant to the interpersonal interaction between the customer and the provider during service provision. As a result, only 'customer cooperation' is focused in the present study.

Customer cooperation is regarded as an important fundamental part of the customer's experience and perceived quality. Research has indicated, from both customer's and provider's perspectives, that smooth cooperation is important and is valued as a fundamental component of a service (Bostrom 1995). As CVP has just recently started attracting research attention (see Rosenbaum and Massiah 2007) and the available studies on CVP place focus only on exploring determinants of such behaviour (cf. Bettencourt 1997; Rosenbaum and Massiah 2007), the employee psychological and behavioural consequences of CVP, and in particular customer cooperation, remain largely unknown.

4.4.2 Customer behaviours and service employee attitudes and behaviours

As service providers are on the interface between the organisation and the customer (Schneider and Bowen 1995), their behaviours are not only affected by organisational practices but also by customer behaviours (Ryan *et al.* 1996; Schneider *et al.* 1998). Indeed, scholars have acknowledged that interactions between customers and service providers can form a sense of reciprocity and obligation (e.g. Houston *et al.* 1992; Gutek 2000). The notion that the customer becomes an important part of service work introduces a new dimension to the social relations of the workplace so that "employment which has traditionally be seen as potentially influenced by the dyadic management-worker relationship must be seen as potentially influenced by the three-way relationship involving management, workers and customers" (Korczynski 2002, p. 2).

The salience of customers in the service production process is judged so valuable by some scholars to the extent that customers are seen as partial employees (see Bowen 1986; Mills 1986). When customers are considered as a part of the service team, the argument regarding effects of their behaviours on service employee attitudes and behaviours is strengthened (see Section 4.3.2 and Section 4.3.3). As was argued in the case of co-workers, Korczynski (2003) points out that the customer can be a vital source of pleasure and pain for service employees. Drawing upon studies from diverse literature, it is plausible to believe that the customer can negatively or positively influence the service employee's psychological and behavioural responses.

On the negative side, customers can also bring a set of pressures to the service provider (Johnston and Clark 2008). Kelly *et al.* (1990) indicated three possible outcomes of negative customer behaviours during the service encounter. Firstly, they asserted that customers behaving inappropriately will impact the overall efficiency, productivity, and quality of the service delivery. Second, such customer behaviours may impede optimal provision of employee performance. Examples of these types of behaviour include: 1) being late for an appointment; 2) reporting information incorrectly; and 3) not following service instructions. Finally, inappropriate customer behaviours may result in negative emotional responses from employees. These assumptions have been empirically supported by a subsequent study on dysfunctional customer behaviour (i.e. Harris and Reynolds 2003). Specifically, Harris and Reynolds (2003) outline four main consequences that dysfunctional customer behaviour is associated with. These include: (1) long-term psychological effects (e.g. sustained feelings of degradation and stress disorders); (2) short-term emotional responses (e.g. negative moods or tempers); (3) behavioural responses (e.g. verbal retaliation); (4) and physical effects (e.g. tangible injuries).

On the other side, it is not uncommon to see positive customer behaviours such as treating service employees in a pleasant manner or reporting service problems to employees (Bettencourt 1997). Several scholars have suggested that such positive customer behaviours (e.g. participation) can promote the organisation's service quality efforts (e.g. Bowen and Schneider 1985; Crosby *et al.* 1990; Kelly *et al.* 1990), affect the degree of personalisation (Ryan *et al.* 1996), co-create the pleasant service experience and ensure their own satisfaction (Lovelock 1981; Ennew and Binks 1996; Zeithaml and Bitner 1996; Bitner *et al.* 1997; Van Dolen *et al.* 2004). Yet, the mediating role of service provider in the relationship between customer behaviours and service outcomes is overlooked. In other words, how customer behaviours affect the service provider who produces the service to the customer is still unanswered.

Noticing this, Yoon *et al.* (2004) attempted to clarify the mechanism of customer behaviour on service provider attitude and performance. As part of their study, the effect of customer participation on job satisfaction and customer service quality was examined. The empirical results from the data gathered from several branches of a South Korea retail bank showed that customer participation was positively related to job satisfaction and job satisfaction, in turn, determined levels of customer service quality. Their conceptualisation corresponds to *'a reconceptualisation of the satisfaction-service performance thesis'* conceptual argument of Wilson and Frimpong (2004) which contends that work content-related factors (e.g. customer) would sequentially contribute to service employee job satisfaction, then to service behaviours, and eventually service quality and customer satisfaction.

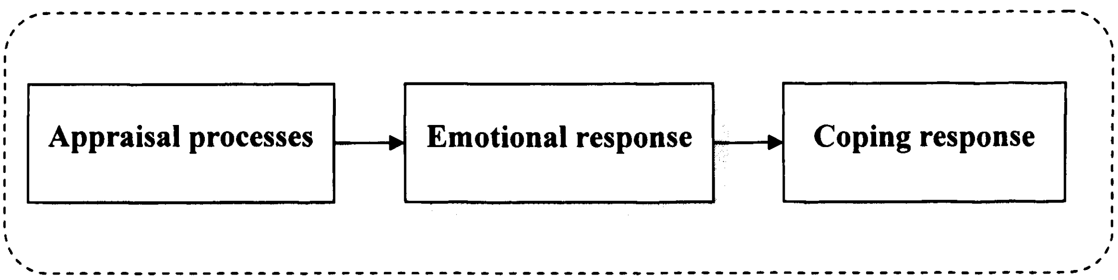
Of particular interest to the present study is a study conducted by Hsieh *et al.* (2004) which investigated the impact of customer participation on service provider workload was investigated. Their empirical results showed that customer participation is positively related to service providers' perceived workload in terms of time and effort. Although not formally defined, the effort required to go beyond 'normal' job requirements may be regarded as citizenship behaviour (see Chapter Two: Section 2.2). Their work sheds light on the plausibility that customer behaviour (i.e. customer cooperation, in this case) would lead service providers to engage in service employee citizenship behaviour.

4.5 Bagozzi's attitude-intention-behaviour framework

The previous sections discuss the existing studies on co-worker support and customer cooperation. From the extant literature review, it is unclear on how co-worker support and customer cooperation should be integrated into explaining service employee attitudes and behaviour. Several studies report direct effects of social support on performance, whereas others found that the effect of social support on job performance is mediated by job attitudes. Thus, a sound theoretical framework explaining individual behaviours is required. This section reviews Bagozzi's (1992) framework which has been insightful in explaining the relationship between support, job attitudes, and behavioural outcomes.

The argument that "attitudes and subjective norms are not sufficient determinants of intentions and that intentions are not a sufficient impetus for action, as maintain by leading theories of attitudes" such as Theory of Reasoned Action and Theory of Planned Behaviour (Bagozzi 1992, p. 178), a model was developed to replace the deficient attitude models in psychology. According to Schmit and Allscheid (1995), the essential attribution of this model is that this model elaborates on a more general model developed by Lazarus (1991) that links appraisal, emotional responses, and coping in a sequential process. Bogazzi (1992) suggests that the appraisal process involves the assessment of 'outcome-desire units'. Outcome-desire conflicts occur when an individual fails to meet a goal or experiences an unpleasant event whereas outcome-desire fulfilment occurs when a goal is met or the individual has a pleasant experience. These outcome-desire experiences are followed by negative or positive emotional responses, respectively. Consequently, negative responses will result in coping intentions to reduce the conflict while positive responses will result coping intentions to maintain, increase, or share the outcome. And finally, behaviour will follow the coping intentions (see figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1: Bagozzi's (1992) framework



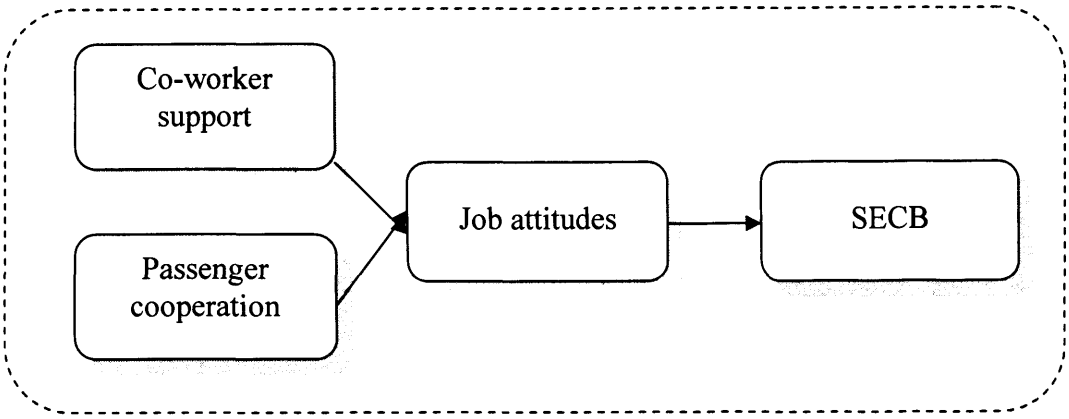
Source: Adapted from Bagozzi (1992, p. 188)

This attitude-intention-behaviour framework has been successfully applied to explain both consumer behaviours (e.g. Gotlieb *et al.* 1994; Scheofer and Ennew 2005) and employee behavioural intentions (e.g. Schmit and Allscheid 1995; Paulin *et al.* 2006; Chen and Chui 2008). For example, Paulin *et al.* (2006) applied this framework to assess the impact of job characteristics, fair treatment, supervisor support and co-worker support on job attitudes and employee behaviours. By this, the independent variables were hypothesised as causes of emotional responses (i.e. job satisfaction and customer-linkage satisfaction). These emotional responses in turn determine employee behaviours.

Also, it was found that conceptual models of several scholarly studies appear to correspond with Bagozzi's (1992) framework (e.g. Bettencourt *et al.* 2005; Lee *et al.* 2006), even though there was no explicit reference to this framework. To detail, Bettencourt *et al.* (2005), for instance, in examining the effects of three dimensions of organisational justice on service employee job attitudes and customer-oriented boundary-spanning behaviours, hypothesised job attitudes as full mediators of the justice-behaviour relationship. On this basis, Bettencourt *et al.* (2005) only hypothesised indirect effects of justice on the behaviours. Of particular relevant to the current investigation is a study conducted by Ng and Sorensen's (2008). A part of their study investigated the relationships between perceived supervisor support, perceived co-worker support, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and intention to quit. The authors posited that the two sources of support directly affect job satisfaction and indirectly organisational commitment. Intention to quit is, in turn, a result of job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

As outlined earlier, co-worker support and customer cooperation affect the extent to which employees can achieve their service-related goals and, subsequent work experience. Another factor involves the employee's own appraisal (or assessment) of the support provided by co-workers and/or customers which has been shown to be substantially related to job attitudes (e.g. Sherony and Green 2002; Yoon *et al.* 2004; Paulin *et al.* 2006; Chen and Chiu 2008; Ng and Sorensen 2008). The extant literature has also revealed a robustness of the job attitude-performance link (see Chapter Three). The present study was therefore designed to put the relationship between co-worker support, customer cooperation, employee attitudes and SECB into the comprehensive conceptual framework (Bagozzi 1992). See figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2: Proposed relationships between co-worker support, passenger cooperation, job attitudes and SECB.



According to Figure 4.2, co-worker support and customer cooperation are variables of the appraisal phrase as referred to by Bagozzi (1992). These are considered to be antecedents of employee emotional reactions or job attitudes, with service employee citizenship behaviour an outcome of such attitudes. Please note that the term 'customer cooperation' is modified to 'passenger cooperation' in order to suit the research context.

4.6 Chapter summary

This chapter has discussed the distinct characteristics of services which serve as a basis for the importance of inclusion of co-worker and customer behaviour in explaining service employee attitudes and behaviours. Following this, the chapter reviews existing studies on co-worker support and employee job attitudes and performance. Of interest is a variation in specifying the effect of co-worker support on employee attitudinal and behavioural consequences. Thus, the present study uses a framework which clarifies and facilitates the conceptual model development. Based on Bagozzi's (1992) framework, this chapter posits that the effect of co-worker support and passenger cooperation is mediated through job attitudes. Also, the literature on customer cooperation was presented in which it was recognised that passenger cooperation is a form of social support (see Yoon *et al.* 2004) similar to co-worker support. The effect of such behaviour on employee attitudes and behaviour is considered in line with co-worker support.

Having reviewed the literature on organisational citizenship behaviour, job attitudes, co-worker support and passenger cooperation, the next chapter will now integrate the various frameworks considered to develop a conceptual model for the present study.

Chapter 5

Chapter 5

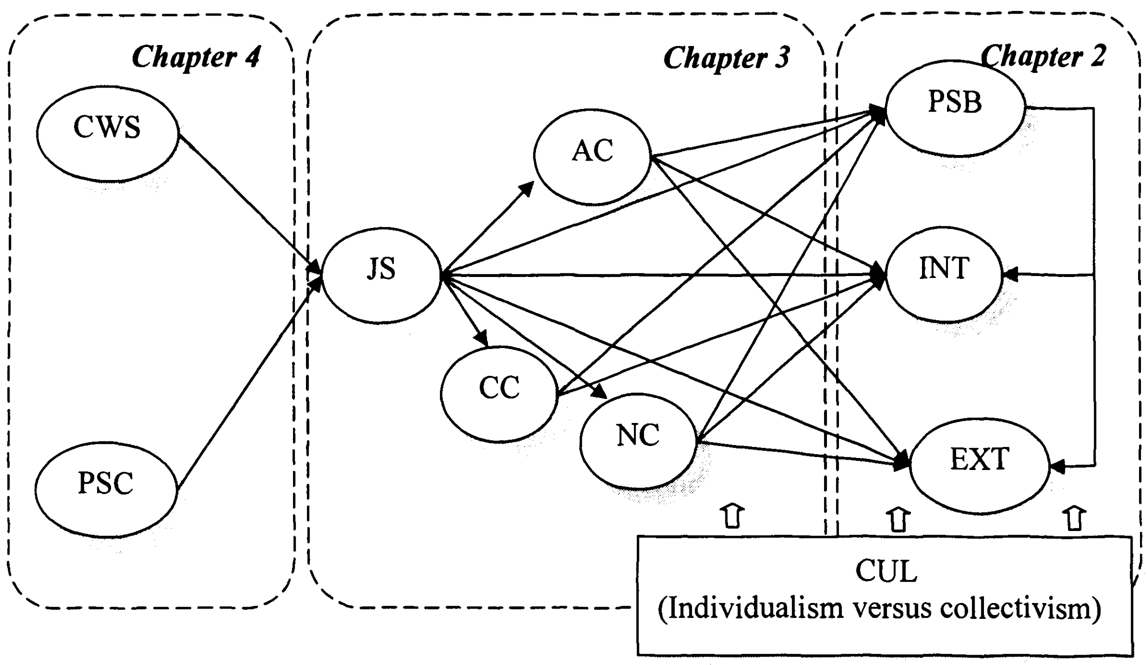
Conceptual Model and Development of Hypotheses

5.1 Introduction

The preceding three chapters discussed and evaluated theoretical and empirical studies which are relevant to the present study. Specifically, Chapter Two addressed the development and operationalisation of service employee citizenship behaviour. Also, theoretical perspectives underpinning the OCB area were discussed. Following this, Chapter Three reviewed and discussed the relevance of job attitudes, particularly job satisfaction and organisational commitment, in predicting citizenship behaviours. The potential moderating role of culture in the job attitude-OCB relationship was also addressed. Lastly, Chapter Four drew on the basis of service provision to propose the relevance of co-workers and customers in determining service employees' attitudinal and behavioural outcomes. Synthesising the reviews of these three chapters enables the present study to integrate pieces of literatures into a conceptual framework of SECB and to build a foundation for the development of hypotheses.

This chapter is organised in the following manner. First, hypotheses concerning direct relationships between co-worker support, customer cooperation, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and SECB are discussed. Second, indirect effects of co-worker support and passenger cooperation on organisational commitment and SECB are discussed and hypothesised. Drawing on the two-category model of OCB developed by William and Anderson (1991) and social exchange theory, this section establishes the hypotheses concerning strengths of co-worker support and passenger cooperation in predicting the individual-directed SECB component (i.e. PSB) in comparison to the organisation-directed SECB components (i.e. internal influence and external representation). Finally, this chapter proposes hypotheses concerning the role of individualism/collectivism in conditioning the job attitude-SECB relationships. Figure 5.1 presents the conceptual model of the present study.

Figure 5.1: Conceptual model



CWS = Co-worker supportiveness
PSC = Passenger Cooperation
JS = Job satisfaction
AC = Affective organisational commitment
CC = Continuance organisational commitment
NC = Normative organisational commitment
PSB = Prosocial service behaviour
INT = Internal influence
EXT = External representation
CUL = Individualism/collectivism

5.2 Development of hypotheses concerning direct effects

This section discusses direct relationships among constructs included in the present study and formulates a set of hypotheses which are defined from the three chapters of literature review.

5.2.1 Job satisfaction and organisational commitment

Although a strong relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment has been found over the years (Tett and Meyer 1993), there is a long-standing debate about the causality between job satisfaction and organisational commitment among scholars (Brown and Peterson 1993). Some scholars have argued that organisational commitment precedes job satisfaction (Bateman and Strasser 1984), the prevailing view in the literature assumes satisfaction causes commitment (Mowday *et al.* 1982; William and Hazer 1986; Brown and Peterson 1993).

Although job satisfaction and organisational commitment are job attitudes, job satisfaction is believed to cause organisational commitment because it is more specific, less stable, and more rapidly formed (Williams and Hazer 1986). Job satisfaction reflects immediate reactions to job and job facets (Locke 1976), thus forming soon after an employee enters the organisation. On the other hand, organisational commitment is thought to develop more slowly in the workplace after individuals develop a good understanding of job, organisational goals and values, performance expectations and their consequences, and the implications of maintaining membership (Mowday *et al.* 1982). Thus, organisational commitment is seen as "forming and stabilising sometime after organisational entry with more immediate formation of job satisfaction acting as one of its many determinants" (Vandenberg and Lance 1992, p. 154). Previous evidence consistently supports the view that job satisfaction among employees leads to higher levels of organisational commitment (e.g. Porter *et al.* 1974; Brown and Peterson 1993; Iverson 1996; MacKenzie *et al.* 1998; Clugston 2000; Donavan *et al.* 2004; Chan *et al.* 2006; Lee *et al.* 2006; Ng and Sorensen 2008).

Affective commitment refers to a sense of identification with and involvement in an organisation (Meyer and Allen 1991), which is commonly known to be influenced by positive work experiences (Vandenderghe and Trembley 2008). In the circumstance that job satisfaction is central to the employee's work experience (Harrison *et al.* 2006), affective commitment should be developed as its result. Job satisfaction should also relate to normative commitment—which refers to loyalty and sense of indebtedness toward the organisation based on moral obligation (Meyer and Allen 1991). In addition, Meyer *et al.* (1993) found that normative commitment, as affective commitment, is related to positive work experiences. As an accumulated body of literature suggests that there are positive associations between job satisfaction and emotional and normative attachment aspects (e.g. Meyer *et al.* 1993; Hackett *et al.* 1994; Clugston 2000; Meyer *et al.* 2002; Yao and Wang 2006), the present study anticipates a positive relationship between job satisfaction and the two commitment components.

Regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and continuance commitment, less conceptual and empirical evidence is available. By definition, continuance commitment is based on a calculation of costs and benefits of remaining in the organisation. Employees with strong continuance commitment have a feeling that they are trapped in the organisation—they have to stay with the organisation even though they may want to leave (Chen and Francesco 2003). Considering job satisfaction as a positive work experience, it is likely that this positive judgment regarding the workplace would decrease the feeling of 'being trapped'. Thus, employees with a higher level of job satisfaction are less likely to have perceptions of being trapped in the organisation. In the light of this discussion, the following hypotheses are put forward:

***Hypothesis 1**: There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment.*

***Hypothesis 2**: There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and normative commitment.*

***Hypothesis 3**: There is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and continuance commitment.*

5.2.2 Job satisfaction and SECB

Similar to the traditional job performance literature, job satisfaction has been accepted to have a significant relationship with OCB for decades. In fact, job satisfaction was revealed to have the highest correlation with OCB (Organ and Ryan 1995). Given the nature of OCB, which is less likely to be enforceable and non-rewardable by contractual agreements, it is argued that OCB is a consequence of job satisfaction (Organ 1997). Bateman and Organ's (1983) original paper on OCB found a significant relationship between job satisfaction and OCB. They proposed that this relationship may be a result of those who are satisfied in their jobs and want to reciprocate, which in turn leads them to exhibit OCB. From a social exchange perspective, it is proposed that OCB is a means by which employees reciprocate organisational situations with which they are satisfied (e.g. Organ 1998; Konovsky and Pugh 1994). Exchange of socioemotional resources between employees and organisations was implicitly supported by the meta-analytic study of Hoffman *et al.* (2007), which suggested that OCB related more closely to work attitudes than task performance.

Prior work has revealed that job satisfaction appears to be one of the most robust predictors of various forms of citizenship behaviour (e.g. Smith *et al.* 1983; Organ 1988; Farh *et al.* 1990; Niehoff and Moorman 1993; Organ and Ryne 1995; Bettencourt and Brown 1997; 2003; Netemeyer *et al.* 1997; MacKenzie *et al.* 1998; Podsaskoff *et al.* 2000; Yoon and Suh 2003; Donavan *et al.* 2004; Lee *et al.* 2006; Todd and Kent 2006; Hoffman *et al.* 2007). In the absence of strong empirical evidence that contradicts this contention in the OCB literature, the present study proposes direct positive paths from job satisfaction to all the SECB components (i.e. PSB, internal influence, and external representation). Thus, the present study hypothesises:

Hypothesis 4: *There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and prosocial service behaviour.*

Hypothesis 5: *There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and internal influence.*

Hypothesis 6: *There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and external representation.*

5.2.3 Organisational commitment and SECB

Regarding the direction of causality between organisational commitment and SECB, most scholars adopt the view that organisational commitment precedes citizenship behaviours (e.g. Brief and Motowidlo 1986; O'Reilly and Chatman 1986; Williams and Anderson 1991; Organ and Ryan 1995; Donavan *et al.* 2004). There are several explanations supporting this presumption.

First, an employee would exhibit high performance to benefit the organisation in order to continue his or her employment with the organisation once committed to the organisation. Mowday *et al.* (1982, p. 27) noted that employees who are committed to the organisation "are willing to give something of themselves in order to continue to the organisation's well-being". Secondly, Scholl (1981) stated that organisational commitment leads individuals to keep up with a course of behavioural direction even when the employee's expectations of employment are not met. In that OCB, by definition, occurs with little or no expectation of recognition by the firm for rewards of such behaviours, thus organisational commitment represents a relevant predictor (Williams and Anderson 1991). Thirdly, Weiner's (1982) model, which distinguishes instrumental beliefs (i.e. represented by rewards for their performance) from internalised beliefs (i.e. commitment as a totality of these internalised beliefs), suggests that commitment is responsible for predicting behaviours which could be described as OCB. In reviewing the literature related to extra-role behaviour, Brief and

Motowidlo (1986) provided conclusive support for the contention that commitment is strongly predictive of prosocial behaviour. To date, a significant amount of empirical studies continuously provide evidence supporting this causal direction.

Affective organisational implies the emotional attachment of individuals to the organisation (Meyer and Allen 1991). As a result of such attachment, it is likely that individuals will perceive an organisation's problems and outcomes as their own. Indeed, all forms of behaviour that are beneficial to the organisation can be anticipated as a result of affective commitment. Based upon social exchange theory, it is proposed that employees who are committed to their company will increase their job efforts (e.g. Organ 1988): increased effort on the job might be seen as a means to reciprocate rewards from co-workers, supervisors and/or the organisation as a whole (Lee 2001).

Besides, Morrison (1994) pointed out that employees with high levels of affective commitment perceive their role more expansively, and thus, are more likely to engage in prosocial organisational behaviours. A significant amount of studies have found empirical support that a high level of affective commitment is related to manifestations of behaviours that are beyond role-prescribed duties (e.g. Brief and Motowidlo 1986; Williams and Anderson 1991; Organ and Ryan 1995; MacKenzie *et al.* 1998; Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Chen and Francesco 2003; Kwantes 2003; Baruch *et al.* 2004; Cropanzano and Mitchell 2005; Ackfeldt and Wong 2006; Paulin *et al.* 2006; Frenkel and Sanders 2007). Furthermore, identification and internalisation, a similar concept of affective commitment, were found to be positively related to OCB (O'Reilly and Chatman 1986). When individuals identified themselves with the organisation, the perceptions of oneness will affect the outcomes conventionally associated with the group or the organisation, including cooperation and altruism (Lee 2001). Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 7: *There is a positive relationship between affective commitment and prosocial service behaviour.*

Hypothesis 8: *There is a positive relationship between affective commitment and internal influence.*

Hypothesis 9: *There is a positive relationship between affective commitment and external representation.*

Despite the long-term existence of the normative component of organisational commitment, its role in determining citizenship behaviours is under-researched. Because normative commitment reflects the feeling of obligations to remain in the company (Meyer and Allen 1991), it may be rooted in perceptions of indebtedness arising from an organisation's provision of certain benefits (Chen and Francesco 2003). These feelings may continue until the employees feels that they have "paid back" the debt (Scholl 1981; Meyer and Allen 1991; Snape and Redman 2003). Based on social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity, employees with strong normative commitment may engage in citizenship behaviours as a way to pay back to the organisation or the donor. In addition, as normative commitment is based on the moral forces within the employees who feel that they 'ought to' be committed to the organisation, these moral forces would push employees to invest more in performing and contributing to the organisation (Cohen and Keren 2008). All forms of discretionary behaviour that are beneficial to the organisation can be anticipated as a result of normative commitment. To this point, recent studies have provided some empirical evidence to support that normative commitment is a determinant of various forms of OCB (Kwantes 2003; Gautam *et al.* 2005). In the light of this discussion, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 10: *There is a positive relationship between normative commitment and prosocial service behaviour.*

Hypothesis 11: *There is a positive relationship between normative commitment and internal influence.*

Hypothesis 12: *There is a positive relationship between normative commitment and external representation.*

In contrary to affective and normative commitment, scholars indicate that there is little reason to expect individuals with high continuance commitment to engage in citizenship behaviours (e.g. Shore and Wayne 1993; Hackett *et al.* 1994). Indeed, a negative link between continuance commitment and productive work behaviours is suggested (e.g. Shore and Wayne 1993; Meyer and Allen 1991; 1997; Cichy *et al.* 2009). Two arguments can be made to support this negative relationship. First, as employees with strong continuance commitment believe that they are in a 'no choice' situation, they may react with anger to the situation and may even behave dysfunctionally (Meyer and Allen 1997). Also, a reason for people lacking options might be that they are not very good at their work (Arnold *et al.* 1998).

Second, becaus e continuance commitment is based on cost-benefit ratio, Kwantes (2003) suggests that people who hold strongly to this component of commitment are not likely to increase costs of remaining in the organisation by increasing investment. Considering SECB as relatively extra-role effort, employees with high level of continuance commitment may regard performing such behaviours as an investment of maintaining their employment; as such they are not likely to perform these behaviours. In citizenship behaviour research, empirical studies have found that continuance commitment negatively predicted contextual performance (Cichy *et al.* 2009), interpersonal helping (Kwantes 2003), compliance (Gautam *et al.* 2005), and OCB (Shore and Wayne 1993; Chen and Francesco 2003). Given that external representation occurs outside the work setting, the cost-benefit calculation that forms a basis of continuance commitment is not anticipated to apply to this dimension (cf. Kwantes 2003). Thus, the relationship between continuance organisational commitment and external representation was not proposed. In accordance with the discussion, the present study proposes the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 13: *There is a negative relationship between continuance commitment and prosocial service behaviour.*

Hypothesis 14: *There is a negative relationship between continuance commitment and internal influence.*

5.2.4 SECB components

Very recently, interest in the relationship among citizenship behaviour components has begun to attract scholarly attention (i.e. Bergeron 2007). Research suggests that people who perform one type of citizenship behaviour are also likely to perform other types of citizenship behaviours (Bell and Menguc 2002). Hence, positive associations between the three SECB components can be expected. Importantly, causal direction may be established based on empirical evidence and arguments that task performance is weighted more heavily than citizenship behaviours in performance evaluations (e.g. Allen and Rush 1998; Conway 1999). Given that PSB is relatively more role prescribed than internal influence and external representation (see Section 2.4.3), the latter two citizenship behaviours are expected to develop as a consequence of PSB. In other words, it is expected that employees would engage in internal influence and external representation only once PSB has been adequately performed. Thus, the present study proposes:

Hypothesis 15: *There is a positive relationship between prosocial service behaviour and internal influence.*

Hypothesis 16: *There is a positive relationship between prosocial service behaviour and external representation.*

5.2.5 Co-worker support, passenger cooperation and job satisfaction

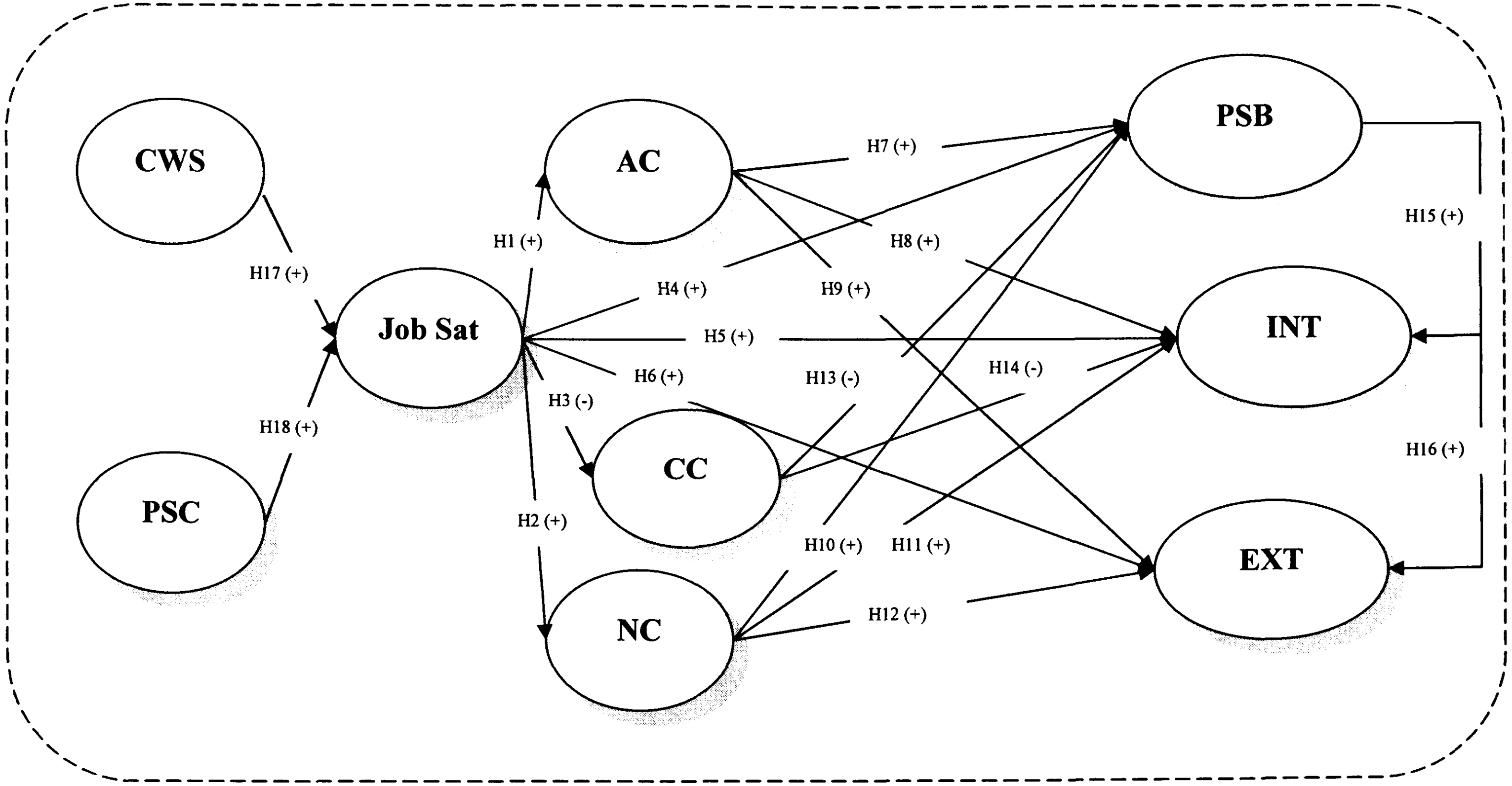
In the present study, co-worker support and passenger cooperation are considered as favourable social support (see Yoon *et al.* 2004). As job satisfaction is considered as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience (Locke 1976), co-worker support and passenger cooperation should be positively associated with job satisfaction. A possible rationale for this assertion is that the employee's evaluation of co-workers and customers is one of the most important determinants of overall job satisfaction (see Smith *et al.* 1969; Luthans 2002; Wilson and Frimpong 2004). Furthermore, empirical studies have provided evidence for the positive relationship between social support and job satisfaction (e.g. Lance 1991; Ducharme and Martin 2000; Chiaburu and Harrison 2008). Thus, the following hypotheses are put forward:

Hypothesis 17: *There is a positive relationship between co-worker support and job satisfaction.*

Hypothesis 18: *There is a positive relationship between passenger cooperation and job satisfaction.*

Figure 5.2 presents the direct relationships of the constructs and the proposed hypotheses.

Figure 5.2: Hypotheses concerning direct relationships



5.3 Development of hypotheses concerning indirect effects

This section discusses indirect relationships among the constructs included in the present study and formulates a set of hypotheses which are defined from the three chapters of the literature review.

5.3.1 Co-worker support, passenger cooperation and organisational commitment

The present study follows the proposition which is favoured by several scholars in examining the effects of support on organisational commitment (cf. Iverson and Deery 1997; Paulin *et al.* 2006; Ng and Sorensen 2008, also see Chapter Four: Section 4.3.2 and Section 5.2.1). In general, co-worker support and passenger cooperation are proposed to have indirect effects (i.e. via job satisfaction) on organisational commitment. Specifically, positive co-worker support and passenger cooperation would indirectly enhance affective and normative organisational commitment whereas they would indirectly decrease continuance commitment of service employees. Based on this discussion, the following hypotheses are forwarded:

Hypothesis 19: *Co-worker support has indirect effects (i.e. through job satisfaction) on affective commitment (positive)* H19A, normative commitment (positive)* H19B, and continuance commitment (negative)* H19C.*

Hypothesis 20: *Passenger cooperation has indirect effects (i.e. through job satisfaction) on affective commitment (positive)* H20A, normative commitment (positive)* H20B, and continuance commitment (negative)* H20C.*

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* Hypothesised direction of the effects

5.3.2 Co-worker support, passenger cooperation and SECB

Although co-worker support was found to have direct effects on service performance in some previous studies (e.g. Ladd and Henry 2000; Susskind *et al.* 2003; Susskind *et al.* 2007), these studies omitted to incorporate the potential role of job attitudes. In fact, a study which incorporated work attitudes into examining the relationship between support and behaviour found that work attitude almost fully mediated the effects of support on behavioural consequences (i.e. Beehr *et al.* 2000). Additionally, framework proposed by Bagozzi (1992) suggests that behavioural intentions should be a consequence of job attitudes. Accordingly, service employee citizenship behaviour is proposed to be indirectly influenced by co-worker support and passenger cooperation (i.e. via job attitudes). Thus, the present study proposes the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 21: *Co-worker support has positive, indirect effects (i.e. through job attitudes) on SECB.*

Hypothesis 22: *Passenger cooperation has positive, indirect effects (i.e. through job attitudes) on SECB.*

5.3.3 Strengths of co-worker support and passenger cooperation on different components of SECB

Regarding the strengths of indirect effects of co-worker support and passenger cooperation on the SECB components, the present study expects differential effects of the two constructs on different SECB components. Justification is that: First, social exchange theory and the norm of reciprocity suggest the return of favours to the donor (Gouldner 1960; Blau 1964). Thus, positive perceptions towards co-workers and customers are more likely to result in positive behaviours toward these groups of people; second, existing empirical studies showed findings that implicitly support this proposition. Empirically, it was found that the effects of OCB would vary depending on the unit under consideration. For example, Turnley *et al.* (2003) showed that psychological contract fulfilment (i.e. organisation-related factor) was more strongly related to organisation-directed OCB than individual-directed OCB (detailed discussion was provided in Section 2.3.3). Using two-category approach to distinguishing individual-directed SECB and organisation-directed SECB (see Section 2.4.2, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 23: *The indirect effects of co-worker support on prosocial service behaviour will be stronger than that on internal influence and external representation.*
Hypothesis 24: *The indirect effects of passenger cooperation on prosocial service behaviour will be stronger than that on internal influence and external representation.*

5.4 Moderating role of individualism/collectivism

As discussed earlier in Chapter Two (Section 2.5.2) and Chapter Three (Section 3.5), individual differences in terms of culture may condition how people behave in relation to their attitudes. This section focuses on the role of individualism/collectivism in determining levels of SECB and the relationship between job attitudes and SECB.

An underpinning mechanism within a collectivistic culture is cooperation so as to attain group goals and safeguard group welfare (Earley 1989). Thus, citizenship behaviours can be expected to be higher in people with more collectivistic values than those with more individualistic values for several reasons. First, collectivists will place greater emphasis on harmony and interpersonal helping (Moorman and Blakely 1995). Also, OCB requires that time and energy is spent on helping others, rather than achieving personal goals (Cohen and Avrahami 2006). On this basis, it is predicted that individualists would be less likely to engage in OCB in comparison to collectivists as they may consider that such behaviours would not help them to accomplish their personal goals. In contrast, collectivist cultures, which focus on group achievement and welfare, would obligate individuals to performance desirable discretionary behaviours.

Secondly, behaviours which are defined to be extra-role in individualistic societies may be perceived as a prescribed normal duty in collectivist cultures (Paine and Organ 2000; Coyne and Ong 2007), thus leading them to perform such behaviours. Several studies found supporting evidence for the proposition that OCB is higher in people from collectivistic cultures than in people from individualistic cultures (e.g. Moorman and Blakely 1995; Wagner 1995; Van Dyne *et al.* 2000; Cohen and Avrahami 2006; Coyne and Ong 2007).

Recognising these different tendencies for individualist/collectivist cultures to engage in extra-role behaviours, it is anticipated that culture will play a moderating role. Because extra-role behaviours are beneficial to the group and that people high on collectivism would place more orientation on group achievement, they are likely to exhibit behaviours that are beyond their role requirements regardless of their personal attitudes about the organisation (see Chapter Three: Section 3.5). It is noted that one of the SECB components (i.e. internal influence) may be characteristic of an individualistic culture. For instance, Kwantes (2003) pointed out that individual initiative, a similar concept to internal influence, is more strongly encouraged in cultures with individualistic norms. Yet, the extent to which employees engage in this behaviour is beyond the accountability of job attitudes. In other words, employees high in collectivism are less likely to engage in internal influence even though they are satisfied with their job and/or committed to the organisation. Such that, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 25: *The relationships between job attitudes and SECB (i.e. prosocial service behaviour, internal influence, and external representation) are moderated by individualism/collectivism, such that the relationships are weaker in a high collectivism group than in a low collectivism group.*

Regarding the moderating effects of individualism/collectivism on the relationships among the SECB components, a weaker relationship between prosocial service behaviour and internal influence can be anticipated in collectivistic cultures whereas the path from prosocial service behaviour to external representation should be stronger in a group of people high in collectivism. Consistent with the above discussion, collectivists may substantially engage in prosocial service behaviour, but not in providing constructive suggestions for service improvement. In contrast, external representation, by definition, is about employees being vocal advocates to outsiders of the organisation's image, products and services (Bettencourt and Brown 1997; Bettencourt *et al.* 2005). Thus, such behaviour can be regarded as showing concern about the in-group, which is a characteristic of collectivists. In light of the preceding discussion, the present study proposes:

Hypothesis 26: *The relationship between PSB and internal influence is weaker in a high collectivism group than in a low collectivism group.*

Hypothesis 27: *The relationship between PSB and external representation is stronger in a high collectivism group than in a low collectivism group.*

5.5 Chapter summary

Integrating the literature review discussed in Chapter Two to Chapter Four, this chapter developed a conceptual model that addresses the co-worker support, passenger cooperation, and attitudinal determinants of service employee citizenship behaviour. First, the connections between job satisfaction and the three components of organisational commitment were posited. Second, job satisfaction, affective organisational commitment and normative organisational commitment were hypothesised to have positive relationship with service employee citizenship behaviour where as the negative links from continuance organisational commitment were only specified to prosocial service behaviour and internal influence.

With accordance to Bagozzi's (1992) framework and existing conceptual argument, co-worker support and passenger cooperation were hypothesised to have direct effects on job satisfaction and indirect effects on organisational commitment components and service employee citizenship behaviour. Using William and Anderson's (1991) two-category approach to OCB and the norm of reciprocity framework, differential strengths of the effects of co-worker support and passenger cooperation on different service employee citizenship behaviour components were proposed. Finally, cultural difference at individual level in term of individualism/collectivism is proposed as a mediator to the job attitudes-service employee citizenship behaviour relationships and also to the relationships among the service employee citizenship behaviour components. Theoretical explanations and justifications based on previous conceptual and empirical studies were made to all the proposed hypotheses. This complete set of the hypotheses enables the present study to answer the research questions outlined in Chapter One.

