An Examination of the Influence of Organisational Culture on the Service Predispositons of Hospitality Workers in Tropical North Queensland

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my husband, Ron, who set me free.

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This project has been a long journey and has been made possible through the assistance, support and encouragement of many people, and I would like to acknowledge and thank them. My sincere thanks are extended to the following people.

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PREFACE

I have worked in service industries for as long as I can remember. When I was seven my father leased a poultry farm and we serviced a large community on the outskirts of Melbourne. From the beginning I was always at the frontline assisting my Dad with sales and customer service. Eventually, I got my first paying job as a shop assistant in the local corner store. Here I was able to continue the personalized style of customer service I had grown accustomed to and took great pride in. It was not until I began working for the supermarket chains that I noticed differences in employees' attitudes to their work and how this impacted on customer satisfaction. I marveled at how organizations sought to make profits while employing individuals who were not service-oriented. Years later while working for Australia Post, I realized that there were organizations who tried to address these issues. Customer-service training programs were made available to those individuals who struggled with work at the frontline. Yet despite such initiatives some individuals did not improve. Further, I noticed a unique camaraderie between individuals from different offices. Individuals moved from one office to another and settled in easily. It was like there was a common work culture that united employees.

Over the past ten years, I have worked in a number of hotels and found similar issues. Hotel workers' behaviour can be inappropriate and unpredictable. Some employees' may have personalities suitable to working in hospitality but lack the attitude to overcome the difficulties and pressures of the job. They fail to deliver quality service in an industry that demands working long, irregular hours in emotionally and labour intensive environments. I have often questioned whether it is an organizational 'thing'. Much is written and said about organizational culture. I have thought perhaps there is some association. On the other hand, like Australia Post, I noticed a certain camaraderie that transcends organization boundaries and connects the workers within the same occupation.

These observations and thoughts have perplexed me for some time and were the impetus for this study into the influence of organizational culture on the service predispositions of hotel workers.

ABSTRACT

The past decade has witnessed a continued emphasis on services and the delivery of quality service. More recently, increasing attention has been focused on the hospitality industry as it has become more widely recognized as an important sector of the service economy. The hospitality industry, like other service industries, is a people-oriented industry. The importance of satisfying customers and its association with quality is well established. Customers' perceptions of the level of quality within the service transaction are dependent on the attitudes and behaviours of service providers. Traditionally hospitality workers are expected to exhibit positive attitudes toward the customer. In the author's experience this is not always the case. It seems that attitudes alone are not responsible for delivery of quality service. Hospitality workers are seemingly influenced by an overarching industry culture. This study sets out to explore the service predispositions of hospitality workers and examines the relationship between the attitudes of hospitality workers and organizational culture.

In an attempt to examine the influence of the organizational culture on the service predispositions of hospitality workers, data was gathered from six four-star hotels in Tropical North Queensland, Australia. Research into the key components of service predispositions is emergent and while there is a plethora of research into organizational culture, there are no studies that have investigated the relationship between organizational culture and employees' service predispositions. First, profiles of service predispositions were developed. Second, the nature and characteristics of organizational culture were examined. Third, the relationship between service predispositions and organizational culture was investigated.

The Service Predispositions Instrument (SPI) was used amongst a sample of 254 hotel employees to assess their attitudes toward providing quality service. Initially, the data was analysed and used to validate the dimensionality of the questionnaire. Thereafter, the 'service attitudes' of hospitality workers were collated to develop hospitality SPI norms. The results showed that some dimensions were considered to be more important by hotel employees for delivering quality service. The greatest value was given to the dimensions of *communication*, *competence* and *individual consideration*. This suggests that

hospitality workers recognize the importance of communicating clearly, openly and with enthusiasm with customers, of being confident in the command of skills and knowledge necessary to perform the job and of accepting that all customers are different and so, have a willingness to consider that their needs on an exclusive basis are necessary. These three dimensions could then be considered as 'industry norms' for the delivery of exceptional service.

Organisational culture was measured using an instrument that consisted of 96 seven-point Likert-type statements. This instrument represented a set of questions that were developed from issues important to hotel workers and the literature. Once the reliability and validity of the instrument were tested, the data was analysed using a range of analytical procedures, including correlations, ANOVAs and multiple regressions, to develop a profile of the organisational culture in hotels and to establish the relationship between organisational culture and employees' service predispositions. Principal components analysis (PCA) produced 28 underlying dimensions of organisational culture. The findings showed that *importance of job*, *customer orientation*, *rituals*, *training* and *role ambiguity* were seen as the most important components of hotel culture. More importantly, the relationship between organizational culture and service predispositions was confirmed and the notion of the existence of an overarching occupational hospitality culture emerged. It is proposed that employees of the hotel industry, as an occupational identity, generate an occupational hospitality culture where hospitality workers share some commonalities about the nature of being hospitable and service delivery, regardless of the hotel or firm they work for. This culture is a powerful, ubiquitous influence, which may override organisational hospitality culture and drive the behaviour and performance of hospitality workers.

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CHAPTER 1

HOSPITALITY, THE WORKERS AND THE CULTURE

1.1 Introduction

This study investigates the influence of organisational culture (OC) on the attitudes of workers in the hospitality industry. In particular, it focuses on the influences within an organisation, which encourage employees or hinder them from delivering quality service. This chapter begins with a discussion of the paradox of hospitality workers' behaviour. While on the one hand hospitality workers are expected to exhibit positive attitudes, on the other hand the behaviour of hospitality workers can at times be far from hospitable. This paradox raises the question of what influences the attitudes of hospitality workers and leads onto the rationale for the study.

The underlying principles for the research are examined in light of issues relating to service delivery, specifically factors concerning service employees and the hospitality industry. First, services are defined and the nature of services and service quality are highlighted. Further, service encounters are discussed with particular reference to the dimensions of and behaviours in service encounters. Second, attention is focused on the role of employees, especially in terms of service orientation and personality traits, and the association between employees and organisational support. Third, employees' attitudes and the implications of attitudes to service predispositions of hospitality workers are discussed. Within this context the Service Predispositions Instrument (SPI) is introduced. The SPI is noted as a key tool in investigating service predispositions and in enhancing the quality of service delivery within the hospitality industry.

As hospitality workers' attitudes to service delivery are explored in greater depth, the power of OC is examined. Particular attention is given to service culture and more specifically, hospitality culture. The concept of hospitality is detailed, emphasizing the uniqueness of the hospitality environment and the importance of the hospitality industry. These factors lead to the aims and objectives of this study. The chapter concludes with

discussions of the scope and limitations of the study, expected contributions of this research to the existing body of knowledge, and an overview of the thesis structure.

1.2 The Paradox of Hospitality Workers' Behaviour

Traditionally hospitality workers are expected to be hospitable and exhibit positive attitudes toward the customer. In the author's experience, this is not always the case. The behaviour of hotel workers as customer service providers can be inconsistent, unexpected or inappropriate. The behaviour may manifest itself as poor performance, low productivity and weak workgroup cohesion. It can surface as absenteeism, high labour turnover, and short-term commitment (Deery & Shaw, 1998) or be exhibited as low job satisfaction, increased emotional labour and high job stress (Anderson, Provis, & Chappel, 2003). Hospitality work has often been regarded as a low status and unpleasant occupation that can attract individuals with little opportunity of better employment (Mars & Nicod, 1984). This can help explain some unusual behaviour and performance of hospitality workers but much still remains unexplained. With the entry of large and sophisticated organisations into the hospitality industry, the quality of work available and the hospitality environment has improved dramatically (Guerrier & Adib, 2000). Despite these improvements, in the author's experience, hospitality managers face many challenges in ensuring that hospitality workers consistently deliver quality service.

Working in hospitality is unique with its irregular and long working hours, split shifts, and labour intensiveness, compounded by high casualisation rates, high labour turnover and varying skills levels. Further, hospitality work is a customer contact or front-line[1] service job that deals with all sorts of customers and interactions, some pleasant and rewarding and others not so. Undoubtedly, these factors place enormous pressures on hospitality workers to perform their job efficiently and effectively. However, jobs in hospitality are generally no longer demeaning and unrewarding (Guerrier & Adib, 2000) and, as some would indicate, not all hospitality workers are deviants and non-conformists (Mars, Bryant, Mitchell, 1979; Whyte, 1946) or villains, thieves and delinquents (Mars and

[1] The term "frontline" is used in reference to service workers whose jobs involve direct contact and interaction with customers (Anderson, Provis, & Chappel, 2003).

Nicod, 1984). In fact, Picot (1993) paints a picture of hotel work as exotic and adventurous.

Lashley and Lee-Ross (2003) note that hospitality workers are "different from other workers" (p. 234). Research into the nature of individual differences has shown that individuals possess unique characteristics that affect their attitudes to work, behaviour and performance. Parasuraman *et al.* (1985) showed that factors such as responsiveness, assurance and empathy are specifically related to perceptions of the behaviour of service employees. Similarly, Cran (1994, p. 36) noted that individuals have a set of basic predispositions that make "some people better at some things than others". This has led to the suggestion that suitable hospitality workers possess a specific set of characteristics that predispose them to providing quality service (e.g. Dale & Wooler, 1991; Hogan, Hogan, & Busch, 1984; Schneider & Schechter, 1991). In their study on nurses and hotel and restaurant staff, Larsen and Bastiansen (1991, p.1) described services attitudes as "a relatively permanent tendency on the part of the employee to behave in a particular fashion". Lee-Ross (1999) refers to these attitudes as service predispositions and argues that they influence employee behaviour and performance in service organisations. From here it is argued that a greater effort be focused on "the selection of suitable employees and the provision of appropriate training" (Anderson *et al.*, 2003, p. 1). Lashley, Thomas and Rowson (2002) note that many service firms seek to recruit individuals who are people-oriented and have good social and interpersonal skills. Lee-Ross (1999) extends this to suggest that service predispositions provide a practicable basis for recruitment, selection and training and for improvement of overall quality of service delivery.

Yet, despite greater selection and training efforts, the behaviour of hospitality workers remains at times erratic and unpredictable. This paradox has led the author to consider the influence of OC on the service predispositions of individuals within the hospitality industry. Certainly, a customer's perception of poor service can be attributed to the inappropriate behaviour of rogue individuals (Lashley & Lee-Ross, 2003) or to individuals' lack of predispositions to providing quality service. However, another explanation could be that the individual's behaviour and performance is reflective of the OC. Culture is recognized as a powerful and pervasive component of organisations. It has been defined as "an independent set of values and ways of behaving that are common in a

community and that tend to perpetuate themselves, sometimes over long periods of time" (Kotter & Heskett, 1992, p. 141). Similarly, Kilmann, Saxton, and Serpa (1985, p. 5) maintain that OC is "the shared philosophies, ideologies, values, assumptions, beliefs, expectations, attitudes and norms" that unifies an organisation. Deal (1986, p. 301) defined OC as "the human intervention that creates solidarity and meaning and inspires commitment and productivity".

Some studies have investigated the affect of OC on employee behaviour. For example, Odom, Boxx & Dunn (1990) examined the relationship between OC and commitment, work-group cohesion and job satisfaction. They found the bureaucratic culture that dominated the transportation organisations sampled was not conducive to encouraging positive employee behaviour. In contrast, Nystrom (1993) found that health care employees in strong cultures displayed higher job satisfaction and greater organisational commitment. In an attempt to identify a typology of OCs, Cameron and Freeman (1991) identified a framework of OC types, each characterized by a particular set of shared beliefs, style of leadership, set of shared values that act as the basis or glue for members, and strategic emphases. Such typologies highlight that organisational factors such as a lack of training, autocratic and non-supportive supervisors, and poor intergroup relations can underline OC and influence employees' behaviour. Of particular interest to this study, are those aspects of OC over which the organisation has some control and allows the organisation to provide a workplace that enhances employees' predispositions to providing quality service.

Many writers suggest that firms operating in the service sector may benefit greatly from having a 'strong' service culture, where a strong culture refers to a set of values that are widely shared throughout the organisation and which are strongly held by its members (O'Reilly, Chatman, and Caldwell, 1991) and a service culture is one in which "staff are happy and pleased to help, enjoy their work, like the company and will always deal pleasantly with customers" (Mann, 1999, p. 22). Schneider, Wheeler, and Cox (1992, p. 705) contend that a service culture can be fostered in organisations "by establishing practices that facilitate service delivery and by expecting and rewarding service excellence". It is rationalized that if organisations provide employees with adequate resources (administrative, equipment, logistical, and managerial support) to deliver

effective service, employees can deliver excellent service and a positive service culture exists. Numerous studies have been conducted in various industries relating to employees' delivery of service and many others relating to OC. However, despite the seeming importance of the attitude concept in service situations, little research has been conducted in this area. A void appears to exist in the literature examining attitudes of employees in service industries, especially within the context of OC. Given this and the need for organisations in today's competitive service industries to recognize the importance of the employees' behaviour and performance at the customer interface and to acknowledge the pervasive nature of OC, the present study focuses on the relationship between OC within hotels and the service predispositions of hospitality workers. It is anticipated that specific service cultures exist within the hospitality industry and that the strength of these cultures will vary from hotel to hotel and so, influence employees' behaviour and performance in different ways.

1.3 Rationale of the Research

1.3.1 An Introduction to Services

There is an ever-increasing volume of information available today on the topics of customer satisfaction, customer service, and quality. The importance of satisfying customers and its association with quality is well established (e.g. Parasuraman *et al.*, 1985). Authors, consultants, researchers remind us that satisfying customers is imperative to remaining competitive and being successful. Despite the proliferation of literature on these topics, very few address the association between service providers and service delivery. Yet, the role of service providers in service delivery is a critical factor in the determination of customers' perceptions of the level of quality within the service transaction. This in turn impacts on customer satisfaction and organisational success. In the 1980s, intense competition led many service organisations to seek opportunities that would increase profitability and provide the competitive edge. The delivery of high-quality service became one strategy implemented by organisations to deal with competition. For example, Czepiel, Solomon, Surprenant, and Gutman (1985a) indicated that the close interaction between service provider and the customer is at the core of many services and it is this interaction which distinguishes job requirements of employees engaged in the service industry from those of employees in a manufacturing industry. Hence, they state that the management of individual service encounters is critical to

quality and customer satisfaction. Bitner and Hubbert (1994) expand on this and note that business practitioners and academics are increasingly focusing on customer satisfaction as a corporate goal. In addition, they recognise that this focus on customer satisfaction and quality has highlighted the importance of the service encounter as the "moment of truth" (Bitner & Hubbert, 1994, p. 73). Schneider, Parkington, and Buxton (1980) concur with this statement. In a study of 23 banks, they found that employees' service orientation was constantly associated with customer's perceptions of overall service quality. Our understanding and knowledge of service predispositions is still evolving. Additional research exploring this construct provides a valuable opportunity to expand this knowledge base and add to understanding the relationship between this construct and service providers, service delivery, service quality, customer satisfaction, customer retention and organisational success.

1.3.2 Definition of Service

Service is a concept that is employed extensively in the services marketing literature and while not be precisely defined, finds a consensus on the elements that characterise service. Kotler and Armstrong (1996, p.660) define services as:

> A service is an activity or benefit that one party can offer to another that is essentially intangible and does not result in the ownership of anything. It may or may not be tied to a physical product.

The service marketing literature identifies a number of distinctive characteristics that distinguish services from goods (e.g. Kotler & Armstrong, 1996; McColl, Callaghan and Palmer, 1998). These have been described as intangibility, variability, perishability and inseparability. McColl *et al*. (1998) also note that there is variability in the extent to which these four characteristics can be used to differentiate between services and goods depending on the service and organisation but essentially these characteristics are summarised as follows. Service intangibility is a major characteristic of services and it means that services cannot be felt, seen, heard, tasted, or smelled (Kotler & Armstrong, 1996). McColl *et al*. (1998) indicate that separability refers to the fact that services are produced and consumed at the same time. They cannot be separated from their providers.

Kotler and Armstrong (1996) comment that the provider-customer interaction then becomes a major characteristic of service because both parties are present and inseparable from the service. Variability of service means that who provides the service as well as when, where and how the service is provided influence the quality of the service and perishability indicates that services cannot be stored and used later (Kotler & Armstrong, 1996; McColl *et al*. 1998).

1.3.3 The Nature of Services

Literature on the nature of services suggests that there are two complimentary dimensions to service: the physical (tangible) and the emotional (intangible) (e.g. Berry, Parasuraman, & Zeithaml, 1988; Shostack, 1977). This has emphasised the distinction between products (tangibles) and services (intangibles). McColl *et al*. (1998) acknowledge that in reality it may be difficult to differentiate between products and services because when a product is purchased there is generally included a measure of service. This has led to the suggestion that products and services exist as a continuum ranging from tangibles dominant to intangibles dominant (Shostack, 1977; McColl *et al*., 1998). A similar perspective on the nature of service as consisting of both tangible and intangible elements is proposed by Berry *et al.* (1988). The tangibles to which they refer are physical facilities, equipment and the appearance of the personnel. The intangibles include the reliability, assurance, responsiveness and empathy of service providers.

The studies of Berry *et al.* (1988) are particularly interesting because they elicit attributes of front-line employees that impact on the quality of service. In 1985, Parasuraman *et al.* (1985) identified ten key dimensions of service that could be used as criteria to evaluate quality of service as perceived by customers (Table 1.1). All of these not only reflect on determinants of service quality but also may be of importance in identifying service attitudes of employees.

Table 1.1: Key dimensions of service and their components

DIMENSION	COMPONENTS
Reliability	involves consistency of performance and dependability
Responsiveness	concerns willingness or readiness to provide service within a reasonable time
Competence	means possession of the required skills and knowledge to perform the service
Access	involves approachability and ease of contact
Courtesy	involves politeness, respect, consideration, and friendliness of contact personnel
Communication	means keeping customers informed in language they can understand and listening to them
Credibility	involves trustworthiness, believability, honesty
Security	is the freedom from danger, risk or doubt
Understanding or knowing the customer	involves making the effort to understand the customer's needs
Tangibles	includes the physical evidence of the service

[Source: adapted from Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry, 1985, p. 47, Table 1]

1.3.4 Service Quality

Researchers have defined the term 'quality' in many different ways. It has been defined as 'value' (Feigenbaum, 1951), fitness for use (Juran, Gryna, & Bingham, 1974) and conformance to requirements (Crosby, 1979). Quality can be construed as the degree of excellence and superiority (Titz, 2001). Duffy and Ketchand (1998, p. 241) define service quality as "customers' appraisals of the service core, the provider, or the entire service organization". Parasuraman *et al.* (1988) proposed that service quality is the difference between customers' expectations (what they want) and actual service provided (perceptions of what they received). Hence, they defined service quality as 'meeting customers' expectations'. In their review of the literature on quality, Parasuraman *et al.* (1985) concluded that the traditional perspectives of quality derived form the manufacturing sector could not adequately conceptualise or evaluate service quality because services were different to goods. Three characteristics differentiated services from goods: intangibility, heterogeneity and inseparability (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1985, 1988). Hence, Parasuraman *et al.* (1985) conceptualised service quality as an attitude, which customers formulate when comparing their expectations with perceptions of performance. They reported that the gap between customers' expectations and their perceptions of actual performance determines the customers' evaluation of service quality. Their research led to the development of the gap model from which was derived the SERVQUAL instrument which is now widely used to measure the gap between customers' expectations

and perceptions and so, measure service quality. Interestingly, the dimensions of quality highlighted by SERVQUAL relate to human attributes (Williams & Buswell, 2003). Ultimately, however, service quality is defined or whatever it is derived from, the service encounter, and customers' evaluations of the quality of the service encounter remain critical components of service while successful.

1.3.5 The Service Encounter

Service is characterized by the service delivery process. Service encounters have been defined as the point in the service process when customers engage or interact with employees (Williams & Buswell, 2003). Carlzon (1987) termed these interactions as 'moments of truth'. Shostack (1985) states that the service encounter is 'a period of time' during which the customer and provider interact with each other. Czepiel *et al.* (1985a) add that the service encounter is the dyadic interaction between the customer and service provider. Czepiel *et al.* (1985a, p. ix) broadly define the concept of service encounters as "the direct interactions between a retail or service firm and its clients". Hence, suggesting that the service encounter is a dynamic process where both customer and service provider can influence each other's behaviour. Lee-Ross (2001, p. 86) acknowledges that service encounters are "complex affairs" mainly because the social interaction between customers and employees varies greatly in expectations. Czepiel *et al.* (1985a) agree that the phenomenon of service encounters is multifaceted (Czepiel *et al*., 1985a). They note that service encounters involve real people and include both the employees and the customers. Service encounters are especially important because they are the highest-impact component of the service provided by the firm or organisation (Czepiel *et al*., 1985a). The service encounter is often a brief moment in time, a time when the customer is assessing the service and creating an opinion of its quality (Fitzsimmons & Fitzsimmons, 1998). The quality of the service encounter is not only a fundamental element in the total quality of service as experienced and perceived by the customer but also a determinant of job satisfaction for employees.