Chapter 6

Chapter 6

Research Methodology

"... if we are going to understand, classify, and predict events, we need to measure them"

Harry C. Triandis, 1995

6.1 Introduction

Methodology is a body of knowledge that enables researchers to explain and analyse methods – indicating their limitations and resources, identifying their presuppositions and consequences, and relating their potentialities to research advances (Miller 1983). Moreover, it underpins the types of questions that can be addressed and the nature of the evidence that is generated (Clark *et al.* 1984). Therefore, the issue of research methodology is important to any study. Appropriation between research paradigm, type of data, and collection methods has significant implications upon the research findings.

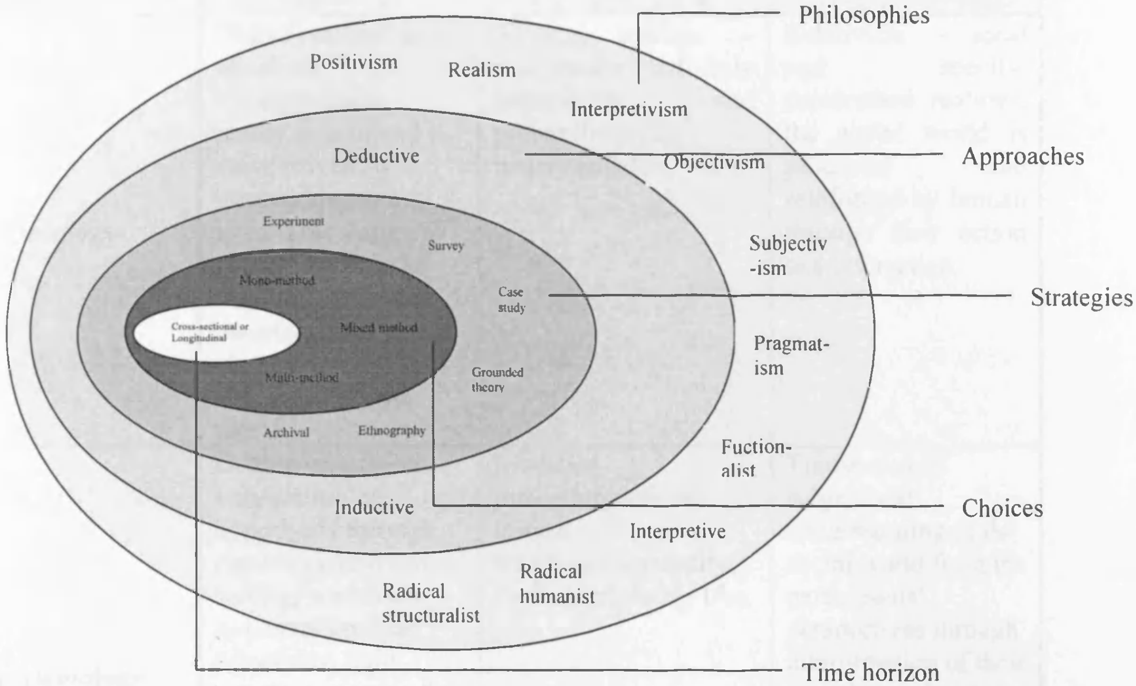
Basing on existing conceptual, theoretical, and empirical evidence, Chapter Five conceptually developed a number of hypothesised relationships between co-worker support, and passenger cooperation and outcome variables (i.e. job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and SECB). This chapter aims to describe the research design adopted for the present study, and explain the methodology guided in data collection and analysis for examining the hypothesised relationships. Four main topics around research methodology are presented in this chapter: research design, research sampling, data collection methods, and data analysis methods.

6.2 *Research design*

Research design provides an overall guidance for the collection and analysis of data of a study (Churchill 1979). Importance of research design stems from its role as a critical link between the theory and argument that informed the research and the empirical data collected (Nachmias and Nachmias 2008). A choice of research design 'reflects decisions about the priority being given to a range of dimensions of the research process (Bryman and Bell 2007, p. 40), and this of course will have considerably influence on lower-level methodological procedures such as sampling and statistical packages. It is therefore a blueprint that enables researchers to find answers to the questions being studied for any research project. Along with clear research plan it provides, constraints and ethical issues that a study will inevitably encounter must also be taken into account (Saunders *et al.* 2007).

Figure 6.1 illustrates different layers and approaches that are available and must be consistently employed when conducting a research. In accordance with the research onion, prior data collection and analysis techniques can be determined, considerations on several issues must be completed. The following subsections explain philosophical positions, research approaches, strategies, and time horizon of the present study.

Figure 6.1: The research onion



Source: Saunders *et al.* (2007, p.132)

6.2.1 Research philosophy

A research philosophy is a belief about the way data about a phenomenon should be collected and analysed (Levin 1988). Different philosophical perspectives used to interpret an event appear to be problematic for natural scientists as elsewhere (May 1997). To interpret and understand the world we are living, we certainly need 'ways of viewing' and 'ways of interpreting' to grasp the surrounding facts, ideas, and events. The social world, therefore, can be interpreted and understood via many schools of thoughts. However, there are generally considered two dominant theoretical perspectives in epistemology: positivism and interpretivism. The following table presents main research paradigms in social studies.

Table 6.1: Research paradigm comparison: Positivism, realism, and interpretivism

	Positivism	Post-positivism	Interpretivism
Ontology	'Naïve realism' in which an understandable reality is assumed to exist, driven by immutable natural laws. True nature of reality can only be obtained by testing theories about actual objects, processes or structures in real world.	'Critical realism' – real reality but only imperfectly and probabilistically understandable.	Relativism – local and specific constructed realities; the social world is produced and reinforced by human through their action and interaction.
Epistemology	Dualist/objectivist; verification of hypothesis through rigorous empirical testing; search for universal laws of principles; tight coupling among explanations, predictions and control.	Modified dualist/objectivist; critical tradition/community; findings probably true.	Transactional/ subjectivist; understanding of the social world from the participants' perspectives through interpretation of their meaning and actions; researchers' prior assumptions, beliefs, values, and interests always intervene to shape their investigations.
Methodology	Hypothetical-deductive experiments/ manipulative; verification of hypotheses; mainly quantitative methods.	Modified experiments/ manipulative; falsification of hypotheses; may include quantitative methods.	Hermeneutical/ dialectical; interpretive case study; action research; holistic ethnography.
Inquiry aim	Explanation: prediction and control.		Understanding; reconstruction.
Nature of knowledge	Verified hypotheses established as facts or laws.	Non-falsified hypotheses that are probable facts or laws.	Individual or collective reconstructions coalescing around consensus.
Knowledge accumulation	Accretion – "building blocks" adding to "edifice of knowledge"; generalizations and cause-effect linkages.		More informed and sophisticated reconstructions; vicarious experience.

Source: Adapted from Guba and Lincoln (2005)

In whatever manifestation, for a theoretical model to explain anything there must be an appropriate relationship between the statements made, the methods used to make such statements, and the philosophical perspective deployed to inform the methods (Abbott 1998). In each of these respects, there are issues pertaining to ontology, epistemology, and methodology. Ontology is concerned with the nature of reality. Its central question is whether social entities can, or should, be considered social constructions built-up from the perception and action of social actors. Epistemology, on the other hand, concerns what constitute acceptable knowledge in an area of study. The key epistemological question is "can the approach to the study of the social world, [...], be the same as the approach to studying the natural sciences?" (Saunders *et al.* 2007, p. 108). Epistemology provides the philosophical underpinning – the credibility – which legitimises knowledge and the framework for a process that will produce through a rigorous methodology. In summary, ontology is 'being', epistemology is 'knowing', and methodology is 'studying'.

Often, dominant research paradigms in a particular research area are found, such as positivistic paradigm in marketing and behavioural research (Hunt 1993). The label of positivism has been applied to a variety of approaches in the social science world, all of which claimed to offer a 'scientific' or 'objective' picture of the social science world and its constituent parts (Smith 2005, p. 172). Historically speaking, positivism is a philosophy developed by Auguste Comte in the 19th century with a notion that 'the only authentic knowledge is scientific knowledge' (see Giddens 1974). Popper (cited in Magee 1985) proposed that the positivist world consists of 'objective' and 'material things'. This means that knowledge and phenomenon in the social world can be sensed and explained in the same way as natural scientific phenomenon. Thus, things are viewed as 'hard facts' and the relationship between these facts establishes a scientific laws.

In behavioural sciences, the positivist posits that human behaviours can be explained and predicted in terms of cause and effect (May 1997). Positivists believe that the collection of data has to be performed in the social environment and involved reactions of people to it (May 1997). Principal positivist methods consist of observations, experiments and survey techniques, and often involve complicated statistical analysis in order to generate the findings and to test hypotheses empirically (Schiffman and Kanuk 1997). The main aim of the positivistic researcher is to generalise the results to the larger population, 'the deductive approach'. To put it more simply, the positivistic, deductive approach implies that the theory must be first generated and then tested by empirical observations. If the theory is falsified, it has to be rejected, and a new one formulated to replace it.

In contrast to positivism, interpretivism posits the idealistic view that the world is a creation of the mind and therefore should be interpreted through the mind (Bryman 2004). It is "predicted upon the view that a strategy is required that respects the differences between people and objects of the natural sciences and therefore requires the social scientist to grasp the subjective meaning of social action" (Bryman and Bell 2007, p. 19). This is concerned with the empathic understanding and interpreting of human action. This subjective view of reality influences research methodologies employed by interprestivists. Often, these methods are qualitatively-oriented aiming to explore and understand phenomena by analysing the meaning that individuals associate with the phenomena.

Another important research paradigm is realism which is an alternative philosophical approach to social studies. According to Bryman and Bell (2007), realism shares two features with positivism: (1) a belief that the natural and the social sciences can and should apply the same kinds of approaches to the collection of data and to explanation; and (2) a commitment to the view that there is an external reality to which scientists direct their attention (i.e. there is a reality that is separate from our descriptions of it). It is asserted that, through the use of appropriate methods, reality can be understood. However, a 'real' world to discover can only be imperfectly understood (Guba and Lincoln 2005). In other words, what an individual perceives is not reality as interpretivists might argue. Instead, perception, from a realist's perspective, provides a window in which a picture of reality can be triangulated with other perceptions (Perry *et al.* 1998). That is, realists acknowledge the difference between the world and particular perceptions of it, and the pre-eminent importance of the world. Given the complexity of the world, the knowledge that realists obtain is considered real but fallible (Hunt 1992).

To summarise, the ontological position of this study is that reality exists outside a researcher's mind. This research is based on the belief that there exists a real physical world beyond our knowledge and comprehension. Moreover, there also exists a social world that is being constructed, shaped and influenced by our life experiences, knowledge, and desire. Thus, this study positions itself on 'realism' perspective, hence taking the position that one can only understand reality to a limited extent; no one can obtain the entire picture of a studied phenomenon. Therefore, reality can be studied to a certain extent and generalisations can be made with a degree of probability. The study can be considered as normative; it is not concerned with knowledge creation for its own sake, but as an instrumental means of contributing to a better understanding of how service employee citizenship behaviours develop. It seeks to understand the phenomenon by understanding the drivers toward such behaviours. Thus, it examines the existing reality and also endeavours to establish social structure of reality.

6.2.2 Research approach, strategy, and time horizon

Deriving from the research philosophy is the determination of research approach, strategy, and time horizon. It is normally argued that research approaches are attached to different research philosophies (Saunders *et al.* 2007). For example, deduction owes much to what we could think of as scientific research and therefore likely to attach to the positivistic philosophy. Induction, on the other hand, is likely to attach to interpretivism. The differences between these two approaches are well documented in many research method books. Table 6.2 provides a summary of these two approaches.

By adopting a positivistic view, the present study showed a focus on theory testing wherein theory was first adopted as the framework for developing and testing hypotheses in a specific research context. This emphasises deductive orientation of the present study.

Table 6.2: Summarised major differences between deductive and inductive approach

Deductive emphasises	Inductive emphasises
• Scientific principles • Moving from theory to data • The need to explain causal relationships between variables • The collection of quantitative data • The application of controls to ensure validity of data • The operationalisation of concepts to ensure clarity of definition • A highly structured approach • Researcher independence of what is being researched • The necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generalise conclusions	• Gaining an understanding of the meanings humans attach to events • A close understanding of the research context • The collection of qualitative data • A more flexible structure to permit changes of research emphasis as the research progresses • A realisation that the researcher is part of the research process • Less concern with need to generalise

Source: Saunders *et al.* (2007, p. 120)

After determination on research approach, the researcher proceed to consider whether the present study should be exploratory, causal, or descriptive. These three research structures are dominant in the social sciences. An exploratory study is "intended to develop initial ideas or insights and to provide direction for any further research needed" (Wilson 2006, p. 33). Accordingly, exploratory research tends towards flexibility and creativity in order to discover unexpected details (Kinnear and Taylor 1991).

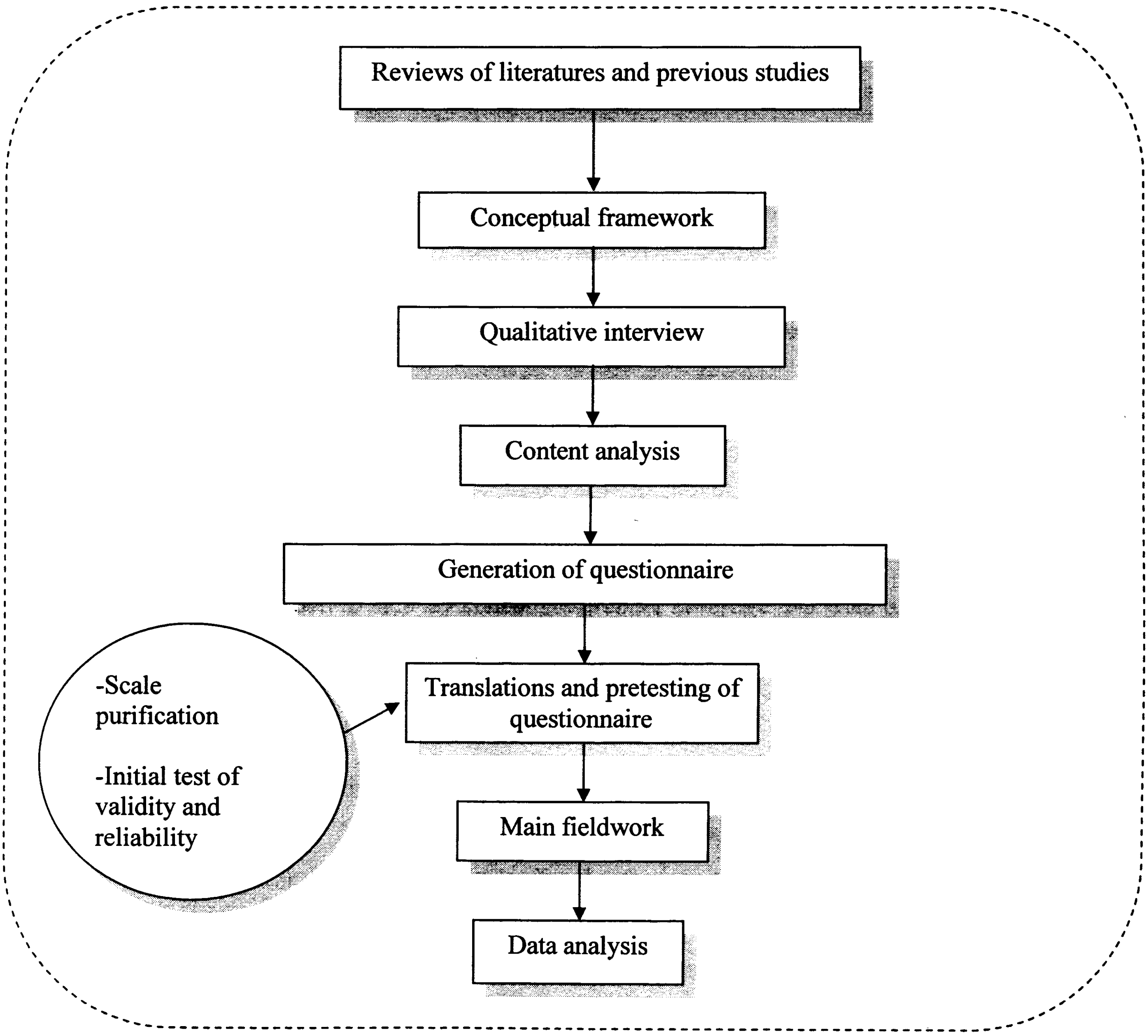
Causal study, also sometimes termed explanatory study, aims to establish causal relationships between variables (Saunders *et al.* 2007). In general, experiments rather than surveys lend themselves to the testing of causality. Causality can sometimes be established through longitudinal survey studies. However, this option is not practical to this study due to time and financial constraints.

Unlike explanatory study, descriptive research has the common purpose of determining the degree to which different variables are associated (Kinnear and Taylor 1991) in order to make specific predictions (Churchill and Iacobucci 2002; Wilson 2006). Churchill and Iacobucci emphasised that good descriptive research must presuppose much existing knowledge about the phenomenon studied and rest on one or more specific hypotheses. In contrast to the exploratory study, this type of research requires clear specifications and is considered rigid (Churchill 1992). Typically, descriptive research is cross-sectional in nature, that is, it collects data from the target sample at one particular time. Arguably, it is predominantly used in social science studies due to its efficiency and effectiveness in terms of data collection and costs (Nachmias and Nachmias 2008). Given the nature of the research objectives (i.e. to investigate the effects of the independent variables on service employee behavioural outcomes) and the adequate availability of prior evidence to formulate hypothesised relationships for examination, it was deemed that cross-section descriptive survey was the most appropriate option for this study.

6.3 Data collection methods

The present study employed multi-methods, using both quantitative and qualitative techniques, in data collection with more emphasis on quantitative methods. It must be noted that the questionnaire survey was used as main data collection instrument of this study because the questionnaire survey enables researchers to examine and explain relationships between constructs, in particular cause-and-effect relationships (Saunders *et al.* 2007). The following diagram represents the whole process of data generation in the present study. It can be divided into three major stages: (1) generation of questionnaire; (2) translation and pretesting of questionnaire; (3) main fieldwork and data analysis. Each stage will be discussed in details in the following sections.

Figure 6.2: The procedural step of the present study



6.3.1 Generation of questionnaire

The main objective of this stage is to initially collect information that would inform the development of a questionnaire to fit the context of flight attendant work. At this stage, an interview was conducted to ensure that the theories and concepts underpinning this research project are relevant to the Thai context as suggested by Douglas and Craig (2006). With the belief that reality can only be understood by the people engaged in the experience (Taylor and Callahan 2005), the face-to-face interview with target respondents was carried out to gain initial insights as recommended by Parasuraman *et al.* (2004). In this stage, data were collected from twelve Asian flight attendants from various airline companies. In general, the flight attendants showed familiarity with the concept of extra-role behaviour. Regarding the underpinning theories, it became evident that the majority of the crew engaged in extra-role behaviour toward their co-workers and customers due to the feelings of reciprocation which is in line with the social exchange theory explained earlier. Examples are:

Flight attendant 1 (Female, 25): *"Once I was so sick and the purser of my flight allowed me to passive back to Bangkok which means I could just act as a customer. However, I decided to help my colleagues prepare beverage and meal carts in a galley because the flight is fully booked and my colleagues helped me a lot during the outbound flight".*

Flight attendant 2 (Male, 27): *"Once on a flight to Fukuoka, Japan, a customer asked me for a toothpick. Normally, I could just delivery a toothpick in its standard package which of course looks so economic. Yet, because he was asking for it so politely (I mean his voice and his face expression) and of course I was not so busy at that time, I did a special wrapping and put the wrapped toothpick on an orchid flower. He was* *totally surprised on how much the airline cares about the details, and certainly he really loved it".*

From the two statements quoted above, both flight attendants show engagement in behaviours which can be conceptualised as citizenship behaviour with the norm of reciprocation serving as the mechanism encouraging such actions. That is, Flight Attendant 1 helped her co-workers even though she was not assigned any work (i.e. cooperation) because her colleagues helped her in the past (i.e. reciprocity). From the second example, it is also apparent that Flight Attendant 2 delivered the request of customer in a special way (i.e. extra-role service behaviour) due to a way the passenger interacted with him (i.e. reciprocation of emotional resources initiated by the customer). To this point, the researcher is confident that assumptions and theories underpinning the research are applicable in this research context.

Additional to the examination of theoretical conceptual relevance, the researcher endeavoured to gather information to see whether extra-role and in-role behaviours can be separated. Using a sorting sheet, the cabin crews were asked to distinguish between in-role and extra-role behaviour constructs. The results regarding the informants' perceptions of behaviours as in-role versus extra-role are presented in Appendix Two (p. 378). The results showed that most of the crews perceived extra-role behaviours related to service delivery (i.e. extra-role service delivery and cooperation) as part of their duty. Consistent with the literature, it is obvious that the informants perceive behaviours representing internal influence and external representation as extra-role. These results were expected as it is rather difficult to differentiate between in-role and extra-role behaviours in the service delivery process; especially in South-East Asian cultures where so much more is expected in terms of behaviours during service encounters. Moreover, data collected from this stage facilitated the conceptualisation and operationalisation of the five components of service employee citizenship behaviour. This qualitative interview also provided information facilitating the modification of questions measuring the passenger cooperation construct. For instance, the two quotes below enable the research to illustrate examples of passenger behaviour to clarify question items PSC4 "passengers do things to make my jobs easier *(e.g. ready for substitutes when something is not available)*", and PSC6 "passengers endeavour to avoid requesting tasks that are not required of me *(e.g. put carry-on bags in overhead bin)*", respectively.

Flight attendant 3 (Female, 31): *"It is very obvious for everybody that the busiest time for the cabin crew is during the meal service. Certainly, every crew member will try their best to delivery what the customer requests. However, the requested meal choice runs out. In some flights, most passengers are prepared to accept other available options, but in others they can be so demanding".*

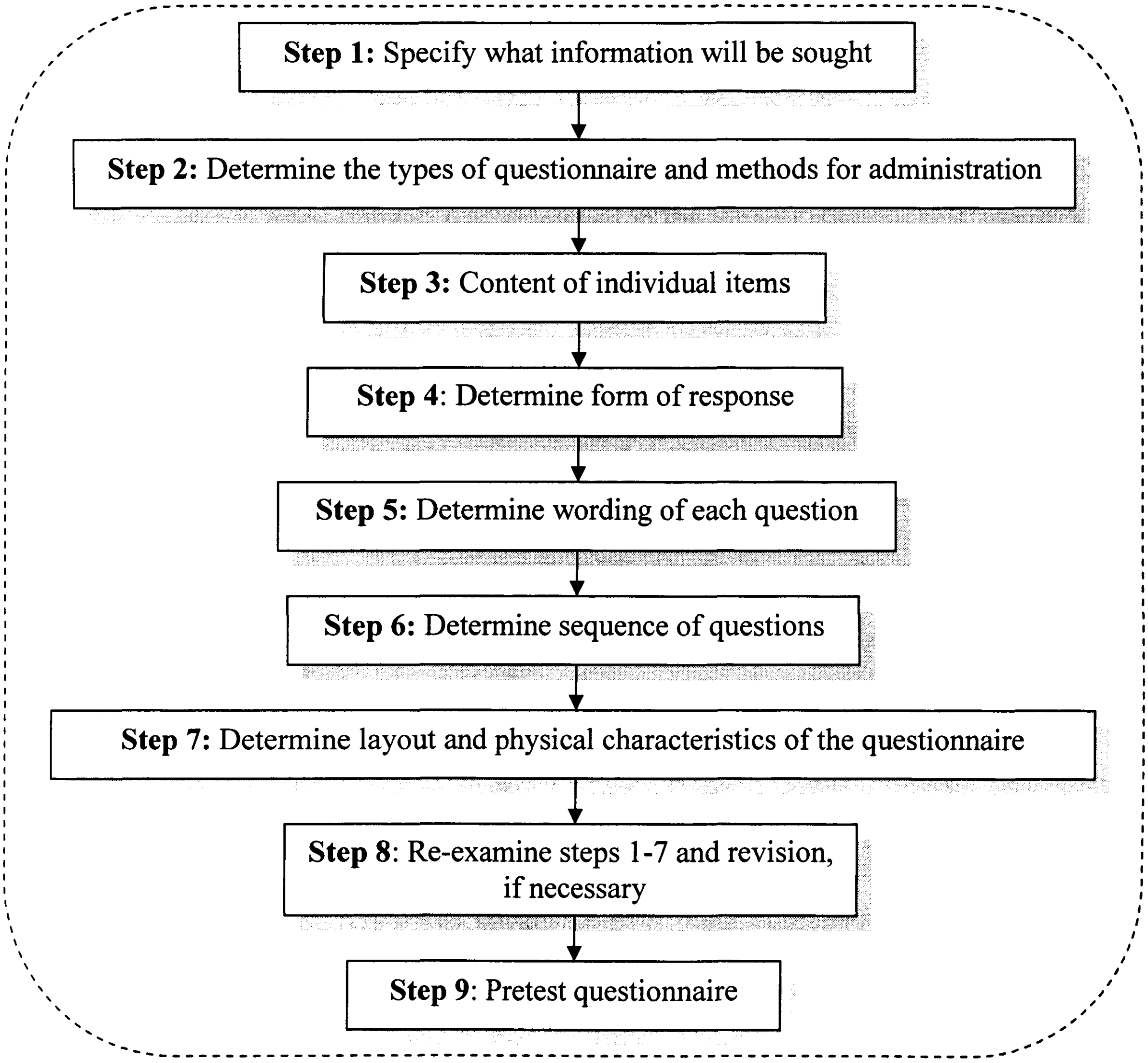
Flight attendant 4 (Male, 24): *"I believe that most passengers know that putting their hand luggage in the overhead compartment is their own responsibility, so I am never encountered with such request, even a single time, . However, I frequently help female passengers as their belongings sometimes seemed too much for them to handle".*

Next, let the present study turn to the process of how the questionnaire used in this study was developed and validated.

6.3.1.1 Questionnaire development process

The process of questionnaire development is based on the approach recommended by Churchill and Iacobucci (2002) which composes of nine steps. The following figures illustrate a step-by-step procedure which was used as a guideline for generating the questionnaire employed in this study.

Figure 6.3: Questionnaire development process



Source: Based on Churchill and Iacobucci (2002, p. 315)

Step 1: Specifying information sought

The information required for the present study mainly derived from the hypothesised relationships documented in the conceptual framework. More specifically, the measurement instruments were designed to solicit responses for the constructs conceptualised in Chapter Five. Questions regarding personal beliefs and demographic information of respondents were also added to the questionnaire in order to enable the researcher to investigate their possible moderating effect on the hypothesised relationships and be better informed of the sample group's overall profile.

Step 2: Types of questionnaire and method of administration

The structured questionnaire was employed in the present study as this approach has been widely used in the previous research on the main constructs. According to Saunders *et al.* (2007), there are generally two types of questionnaire administration, namely self-administered and interviewer administered. Self-administered questionnaire can be conducted through post, the internet, or delivery and collection, whereas the interviewer administered questionnaire is normally undertaken through telephone interview and/or face to face interview. Each method has its own advantages and disadvantages. Initially, the option of self-administered postal questionnaire was considered to be employed as the main method for data collection because its benefits and appropriateness to the purpose of gathering a large sample. Furthermore, the self-administered survey has a key advantage over other administration methods in that there is no interviewer bias (Wilson 2006). The decision to adopt the postal approach was, however, dropped after a formal discussion with the airline authority. Several organisational constraints prevented the present study from using a postal survey. First, the airline could not disclose personal information of their cabin crews to outsiders. Second, the human resource management department did not want to be fully responsible for the administration of the questionnaire (i.e. posting questionnaires to their crews), but only permitted their crew to fill out the questionnaire. Finally, the manager suggested that there is high potential that flight attendants would not post completed questionnaires back to the researcher.

As a result, the airline human resource manager suggested that he would assign five cabin crew carry on the questionnaire to distribute during their randomly assigned flights for three months started from April 2008, provided a maximum of one hundred and twenty five questionnaires for each cabin crew which totalled in six hundred and twenty five copies of questionnaires handed out. The five cabin attendants would also collect the completed questionnaire back and return them to the airline headquarter. This is akin to the delivery and collection method of questionnaire distribution. Based on previous survey exercises, he claimed that only this method (i.e. distributing and collecting onboard) would create a satisfactory number of responses. Although it was noted by earlier researchers that using incentives can be employed to increase response rate, Parasuraman *et al.* (2004) cautioned that people who respond because of an incentive may differ from those who do not respond at all, so that the final sample may not be a true representative of the population. Taking this into account, the incentive was not used in the present study. Considering the available options in terms of costs, benefits, cultural appropriateness (See Parasuraman *et al.* 2004, pp. 175-177 for a brief comprehensive review on culture and survey methods), and the company's policy, the researcher decided to follow the company's suggestion on distribution process.

Though this method is less familiar, it was not unusual as there are several different ways of distributing self-completion questionnaires (Bryman and Bell 2007). For example, the questionnaire used in Faulkner and Culwin's (2005) study of pattern of text message was distributed and collected by students at an assigned mobile shop.

The author was aware that participant's confidentiality and anonymity was the first priority. Because completed questionnaires were not sent back directly to the researcher, there was a possibility that the airline authority may see their employees' responses. Therefore, the manager was asked to assure that the completed questionnaires would not be interfered by the airline management. Besides, a sealable envelop was provided with each questionnaire. No seal was broken on any returned questionnaire. Additionally, the questionnaire did not ask for any details that may reveal the identity of the employee. Once the crews collected questionnaires from a flight and returned them to the airline headquarter, it was no longer possible for the company, or anyone else, to trace the responses back to individuals.

Step 3: Content of each individual question

This step is to consider what and how many questions should be included in the questionnaire to solicit the specific information sought. The objective of this step is to ensure content validity. Indeed, the first two steps greatly influence on the decision regarding individual question content (Churchill and Iacobucci 2002). The step started with an extensive search of the OCB literature its related areas. Specifically, the literature dealing with service-/customer-oriented citizenship behaviours, and the attitudinal antecedents (i.e. job satisfaction and organisational commitment) were gathered to create an initial pool of items. Then, cross-discipline search was performed on other constructs that are less well-established in the OCB literature (i.e. co-worker support). As a result, these measure items were slightly modified to fit the research context. The construct relating to customer behaviours (i.e. passenger cooperation) was developed through a combination of methods including search on aligned literature and interview conducted with flight attendants. Data gathered from the interview were very useful in modifying customer behaviour items. More precisely, the wording of passenger cooperation items which were based on Bettencourt's (1997) study in the retail grocery setting, were considerably modified to suit the research context. The followings provide definition and operationalisation of each construct:

In-role service delivery refers to *'service delivery behaviours that are formally prescribed by roles or job description. Neglect of performing these tasks will consequently lead to punishment'*. This construct was operationalised on a seven point scale, ranging from 'Strongly Disagree – (1)' to 'Strongly Agree – (7)', basing on 5 items adapted from Bettencourt and Brown (1997).

1. I perform all those tasks for passengers that are required of them
2. I meet formal performance requirements when serving passengers
3. I fulfil responsibilities to passengers as specified in the job description
4. I adequately complete all expected passenger-service behaviours
5. I help passengers with those things which are required of him/her

Extra-role service delivery refers to *'helpful service delivery behaviours that are not formally prescribed by roles or job description. These behaviours are non-rewardable and non-punishable'*. This construct was operationalised on a seven point scale, ranging from 'Strongly Disagree – (1)' to 'Strongly Agree – (7)', basing on 5 items adapted from Bettencourt and Brown (1997).

1. I voluntarily assists passengers even if it means going beyond job requirements
2. I do not help passengers with problems beyond what is expected or required (Reverse coding - R)
3. I often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving passengers
4. I willingly go out of my way to make a passenger satisfied
5. I frequently go out the way to help a passenger

Cooperation refers to *'helpful discretionary behaviours among service workers target at other members of their work group'*. This construct was operationalised on a seven point scale, ranging from 'Strongly Disagree – (1)' to 'Strongly Agree – (7)', basing on 5 items adapted from Bettencourt and Brown (1997).

1. I help other employees who have heavy workloads
2. I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those employee around him/her
3. I help orient new employees even tough it is not required
4. I do not voluntarily give my time to help other employees (R)
5. I willingly help others who have work related problems

Internal influence refers to *'taking individual initiative in communications to the firm and co-workers to improve service delivery by the organisation, co-workers, and oneself'*. This construct was operationalised on a seven point scale, ranging from 'Strongly Disagree – (1)' to 'Strongly Agree – (7)', basing on 4 items adapted from Bettencourt *et al.* (2005).

1. I make constructive suggestions for service improvement
2. I contribute many ideas for customer promotions and communications
3. I share creative solutions to customer problems with other team members
4. I encourage co-workers to contribute ideas and suggestions for service improvement

External representation refers to *'being vocal advocates to outsiders of the organisation's image, products, and services'*. This construct was operationalised on a seven point scale, ranging from 'Strongly Disagree – (1)' to 'Strongly Agree – (7)', basing on 4 items adapted from Bettencourt *et al.* (2005).

1. I do not tell outsiders this is a great place to work (R)
2. I generate favourable goodwill for the company
3. I say good things about the company to others
4. I encourage friends and family to use the company's products and services

The job satisfaction literature implicitly suggests that job satisfaction should be regarded as overall evaluative judgement about one's jobs (Weiss 2002). As such, **job satisfaction** is defined in the present study as *"a positive [or negative] evaluative opinion of one's job or work situation (Weiss 2002, p.6)"*. Additionally, cognitive-oriented job satisfaction has shown steady robust relationships with most forms of citizenship behaviour (see Chapter Three, Section 3.4.1). Given that the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) is the most cognitive-oriented measure of job satisfaction (Brief and Roberson 1989), this construct was operationalised using twenty items with responses based on a seven point scale, ranging from 'Strongly Disagree – (1)' to 'Strongly Agree – (7). Although items on MSQ are formative (Bollen and Lennox 1991), this scale possesses good psychometric properties (Weiss *et al.* 1967) and has been widely used in marketing and OCB studies (e.g. MacKenzie *et al.* 1998; Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Bettencourt *et al.* 2005). Besides, there is an established procedure in using this scale with structural equation modelling (see Chapter Eight, Section 8.3.2).

1. I am able to keep busy all the time
2. I have chance to work alone on the job
3. I have chance to do different things from time to time
4. I have chance to be "somebody" in the community
5. I am satisfied with the way my boss handle his/her workers
6. My supervisor has competence in making decision
7. I am able to do things that don't go against my conscience
8. I am satisfied with the way my job provides for steady employment
9. I have chance to do things for other people
10. I have chance to tell people what to do
11. I have chance to do things that make use of my ability
12. I am satisfied with the way company policies are put into practice
13. I am satisfied with my pay and amount of work I do

14. I have chance for advancement on this job
15. I have freedom to use my own judgement
16. I have chance to try my own methods of doing the job
17. I am satisfied with the working conditions
18. My co-workers get along with each other
19. I get praise for doing a good job
20. I get the feeling of accomplishment from the job

Organisational commitment in the present study is operationalised on Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organisational commitment. The model comprises of affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment referring to *'the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation', 'an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organisation', and 'a feeling of obligation to continue employment',* respectively. Common of these three components is that commitment is a psychological state characterising the employee's relationship with the organisation (Meyer and Allen 1991). This construct was operationalised on a seven point scale, ranging from 'Strongly Disagree – (1)' to 'Strongly Agree – (7)', basing on 18 items followed from Meyer *et al.* (1993). Each dimension is measured on 6 questions (i.e. questions one to six measure affective commitment; questions seven to twelve measure continuance commitment; and questions thirteen to eighteen measure normative commitment). By using the three-component model of organisational commitment, this present study simultaneously investigates the effect of each component of commitment on SECB, and thus contributes to our understanding of the effects of different dimensions of commitment on OCB.

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation
2. I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own
3. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation (R)
4. I do not feel emotionally attached to this organisation (R)
5. I do not feel like part of the family at this organisation (R)
6. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me
7. Now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire
8. It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to
9. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now
10. I feel that I have few options to consider leaving this organisation
11. If I have not already put of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere
12. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives
13. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer (R)
14. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now
15. I would feel guilty if I left this organisation now
16. This organisation deserves my loyalty

17. I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it
18. I owe a great deal to my organisation

Co-worker support refers to *'an employee's global beliefs concerning the extent to which their co-workers' value their contributions, cares about their well-being, and having positive attitudes towards them'.* This construct was operationalised on a seven point scale, ranging from 'Strongly Disagree – (1)' to 'Strongly Agree – (7)', basing on 9 items followed from Ladd and Henry (2000).

1. My co-workers are supportive of my goals and values
2. Help is available from my co-workers when I have a problem
3. My co-workers really care about my well-being
4. My co-workers are willing to offer assistance to help me to perform my job to the best of my ability
5. Even if I did the best job possible, my co-workers would fail to notice (R)
6. My co-workers care about my general satisfaction at work
7. My co-workers show very little concern for me (R)
8. My co-workers care about my opinions
9. My co-workers are complimentary of my accomplishment at work

Passenger cooperation refers to *'discretionary passenger behaviours indicating respect for the provision of quality delivery'.* This construct was operationalised on a seven point scale, ranging from 'Strongly Disagree – (1)' to 'Strongly Agree – (7)', basing on 6 items modified from Graham (1991); Van Dyne *et al.* (1994); and

Bettencourt (1997). Attempts on items modification are made with accordance to the interview data conducted beforehand. This aimed to ensure the fit between questions and the research context.

1. Passengers try to keep the plane clean (e.g. not leaving rubbish in the aisle)
2. Passengers understand the rules and policies of the airline
3. Passengers treat the airline's staff with kindness and respect
4. Passengers do things to make my job easier (e.g. they are prepared to accept substitutes when something is not available)
5. Passengers give me full cooperation when requested
6. Passengers endeavour to avoid requesting tasks that are not required of me (e.g. putting carry-on bag in overhead bin)

Individualistic/collectivistic culture refers to *'the extent to which people emphasise their own goal over those of their group'.* This construct was operationalised on a seven point scale, ranging from 'Strongly Disagree – (1)' to 'Strongly Agree – (7)', basing on 6 items taken from Hofstede (1980).

1. Being accepted as a member of a group is more important than having autonomy and independence
2. Being accepted as a member of a group is more important than being independent
3. Group success is more important than individual success
4. Being loyal to a group is more important than individual gain
5. Individual rewards are not as important as group welfare

6. It is more important for a manager to encourage loyalty and a sense of duty in subordinates than it is to encourage individual initiative

Social desirability refers to *'the tendency of individuals to deny social undesirability actions and behaviours and to admit to socially desirability ones'.* This construct was operationalised on a seven point scale, ranging from 'Strongly Disagree – (1)' to 'Strongly Agree – (7)', basing on 13 items followed from Reynolds (1982)'s shortened form of social desirability measure. Inclusion of this construct was to control for the common method bias which a main issue in the OCB research area (Discuss on CMB is provided in Section 6.4.4).

1. It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged (R)
2. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way (R)
3. On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability (R)
4. There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right (R)
5. No matter who I am talking to, I am always a good listener
6. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone (R)
7. I am always willing to admit it when I make a mistake
8. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget (R)
9. I am always courteous, even too people who are disagreeable
10. I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own

11. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others (R)
12. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favours of me (R)
13. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings

Step 4: Determine form of response to each question

Basically, there are two forms of questions: non-structured (i.e. open-ended) and structured or fixed-response questions (Parasuraman *et al.* 2004). Combinations of both forms are used in the questionnaire – depending on appropriateness of types of the information sought. With the aims of this research in mind, a seven-point Likert-style rating scale was applied to all construct measurement items in the questionnaire in order to allow the present study's statistical analysis and maintenance of uniformity. Seven-point rating scales have been extensively employed in the OCB area where researchers gather quantitative data and are pretty much the norm. Using an odd-number scale also provides respondents the option to give no opinion on questions they are not comfortable in answering or if they have no significant opinion on the question. As the items in the questionnaire were intended to measure employees' own perceptions from their own frame of reference, the scale was non-comparative (Wilson 2006). Personal information was obtained through a combination of response formats: multiple choice, dichotomous, and open questions.

Step 5: Determine wording of each question

Question wording is an important issue in self-administered approach as further clarification on questions is impossible once the questionnaire is distributed with exception that respondents choose to contact the researcher, which is very rare. Moreover, the questionnaire must eventually be translated from English to Thai. To avoid this problem, it was decided that the Thai version questionnaire have to be pretested with a number of prospective respondents and a number of experts (Discuss later in Section 6.4.2). Prior to that stage, some measurements were employed to avoid such problem with the English-version questionnaire. This included: (1) using simple, unambiguous and relevant wording; (2) avoiding double-barrelled questions, and leading questions; (3) avoiding questions with implicit assumptions; (4) and checking with experts and PhD students at Cardiff Business School.

Step 6: Determine question sequence

Churchill (1992) noted that question sequencing is essential to the success of research effort. Typically, it is suggested that a questionnaire should begin simple and interesting questions, and follow funnel approach (Churchill 1992; Churchill and Iacobucci 2002). In addition, questions on similar topics should be clustered together in order to allow respondents to maintain their focus on one topic at a time (Schuman and Presser 1996; Wilson 2006). These recommendations were taken into account during when the questionnaire was being put together. Most importantly, the issue of common method bias must be also considered in determining sequence of questions. Question sequencing in the questionnaire was therefore based mainly on the procedures recommended to avoid common method bias (Discuss later in Section 6.5). As a result, the questionnaire starts with the questions regarding five aspects of service performance (i.e. main independent variables of the present study), followed by mediators (i.e. job satisfaction and organisational commitment), and then dependent variables. Sensitive questions regarding personal beliefs and personal information were placed in the last section of the questionnaire (Churchill and Iacobucci 2002; Parasuraman *et al.* 2004).