Czepiel *et al.* (1985a, p. x) suggest that service encounters can be perceived as "the totality of feelings and activities that define what happens when two strangers meet, interact, and take leave of one another". As Czepiel *et al.* (1985a, p. x) note of major concern is the question: "What makes a service encounter good - good for the employee, good for the

customer, good for the firm?" This view of service encounter is vital. The ultimate aim of any organisation is to improve the quality of service making service encounters a positive and beneficial experience for employees, customers and firms. Thus, the interaction between front-line employees and customers assumes a very important role within the service process and employees are a key component of that process. Further, it is the interactions between customers and service employees and the customer's evaluation of the quality of the service encounter that are critical to the success service delivery process (Titz, 2001). Organisations that recognise the crucial nature of service encounters will seek competitive advantage by relying on their employees to enhance the service experience for customers (Lee-Ross, 2001).

In 1980, Schneider, Parkington, and Buxton investigated employees' and customers' perceptions of service in banks. Their results showed that at the customer-employee interface of service, both participants are physically and psychologically close. Czepiel, Solomon, Surprenant, and Gutman (1985b) indicate that the service encounter should be a satisfying experience for both the customer and the service provider. They remark that despite the limitations and boundaries of the socially approved relationship between strangers, in some situations these relationships can be more liberal. Czepiel *et al*. (1985b) provide the example of relationship between the bartender and customer. While this relationship does not include joint outings to the movies, the patron may disclose to the bartender marital or job problems that the patron would not espouse to a friend, co-worker or spouse. In essence, the depth and scope of the interchange is limited by the content and nature of the service. For example, it is not expected that a waiter give dietary advice to customers. However, there are elements in the relationship that make service encounters unique and of special interest to service organisations and researchers.

Over the last two decades, the nature of service, strategies for improving it and understanding customers' perceptions of it have witnessed enormous research attention (Lee-Ross, 2001; Lockwood, 1996). As the importance of service industries to regional, national and global economies has become apparent and as organisations strive to achieve sustained competitive advantage, quality-based initiatives have gained prominence (Lee-Ross, 2001; O' Neill, 2001). This is evident in initiatives such as the European Foundation

for Quality Management, the British Quality Foundations, the International Organization for Standardization ISO9000 Series, the Australian Quality Council, and the Quality Assurance Institute of America (Lee-Ross, 2001) and in awards such as the European Quality Award, the Malcolm Balbridge National Quality Award and The Edward Deming Prize (O'Neill, 2001). Other initiatives have emerged from the increasing need for organisations to gain competitive advantage by trusting more in their employees to satisfy and even exceed customer expectations (Lee-Ross, 2001). Initiatives that have affirmed commitments by organisations to raising quality standards through personnel training, customer responsiveness and appropriate OC include the Welcome Host Award, the Investors in People Award and several vocational qualification schemes (O'Neill, 2001). Given the increasingly competitive nature of the service environment, organisations are now concerning themselves with increasing market share by satisfying and maintaining the existing customer base. O'Neill (2001) suggests that an organisation's ability to consistently deliver service quality is critical to achieving this fundamental business objective. Consequently, much organisational effort is now being directed at the central nature of the service encounter and employee performance at the customer interface (Lee-Ross, 2001).

1.3.6 Dimensions of Service Encounters

Czepiel *et al*. (1985b) propose that services can be differentiated on the basis of perceptions of customers, service provider and organisations where all three parties are striving for "good" service encounters. They highlight the importance of provider characteristics and provider behaviour as determinants of satisfaction in a service encounter. Czepiel *et al*. (1985b) also stress that consumers' evaluation of a satisfactory service encounter is determined by a number of service provider characteristics. They have focused on three of these service provider characteristics: expertise, attitude, and demographics. Expertise is defined as the impact of the skills of the service provider on the interaction. These skills are often the result of experience, insight, creativity, or pure craftsmanship and use of discretion in the application of his or her expertise to the service encounter. Czepiel *et al*. (1985b) note that attitude is made up of several factors that include intangible traits such as concern, helpfulness, friendliness, openness, and warmth. These factors they consider to be part of "the inherent personality of the provider" (p. 9). Schneider (1973) expands on this determination and specifies that

attitude is a function of the provider's inherent personality, customer's perception, the customer-provider interaction and the extant situation. Further, Schneider (1980) has noted that service providers are genuinely concerned that their clients receive good service and are frustrated when organisational limitations, policy, or lack of concern frustrate their ability to provide such service.

1.3.7 Behaviours in Service Encounters

According to Weick (1979) there are consistent patterns of behaviour and mutual experiences that eventuate when people interact with each other under particular situations. Klaus (1985, p. 24) refers to these as "interlocking behaviours" and contends that the "ceremonial" (p. 24) or stable patterns of behaviour as found in social interactions such as the service encounter result in the "epiphenomenon" (p.24) commonly referred to as the quality of service. Klaus (1985) proposes that the attitudes, skills and behaviour of providers and clients are conditioned by elements such as organisational, social and cultural environments and that changes in any elements of these environments can affect the quality of service. Hence, perceptions, responses and interactive behaviours of both parties need to be considered in all managerial efforts to effectively control quality of the service encounter. Klaus (1985) emphasises that the perpetual and cognitive characteristics of both the provider and the client contribute to the subjective behaviours and experiences of the service encounter. Finally, Klaus (1985) proposes that the encounter is affected by constraints and conditions imposed by the situational context. The situational factors include the physical environment, time, mood, and tiredness. By considering elements of the service configuration, the interaction framework as outlined by Klaus (1985) provides a useful map for research on service and emphases that service research incorporates the behaviour and experiences of both participants in the service encounter. Identification of behaviours of both clients and providers facilitates the exploration of psychological correlates.

McCallum and Harrison (1985) expand on this concept of interdependence and note that dispositions such as norms, roles, personality traits, values and attitudes influence the behaviour of participants in the service encounter. Conversely, particular interactions lead to behaviours and experiences that further influence individual's dispositions

(McCallum & Harrison, 1985). This leads to variability in the delivery of service by front-line employees.

The literature indicates an awareness of the potential for there to be variability between employees in their capacity to deliver service and that there is a relationship between inherent attributes of the service provider and the delivery of service. The inherent attributes of the service provider have been referred to as job attitudes (Schneider, 1987), service orientation (Schneider *et al*., 1980; Hogan *et al*., 1984; Cran, 1994; McBride, Mendoza, & Carraher, 1997; Petrillose, Shanklin, & Downey, 1998) or service predisposition (Lee-Ross, 1999, 2000). All these terms suggest that employees come to their workplace with these inherent attributes. Schneider (1987, p. 449) notes that research implies that "the attitudes of people at work are caused by the conditions of the workplace". In fact, Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) proposed that employee's attitudes are a representation of the social environment at the workplace. By comparison, some studies indicate that people's job attitudes come with employees to an organisation and that organisations' structures and processes extricate behaviour that reflects employees' natural inclinations (Pulakos & Schmitt, 1983; Staw, Bell, & Clausen, 1986). Schneider (1987, p. 450) emphases this point further and suggests that "people make the place" and that organisations are a reflection of the people within them. Indeed, people are the heart of all hospitality organisations. The attitudes and motivation of all employees drive work performance and this ultimately determines customer satisfaction and organisational success.

1.3.8 The Employee – a Key Player in the Delivery of Service

Mullins (1995) notes that individuals are active participants in the activities and processes that occur in their lives. He states that, "they interact and relate to the world around them" (Mullins, 1995, p. 115). In a similar vein, it can be said that the service experience is a function of the behaviour of service providers. This behaviour is underpinned by service providers' attitudes, where the attitudes are inherent but may themselves be influenced by the culture and close environment within which the individual lives and works. Psychological research supports the notion that people possess relatively stable characteristics that predispose them to behave in specific ways across a variety of situations or encounters (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). This has led to the notion that not all

people have the appropriate characteristics to work in a customer service environment and selection of people with suitable innate predispositions is vital for not only customer satisfaction but also employee motivation, job satisfaction and performance (Lee-Ross, 2001; Titz, 2001).

For hospitality operations, the ultimate evaluation of the success of the customer's experience is at the 'moment of truth' – the point of contact between the customer and the service provider (Carlzon, 1987). The plush décor of a five star hotel is readily tarnished by a rude, abrupt and insensitive receptionist who fails to greet the customer on arrival. A romantic dinner in a fine dining restaurant is easily ruined by a waiter who lingers to chat and be overly friendly. The interaction between the customer and the service provider is an opportunity to meet the customer's needs and create the conditions to maximize the potential for customer satisfaction. Employees at the frontline play a critical role in achieving this.

In the hospitality industry, people perform a service for the customer. For example, waiters serve drinks and food; receptionists check customers into rooms; porters deliver customers luggage. Further, the customer and the employee are personally involved in the service interaction and each contributes to the experience. For example, when lunch is served to a customer in the hotel restaurant, a friendly and efficient waiter can enhance the customer's lunch experience. On the other hand, a surly and abrupt waiter can mar the experience for the customer. A cheerful waiter can make a difference to the bad meal or a customer who is not feeling well. From the customer's perspective, service is a conglomeration of performances over a period of time from both staff and the organisation that contribute toward their total service experience (Wuest, 2001). Hence, the service provider's attitude and behaviour becomes a critical part of the hospitality experience.

Powers (1995) identifies two basic aspects to the service provided in hospitality: the task aspect (technical competence) and the interpersonal aspect (e.g. a helpful or friendly attitude). These are highlighted in Figure 1.1.

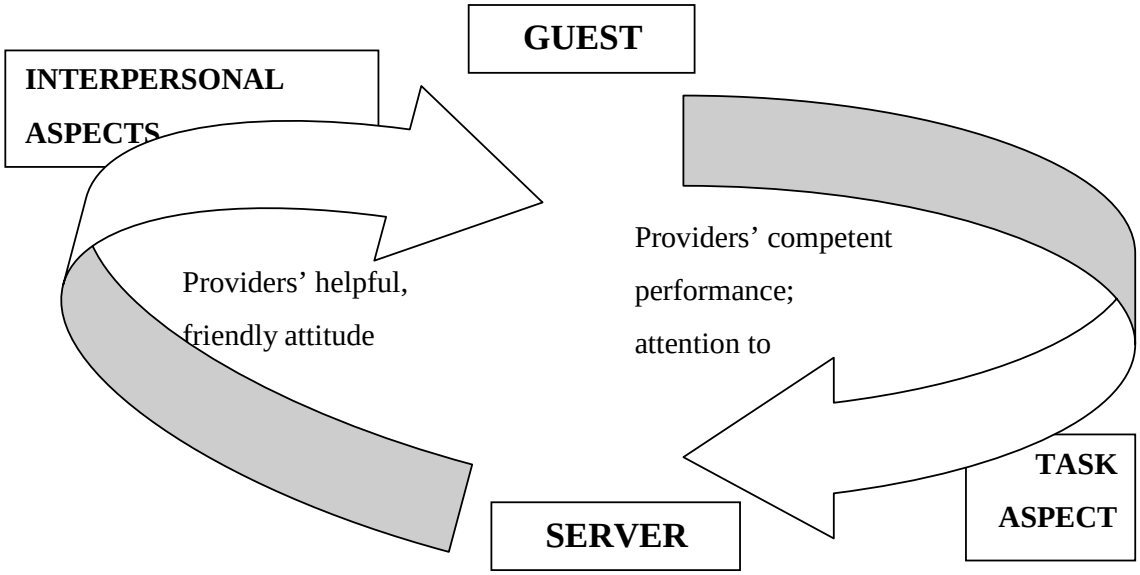


Figure 1.1: Two aspects of service
[Source: Powers (1995, p. 531, Figure 20.2)]

In modern hospitality organisations, the task aspect shown in Figure 1.1 of service is controlled by judiciously prepared systems that are substantiated by such encounter management techniques as written procedures, blueprinting, and scripting (Powers, 1995; Lee-Ross, 2001). Some of these procedures are consistent across hospitality establishments such that once the service personnel (e.g. the waiter, receptionist, and housekeeper) master these procedures they can work in any establishment quite competently. For example, the following is an excerpt from *Essentials of Good Table Service* (in Powers, 1995, p. 531) relating to table service procedures:

> The Correct Way to Hold Plates: Plates should be held with the thumb, index finger, and the middle finger. The upper part of the plate's rim should not be touched; this prevents fingers from getting into the soup or leaving marks on the plate.

Similarly, when a customer is ready to leave, the hotel receptionist is expected to verify the final amount of the bill, post any recent charges and assist the customer in settling

their account. Grönroos (2001) identifies this component of service as the technical (what) aspect and confirms that customers are also influenced by the manner in which technical quality is transferred to them. This he refers to as the functional (how) aspect and refers to the manner in which the service provider interacts with the customer. Examples of functional quality include: the behaviour of a restaurant waiter, the appearance of a hotel receptionist, and the attitude of the porter.

Powers (1995) acknowledges that employees should not only have the right attitude but they must also be able to convey that attitude to the customer. He states that they should have "a manner that imparts a sense of being "in control" to the guest" (Powers, 1995, p. 533). The hospitality service encounter can be said to be "diverse and often private" where the interaction between the customer and the service provider is something that occurs between the two parties. Whether it is during a meal or at the front desk, there can be a number of these interactions occurring at the same time. For managers, this can be a difficult situation to control in any detail. Hence, there has been a general recognition that organisational effectiveness in hospitality can be achieved through the appropriate selection of people who have appropriate attitudes and so, are suited to working in the hospitality industry.

1.3.9 Employee Attitudes or Service Predispositions

It is said that front-line employees are the lifeblood of service organisations (Bienstock, DeMoranville, & Smith, 2003). Due to the nature of services (i.e. intangibility, heterogeneity, perishability, etc), employee attitudes in service environments may have a greater impact on quality than in the manufacturing sector. The intangibility of the service product means that services are produced and consumed simultaneously and that front-line service employees play a critical role in the delivery of high quality services. Much research has focused on customers' perceived service quality (Babakus and Mangold, 1992; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Parasuraman, *et al.*, 1988) and researchers have demonstrated the financial implications of attracting new customers and retaining existing customers (Reicheld and Sasser, 1990; Rust *et al.*, 1995; Zeithaml *et al.*, 1996). Throughout the evolution of services marketing literature, research regarding the role of frontline employees has recognized the significance of employees' customer orientation (Saxe, and Weitz, 1982; Kelley, 1992) and employees' influences on increasing customer

satisfaction (Dunlap, Dotson, & Chambers, 1988). For service organisations this has raised the important issue of how do they ensure service employees perform their roles well so that customers perceive high quality service, are satisfied and will return. As Beinstock *et al.* (2003, p. 358) remark "Are there actions a service organization can take … that encourage [employees] to perform their … roles to the organization's advantage". Some researchers recommend the use of organisational citizenship, where organisational rights and responsibilities are granted to employees, to motivate front-line service employees to deliver high quality service (Bienstock *et al.*, 2003). Others suggest the development of a market-oriented culture that supports the marketing role of front-line employees (Gummesson, 1991; Kelley, 1992; Zeithaml & Bitner, 1996). It is argued that an integral aspect of any organisation's attempt to deliver quality service is to develop an understanding of the role played by service employees, in particular their attitudes.

One of the critical factors affecting the success of service encounters is employees' service predispositions. Service predispositions are the attitudes of hospitality workers that relate to their behaviour and their delivery of service (Hurley, 1998; Lee-Ross, 1999; Mitchell, Dowling, Kabanoff, & Larson, 1988). As Mitchell *et al.* (1988) state, "They indicate a personal predisposition to respond in a particular way" (p. 112). Lee-Ross (1999) clarifies the concept of predispositions by noting that, "There appears to be an *a priori* assumption that providers are predisposed towards (or have positive attitudes to) providing service". (p. 92).

Understanding and measuring service predispositions is seen as useful, especially for management in the selection, training and retention of employees. Current tools measuring service orientations have not been specifically designed to measure attitudes in the workplace in an operational sense. This thesis uses the Service Predispositions Instrument (Lee-Ross, 1999, 2000) for the development of profiles of employees' attitudes to the delivery of service. The instrument is discussed in detail in Chapter 2. Information gathered from research on employees can be beneficial in developing training programmes and improving practices and procedures so as to enhance the service delivery process. However, no managerial or employee manual could adequately cover all acceptable behaviours or actions that employees should follow during the many and varied service encounters (Woods, 1996). It is here that culture can fill the void between organisational

policies and procedures and employees' behaviour. Culture can provide guidelines for service providers on how to behave.

1.3.10 The Power of Organisational Culture

Undeniably, providers' personal characteristics can dramatically impact on customers' perceptions of the service experience. Additionally, OC can have a powerful influence an individual's behaviour and performance (Harber, Burgess, & Barclay, 1993; Schneider & Bowen, 1992). This has important implications for managers and the notion of control of employee behaviour and actions in service encounters. Sureshchandar, Rajendran, and Anantharaman (2001) note that a service culture can guide employee behaviour. They argue that the organisation's values, morals and beliefs (i.e. culture) are captured by the policies, procedures and routines in the various functional systems of the organisation such as operations, marketing and human resource management (HRM). For example, Schneider and Bowen (1992) examined four traditional HRM procedures (entry, training, rewards, and effectiveness criteria) to ascertain their potential as attributes of a service climate. If an employee's behaviour can be regulated, it is possible that organisational factors such as rules, regulations, and policies can have a profound impact on the behaviour of the employees of the organisation. Social and non-formal aspects of the work environment can also be influential. In fact, Buchanan and Huczynski (1985) define organisations as "the social arrangements for the controlled performance of collective goals" (p. 5). This definition suggests that organisations are social arrangements that involve interactions between people who through their "controlled performance" will behave in specific ways.

Equally, OC has been described as:

> A patterned system of perceptions, meanings, and beliefs about the organization which facilitates sense making amongst a group of people sharing common experiences and guides individual behaviour at work. (Bloor & Dawson, 1994, p. 276)

Organisational culture has also been defined as:

> The pattern of shared and stable beliefs and values that are developed within a company across time. (Gordon & Di Tomaso, 1992, p. 784)

While there is no single definition of culture, the above two examples highlight the influence of OC on people in the workplace. In the past 20 years a great deal has been written about the work environment and in particular, about OC and how it can influence an individual's behaviour in the workplace.

The 1980s heralded an increasing awareness of the effects of OC on organisations and employees. Peters and Waterman (1982) and Deal and Kennedy (1982) were perhaps the first authors to advocate that a strong culture was the basis of organisational success. Subsequent research on OC undertaken by management academics and practitioners resulted in the publication of complete issues of journals dedicated to the subject, e.g. *Organisation Dynamics* (Autumn, 1983), *Administrative Science Quarterly* (September, 1983) and *Journal of Management Studies* (May, 1986). Much later some empirical studies explored the link between dimensions of culture and employee-related factors such as satisfaction, performance, commitment and cohesion. For example, Buono, Bowditch, and Lewis (1985) investigated the impact of OC on employees involved in the merger of banking firms; Koberg and Chusmir (1987) assessed the effects of OC on the motivation and creativity of managers; Odom, Boxx, and Dunn (1990) found that a bureaucratic culture in transport organisations was not conducive to employee job satisfaction, commitment and work-group cohesion, factors which can be linked to job performance; Sheridan (1992) explored the relationship between OC and employee retention for college graduates in accounting firms; Nystrom (1993) noted that employees in health care organisations had high job satisfaction and strong organisational commitment that could be linked to strong OCs; Vandenberghe (1999) examined the link between OC and employee turnover.

There is a growing substantial body of research that has assessed the impact of an organisation's work environment on employee attitudes, cognitions and behaviour

(Ostroff, 1993). O'Reilly *et al.* (1991) used longitudinal data from cross-sectional data from employees in public accounting firms and government agencies and accountants and MBA students to develop and validate an instrument for assessing person-organisation fit, the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP). They found that differences in personality characteristics led to individual differences in preferences for various OCs. Also using cultural dimensions, Dwyer, Teal, Kemp, and Wah (2000) identified 10 key characteristics of OC in a resort hotel on Bintan Island, Indonesia. They concluded that these characteristics were critical to the socialization of employees and to employee performance. In a more specialist vein, Deery and Shaw (1998) investigated the existence of a turnover culture in four Melbourne hotels. With a sample size of 221 cases they isolated 23 items in the turnover culture cluster, all of which presented a negative orientation toward work and life. Their findings confirmed the work of Vallen (1993) that stress and so, turnover was less prominent in organisations that have a positive, participative workplace. Similarly, Testa (2001) sampled 425 employees in two service organisations to assess the work-related attitudes of organisational commitment and job satisfaction. He found that increased job satisfaction led to increased organisational commitment and, sequentially, service effort.

Research into OC is extensive and expanding in the service industry literature. In a discussion about congruence of culture with service, Woods (1996) outlined several studies that have examined the effect of culture on various organisational performance variables. These include impacts of culture on employee productivity (Ouchi & Wilkins, 1985); on loyalty by employees and managers (Mitroff & Kilmann, 1985); on job stress (Posner, Kouces, & Schmidt, 1985); on employee teamwork and sense of solidarity (Smircich & Morgan, 1982); and on trust (Wilkins & Dyer, 1988). All in all, Woods (1996) identified 53 organisational performance variables that have been related to OC. Despite this plethora and variety of research and the growth in research currently undertaken in hospitality, the literature is impoverished in information relating to OC in hospitality.