Step 7: Determine layout and physical characteristics of the questionnaire

Layout and characteristics of a questionnaire are important as they can influence the perceived important of the study in the participants' eyes, which may lead to their willingness to participate in the study (Churchill 1992). The questionnaire characteristics were therefore developed in accordance with the recommendations of Churchill and Iacobucci (2002). Moreover, recommendations on characteristics and layouts of the questionnaire were gathered during the pilot test, and amendments were made accordingly. The questionnaire was made into a booklet to facilitate the handling and to reinforce an image of quality. It is suggested that small questionnaire is better than a larger one because it appears easier to complete and take less time to respond (Jobber 1989). Further, each question was numbered to promote the participant's cooperation on one hand and to facilitate the process of editing, coding, and tabulating the response on the other hand.

Finally, the distribution of questionnaire included a covering letter with Cardiff University headed paper outlining the purpose of the study, why they are invited to participate, and the ethical concerns (anonymity and confidentiality) of the respondents. The letter also endeavours to communicate the credibility of the research project and sponsoring institution. Moreover, a sentence expressing permission of the company to distribute the questionnaire was added to the questionnaire covering letter.

This aimed to motivate potential respondents' participation and to confirm the confidentiality and credibility of the study.

Step 8: Re-examine steps 1-7

Once the first draft of the questionnaire was printed out, it was examined thoroughly in terms of appearance, wording, and flow of questions. Appropriate modifications were made to issues noticed.

Step 9: Questionnaire pretesting

Although a considerable amount of efforts and time had been devoted to developing the questionnaire (Step 1 – 8), questionnaire pretesting was considered essential. Pretesting the questionnaire is an important activity in the research process which can reveal potential problems with question wording and sequencing, and questionnaire appearance under actual conditions of data collection (Parasuraman *et al.* 2004). In practice, it significantly affected the choice of wording and layout of the questionnaire used in this research. Apart from the issues related to questionnaire design, pretesting enables researchers to obtain initial assessment of the questions' validity and the likely reliability of the data that will be collected. The process of how the questionnaire was pretested is detailed in Section 6.3.2

6.3.2 Translation and pretesting

In international research, translation is extremely important, especially if the questions are to have the identical meaning to all participants (Saunder *et al.* 2007). Back translation is the most commonly used method in multi-country research (Brislin

1970), it however assumes an etic approach to linguistic translation which means that this approach lacks considerations of meaning asymmetry of the same words or constructs exist in different languages. Moreover, there are some limitations associated with employing back translation approach in international research. First, there may be different use of language between bi- and monolingual speakers (Brislin 1970). As bilinguals (i.e. translator) are fluent in both languages, they may not use a language in the same way as monolinguals. They can also more easily understand a poorly written target translation. Furthermore, back translation only provides a literal translation from one language to another; it may not capture the intended sense of statement (Douglas and Craig 2007). This approach is, therefore, discarded. The following table compares advantages and disadvantages between direct translation, back translation, and parallel translation.

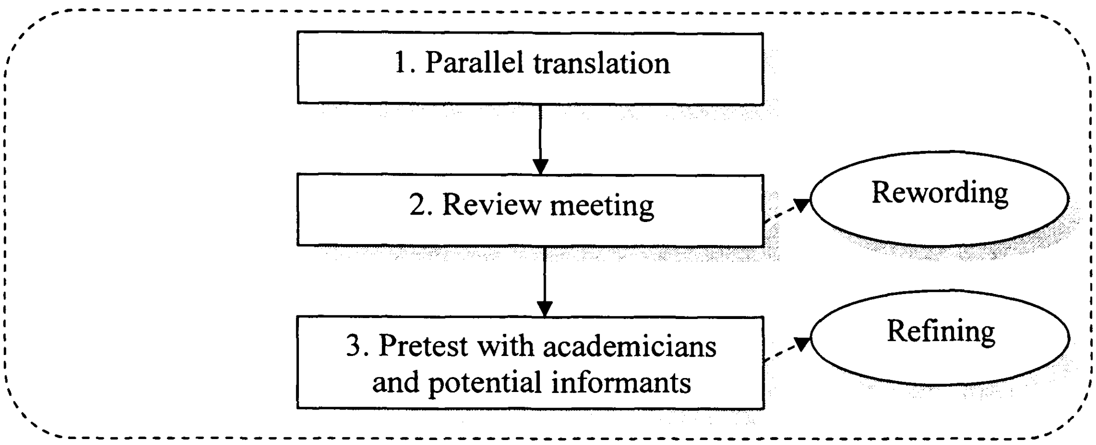
Table 6.3: Translation techniques: Comparing advantages and disadvantages

	Direct translation	**Back translation**	**Parallel translation**
Approach	Source questionnaire to target questionnaire	Source questionnaire to target questionnaire to source questionnairee ; comparison of two new source questionnaire ; creation of final version	Source questionnaire to target questionnaire by two or more independent translators ; comparison of two target questionnaires ; creation of final version
Advantages	Easy to implement, relatively inexpensive	Likely to discover most problems	Leads to good wording of target questionnaire
Disadvantages	Can lead to many discrepancies (including those relating to meaning between source and target questionnaire)	Requires two translators, one a native of the source language, the other a native speaker of the target language	Can not ensure that lexical, idomatical and experiential meanings are kept in target questionnaire

Source: Based on Usunier (1998)

Parallel translation has been advocated as a preferred method of achieving equivalence in meaning (Hambleton 1993). The translation process of the present study considered parallel translation method together with suggestions made by Douglas and Craig (2006; 2007) in conducting international research. Therefore, an extended parallel translation procedure called "collaborative translation" of the questionnaire was employed in translating the questionnaire for this study. This approach can bring together disciplinary expertise and cultural knowledge to translate the questionnaire (Douglas and Craig 2007). Figure 6.4 outlines the translation steps adopted in this research.

Figure 6.4: Translation procedure



6.3.2.1 Parallel translation

The questionnaire was separately translated from English to Thai by two independent translators who hold a PhD in the field of English linguistics and are familiar with technical terms in business areas. This resulted in two Thai versions of the questionnaire which were used in the review meeting.

6.3.2.2 Review meeting

The translators were then invited to a meeting hold with the aim of adjusting and finalising the Thai-version questionnaire. Also, an independent academic researcher in the field of human resource management was invited to the meeting. Each participant was given both Thai versions of the questionnaire along with the original English-version questionnaire before the meeting. Differences of wordings between the two versions were discussed. Amendments were made accordingly until both translators and the independent academic researcher were satisfied. The refined version of the questionnaire was then sent to an academic officer who is a specialist in Thai linguistic to check for wording ambiguities and appropriate use of the language. Few minor amendments were made with accordance to his suggestions, provided the amendments did not affect the conceptual equivalence.

6.3.2.3 Pretest with academicians

When the English-version questionnaire was conceptually developed, it was reviewed by two British researchers; one holds a PhD in the area of marketing and the other in human resource management. The purpose is to ensure that the questionnaire possessed face validity. Additionally, the pretest aimed to reduce wording ambiguity and potential confusion of each question.

Because pretesting of research instruments in each cultural context is critical (Douglas and Craig 2006), the Thai-version questionnaire was pretested with two groups of people: Thai academics and potential informants. Two Thai researchers who hold a doctorate in the area of marketing and management acted as judges of the Thai-version questionnaire. This aims to ensure the conceptual equivalence of English- and Thai-versions questionnaires.

6.3.2.4 Pretest with potential informants

It is noted that languages used by people from different background (i.e. the academicians and potential informants) may be different. Once the target questionnaire was refined, it was due to pretesting with potential informants. Also, it aimed to establish an initial reliability assessment. This stage of pretesting was divided into two rounds with different set of objectives for each round.

First round

The first round of questionnaire pretest aimed to capture potential wording ambiguities, timing, and other difficulties encountered by the respondents in completing the questionnaire. This round involves interviewing a Thai manager and ten Thai flight attendants from various airlines. Respondents were asked to fill in the questionnaire and report any confusions and ambiguities of wordings of questions in the questionnaire. Also, they were asked to comment on the characteristics of the questionnaire and the flow of the questions. Amendments were made accordingly, mainly in Section Six: General background information.

Second round

The second round of questionnaire pretest aimed to assure that there are neither ambiguous nor confusing questions and to obtain some the questions' initial validity and the likely reliability of the data that will be collected. The questionnaires were carried by the researcher to distribute on a flight from Bangkok to Singapore. A total of sixteen flight attendants participated in the second round of pretesting. The initial descriptive analysis was run using statistical techniques (i.e. means, standard deviation, and initial reliabilities). The results were satisfactory, provided that some questions were eliminated to achieve a coefficient alpha of .70 or greater. It must be noted that the statistical package used to calculate the initial values was SPSS, as the small number of respondents in the pretest stage did not enable the researcher to analyse the data on structural equation modelling. The following table shows reliability of each construct;

Table 6.4: Initial construct reliability

Constructs	Cronbach's alpha
Role-prescribed service delivery*	.712
Extra-role service delivery	.805
Cooperation*	.737
External representation*	.729
Internal influence	.943
Job satisfaction	.867
Affective commitment*	.788
Normative commitment	.775
Continuance commitment*	.743
Perceived co-worker supportiveness	.862
Customer cooperation	.743
Individualistic/collectivistic value	.871
Social desirability	.474

$p < .05$ *Some questions were deleted from constructs marked with* *

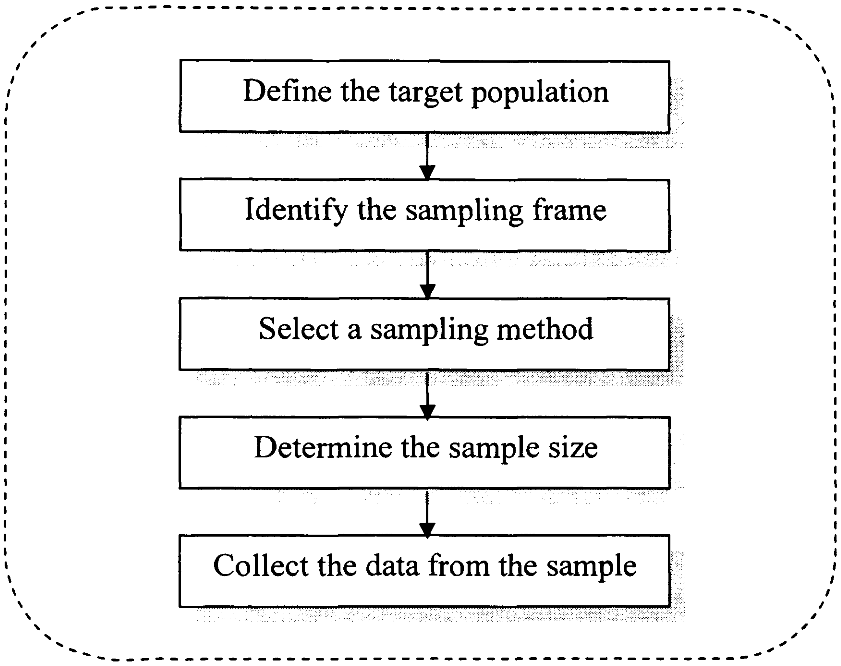
6.3.3 Stage 3: Main fieldwork

The final Thai- and English-version questionnaires were distributed to the airline authorities for further administration (Earlier discussed in Section 6.3.1.1, Step 2). The two versions of the questionnaire are provided in Appendix One.

6.4 Research sampling

Sampling is "the selection of a fraction of the total number of unites of interest to decision makers for the ultimate purpose of being able to draw general conclusions about the entire body of units (Parasuraman *et al.* 2004, p. 356). A conclusion can be made from the sample about the population to achieve the research objective" (Saunders *et al.* 2007). It is, therefore, uncommon for a research to survey the entire population due to time and financial constraints, especially, when the population is very large. The present project follows five-step procedure for drawing a sample based on Churchill and Iacobucci's (2002) and Wilson's (2006) suggestions. The following diagram illustratively presents the procedure adopted in this thesis.

Figure 6.5: Five-step procedure for drawing a sample



Source: Based on Churchill and Iacobucci (2002) and Wilson (2006)

Step 1: Defining the population of interest

Population is the whole group of people the researcher is interested in and wishes to examine or obtain information from (Wilson 2006). Because this study investigates the cultural dimension at the individual level, the researcher initially intended to have airlines share in this study from different cultural backgrounds in terms of individualist/collectivist values (i.e. Thailand versus the UK and the US). However, due to the increasingly intense competition of the industry along with external threats that have forced many organisations to restructure or even lay-off employees (BBC

News 2008), only one Thai airline company granted access to the researcher. Nevertheless, scholars have acknowledged that there is a variation of culture within any single society (Triandis 1995). Thus, obtaining data from Thai employees only will provide some insights of the potential effects of cultural values on individual outcomes, but as the within country differences are likely to be less than across-country differences (Clugston *et al.* 2000), the effects are likely to be understated.

In this context, airline employees that are the target population of this study must also have the following attributes: (1) being customer-contact service employees; and (2) mainly working on-broad. Therefore, air pursers and in-flight managers are also included considered as the target population. Ground staff, on the other hand, is not the target of this study, even though; they are customer-contact service employees. The strict applications of population specification help to constrain and clarify the external validity of this study.

Once the population is identified, it is now the stage researchers decide whether to census or sample (Wilson 2006). A census occurs when data are collected from the entire population. This, however, is normally impractical.

Step 2: Identifying sampling frame

While the population is the set of units that the sample is meant to represent, a sampling frame is a list of all cases of the population from which the sample are drawn (Saunders *et al.* 2007). Due to the issue of getting access, the sampling frame of this research is based on cabin crew from one giant Thailand-based airline which in a founding member of the world largest airline alliance. The sampling units consist of air hostesses, air stewards, air pursers, and in-flight managers working for the airline.

Step 3: Select a sampling method

In general, sampling methods can be divided into two main categories, probability and non-probability methods. With probability sampling methods, the chance of each unit being selected from the population is usually known and usually equal (Bryman and Bell 2007). This method is most associated with survey-based research strategies (Saunders *et al.* 2007). This step is considerably influenced by the airline authority (See Section 6.3.1.1: Step 2). Not withstanding this, it is arguable that the sampling method for the present study is simple random sampling. First, the assigned five cabin attendants from the airline were randomly selected. Second, their assigned flights and of course co-workers of the five crews were totally random. Thus, every flight attendant in the company has equal chance of being selected.

Step 4: Determine the sample size

It is noted that a sampling decision is based on the proposed data analysis technique, and is therefore influenced by a priori requirements or the constraints of the technique employed for measuring hypothesised relationships (Luck and Rubin 1987). Thus, the decision regarding the size of sample is mainly based on structural equation modeling's (i.e. the selected statistical technique employed to analyse data) requirements on data size. It is a general rule of thumb suggested by Hair *et al.* (1998) that a minimum recommended level is five observations for each parameter. Additionally, sample size may also depend on a number of additional issues such as the desired power, the null hypothesis being tested, and the overall model complexity (MacCallum *et al.* 1996). It is also suggested that when testing sophisticated models, large number of samples should be used (Hulland *et al.* 1996; MacCallum *et al.* 1996). Further, Hair *et al.* (1998) recommended that the number of observations should be the range between 200 and 400, which is considered as a large observation size (Kline 2005). Above this range, SEM technique becomes too sensitive to the data and may consequently lead to poor statistical results. The present study, therefore, endeavoured to achieve a target number of usable responses between 200 and 400.

Step 5: Data collection and response rate

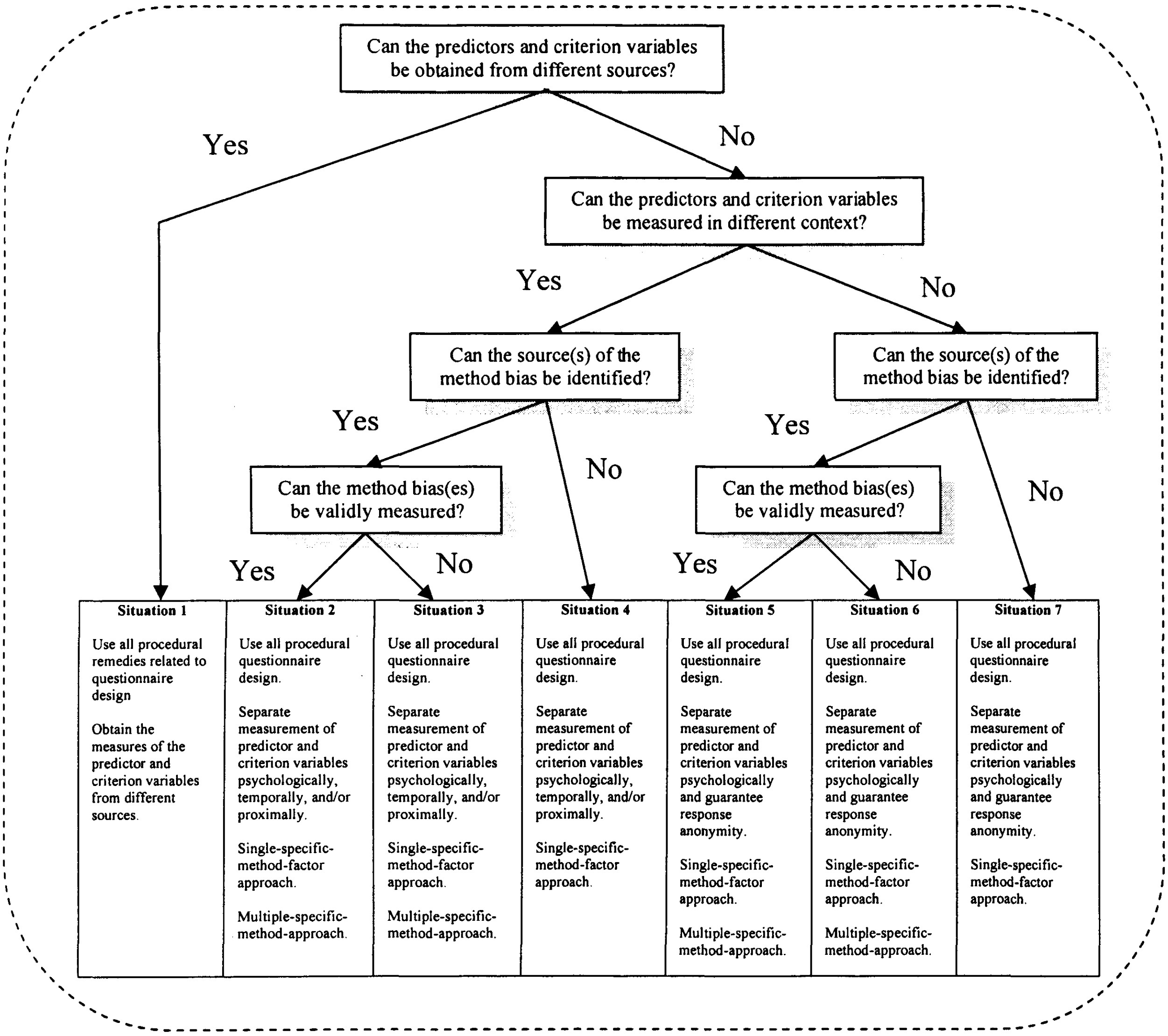
Once steps one to four have been determined, the researcher distributed the questionnaire to the airline participated in the study, totalled 625. Total 341 completed questionnaires were returned. This gives the overall response rate of 54.56 %. Six of the returned questionnaires were discarded since one respondent put the same answers on all the seven-point Likert scale items and five respondents ignored to answer substantial numbers of questions. Thus, the final number of usable questionnaire was 335, which gives the effective response rate of 53.60 %.

6.5 Managing common method bias

It has become widely accepted that correlations between variables measured with the same methods are inflated due to the action of common method bias, also referred to as common method variance (Bagozzi *et al.* 1991; Podsakoff *et al.* 2003; Spector 2006). Although a number of sources suggested that this problem is overstated (Spector 2006), statements suggesting that common method bias (hereafter CMB) is a serious problem persist. In fact, the origin of the belief that CMB effects can be traced back around fifty years to Campbell and Fiske (1959), who noted that a certain amount of variance in measurement can be attributed to the method employed which suggests that there will be a method effect that will produce same degree of variance in all measures assessed with the same method. And because of the method variance component that would be shared or would be common across variables assessed, an inflation in relationships would occur.

CMB is a concern because it is one of the main sources of measurement error (Podsakoff *et al.* 2003), which may in turn undermines the validity of the conclusions about relationships between measures (Nunally 1978). Interestingly, Spector (2006) noted that the concern for CMB is mostly raised when cross-sectional, self-reported surveys are employed as a main research instrument. In contrast, he noted that using other-rating approaches are less criticised for the same concern, even there would be a problem of 'source biases'. Recognising the issue of CMB and its serious consequences on final findings, the present study followed Podsakoff *et al.*'s (2003) recommended remedies to minimise and control for CMB potential sources, provided that remedy techniques are applicable in this research context. In general, there are two techniques to control CMB: (1) Procedural remedies; and (2) statistical remedies (See Podsakoff *et al.* 2003 for more details on techniques of each remedy). The following diagram summarises how CMB can be minimised in different research contexts.

Figure 6.6: Recommendations for controlling common method variance in different research contexts



Source: Podsakoff *et al.* (2003, p. 898)

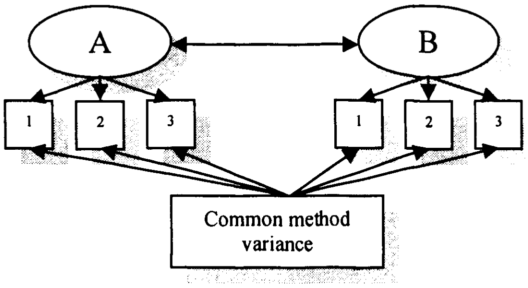
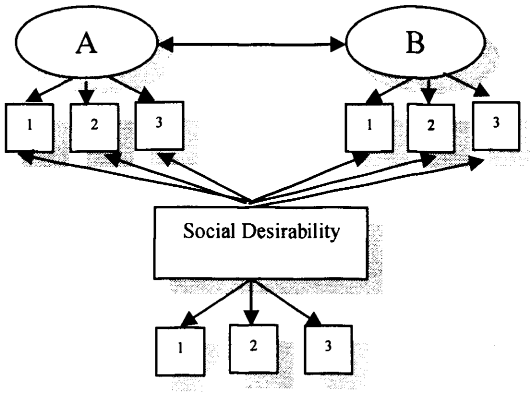
According to the above diagram, it is obvious that the 'easy win' solution would be the use of different raters and procedural remedies related to questionnaire design. Using different rating sources, however, was not applicable in the airline context for two main reasons. First, cabin crew work is on shift basis and therefore no formal supervisor exists. Their flights are randomly assigned as too are the persons in charge of the flights. Secondly, it is argued that many of the OCBs investigated would not readily be evident to an alternative rating source (Organ and Konovsky 1989; Allen *et al.* 2000). Because of the nature of these service behaviours, Bettencourt *et al.* (2005) stated that superiors may not always be knowledgeable of the extent to which an employee engaged in such behaviours. Thus, many service-oriented OCB publications used self-reported survey (e.g. Bettencourt *et al.* 2001; Ackfeldt and Coote 2005; Ackfeldt and Wong 2006; Lee *et al.* 2006; Dimitriades 2007). In addition, Allen *et al.* (2000) provided empirical evidence that means of self-ratings on OCB were not significantly greater than those of superior ratings. Moreover, it is indicated that self-ratings and superior ratings of OCB were significantly correlated (Khalid and Ali 2005).

Because it was not possible to obtain ratings from other sources, several procedural remedies related to questionnaire design were considered in the present study. First, careful construction and clarity of the scale items was achieved using a systematic questionnaire and measure development process. Second, psychological separation of questions was used in the questionnaire. According to Podsakoff *et al.* (2003, p. 887), psychological separation is an attempt to "make it appear that the measurement of the predictor variable is not connected with or related to the measurement of the criterion variable", and is recommended when it is not possible to gather data from difference sources. By this, questions were grouped together and put under different general topic sections to make it appear unrelated to respondents. Each section has a brief instruction indicating what is being asked. It used the words 'behaviour' instead of 'performance' and 'your organisation & your job' in stead of 'job attitude'. This aimed to avoid the problem that respondents may try to establish a relationship between sections. Moreover, the questionnaire begins with asking dependent variables (i.e. performance) and mediators (i.e. job satisfaction and organisational commitment) before further moving on to the independent variables (i.e. co-worker support, and passenger cooperation). The researcher believes that people are less likely to alter their answers once they have already moved onto the further part of the questionnaire. Finally, the anonymity and confidentiality of participants were guaranteed. The sentence 'there is no right or wrong answer' was placed in the questionnaire cover to urge the participants to answer questions as honestly as possible.

In addition to the above procedural remedies, statistical techniques were employed to assess and reduce the problem of CMB. Although several statistical techniques are available, it is evident that Harman's single factor test is one of the most widely used techniques (Podsakoff *et al.* 2003). Harman's single-factor test which examined unrotated factor solution for determine the number of factors that are required to accounted for the variance in the constructs. The common assumption of this method is that if a substantial amount of CMB is present a single factor will emerge from the test or one factor will accounted for the majority of covariance among the measures. This method can provide an initial insight whether common method variance would be a problem in the study. However, it is noted that this method does nothing to statistically control for the method effects (Podsakoff *et al.* 2003). Therefore, another statistical method 'controlling for the effects of a single latent method factor' was adopted in addition to Harman's single factor test. This techniques has been widely used in the self-reported OCB survey (e.g. Podsakoff et *al.* 1990; MacKenzie *et al.* 1993; Podsakoff and MacKenzie 1994; Moorman and Blakely 1995; MacKenzie *et al.* 1999; Bettencourt *et al.* 2005).

Yet, a source of CMB was not identified in any of the research mentioned above despite the fact that theory and research on the topic of OCB has presumed a social desirability element to the behaviours (Niehoff 2001). In King and Bruner's (2000) review of nearly twenty years of published behavioural research, they indicated that social desirability has been consistently neglected. Unlike other OCB studies, social desirability was identified as a main source of CMB in the present study. This construct was explicitly measured using Reynolds's (1982) short form of social desirability measure which comprises a number of reflective questions. Short version of social desirability was used for several reasons: First, the huge numbers of full forms are time consuming which may consequently dissuade participants to complete the questionnaire; and secondly, a study conducted by Loo and Loewen (2004) showed that short versions of the scale are a significant improvement in fit over full scales. Statistical discussion is provided along with structural equation findings in Chapter Nine.

Table 6.5: Statistical techniques for controlling common method bias

Requirements	Single-method-factor approaches
Does not require the researcher to identify the precise source of method bias Does not require valid measure of the biasing factor	
Requires the researcher to identify the precise source of method bias Requires valid measure of the biasing factor	

Source: Adapted from Podsakoff *et al.* 2003 (p. 896)

6.6 *Data analysis methods*

It is noted that statistical techniques are a major tool for data analysis in the social science research (Nachmias and Nachmias 2008). However, most of multiavarite techniques share a common limitation: Each technique can only investigate one relationship at one time (Hair *et al.* 2006). Recognising the objectives of the present study – to examine the pattern and interrelationships of multiple independent and dependent variables relating to service employee citizenship behaviour (i.e. SECB) and moderating effect of culture, structural equation modelling (hereafter SEM) is strongly recommended as the most effective analytical instrument (Byrne 2001; Hair *et al.* 1998; Hair *et al.* 2006). In this section, the basic of concepts of SEM are discussed along with main issues related to its application. Following this, procedural steps on SEM are briefly explained to demonstrate the SEM practice adopted in the present study.

6.6.1 Introduction to structural equation modelling

Since the development of a general framework for specifying SEM with latent variables (i.e. Joreskog-Keesling-Wiley Model), latent variable modelling has become a popular research instrument in psychology, the social and behavioural sciences (Anderson and Gerbing 1988; Baumgartner and Homburg 1996). SEM is a result of an evolution of multi-equation modelling developed principally in econometrics and merged with the principles of measurement from psychology and sociology which encompasses many different terms such as covariance structure analysis, latent variable analysis, causal modelling, liner structure relationship and LISREL (Hulland *et al.* 1996; Hair *et al.* 1998). There are several statistical techniques enabling researchers to address complex research questions in the form of multivariate models (Weston and Gore 2006). According to Hair *et al.* (1998) and Rigdon (1998), SEM techniques differ from other multivariate techniques in several ways. First, SEM can estimate a series of separate, but interdependent, multiple regression equations at the same time. Second, SEM is able to account for measurement error including unreliability and random error in order to avoid bias. Finally, it can effectively deal with multicollinearity. SEM, however, must be entirely theoretically driven (Hair *et al.*

2006). Similar to other quantitative methods, it will be valid only if specific assumptions are met.

SEM can be thought as a hybrid of factor analysis and path analysis (Hair *et al.* 1998; Weston and Gore 2006). This thinking categorises SEM into two main components: the measurement model and the structural model. The measurement is a sub model of the structural model that enables researchers to evaluate how well the indicators combine to identify underlying latent variables. In behavioural sciences, theoretical latent variables of interested are often unable to be directly measured (Byrne 2001). Thus, researchers need to operationally define the latent variables in terms of indicators that represent it. Measuring these indicators, therefore, constitutes the direct measurement of an observed variables, albeit the indirect measurement of a latent variable. In contrast to measurement model, the structural model is a "set of one or more dependence relationships linking the model construct" describing interrelationships amongst latent constructs (Hair *et al.* 1998, p. 621).

Despite wide usage of SEM, there are several issues related to its application: issues related to data, and the one- or two-step approach issue. The first issue related to sample size and data screening. Sample is a main concern for the application of SEM (Chou and Bentler 1995). It is established that the measurement indices (e.g. significance testing of parameter estimates, model misspecification, model complexity, estimation procedure) in SEM are either directly or indirectly related to sample size (Hair *et al.* 1998; Hair *et al.* 2006). There is, however, no consensus to this issue except to suggest that complete, normally distributed data require smaller samples than do missing or non-normal distributed data (Weston and Gore 2006). Previously, it is suggested that 10 to 20 participants per estimated parameter would result in a sufficient sample (Kline 1998). However, sample size may also depend on a number of factors (Hair *et al.* 2006) such as the desired power, the null hypothesis being tested, and the overall model complexity (MacCallum *et al.* 1996). It is also suggested that when testing sophisticated models, large number of samples should be used (Hulland *et al.* 1996; MacCallum *et al.* 1996). Recently, Kline (2005) offered guidance on how to categorise sample numbers: small (sample < 100), medium (100 < sample < 200), and large (sample > 200). The present study achieves a minimum number of 200 respondents to examine the conceptual model which is considered as a complex model. Other issues related to data are presented in detail in Chapter Eight, Section 8.2.

The second issue relating to SEM application is whether the researcher should use one- or two-step approach. The one-step approach is simultaneous estimation of measurement and structural models. This approach is suggested when testing a model with strong theoretical rationale and the measures are highly reliable (Hair *et al.* 1998). In contrast, the two-step approach starts with assessing the quality of the measurement model, and then subsequently proceeds to estimating the structural model between unobserved variables (Anderson and Gerbing 1988; Garver and Mentzer 1999). Although there is continuous debate between these two approaches, it is evident that most recent SEM researchers prefer to use the two-step approach. A main reason may probably be the difficulty in achieving a good model fit or even estimate a parameter the model in the one-step approach (Hulland *et al.* 1996). Anderson and Gerbing (1988; 1992) concluded that the two-step approach is preferred and recommended for the modelling task. Basing on the above discussion, the present study uses the two step approach to examine the hypothesised model.

6.6.2 Procedural steps in structural equation modelling: Key concepts

The true value of SEM comes from the benefits of using the structural and measurement models at the same time, with each model playing distinct roles in the overall analysis (Hair *et al.* 1998). To avoid misuse of the technique and to ensure that both models are correctly specified and the results are valid, it is generally suggested that the following seven steps should be undertaken. Table 6.7 illustratively shows the seven procedural steps for SEM analysis adopted in the present study.

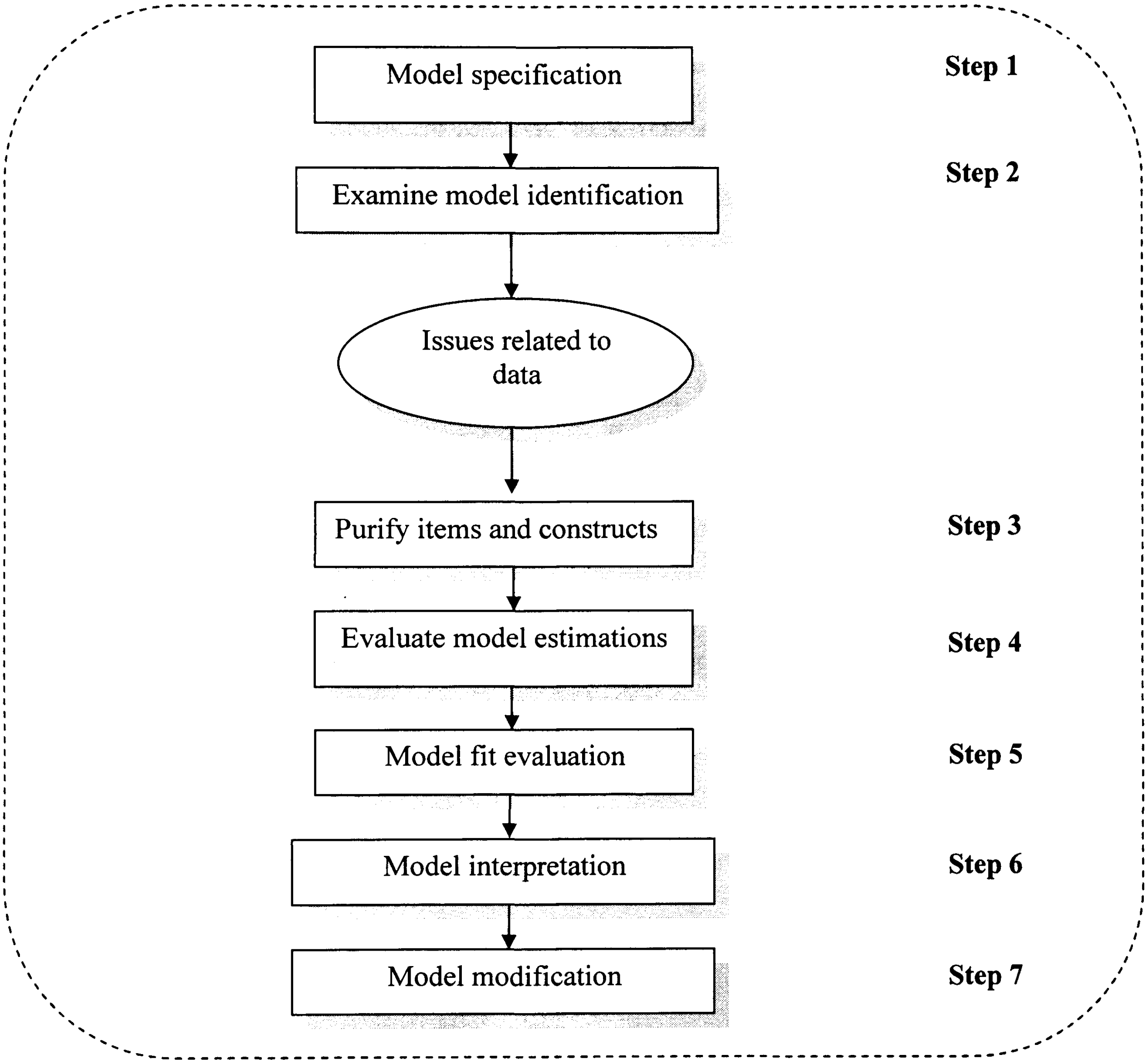
Step 1: Developing theoretically-based model and model specification

The first step in SEM is to convert the conceptually developed model into a causal relationship, in which the change in a variable is assumed to result in a change in another variable. It is the stage at which researchers specify which relationships are hypothesised to exist or not to exist amongst observed and unobserved variables (Weston and Gore 2006). As causal models are normally used to make predictions about outcomes using theoretical framework (Hulland *et al.* 1996), existence of all the proposed causal relationships must be theoretically justified. Without theoretical support, results generated merely by SEM, or other statistical analysis techniques, are meaningless.

Careful model development is very crucial because specification error (i.e. the omission of one or more key indicator variables) may lead to overestimated, underestimated, or totally misleading results (Kline 2005). However, the desire to include all potential variables into a model must be balanced against the practical limitations (Hair *et al.* 1998). With this in mind, simultaneous inclusion of customer-, co-worker-, and organisation-related independent variables in the study of five distinct aspects of SECB (see Chapter Two for review) related to customer and co-workers (i.e. prosocial service behaviour), and organisation (i.e. internal influence and external representation), would not cause specification error problem. Of course, inclusion and omission of the hypothesised relationships between exogenous and endogenous constructs in the present study are strictly based on theoretical ground.

Once the theoretical model is developed and path diagrams are identified, it is time to proceed to specify the model in more formal terms. According to Hair *et al.* (1998, p. 596), "this is done through a series of equations that define (1) the structural equations linking constructs, (2) the measurement model specifying which items measure which constructs, and (3) a set of matrices indicating any hypothesised correlations among constructs or variables". The main aim is to link operational definitions of the construct to theory for the appropriate empirical test.

Figure: 6.7: A seven-step process for structural equation modelling



Source: Based on Hoyle (1995); Hair *et al.* (1998); Kaplan (2000); and Kline (2005)

Step 2: Examine model identification

Model identification is an important issue in the process of model specification (MacCallum 1995). It concerns whether a single, unique value for each and every free parameter can be obtained from the observed data (Hoyle 1995). A model can be either just-, over-, or under-identified. Determining whether a model is just-, over, or under-identified is straight forward by looking at the number of degrees of freedom. The number of degrees of freedom equals zero ($df = 0$), more than zero ($df > 0$), and less than zero ($df < 0$) indicates that the model is just identified, overidentified, and underidentified, respectively (Hoyle 1995; Byrne 2001; Kline 2005; Weston and Gore 2006). Yet, a restriction on model specification is that for any model to be estimated it must be either just-identified or overidentified (Hoyle 1995; Chou and Bentler 1995). In short, the more degree of freedom within a model indicates the more parsimonious the model (Weston and Gore 2006).

Step 3: Data diagnosis and purification of construct and items

This step is to initially prepare and screen data. This step enables researchers to propose the most appropriate statistical packages for the data analysis. SEM is very sensitive to the distributional characteristics of the data, especially the multivariate non-normal distribution of data (Hair *et al.* 1998). A lack of multivariate normality may considerably inflate the chi-square (λ^2) statistics and create bias in critical values for determining coefficient significance (Wang *et al.* 1996). Given the nature of SEM that only uses variance-covariance or correlation matrix, it is a must that the data are diagnosed before they are used in the estimation procedure (Hair *et al.* 1998).

Practically, data is diagnosed for missing value, outliers, normality, and multicollinearity.

Once the data are diagnosed, it is very practical to clean up items and constructs prior proceed to confirmatory factor analysis in model estimation. Thus, this additional procedure is added to the present study. Item-to-total correlation and exploratory factor analysis (i.e. principal component analysis) was computed for this purpose.

Step 4: Estimating the proposed model

The purpose of estimation is to obtain numerical value of the unknown parameters and their associated errors (Chou and Bentler 1995). There are several statistical programmes (e.g. LISREL, EQS, and AMOS) and estimation procedures (e.g. OLS, ADF, and MLE) available, each programme and procedure has its own strengths and weaknesses. For example, MLE is more efficient and unbiased than OLS. However, the multivariate normality must be assumed and size of sample must not be too large or otherwise the technique becomes too sensitive to the data (Hair *et al.* 1998). Yet, it is argued, with empirical evidence, that MLE is fairly robust against violations of normality (McDonald and Ringo Ho 2002). There are some estimation methods that do not assume multivariate normality. ADF, for example, is insensitive to nonnormality at a cost of obtaining larger sample size (Hair *et al.* 1998; Weston and Gore 2006). Given that the sample size in this study is in the recommended range (Kline 2005), the MLE approach was utilised to obtain unbiased results.

Step 5 and 6: Model evaluation and interpretation

Model fit is the degree to which the proposed model reflects the associations in the data. Once the model parameters are estimated, the model fit to the data must be assessed separately at several levels: (1) the overall model; (2) the measurement model; and (3) the structural model (Hair *et al.* 1998). However, before evaluating model fit, it is suggested that the 'offending estimates' are examined and corrected, if encountered. Typically, the overall model fit is assessed by three types of goodness-of-fit indices: absolute fit measures, incremental fit measures, and parsimonious fit measures. The table below summarises different measures under each fit measure category. Also, it provides a guideline on criteria of each measure's acceptable fit. However, it must be noted these conditions of acceptable fit are a general guidance as specific criteria vary according to research areas, research contexts, and researchers.