1.3.11 Service Cultures

In service organisations, a strong, entrenched culture, which fosters customer orientation and nurtures an appreciation for good service is a key factor in ensuring positive customer-employee interactions. A strong culture has been previously defined as a set of values that are widely shared throughout the organisation and which are strongly held by its members (O'Reilly *et al.*, 1991). It has been suggested that a strong culture is of particular importance in service organisations because of the nature of services. The human nature of service encounters means that they can be difficult to manage" (Lee-Ross, 2001). The behaviour of both customers and employees cannot be totally standardized and predetermined. Each situation will vary. Various authors note that the organisation's culture influences employees' behaviour throughout service encounters (Lewis & Entwhistle, 1990; Lee-Ross, 2001). Some even suggest that a distinct service-oriented culture informs employees of how they are "to respond to new, unforeseen and even awkward situations" (Grönroos, 2000, p. 359). Grönroos (2000, p. 360) defines such a culture as:

> A culture where an appreciation for good service exists, and where giving good service to internal as well as ultimate, external customers is considered by everyone a natural way of life and one of the most important values. Hence, service has to be the *raison d' être* for all organisational activities.

Several authors argue that a service-oriented culture consists of shared attitudes and values that impact on individuals within an organisation such that interactions externally between employees and customers contribute to the customers' perception of good quality service (e.g. Gronröos, 2000, Schneider, 1990). Internally, between employees, such a culture can provide strength and support and foster positive working relationships. Hence, a service-oriented culture can promote an important favourable process within an organisation whereby the service-oriented culture encourages employees to take a positive interest in the delivery of quality service. This could entail the employee displaying concern for their customers, perhaps by being courteous, empathetic and flexible, trying to meet customer's needs and wishes, or by going out of their way to rectify a situation where a problem has arisen. This in turn, can enhance the customer's perception of service quality, and

contribute to the organisation's profitability. Gronröos (2000) argues that this positive process progresses as "an upward spiral" where increased profitability provides the impetus to sustain propitious service-oriented attitudes amongst employees.

Schneider, White and Paul (1998) support this view by noting that employees' experiences are seemingly linked to customers' experiences and add that the development of a service quality culture is the prerequisite of an effective organisation. Dale (1999) also concludes that OC is an important factor in promoting an individual's behaviour for delivery of quality service. He maintains that a service organisation could achieve better performance and higher efficiency through the establishment of the right service quality culture. Attaining a service quality culture is an attractive proposition to today's worldwide organisations that are competing in both local and global markets.

Grönroos (2000) emphasises that a service-oriented OC paradigm requires deliberate consideration of various aspects such as the working relationships between staff, communication channels and empowerment of workers. These principles and elements, supported by a good management system, form the foundation for companies moving towards the service-oriented OC paradigm. The outcome of a service-oriented OC is a set of behaviours, attitudes and processes, which prevail throughout organisations and influence the service encounter so as to produce high-quality services. Grönroos (2000, p. 358) states that:

> When employees identify with the values of an organisation, they are less inclined to quit … (and) when there is a minimal employee turnover, service-oriented values and a positive attitude toward service is more easily transmitted to newcomers in the organisation.

The hospitality industry is a service industry, which also must consider the presence and influence of a service culture.

1.3.12 Organisational Culture in Hospitality

In 1998, Guerrier and Deery (p. 149) conducted and comprehensive review of research relating to hospitality and concluded that there is "a relative dearth of studies into OC" in hospitality. Several studies have investigated the relationship between OC and

performance in this sector. For example, Tidball (1988) proposes that company profitability can be related to culture. Wilkins and Patterson (1985) confer that there are a number of cultural factors that can affect the efficiency of hospitality organisations. More specifically, LeBlanc and Mills (1995) emphasise that organisational improvement and performance in hospitality relies on a strong OC. This is maintained by Kemp and Dwyer (2001) who suggest that organisational effectiveness could be enhanced by the development of a strong culture.

Other studies have concentrated on variables of OC. For example, Penzer's (1990) study highlighted the negative consequences of low pay. Similarly, Iverson and Deery (1997) observed that high turnover rates could have negative impacts on OC. Further, Woods (1991) assesses OC and details some of its underlying constructs. He suggests how managers can discover their OC. Contributions have also been made by researchers examining cultural change (e.g. Lockwood & Guerrier, 1989; Woods & McCauley, 1989) and the impact on employee burnout (Vallen, 1993). Notably, Bronwell (1990) applies theories of culture and organisational symbolism to provide an analysis of organisational change. She concludes that managers need to give greater consideration to culture and how it can be utilized to guide their organisation through change. This theme is pursued by Watson and D'Annunzio-Green (1996) who conducted a study in two large hotels to examine the role of human resource management (HRM) in facilitating cultural change. They concluded that HRM was not a key factor in change processes.

Amongst the review of the literature on OC in mainstream management, the research has been substantial and has been able to provide specific variables of OC. In services and, to a lesser extent, in hospitality the body of literature is growing. Research on employee characteristics, behaviour and performance is also considerably extensive in both mainstream management and service literature. Despite this, no known research has been conducted examining the influence of OC on the service predispositions of hospitality workers. This vacuum leaves both researchers and practitioners with an imprecise understanding of the influences of OC on frontline employees. If the links between OC and employee behaviour and performance are misguided or incomplete, factors relating to employees such as job satisfaction, employee turnover, and work performance could be dramatically affected and have a flow on affect to delivery of service.

It is anticipated that one way this study will contribute to existing theory is to uncover OC but further, by focusing on a single industry, it will uncover the industry-specific nature of OC within hotels. Such an approach accentuates the practical utility of studying OC in that it provides knowledge and understanding for managers to use in the management of their workforce. These are important tools for managers in an industry, such as the hospitality industry, that is heavily operationally oriented.

1.3.13 A Distinctive Way of Doing Things

The concept of industry-specific cultures is not new and has sometimes been recognized as 'cosmopolitan occupational communities'. Salaman (1974, p. 19) identifies occupational communities as, "People who are members of the same occupation, or who work together, have some sort of common life together and are to some extent separate from the rest of society". Van Maanen and Barley (1984, p. 287) take a similar perspective and define an occupational community as:

> A group of people who consider themselves to be engaged in the same sort of work, whose identity is drawn from their work; who share with one another a set of values, norms, and perspectives … these occupational communities create and sustain relatively unique work cultures consisting of, among other things, task rituals, standards for proper and improper behavior, work codes surrounding relatively routine practices, and compelling accounts attesting to the logic and value of these rituals, standards, and codes.

These definitions present an image of occupational communities where individuals view themselves as members of the occupation rather than the organisation.

In this study the community of hotel workers is described as an occupational community. It is proposed that the cultural beliefs of the hotel occupational community are an integrating factor to the formation of a 'hospitality culture'. With a history steeped in a tradition of providing 'hospitality' to its customers, it seems that in hospitality, there is an unspoken way of doing things that reflects the cultural norms and values of the industry. Riley (1991, p.1) contends that, "each type of service … has its own labour markets and, for those who work in it, has its own

culture". He argues that the hotel and catering industry is quite unique and as such, its culture is exceptionally strong. Riley (1991, p. 1) states that:

> What with all those uniforms, strange sounding job titles, tipping and unsocial hours, not to mention the high levels of entrepreneurship and labour mobility. It is not too surprising to hear a claim for being a bit special. [Further, the] kind of skills that workers in the hotel and catering industry possess are generally confined to that industry. This makes for an efficient labour market between the various sectors of the industry.

The work of authors such as Riley (1991), Salaman (1974) and Van Maanen and Barley (1984) accentuates the feasibility that a hospitality culture exists within the hotel industry. In such a culture, the artifacts would be the myths and rituals associated with providing service in a hotel and include such aspects as the standard way to set a table for a-la-carte service, or to check a guest into their room or to greet a guest. Accordingly, the espoused values would support a commitment to the provision of service through genuine hospitality. As Mars and Nicod (1984) note:

> [While the hospitality industry] includes widely differing organisations serving very diverse markets. We [may] … treat hotels as a single industry … because variations between hotels are less obvious than the characteristics they hold in common: *whatever* else a hotel … aims to do, it must always provide *service*. (p. 28)

Schein (1992, p. 278) adds that occupational communities "have a common base of knowledge, a common jargon, similar background and training, and a sense of identifying with each other … (they) have developed a shared set of basic assumptions". For hospitality workers, working in hospitality is like undertaking a trade. They are generally trained on-the-job and the skills they learn in one establishment they take to another where they build on and refine those skills. Cullen (1997) identifies this method of training as 'apron training' and the most common in the industry. He continues by noting that generally, a new employee is matched with an employee who 'knows the ropes' and the latter are instructed that the new person be 'shown around, shown what to do'.

The dangers with this approach are that bad habits are conveyed, quality not articulated, and appropriate skills are not learnt. However, if the new employee's training is planned and purposeful, there is no reason why it cannot be delegated to more experienced staff. The diligent supervisor would then regularly check on the new employee to monitor and record progress. Powers (1995) also mentions on-the-job training as the usual method of training in the industry and emphasizes the need for an appropriate training programme conducted by a training specialist. Cullen (1997) adds that the most skilled and experienced person in a particular job is not necessarily the most suitable person to train others. He notes that "To have knowledge is one thing, to be able to impart it is quite another" (p. 199). Likewise, Gray and Liguori (1994, p. 52) state, "Training, (is) a must for all hotel employees". Further, they make a special note of the fact that for frontline employees' training is not only about learning the functions, duties and responsibilities of one's position, it also incorporates knowing how to interact with customers. It is said that in hospitality, "Training, then, is a constant, never-ending function, that shows the employees not only what to do and how to do it, but also what to say and how to say it" (Gray & Liguori, 1994, p. 66). Cullen (1997) urges hospitality organisations to promote an OC that fosters life-long training.

In addition, Cullen (1997) notes that many tasks within the industry are repetitive and boring. He argues that training can be used as an incentive. There is little job satisfaction in polishing cutlery or setting tables for the umpteenth time this week but if the food and beverage attendant is given the opportunity to make cocktails, learn cashiering or cross-train in front office, s/he will be encouraged to do their job well. Further incentives exist in the many opportunities for challenging work, careers development, and travel. Through the right training and experience the result could be "a professional hotelier [who] is a highly skilled individual with a wide range of talents" (Cullen, 1997, p. 197).

However, there appears to be a perception that hotel work is "dull and low-skilled" (Ogbonna & Harris, 2002, p. 38). Cullen (1997, p. 197) points out that "The breakfast cook may not know that executive chefs are among the highest-paid professionals in the country" or that "The school leaver who takes a job as a kitchen porter could, one day, become a top-flight restaurant manager". There is no disputing that the industry has many

disadvantages such as unsociable, long hours, labour intensiveness and questionable management styles (Deery & Shaw, 1998). Added to this is the notion of 'emotional intelligence'. Anderson *et al*. (2003, p. 2) defined this term, as "the effort, planning and control needed to express organisationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions". It refers to the way employees function within organisations and is said to provide "the 'heart' that is the essential working of the 'mind' that creates the intellectual capital" (Thomson, 1998 in Lashley & Lee-Ross, 2003, p. 109). In service organisations, the process of service delivery is dependent upon "the emotional displays of front-line employees to match the expectations of their customers" (Lashley & Lee-Ross, 2003, p. 112). As services organisations seek competitive advantage through the intangible elements of service, such as emotional intelligence, the hospitality industry is relying on the human element in service interactions. The question is, are the attitudes of hotel workers influenced by the hotel workforce culture or are they so entrenched in the individual that they remain consistent, regardless of the surrounding OC?

1.3.14 The Importance of This Study

The literature suggests that the hospitality workers' propensity to deliver quality service is governed by OC and perhaps, more specifically by a distinctive hospitality culture. For example, Ruekert (1992) found that a market-oriented culture could be linked to employee job performance. In addition, Kohli, Jaworski, & Kumar (1993) conclude that a market orientation within an organisation is strongly and positively related to organisational commitment and *espirit de corps*. From a customer perspective, Schneider and Bowen (1993) note that customers' reporting of excellent service experiences is consistent with employees' perception that the organisation is service oriented.

Studies have highlighted the pervasiveness of OC and the need for managers to be aware of the underlying dimensions of their OC and how it affects employee-related variables, such as performance and delivery of service. Although studies have assessed some important issues relating to OC in service industries, none have specifically examined the influence OC on the attitudes of hotel workers. There appears to be a little in the literature that examines the influence of OC on service predispositions. Further, none of the studies have examined the relationship within the framework of the hospitality environment. This thesis explores key factors of OC that can impact on employee-related variables in relation

to delivery of service in hospitality organisations. It aims to fill the gap in the services marketing literature and in current knowledge of employee service attitudes. It is important because it provides information that will enhance knowledge and understanding of frontline employees within the service industry, especially the hotel sector. To begin with, however, it is necessary to consider the concept of hospitality and the importance of this industry.

1.4 Background to the Research

1.4.1 The Concept of Hospitality

Hospitality has always been associated with the development of business, tourism and travel (Wearne, 1997). Integral to the concept of hospitality is the richness of the many traditions that have accompanied it through history. As far back as the Egyptians, Greeks and Romans, pleasure and tourist resorts were built. For the ancient Greeks, hospitality was strongly associated with religion. It was believed that Zeus Xenios provided visitors with care and protection during their stay and that any violation of the responsibilities of hospitality would provoke the wrath of the gods (Lockwood, 1996, p.3).

As civilization expanded and people began to travel for trade and communication, the concept of hospitality was extended to include a place providing rest, food and shelter for travellers (Wearne, 1997, p. 3). Often religious houses and monasteries took on the responsibility of providing for these travellers. Gradually hospitality emerged as a commercial enterprise with the evolution of 'inns'. By the fourteenth century, the business of hospitality was firmly established (Medlik and Airey, 1978). Further developments included the growth of coffee houses from 1650 in Oxford, inland and seaside resorts, and the first hotels. These days, the modern traveller is able to choose from a myriad of hospitality establishments that cater to various needs and wants.

The early perception of hospitality is echoed in its definitions. The word "hospitality" comes from the Latin *hospes, which* means "guest" (Wearne, 1997). In the dictionary hospitality is defined as the "friendly, and generous reception and entertainment of customers or strangers" (*Oxford Reference Dictionary*, 1996, p.424) and as "the kindness in welcoming strangers or customers" (*The Collins Australian Pocket Dictionary*, 1992, p. 398). Lashley (2000) extends the understanding of hospitality to include:

> Hospitality is essentially a relationship based on host and guest. To be effective, hospitality requires the guest to feel that the host is being hospitable through feelings of generosity, a desire to please, and a genuine regard for the guest as an individual. (p. 15).

The term 'hospitable' is often used in relation to hospitality. In the *Oxford English Dictionary* (1970, p. 405) hospitable is defined as "offering or affording welcome and entertainment to strangers … of persons … disposed to receive or welcome kindly; open and generous in mind or disposition". Later editions of the *Oxford English Dictionary* (1989) define hospitality as, "the act or practice of being hospitable; the receptions and entertainment of customers, visitors or strangers with liberality or goodwill". Burgess (1982) recognizes two aspects of hospitality: the social interaction and the physical environment. He notes that:

> The outer primary interacting element is that of the social relationship fostered by the warm, friendly, welcoming, courteous, open, generous behaviour of the host creating the hospitable social environment. This promotes the positive feeling of security and comfort created by the physical structure, design, décor and location of the facility. Finally the provision of accommodation facilities to sleep, relax and wash, together with the supply of food, beverage, service and entertainment. (p. 50)

Similarly, Nailon (1982) describes the importance of hospitality in satisfying both the physical and the intangible needs of the customers, "Hospitality (is) … concerned with the provision of physiological and psychological comfort and security within defined levels of service" (p. 141). Cassee and Reuland (1983) enforce this view by noting that, "… hospitality is a harmonious mixture of food, beverage and /or shelter, a physical environment and the behaviour and attitude of people. This produces a feeling of being at home, an "at-ease" feeling in people who do not belong to the group of people who produce hospitality, but stay under their roof" (p. 145).

These definitions provide an awareness of the connotations emphasized by the term hospitality and identify hospitality as a complex blend of tangible goods (e.g. accommodation, meals) and intangible service elements (e.g. cheerful and helpful staff), namely physical environment and social interaction. In particular, they have a strong focus on the attitudinal and behavioural aspects of the service provided. A friendly, happy and efficient provider can enhance the customer's experience. Service is a notion that is central to the concept of hospitality. Most importantly it is the people, the customers and the employees, who have the greatest impact upon how the hospitality service is delivered. It is their attitude and behaviour that becomes part of the service product.

1.4.2 Uniqueness of the Hospitality Environment

Traditionally there is a perception that hospitality workers are "the dregs of society: doing dirty, tedious and hard jobs for little pay" (Guerrier & Adib, 2000, p. 257). Guerrier and Adib (2000) describe hospitality as consisting of "dehumanizing work, demeaning management styles and inadequate pay" (p. 257). Similarly, Lashley and Lee-Ross (2003) note that it is thought hospitality workers "are in some way marginal or different from other workers" (p. 234). In addition Guerrier & Adib (2000) state that, "The picture generally is of an industry which employs large numbers of people from groups who are disadvantaged in the labour market and are confined to less skilled and less well paid positions" (p.259). Powers (1995) suggests that work in hospitality is considered by many people to be "too demanding, too dull, or beneath them" (p. 559).

Fortunately, working in hospitality has also been depicted as being exotic and exciting where hotel workers mix with rich, famous and interesting people (Guerrier & Adib, 2000). At the extreme is Orwell's (1933 in Guerrier & Adib, 2000) depiction of the waiter delivering a superb performance to the customer who highlights the difference between the authentic (back-of-house) and the staged (front-of-house):

> It is an instructive sight to see a waiter going into a hotel dining room. As he passes the door a sudden change comes over him. The set of his shoulders alters; all the dirt and hurry and irritation have dropped off in an instant. He glides over the carpet with a solemn priest-like air . . . And you (cannot) help

> thinking, as you (see) him bow and smile, with the benign smile of the trained waiter, that the customer (is) put to shame by having such an aristocrat serve him. (p. 256)

Lashley (1997) describes the experience of an employee and notes that working in hospitality can be fun:

> I like the relationship with customers. I like to feel that I have given them a good time whilst they are in the restaurant. Last week I had a party in from one of the theatres, I didn't rush them. I took time and we had a good laugh with them. After the meal one customer asked me for a cigar. We don't sell cigars, so I went next door to the tobacconist and bought one for him. He was really grateful. Afterwards they thanked me for a great time and left a £20 tip. Management wanted me to hurry them through so as to bring in more customers, I don't like to rush people. (p. 122)

In this example, perhaps the tip motivated the employee but there also seems to be a sense that the employee was genuinely enjoying himself.

Guerrier and Adib (2000) point out that with large, composite organisations such as the global chains, entering the hospitality sector, there has been a shift toward quality jobs and that work in the contemporary hospitality industry can actually lead to a rewarding career choice. Powers (1995) describes the hospitality profession as one of the "oldest of the humane professions" concerned with the care of a customer or client. He adds that a hospitality graduate in today's industry has also opportunities for expedient advancement to becoming a successful manager. There is no doubt that there still exists a great range of jobs in a variety of organisations that may support the paradoxes of work in hospitality as described above but the prospect for the future is of a dynamic industry that can provide an exciting and gratifying career.

While the hospitality industry is slowly changing, the majority of jobs are still classed as unskilled, semi-skilled or skilled manual work (Lucas, 1995). The hospitality industry is characterized by employment of staff of varying levels of skill and at times with no skills

or knowledge of the standards and procedures of service delivery or customer liaison. Further, it is reported that employment patterns in the hospitality industry parallel gender, age and ethnicity. For example, most women work in the less skilled jobs and men are employed in skilled work or as managers (Guerrier & Adib, 2000). Also, the hospitality sector provides the ideal first work experience for many young people and ethnic minorities and migrants workers who have limited skills. In addition to this, the aging of the 'baby boomers' (the population's largest group) means that the workforce will consist of much older workers who could be working in the hospitality industry (Powers, 1995, p. 560).

The hotel industry is characterized by high casualisation rates, intensive labour demands, low job security and sometimes dubious management styles (Deery & Shaw, 1998). Many hospitality organisations are also characterized by high labour turnover. This is no wonder with the sometimes irregular, long and unsociable hours that hospitality employees are expected to work. This can lead to work becoming the focus of the worker's life (Guerrier & Adib, 2000). Some authors have spoken of "occupational communities" where the boundaries between work and leisure are obscured such that the identity of the hospitality worker is attached to a particular establishment and to relationships with co-workers (Lee-Ross, 1996; Shamir, 1980). There is little time or opportunity to develop outside interests or friends and people at work become a 'surrogate family' (Lee-Ross, 1996).

With all its uniqueness, the question is raised as to whether there exists such an entity as a distinctive hotel culture. Research into OC is extensive and has identified specific types of OCs, such as team-oriented culture (O'Reilly *et al.*, 1991) and turnover culture (Deery & Shaw, 1998). In the mainstream service management literature, some work has investigated the relationship between the organisational environment and employees (e.g. James & James, 1989; Schneider & Bowen, 1993). Even within hospitality some research is emerging that explores organisational climate (e.g. Ryder & Southey, 1990; Davidson, 2000) but the focus of these studies is on organisational performance and effectiveness rather than on the employees. It is said that service quality can provide the competitive advantage that organisations need to survive (e.g. Hamel & Prahalad, 1989; Powers, 1995; Roberts, 2001). Additionally, the literature maintains that employees are a critical component of the service quality chain. However, little has been done to examine the

influence of OC on a key player in the service delivery process, i.e. the hotel employee. For management, attempting to gain competitive advantage through delivery of quality service, it is important to understand and recognize the importance of the employee. Recent findings would add that hospitality managers could benefit from providing a hospitality experience, rather than a service.