Table 6.6: Summary of goodness-of-fit indices

Fit Index	Description	Conditions of acceptable fit
1. Measurement of absolute fit		
Chi-square (**χ^2**)	Test of null hypothesis that the estimated variance-covariance matrix deviates from the sample. Significantly affected by sample size. The bigger the sample, the more likely it is that the p-value will imply a significant difference between model and data	Low χ^2 Non significant with p-value of at least 0.05 ($p > .05$)
Normed Fit Chi-square (**χ^2/df**)	Chi-square statistics are only meaningful taking into account the degree of freedom (*df*). Moreover, it is also regarded as a measure of absolute fit and parsimony.	Value smaller than 2 (< 2.00) Value close to 1 indicates good fit whereas value less than 1 implies overall fit

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation **(RMSEA)**	Representing how well the fitted model approximates per degree of freedom	Value between .05-.08 indicates adequate fit
Goodness-of-Fit Index **(GFI)**	Representing a comparison of the square residuals for the degree of freedom	Near 1 indicates very good fit Value > .95 indicates good fit Value between .9-.95 indicates adequate fit
2. Incremental fit measures		
Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index **(AGFI)**	Goodness-of-fit adjusted for the degree of freedom. Less often used due to not performing well in some applications.	Value > .95 indicates good fit Value between .9-.95 indicates adequate fit
Buntler-Bonett Normed Fit Index **(NFI)**	Representing a comparative index between the proposed and more restricted, nested baseline model (null model) not adjusted for degree of freedom, thus the effects of sample size are strong.	Value > .95 indicates good fit Value between .9-.95 indicates adequate fit
Tucker-Lewis Index **(TLI),** also known as Buntler-Bonett Non Normed Fit Index **(NNFI)**	Comparative index between proposed and null models adjusted for degrees of freedom. Able to avoid extreme underestimation and overestimation and is robust against sample size. Highly recommended as the index of choice.	Value > .95 indicates good fit Value between .9-.95 indicates adequate fit
Comparative Fit Index **(CFI)**, identical to Relative Non-centrality Index **(RNI)**	Comparative index between proposed null models adjusted for degrees of freedom. Interpreted similarly as NFI but may be less affected by sample size. Highly recommended as the index of choice.	Value > .95 indicates good fit Value between .9-.95 indicates adequate fit
3. Parsimonious fit measures		
Akaike Information Criteria **(AIC)**	Comparative index between alternative models	Value closer to 0 indicates better fit and greater parsimony
Parsimony Normed Fit Index **(PNFI)**	Both model being evaluated and baseline model are taken into account	Higher value indicates better fit
Parsimony Comparative Normed Fit Index **(PCFI)**		

Source: Based on Hair *et al.* (1998); Byrne (2001); Arbuckle (2005); and Kline (2005)

Accourding to Hair *et al.* (1998), after good overall model fit is achieved the measurement model is then evaluated on unidimensionality, reliability, and estimated loading of the measurement of each construct. Finally, the structural model fit is evaluated, mainly by examination of the significant results of estimate coefficients. Once the model is deemed acceptable, the researcher then interprets the results in light of the underpinning theory.

Step 7: Model modification

The final stage of SEM is to modify or to re-specify the proposed model in order to achieve a better or best fit. Weston and Gore (2006), pointed out that the proposed model is rarely the best-fitting model, therefore modification may be required. Practically, modification indices serve as an initial useful point to start with. The used of this technique is witnessed in Kline's (2005) detailed information on using modification indices. In general, modifications are made to the parameters that initially are assumed to be zero but, later, proved to be significantly different from zero and vice versa. Modification is, however, a controversial practice in that that any modification made to the model must be theoretical justified (Hoyle 1995).

6.7 Reliability and validity assessment

Reliability refers to the instrument's ability to provide consistent results in repeated uses (Gatewood and Field 1990). There are several statistical techniques to measure reliability such as split-half method, test-retest approach, and coefficient alpha. Among others, coefficient (Cronbach's) alpha appears to be the common measure for reliability (Green *et al.* 2000). Although it is much the norm that an alpha value of .70

is acceptable (Nunnally 1978; Churchill 1992; Hair *et al.* 1998), values around .60 are adequate in certain circumstances (Lee *et al.* 2006). Nevertheless, coefficient alpha possesses numerous limitations. Garver and Mentzer (1999) pointed out three obvious limitations of coefficient alpha: (1) the issues of accuracy of reliability estimation. Coefficient alpha tend to underestimate scale reliability, but artificially inflates when the scale has high number of items; (2) identical definition of reliability and consistency in traditional reliability theory: and (3) assumption of equal reliabilities for all items. Gerbing and Anderson (1988) suggested that the CFA approach provides more rigour in testing reliability. In additional to Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability is calculated to assess reliability of the constructs. Because unidimensionality (i.e. existence of one construct underlying a set of items) is an underpinning assumption of reliability, unidimensionality of each latent variable must be established before assessing construct reliability (Churchill 1979).

Validity of a scale is "the extent to which it is a true reflection of the underlying variable it is attempting to measure" (Parasuraman *et al.* 2004, p. 294). Several facets of validity can be identified. Content validity refers to a qualitative assessment of the degree to which the items in a scale tap the entire relevant theoretical domains in question (Churchill 1992). Content validity is typically established by the review of literature and through expert assessment (Cronbach 1971) as it can be solely assessed through researcher's subjective judgment (Parasuraman *et al.* 2004)

Construct validity assess the nature of the underlying construct measured by a scale (Parasuraman *et al.* 2004). Simply, it examines whether the scale measures what it intends to measure. Without construct validity assessment, the result of theory testing may be ambiguous (Bagozzi *et al.* 1991). Basically, there are two aspects of construct validity: convergent validity and discriminant validity (Garver and Mentzer 1999). Convergent validity refers to the situation that "the items that are indicators of a specific construct should converge or share a high proportion of variance in common" (Hair *et al.* 2006, p. 776). It is the extent to which the latent variable correlates to items designed to measure the same latent variable. Discriminant validity, on the other hand, is the extent to which the items representing a latent variable discriminate that construct from other items representing other variables. In other words, it is verification that scales intended to measure different latent variables are indeed measuring different latent variables (Garver and Mentzer 1999). Unlike content validity, construct validity can be assessed quantitatively (e.g. examining standardised factor loadings and average variance extracted). The procedures to ensure face validity and construct validity were applied in the present study (Details are provided in Section 6.3.2.3 and Section 6.7.1, respectively).

6.7.1 Reliability and validity: Procedures and assessment criteria

The above section explains the concept and importance of validity and reliability in social science research in general. This section outlines the techniques and assessment criteria adopted in the present study.

Unidimensionality

Unidimensionality means "that a set of measured variables (indicators) has only one underlying construct" (Hair *et al.* 2006, p. 781). Typically, factor analysis is employed in order to make an empirical assessment of the dimensionality of a set of items. Each item should load highly on the factor that it is deemed to reflect (Hair *et al.* 2006). Developments and research strongly suggest that confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a more rigorous and precise test of unidimensionality as compared to traditional techniques (Anderson and Gerbing 1988; Gerbing and Anderson 1988). In this research, both EFA and CFA were employed in this study to assess unidimensionality by goodness-of-fit indices (i.e. GFI, TLI, CFI, and RMSEA) along with other diagnostic indicators such as standardised residuals and modification indices.

Reliability

To overcome the limitations of coefficient alpha, SEM-construct reliability values were also computed from standardised factor regression weights with the following formula;

$$\textbf{Composite reliability} = (\Sigma\lambda)^2 / [(\Sigma\lambda)^2 + \Sigma\delta_j]$$

$(\Sigma\lambda)^2$ signifies the squared sum of all the individual indicator loadings on the latent construct, and $\Sigma\delta_j$ demotes the sum of the indicator variance. Many times, this value will be relatively close to coefficient alpha, and the acceptable value is .60 (Bagozzi and Yi 1988), or .70 or greater (Garver and Mentzer 1999).

Average variance extracted (AVE) is normally used as a supplementary of construct reliability estimation (Hair *et al.* 1998). AVE value indicates the total amount of variance in the indicators accounted for by the latent variable. The norm for acceptable variance extracted is .50 (Hair *et al.* 1998; Garver and Mentzer 1999). The formula for AVE is depicted below where; $\Sigma\lambda^2$ represents the sum of all of the squared individual indicator loadings on the latent constructs, and $\Sigma\delta_j$ demotes the sum of the indicator variance.

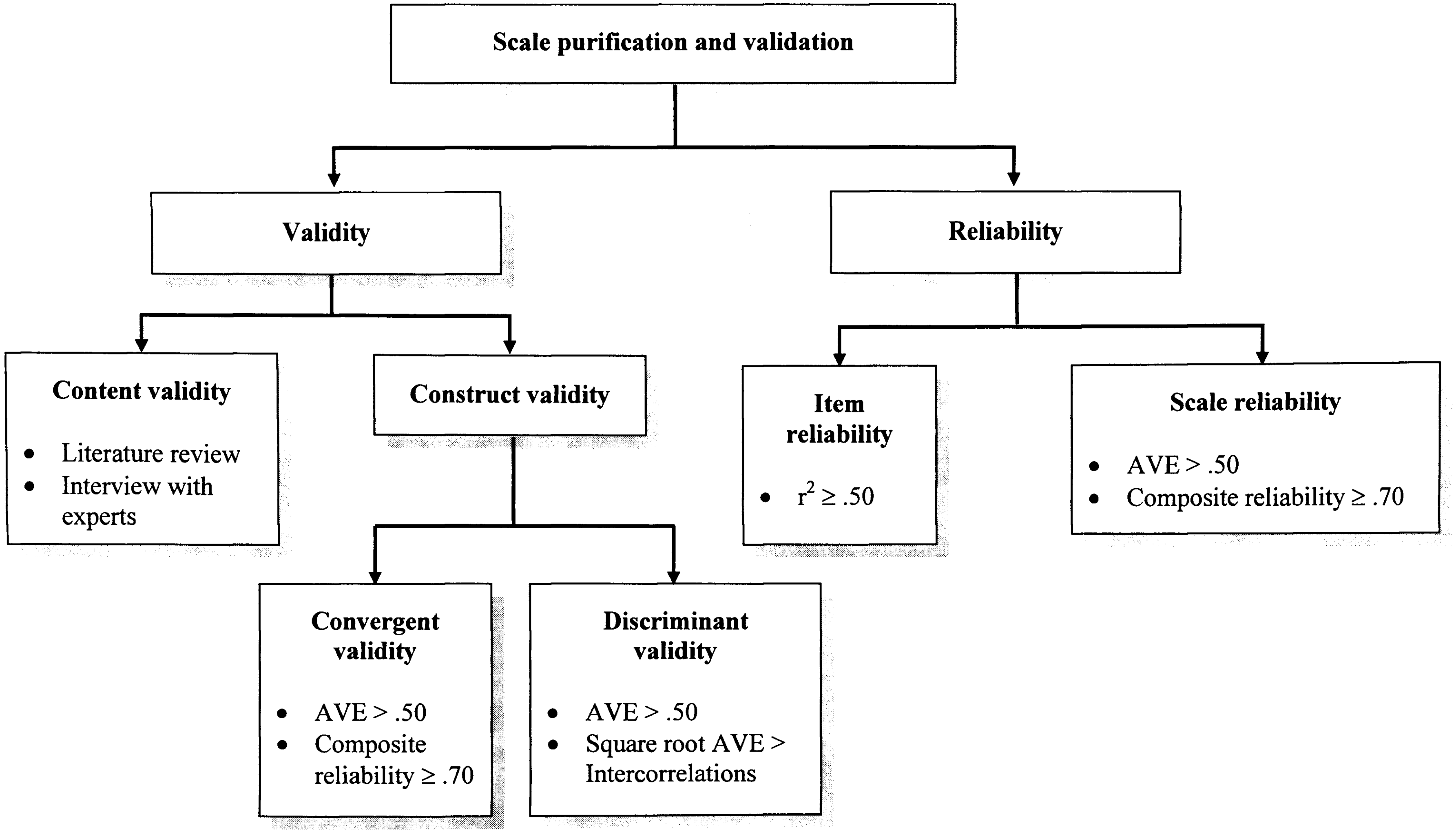
$$\textbf{Average Variance Extracted} = \Sigma\lambda^2 / [\Sigma\lambda^2 + \Sigma\delta_j]$$

Construct validity assessment

As earlier explained, SEM was used to assess construct validity in terms of convergent validity and discriminant validity. In this study, convergent validity was assessed by determining whether each parameter estimated (standardised loading) on its posited underlying construct is statistically significant (Steenkamp and Van Trijp 1991), together with construct reliability and variance extracted value. If the factor loadings are statistically significant (i.e. $p < .05$), convergent validity is likely to exist. A standardised loading of .50 or greater is recommended (Hu and Bentler 1999; Hair *et al.* 2006). A good rule of thumb indicating adequate convergent validity is an AVE value of .5 or above and a construct reliability of .7 or above (Hair *et al.* 2006).

Discriminant validity can be assessed by measuring correlations between different latent constructs (Garner and Mentzer 1999). Relatively low correlations between constructs indicate the existence of discriminant validity. It can also be assessed statistically by comparing the average variance extracted (AVE) for any two constructs with squared correlations between these latent constructs (Fornell and Larcker 1981; Hair *et al.* 2006). Discirmninant validity is evident if "...the variance shared by any two constructs (i.e., the square of their intercorrelation) was always less than the $p_{vc(n)}$'s [i.e. average variance extracted] for the constructs" (Bettencourt *et al.* 2005, p.149). Or in other words, if the square root of the AVE of each construct is higher than intercorrelations between the constructs. Discriminant validity exists. Also, an AVE value larger than .50 indicates the presence of discriminant validity (Fornell and Larcker 1981). Results of unidimensionality, reliability, and validity are presented along the measurement model evaluation in Chapter Eight. See Figure 6.8 for summary of the methods and criteria used in the present study to established validity and reliability.

Figure 6.8: Summary of scale validation criteria used in the present study



6.8 Chapter summary

This chapter provided a detailed explanation of the methodological approach considered and adopted in the present empirical investigation. The study is positioned within the realism research paradigm and provided justifications of choice. Lower-level methodological considerations are considerably shaped by the scientific position. Briefly, this study is descriptive cross-sectional survey based on deductive approach. Questionnaire development and translation followed the rigorous procedures outlined by Churchill and Iacobucci (2002) and Douglas and Craig (2007), respectively. Structural equation technique was utilised as the main data analysis technique. By this, the seven stages of structural equation modelling as forwarded by scholars are discussed. All methodological considerations are consistent with the ontological and epistemological threshold of the present study.

The following chapters will progressively present and discuss the current study's empirical findings. First, Chapter Seven will detail descriptive findings. Chapter Eight provides evidence of the measurement model stage wherein scale purification and validation procedures are addressed. Chapter Nine illustrates the structural model phrase and estimates the hypothesised relationships.

Chapter 7

Chapter 7

Descriptive Analysis

7.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the research methodology adopted in the present study was extensively elaborated. This chapter aims to preliminarily analyse the descriptive characteristics of the respondents and their responses using SPSS 12.0. This is a simple way to transform raw data into more interpretable information. The chapter begins by providing a discussion on the results of response rate and non-response variance as they have been a main concern for questionnaire surveys. Next, demographic profiles of the respondents are presented along with explanation. Finally, the results of descriptive statistics of the measurement scales of all constructs being studies are reported.

7.2 Response rate and non-response bias

Response rate is a main concern for questionnaire survey as this method of data collection can result in a very poor response rate due to the fact that participation is totally discretionary. Bryman and Bell (2007) suggested several ways to improve response rates in questionnaire surveys. The present study adopted a number of suggestions related to the design of questionnaire to improve response rate (Discussed throughout Section 6.3.1.1, Chapter Six). In this study, the final data collection was conducted over a period of three month, commenced from April 2008 to June 2008. A total of 625 questionnaires were delivered to the airline company, and 341 completed questionnaires were returned. This gives the overall response rate of 54.56 percent. Six of the returned questionnaires were discarded since one respondent put the same answers on all the seven-point Likert-type scale items and five respondents did not answer substantial numbers of questions. Thus, the final amount of usable questionnaire was 335, resulting in an effective response rate of 53.60 %.

Once the completed questionnaires had been collected from the airline headquarter, the researcher numbered each questionnaire for the purpose of data recording and non-repose bias examination. Many scholars have expressed concerns that non-response questionnaires can be non-simple random, and may therefore be a potential source of bias in survey research (Amstrong and Overton 1977; Barclay *et al.* 2002). To confirm the generalisation of the present study, testing of non-response bias was conducted. Notably, there are several ways recommended to investigate non-response bias (Lambert and Harrington 1990; Amstrong and Overton 1997). One of the commonly used methods in neutralising questionnaires is treating them as two separated group and detect for any statistically significant differences between these two groups. Generally, it is recommended that researchers compare the first quartile respondents against the last quartile respondents. Accordingly, once the returned questionnaires had been numbered, the first eighty questionnaires were compared with the last eighty questionnaires. A series of *t*-test (two-tailed) were conducted for all the variables indicated on the Likert-type scale along with some key demographic variables.

In the present study, the statistical results showed that the two groups are not significantly differ on almost all variables tested at 95% level of confidence.

Importantly, no key demographic variables between these two groups were founded to be statistically significant difference (see Appendix Two, p. 379). Hence, it is assumed that non-respondents did not significantly differ from the respondents and that the non-response bias was not considered to be a serious limitation of the current investigation.

7.3 Respondent demographic profile

This section is divided into two main subsections with the first subsection presenting the overall demographic profile of the respondents, followed by second subsection presenting the organisation-related profile of the respondents. Table 7.1 summarises key characteristics of the respondents.

From the table, 45.4% of the respondents were male and 54.6% were female. The average age of the respondents is 30.19 years with the maximum of 58 years and minimum of 21 years. Categorising 'ages' into groups, it found that the largest age group consisted of those ranged between 26 and 35 years, accounted for 57.6% of the total respondents, followed by those with age 25 or less (22.4%) and 36-45 years (15.8%). There were only 14 respondents (4.2%) aged over 46 years with only one of them being over 55 years.

Table 7.1: Summary of general respondent profile

Variable	Dimensions	Frequency (n = 335)	Percentage (n = 335)
Gender	Male	152	45.4%
	Female	183	54.6%
Age	25 and below	75	22.4%
	26 – 35	193	57.6%
	36 – 45	53	15.8%
	46 – 55	13	3.9%
	56 and over	1	0.3%
Marital Status	Single	271	80.9%
	Married	62	18.5%
	Divorced/Widowed	2	0.6%
Ethnic background	Thai	329	98.1%
	Chinese	6	1.8%
	Caucasian	-	-
	Others	-	-
Highest education obtained	Secondary school or below	-	-
	High school (A level)	1	0.3%
	HND/HNC	1	0.3%
	Professional qualification	1	0.3%
	Bachelor's degree	280	83.6%
	Postgraduate qualification	52	15.5%
	Others	-	-
Average monthly income (63.40 THB = 1 GBP)	20,000 Baht and below	1	0.3%
	20,001 – 40,000	33	9.9%
	40,001 – 60,000	181	54.0%
	60,001 – 80,000	63	18.8%
	80,001 – 100,000	43	12.8%
	100,001 and over	14	4.2%

Regarding the marital status, 271 respondents were single which constituted the largest group (80.9%). Less than 20% of the participants were married. Having a family may be a big concern due to the nature of work which involves with intensive traveling and long absence from their home. In addition, given that 80% of the participants were under 35 years, it is expectable that most of the respondents were single.

From Table 7.1, it seems that majority of the respondents (98.1%) endorsed themselves with Thai ethnic background. Only six respondents considered themselves having strong Chinese background. Nonetheless, these six respondents are Thai literal because the medium of language used in the questionnaire is Thai. The education level of participants does not show a remarkable variation. Indeed, 99% of participants had obtained at least a first degree. This phenomenon is common because the recent minimum requirement for the company's flight attendant position is a Bachelor's Degree in any field (Thai Airways International 2008). The remaining 1% of respondents who had level of education lower than a first degree was probably recruited into the organisation before the requirement was put into practice.

The average monthly income of the sample is just under 64,000 Baht (approximately 1,010 GBP) with the maximum of 400,000 Baht (approximately 6,310 GBP) and the minimum of 20,000 B aht (approx. 315 GBP), with the standard deviation equals 27,823.504 Baht (approximately 439 GBP). The respondent income was converted from Thai Baht to Great Britain Pound Sterling using the central rate (1 GBP = 63.40 Baht) computed from daily currency exchange rates obtained from Bank of Thailand during the period of data collection (April 2008 to June 2008). The highest amount of income group (1,557 GBP or higher) was represented by 4.2% response rate whereas the smallest amount of income group was accounted for only 0.3% of the respondents. Around 90% of the respondents earned more than 631 GBP a month with the largest number of respondent earning between 631 – 946 GBP a month.

Comparing with the information obtained from Office of the National Economic and Social Development Board of Thailand[1], their average annual earning (12,120 GBP, calculated from 1,010 GBP*12 months) was around sixfolds above the country's average GDP per capita (1,967 GBP, calculated from 124,835 Baht/63.40). To address an abnormally high amount of income (in comparison to the country's population), it is best to clarify sources of their earning. Normally, flight attendant's income mainly comes from two sources which are fixed monthly salary and flight compensation called 'perdium' (NewwaveTG 2008). The fixed salary of cabin crew is just at the country normal rate, the incremental difference in earning therefore comes from flight compensation which includes 'workload hourly pay', 'meal allowance', and 'cost of living adjustment' (NewwaveTG 2008) .

[1] Report can be obtained from http://www.nesdb.go.th/Default.aspx?tabid=95

Table 7.2: Summary of organisation-related profile of the respondents

Variable	Dimensions	Frequency (n = 335)	Percentage (n = 335)
Tenure	1 year and under	91	27.2%
	1.1 – 5 years	146	43.6%
	5.1 – 10 years	22	6.6%
	10.1 years and over	76	22.7%
Formal position	Air/steward trainee	14	4.2%
	Air/steward	297	88.7%
	Purser/in-flight manager	24	7.1%
Cabin serve most	Economy	268	80.0%
	Business	62	18.5%
	First	5	1.5%
Average flight haul	Under 5 hours (Short haul)	205	61.2%
	5 -7 hours (Medium haul)	73	21.8%
	Over 7 hours (Long haul)	57	17.0%
Destination fly most	South Eastern Asia	145	43.3%
	Southern Asia	18	5.4%
	Eastern Asia	102	30.4%
	Middle East	3	0.9%
	Central and Eastern Europe	13	3.9%
	Western Europe	45	13.4%
	North America	-	-
	Central and South America	1	0.3%
	Africa	1	0.3%
	Australia/New Zealand	7	2.1%

The average tenure of the sample was six years and around two months. The organisation tenure was, afterwards, categorised into four groups to ease the interpretation. Two third of the respondents (70.8%) had stayed in the organisation no more than five years. Only approximate one third (29.3%) of the respondents had worked for the organisation more than five years, 22.7% had been with the company more than ten years and 6.6% had been with the company between six and ten years.

The cabin crew position of this organisation can be divided into three formal categories. Trainees are newly hired crews who are still on probation period and will be promoted to the full crew position if all employment conditions are satisfied. They represented 4.2% of the sample in this research. The majority of the respondents were full flight attendants, 88.7%. Twenty four respondents (7.1%) were in cabin management positions which mainly involve flight attendant supervision the overall responsibility of cabin work. Regarding the most commonly served cabin, 80% of respondents reported that they served economic-class passengers most often. 18.5% and 1.5% of the flight attendants participated in the present research served business class and first class passengers, respectively. From the data obtained from the interview, the cabin served principally depends on organisation tenure and position. In other words, the more senior a crew is on board in comparison to his or her colleagues, more chances that the crew will be allocated to serve in the upper-class cabins.

In terms of average flight haul, 61.2 % of the respondents fly short-haul flights whereas 21.8% and 17.0% of the sample fly medium and long-haul flights, respectively. With regard to the reported flight haul, destinations the respondents frequently travel could be expected to be within the Asian region. The analysis of data on 'destinations fly most' revealed so. Around 50% of the respondents fly most to South East Asia and South Asia which is within durations of five hours[2]. The second destinations they flew most were East Asia which includes Japan, Korea, and some Chinese cities. Just fewer than 20% of the respondents reported that they mostly traveled to Europe. 2.1%, 0.3%, and 0.3% of the respondents flew to Australia/New Zealand, African, and Central and South Africa most. No crew reported North America as the destination flew most. The results presented are consistent with

[2] Flight times and flight schedules can be checked online at www.thaiair.com

numbers of flights per destination per week, which can be checked online at the airline's official website.

7.4 Descriptive analysis of constructs being studied

So far, the previous sections of this chapter have been mainly dealing with the sample and characteristics profile of the respondents. This section focuses on the pattern of informants' responses given to the items measuring thirteen constructs conceptually developed in previous chapters. All items were measured by seven-point Likert-type scale ranging from "(1) = Strongly Disagree to (7) = Strongly Agree". It must be noted that a number of items were reversely coded. These items are COOP4, EXT1, EXR2, AC3, AC4, AC5, NC1, CWS5, CWS7, SD1, SD2, SD3, SD4, SD6, SD8, SD11, and SD12. To facilitate the interpretation of the descriptive results, constructs which are conceptually closely related were grouped and presented together. This results in five distinct groups of constructs, namely: (1) service employee citizenship behaviour, (2) job attitudes, (3) co-worker support, (4) customer behaviour and, (5) values and belief.

7.4.1 Service employee citizenship behaviour: Descriptive of individual items

In light of the present study, service employee citizenship behaviour (SECB) comprises of five separate components (i.e. in-role service delivery, extra-role service delivery, cooperation, external representation, and internal influence). The findings are presented in Table 7.3.

The participants were asked to rate their *in-role service delivery* on a five-item measure. The results show that:

1. Most of the respondents (93.7% answered 5, 6, and 7) report that they perform all required tasks for passengers (INR1: mean = 5.87, SD = .855).
2. Total 94.9% of the respondents agree that they meet formal requirement when serving passenger onboard (INT2: mean = 5.90, SD = .773).
3. With exemption on one person answered 'neutral' to this questions, all of the sample perceive that they fulfill responsibility to passengers as specified in the job description (INR3: mean = 6.20, SD = .639). Notably, this item, amongst other in this measure, shows that the highest averaged value with lowest standard variation.
4. 94.6% believe that they adequately complete all expected passenger-service behaviour (INR4: mean = 5.87, SD = .775).
5. 97.6% report that they help passengers with those thing that are required (INR5: mean = 5.99, SD = .746).

Table 7.3: Descriptive findings for SECB

Construct	Items	Response scale (%)							Mean	Std. D
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
In-role service delivery	INR1	-	-	1.8	4.5	19.7	53.1	20.9	5.87	.855
	INR2	-	-	1.5	3.6	15.8	62.1	17.0	5.90	.773
	INR3	-	-	-	.3	11.3	56.1	32.2	6.20	.639
	INR4	-	-	1.2	4.2	17.3	60.6	16.7	5.87	.775
	INR5	-	-	.6	1.8	19.1	54.6	23.9	5.99	.746
Extra-role service delivery	EXR1	.6	.6	.6	4.8	24.5	47.5	21.5	5.80	.956
	EXR2	.6	3.0	3.6	9.0	17.6	39.1	27.2	5.66	1.282
	EXR3	.3	1.5	5.4	13.1	31.6	35.5	12.5	5.31	1.137
	EXR4	.6	1.8	4.5	7.8	23.3	41.5	20.6	5.58	1.191
	EXR5	.3	3.0	4.2	11.6	38.5	32.8	9.6	5.22	1.125
Coopera-tion	COOP1	-	-	-	1.5	10.7	57.6	30.1	6.16	.666
	COOP2	-	-	.6	1.8	8.4	57.9	31.3	6.18	.702
	COOP3	-	.9	.9	4.8	25.4	47.2	20.9	5.80	.916
	COOP4	-	1.5	4.8	6.6	5.7	40.9	40.6	6.01	1.182
	COOP5	.6	1.5	.6	4.2	17.0	51.0	25.1	5.89	1.010
External Represen -tative	EXT1	.6	2.1	8.7	15.8	12.8	36.7	23.3	5.41	1.386
	EXT2	.3	.6	.3	6.0	13.7	39.7	39.4	6.09	.981
	EXT3	-	1.2	2.4	13.1	26.3	39.7	17.3	5.53	1.072
	EXT4	-	.6	2.4	9.3	25.1	38.5	24.2	5.71	1.045
Internal influence	INT1	.6	.9	2.4	14.3	24.2	42.7	14.9	5.48	1.099
	INT2	.6	2.4	2.7	18.8	34.3	30.1	11.0	5.19	1.148
	INT3	.6	.9	1.8	11.3	27.5	47.8	10.1	5.48	1.008
	INT4	.6	1.8	4.8	22.4	35.8	27.5	7.2	5.02	1.112

A five-item scale measured *extra-role service delivery* of the respondents. The results indicate that:

1. 93.5% of the respondents report that they voluntarily assist passengers even if it means going beyond job requirements (EXR1: mean =5.8, SD = .956).
2. 83.9% help passengers with problems beyond what is expected or required (EXR2: mean = 5.66, SD = 1.282).
3. 79.6% indicate that they go above and beyond the call of duty when serving passengers (EXR3: mean = 5.31, SD = 1.137).

4. 85.4% are willing to go out of the way to make a passenger satisfied (EXR4: mean = 5.58, SD = 1.191).
5. 80.9% report that they frequently go of the way to help a passenger (EXR5, mean = 5.22, SD = 1.125).

The findings from five items measuring *cooperation* revealed that:

1. 98.4% of the respondents help other employees who have heavy workload (COOP1: mean = 6.16, SD = .666)
2. 97.6% indicate that they are always ready to lend a helping hand to those employee around them (COOP2: mean = 6.18, SD = 0.702)
3. 93.5% help the organisation to orient new employees even though it is not required (COOP3: mean = 5.80, SD = .916)
4. 87.2% voluntarily give their time to help other employees (COOP4: mean = 6.01, SD = 1.182)
5. 93.1% willingly help others who have work-related problems (COOP5: mean = 5.89, SD = 1.010).

External representation was measured by a four-item scale. The findings suggest that:

1. 72.8% tell outsiders that the company is a great place to work (EXT1: mean = 5.41, SD = 1.386).
2. 92.8% generate favourable goodwill for the company (EXT2: mean = 6.09, SD = .981).
3. 83.3% report that they say good things about the company to others (EXT3: mean = 5.53, SD = 1.072).

4. 87.8% encourage friends and family members to use the company's products and services (EXT4: mean = 5.71, SD = 1.045).

A four-item scale measured respondents' *internal influence*. The findings show that:

1. 81.8% make constructive suggestions for service improvement (INT1: mean = 5.48, SD = 1.099).
2. 75.4% indicate that they contribute many ideas for customer promotions and communications (INT2: mean = 5.19, SD = 1.148).
3. 85.4% share constructive solutions to customer problems with other team members (INT3: mean = 5.48, SD = 1.008).
4. 70.5% encourage other employees to contribute ideas and suggestions for service improvement (INT4: mean = 5.02, SD = 1.112).

In general, it is noticeable that the means of all items measuring SECB are above the mid point of the scale (i.e. 4), which gives an initial indication that the respondents were familiar with the behaviours being investigated and certainly engaged in such behaviours. Yet, the standard deviations show that there are variations in their answers indicating that their behaviours varied. It is possible that the high averages of these items are a consequence of common method bias (i.e. using self-reported questionnaire on all items). Whether the averages are inflated by CMB or not will be examined and handled in the subsequent chapters (i.e. Chapter Eight and Chapter Nine).

7.4.2 Job attitudes: Descriptive of individual items

Table 7.4: Descriptive findings for job satisfaction

Construct	Items	Response scale (%)							Mean	Std. D
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Job satisfaction	JS1	.3	2.7	3.3	9.9	27.2	46.3	10.4	5.41	1.110
	JS2	2.7	9.9	8.1	13.7	23.9	37.0	4.8	4.76	1.513
	JS3	.3	2.4	3.3	13.1	43.9	31.6	5.4	5.14	1.019
	JS4	2.7	8.7	11.3	30.7	25.4	17.0	4.2	4.35	1.376
	JS5	2.1	4.5	6.0	23.3	37.9	22.7	3.6	4.73	1.229
	JS6	1.2	2.4	5.1	15.2	33.4	34.9	7.8	5.13	1.187
	JS7	9.6	16.8	5.7	15.3	13.5	31.4	7.8	4.32	1.895
	JS8	.6	.9	4.2	4.8	20.3	44.8	24.5	5.76	1.119
	JS9	-	.9	.9	4.2	16.1	57.0	20.9	5.90	.868
	JS10	1.2	.6	2.1	10.1	26.3	46.3	12.8	5.50	1.089
	JS11	.6	2.1	1.8	6.9	30.1	46.9	11.9	5.51	1.052
	JS12	3.9	6.6	10.4	21.8	25.7	25.4	6.3	4.60	1.483
	JS13	2.1	4.2	8.1	7.5	24.2	40.9	13.1	5.23	1.413
	JS14	3.6	3.9	7.5	14.9	24.8	33.4	11.9	5.01	1.479
	JS15	3.3	6.6	7.5	12.5	33.1	27.5	9.6	4.86	1.478
	JS16	5.1	5.7	9.9	14.6	35.2	23.0	6.6	4.64	1.495
	JS17	1.2	3.6	4.2	10.4	30.1	40.6	9.9	5.26	1.234
	JS18	-	.3	.3	5.7	27.8	54.0	11.9	5.71	.784
	JS19	.6	1.8	3.9	11.6	30.4	42.7	9.0	5.33	1.098
	JS20	.6	1.2	2.7	9.6	29.9	45.4	10.7	5.46	1.040

Table 7.4 presents descriptive analysis of the 20 individual items measuring job satisfaction. The findings indicate that:

1. 83.9% of the respondents report that they are able to keep busy all the time (JS1: mean = 5.41, SD = 1.11).
2. 65.7% agree that they have chance to work alone on the job (JS2: mean = 4.76, SD = 1.513).
3. 80.9% agree that they have chance to do different things from time to time (JS3: mean = 5.14, SD = 4.35).

4. 46.6% have chance to be "somebody" in the community (JS4: mean = 4.35, SD = 1.376).
5. 64.2% are satisfied with the way their boss handle his/her workers (JS5: mean = 4.73, SD = 1.229).
6. 76.1% report that their supervisor has competence in making decision (JS6: mean = 5.13, SD = 1.187).
7. 52.7% agree that they are able to do things that don't go against their conscience (JS7: mean = 4.32, SD = 1.895).
8. 89.6% are satisfied with the way their job provides for steady employment (JS8: mean = 5.76, SD = 1.119).
9. 94% have chance to do things for other people (JS9: mean = 5.9, SD = .868).
10. 85.4% have chance to tell people what to do (JS10: mean = 5.5, SD = 1.089).
11. 88.9% agree that they have chance to do things that make use of their ability (JS11: mean = 5.51, SD = 1.052).
12. 57.4% are satisfied with the way company policies are put into practice (JS12: mean = 4.6, SD = 1.483).
13. 78.2% are satisfied with their pay and amount of work they do (JS13: mean = 5.23, SD = 1.413).
14. 70.1% agree that they have chance for advancement on this job (JS14: mean = 5.01, SD = 1.479).
15. 70.2% have freedom to use their own judgement (JS15: mean = 4.86, SD = 1.478).

16. 64.8% agree that they have chance to try their own methods of doing the job (JS16: mean = 4.64, SD = 1.495).
17. 80.6% are satisfied with the working conditions (JS17: mean = 5.26, SD = 1.234).
18. 93.7% indicate that their co-workers get along with each other (JS18: mean = 5.71, SD = .784).
19. 82.1% get praise for doing a good job (JS193: mean = 5.33, SD = 1.098)
20. 86% get the feeling of accomplishment from the job (JS20: mean = 5.46, SD = 1.04).

The overall findings show that the respondents were relatively satisfied with their job on all aspects captured by the measure (i.e. all the average values are above 4). However, the standard deviation shows that there are some variations in their answers. Almost all items have standard deviation higher than 1.0, and six of them have standard deviations more than 1.40 (JS7, JS12, JS13, JS14, JS15, JS16). This means that opinions on these questions amongst the sample have a degree of variations. The next part of this subsection presents the descriptive analysis of three component organisational commitment.

Table 7.5: Descriptive findings for organisational commitment

Construct	Items	Response scale (%)							Mean	Std. D
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Affective commitment	AC1	.6	1.5	2.1	10.1	19.4	43.9	22.4	5.67	1.139
	AC2	1.2	3.0	3.3	15.5	34.9	33.1	9.0	5.15	1.190
	AC3	.9	3.6	6.0	10.7	17.0	40.6	21.2	5.46	1.364
	AC4	.6	1.8	4.8	9.3	17.0	36.7	29.9	5.70	1.272
	AC5	.3	2.1	4.2	11.0	20.0	36.7	25.7	5.61	1.240
	AC6	-	.6	3.0	13.7	20.0	38.2	24.2	5.64	1.131
Continuance commitment	CC1	4.8	12.8	12.8	13.4	20.9	23.6	11.6	4.50	1.740
	CC2	7.8	9.6	7.5	16.4	21.5	23.3	14.0	4.60	1.792
	CC3	5.4	6.6	8.1	10.4	16.7	31.3	21.5	5.07	1.748
	CC4	7.2	13.7	13.7	15.2	13.7	23.6	12.8	4.37	1.855
	CC5	11.3	21.5	16.4	21.8	13.4	13.1	2.4	3.53	1.646
	CC6	9.9	13.1	12.8	23.0	20.9	12.2	8.1	4.01	1.724
Normative commitment	NC1	3.0	12.2	17.9	25.7	13.7	18.2	9.3	4.27	1.604
	NC2	5.1	8.4	11.6	29.3	11.6	25.4	8.7	4.45	1.620
	NC3	9.3	14.0	7.5	31.0	15.5	15.5	7.2	4.05	1.702
	NC4	-	1.5	10.4	14.0	17.9	39.7	16.4	5.33	1.281
	NC5	1.5	6.6	7.5	18.2	27.8	26.6	11.9	4.92	1.433
	NC6	3.0	5.7	8.7	17.9	21.8	25.4	17.6	4.96	1.574

The findings from the six-item scale measured respondents' *affective commitment* suggest that:

1. 85.7% of the respondents believe that they would be very happy to spend the rest of their career with this organisation (AC1: mean = 5.67, SD = 1.139).
2. 77% really feel as if this organisation's problems are their own (AC2: mean = 5.15, SD = 1.19).
3. 78.8% of the respondents feel a strong sense of belonging to this organisation (AC3: mean = 5.46, SD = 1.364).
4. 83.6% feel emotionally attached to this organisation (AC4: mean = 5.70, SD = 1.272).

5. 82.4% feel like part of the family at this organisation (AC5: mean = 5.61, SD = 1.24).
6. 82.4% feel that this organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for them (AC6: mean = 5.64, SD = 1.131).

The findings from the six-item scale measured respondents' *continuance commitment* suggest that:

1. 56.1% perceive that their current staying with the organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire (CC1: mean 4.5, SD = 1.74).
2. 58.8% believe that it would be very hard for them to leave my organisation right now, even if they wanted to (CC2: mean = 4.6, SD = 1.792).
3. 69.5% think that too much of their life would be disrupted if they decided they wanted to leave the organisation now (CC3: mean = 5.07, SD = 1.748).
4. 50.1% feel that they had few options to consider leaving this organisation (CC4: mean = 4.37, SD = 1.855).
5. 28.9% believe that they might consider working elsewhere if they have not already put of myself into this organisation (CC5: mean = 3.53, SD = 1.646).
6. 41.2% think that one of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives (CC6: mean = 4.01, SD = 1.724).

The findings from the six-item scale measured respondents' *normative commitment* suggest that:

1. 41.2% feel obligated to remain with my current employer (NC1: mean = 4.27, SD = 1.604).
2. 45.7% feel that it would not be right to leave the organisation now even if it is to their advantage (NC2: mean = 4.45, SD = 1.62).
3. 38.2% would feel guilty if they left this organisation (NC3: mean = 4.05, SD = 1.702).
4. 74% believe that this organisation deserves their loyalty (NC4: mean = 5.33, SD = 1.281).
5. 66.3% would not leave this organisation because they have a sense of obligation to the people in it (NC5: mean = 4.92, SD = 1.433).
6. 64.8% perceive that they owe a great deal to the organisation (NC6: mean = 4.96, SD = 1.574).

Except the mean of CC5 (mean = 3.53), the general findings show that average scores on all items of three component organisational commitment are higher than 4.0. Worth noting is that the overall percentage of the respondents and the overall average value of affective organisational commitment are higher than the remaining two commitment components. This implicitly indicates that the respondents were more affectively committed to the organisation. The majority of the respondents showed neutral continuance and normative commitment to the organisation. Again, the standard deviation shows that there are some variations in their answers with regard to these three constructs.