1.4.3 The Hospitality Experience

Pine and Gilmore (1999) introduced the notion of the "experience economy" and recognise experiences as a fourth economic offering, a distinct "*genre of economic output*" (p. ix) representing "the new competitive landscape" (p. xii). According to Pine and Gilmore (1999), services are intangible activities performed to meet individual requests of particular clients. Experiences, on the other hand, are activities or events that engage individuals in a memorable and personal way. Hospitality workers are part of the experience economy. They orchestrate experiences to provide customers with lasting memories of their dining or lodging experiences.

In the experience economy, workers routinely perform acts of theatre (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). For example, the waiter performs an act of theatre when s/he directs patrons to their table. The receptionist engages in theatre when she checks-in a guest. So does the barman when he converses with customers. As Pine and Gilmore (1999, p. 107) note, "Watch your food server the next time you dine out: the taking of orders, the placing of dishes, the bussing of tables – it's all theatre". Further, Pine and Gilmore (1999) state that experience providers should, "Walk the talk" (p. 107) and, "You are a performer. Your work is theatre" (p. 111). They go on to say, "a bellman at a Ritz-Carlton warmly welcomes guests back by name – accomplished by reviewing a daily printout of expected new guests and their distinguishing traits (much like a soap opera actor learns new scripts on a daily basis) – makes a remarkable impression" (Pine & Gilmore, 1999, p. 113). Hence, if hospitality is to be considered as more than an opportunity to provide a service, i.e. an opportunity to engage customers in an experience, the contribution of hospitality workers to the experience economy confirms the importance of hospitality. Statistical evidence from respected authorities adds to this.

1.4.4 The Importance of the Hospitality Industry

The hospitality industry is an enormous sector that includes all forms of accommodation, dining and drinking and has links to transport, tourism, entertainment, recreation and games (Wearne, 1997). It is recognized as one of the world's largest employer of people. The World Travel and Tourism Council's (WTTC, 2004a) Tourism Satellite Accounting (TSA) research estimates that in 2004, travel and tourism will generate 215 million jobs worldwide (8.1% of the global workforce). Some cities, regions or countries are almost entirely reliant on tourism and hospitality. In the United States, tourism and hospitality is amongst the three biggest income-generating industries. According to the WTTC (2004b) on an international scale, travel and tourism contribute 10.4% of total Gross Domestic Product (GDP), 12.2% of exports and US$5490.4 billion of economic activity. In the UK, two million people are employed in the commercial and non-commercial sectors of the hospitality industry (Guerrier & Adib, 2000). In Australia, in March 2003 there were 77 477 licensed hotels[2] with an average occupancy of 64% and takings for accommodation for the March 2003 quarter reaching $Aus 621 million (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2003). It was estimated by the WTTC (2004a) that in 2004 Australia's travel and tourism industry would generate 1,239,650 jobs in Australia (12.9% of total employment), AUD$101.0 billion of GDP (12.3% of total GDP).

According to the Tourism Forecasting Council (2001), tourism is expected to "drive the Australian economy over the next decade with a forecast of 4.5% average annual growth in nights spent in Australia by international visitors, and 1.9% average annual growth for nights by domestic visitor". In the aftermath of recent world events (e.g. the Iraq conflict and Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome, SARS), the reviewed predicted growth for 2004 is 0.9% for domestic tourism (visitor nights) and 7.6% for international arrivals (Tourism Forecasting Council, 2003). The Tourism Forecasting Council (2001) defines a tourist as "someone traveling at least 40 kilometres from their place of residence for a period of less

[2] According to the Australian Bureau of Statistics (2003), a licensed hotel refers to "hotels and resorts with 15 or more rooms which are licensed to operate a public bar and which provide accommodation on a room/suite basis, with a bath/shower and toilet in most guest rooms, but which do not have full cooking facilities (i.e. hot plates and oven/microwave) in most guest rooms."

than twelve months for the purposes of a holiday, leisure, visiting friends or relatives, an event or festival, business reasons, a conference, shopping, medical, or educational reasons" and includes accommodation provided by hotels[3].

The Queensland Treasury predicted that "in 1998/99 tourism contributed $6.3 billion or 6.4% to the Queensland Gross State Product, and employed over 150,000 Queenslanders, 9.3% of all persons employed" (Tourism Queensland, 2003). This made tourism one of the key employers in Queensland for that year. The retail sector was the leader, employing 200,000 employees. The Tropical North Queensland region contributed $870 million (13.8% of Queensland's Gross State Product) in the 1998-99 period (Tourism Queensland, 2003). French, Craig-Smith & Collier (1995) indicate that the hospitality sector of the Australian tourism industry represents greater than half of the total workforce and so, is the most significant component when compared to tourism transport, retail travel and other tourism services. While these figures provide an indication of the importance of the tourism and hospitality industry to the Queensland economy, they may vary depending on the methodology and approach taken in gathering the data, percentage of responses, what exactly is represented by 'tourism' and its components (e.g. hospitality).

The scope and importance of the tourism and hospitality industry in Australia has witnessed dramatic growth over the last 15 to 20 years. Once unknown towns have now become flourishing cities. Cairns, in Tropical North Queensland, is one such example. Once a sugar farming community, Cairns is now a major tourist destination for both domestic and international visitors. Recently released figures from the Bureau of Tourism Research (in Tourism Queensland, 2003) confirm the Cairns region to be one of the most popular destinations for international visitors to Queensland. It recorded 759 749 international visitors for the year ended June 2003 942% of the total international visitors to Queensland (Tourism Queensland, 2003). Cairns also had the third highest number of visitor nights spent by international visitors on holiday or visiting friends and relatives for the state (5 397 000 nights). The highest recorded number of international visitors nights

[3] It should be noted that these figures do not include 'locals', i.e. people within 40 kilometres who frequent these hotels mostly on weekends and during holiday periods.

was for Brisbane (8 010 000) with the Gold Coast second (5 423 000). Currently, Cairns has the fifth busiest international airport in Australia (Cairns Chamber of Commerce, 2003). It has more hotel rooms than Adelaide, Perth, Melbourne or Brisbane.

In March of 2003 it consisted of 92 establishments with 7141 available rooms and an average occupancy rate of 62.1per cent for the Cairns City area (Office of Economic and Statistical Research, 2003). The takings for accommodation for Cairns for the 12 months ended March 2002 were reported to be $119.4 million, accounting for 9.5 percent of Queensland's takings for accommodation for this period. In Cairns, hospitality and tourism are the backbone of the region's economy, with hospitality and tourism collectively contributing $2 billion to the Cairns region (Cairns Chamber of Commerce, 2002). Hence, with the narrowness of the economy in Cairns and the importance of hospitality industry to the economy of the Cairns region, the hotel sector in Cairns offers an opportune research site for the investigation of the relationship between service predispositions and OC. This, then, leads to the aim of this study.

1.5 Purpose of This Study

The overall aim of this study is to determine the influence of OC on employees' service predispositions within the hospitality industry of Tropical North Queensland. The principal aim of this study was achieved by addressing the following objectives:

- To develop a profile of the service predispositions of employees within the hotel industry of Cairns by using the SPI (Lee-Ross, 1999, 2000).
- To identify the nature and characteristics of OC within various hotels by using an OC questionnaire developed specifically for this study.
- To investigate the influence of OC on the service predispositions of hotel employees by integrating the data from both the SPI and OC surveys to identify any underlying relationships.
- To provide information that can assist hospitality managers to better understand the potential of the people they recruit, the behaviour of employees within their establishment and the nature of the OC so that they can formulate service strategies and design service systems that are appropriate and effective in the delivery of quality service.

These objectives raise a number of research questions, which are pursued in this study:

- Do profiles of the service predispositions of employees vary between hotels and departments? This is explored in Chapter 8.
- Is there a collective profile of service predispositions which relates to employees of the hotel industry in Cairns? This is also examined in Chapter 8.
- What elements characterize the nature of OC within the hotel industry in Cairns? Chapter 9 presents findings relating to this question.
- Is the influence of these characteristics of OC the same between hotels, and within hotels? This question is pursued in Chapter 10.
- Is there a common hospitality culture which permeates the hotel industry in the region? Chapter 10 also examines this issue.
- If so, what are its characteristics? This question is addressed in Chapter 10.

A triangulation of research methods is used to achieve this purpose. While these are outlined in Chapter 4, they include quantitative approaches through the use of a questionnaire and a qualitative approach. The questionnaire includes the SPI and an OC survey. The qualitative approach is largely an ethnographic study. In addressing the aim, objectives and research questions the scope of the research needs to be clarified. This is discussed in the following section.

1.6 Scope of This Study

The research undertaken in this thesis represents one way of assessing employees' service predispositions and OC. The study is largely exploratory in nature. It is an attempt at operationalising some of the concepts in the management literature through a triangulated approach. Triangulation is a valuable means of assessing congruence between data obtained from different methods. It adds richness and depth to the findings. By taking an emic[4] perspective it is possible to gain a wealth of information that could clarify any disparate results. Aside of the participant observation approach, this thesis recognizes

[4] The term emic (as opposed to etic) involves an insider-oriented naturalistic paradigm (e.g. Guba & Lincoln, 1981)

other methods of assessing service predispositions and OC (e.g. cognitive mapping). Further, this study does not pretend to uncover all the peculiarities of a specific culture. Rather it seeks to provide an insight into the relationship between hotel workers delivery of service and the environment they work in. As such, it acknowledges that the people and organisations investigated may not be a representative sample and that there may be local nuances in the findings. However, it is envisaged that this study makes valuable contributions to organisational theory and to the service industry and that it is the foundation for future promising research.

1.7 Expected Contributions of the Research

The service industry is a dynamic industry that has experienced exponential growth to become one of the fastest growing and largest sectors of the world economy. The hospitality industry, as a large segment of the service industry, is a key player in the provision of service. Research within this area has focused on the delivery of quality service, customer satisfaction, the role of frontline employees and organisational climate and culture. With the burgeoning of service industries, it is recognised that successful service organisations recruit and maintain employees with a service orientation and foster a service culture based on commitment from top management, well-developed channels of communication and consistency between policy and practice (Powers, 1995; Gronröos, 2000). This is the first known study to examine the relationship between service predispositions of hotel workers and the OC within those hotels. One of the primary concerns of this study is the service predispositions of hotel workers. It is expected that by examining the dimensions delineated by the SPI and developing profiles of hospitality workers, that it is possible to identify individual's levels of service orientation. It is envisaged that the SPI will become a tool used routinely at the operational level to assist managers and organisations in understanding the behaviour and performance of their employees and where possible improve on these factors. As such, it will facilitate recruitment and training and improve associated factors such as absenteeism, turnover, loyalty and job satisfaction.