7.4.3 Co-worker support: Descriptive of individual items

The respondents were asked to indicate their perception of *co-worker support.* The descriptive results are summarised in the table below:

Table 7.6: Descriptive findings for co-worker support

Construct	Items	Response scale (%)							Mean	Std. D
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Co-worker support	CWS1	.6	3.6	6.0	24.2	34.0	28.1	3.3	4.84	1.156
	CWS2	-	.6	5.4	11.3	38.5	36.1	7.8	5.27	1.006
	CWS3	1.5	3.3	8.1	28.1	36.4	19.7	3.0	4.66	1.158
	CWS4	.3	1.8	3.9	15.5	34.0	39.1	5.4	5.20	1.043
	CWS5	.3	5.4	16.1	19.1	28.4	25.4	5.4	4.67	1.137
	CWS6	.3	1.8	6.6	25.1	31.6	31.9	2.7	4.93	1.071
	CWS7	.3	1.8	10.1	23.3	26.0	32.8	5.7	4.94	1.185
	CWS8	-	.6	3.0	18.2	42.1	32.8	3.3	5.13	.894
	CWS9	.6	2.1	6.3	28.7	36.1	21.8	4.5	4.81	1.089

1. 65.4% feel that their co-workers are supportive of their goals and values (CWS1: mean = 4.84, SD = 1.156).
2. 82.4% believe that help is available from my co-workers when they had a problem (CWS2: mean = 5.27, SD = 1.006).
3. 59.1% feel that their co-workers really care about their well-being (CWS3: mean = 4.66, SD = 1.158).
4. 78.5% believe that their co-workers are willing to offer assistance to help them to perform their job to the best of their ability (CWS4: mean = 5.20, SD = 1.043).
5. 59.2% believe that their co-workers would notice when they did the best job possible (CWS5: mean = 4.67, SD = 1.137).
6. 66.2% feel that their co-workers care about their general satisfaction at work (CWS6: mean = 4.93, SD = 1.071).

7. 64.5% feel that their co-workers show concern for them (CWS7: mean 4.94, SD = 1.185).
8. 78.2% feel that their co-workers care about their opinions (CWS8: mean = 5.13, SD = .894).
9. 62.4% feel that their co-workers are complimentary of their accomplishment at work (CWS9: mean = 4.81, SD = 1.089).

The percentages on these items show that respondents had relatively high perception of their co-worker support in some forms. The three items (i.e. CWS2, CWS4, and CWS8) show average values above 5.0 indicating that help and assistance were expectable from their co-workers. However, only around half of the respondents believed that their best performance would be noticed by others (CWS5, mean = 4.67). This rationalised the use of self-reported questionnaire on performance in the present study. Again, the standard deviation shows that there are some variations in their answers regarding to these items.

7.4.4 Passenger cooperation: Descriptive of individual items

Table 7.7: Descriptive findings for passenger cooperation

Construct	Items	Response scale (%)							Mean	Std. D
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Passenger cooperation	PSC1	25.4	35.2	12.8	4.2	13.7	4.5	4.2	2.76	1.726
	PSC2	8.7	21.5	24.2	5.4	27.2	11.3	1.8	3.62	1.622
	PSC3	5.7	11.0	19.1	13.1	33.7	14.9	2.4	4.13	1.511
	PSC4	3.6	10.1	17.3	13.7	37.0	15.5	2.7	4.28	1.436
	PSC5	2.4	5.1	16.7	12.5	40.9	19.7	2.7	4.54	1.317
	PSC6	7.2	12.6	21.0	11.7	23.7	17.1	6.9	4.11	1.702

The respondents were asked to indicate their perceptions of passenger behaviours which are conceptualised as two distinct components. The component *'passenger cooperation'* was measured by six-item scale. The findings show that:

1. Only 22.4% of the respondents think that passengers try to keep the plane clean (PSC1: mean = 2.76, SD = 1.726).
2. 40.3% believe that passengers understand the rules and policies of the airline (PSC2: mean = 3.62, SD = 1.622).
3. 51% feel that passengers treat the airline's staff with kindness and respect (PSC3: mean = 4.13, SD = 1.511).
4. 55.2% feel that passengers do things to make my jobs easier (PSC4: mean = 4.28, SD = 1.436).
5. 63.3% feel that passengers give them full cooperation when requested (PSC5: mean = 4.54, SD = 1.317).
6. 47.7% feel that passengers endeavour to avoid requesting tasks that are not required of me (PSC6: mean = 4.11, SD = 1.702).

It is quite obvious that scores of the items measuring passenger cooperation show very low averages. In other words, the respondents generally felt that passengers are not highly cooperative. Particularly, PSC1 and PSC 2 show average values that are less than the mid point which means that major respondents think that passengers neither endeavour to keep the cabin clean, nor they understand the airline's rules and policies. The only item that show adequately positive value toward this construct is PSC5 (63.3% and mean = 4.54).

7.4.5 Personal values and beliefs: Descriptive of individual items

Table 7.8: Descriptive findings for personal values and beliefs

Construct	Items	Response scale (%)							Mean	Std. D
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
Individualism/ collectivism	CUL1	1.8	4.8	7.5	18.2	31.6	29.0	7.2	4.89	1.329
	CUL2	.9	6.3	7.8	20.3	25.7	33.1	6.0	4.87	1.334
	CUL3	.6	.3	3.3	10.4	23.6	44.8	17.0	5.59	1.071
	CUL4	.3	1.2	5.7	12.2	22.7	45.7	12.2	5.42	1.131
	CUL5	.3	3.3	6.6	16.7	28.1	36.1	9.0	5.13	1.216
	CUL6	2.4	9.9	13.1	20.0	24.2	24.5	6.0	4.51	1.498
Social desirability	SD1	11.3	35.8	35.5	10.7	3.3	2.4	.9	2.70	1.149
	SD2	4.5	28.4	40.0	14.6	5.4	6.0	1.2	3.11	1.243
	SD3	2.1	13.1	29.9	15.5	15.5	18.8	5.1	4.06	1.543
	SD4	3.3	11.0	23.0	14.6	16.1	24.5	7.5	4.33	1.637
	SD5	.3	1.5	3.3	8.1	28.7	47.5	10.7	5.49	1.032
	SD6	3.0	9.9	25.4	21.2	11.3	18.2	11.0	4.27	1.640
	SD7	1.8	1.5	1.8	4.8	19.4	51.6	19.1	5.70	1.156
	SD8	1.8	8.7	15.8	10.7	9.3	29.3	24.5	5.03	1.757
	SD9	2.1	7.5	11.6	17.9	32.8	23.0	5.1	4.61	1.392
	SD10	.6	3.6	9.9	12.2	31.3	36.1	6.3	5.04	1.245
	SD11	4.2	15.2	37.0	13.1	6.0	14.9	9.6	3.84	1.690
	SD12	1.8	7.8	24.8	12.5	14.9	25.1	13.1	4.59	1.648
	SD13	1.2	3.3	13.1	14.0	17.0	37.6	13.7	5.10	1.440

The *individualism/collectivism* construct was captured by a six-item measure. The descriptive results in Table 7.9 show that:

1. 67.8% believe that being accepted as a member of a group is more important than having autonomy and independence (CUL1: mean = 4.89, SD = 1.329).
2. 64.8% believe that being accepted as a member of a group is more important than being independent (CUL2: mean = 4.87, SD = 1.334).
3. 85.4% believe that group success is more important than individual success (CUL3: mean = 5.59, SD = 1.071).
4. 80.6% believe that being loyal to a group is more important than individual gain (CUL4: mean = 5.42, SD = 1.131).
5. 73.2% believe that individual rewards are not as important as group welfare (CUL5: mean = 5.13, SD = 1.216).
6. 54.7% believe that it is more important for a manager to encourage loyalty and a sense of duty in subordinates than it is to encourage individual initiative (CUL6: 4.51: SD = 1.498).

The other construct presented in Table 7.9 is *social desirability* which was measured by 13 items. The results are that:

1. 6.6% of the respondents admit that it is sometimes easy for them to go on with my work if they are not encouraged (SD1: mean = 2.70, SD = 1.149).
2. 12.6% admit that they do not resentful when they don't get their way (SD2: mean = 3.11, SD = 1.243).

3. 39.4% admit that they do not give up doing something because they thought too little of my ability (SD3: mean = 4.06, SD = 1.543).
4. 48.1% admit that there have never been times when they felt like rebelling against people in authority even though they knew they were right (SD4: mean = 4.33, SD = 1.637).
5. 86.9% admit that no matter who they are talking to, they are always a good listener (SD5: mean = 5.49, SD = 1.032).
6. 40.5% report that there have never been occasions when they took advantage of someone (SD6: mean = 4.27, SD = 1.64).
7. 90.1% report that they are always willing to admit it when they make a mistake (SD7: mean 5.70, SD = 1.156).
8. 63.1% report that they sometimes try to forgive and forget rather than get even (SD8: mean = 5.03, SD = 1.757).
9. 60.9% report that they are always courteous, even too people who are disagreeable (SD9: mean = 4.61, SD = 1.392).
10. 73.7% report that they have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from their own (SD10: mean = 5.04, SD = 1.245).
11. 30.5% report that there have never been times when they were quite jealous of the good fortune of others (SD11: mean = 3.84, SD = 1.69).
12. 53.1% admit that they were hardly irritated by people who ask favours of them (SD12: mean = 4.59, SD = 1.648).
13. 68.3% report that they have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings (SD13: mean = 5.10, SD = 1.44).

The descriptive results of individualism/collectivism culture indicate that most respondents hold collectivistic values. Overall, these respondents believe that being in a group and group success is more important than independence and individual success. Only small percentages of respondents disagree to the collectivistic view. In terms of social desirability, results, generally, reveal that there is relatively high social desirability amongst the respondents (i.e. mean values of almost all items are greater than the midpoint of 4.0).

7.5 Chapter summary

This chapter gives the overall picture about the respondent characteristics and the constructs being examined. In general, the sample of this study comprises slightly higher number of male respondents (45.4%) than female respondents (54.6%). Most of them were single aged below 35 years old. Almost all respondents hold at least a first degree and identified themselves toward Thai ethnical background. Their average annual income was approximately 12,120 GBP. Descriptive findings of the constructs show that almost all measurement items have an average above the mid point of the rating scale (i.e. 4.0). Noticeable, high standard deviations in all items are found. This suggests that the respondents might have different opinions on the subjects questioned. With these descriptive results, the researcher is able to further identify the strengths and limitations with regard to the results from the sample profile. More importantly, these statistical analyses would remind the present study to address research findings with caution of the research sample profile.

Chapter 8

Chapter 8

Measurement Model Evaluation

8.1 Introduction

The focus of the previous chapter is to report the descriptive findings from the dataset. This chapter turns attention to an assessment of the reliability and validity of the data. It is noted earlier that there are a number of assumptions underpinning the multivariate analysis techniques employed in the present study. The first section of this chapter aims to test the appropriateness of using these statistical techniques to analyse the data. By this, the dataset was tested whether it meets the required multivariate assumptions or not. Four main issues related to the multivariate assumptions (i.e. missing values, outliers, normality, and multicollinearity) are presented and discussed. Once all the assumptions were diagnosed and their associated problems handled, the present study proceeded to assess the reliability and validity of the constructs to assure the robustness of the measures. A number of multivariate techniques (i.e. item-to-total correlation analysis, Exploratory Factor Analysis, and Confirmatory Factor Analysis) were conducted to purify the scales prior to proceeding to the structural model estimation stage in Chapter Nine. This assures that the research findings in structural model stage are valid and robust.

8.2 Data preparation

Many multivariate analysis techniques are underpinned by a number of assumptions; the fit of data set and assumptions should be assessed before the technique is applied

(Tabachnick and Fidell 1996). Although data screening and preparation is time consuming (Hair *et al.* 1998), considerable effort was devoted to this to in order to acquire clear, unambiguous, confident findings. This section presents four main issues related to data which are necessary for using SEM. The criteria used for this present study to deal with these issues are also discussed.

8.2.1 Missing data

Missing data are a common problem in empirically organisational research even if the design and the data collection have been carefully carried out (Cheung 2007). Some forms of missing data would definitely occur in multivariate analysis (Hair *et al.* 1998). Its seriousness depends on "the pattern of missing data, how much is missing, and why it is missing" (Tabachnick and Fidell 1996, p. 60). More importantly, it is the pattern of missing data that is more critical than the amount missing (Tabachnick and Fidell 1996). As structural equation modelling (SEM) analysis requires cases with data available on all observations, the issue of missing values in the present data set was carefully considered. "To decide whether a remedy for missing data can be applied, the researcher must first ascertain the degree of randomness present in the missing data" (Hair *et al.* 1998, p. 49). Therefore, the present study firstly examined the pattern of missing values. Table 8.1 shows the frequency and percentage of missing values in the present data set.

Table 8.1: Missing values: Frequency and percentage

Construct	Items	Frequency	%	Construct	Items	Frquency	%
Service Employee Citizenship Behaviours	COOP1	7	2.09	Co-worker Support	CWS1	1	.30
	COOP3	5	1.49		CWS5	1	.30
	COOP4	4	1.19		CWS6	1	.30
	EXT2	2	.60		CWS7	1	.30
	INT2	5	1.49	Passenger Cooperation	PSC1	1	.30
	INR2	1	.30		PSC5	2	.60
	EXR1	1	.30		PSC6	1	.30
	EXR 3	3	.90	Culture	CUL1	1	.30
	EXR 5	2	.60		CUL2	1	.30
Job Satisfaction	JS1	4	1.19	Social Desirability	SD6	1	.30
	JS2	3	.90		SD7	1	.30
	JS5	1	.30		SD11	2	.60
	JS6	2	.60				
	JS7	2	.60				
	JS10	2	.60				
	JS11	1	.30				
	JS13	1	.30				
	JS15	4	1.19				
	JS16	1	.30				
	JS17	1	.30				
Organisation Commitment	AC1	2	.60				
	AC3	2	.60				
	AC5	2	.60				
	CC1	1	.30				
	CC3	1	.30				
	CC6	2	.30				
	NC1	3	.90				
	NC2	1	1.19				
	NC3	2	.60				
	NC5	1	.30				

Please note that items with no missing value are not presented in the table

The above table confines that missing values are most likely to be randomly scattered (i.e. missing at random – MAR). Moreover, the amount of missing values is very small vis-à-vis the size of the dataset. Thus, any method to remedise these missing values seems acceptable (Hair *et al.* 1998). It is noted that if a few values are missing at random from a large data set, the problems are less serious and any methods for handling missing values would yield similar results (Kline 2005). A review of publications in a social science area revealed that listwise deletion (i.e. only cases with available data on all observations are included in the analysis) was the most popular method, 94% of the survey data analyses employed this techniques (King *et al.* 2001). Listwise deletion, however, does not utilise the most data and might substantially reduce the sample size. This method was therefore discarded. Another simplistic option to treat missing values is pairwise deletion which utilises all available data by excluding cases on variable-by-variable basis (Cheung 2007). However, this remedy was discarded in the present study because there is no theoretical justification for analysing data based on pairwise deletion in SEM and it is always not preferred in SEM analysis (Savali and Bentler 2005).

The present study, therefore, considered other statistically advanced methods which have been developed to treat the problem of missing values. There include mean substitution, multiple imputation, and other remedy procedures used in top marketing and HRM articles were considered. Considering the pattern and amount of missing data in the data set along with scholarly suggestions, the present study followed a missing value replacement procedure suggested by Hertel (1976) which was widely used in top marketing publications. Missing values in this study were replaced by using a substitution by random assignment within groups. The sample was divided into groups on the basis of responses to selected demographic variables that were highly correlated with the items with missing values. The cases with missing values were then assigned the item value of the preceding case within group. Compared to the practice of case deletion, this method has benefits of allowing full use of the data. Compared to the mean substitution method, this method is advantageous because it avoids constraining variation among responses, whose effect might be to attenuate correlations (Stump and Heide 1996). A total of just hundred and six values (less than .30 % of total items) were replaced through this procedure.

8.2.2 Outliers

Outliers are the cases that substantially differ from the main trend of other observed values. Of course, they ascertain some types of influence on the data and inevitably on the statistical results and can eventually bias the proposed model (West *et al.* 1995; Field 2000). Therefore, it is suggested that outliers should be identified from univariate and multivariate perspectives (Weston and Gore 2006), or from as many perspectives as possible (Hair *et al.* 1998). A univariate outlier is a case with an extreme value on one variable, whereas a multivariate outlier is an odd combination of scores on two or more variables (Tabachnick and Fidell 1996). Outliers can potentially occur due to several mistakes such as mistaken responding to the questionnaire of respondents or error in data coding by researchers (West *et al.* 1995). Deletion of outliers reduces variance of the dataset. However, it has become the norm to delete outliers only when they are not accurate and not representative of the population (Hair *et al.* 1998).

The graphical boxplot and the Mahalanobis D^2 technique were utilised to identify univariate and multivariate outliers, respectively. Box plot is simpler and literally box in observations that are around the median; cases that fall far away from the box are regarded as extreme (Tabachnick and Fidell 1996). Mahalanobis D^2 is a measure of the distance of cases from the means of the observations (Field 2000; Byrne 2001). It is suggested that the significance value of .001 be used as a rule of thumb for designation as an outlier (Tabachnick and Fidell 1996; Hair *et al.* 1998).

In the present study, the univariate outlier was compromised due to the application of seven-point Likert-type scales to all questions measuring unobserved constructs. The researcher was aware that outliers might be expected from these constructs, it was, however, not such a big concern as respondents could have different, and probably extreme, opinions on an issue. This left potential univariate outliers to emerge from demographic variables of the participants. Some outliers emerged as expected. These outliers were, however, untouched as they are representative of the population. It is not uncommon that some employees have much higher income than others, or some employees have been working for the company far longer than others. Moreover, these demographic variables are only control variables which would not have much critical influence on the significance of the hypothesised model. Thus, no case was excluded because of being a univariate outlier.

Once univariate outliers were identified and decisions finalised, the present study proceeded to search for potential multivariate outliers. In the present study, Mahalanobis Distance was measured through AMOS 6.0 and then compared with a critical χ^2 value with degrees of freedom equal to the number of independent variables at $p < .001$. To put this simply, calculated values with p less than .001 can be designated as outliers. Table 8.2 shows observations with p-values less than .001.

Table 8.2: Results of multivariate outlier analysis

Observation	Mahalanobis D^2	p1	p2
128	147.952	.000	.000
274	135.880	.000	.000
190	130.088	.000	.000
232	121.557	.000	.000
175	119.947	.000	.000
302	115.180	.000	.000
259	114.868	.000	.000
214	113.659	.000	.000
5	113.635	.000	.000
173	113.252	.000	.000
15	109.882	.000	.000
320	108.522	.000	.000
110	107.821	.000	.000
133	103.309	.000	.000
140	103.055	.000	.000
198	102.525	.000	.000
101	101.131	.000	.000
260	99.147	.000	.000
108	98.516	.000	.000
247	97.524	.000	.000
136	94.234	.000	.000
1	94.163	.000	.000
289	91.961	.001	.000
168	91.614	.001	.000
333	89.378	.001	.000
118	89.235	.001	.000
264	89.216	.001	.000

The total twenty seven cases with $p<.001$

Although it is the prerogative of the researcher to decide whether to retain or discard outliers from the dataset, it is well recognised that designation of outliers to improve multivariate statistics comes at the cost of generalisability (Hair *et al.* 1998). Thus, this present study decided to retain all cases as the presence of a few outliers within a large sample size should be of trivial concern (Kline 2005). Additionally, there was insufficient proof that the outliers are not representative of the population.

8.2.3 Normality

Most multivariate techniques including SEM assume that the distribution of data is multivariate normal. Using multivariate with non-normal distributed data may result in misleading results. Testing multivariate normality is impractical as it involves examining an infinite number of linear combinations (Weston and Gore 2006). Instead of directly testing multivariate normality, screening for univariate normality of each variable can inform whether multivariate normality may probably cause a problem. There are several ways to examine whether univariate normality, and consequently multivariate normality, is assumed. Several specific statistical tests are available to examine this issue including Kolmogorov-Smirnov (Field 2000). This test compares the set of scores in the sample data to a normally distributed set of scores with the same mean and standard deviation. If the test is non-significant ($p > .05$), the result indicates that the data is probably normally distributed. Other possible techniques to examine the normality of data include examining the distribution of each observed variable for skewness and kurtosis (Hair *et al.* 1998; Weston and Gore 2006). Skewness is the degree to which a variable's distribution is asymmetric (can be both positive and negative) whereas kurtosis is an index of the peak and tails of the distribution. Skewness values falling outside the range of -1 to +1 indicate substantially skewed distribution. Absolute values of skewness higher than 3.0 are extreme (Chou and Bentler 1995; Byrne 1998). Absolute values of kurtosis greater than 10.0 suggest a potential problem, and values greater than 20.0 indicate a serious problem (Byrne 1998; Kline 2005). Although there is difficulty in making a clear-cut decision where data deviate from normality, scholars seem to agree that skewness values around 2.0 and kurtosis values of 7.0 are indicative of non-normal distribution (West *et al.* 1995).

The results show that all items critical for SEM analysis in the present study do not have extreme skewness and kurtosis (skewness < 3.0 and kurtosis < 10.0). Indeed, no item shows skewness value outside ±2 and kurtosis value over 7. Thus, overall multivariate normality can be assumed. Although a few items revealed skewness outside the range of ±1 (see Appendix Two, p. 380), these values are in the acceptable range. Moreover, it is evident empirically that the estimation method employed in the present study (i.e. MLE, See Chapter Six: Section 6.5.2) is fairly robust to a violation of normality (McDonald and Ringo Ho 2002). Therefore, further treatments of the data were not considered.

8.2.4 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is "the extent to which a construct can be explained by the other constructs in the analysis" (Hair *et al.* 2006, p. 709). Simply, it refers to the situation at which two or more independent variables are highly or perfectly related so that they are essentially redundant (Field 2000). It is an important issue in SEM because highly related measures can cause improper statistical operations (Weston and Gore 2006). Kline (2005) suggested that bivariate correlations higher than .85 may be potential problems. SPSS 12.0 was utilised to estimate correlations amongst items to assess multicollinearity, the results indicated that such problem did not appear to be an issue of concern in this study. Once the final sets of items for all constructs were established, this assumption was also rechecked using variance inflation factor (VIF). The results showed that multicollinearity is not a problem in the present study (see Appendix Two, p. 381).

8.3 Item purification and exploratory factor analysis

In this section, item-to-total correlations, Cronbach's alpha, and exploratory factor analysis tests were conducted to explore patterns amongst the items and check internal consistency within measurement scales.

8.3.1 Item analysis

Although high Cronbach's alpha can indicate the internal consistency of a construct, it is useful to examine the item-to-total correlations of items indicating the construct. Typically, a value below .30 indicates that the item is measuring something apart from the scale (Pallant 2005).

In the present study, deletion of items in this stage also takes the Cronbach's alpha of the scale as a whole into consideration because Pallant (2005) suggested that established, well-validated scales with values below .30 should be deleted only when the alpha value is less than .70. With the threshold of alpha value above .70 (Churchill 1992; Hair *et al.* 1998), the results reveal that all but three constructs passed these criteria. The present study, therefore, further investigated the three constructs (i.e. continuance commitment, normative commitment, and social desirability) which are likely to be problematic.

Item deletion was performed to bring up the alpha value. Deletion started from items with the lowest item-to-total correlation of the three constructs. Removal of CC5, NC1, NC2, NC3, SD1, SD5, SD9, and SD13 resulted in re-estimated alpha values above .70 for the three constructs. In the case of each scale deletion was deemed not to affect content validity. The results are presented in Appendix Two (p. 382).

8.3.2 Exploratory factor analysis: Principal component analysis

Exploratory factor analysis is an initial analysis to locate underlying dimensions of a specific construct (Gerbing and Anderson 1988). The main purpose of factor analysis is to retain the nature and character of the original variables, but reduce their number to ease the subsequent analysis (Hair *et al.* 1998). Normally, there are two main techniques to accomplish this procedure: (1) factor analysis; and (2) principal component analysis (Field 2000). Differences between these two techniques are well documented (Dunteman 1989). Not withstanding this, Guadagnoli and Velicer (1988) concluded from extensive literature review that results generated from these techniques differ very little. Given that the principal component analysis is a psychometrically sound procedure and is conceptually less complex than factor analysis (Field 2000), it was adopted to extract the underlying dimensions of constructs in this study.

To facilitate the accurate interpretation of the underlying structure of the data, orthogonal rotation (Varimax) was also performed. Orthogonal rotation (Varimax) was chosen because it is the simplest case of rotation, in which the axes are maintained at 90 degree and the method has proved very successful as an analytic approach (Hair *et al.* 1998). The present study followed the rule of 'eigenvalue-greater-than-one' for deciding how many factors to retain for each factor solution (Churchill 1992). Regarding the cut-off value, the present study retains items that have loadings greater than .40 (Gerbing and Anderson 1988) on a single factor and cross-loadings lower than .30 (Rentz *et al.* 2002) on multiple factors although it is pretty much a matter of personal preference (Tabachnich and Fidell 1996).

Moreover, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (BTS) were conducted to assess the suitability of the data for factor analysis (Hair *et al.* 1998). KMO values greater than .60 are recommended (Kaiser 1974). More precisely, Hutcheson and Sofroniou (1999) indicated that KMO values between .50 and .70 are mediocre, values between .70 and .80 are good, values between .80 and .90 are great and values higher than .90 are superb. The BTS significance indicates that the data do not produce identity matrix and, therefore, are appropriate for factor analysis.

In this section, constructs that are conceptually related were analysed together. It must be noted that job satisfaction was not subject to EFA test because the present study followed a well-established procedure employed by MacKenzie *et al.* (1998) and Bettencourt *et al.* (2005) in specifying job satisfaction. This construct was represented by a single scale score for several reasons: (1) this is the conventional way this widely used construct has been empirically represented in the research literature; (2) the MSQ is multi-dimensional; and (3) the total number of measured items is very large (Bettencourt *et al.* 2005). Moreover, it is noted that the twenty items on the MSQ were not expected to be unidimensional because they are formative measures of satisfaction which assumes that the indicators are causally antecedents to their posited construct, rather than reflective measures caused by an underlying latent construct (e.g. Bollen and Lennox 1991). Therefore, it is more appropriate to represent this construct with the traditional summed scale score (MacKenzie *et al.* 1998).

8.3.2.1 EFA results: SECB

In total, twenty three items representing five dimensions of SECB were simultaneously put into the principal component analysis with varimax rotation. The results showed that there were a few items with cross-loading values above .30 (i.e. EXR1, EXR2, INR5, EXT1). These items were removed and the remaining items were re-analysed. Table 8.3 presents the final results of the analysis.

From the table, it is obvious that the KMO statistic value of sampling adequacy is greater than the recommended value of .60 (Kaiser 1974). Indeed, the value of .883 is considered 'meritorious' (Hair *et al.* 1998). The BTS was statistically significant indicating the appropriateness of the dataset for factor analysis. Five dimensions were extracted which accounted for 66.216% of the total variance explained. All the items showed factor loadings greater than .55. Cronbach's alpha values ranged from .741 to .839, which are above the recommended threshold of .70. Thus, all items in Table 8.3 were retained for further analysis.

Table 8.3: EFA results of SECB

KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.883
Barlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2599.845
	Degree of freedom	171
	Sig.	.000

Item	Factor				
	Cooperation	**In-role service**	**Extra-role service**	**External represent.**	**Internal influence**
COOP1	.752				
COOP2	.770				
COOP3	.564				
COOP4	.720				
COOP5	.579				
INR1		.637			
INR2		.846			
INR3		.702			
INR4		.731			
EXR3			.857		
EXR4			.798		
EXR5			.739		
EXT2				.675	
EXT3				.815	
EXT4				.688	
INT1					.739
INT2					.827
INT3					.742
INT4					.765
α	.741	.797	.817	.759	.839

Total variance explained: 66.216%

8.3.2.2 EFA results: Organisational commitment

Although the item-to-total correlation analysis suggested that NC1, NC2, and NC3 should be removed from further analysis, this technique should not be the only test for deleting an item. Therefore, the original eighteen-item scale measuring three components of organisational commitment was put in the principal component analysis with varimax rotation. The initial results showed that there were a few items with cross-loading higher than .30. These items (i.e. AC1, AC2, AC6, CC1, CC2, NC2, and NC3) were removed, and then the test was re-conducted.

Table 8.4: EFA results of organisational commitment

KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.795
Barlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1325.623
	Degree of freedom	55
	Sig.	.000

Item	Factor		
	Affective commitment	**Continuance commitment**	**Normative commitment**
AC3	.860		
AC4	.877		
AC5	.836		
CC2		.670	
CC3		.766	
CC4		.855	
CC6		.687	
NC1			.658
NC4			.758
NC5			.596
NC6			.725
α	.867	.750	.686

Total Variance Explained: 63.291%

Table 8.4 presents the final results of EFA of the three components of organisational commitment. The KMO value is .795, exceeding the minimum recommended value of .60 and the BTS reached statistical significance at $p < .001$, supporting the appropriateness of the data for factor analysis. The final Varimax rotated solution revealed the presence of three components of organisational commitment as conceptually developed by prior research. The total amount of variance explained was 63.291 percent. All items show factor loading higher than .59. Two factors yield reliability alpha values of .750 and .867, which are higher than the recommended threshold of .70. Only one factor show Cronbach's alpha value below .70. Nonetheless, the value of .686 is only marginally below the threshold and is acceptable. Thus, all eleven items were retained for further analysis.

8.3.2.3 EFA results: Co-worker support and passenger cooperation

Fifteen items measuring co-worker support and passenger cooperation were put into the exploratory factor analysis at the same time. The first solution extracted showed that these fifteen items loaded onto four different factors with three items (i.e. CWS6, CWS8, CWS9, and PSC5) having cross-loadings highly over .30. The total variance explained was 66.538 percent. As a result, these four items were removed and the test was then rerun. The new solution presented four extracted components. The results revealed that CWS1 – CWS4 loaded onto one component and PSC1 – PSC4 loaded onto one component. CWS5, CWS7, and PSC5 loaded on the other two components. As Hair *et al.* (1998) asserted that a factor need to consist of at least three items, CWS5, CWS7 and PSC6 were therefore deleted. The deletion of these items has not altered the content of the scale. The final results from the unrotated component matrix confirmed that all remaining items measuring co-worker support and passenger cooperation loaded onto two corresponding factors. The results are presented in Table 8.5.

Table 8.5: EFA results of co-worker support and passenger cooperation

KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.810
Barlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1270.982
	Degree of freedom	28
	Sig.	.000

Item	Factor	
	Co-worker support	Passenger cooperation
CWS1	.785	
CWS2	.852	
CWS3	.817	
CWS4	.846	
PSC1		.765
PSC2		.882
PSC3		.847
PSC4		.791
α	.855	.850

Total Variance Explained: 69.961%

The KMO value of .810 was considered 'great' (Hutcheson and Sofroniou 1999), and the BTS result showed statistical significance at $p < .001$ which meant that the data were appropriate for factor analysis. These two factors accounted for 69.961 percent of the total variance explained. Factor loadings on all items were above the cut-off value of .40 (Gerbing and Anderson 1988) with Cronbach's alpha value greater than .80. Hence, the eight items were retained for further analysis.

8.3.2.4 EFA results: personal values and beliefs

Six items measuring individualism/collectivism and thirteen items measuring social desirability were simultaneously put into the principal component test with Varimax rotation. The first solution showed that there are high cross-loadings amongst factors (i.e. SD1 – SD8, SD11, SD13, SD15, SD16, and SD19). Thus, these items were removed and the remaining items were reanalysed. The second solution showed that three factors extracted: CUL1 and CUL2 loaded onto component one, whereas the CUL3 – CUL4 loaded onto component two: the remaining items measuring social desirability loaded onto one component. With accordance to Hair *et al.* (1998) that a factor must have at least three indicators, CUL1 and CUL2 were removed after visual inspection of content validity and the remaining four items were then re-analysed. The results from the rotated component matrix confirmed that all remaining items loaded onto two distinct factors.

The KMO value of .743 was above the recommended threshold of .60 (Kaiser 1974), and the BTS result showed statistical significance at $p < .001$ which meant that the data were suitable for factor analysis. The two factors accounted 48.048 percent of the total variance explained. Factor loadings on all items ranged from .568 to .802 which was above the cut-off value of .40 (Gerbing and Anderson 1988). Cronbach's alpha values were .687 and .739. Hence, these items were retained for further analysis. The results are presented in Table 8.6.

Table 8.6: EFA results of personal values and beliefs

KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.743
Barlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	670.215
	Degree of freedom	45
	Sig.	.000

Item	Factor	
	Individualism/ collectivism	**Social desirability**
CUL3	.745	
CUL4	.802	
CUL5	.778	
CUL6	.571	
SD3		.568
SD4		.675
SD6		.638
SD8		.710
SD11		.650
SD12		.690
α	.687	.739

Total Variance Explained: 48.048%

8.4 Measurement model evaluation

Confirmatory factor analysis is a core technique of SEM which can be appropriately used when the researcher has some specific knowledge of the underlying constructs (Byrne 2001). Thus, once the data were assessed for meeting multivariate assumptions and initial insights regarding the measures were obtained through item-to-total correlations and exploratory factor analysis, the present study proceeded to the first step of the two-step approach in SEM (Anderson and Gerbing 1988; Garver and Mentzer 1999). This step aims to define relationships between the latent variable and the observed variables. This links to the objective of assessing reliability and validity of the measure scales.

According to Hair *et al.* (2006), it is recommended that a study should report the chi-square value and the associated degrees of freedom together with at least one incremental index and one absolute index, provided that one of the reported indices is a badness-of-fit index. It is noted that a combination of indices (e.g. CFI and RMSEA) achieves a good balance between Type I and Type II error rates when assessing model fit (Hu and Bentler 1999). This study reported a number of fit indices as follows where; CFI, TLI, and GFI are goodness-of-fit indices, and RMSEA is a badness-of-fit index.

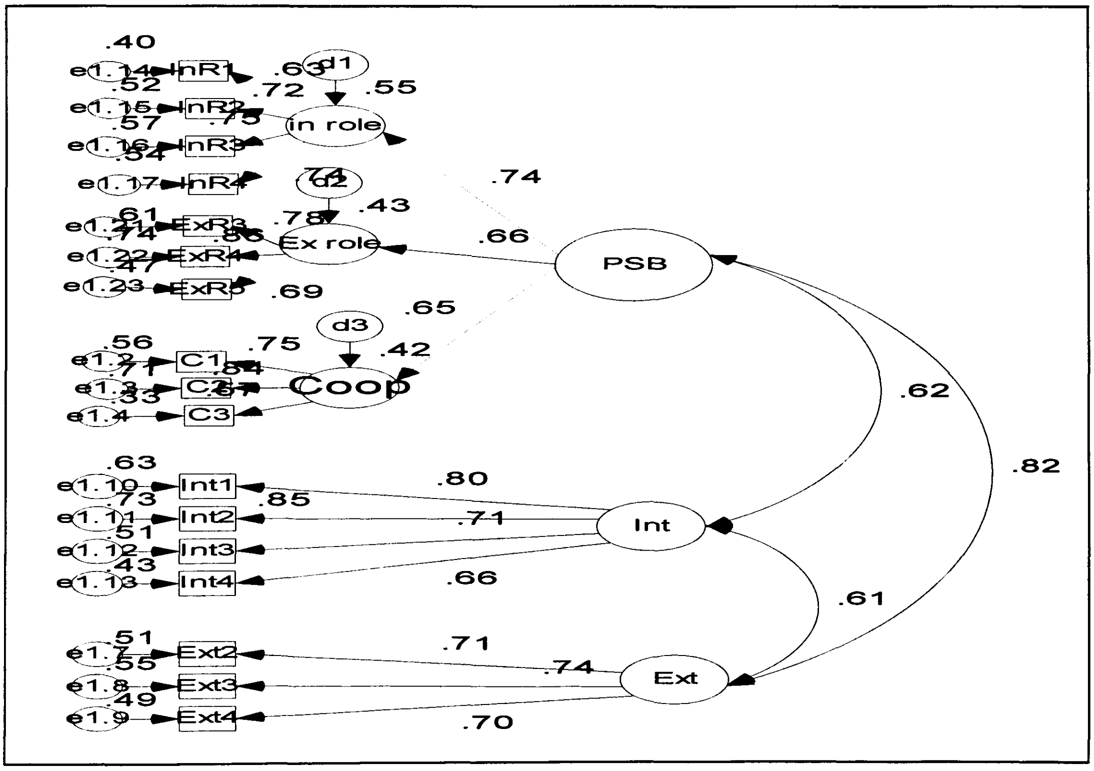
- $\chi 2_{\text{(degree of freedom)}}$
- Absolute fit index (i.e. GFI and RMSEA)
- Incremental fit index (i.e. CFI and TLI)

In order to get the programme run, either one regression path between observed items and a construct or the variance for the unobserved variable must be constrained to be equal to one. In the present study, the variance for each latent variable was fixed equal to one in order to obtain all the critical ratios of all factor loadings.

8.4.1 CFA results: SECB

Based on the discussion provided in Chapter Two: Section 2.4.1 and Chapter Six: Section 6.3.1, the present application examines a second-order measurement model of PSB (i.e. in-role, extra-role service, and cooperation loaded on this factor), and two first-order measurement models of external representation and internal influence. The nineteen items retained from the EFA test were entered in to confirmatory factor analysis. Items with very low standardised regression weight were candidate for deletion. The initial results showed that two items measuring cooperation (i.e. COOP4 and COOP5) should be removed. The final results are presented in Table 8.7.

Figure 8.1: CFA results for SECB



The results indicate that the overall model fit is very good ($\chi^2(df) = 210.608_{(113)}$, $p < .001$, GFI = .931, CFI = .957, TLI = .948, RMSEA = .051). Although the chi-square value is statistically significant, it is common as this value is greatly sensitive to sample size (Bogozzi and Yi 1988; Hair *et al.* 2006). Moreover, significant *p* values of chi-square can be expected in many circumstances (Hair *et al.* 2006). The authors, therefore, suggested researchers not to rely on only one goodness-of-fit index. The results also show that all factor loadings are above .50 with statistical significance at $p < .001$. The averaged variance extracted (AVE) and reliability values are higher than the recommended thresholds of .50 and .70 (Hair *et al.* 2006). Thus, unidimensionality, convergent validity, and reliability are achieved.

Table 8.7: CFA results for SECB

Construct	Item	Std. Factor loading	t-value	Composite reliability*	AVE
In-role service delivery	INR1	.632	----[a]	.80 (.80)	.52
	INR2	.723	13.941		
	INR3	.753	14.738		
	INR4	.738	14.277		
Extra-role service delivery	EXR3	.781	----[a]	.82 (.82)	.61
	EXR4	.861	17.823		
	EXR5	.685	13.036		
Cooperation	COOP1	.749	----[a]	.77 (.73)	.53
	COOP2	.842	16.545		
	COOP3	.573	10.111		
Internal influence	INT1	.796	16.458	.84 (.84)	.57
	INT2	.852	18.030		
	INT3	.713	14.150		
	INT4	.657	12.793		
External representation	EXT2	.712	13.397	.76 (.76)	.52
	EXT3	.741	14.028		
	EXT4	.700	13.135		

$\chi^2(df) = 210.608_{(113)}, p < .001$, **GFI = .931, CFI = .957, TLI = .948, RMSEA = .051**

Second-order loadings[b]

In-role service delivery	.743 (8.876)[c]
Extra-role service delivery	.657 (9.599)[c]
Cooperation	.647 (8.653)[c]

Noted: All standardized factor loadings are significant at p < .001
** Cronbach's alphas are presented in parentheses*
[a]Dashes represent fixed parameters
[b]Second-order standardised loadings
[c]Second-order t-values

8.4.2 CFA results: Job attitudes

Due to the fact that scholars (e.g. Allen and Meyer 1996) have been expressed concern about the lack of discriminant validity of organisational commitment components, the present study therefore examined the structure of the three components of commitment measured in this research context in order to confirm the initial solution from the EFA results. Following Allen and Meyer's (1996) suggestion to peruse alternative AC, CC, and NC models, the author compared a one-factor general model (all commitment items were loaded on one factor), a two-factor model (AC and NC items loaded on one factor and CC items loaded on the other; Meyer *et al.* 1993), and the three-factor model (AC, CC, and NC as different factors). According to Table 8.8, the results showed that the three-factor model provided the best fit to the data. The one-factor model provided a poorer fit than the two-factor model. Hence, the present study concludes that the three-factor model of commitment is the best fitting model, which corresponds with to the existing literature (e.g. Hackett *et al.* 1994; Ko *et al.* 1997; Lee *et al.* 2001; Chen and Francesco 2003). As a result, this model will be used in subsequent analysis.

Table 8.8: CFA results of the components of organisational commitment

Model	χ^2	df	GFI	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
One-factor	569.446	35	.695	.573	.451	.214
Two-factor	228.325	34	.776	.845	.794	.131
Three-factor	65.895	32	.962	.973	.962	.056

Once the solution for conceptualisation of commitment component was established, the study proceeded to run CFA on all job attitudinal variables to further purify the measures. Because the items measuring job satisfaction were summed to represent one single score (Bettencourt *et al.* 2005; MacKenzie *et al.* 1998), the error terms for the single measures of job satisfaction was set at .10 (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). Items with very low standardised regression weight were candidate for deletion. The initial results showed that one item measuring normative commitment (i.e. NC1) should be removed. Table 8.9 presents the final CFA results on these four constructs.

Figure 8.2: CFA results for job attitudes

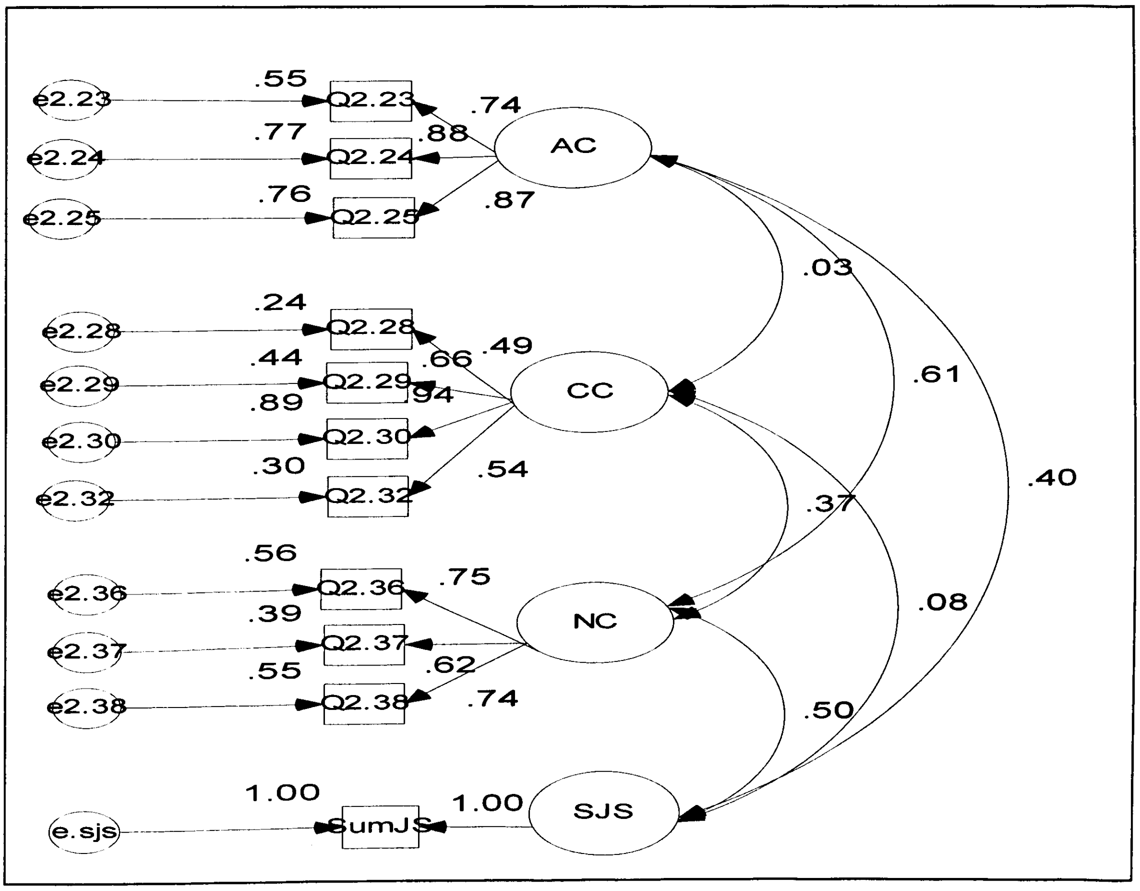


Table 8.9: CFA results for job attitudes

Construct	Item	Std. Factor loading	t-value	Composite reliability	AVE
Affective commitment	AC3	.741	15.093	.87 (.87)	.69
	AC4	.878	19.070		
	AC5	.873	18.861		
Continuance commitment	CC2	.492	8.910	.76 (.75)	.51
	CC3	.665	12.221		
	CC4	.941	18.320		
	CC6	.545	10.150		
Normative commitment	NC4	.745	14.097	.75 (.74)	.51
	NC5	.622	11.338		
	NC6	.744	14.060		
Job satisfaction	SumJS	1.000	25.839	n/a	n/a

$\chi^2(df) = 79.892_{(39)}, p < .001$, **GFI = .959, CFI = .970, TLI = .957, RMSEA = .056**

Noted: All standardized factor loadings are significant at p < .001
Cronbach's alphas are presented in parentheses

From Table 8.13, all factor loadings are higher than .545 and all t-values are significant at $p < .001$. The goodness-of-fit indices indicate that the proposed measurement model achieved a satisfactory fit ($\chi^2(df) = 79.892_{(39)}$, $p < .001$, GFI = .959, CFI = .970, TLI = .957, RMSEA = .056). Reliability values are above the .70 threshold, with averaged variance extracted over .50 for all constructs. This suggests that the reliability, unidimensionality, and convergent validity criteria were achieved.

8.4.3 CFA results: Co-worker support, passenger cooperation and individualism/collectivism

The results of exploratory factor analysis were used as the starting point for specifying the measurement model for co-worker support, passenger cooperation, and individualism/ collectivism. Total twelve items retained from the EFA stage were entered into the analysis. The standardised factor loadings of PSC1 and CUL6 did not meet the minimum requirement of .50. As a result, the two items were removed and the test was rerun. The final results are shown in Figure 8.3 and Table 8.10.

Figure 8.3: CFA results for co-worker support, passenger cooperation, and individualism/collectivism

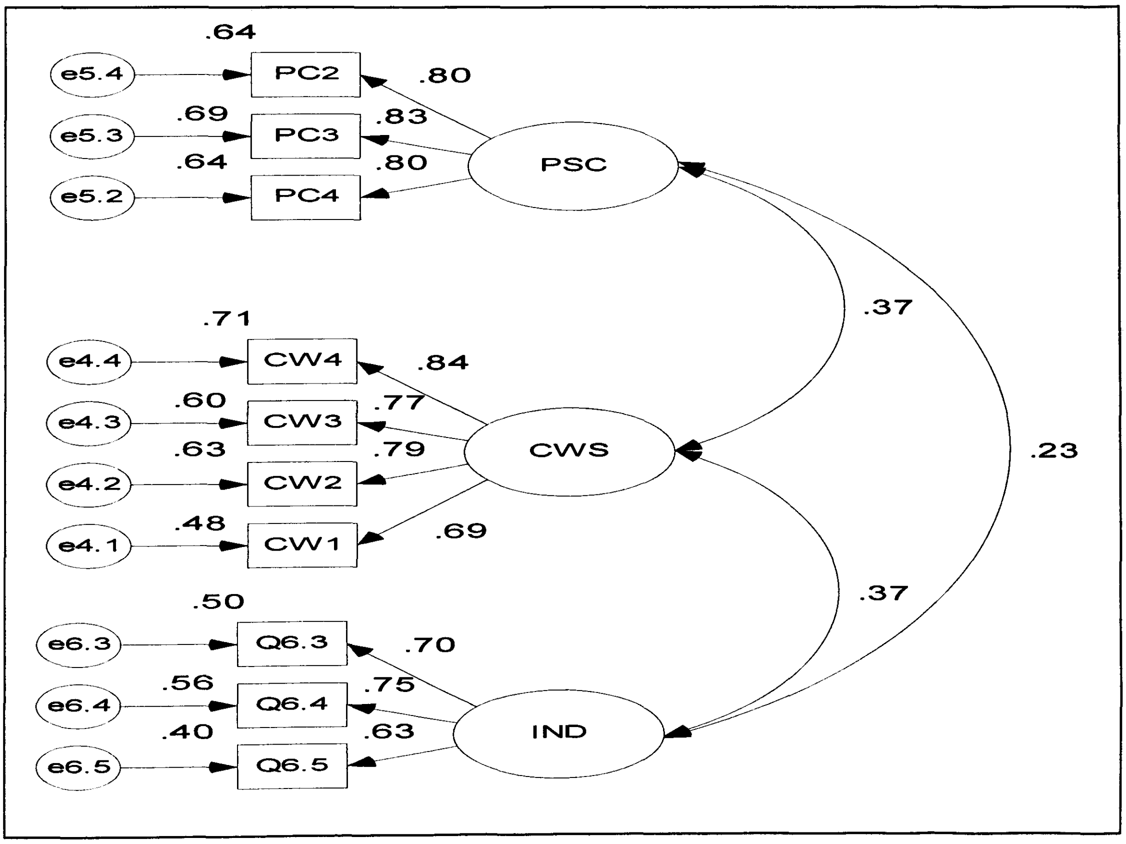


Table 8.10: CFA results for co-worker support, passenger cooperation, and individualism/collectivism

Construct	Item	Std. Factor loading	t-value	Composite reliability	AVE
Co-worker support	CWS1	.691	13.542	.86 (.86)	.61
	CWS2	.793	16.397		
	CWS3	.775	15.907		
	CWS4	.845	17.956		
Passenger cooperation	PSC2	.797	16.201	.85 (.86)	.65
	PSC3	.828	17.401		
	PSC4	.797	16.132		
Individualism/ collectivism	CUL3	.704	12.048	.74 (.74)	.50
	CUL4	.748	12.835		
	CUL5	.635	11.008		

$\chi^2(df)$ **= 59.120$_{(32)}$, p < .001, GFI = .966, CFI = .979, TLI = .971, RMSEA = .050**

Noted: All standardized factor loadings are significant at p < .001
Cronbach's alphas are presented in parentheses

The results show that all the standardised factor loadings are above .63 with t-values significant at $p < .001$. The fit indices indicate a good fit between the measurement model and the observed data ($\chi^2(df)$ = 59.120 $_{(32)}$, $p < .001$, GFI = .966, CFI = .979, TLI = .97, RMSEA = .050). Reliability values and average variance extracted values are beyond the cut-off point of .70 and .50, thus providing evidence for reliability, unidimensionality, and convergent validity.

8.5 Discriminant validity assessment

Upon ascertaining reliability, unidimensionality, and convergent validity on all core variables, the present study proceeded to examine discriminant validity of the constructs. According to the discussion in Chapter Six (Section 6.7.1), intercorrelations between constructs was computed and compared with the square root of the AVE of each construct. The square root of the AVE of each construct must exceed the correlation shared between the construct and other constructs in the model in order to exhibit discriminate validity. The study's correlation matrix is presented in Table 8.11 (p. 267).

The results show that the intercorrelations among the constructs do not exceed .85 (Kline 2005), and square root of the AVE of each construct exceeds intercorrelations between that constructs and other constructs, hence providing evidence that all factors employed in the present study possess discriminant validity (Hair *et al.* 1998; Kline 2005).

8.6 Initial assessment of common method bias

Following the guidance of Podsakoff *et al.* (2003), two statistical remedies were utilised to assess and control the effects of CMB. First, Harman's single factor test was conducted. All indicators of the study constructs were loaded into exploratory factor analysis, the unrotated solution results revealed that neither a single or general factor accounts for more than 20% of the total variance in the variables. The total variance explained was 69.37%. Then, the researcher fixed the number of component extracted to equal one and rerun the analysis. The results from the second test showed low total variance explained (19.013%). This initial evidence suggested that CMB is unlikely to be a concern in the present study.

Another statistical remedy 'controlling for the effects of a directly measured latent methods factor' was then conducted to ensure that CMB was definitely not a major concern for the present study. The recommendations of Williams and Anderson (1994) and Posakoff *et al.* (2003) were followed pertaining to social desirability bias. Social desirability construct[1] was loaded on all indicators of the constructs of interest. In order to obtain to overall test of significance of the source of method bias effect (i.e. social desirability), each measurement model was estimated twice. First, the factor loading parameters were fixed to zero, hence representing a model without method effects. Second, the paths are allowed to run freely, thus representing a model with method effects. Then, the two versions of each measurement model were compared using a chi-square difference test. If the chi-square is statistically significant ($p < .05$), there may be potential effects of the social desirability bias.

The chi-square change results showed that statistically significant difference exists between the two versions of all measurement models. In the present study, the impact of social desirability bias will be therefore examined as part of the structural model estimation. The key issue is whether the path coefficients in the structural model are biased by social desirability. Details of the effects of social desirability bias on structural relationships are presented in Chapter Nine. The contrasting findings between these two tests indicate the Harman's test might not be suitable to assess the problem of common method variance. Indeed, some scholars have already pointed out that it is an insensitive test due to that the fact that a one-factor model is very unlikely to fit the data well irrespective (Podsakoff *et al.* 2003). The present study's findings

[1] Measurement properties for this construct are adequate (Cronbach's alpha = .73 and all factor loadings are greater than .50).

similarly suggest that research findings which only employed Harman's single factor test to address the issue of common method variance should be interpreted with caution.

8.7 Chapter summary

In this chapter, the multivariate assumptions were diagnosed and the measurement scales were purified through a number of statistical techniques including; item-to-total correlations, exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. The reliability evaluations (i.e. Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability) of final measurement scales reveal that all constructs exceeded the acceptable threshold of .70. The standardised factor loadings and AVE values for all constructs show acceptable values (i.e. > .50), thus indicating the presence of convergent validity. Concerning discriminant validity, the comparisons between square root of the AVE values and intercorrelations suggest the existence of discriminant validity. Taken together, the unidemensionality, reliability and construct validity of each of the measurement scales employed is evidenced. Thus, these final sets of scales will be used in the structural relationship analysis pertaining to the hypotheses testing. By having met all the above criteria, subsequent structural estimations could be considered as having statistical and explanatory power, and findings can be interpreted with confidence. Regarding the issue of social desirability bias, the chi-square difference test indicates the need for further examination of the effect of such bias in the structural model stage.

Table 8.11: Means, standard deviations, intercorrelations and square root of the AVE

Construct	Means	Std. D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Cooperation	6.05	.62	.73									
2. In-role service	5.96	.60	.57***	.72								
3. Extra-role service	5.37	.99	.46***	.42***	.78							
4. Internal influence	5.29	.90	.32***	.50***	.46***	.75						
5. External representation	5.78	.85	.57***	.59***	.57***	.60***	.72					
6. Affective commitment	5.60	1.15	.44***	.29***	.41***	.34***	.51***	.83				
7. Continuance commitment	4.51	1.35	.10	.08	.10*	.04	.14*	.03	.71			
8. Normative commitment	5.07	1.16	.56***	.38***	.64***	.38***	.70***	.60***	.37***	.71		
9. Co-worker support	5.00	.91	.18*	.14*	.34***	.38***	.25***	.39***	-.01	.25***	.78	
10. Passenger cooperation	4.00	1.33	.09	.08	.26***	.24***	.23***	.13*	.04	.20**	.37***	.81

Diagonal elements are square root of the AVE; off-diagonal elements are intercorrelations between constructs
**** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$*

Chapter 9

Chapter 9

Structural Equation Model

"The field of evidence is no other than the field of knowledge"

Jeremy Bentham, 1984.

9.1 Introduction

Using a number of statistical techniques, the preceding chapter evaluated and purified the measurement models of the constructs of interest. The final results established that the measurement models satisfy the requirements of unidimensionality, reliability, and discriminant and convergent validity. The goodness-of-fit indices of the measurement models were acceptable. This chapter focuses on substantive relationships of the validated constructs. The properties of the hypothesised model are as follows: nine latent constructs, of which two are exogenous (co-worker support and passenger cooperation) and seven are endogenous (job satisfaction, affective commitment, continuance commitment, normative commitment, prosocial service behaviour, internal influence, and external representation).

To this end, the plausibility of the hypothesised structural relationships among the latent constructs will be established and the moderating role of individualism/collectivism culture will be examined. Using AMOS 6.0 with maximum likelihood estimation, the hypothesised model will be tested simultaneously assessing the entire system of the constructs to establish its consistency with the data. Because of the large number of hypothesised relationships in the model and sets of indicators exhibited good measurement properties, only the latent constructs and the parameter estimates for the structural paths are presented here for the purpose of clarity. This chapter is organised as follows:

First, the hypotheses concerning direct relationships between the constructs were estimated. The model was consequently trimmed (i.e. to exclude insignificant paths) and assessed for the impact of social desirability bias on the results. Second, the indirect effects of co-worker support and passenger cooperation on organisational commitment and service employee citizenship behaviour are examined. Third, the moderating effects of individualism/collectivism on the job attitude-SECB relationship and the relationships among the SECB components are investigated. Fourth, a competing model which proposes direct effects from co-worker support and passenger cooperation is tested and compared against the proposed conceptual model in Chapter Five. Once all the hypotheses are examined, the chapter proceeds to detailed discussion on the present study's findings. Here, possible explanations are offered for unexpected results.

9.2 Hypothesised structural relationships

The paths between the latent constructs are examined based on *t*-values associated with path coefficients between the constructs. If an estimated *t*-value is greater than a certain critical ratio value (e.g. $p < .05$, *t*-value = ±1.96; $p < .10$, *t*-value = ±1.65), the null hypothesis that the associated estimated parameter is equal to zero is rejected. Subsequently, the hypothesised relationship is supported. To adhere with Hair *et al*'s (1998) suggestion, the results of the structural model estimation are also examined for nonsensical or offending estimates. Offending estimates occur when the error variances are negative, standardised coefficients exceed or are very close to 1.0, or a very large standard error is associated with any estimated coefficient (Hair *et al.* 1998; Hair *et al.* 2006). Improper estimates are recognised as a common problem in SEM (Fornell and Larcker 1981), and a relatively simple solution to deal with this problem is to fix the offending estimates to a very small positive value (Hair *et al.* 1998). However, thorough inspection of the structural model output revealed no presence of any of the aforementioned problems.

Before discussing the results of individual hypothesised relationships, the overall model fit of the structural model is estimated to validate whether the model adequately represented the entire set of causal relationships. As mentioned in the preceding chapter it is recommended that a study reports at least one incremental index and one absolute index, in addition to the chi-square value and the associated degrees of freedom, provided that one of these indices is a badness-of-fit index (Hair *et al.* 2006). This study reported a number of fit indices as follows: CFI and TLI are goodness-of-fit indices, and RMSEA is a badness-of-fit index. It is less common to report GFI in the structural model estimation as De Wulf and Odekerken (2003) noted that the GFI measure is more easily affected by model complexity.

9.2.1 The hypothesised model (The full model)

The hypothesised model involves testing eighteen direct relationships conceptually developed in Chapter Five. A large number of relationships in the conceptual model may attenuate the level of significance; the significant level is, therefore, set at $p < .10$ at this initial stage of model estimation. When the model is trimmed, the significant level will be reassessed and set at the general acceptance standard ($p < .05$). Results are presented in Table 9.1 and Figure 9.1.

Table 9.1: Results of the hypothesised model

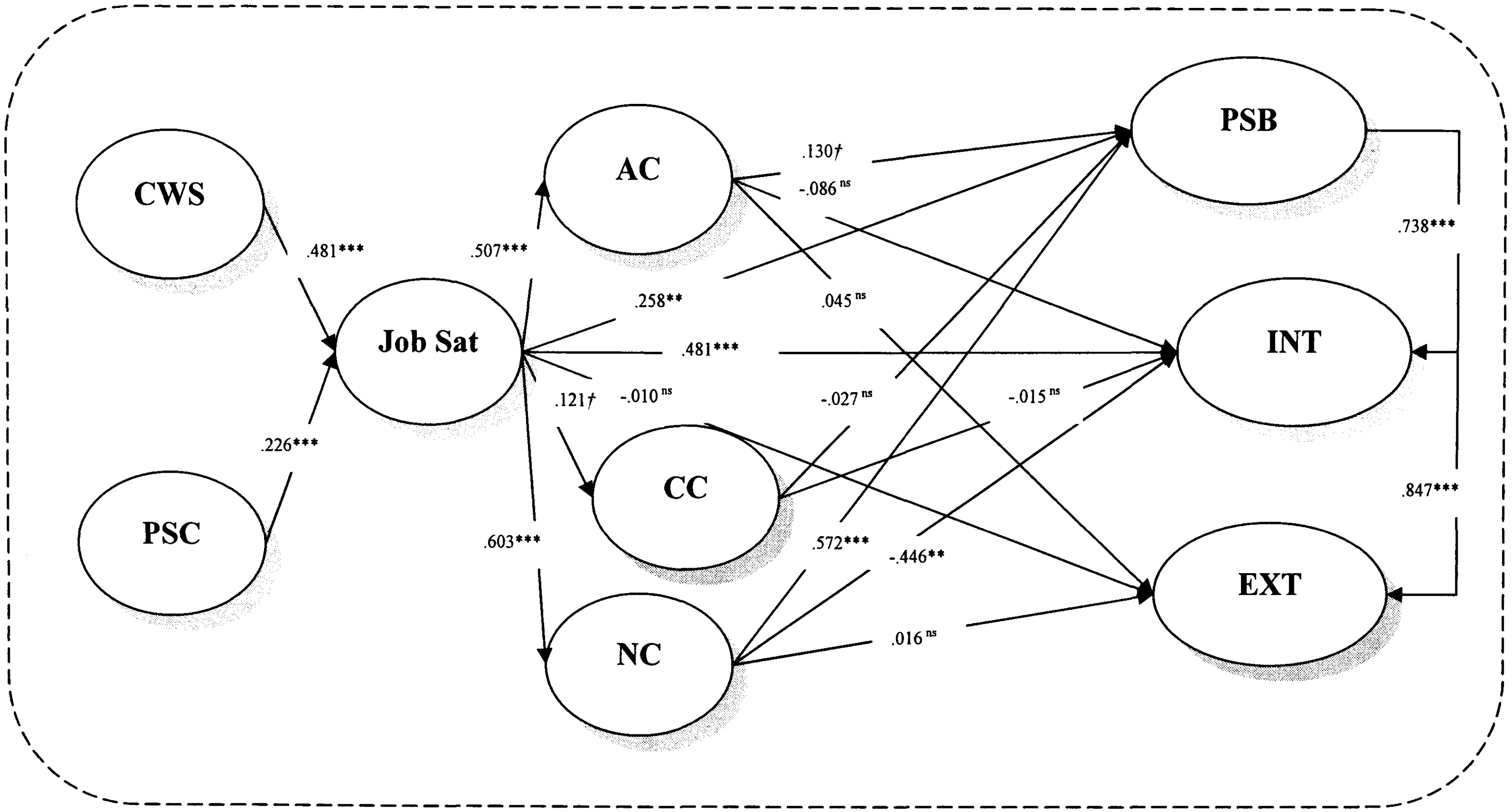
H	Hypothesised relationship	Std. Path Estimate	t-value	Result
H1(+)	JS → AC	.507	7.758***	Supported
H2(+)	JS → NC	.603	9.007***	Supported
H3(-)	JS → CC	.121	1.853†	Not Supported (Opposite)
H4(+)	JS →PSB	.258	2.619**	Supported
H5(+)	JS →INT	.481	4.751***	Supported
H6(+)	JS → EXT	-.010	-.091	Not Supported
H7(+)	AC → PSB	.130	1.661†	Supported
H8(+)	AC → INT	-.086	-1.140	Not Supported
H9(+)	AC → EXT	.045	.584	Not Supported
H10(+)	NC → PSB	.572	5.000***	Supported
H11(+)	NC → INT	-.446	-2.827**	Not Supported (Opposite)
H12(+)	NC → EXT	.016	.116	Not Supported
H13(-)	CC → PSB	-.027	-.493	Not supported
H14(-)	CC → INT	-.015	-.263	Not supported
H15(+)	PSB → INT	.738	3.688***	Supported
H16(+)	PSB → EXT	.847	4.032***	Supported
H17(+)	CWS → JS	.481	7.229***	Supported
H18(+)	PSC→ JS	.226	3.611***	Supported

$\chi^2(df)$ 1017.039$_{(539)}$, $p < .001$, CFI = .909, TLI = .900, RMSEA = .052

****p < .001, **p < .01, *p < .05, † p < .10*

The fit indices indicate good fit between the model and the data ($\chi^2(df)$ 1017.039$_{(539)}$, $p < .001$, CFI = .909, TLI = .900, RMSEA = .052). All the fit indices meet the requirements (i.e. $\chi^2/df < 2.0$, CFI and TLI values > .90, and RMSEA < .08), thus suggesting that the model can be accepted.

Figure 9.1: The hypothesised model and the parameter estimates



*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$, † $p < .10$

$\chi^2(df)$ $1017.039_{(539)}$, $p < .001$, CFI = .909, TLI = .900, RMSEA = .052

It should be noted that in this stage, the measurement and structural models were estimated simultaneously and loadings of latent variables on relevant indicators was consistent with those found for the original measurement model. Turning to the evaluation of the hypothesised paths postulated in the structural model, this process involves inspecting whether the path coefficients are statistically significant and in the hypothesised direction. The SEM testing elicited statistically significant results for thirteen hypotheses. However, two of the significant paths (i.e. H3 and H11) are in the opposite direction to their hypothesised.

The results on the relationships between job satisfaction and the three components of organisational commitment suggest that the development of job satisfaction exerts strong positive influence on affective commitment ($\beta = .507, p < .001$) and normative commitment ($\beta = .603, p < .001$), thus providing support for H1 and H2, respectively. The link between job satisfaction and continuance commitment is revealed to be positive, but in the opposite direction to that predicted in H3 ($\beta = .121, p < .10$). As expected, job satisfaction is proved to have positive impacts on prosocial service behaviour (H4, $\beta = .258, p < .01$), and internal influence (H5, $\beta = .481, p < .001$). The present study does not support H6 which proposed a positive relationship between job satisfaction and external representation as the path was found to be non-significant ($p > .10$).

Of the three components of organisational commitment, the results revealed that affective commitment has significant influence only on prosocial service behaviour ($\beta = .130, p < .10$), but not on internal influence ($\beta = -.086, p > .10$) nor external representation ($\beta = .045$, $p > .10$). As a result, H7 is accepted whereas H8 and H9 are rejected. The predicted positive relationships between normative commitment and the SECB components received partial support. Specifically, only the path from normative commitment to PSB was found to be positive and significant ($\beta = .572$, $p < .001$), as predicted in H10. Though NC $\rightarrow$ INT is significant, the relationship was found to be negative ($\beta = -.446$, $p < .01$), contrary to the direction predicted in H11. Further, the result for H12 (NC $\rightarrow$ EXT) was non-significant ($\beta = .016$, $p > .05$). None of the proposed negative influence of continuance commitment on prosocial service behaviour and internal representation was found to be statistically significant ($p > .10$), thus H13 and H14 are rejected.

The acceptance of H15 ($\beta = .738$, $p < .001$) and H16 ($\beta = .874$, $p < .001$) verifies the propositions that internal influence and external representation, which are relatively more extra-role behaviour, are dependent on the level of prosocial service behaviour, a relatively more role-prescribed duty. Lastly, support for H17 and H18 suggests that co-worker support ($\beta = .481$, $p < .001$) and passenger cooperation ($\beta = .226$, $p < .001$) have positive impacts on service employee job satisfaction.

9.2.2 Trimmed model

The model was trimmed with accordance to the results obtained in the full model. Here, only significant paths are retained. The initial results show that the overall fit of the trimmed model is good ($\chi^2(df)$ $1023.469_{(546)}$, CFI = .909, TLI = .901, RMSEA = .051). However, the path from job satisfaction to continuance commitment does not meet the acceptable statistical significance level (p < .05). Thus, this construct was removed and the model was re-estimated. The parameter estimates of the relationships in the final trimmed model are shown in Table 9.2 and Figure 9.2.

Table 9.2: Results of the trimmed model

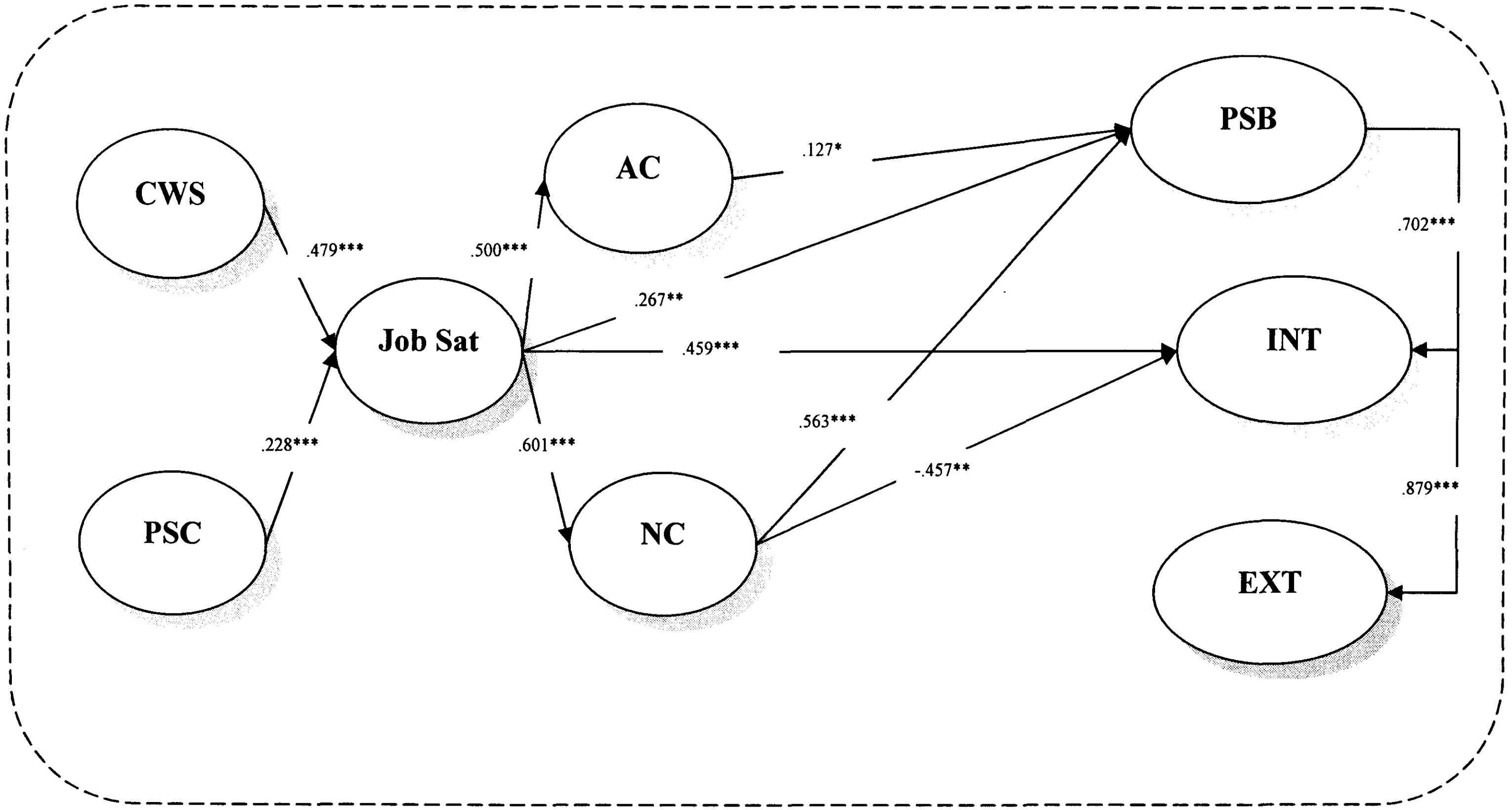
H	Hypothesised relationship	Std. Path Estimate	t-value	Result
H1(+)	JS → AC	.500	7.678***	Supported
H2(+)	JS → NC	.601	9.020***	Supported
H4(+)	JS →PSB	.267	3.211***	Supported
H5(+)	JS →INT	.459	5.201***	Supported
H7(+)	AC → PSB	.127	1.960*	Supported
H10(+)	NC → PSB	.563	5.507***	Supported
H11(+)	NC → INT	-.457	-3.480***	Not Supported (Opposite)
H15(+)	PSB → INT	.702	4.245***	Supported
H16(+)	PSB → EXT	.879	7.372***	Supported
H17(+)	CWS → JS	.479	7.200***	Supported
H18(+)	PSC → JS	.228	3.640***	Supported

$\chi^2(df)$ 1020.097$_{(545)}$, p < .001, CFI = .910, TLI = .902, RMSEA = .051

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

The chi-square difference test revealed no statistically significant difference between the full model and the trimmed model ($\Delta\chi^2_{(\Delta df)} = 3.058_{(6)}$, $p > .05$). For the reason of parsimony, the trimmed model with higher degrees of freedom, therefore, was favoured. The trimmed model explains 66%, 60% and 77% of variances in prosocial service behaviour, internal influence and external representation, respectively. These amounts of explained variances are considered reasonable in behavioural science research (Fu *et al.* 2006). Importantly, the more parsimonious trimmed model facilitates moderation testing even though the sample size (n = 335) is substantial.

Figure 9.2: The trimmed model and the parameter estimates



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

$\chi^2(df)$ 1020.097$_{(545)}$, $p < .001$, CFI = .910, TLI = .902, RMSEA = .051

9.2.3 Assessment of social desirability bias

Once the final structural model was established, the effects of social desirability bias on the structural paths were examined. Although Harman's single factor test showed that common method bias should not be a serious concern in the present study, the preliminary investigation of such bias in the confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement models, however, revealed probability that social desirability bias may impact the results (see Chapter Eight, Section 8.6). This section uses a more stringent procedure to assess the extent to which a form of common method bias called 'social desirability' influence the parameter estimates. With reference to the statistical techniques employed, the recommendations of Williams and Anderson (1994) and Podsakoff *et al.* (2003) were followed. Because tests for common method bias using SEM require direct effects and multi-item construct measures (Andrews *et al.* 2004, also see Robson *et al.* 2008), the current study estimates the impact of such bias for the AC → PSB, NC → PSB, NC → INT, PSB → INT, and PSB → EXT paths. The social desirability construct was loaded on all indicators of the constructs of interest. The results of final path estimation with the social desirability bias are reported in Table 9.3.

Table 9.3: Effects of social desirability bias

Hypothesised relationship	Std. Path Estimate	t-value	Result
AC → PSB	.239	3.225***	Unchanged
NC → PSB	.653	5.400***	Unchanged
NC → INT	-.323	-2.479*	Unchanged
PSB → INT	.868	4.653***	Unchanged
PSB → EXT	.842	5.919***	Unchanged

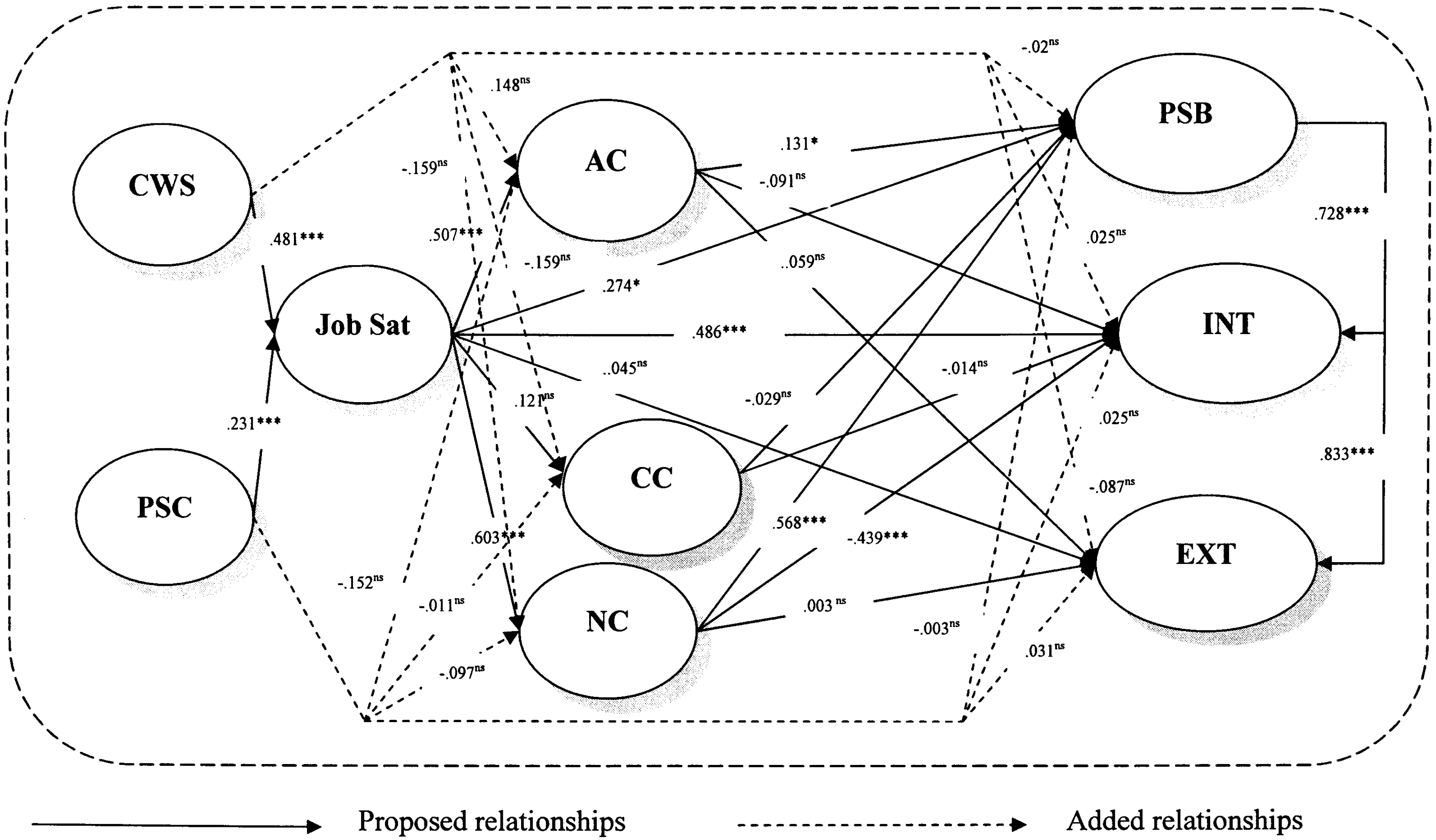
****p < .001, **p < .01, *p < .05, †p < .10*

The goodness-of-fit indices ($\chi^2(df)$ $556_{(319)}$, $p < .001$, CFI = .936, TLI = .924, RMSEA = .047) show that the model with social desirability bias fits the data well. However, the results of inclusion of the bias construct revealed that social desirability bias did not attenuate the relationship estimates between constructs to the point of insignificance. Thus, though common method bias could not be totally eliminated, the analyses indicate that such bias does not fully explain the results.

9.3 Assessment of indirect effects

To answer H19 - H24, the indirect effects of co-worker support and passenger cooperation on organisational commitment and service employee citizenship behaviour must be examined. Because the present study posits the mediating role of job attitudes on the support-performance relationship, it is therefore necessary to explicitly test this assertion. Mediation requires that the indirect effect relationships are significant even in the presence of the additional direct paths into the model (cf. Kenny *et al.* 1998, also see Bettencourt *et al.* 2005). Thus, a model with direct relationships added was estimated and significance levels of the indirect relationships were inspected (see Figure 9.3). Unlike other SEM procedures, this approach considers the significance of indirect effects. It has been found to have low Type I error rate and high power to detect mediation effect in comparison to other approaches (for review see James *et al.* 2006 and Wood *et al.* 2008).

Figure 9.3: The model with direct relationships and the parameter estimates



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

$\chi^2(df)$ 997.118$_{(527)}$, $p < .001$, CFI = .911, TLI = .899, RMSEA = .052

Indirect effects are computed by the following formula (Sobel 1982):

$$z = \alpha\beta / \sqrt{(\alpha^2\sigma_\beta^2 + \beta^2\sigma_\alpha^2)}$$

$\alpha\beta$ signifies the multiple of coefficients from the independent variable-mediator link (α) and the mediator-dependent variable link (β). The estimate of the mediation effect (product of both path coefficients α and β) is divided by its standard error and compared to the standard normal distribution to test for significance.

The estimation output shows a good fit between the data and the model in Figure 9.3 ($\chi^2(df)$ 997.118$_{(527)}$, $p < .001$, CFI = .911, TLI = .899, RMSEA = .052). However, none of the additional paths has statistical significance ($p > .05$). It is apparent that mediation is not supported among the two support constructs and continuance commitment because the link from job satisfaction to continuance commitment is non-significant ($p > .05$). Additionally, external representation was not found to be predictable by either job satisfaction or organisational commitment, thus providing no support for the indirect effect for external representation. Apart from these two constructs, the indirect effects of co-worker support and passenger cooperation on affective commitment, normative commitment, prosocial service behaviour, and internal influence were all significant and positive, thus providing partial support for H19, H20, H21, and H22 (see Table 9.4). Indeed, if the model shown in Figure 9.3 is trimmed down, its trimmed version would be identical to the trimmed model (see Figure 9.2).

Table 9.4: Results of indirect effects

H	Hypothesised relationship	Std. Estimates	*z*-value	Result
H19A(+)	CWS → AC	.299	3.30***	Supported
H19B(+)	CWS → NC	.365	4.19***	Supported
H19C(-)	CWS → CC	-	-	-
H20A(+)	PSC → AC	.089	3.26***	Supported
H20B(+)	PSC → NC	.109	4.09***	Supported
H20C(-)	PSC → CC	-	-	-
H21A(+)	CWS → PSB	.372	3.14***	Supported
H21B(+)	CWS → INT	.324	2.70**	Supported
H21C(+)	CWS → EXT	-	-	-
H22A(+)	PSC → PSB	.186	3.10***	Supported
H22B(+)	PSC → INT	.161	2.67**	Supported
H22C(+)	PSC → EXT	-		-

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

As expected, the results demonstrate evidence to partially accept H23 and H24 which posit that indirect effects of co-worker support and passenger cooperation on prosocial service behaviour will be stronger than the corresponding indirect effects on internal influence and external representation. Although the indirect impacts of co-worker and passenger cooperation on external representation do not exist, it is evident that the indirect effect of co-worker support and passenger cooperation on prosocial service behaviour (β = .372 and β = .186, respectively) is stronger than the corresponding indirect effects on internal influence (β = .324 and β = .161, respectively).

9.4 Moderator effects

It has been elaborated in previous chapters that individual differences in terms of culture and belief play a significant role in explaining an individual's performance. The current study captured the extent to which an individual emphasises his/her own goals over those of the group (i.e. individualism/collectivism). After assessing the validity and reliability of the factor structure, the scores for the final set of items were summed and averaged by the number of items to generate a composite value.

The data were divided into two groups (i.e. high and low collectivism) based on the median of the composite value to obtain essentially equivalent sample size (Dabholkar and Bagozzi 2002). In this instance, mean and median values are not dispersed from one another (Mean = 5.16, Median = 5.25, S.D. = .89). Data above the median was categorised as high collectivism and data below the median was assigned as low collectivism. The two groups were saved as two separate files. Simultaneous analysis of these two groups was performed as it is suggested that this method provides a test for the significance of any differences found between groups which more accurate parameter estimated than would be obtained from two separate single-group analyses (Arbuckle 2005).

The best fitting model (i.e. the trimmed model) served as baseline model (Byrne 2001). The AMOS 6.0 multi-group option was used to detect any significant difference in structural parameters between the high collectivism group and the low collectivism group. Testing moderating effects involves comparisons of chi-square value and degree of freedom between the model with and without equality constraint on a particular path of interest. By this, the chi-square value and degree of freedom of the model without equality constraint serves as the baseline for chi-square difference tests. Equality constraints were posted, one at a time, on the paths from job attitudes to SECB (i.e. JS → PSB, JS → INT, AC → PSB, NC → PSB, NC → INT) and the paths among the SECB components (i.e. PSB → INT and PSB → EXT). The models were then allowed to be estimated. In comparison to other methods (e.g. interaction-effect test), this method is more straight forward and requires no addition of new variables.

For the relationships between job attitudes and service employee performance, only the chi-square difference between Model A and Model F (i.e. NC → INT) is found to be statistically significant, which indicates that this path is potentially conditioned by individualism/collectivism (β = -.382, $p < .05$ and β = -.508, $p < .01$) for low collectivism group and high collectivism group, respectively. In other words, NC → INT has a weaker relationship among the high collectivism group. As a result, H25 is somewhat supported. Having stated that, the present study has also tested the moderating effect of individualism/collectivism on other attitudes-SECB paths initially proposed in the hypothesised model. No significance was found. It is, therefore, appropriate to focus and present only the paths of the trimmed model. See Table 9.5.

Table 9.5: Moderation test results

Moderating variable	Relationship	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2/\Delta df$
Baseline model	(Model A)	1780.013	1090	-
Levels of collectivism (High and low)	JS → PSB (Model B)	1780.110	1091	$.097^{ns}$
	JS → INT (Model C)	1780.215	1091	$.202^{ns}$
	AC → PSB (Model D)	1780.140	1091	$.127^{ns}$
	NC → PSB (Model E)	1780.116	1091	$.103^{ns}$
	NC → INT (Model F)	1784.332	1091	4.319^{*}
	PSB → INT (Model G)	1784.231	1091	4.218*
	PSB→ EXT (Model H)	1785.198	1091	5.185*

Please note that the χ^2 and df of the models in this table were obtained from the estimation of multigroup analysis (i.e. after the data were split into two groups). In the table, only indicative paths are presented. ^{ns} *Nonsignificant,* $^{*}p < .05$

Regarding PSB → INT and the PSB→ EXT relationships, the results show that chi-square differences between Model A and Model G and Model A and Model H are statistically significant. The results show that these two paths remain statistically significant (PSB → INT: β = .52 and β = .27, both $p < .001$, for the low collectivism group and high collectivism group, respectively; and PSB → EXT: β = .55 and β = .76, both $p < .001$, for the low collectivism group and high collectivism group, respectively). Therefore, H26, which proposed a stronger relationship between PSB and INT in low collectivism group and H27, which proposed a stronger relationship between PSB and EXT in high collectivism group, are supported. A table summarising the hypothesis testing results is provided at the end of this chapter.

9.5 *Discussion*

The current study attempts to fill a void in the literature by simultaneously examining the relationships of co-worker support, passenger cooperation, job satisfaction, three components of organisational commitment, and three components of SECB. In addition, the moderating role of individualism/collectivism on these relationships was investigated. The results, however, only partially support these assumptions. The first subsection discusses the results regarding the relationships between job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and service employee citizenship behaviour. Here, the moderating effect of individualism/collectivism is also addressed. Following this, the findings concerning co-worker support and passenger cooperation are discussed.

9.5.1 Discussion on job satisfaction, organisational commitment, SECB, and individualism/collectivism

Consistent with the findings of most prior research on consequences of job satisfaction, the SEM results of this study indicate that job satisfaction is positively associated with affective commitment, normative commitment, prosocial service behaviour and internal influence, but not with continuance commitment and external representation; thus adding empirical evidence to the existing proposition that job satisfaction is an important driver of various components of organisational commitment and citizenship behaviours.

The hypotheses that affective commitment is positively related to prosocial service behavioural, internal influence and external representation were partially supported. Only prosocial service behaviour was found to be influenced by affective commitment.

It is possible that the evidence of the relationships between affective commitment and various facets of citizenship behaviour found in previous studies is due to the fact these studies did not examine the simultaneous impacts of attitudinal constructs (i.e. inclusion of job satisfaction and the three components of organisational commitment). Indeed, Bettencourt *et al.* (2005) implicitly support this caution by stating that inclusion of other social exchange variables may have altered their findings. These inconsistent results reinforce the need of future research to obtain a full picture of closely related attitudinal variables (i.e. three components of commitment and job satisfaction) in examining the SECB components. The findings arising from the estimation of the effects of continuance commitment on prosocial service behaviour and internal influence was not expected, yet not a breath-taking surprise. Several researchers have expected and/or empirically reported that continuance commitment has no statistically significant relationship with employee work-related behaviours (e.g. Moorman *et al.* 1993; Hackett *et al.* 1994; Meyer *et al.* 2002; Cichy *et al.* 2009).

Normative commitment revealed significant relationships with prosocial service behaviour and internal influence. In comparison to the effect of affective commitment on prosocial service behaviour ($\beta = .127$, $p < .05$), it is noticed that the effect of normative commitment on such behaviour is considerably stronger ($\beta = .563$, $p < .001$), suggesting that normative commitment is more predictive of prosocial service behaviour. With consideration that "normative commitment may have been more rooted in the individual by family, culture and later the organisation, it is likely that it will have a greater impact on behaviour than more recently developed feelings of affective commitment" (Chen and Francesco 2003, p. 493). Support for this contention was also found among scholars researching the relationship between normative commitment and behavioural consequences (e.g. Gautam *et al.* 2005; Yao and Wang 2006). This result reinforces the importance of normative commitment for future citizenship behaviour research.

The unexpected negative estimate between normative commitment and internal influence can possibly be explained by the fact that these two constructs may characterise different viewpoints. As normative commitment is regarded as the feeling of indebtedness (Chen and Francesco 2003), this construct is likely to be developed by the collectivistic culture (Meyer and Allen 1997). A recent study has provided empirical evidence supporting the proposition that people high in normative commitment are also high in collectivism (Cohen and Karen 2008). On the contrary, the nature of internal influence is subjected to individualistic perceptions (Kwantes 2003). On this basis, people with high normative commitment can be expected to show less internal influence. Another explanation is that collectivism is closely related to high power distance— "people seeing that those at the top of the social structure are very different from those at the bottom" (Triandis 1995, p. 30). In such circumstances, an employee would have less initiation because they are in fear that their initiation would be construed as a challenge to the leader's authority (Paine and Organ 2000). In comparison to the high collectivism group, the relationship estimates show higher likelihood of employees low in collectivism to display internal influence, in relation to their levels of normative commitment.

Noticeably, neither job satisfaction nor organisational commitment was found to be influential on external representation. A possible explanation is that external representation occurs outside the organisation and is, therefore, beyond the account of job attitudes (i.e. job satisfaction and organisational commitment). Nevertheless, the results show that external representation, so as internal influence, is positively boosted by prosocial service behaviour. Plausibly, employees may assume that their own performance indicates the quality of service provided by the organisation. In other words, people with high levels of prosocial service behaviour would believe that the organisation offers high quality services. Consequently, they would favourably advocate the organisation to outsiders so that the outsiders can enjoy good service offerings. Also, employees with good performance are likely to be more confident than those with poor performance, therefore contributing more suggestions and ideas on service improvement.

Regarding the moderating effect of levels of collectivism, apart from the NC $\rightarrow$ INT relationship, moderating effects of this cultural dimension on the links between other job attitudes to the SECB components were not found to be significant. The findings suggested that Thai employees' tendency in performing service citizenship behaviour, in relation to their job attitudes, is not subject to individual differences in terms of individualism/collectivism. Interestingly, these findings are contrary to the findings of Francesco and Chen (2004) and Lester *et al.* (2008), who found that individualism/collectivism significantly acted to moderate the relationship between job attitudes (i.e. affective organisational commitment and job satisfaction, respectively) and OCBs. This difference may have been because of instrumentation differences in the measures of this cultural dimension between the present study and their studies. As the forms of citizenship behaviour examined in the present study and those of the two studies are different, it is also possible that the relationships between job attitudes and different forms of citizenship behaviours may have different moderators. Given that a very small number of studies have used an individual-level approach to investigate the moderating role of individualism/collectivism, this inconsistency constitutes a challenge for further research.

However, collectivism plays a significant role in tempering the PSB → INT and PSB → EXT relationships. The results revealed a stronger relationship in the low collectivism group for the PSB → INT path and a stronger relationship in the high collectivism group for the PSB → EXT path. Based on this empirical evidence, employees with different cultural orientations engage in prosocial service behaviour is likely to determine the extent to which they exhibit internal influence and external presentation. In detail, high collectivism-oriented employees exhibit internal influence to a lesser degree in relation to their prosocial service behaviour in comparison to low collectivism-oriented employees. By contrast, in relation to prosocial service behaviour, employees with high collectivism are more inclined to be organisation's advocator than do employees with low collectivism.

These novel findings offer a practical guideline for the management to manage employees with different cultural orientations in term of individualism/collectivism. For instance, if employees have collectivistic values and beliefs, it is likely that these employees will positively represent the organisation's image, services, and products to outsiders. However, these same employees are less likely to be willing to make suggestions for service improvements. Therefore, the organisation should focus on practices that encourage employees to make constructive suggestions and put ideas forth for service improvements. In contrast, if employees in the organisation display individualistic characteristics, the management should then focus on extracting positive external representation from these individuals as they are already likely to be making recommendations for service improvements.

9.5.2 Discussion on co-worker support, passenger cooperation, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and SECB

In contrast to much of the past research on social support, specifically co-worker and customer support, the present study's investigative framework is theoretically anchored and non eclectic, and the paths therein are all conceptually robust. The mediation test provides evidence supporting the conceptualisation of direct effects of co-worker support and passenger cooperation on job satisfaction, and their indirect effects on organisational commitment and service employee citizenship behaviour.

The empirical results show that the extent to which service employees perceive support from co-workers and passengers has significant and direct influences on their job satisfaction. Specifically, the support from co-worker (β = .479) and passenger (β = .228) considerably contributes to job satisfaction. Such results support the belief that co-workers (Smith *et al.* 1969; Luthans 2002; Ng and Sorensen 2008) and customers (Wilson and Frimpong 2004; Yoon *et al.* 2004) play a critical role in the organisational life of service employees. In addition to the hypothesised direct relationship, several hypotheses concerning indirect effects of co-worker support and passenger cooperation are supported. Overall, co-worker support and passenger cooperation showed significant, indirect influences on organisational commitment. In contrast to much of the existing research that found the direct connection between support and employee performance (e.g. Ladd and Henry 2000; Koster and Sanders 2006; Susskind 2003; 2007), the research model verifies that, in the vein of Bagozzi's (1992) framework, when job attitudes are included the relationship between support and behaviour is fully mediated (i.e. by job attitudes).

In detail, co-worker support has stronger impacts on affective commitment, normative commitment, prosocial service behaviour and internal influence than the corresponding indirect effects of passenger cooperation. This offers supplementary evidence to support the salience of co-workers in the workplace, especially for emotional labours. The stronger effect of co-worker support, in relation to passenger support, may be explained by that fellow co-workers can serve as a mechanism which reduces job stress that may derive from the job requirement and/or the customer (see Koycynski 2003). Nevertheless, the results shed light on potential contributions of passenger behaviour, in particular passenger cooperation, in determining service employees' job satisfaction, organisational commitment and stimulating service employee citizenship behaviours.

Using a social exchange reasoning along with Williams and Anderson's (1991) two-category approach to citizenship behaviours, the present study's findings demonstrated that the indirect effects of co-worker support and passenger cooperation on prosocial service behaviour (i.e. individual-directed SECB) is stronger than the corresponding indirect effects on internal influence (i.e. organisation-directed SECB). These findings correspond to the contention that different sources of support have unique contributions to employee attitudes and behaviours (Ng and Sorensen 2008). Similar to previous studies (e.g. Masterson *et al.* 2000; Turnley *et al.* 2003; Bettencourt *et al.* 2005), the present research has demonstrated the usefulness of future investigation offering theoretically derived predictions concerning the differential strength of antecedents on distinct components of citizenship behaviours. Specifically, such results illuminate the importance of matching the source of dependent variables to the outcome variables studied as consequences.

Taken together, the results indicate that co-worker support, in comparison to passenger cooperation, is more influential on job attitudes and service employee citizenship behaviour. However, given the effects of passenger cooperation to attitudinal and behaviour outcomes are significant and considerable, this construct deserves not to be overlooked in understanding and managing customer contact employees.

9.6 Chapter summary

This chapter documented the results of the SEM-based path estimation for the conceptual model constituting the core of this study. In addition, the conceptual model also withstood the challenge posed by a competing model. The results favoured the initially proposed model, thus reinforcing the efficacy of the conceptualisation undertaken. These findings are of particular interest since despite past conceptual and empirical contributions in related fields of research, to date no study has empirically tested the above-hypothesised paths in a simultaneous manner. Hence, the present study is novel in that through employing SEM analysis it offers a clear insight into the relationships between the constructs of interest as well as the moderating role of individualism/collectivism. Having obtained all the results required in answering the research questions set in Chapter One, the next chapter will illuminate the pertinent results reported in this chapter with a view to discuss the study's contributions to the existing body of literature. Also, managerial implications, limitations and room for future research will be presented.

Table 9.6: Summary of hypothesis testing results

Hypothesis		Description	Result
JS and OC	H1	There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment	Supported
	H2	There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and normative commitment	Supported
	H3	There is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and continuance commitment	Not Supported
JS and SECB	H4	There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and prosocial service behaviour	Supported
	H5	There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and internal influence	Supported
	H6	There is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and external representation	Not Supported
AC and SECB	H7	There is a positive relationship between affective commitment and prosocial service behaviour	Supported
	H8	There is a positive relationship between affective commitment and internal influence	Not Supported
	H9	There is a positive relationship between affective commitment and external representation	Not Supported
NC and SECB	H10	There is a positive relationship between normative commitment and prosocial service behaviour	Supported
	H11	There is a positive relationship between normative commitment and internal influence	Not Supported
	H12	There is a positive relationship between normative commitment and external representation	Not Supported
CC and SECB	H13	There is a negative relationship between continuance commitment and prosocial service behaviour	Not Supported
	H14	There is a negative relationship between continuance commitment and internal influence	Not Supported
PSB, INT, and EXT	H15	There is a positive relationship between prosocial service behaviour and internal influence	Supported
	H16	There is a positive relationship between prosocial service behaviour and external representation	Supported

Hypothesis		Description	Result
CWS, PSC and JS	H17	There is a positive relationship between co-worker support and job satisfaction	Supported
	H18	There is a positive relationship between passenger cooperation and job satisfaction	Supported
CWS, PSC and OC	H19	Co-worker support has indirect effects (i.e. though job satisfaction) on affective commitment (positive) H19A, normative commitment (positive) H19B, and continuance commitment (negative) H19C	Partially Supported
	H20	Passenger cooperation has indirect effects (i.e. though job satisfaction) on affective commitment (positive) H20A, normative commitment (positive) H20B, and continuance commitment (negative) H20C	Partially Supported
CWS, PSC and SECB	H21	Co-worker support has positive, indirect effects (i.e. through job attitudes) on SECB	Supported
	H22	Passenger cooperation has positive, indirect effects (i.e. through job attitudes) on SECB	Supported
	H23	The indirect effects of co-worker support on prosocial service behaviour will be stronger than that on internal influence and external representation	Partially Supported
	H24	The indirect effects of passenger cooperation on prosocial service behaviour will be stronger than that on internal influence and external representation	Partially Supported
CUL, Job attitudes and SECB	H25	The relationships between job attitudes and SECB (i.e. prosocial service behaviour, internal influence, and external representation) are moderated by individualism/collectivism, such that the relationships are weaker in a high collectivism group than in a low collectivism group	Partially Supported
	H26	The relationship between prosocial service behaviour and internal influence is weaker in a high collectivism group than in a low collectivism group	Supported
	H27	The relationship between prosocial service behaviour external representation is stronger in a high collectivism group than in a low collectivism group	Supported

Chapter 10

Chapter 10

Conclusions and Implications

10.1 Introduction

The primary objective of the present study is to develop a social structure explanation of service employee citizenship behaviour in the non-Westernised business context, emphasising the importance of co-worker support, passenger cooperation, job satisfaction, and the three components of organisational commitment on one hand, and the crucial moderating role of individualism/collectivism on the other hand. In essence, five specific research questions were formulated and addressed with reference to a group of cabin crew from a flag-carrier airline. A scientific approach was adopted as the means of collecting and analysing data to address the research questions. This chapter focuses primarily on the contributions and implications of this study, and is divided into five sections. First, a brief summary of key research findings are presented. This leads to the discussion of theoretical contributions and managerial implications. Finally, limitations of the present study are detailed and avenues for future research are highlighted.

10.2 Key research findings

Building primarily on the statistical results presented in Chapter Eight and Chapter Nine, this section presents a brief summary of key findings in accordance with each research question.

Research question one: *What are tailored forms of OCB in the service context? How should these tailored forms be operationalised? What is the nomological network of these components?*

Constructs of particular interest in this study are service-specific organisational citizenship behaviours. Hence, an extensive review of existing literature on the organisational citizenship behaviour literature and other related literatures (i.e. prosocial organisational behaviour and contextual performance) was undertaken. It was this step which informed the present study of the potential importance of the five constructs relating to service employee performance; in-role service delivery, extra-role service delivery, cooperation, internal influence and external representation. Despite a small body of literature which explores the service-specific organisational citizenship behaviours, inconsistencies exist with regards to the conceptualisation of these constructs (cf. Bettencourt *et al.* 2005; Ackfeldt and Wong 2006). In this regard, conceptualisation and operationalisation the dependent variables for the current study constituted a challenge.

Following a review of existing conceptual arguments and the gathering of preliminary qualitative insights, the present study's conceptualisation of service employee citizenship behaviour comprises one second-order construct (i.e. prosocial service behaviour) as per Ackfeldt and Wong (2006), and two first-order constructs (i.e. internal influence and external representation). The confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) results provide clear evidence that the present study's conceptualisation of service employee citizenship behaviour fits the data well. Coefficients alphas, composite reliabilities, factor loadings and *t*-values are sufficiently high for each construct. Given the level of square root of the average variance extracted in comparison to intercorrelations among the constructs and AVE values greater than .50, discriminant validity and convergent validity exist, respectively. Thus, taken together, the scales captured the underlying variables they are intended to measure. Also, there is discreteness amongst these latent constructs.

Moreover, the nomological structure of the service employee citizenship behaviour components is examined. Very recently, interest in the relationship among citizenship behaviours has started to attract research attention (i.e. Bergeron 2007). Following a literature review, the causal relationships from prosocial service behaviour to internal influence and to external representation were proposed, and empirically supported. These findings correspond to Bell and Menguc's (2002) contention that people who perform one type of citizenship behaviour are also likely to performance other types of behaviours. In this regard, the present study is considered as the first research attempt to provide empirical evidence regarding the relationships among the service employee citizenship behaviour components.

Research question two: *What are the relationships between job satisfaction, affective commitment, normative commitment, continuance commitment, and service employee citizenship behaviour?*

A literature review informed the present investigation of the potential importance of social exchange theory as a lens through which to examine service employee citizenship behaviour. Although no single theory can fully capture and explain the complexities involved in managing employee behaviours, social exchange theory does address a range of key considerations in organisational citizenship behaviour research. One of these is the fact that citizenship behaviours are more or less discretionary and are therefore not rewardable or punishable (Organ 1988). Hence, theories (e.g. expectancy theories) which deal largely with the traditional job performance aspect (i.e. enforceable by rewards and punishment) are less relevant in explaining service employee citizenship behaviours. A large number of citizenship behaviour studies have adopted the social exchange perspective in investigating this phenomenon and consistently specify that job attitudes precede citizenship behaviours.

Although much recent research in the organisational citizenship behaviour area has given considerations to the importance of job satisfaction and organisational commitment, no previous study has actually examined the effects of job satisfaction and the three commitment components on citizenship behaviour simultaneously and thus has not provided a full picture of the phenomenon. This is an important omission given that these job attitudinal constructs may be driven by different sets of factors, and may have impacts on different behavioural consequences. Understanding components of such attitudinal factors that are most influential on different service employee behaviours can guide the service practitioner to allocate resources more effectively in order to specifically elicit desired employee behaviours. In order to incorporate the three-component model of organisational commitment into the research framework with confidence, the issue of cross-culture applicability of the three component structure must be inspected. The CFA results provide clear evidence supporting the three-component structure of organisational commitment in the current research context.

Consistent with prior research, the structural model results show that job satisfaction is an important determinant of most forms of organisational commitment and citizenship behaviours. In contrast to the long-held presumption in the area that only affective commitment should relate to citizenship behaviours (cf. Organ and Ryan 1995), the results demonstrated that affective commitment is only related to one component of service employee citizenship behaviour (i.e. prosocial service behaviour). Indeed, its effect is remarkably smaller than the corresponding effect of normative commitment. Normative commitment, however, was found to have negative impacts on internal influence. Continuance commitment is not found to be predictive of any form of citizenship behaviour, nor is it determined by job satisfaction.

Of the three service employee citizenship behaviour components, external representation is shown to be independent and not predicted by either job satisfaction or any component of organisational commitment. Yet, the results provide evidence to believe that higher levels of prosocial service behaviour could imply higher levels of external representation. This investigation of the nomological network among the SECB components enabled the present study to address the behaviour which is beyond the accountability of organisational influences. Although some may question the importance of the consideration of such attitudinal variables and the nomological network among the SECM components, an examination of previous citizenship behaviour research indicates that the variance accounted for each SECB component in the present study (> .60%) are substantially higher than those typically found (i.e. around 10%, cf. Bettencourt and Brown 1997; Francesco and Chen 2004). Taken together, these results suggest that future citizenship behaviour research should consider the importance of job satisfaction, affective commitment and normative commitment. Also, future research should pay attention to the nomological network of different citizenship behaviours in order to grasp additional understanding of the phenomenon.

To rule out the problem of social desirability bias on the results, a stringent procedure was used to examine the effect of such bias. Utilising the scale derived from Reynolds (1982) and following advice of Williams and Anderson (1994), Podsakoff *et al.* (2003), and Andrews *et al.* (2004), two forms of analysis were conducted. First, the latent measure of social desirability bias was introduced and analysed at the measurement model stage. Second, the effect of social desirability bias was examined at the structural model stage. Although the initial results obtained in the measurement model stage suggested that social desirability bias might have potential influence on structural relationships, a more rigorous test in the second analysis provided evidence to believe such bias was not a serious concern in the present study as no structural path was altered to the point of non-significance and none of the directions estimated were changed.

Research question three: *Do co-worker support and passenger cooperation have significant impacts on service employee job attitudes and service employee citizenship behaviour?*

The comprehensive literature review reported in Chapter Four enabled the present study to simultaneously reveal and overcome several problems which are acute in empirical social support research. Specifically, studies commonly fail to contemplate different theoretical frameworks or lack a sound framework in linking support to performance. In utilising Bagozzi's (1992) theoretical framework and social exchange theory, the present study was able to focus on the interplay between support, job attitudes, and behavioural consequences. The structural model results show that the conceptual model which proposes indirect effects of support on performance fits the data suitably. Indeed, the role of job attitudes as a crucial mediating variable between support factors and service employee performance is further evinced with the mediation test (see Chapter Nine: Section 9.3), which showed that the indirect effects remained significant even in the presence of the direct links. These findings imply that job attitudes are not only important variables in the support-performance relationship, but identifying job attitudes as a key mediator is critical to the research in this area (cf. Paulin *et al.* 2006). Omitting the potential of job attitudes may have resulted in a limited and obscured understanding of the support-performance relationship. To summarise the findings, both co-worker support and passenger cooperation have positive, direct effects on job satisfaction and indirect effects on affective commitment, normative commitment, prosocial service behaviour and internal influence.

Research question four: *Do the effects of co-worker support and customer cooperation have differential strengths in predicting different components of service employee citizenship behaviour?*

Utilising William and Anderson's (1991) two-category approach to distinguish the service employee citizenship behaviour components together with social exchange reasoning, the present study has demonstrated the usefulness of theoretically derived predictions with regards to differential strengths of antecedents on distinct components of service employee citizenship behaviour. Similar to previous studies using the above line of reasoning (e.g. Masterson *et al.* 2000; Turnley *et al.* 2003; Bettencourt *et al.* 2005), the results showed that the effects on citizenship behaviours vary depending on the unit under consideration. To detail, the results show that individual-related factors (i.e. co-worker support and passenger cooperation) have stronger effects on individual-directed service employee citizenship behaviour (i.e. prosocial service behaviour) than on organisational-directed service employee citizenship behaviours (i.e. internal influence and external representation).

Research question five: *Do differences at the individual level, with regards to individualism/collectivism, moderate the relationships between job attitudes and service employee citizenship behaviour and the relationships among the service employee citizenship behaviour components?*

The literature review highlighted the importance of considering cultural differences at the individual level of analysis for several reasons (see Chapter Three: Section

3.5.2.3). A contemplation of the conclusions of this research question is best divided into two groups of hypotheses: 1) hypotheses concerning moderating effects of individualism/collectivism on the relationships between job attitudes and service employee citizenship behaviour; and 2) hypotheses concerning moderating effects of individualism/collectivism on the relationships among the components of service employee citizenship behaviour.

In the first group, with exception of the relationship between normative commitment and internal influence, individualism/collectivism did not moderate any of the job attitudes-service employee citizenship behaviour relationships (i.e. JS $\rightarrow$ PSB, JS $\rightarrow$ INT, AC $\rightarrow$ PSB and NC $\rightarrow$ PSB). Overall, these findings do not fully support the hypothesis that collectivistic values moderate the relationship between job attitudes and service citizenship behaviour. However, collectivism played a significant role in tempering the relationships among SECB components (i.e. PSB $\rightarrow$ INT and PSB $\rightarrow$ EXT). Based on the empirical evidence, the extent to which Thai employees with different levels of collectivism orientations engage in prosocial service behaviour is likely to determine the extent to which they exhibit internal influence and external presentation. To detail, high collectivism-oriented employees exhibit internal influence to a lesser degree in relation to their prosocial service behaviour in comparison to low collectivism-oriented employees. In contrast, in relation to prosocial service behaviour, employees with high collectivism are more inclined to be an organisation's advocator than do employees with low collectivism.

10.3 Theoretical contributions

Drawing from the key findings presented in the preceding section, the present study has made several contributions to the existing knowledge by conceptualising and quantitatively testing the proposed theoretical model.

First, the present study responded to the calls on research for service-specific, customer oriented citizenship behaviour. Five constructs were conceptualised and empirically examined. Although some previous studies have examined these constructs (i.e. Bettencourt and Brown 1997; Bettencourt *et al.* 2001; Bettencourt and Brown 2003; Bettencourt *et al.* 2005; Ackfeldt and Wong 2006), to date, a holistic analysis which has included all the constructs does not exist. Hence, in simultaneously conceptualising and studying all the five forms of service employee behaviour, the current study contributes to the organisational citizenship behaviour field of research including the areas of service-specific organisational citizenship behaviour and customer-oriented behaviour. More specifically, drawing from the organisational citizenship behaviour literature and the gathering of preliminary qualitative insights, this study empirically tested the suitability of the multidimensional conceptualisation and operationalisation of prosocial service behaviour. In doing so, it provides clarifying evidence in how this construct should be conceptualised and operationalised. In addition, to the best knowledge of the author, this study is the first investigation attempting to provide empirical evidence to the nomological network of the service employee citizenship behaviour components.

The second theoretical contribution and implication made in the present study is derived from responding to the calls for investigating the interplay between job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and service employee citizenship behaviour in a holistic manner. Although the interdependence between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Luthans 2002; Rayton 2006) and the importance of both constructs in understanding employee behaviour (Tett and Meyer 1993; Harrison *et al.* 2006) are well-recognised, to date, there is no investigation that examines job satisfaction and the multi-commitment components in a simultaneous manner. Thus, by incorporating job satisfaction and three components of organisational commitment into the framework of service employee citizenship behaviour, the study was enabled to obtain a full picture of the effects of job satisfaction, affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment. This investigation can be considered as the first study to examine the synergistic role of multi-component organisational commitment and job satisfaction, in influencing service employee citizenship behaviour, thus extending the previous work in the area which had not simultaneously included such attitudinal variables. By this, the present study has offered further evidence of the essence of job satisfaction and affective commitment, as well as shed light on the importance of a neglected aspect of commitment (i.e. normative commitment) in explaining service employee citizenship behaviours. Despite the overall support for the social exchange predictions, the present study provides insight into the culture-specific nature of job attitude and employee behaviour (i.e. normative commitment and internal influence, respectively). It is proposed that culture-specific attributes should be taken into account when investigating future relationships between these constructs.

Also, the present study provides additional evidence for the three component conceptualisation of organisational commitment in Thailand. The results of the measurement model demonstrated that the three components of organisational commitment are related yet distinct factors in the present study's sample. Such results add empirical support for the generalisability of Meyer and Allen's conceptualisation of three commitment components to the non-Westernised context. Together with previous studies (i.e. Ko *et al.* 1997; Lee *et al.* 2001; Chen and Francesco 2003), future studies can utilise the three component model of organisational commitment with less concern about its cross-culture applicability, especially in Asian contexts.

Third, recognising that there is a range of cultural variations within any society (Triandis 1995; Cohen and Keren 2008), the present study is considered as one of the few studies that employed an individual-level approach in investigating the moderating role of individualism/collectivism in the citizenship behaviour area (i.e. Francesco and Chen 2004; Cohen and Keren 2008; Lester *et al.* 2008). Differing from the three mentioned studies is that this study investigated the importance of individualism/collectivism in moderating the relationship of job attitudes on the service-specific OCB as well as examined such cultural influence on the relationships among the components of service employee citizenship behaviour. The findings provide novel insights and offer empirical evidence into the literature by highlighting that different forms of citizenship behaviour are subject to individual difference in terms of individualism/collectivism. Specifically, the present study indicates that people with low collectivist values are more likely to engage in internal influence than people high in collectivism, and vice versa for external representation.

Fourth, with recognition of a lack of studies attempting to identify new antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviour (Graham and Dienesch 1991; Williams and Anderson 1991), the present study contributes to the organisational citizenship behaviour literature by conceptually and empirically demonstrating the significant influence of co-worker support and passenger cooperation on service employee citizenship behaviour. In addition, the present study contributes to the existing literature on citizenship behaviour by extending the understanding of the effect of these two factors on different forms of service employee citizenship behaviour. To the best of the author's knowledge, this study is the first examination of the effects of co-worker support and passenger cooperation and their differential strengths on the three service employee citizenship behaviour components. It is hoped that the support found for the hypotheses concerning differential influences of these newly identified factors will invoke attention and interest among scholars that, in turn, will contribute to the advancement of the research in this area.

Fifth, the current research has provided an integration of social exchange theory and the attitude-intention-behaviour framework in explaining the influence of co-worker support and passenger cooperation on service employee attitudes and behavioural consequences. Integrating Bagozzi's framework and social exchange theory, it is empirically evident that social supports perceived from individuals (i.e. co-worker support and passenger cooperation) are mediated by job attitudes (i.e. job satisfaction and organisational commitment). Therefore, the present study has shed light on the literature by emphasising the importance of job attitudes as a mediator in the support-behaviour relationship. Yet, the current author does not contend that there is no plausibility for immediate effects of co-worker support and passenger cooperation on service employee behaviours. Instead, it is contended that when job attitudes are incorporated into the conceptual framework, the effects are mediated through these job attitudes.

In addition, this present study has provided empirical evidence explaining a possible mechanism of the relationship between customer behaviour and perceived service quality. Although service scholars seem to widely accept that consumer behaviour can affect their perceived service quality and satisfaction (e.g. Schneider and Bowen 1992; 1995), a literature review revealed that the pertinent work is conceptual rather than empirical. The present study's results demonstrated that the customer can significantly influence service employee attitudinal and behavioural outcomes. Because employees are the means through which a service is delivered, it follows that these employee citizenship behaviours appear to yield customers' perceptions of service quality (see Chapter One: Section 1.2). In other words, customer behaviour influences how service employees behave, and how service employees behave in turn contribute to service quality and eventually customer satisfaction.

Finally, the majority of studies on citizenship behaviours mainly focus on Westernised settings. Yet, theoretical and empirical work suggests that non-Western cultures may respond differently. To the best knowledge of the author, there is no published study regarding the service-specific citizenship behaviour in Asia. Given the limited research in this area, this study has shed light on the organisational citizenship behaviour literature, specifically to the area of customer-contact employee behaviour in the non-Westernised service context.

10.4 Managerial implications

The key findings of the present study provide several valuable managerial suggestions for airline companies interested in excellent service delivery. This research provides robust, empirical evidence of the relationship among co-worker support, passenger cooperation, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and service employee citizenship behaviour as well as the moderating effect of individualism/collectivism. Given the increasingly intensive competition among air-travel service providers, management should be able to proactively shape, develop, and manage desirable service behaviours which are deemed to contribute to service excellence.

First, by simultaneously examining job satisfaction and the three components of organisational commitment, this study was able to identify the key attitudinal drivers of service employee citizenship behaviour. Previous research suggests that job satisfaction is strongly predictive of several forms of citizenship behaviour. The present study shows that organisations can lead service employees to engage in prosocial service behaviour and internal influence by directly enhancing their levels of job satisfaction. In addition, job satisfaction is found to be a strong antecedent of affective commitment and normative commitment. Thus, service organisations should strive to ensure that employees' positive evaluation about their jobs is as high as possible. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire measure informs practices that service organisations can use as a starting point to enhance employee job satisfaction.

Such practices include providing supportive working conditions, offering employee opportunities to work on challenging tasks, showing confidence in employees' abilities and judgments, and empowering, for example.

In comparison between the effects of affective commitment and normative commitment on prosocial service behaviour, normative commitment appears to have the stronger influence on this component of service employee citizenship behaviour. Given that different aspects of commitment have different causes (Meyer and Allen 1991), service organisations could therefore focus on factors that specifically increase this aspect of commitment. In general, organisations should implement actions that arouse employees' feelings of obligation or indebtedness such as provisions of training (Yao and Wang 2006) and management receptiveness—"the extent to which management responds to employee needs" (Iverson and Buttigieg 1999, p. 312). Given that job satisfaction and organisational commitment are important for understanding and managing employee behavioural intentions, the present study suggests that companies should periodically investigate these job attitudes of their employees in order to adjust the organisations' managerial practices. Additionally, in the light of the importance of citizenship behaviour (see Chapter One), service organisations should include these criteria in the evaluation of service employees. Such measures would provide managers with an indication of another aspect of employee performance.

Second, the findings show that, in relation to job attitudes, there is no different tendency of Thai employees in exhibiting service employee citizenship behaviour among those with high or low levels of collectivistic orientation. Yet, individuals with low collectivism are more likely to provide constructive suggestions for improving organisational service performance (i.e. internal influence) than those with high levels of collectivism. These results provide valuable suggestions for organisations in managing employees who hold different cultural values and beliefs. Broadly speaking, service organisations with a large number of employees with high collectivistic values should prioritise initiation behaviours as these actions are not naturally inherent in these individuals. A number of practices can be implemented to encourage internal influence among employees. For example, the organisation can provide training to make employees feel comfortable to make comments and suggestions. With this approach it is crucial that the supervisors and the management be non-judgemental, as people high in collectivist values "do not tolerate any affront which may be perceived as causing a loss of face" (Chatterjee and Nankervis 2007, p. 281). Alternatively, the organisation can employ an anonymous-system in making recommendations (i.e. by means of staff opinion surveys/suggestions boxes) to encourage service providers to offer ideas on service improvements.

In contrast, this study's findings reveal that where employees hold low collectivistic values, then the organisation should place importance on practices that encourage service employees to talk positively about the organisation to the outsiders (see also Bettencourt *et al.* 2005 where workplace fairness is highlighted as a means of encouraging external representation). Specifically, the organisation should strive to promote fairness in their compensation, rules, and interactions with staff. The procedures and criteria for performance evaluations should be the same throughout the entire organisation. More importantly, the decision on outcomes must be transparent and justified. Additionally, the organisations should put forth efforts to reduce employee perceptions of role-stressors and role-conflict in order to extract their external representation (see Bettencourt and Brown 2003). The organisations may consider implementing managerial practices such as offering frequent and specific feedback concerning performance, providing structured leadership guidance, and implementing clear policies which can lead to reductions in role-conflict and role ambiguity (cf. Jackson and Schuler 1985).

Third, the present study results indicate that it is essential for service employees to have supportive co-workers. One of the important implications is that service organisations, which normally require collaboration between employees to successfully deliver high quality services, should focus on managing and encouraging support among employees in the workplace because such co-worker support would enhance employees' work attitudes and ultimately service performance. Some possible practices that can be used to increase employees' perceptions of co-worker support are, for example, building employees' perceptions of high levels of standards for service delivery (Susskind *et al.* 2003) and/or creating a supportive working environment and culture.

Another important finding for management is that contact employees' cognitive appraisals of passenger cooperation in the service delivery process have direct, positive impacts on job satisfaction, and indirectly influences prosocial service behaviour and internal influence. Therefore, management should view customers as partial employees (Bowen 1986; Mills and Morris 1986) and should recognise the importance of customer behaviour. Service organisations should also design and implement practices that invoke active, cooperative participation from customers, and establish mechanisms to foster customer cooperation during service provision. One such practice is the socialisation process of service customers (Bowen and Schneider 1985; Kelly *et al.* 1990; Kelly *et al.* 1992) which provides the customer with organisationally specific behavioural guidelines (Mills 1986). As service scripts are recognised as an important factor shaping behaviours during service encounters (Harris *et al.* 2003), service organisations can provide a clear 'service script' to shape customer behaviours during the service process. As Lovelock *et al.* (2005), among others (e.g. Grove and Fisk 1997), stated, customers also make judgments about other customers. It is a belief of the author that organisation's ability to enhance desirable behaviours of the customer would not only contribute to a higher level of service employee performance, but also to customers' evaluation of service quality as a whole.

Finally, the results which demonstrate that individual-related factors (referred to as co-worker support and passenger cooperation in this study) have stronger influences on individual-directed SECB (i.e. prosocial service behaviour) than organisation-directed SECB (i.e. internal influence) provide implicit implications for service organisations to motivate different categories of service behaviours. For instance, if service organisations are willing to have employees engage particularly in internal influence, they should ensure a provision of organisation-related factors such as organisational support and justices. However, given that resources are limited, the results from the nomological network among the service employee citizenship behaviour components suggest service organisations increase levels of prosocial service behaviour as the first priority because this form of employee behaviour is positively related to internal influence and external representation.

10.5 Limitations and future research

There are always limitations associated with any study and this study is no exception. The following section highlights several limitations of the present study with a view to stimulating potential avenues for future research.

First, caution should be exercised in attempts to generalise from these findings. The study respondents are employees of a single organisation operating in the airline industry based in Thailand, which may limit the generalisibility of our findings. On the other hand, the company is a founding member of a global code sharing strategic alliance. Whether or not the findings possess external validity is a matter for future research to discover. Moreover, the study is cross-sectional. We can only conclude that our model is a feasible explanation of the observed relationships in the data, hence meaning that our ability to infer causality of behaviour is limited. The direction of paths in the research model relies heavily on prior empirical and conceptual studies.

Second, the research findings shed light on the importance of normative commitment as a potential predictor of citizenship behaviours. In particular, the unexpected negative relationship between normative commitment and internal influence provides a worthy avenue for future investigation. Future studies may investigate whether this result holds in other collectivistic or individualistic cultural settings.

Third, as the moderating of individualism/collectivism was not found in the present study's sample which was collected from just one organisation based in a country characterised by high collectivistic values, it may be interesting to see if this result is generalisable to a sample collected from many organisations based in different industries. It is also worth mentioning that the instrumental measure of individualism/collectivism employed in this study (i.e. items taken from Hofstede 1980) was initially aimed to capture differences of this cultural dimension at the national level (i.e. using samples from different countries). Therefore, future studies that intend to examine individual-level of individualism/collectivism could consider using measures which are specifically developed to capture this facet of culture at the individual level (cf. Triandis and Gelfand's (1998) sixteen item measure).

This finding also offers a promising research avenue for a future study to consider the moderating role of other organisational culture nuances. Future research could collect data from employees who are from the same nation, but work in organisations with different cultural orientations (e.g. Western airlines using Asian staff versus Asian airlines using Asian staff). Moreover, a cross-cultural study that considers both individualistic and collectivistic societies (e.g. United States versus Japan) and measures individual levels of individualism/collectivism could contribute further insight into how this cultural dimension influenced the relationships between job attitudes and citizenship behaviours.

Fourth, although co-worker support and passenger cooperation are found to have stronger influences on individual-directed behaviour (i.e. prosocial service behaviour) than on organisation-directed behaviour (i.e. internal influence and external representation), the present study did not include organisational factors. Therefore, future research may also incorporate organisational factors (e.g. perceived organisational support) into the framework. Findings from such investigations would significantly enhance confidence regarding the predictions, made on the social exchange theory, about the differential strengths of different factors in determining different components of organisational citizenship behaviour.

Fifth, due to the focus of the present study, service employee citizenship behaviour was conceptualised as the ultimate dependent variable. Thus, the argument regarding the effect of customer behaviour on service quality and satisfaction is made on existing empirical studies that found the relationship between citizenship behaviours and service quality. This suggests future research directly include perceived service quality and satisfaction into the investigative model in order to obtain empirical evidence of this phenomenon in a synergic manner. Such research could greatly extend our current understanding.

Finally, although the present study has shed light on the relationship between customer behaviour and employee responses, the conceptual framework included only one form of customer behaviour (i.e. cooperation). Hence, future studies may consider the effects of other potential forms of customer behaviour during service provision, such as physical expression and verbal expression, on service employees' responses. Also, some dispositional characteristics of service employees are worth future investigation as at least one characteristic, which is 'having service-minded', is emerged from the qualitative interview as a reason for informants' engagement in citizenship behaviours.

Despite these limitations, this thesis has addressed a number of key gaps in the organisational citizenship behaviour literature. Furthermore, two important sources of support (i.e. co-worker and customers) in affecting service employee attitudes and behaviours were demonstrated. Several scholars have expressed the need to conduct further research in these areas, and the author believes that this study has made a significant contribution to the extant literature. It is certainly hoped that the account provided in this thesis will prove to be of value to other scholars and will encourage the continued study in these significant areas.

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Appendices

Appendix One

1. Questionnaire (English version)
2. Questionnaire (Thai version)

CARDIFF UNIVERSITY

PRIFYSGOL CAERDYDD

Employee Questionnaire

This is a survey of people working as flight attendants. The objective of this study is to understand whether and how in-role and extra-role performance develop in the airline sector.

There are no right or wrong answers to the questions; you simply need to tick the responses closest to your ***own*** views.

Please note that all information obtained will be treated with the strictest confidence. Completed questionnaire or individual responses will not be disclosed to anyone in your authority or elsewhere.

The questionnaire should take no longer than 20 minutes to complete. I would appreciate it if you could return your completed questionnaire to the relevant member of staff or a box provided at the crew centre within one week.

If you need any help or want to know more about this research project, please feel free to contact:

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Section I: Your Behaviour (Overall view, i.e. not specific to one particular flight)

Please circle or tick one number in each row, to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements describing YOUR BEHAVIOR

		Strongly disagree	Dis-agree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I help other employees who have heavy workloads	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those employees around me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I help orient new employees even though it is not required	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I do not voluntarily give my time to help other employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I willingly help others who have work related problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I tell outsiders this is a great place to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I generate favourable goodwill for the company	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I say good things about the company to others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I encourage friends and family to use the company's products and services	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I make constructive suggestions for service improvement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I contribute many ideas for customer promotions and communications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	I share creative solutions to customer problems with other team members	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	I encourage co-workers to contribute ideas and suggestions for service improvement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	I perform all those tasks for passengers that are required of them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	I meet formal performance requirements when serving passengers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	I fulfil responsibilities to passengers as specified in the job description	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	I adequately complete all expected passenger-service behaviours	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	I help passengers with those things which are required of them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	I voluntarily assist passengers even if it means going beyond job requirements	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	I help passengers with problems beyond what is expected or required	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	I often go above and beyond the call of duty when serving passengers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	I willingly go out of my way to make a passenger satisfied	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	I frequently go out the way to help a passenger	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section II: Your Organisation & Your Job (Overall view, i.e. not specific to one particular flight)

Please circle or tick one number in each row, to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements describing YOUR ORGANITION AND YOUR JOB

		Strongly disagree	Dis-agree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I do not feel emotionally attached to this organisation (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I do not feel like part of the family at my organisation (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of necessity as much as desire	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	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
9	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organisation now	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I feel that I have few options to consider leaving this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	If I had not already put so much of myself into this organisation, I might consider working elsewhere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organisation would be the scarcity of available alternatives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	I would feel guilty if I left this organisation now	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	This organisation deserves my loyalty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	I owe a great deal to my organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	I am able to keep busy all the time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	I have chance to work alone on the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	I have chance to do different things from time to time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	I have chance to be "somebody" in the community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	I am satisfied with the way my boss handle his/her workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	My supervisor has competence in making decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		Strongly disagree	Dis-agree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
25	I am able to do things that don't go against my conscience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	I am satisfied with the way my job provides for steady employment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	I have chance to do things for other people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	I have chance to tell people what to do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	I have chance to do things that make use of my ability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	I am satisfied with the way company policies are put into practice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	I am satisfied with my pay and amount of work I do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	I have chance for advancement on this job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	I have freedom to use my own judgement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	I have chance to try my own methods of doing the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	I am satisfied with the working conditions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36	My co-workers get along with each other	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37	I get praise for doing a good job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38	I get the feeling of accomplishment from the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section III: Your Co-workers (Overall view, i.e. not specific to one particular flight)

Please circle or tick one number in each row, to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements describing CO-WORKER ATTRIBUTES

		Strongly disagree	Dis-agree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	My co-workers are supportive of my goals and values	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Help is available from my co-workers when I have a problem	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	My co-workers really care about my well-being	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	My co-workers are willing to offer assistance to help me to perform my job to the best of my ability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Even if I did the best job possible, my co-workers would fail to notice (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	My co-workers care about my general satisfaction at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	My co-workers show very little concern for me (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	My co-workers care about my opinions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	My co-workers are complimentary of my accomplishment at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section IV: Your Passengers (Overall view, i.e. not specific to one particular flight)

Please circle or tick one number in each row, to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements describing PASSENGER ATTRIBUTES

		Strongly disagree	Dis-agree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	Passengers try to keep the plane clean (e.g. not leaving rubbish on the aisle)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Passengers carefully observe the rules and policies of the airline	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Passengers treat the airline's staff with kindness and respect	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Passengers do things to make my jobs easier (e.g. ready for substitutes when something is not available)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Passengers give the full cooperation when I ask for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Passengers endeavour to avoid requesting tasks that are not required of me (e.g. put carry-on bags in overhead bin)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section V: Your Personal Beliefs

Please circle or tick one number in each row, to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements describing YOUR PERSONAL BELIEFS AND VALUES

		Strongly disagree	Dis-agree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	Being accepted as a member of a group is more important than having autonomy and independence	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Being accepted as a member of a group is more important than being independent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Group success is more important than individual success	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Being loyal to a group is more important than individual gain	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Individual rewards are not as important as group welfare	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	It is more important for a manager to encourage loyalty and a sense of duty in subordinates than it is to encourage individual initiative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		Strongly disagree	Dis-agree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
11	No matter who I am talking to, I am always a good listener	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	I am always willing to admit it when I make a mistake	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favours of me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Finally, to enable the analysis of the survey data, it is important that some background information is provided. Please be assured that the information provided will NOT be traced back to you.

Section VI: General Background Information

Please fill the gap or tick one box in each question that applies to you.

1. Gender ☐ Male ☐ Female

2. Your age is.........................years

3. Marital status ☐ Single ☐ Married ☐ Divorced/Widowed

4. Please choose ONE answer from this list to indicate your ethnic group and cultural background

☐ Thai ☐ Chinese ☐ Caucasian ☐ Others (please specify)......

5. Highest education obtained

☐ Below A-level
☐ A level
☐ Bachelors Degree or equivalent
☐ Postgraduate Diploma
☐ Masters Degree or equivalent
☐ PhD Degree or equivalent
☐ Others (Please specify)....................

6. You have been working with this organisation for .... years

7. Your position in this organisation is ....

8. What is your average flight haul (i.e. per single flight)? ☐ Under 5 hours ☐ 6-7 hrs ☐ Over 7 hours

9. What type of cabin you serve? ☐ Economy ☐ Business ☐ First ☐ Other (please specify)..................

10. What is you average number of flight per month? ....

11. Destinations to which you most fly

☐ South Eastern Asia ☐ Aus/New Zealand ☐ Southern Asia
☐ Eastern Asia ☐ Middle East ☐ Eastern Europe
☐ Western Europe ☐ North America ☐ South America
☐ Africa

12. You have been working as flight attendant for .... years (also include experience with previous organisation(s), if any)

13. What was/were previous airline(s) you worked with? (1)..................... (2) ....

14. Please indicate your current monthly equivalent income, before tax and deductions? ....

~ *Thank you for your cooperation* ~

Please now place the questionnaire in the sealed envelope provided and hand it back to the person in your authority responsible for collecting questionnaire on my behalf. Do not hesitate to give me a call if you are concerned about the confidentiality of your response.

แบบสอบถามพนักงาน

โครงการวิจัยนี้ เป็นการศึกษาเกี่ยวกับการปฏิบัติงานในหน้าที่ที่ได้รับมอบหมาย และงานที่นอกเหนือจากหน้าที่ที่ได้รับมอบหมายของพนักงานต้อนรับบนเครื่องบิน โดยคำถามแต่ละข้อนั้นไม่มีคำตอบที่ถูกหรือผิด ท่านเพียงตอบให้ตรงกับความคิดเห็นของท่านให้มากที่สุด *ข้อมูลที่ท่านให้มาจะถูกเก็บไว้เป็นความลับ และไม่ถูกนำไปเปิดเผยให้กับบุคคลในหน่วยงานของท่าน หรือที่อื่นใดเป็นอันขาด*

แบบสอบถามนี้ใช้เวลาไม่เกิน 20 นาทีในการตอบ และเมื่อท่านได้ตอบแบบสอบถามเสร็จครบทุกข้อเสร็จสมบูรณ์แล้ว ขอความกรุณาให้ท่านนำแบบสอบถามใส่ลงในซองจดหมายที่แนบมาและโปรดปิดผนึกส่งคืนให้กับบุคคลที่เกี่ยวข้องต่อไป

หากท่านมีข้อเสนอแนะ หรือต้องการข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับโครงการวิจัยครั้งนี้เพิ่มเติม กรุณาติดต่อ

ธนวัต ลิมป์พาณิชย์กุล*
นักศึกษาระดับปริญญาเอก
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หมายเหตุ การแจกแบบสอบถามนี้ ได้รับอนุญาตจากทางหน่วย QV เป็นที่เรียบร้อยแล้ว

ตอนที่ 1: พฤติกรรมของท่าน (โดยภาพรวม ไม่เฉพาะเจาะจงเที่ยวบินใดเที่ยวบินหนึ่ง)

โปรดวงกลมหรือทำเครื่องหมายบนตัวเลขใดตัวเลขหนึ่งในแต่ละแถว เพื่อแสดงระดับความเห็นด้วยหรือไม่เห็นด้วยในข้อความต่อไปนี้ที่อธิบายพฤติกรรมของท่าน

		ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	ไม่ลงความเห็นใดๆทั้งสิ้น	เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
1	ข้าพเจ้าช่วยเหลือพนักงานคนอื่นๆ ที่มีภาระงานหนัก	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	ข้าพเจ้าพร้อมเสมอที่จะช่วยงานพนักงานคนอื่นๆ ที่อยู่รอบข้าง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	ข้าพเจ้าช่วยแนะนำการทำงานให้กับพนักงานใหม่ ทั้งที่มิใช่ภาระงานที่ต้องทำ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	ข้าพเจ้า<u>ไม่</u>สมัครใจที่จะสละเวลาช่วยเหลือพนักงานคนอื่นๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	ข้าพเจ้าเต็มใจที่จะช่วยเหลือพนักงานคนอื่นๆที่มีปัญหาเกี่ยวกับงานที่ทำ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	ข้าพเจ้า<u>ไม่</u>บอกคนภายนอกว่าองค์กรนี้เป็นสถานที่ทำงานที่ดีมาก	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	ข้าพเจ้ามีความปรารถนาดีกับองค์กรนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	ข้าพเจ้าพูดสิ่งดีๆ เกี่ยวกับองค์กรนี้ให้คนอื่นฟัง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	ข้าพเจ้าสนับสนุนเพื่อนและบุคคลในครอบครัวให้ใช้ผลิตภัณฑ์และบริการขององค์กร	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	ข้าพเจ้าเสนอแนะอย่างสร้างสรรค์ในการปรับปรุงการบริการ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	ข้าพเจ้าร่วมเสนอแนะความคิดเห็นในการส่งเสริมและการสื่อสารกับลูกค้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	ข้าพเจ้าร่วมแก้ปัญหาต่างๆ เกี่ยวกับลูกค้าอย่างสร้างสรรค์กับสมาชิกในทีมคนอื่นๆ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	ข้าพเจ้ากระตุ้นให้ผู้ร่วมงานเสนอความคิดเห็นและข้อเสนอแนะในการปรับปรุงการบริการ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	ข้าพเจ้าปฏิบัติภารกิจต่อผู้โดยสารครบถ้วนตามที่บริษัทกำหนด	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	ไม่ลงความเห็นใดๆทั้งสิ้น	เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
15	ข้าพเจ้าปฏิบัติภารกิจได้อย่างสมบูรณ์ตามข้อกำหนดในการให้บริการผู้โดยสาร	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	ข้าพเจ้าปฏิบัติหน้าที่เต็มตามความรับผิดชอบที่กำหนดในภาระงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	ข้าพเจ้ามีพฤติกรรมครบถ้วนตามที่กำนดในการให้บริการผู้โดยสาร	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	ข้าพเจ้าช่วยเหลือผู้โดยสารในสิ่งที่ผู้โดยสารร้องขอ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	ข้าพเจ้าเต็มใจช่วยเหลือผู้โดยสาร แม้จะเป็นสิ่งที่นอกเหนือไปจากภาระหน้าที่ที่กำหนด	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	ข้าพเจ้า<u>ไม่ให้</u>ความช่วยเหลือผู้โดยสารในสิ่งที่นอกเหนือไปจากภาระหน้าที่ที่กำหนด	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	บ่อยครั้งที่ข้าพเจ้าปฏิบัตินอกเหนือไปจากหน้าที่ที่ต้องปฏิบัติในการให้บริการผู้โดยสาร	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	ข้าพเจ้าเต็มใจที่จะปฏิบัตินอกเหนือหน้าที่ เพื่อทำให้ผู้โดยสารพึงพอใจ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	ข้าพเจ้ามักจะปฏิบัตินอกเหนือหน้าที่เป็นพิเศษอยู่เสมอๆ เพื่อช่วยเหลือผู้โดยสาร	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ตอนที่ 2: เกี่ยวกับตำแหน่งงานของท่าน (โดยภาพรวม ไม่เฉพาะเจาะจงเที่ยวบินใดเที่ยวบินหนึ่ง)

โปรดวงกลมหรือทำเครื่องหมายบนตัวเลขใดตัวเลขหนึ่งในแต่ละแถว เพื่อแสดงระดับความเห็นด้วยหรือไม่เห็นด้วยในข้อความต่อไปนี้ที่อธิบาย<u>ตำแหน่งงานของท่าน</u>

		ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	ไม่ลงความเห็นใดๆทั้งสิ้น	เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
1	ข้าพเจ้าสามารถหางานให้ตนเองทำได้ตลอดเวลา	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	ข้าพเจ้ามีโอกาสที่จะปฏัติงานได้ตามลำพัง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	ไม่ลงความเห็นใดๆทั้งสิ้น	เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
3	ข้าพเจ้ามีโอกาสได้ทำสิ่งที่แตกต่างออกไปบ้างเป็นครั้งคราว	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	ข้าพเจ้ามีโอกาสที่จะเป็น “บุคคลสำคัญ” ในที่ทำงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	ข้าพเจ้าพึงพอใจวิธีการที่หัวหน้าของข้าพเจ้าปฏิบัติต่อพนักงานที่อยู่ในความดูแล	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	หัวหน้าของข้าพเจ้ามีความสามารถในการตัดสินใจ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	ข้าพเจ้าสามารถที่จะทำสิ่งต่างๆ ได้โดยไม่ขัดกับความรู้สึกผิดชอบชั่วดี	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	ข้าพเจ้าพึงพอใจกับงานของข้าพเจ้าที่มี ว่าเป็นอาชีพที่มีความมั่นคง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	ข้าพเจ้ามีโอกาสที่จะทำสิ่งต่างๆ เพื่อคนอื่น	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	ข้าพเจ้ามีโอกาสที่จะบอกกับผู้อื่นในสิ่งที่ข้าพเจ้าทำ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	ข้าพเจ้ามีโอกาสทำสิ่งต่างๆ ที่ได้ใช้ความสามารถของข้าพเจ้าให้เป็นประโยชน์	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	ข้าพเจ้าพึงพอใจกับวิธีการที่นโยบายขององค์กรถูกนำไปสู่การปฏิบัติ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	ข้าพเจ้าพึงพอใจกับค่าตอบแทนและปริมาณงานที่ข้าพเจ้าทำ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	ข้าพเจ้ามีโอกาสที่จะก้าวหน้าต่อไปในอาชีพที่ข้าพเจ้าทำอยู่นี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	ข้าพเจ้ามีอิสระในการใช้วิจารณญาณของข้าพเจ้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	ข้าพเจ้ามีโอกาสลองใช้วิธีการของข้าพเจ้าเองในการปฏิบัติงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	ข้าพเจ้าพึงพอใจกับสภาพการทำงานในปัจจุบัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	เพื่อนร่วมงานของข้าพเจ้าเข้ากันได้ด้วยดี	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	ข้าพเจ้าได้รับคำชมเชยเมื่อปฏิบัติงานได้ดี	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	ข้าพเจ้าเกิดความรู้สึกของความสำเร็จจากงานที่ทำ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	ข้าพเจ้ามีความสุขที่จะใช้เวลาที่เหลืออยู่ในการประกอบอาชีพกับองค์กรนี้ต่อไป	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	ไม่ลงความเห็นใดๆทั้งสิ้น	เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
22	ข้าพเจ้าเกิดความรู้สึกว่า ปัญหาต่างๆ ขององค์กรคือปัญหาของข้าพเจ้าด้วยเช่นกัน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	ข้าพเจ้า<u>ไม่</u>มีความรู้สึกว่า ข้าพเจ้าเป็นส่วนหนึ่งขององค์กรนี้อย่างแท้จริง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	ข้าพเจ้า<u>ไม่</u>มีความผูกพันทางจิตใจกับองค์กรนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	ข้าพเจ้า<u>ไม่</u>รู้สึกว่าองค์กรที่ข้าพเจ้าทำงานอยู่เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของครอบครัว	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	โดยส่วนตัวแล้ว องค์กรนี้มีความสำคัญกับข้าพเจ้าเป็นอย่างมาก	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	ปัจจุบันนี้ การอยู่กับองค์กรนี้เป็นเรื่องของความจำเป็นมากเทียบเท่ากับความปรารถนา	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	เป็นเรื่องยากมากสำหรับข้าพเจ้าถ้าจะลาออกจากองค์กรในขณะนี้ แม้ว่าข้าพเจ้าอยากที่จะออกไปก็ตาม	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	ชีวิตส่วนใหญ่ของข้าพเจ้าจะชะงักงัน หากข้าพเจ้าตัดสินที่จะลาออกจากองค์กรไปในขณะนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	ข้าพเจ้ามีความรู้สึกว่า ข้าพเจ้ามีทางเลือกน้อยมาก หากข้าพเจ้าคิดที่จะลาออกจากองค์กรนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	หากข้าพเจ้า<u>ไม่ได้</u>ทุ่มเทให้กับองค์กรนี้เป็นอย่างมาก ข้าพเจ้าอาจพิจารณาไปทำงานที่อื่น	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	ผลในทางลบที่เกิดขึ้นอย่างหนึ่งของการออกจากองค์กรนี้ก็คือ จะทำให้โอกาสในการเลือกอาชีพอื่นของข้าพเจ้าลดน้อยลงมาก	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	ข้าพเจ้า<u>ไม่ได้</u>รู้สึกว่ามีข้อผูกมัดใดๆกับผู้จ้างงานในปัจจุบันของข้าพเจ้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	แม้ว่าจะเป็นเพื่อผลประโยชน์ของตัวข้าพเจ้าเอง ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกว่าไม่เป็นการยุติธรรมหากจะออกจากองค์กรนี้ในขณะนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	ข้าพเจ้าจะรู้สึกละอายแก่ใจหากข้าพเจ้าจะออกจากองค์กรนี้ในขณะนี้	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	ไม่ลงความเห็นใด ๆ ทั้งสิ้น	เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
36	องค์กรนี้สมควรได้รับความจงรักภักดีจากข้าพเจ้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37	ข้าพเจ้าจะไม่ออกจากองค์กรแห่งนี้ในขณะนี้ เพราะข้าพเจ้ามีความรู้สึกผูกพันกับผู้คนในองค์กร	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38	ข้าพเจ้าเป็นหนี้บุญคุณอย่างใหญ่หลวงกับองค์กรของข้าพเจ้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ตอนที่ 3: เพื่อนร่วมงานของท่าน (โดยภาพรวม ไม่เฉพาะเจาะจงเที่ยวบินใดเที่ยวบินหนึ่ง)

โปรดวงกลมหรือทำเครื่องหมายบนตัวเลขใดตัวเลขหนึ่งในแต่ละแถว เพื่อแสดงระดับความเห็นด้วยหรือไม่เห็นด้วยในข้อความต่อไปนี้ที่อธิบายลักษณะของเพื่อนร่วมงานของท่าน

		ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	ไม่ลงความเห็นใด ๆ ทั้งสิ้น	เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
1	เพื่อนร่วมงานของข้าพเจ้าให้การสนับสนุนเป้าหมายของข้าพเจ้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	เมื่อข้าพเจ้ามีปัญหา เพื่อนร่วมงานของข้าพเจ้าพร้อมที่จะให้ความช่วยเหลือเสมอ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	เพื่อนร่วมงานของข้าพเจ้าสนใจในความเป็นอยู่ที่ดีของข้าพเจ้าอย่างจริงจัง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	เพื่อนร่วมงานของข้าพเจ้าเต็มใจให้ความช่วยเหลือเพื่อให้ข้าพเจ้าปฏิบัติงานได้เต็มความสามารถ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	แม้ข้าพเจ้าจะปฏิบัติงานอย่างดีที่สุดเท่าที่จะทำได้ เพื่อนร่วมงานของข้าพเจ้าก็ไม่เคยสังเกตเห็น	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	เพื่อนร่วมงานของข้าพเจ้าสนใจความพึงพอใจโดยทั่วไปของข้าพเจ้าในการทำงาน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	เพื่อนร่วมงานของข้าพเจ้าแสดงความใยดีในตัว	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	ไม่ลงความเห็นใดๆทั้งสิ้น	เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
	ข้าพเจ้าน้อยมาก							
8	เพื่อนร่วมงานของข้าพเจ้าแสดงความสนใจในความคิดเห็นของข้าพเจ้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	เพื่อนร่วมงานของข้าพเจ้ายกย่องชมเชยในความสำเร็จในการทำงานของข้าพเจ้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ตอนที่ 4: ผู้โดยสารของท่าน (โดยภาพรวม ไม่เฉพาะเจาะจงเที่ยวบินใดเที่ยวบินหนึ่ง)

โปรดวงกลมหรือทำเครื่องหมายบนตัวเลขใดตัวเลขหนึ่งในแต่ละแถว เพื่อแสดงระดับความเห็นด้วยหรือไม่เห็นด้วยในข้อความต่อไปนี้ที่อธิบาย<u>คุณลักษณะของผู้โดยสาร</u>

		ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	ไม่ลงความเห็นใดๆทั้งสิ้น	เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
1	ผู้โดยสารพยายามที่จะรักษาความสะอาดบนเครื่องบิน (เช่น ไม่ทิ้งขยะลงบนพื้น)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	ผู้โดยสารเชื่อฟัง ปฏิบัติตามกฎระเบียบและนโยบายของสายการบิน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	ผู้โดสารมักปฏิบัติต่อพนักงานของสายการบินด้วยความเป็นมิตรและให้เกียรติ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	ผู้โดยสารทำในสิ่งที่ช่วยให้ข้าพเจ้าปฏิบัติงานได้ง่ายขึ้น (เช่น ยอมรับสิ่งอื่นทดแทนในกรณีที่สิ่งนั้นไม่สามารถจัดให้ได้)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	ผู้โดยสารให้ความร่วมมืออย่างเต็มที่เมื่อข้าพเจ้าขอร้อง	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	ผู้โดยสารพยายามหลีกเลี่ยงการขอร้องให้ปฏิบัติภารกิจที่มิใช่ภารกิจที่ข้าพเจ้าต้องปฏิบัติ (เช่น วางกระเป๋าที่ถือขึ้นเครื่องบินไว้บนช่องเก็บของเหนือศีรษะ)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ตอนที่ 5: ความเชื่อส่วนตัว

โปรดวงกลมหรือทำเครื่องหมายบนตัวเลขใดตัวเลขหนึ่งในแต่ละแถว เพื่อแสดงระดับความเห็นด้วยหรือไม่เห็นด้วยในข้อความต่อไปนี้ที่อธิบาย<u>ความเชื่อส่วนตัวและค่านิยม</u>

		ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	ไม่ลงความเห็นใดๆทั้งสิ้น	เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
1	การได้รับการยอมรับว่าเป็นสมาชิกคนหนึ่งของกลุ่ม สำคัญกว่าการมีอิสระเสรีและการไม่ขึ้นอยู่กับใคร	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	การได้รับการยอมรับว่าเป็นสมาชิกคนหนึ่งของกลุ่ม สำคัญกว่าการไม่ขึ้นอยู่กับใคร	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	ความสำเร็จของกลุ่มสำคัญกว่าความสำเร็จส่วนบุคคล	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	ความจงรักภักดีต่อกลุ่มสำคัญกว่าผลประโยชน์ของแต่ละบุคคล	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	สิ่งตอบแทนของแต่ละบุคคลไม่สำคัญเท่ากับสวัสดิการของกลุ่ม	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	การที่หัวหน้าส่งเสริมให้เกิดความจงรักภักดีและสำนึกในหน้าที่ของผู้ใต้บังคับบัญชา สำคัญกว่าการส่งเสริมให้เกิดความคิดสร้างสรรค์ของแต่ละบุคคล	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	บางครั้งข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกว่าเป็นการยากลำบากในการทำงานของข้าพเจ้า หากมิได้รับการสนับสนุน	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	บางครั้งข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกขุ่นเคืองเมื่อไม่ได้ดังใจ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	บางครั้งข้าพเจ้าล้มเลิกการกระทำบางอย่าง เพราะข้าพเจ้าคิดว่าไม่มีความสามารถพอ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	มีบางครั้งที่ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกอยากขัดขืนผู้มีอำนาจทั้งๆ ที่ข้าพเจ้ารู้ว่าพวกเขาทำถูก	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	ไม่ว่าข้าพเจ้าจะพูดกับใครก็ตาม ข้าพเจ้ามักเป็นผู้ฟังที่ดีเสมอ	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	มีบางโอกาสที่ข้าพเจ้าเอาเปรียบผู้อื่น	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	ข้าพเจ้าเต็มใจยอมรับเสมอเมื่อข้าพเจ้าทำผิด	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	บางครั้งข้าพเจ้าพยายามแก้แค้นมากกว่าที่จะให้อภัย	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	ไม่ลงความเห็นใดๆทั้งสิ้น	เห็นด้วยเล็กน้อย	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
	หรือปล่อยให้ลืมไป							
15	ข้าพเจ้ามักสุภาพเอื้อเฟื้อแม้กับคนที่ไม่ดีด้วยกับข้าพเจ้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	ข้าพเจ้าไม่เคยรู้สึกรำคาญ เมื่อคนอื่นเสนอความคิดเห็นที่แตกต่างไปจากความคิดเห็นของข้าพเจ้า	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	มีบางครั้งที่ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกอิจฉาความโชคดีของคนอื่น	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	บางครั้งข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกฉุนเฉียวผู้ที่ขอร้องให้ข้าพเจ้าช่วย	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	ข้าพเจ้าไม่เคยพูดอะไรโดยเจตนาที่จะทำร้ายความรู้สึกของผู้อื่น	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

เพื่อให้ข้อมูลที่สำรวจนำไปวิเคราะห์ จำเป็นอย่างยิ่งที่จะต้องทราบข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับภูมิหลังบางประการ โปรดมั่นใจได้ว่าข้อมูลที่ท่านให้จะไม่มีผลย้อนกลับมายังตัวท่านแต่อย่างใด

ตอนที่ 6: ข้อมูลทั่วไป

กรุณาเติมในช่องว่างหรือใส่เครื่องหมาย ☑ ที่ตรงกับท่านในแต่ละข้อ

1. เพศ ☐ ชาย ☐ หญิง

2. อายุ......................ปี

3. สถานภาพสมรส ☐ โสด ☐ สมรส ☐ หย่า / หม้าย

4. กรุณาเลือกคำตอบเพียงหนึ่งข้อที่แสดงเชื้อชาติของท่าน
   ☐ ไทย ☐ จีน ☐ ชาวยุโรป ☐ อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ)................

5. การศึกษาสูงสุด
   ☐ ระดับมัธยมศึกษาตอนต้น ☐ ระดับมัธยมศึกษาตอนปลาย
   ☐ การศึกษาวิชาชีพเฉพาะด้าน ☐ ปวช/ปวส
   ☐ ปริญญาตรีหรือเทียบเท่า ☐ สูงกว่าระดับปริญญาตรี
   ☐ อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ)................

6. ท่านทำงานในองค์กรนี้มาเป็นเวลา...............................ปี

7. ตำแหน่งที่เป็นทางการปัจจุบันของท่านในองค์กรนี้คือ..

8. จำนวนชั่วโมงการบินฉลี่ย (ต่อหนึ่งเที่ยวบิน) ☐ ต่ำกว่า 5 ชั่วโมง ☐ 6 - 7 ชั่วโมง ☐ มากกว่า 7 ชั่วโมง

9. ชนิดของห้องโดยสารที่ท่านให้บริการบ่อยมากที่สุด ☐ ชั้นประหยัด ☐ ชั้นธุรกิจ ☐ ชั้นหนึ่ง ☐ อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ).........................

10. จำนวนเที่ยวบินเฉลี่ย (จำนวน sectors/ตุ๊บ) ต่อเดือนคือ...............................ครั้ง

11. จุดหมายปลายทางที่ท่านบินไปมากที่สุด (เลือกเพียง 1 ข้อ)
    - ☐ เอเชียตะวันออกเฉียงใต้ (เช่น สิงคโปร์ อินโดนีเซีย)
    - ☐ เอเชียใต้ (เช่น อินเดีย ศรีลังกา)
    - ☐ เอเชียตะวันออก (เช่น ญี่ปุ่น เกาหลี)
    - ☐ ตะวันออกกลาง (เช่น สหรัฐอาหรับเอมิเรตส์)
    - ☐ ยุโรปกลางและยุโรปตะวันออก
    - ☐ ยุโรปตะวันตก (เช่น ประเทศในกลุ่ม EU)
    - ☐ อเมริกาเหนือ
    - ☐ อเมริกากลางและอเมริกาใต้
    - ☐ แอฟริกา
    - ☐ ออสเตรเลีย/นิวซีแลนด์

12. ท่านเคยทำงานในตำแหน่งพนักงานบริการบนเครื่องบินมาเป็นเวลา...................ปี (รวมการทำงานกับองค์กรเดิม, ถ้ามี)

13. สายการบินที่ท่านเคยทำงานด้วยก่อนหน้านี้ (1)....................................(2)..............................

14. รายได้ต่อเดือนทั้งหมดในปัจจุบัน ก่อนการหักภาษีและค่าลดหย่อน..

✦ขอขอบคุณในความร่วมมือ✦

กรุณานำแบบสอบถามใส่ซองและปิดผนึก และส่งกลับมายังเจ้าหน้าที่ที่ได้รับมอบหมายในการเก็บรวบรวมแบบสอบถาม หากมีข้อสงสัยหรือคำถามกรุณาโทรสอบถาม 084-1220450

Appendix Two

1. Perceptions of behaviours as in-role versus extra-role
2. Independent t-test results of items
3. Skewness and kurtosis values of measurement items
4. Variance inflated factor (VIF)
5. Results of item analysis

1. **Perceptions of behaviours as in-role versus extra-role (in percentage)**

Construct	Items	In-role (%)	Extra-role (%)
In-role service delivery	INR1	100	-
	INR2	100	-
	INR3	100	-
	INR4	100	-
	INR5	100	-
Extra-role service delivery	EXR1	25	75
	EXR2	91.7	8.3
	EXR3	100	-
	EXR4	75	25
	EXR5	75	25
Cooperation	COOP1	100	-
	COOP2	100	-
	COOP3	66.67	33.33
	COOP4	83.33	16.67
	COOP5	100	-
Internal influence	INT1	16.67	83.33
	INT2	-	100
	INT3	25	75
	INT4	-	100
External representation	EXT1	-	100
	EXT2	-	100
	EXT3	-	100
	EXT4	-	100

2. Independent t-test results of items

Items	t-value	p-value	Items	t-value	p-value
COOP1	.000	1.000	CC2	-.813	.417
COOP2	-.103	.918	CC3	.047	.963
COOP3	-1.178	.240	CC4	-.626	.532
COOP4	-1.509	.113	CC5	-.303	.762
COOP5	-1.127	.261	CC6	.398	.691
EXT1	-.420	.675	NC1	1.171	.243
EXT2	.323	.747	NC2	-.666	.507
EXT3	.951	3.43	NC3	2.045	.043
EXT4	2.002	.047	NC4	-.398	.691
INT1	.778	.438	NC5	.592	.555
INT2	1.458	.147	NC6	-.941	.348
INT3	-.536	.593	CWS1	3.084	.002
INT4	.885	.377	CWS2	2.116	.036
INR1	.168	.867	CWS3	1.919	.057
INR2	-.191	.849	CWS4	.662	.509
INR3	-.361	.719	CWS5	-2.607	.010
INR4	.000	1.000	CWS6	.483	.630
INR5	-.191	.849	CWS7	-1.266	.207
EXR1	1.089	.278	CWS8	-1.027	.306
EXR2	-2.281	.024	CWS9	-.888	.376
EXR3	-.411	.681	PSC1	-.609	.543
EXR4	.124	.902	PSC2	.246	.806
EXR5	-.775	.440	PSC3	-.618	.538
JS1	-.544	.587	PSC4	.055	.956
JS2	.251	.803	PSC5	-.698	.486
JS3	-.601	.548	PSC6	-1.125	.222
JS4	-1.030	.305	CUL1	-1.153	.251
JS5	.860	.391	CUL2	-6.73	.502
JS6	.838	.404	CUL3	1.110	.269
JS7	.372	.711	CUL4	.345	.731
JS8	.294	.769	CUL5	.768	.444
JS9	1.059	.291	CUL6	.658	.511
JS10	1.075	.284	SD1	-1.44	.886
JS11	1.024	.307	SD2	2.732	.007
JS12	1.530	.128	SD3	-.943	.347
JS13	.160	.873	SD4	.203	.839
JS14	.850	.397	SD5	-.593	.554
JS15	2.047	.042	SD6	1.462	.146
JS16	2.077	.039	SD7	-.446	.656
JS17	.060	.952	SD8	2.597	.010
JS18	.280	.780	SD9	.726	.469
JS19	.990	.324	SD10	-.647	.519
JS20	1.275	.204	SD11	-.350	.726
AC1	1.043	.299	SD12	1.457	.147
AC2	1.381	.169	SD13	-2.273	.024
AC3	.055	.956	Age	-.541	.589
AC4	.446	.642	Tender	-.309	.758
AC5	-1.425	.156	No of flight	1.210	.228
AC6	-.639	.524	Experience	.177	.860
CC1	.586	.559	Income	-1.027	.307

Tested by independent t-test (SPSS version 12) at 95% degree of confidence

3. Skewness and kurtosis values of measurement items

Items	Skewness	Kurtosis	Items	Skewness	Kurtosis
COOP1	-.504	.471	AC6	-.712	.028
COOP2	-.991	2.498	CC1	-.359	-.957
COOP3	-.951	1.976	CC2	-.540	-.698
COOP4	-1.516	1.858	CC3	-.856	-.256
COOP5	-1.740	5.074	CC4	-.239	-1.143
EXT1	-.767	-.201	CC5	.172	-.968
EXT2	-1.406	3.094	CC6	-.109	-.841
EXT3	-.676	.378	NC1	.016	-.877
EXT4	-.712	.350	NC2	-.303	-.678
INT1	-.910	1.284	NC3	-.159	-.791
INT2	-.654	.850	NC4	-.639	-.480
INT3	-1.145	2.439	NC5	-.608	-.116
INT4	-.515	.611	NC6	-.617	-.281
INR1	-.872	1.201	CWS1	-.705	.578
INR2	-1.072	2.324	CWS2	-.630	.509
INR3	-.275	-.332	CWS3	-.595	.676
INR4	-.943	1.782	CWS4	-.869	1.077
INR5	-.599	.905	CWS5	-.316	-.667
EXR1	-1.336	4.128	CWS6	-.542	.101
EXR2	-1.212	1.338	CWS7	-.417	-.377
EXR3	-.705	.546	CWS8	-.444	.297
EXR4	-1.138	1.510	CWS9	-.371	.480
EXR5	-.843	1.109	PSC1	.944	-.201
JS1	-1.166	1.700	PSC2	.095	-1.175
JS2	-.811	-.292	PSC3	-.377	-.747
JS3	-.888	1.641	PSC4	-.459	-.564
JS4	-.320	-.242	PSC5	-.656	-.062
JS5	-.814	.855	PSC6	-.129	-.998
JS6	-.938	1.206	CUL1	-.753	.359
JS7	-.396	-1.192	CUL2	-.672	-.095
JS8	-1.339	2.419	CUL3	-1.009	1.609
JS9	-1.355	3.564	CUL4	-.924	.729
JS10	-1.285	2.821	CUL5	-.715	.216
JS11	-1.363	3.113	CUL6	-.394	-.646
JS12	-.576	-.219	SD1	1.033	1.768
JS13	-1.106	.765	SD2	.952	.827
JS14	-.902	.400	SD3	.190	-1.016
JS15	-.831	.212	SD4	-.117	-1.076
JS16	-.766	.094	SD5	-1.164	2.084
JS17	-1.169	1.537	SD6	.120	-.979
JS18	-.671	1.332	SD7	-1.847	4.667
JS19	-1.061	1.626	SD8	-.531	-1.018
JS20	-1.153	2.339	SD9	-.567	-.215
AC1	-1.194	1.928	SD10	-.818	.249
AC2	-.951	1.393	SD11	.511	-.839
AC3	-1.065	.687	SD12	-.142	-1.160
AC4	-1.131	1.052	SD13	-.675	-.364
AC5	-.965	.682			

4. Variance inflated factor (VIF)

Construct	Collinearity Statistics
	VIF
Cooperation	1.436
External representation	1.891
Internal influence	1.760
In-role service delivery	1.559
Extra-role service delivery	1.582
Job satisfaction	1.978
Affective commitment	1.522
Continuance commitment	1.116
Normative commitment	1.940
Co-worker supportiveness	1.474
Passenger cooperation	1.203

5. Results of item analysis

Items	Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha
COOP1	.581	
COOP2	.635	
COOP3	.461	.741
COOP4*	.559	
COOP5	.412	
EXT1*	.462	
EXT2	.577	.748
EXT3	.625	
EXT4	.557	
INT1	.691	
INT2	.765	.839
INT3	.637	
INT4	.600	
INR1	.577	
INR2	.625	
INR3	.635	.804
INR4	.644	
INR5	.487	
EXR1	.610	
EXR2*	.423	
EXR3	.620	.801
EXR4	.708	
EXR5	.599	
JS1	.335	
JS2	.226	
JS3	.371	
JS4	.471	
JS5	.568	
JS6	.346	
JS7	.288	
JS8	.430	
JS9	.473	
JS10	.505	
JS11	.606	.875
JS12	.492	
JS13	.526	
JS14	.583	
JS15	.625	
JS16	.580	
JS17	.654	
JS18	.452	
JS19	.623	
JS20	.667	
AC1	.521	
AC2	.483	
AC3*	.638	.844
AC4*	.736	
AC5*	.772	
AC6	.601	
CC1	.205	
CC2	.437	
CC3	.474	.655
CC4	.665	(.702)
CC5+	.103	
CC6	.458	

Items	Item-to-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha
NC1*+	.242	
NC2+	.355	
NC3+	.362	.671
NC4	.503	(.738)
NC5	.488	
NC6	.506	
CWS1	.572	
CWS2	.618	
CWS3	.627	
CWS4	.681	
CWS5*	.379	.846
CWS6	.568	
CWS7*	.493	
CWS8	.566	
CWS9	.633	
PSC1	.533	
PSC2	.730	
PSC3	.730	.813
PSC4	.694	
PSC5	.640	
PSC6	.224	
CUL1	.594	
CUL2	.661	
CUL3	.530	.772
CUL4	.525	
CUL5	.554	
CUL6	.342	
SD1*+	.049	
SD2*	.386	
SD3*	.375	
SD4*	.384	
SD5+	.096	
SD6*	.384	.665
SD7	.212	(.716)
SD8*	.452	
SD9+	.089	
SD10	.235	
SD11*	.435	
SD12*	.430	
SD13+	.176	

*** Item reversely coded**
+ Item deleted

Note: values in parentheses are the Cronbach's alpha after deletion of indicated items