Another of the core issues for this study is to isolate those elements of the OC over which management has some control. For example, in relation to work satisfaction and team spirit, factors such as job autonomy and workgroup cooperation will be examined. It is

anticipated that such data will assist managers in pinpointing areas that could be improved so as to enhance service delivery, employee and customer satisfaction and organisational effectiveness and profitability. Further, results obtained by assessing the relationship between service predispositions and OC will make it possible for managers to identify areas of concern and evaluate how best to manage them. As such, this study adds to previous research in understanding the behaviour of employees within an organisation and the nature of the OC within which they work.

The research presented in this thesis provides a means of assessing employees' service orientations and an organisation's culture. These tools should assist managers in developing benchmarks for 'desired' levels of service provision and identifying gaps between the 'actual' and the 'desired' service predispositions of employees. For the culture, this research through its quantitative and qualitative approach has the potential to add value to existing culture evaluation tools by providing insights into the operational nature and dynamics of OC. In fact, this study identifies elements of organisational culture within the hospitality industry and describes the relationships between these elements by way of a Model of Hospitality Culture which is presented in Chapter 10. One of the key features of this model is the presence of an occupational hospitality culture. This occupational hospitality culture is a pan culture which dictates the behaviours and actions of hospitality workers. This culture represents the very nature of hospitality, extends beyond the organisational hospitality culture and is akin to the culture of occupational communities. It is discussed more fully in Chapter 10.

Services are a major part of the real world. We all consume services and some of us even provide services (Barron & Harris, 2003). This study is important because it combines theory and practical knowledge to further augment understanding and knowledge of this phenomenon that is such an integral part of everyday life. It acknowledges the complexities of the service encounter and suggests ways of gaining insight into the various aspects involved (i.e. the dimensions of service predispositions and those of OC) and ways of managing them so as to improve the delivery of quality service, customer satisfaction and organisational profitability. These outcomes will inform both academics and practitioners and provide a valuable framework for future research. Hence, this study is important and has much to contribute to the realm of services marketing and management.

1.8 Overview of Thesis Structure

This thesis covers two converging areas of research (i.e. service predispositions and organizational culture). Accordingly, the structure of the thesis has been dictated by the various aspects of the research to be explored. A diagrammatic representation of the layout of the thesis is presented in Figure 1.2.

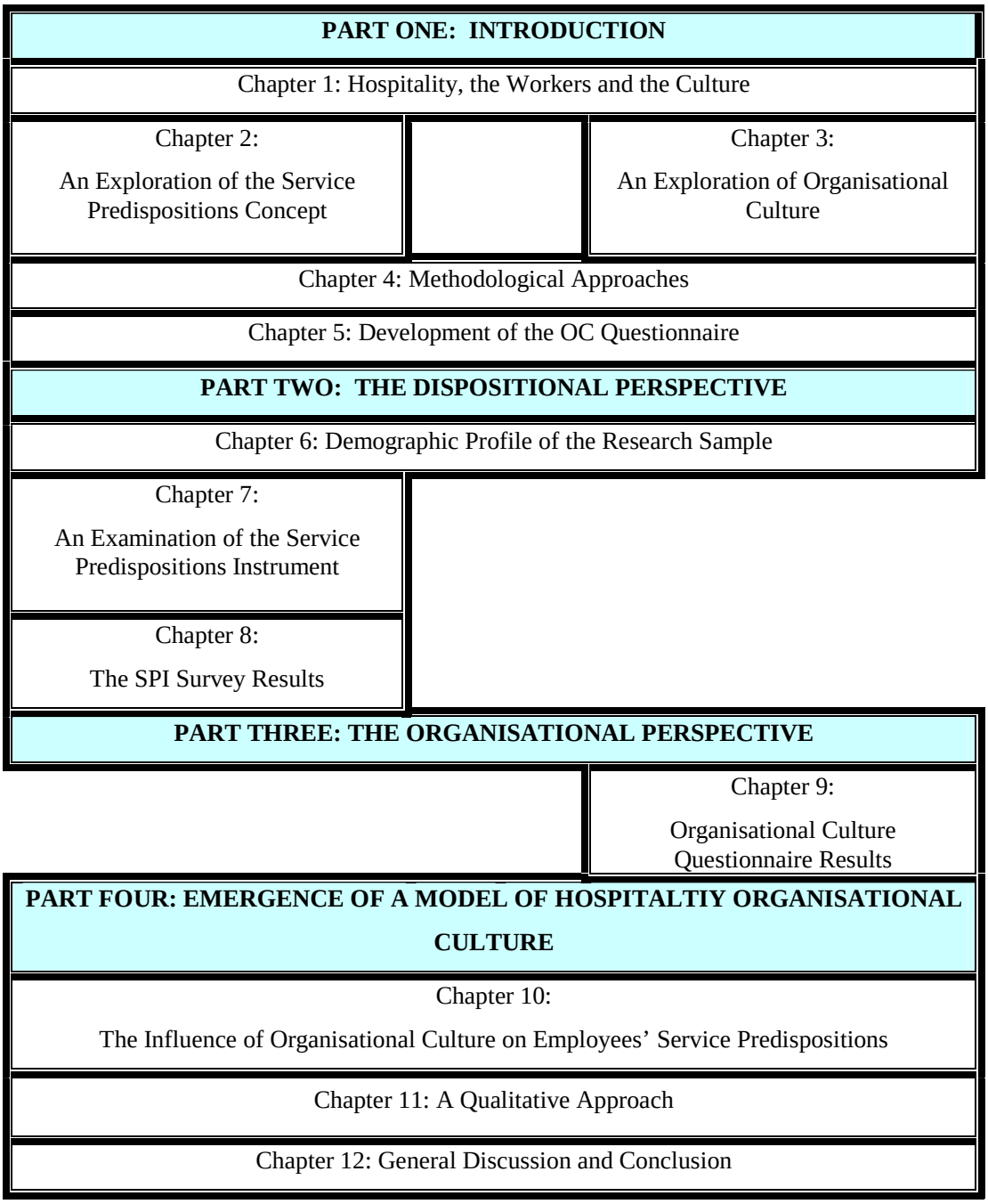


Figure 1.2: Outline of Thesis

Figure 1.2 shows that the thesis is divided into four parts. Part One consists of Chapters 1 to 5. The first part of the thesis sets the framework for the research. It investigates issues relating to this study and presents the central concepts within the broader context of the literature. Essentially, it presents a review of the literature relating to service

predispositions and OC, an overview of the methodological approaches, and the development of the OC questionnaire.

As has become apparent, Chapter 1 introduces key concepts relating to the thesis (i.e. service predispositions and organisational hospitality culture). It lays them within the context of larger issues such as service quality, hospitality and occupational culture. Chapter 2 is concerned with the employee and concentrates on aspects of the individual that predisposes them to providing quality service. It discusses service orientation and personality and details the Service Predisposition Model and the SPI. Chapter 3 explores the major issues pertaining to OC and includes a short history, definitions, typologies, and assessment of culture, climate and OC in the service industry. Chapter 4 presents the methodological approaches, examining advantages and disadvantages of both quantitative and qualitative approaches. It leads to Chapter 5, which is primarily concerned with the development of the OC questionnaire. During this latter process, relevant elements and variables from previous studies were examined, extracted and, where appropriate, incorporated into the questionnaire. Twelve elements were extracted and used as the basis for the organisational questionnaire. This chapter discusses the origins of these elements and their relevance to the research.

The second part of the thesis focuses on hotel employees. Chapter 6 presents the demographic profile of the research sample. Chapter 7 examines the reliability and validity of the SPI. Chapter 8 presents the SPI survey results and includes the service predisposition profiles of employees: (1) with all hotels considered collectively; (2) with comparisons made between hotels; and (3) comparisons between departments. Discriminant analysis is used to ascertain the profile of individuals who have a high service orientation.

The third part of the thesis discusses the findings relating to the OC questionnaire (Chapter 9). The findings from this chapter will provide a profile of the OC of each hotel and try to provide a collective typology of all the hotels.

In the fourth part, all parts of the thesis are drawn together to assess the relationship between the employees' service predispositions and OC. The key focus of Chapter 10 is

the statistical analysis and discussion of the relationships between OC and service predispositions. Chapter 11 presents the findings from the qualitative approach. Finally, Chapter 12 concludes with overall discussion of the findings, recommendations for managers, limitations of the current study, and directions for future research.

1.9 Summary

The working life of hotel employees presents a mixture of images. On the one hand, there is the portrait of professional hotel employee whose work is exotic, fun and adventurous. Supposedly, this is a working life where employees meet many wonderful and interesting people and have plenty of opportunities for travel, challenging work and career development (Picot, 1993; Whyte, 1946). On the other hand, there is the image of hospitality workers who are socially marginal individuals and whose work is tedious, dirty and with little pay but they do it because they have no alternative (Mars & Nicod, 1984). Discourses from the literature suggest that both these exist. The literature also suggests that hotel workers, like other service industry employees, have inherent dispositions that make them amenable to providing quality service (Hurley, 1998; Lee-Ross, 1999). Despite this, managers in hospitality are faced with problems relating to employee behaviour. Managers strive to balance issues such as job performance, job satisfaction, and work-group cohesion against high absenteeism, labour turnover, and labour costs. In an industry where customer satisfaction is paramount, the provision of service quality relies on the skills and attitudes of its employees who are at the customer contact interface. The relationship between employees' innate characteristics and the delivery of quality service, however, does not appear to be straightforward. It appears to be compounded by not only the nature of the worker and the nature of work but also by the nature of the workplace, i.e. the culture of the organisation.

Existing studies suggest that the pervasive and powerful influence of OC on employee-related factors could be a contributing factor. Also, the uniqueness of the hospitality industry, supports the existence of a distinctive hospitality culture (a cosmopolitan occupational hospitality culture) which some (e.g. Woods, 1993) suggest impacts on employee behaviour and performance. Numerous studies on service provision underline the importance of the customer-employee interaction (e.g. Parasuraman *et al*., 1985) and some emphasise the comparatively permanent tendency of employees to behave in a

particular manner during the service interaction (e.g. Lee-Ross, 1999). Several studies in the service industry are investigating the influence of OC on employees' behaviour and performance (e.g. Schneider & Bowen, 1992). However, such studies in hospitality are limited. Added to the lack of academic theory and empirical insights is the need for such information to be available to practitioners so that they can better understand their employees and the workplace and so, develop strategies that will enhance their organisational objectives. As services organisations seek competitive advantage through the intangible elements of service, such as emotional intelligence, the hospitality industry is relying on the human element in service interactions. The question for both practitioners and academics is: Are the attitudes of hotel workers influenced by the hotel workforce culture or are they so entrenched in the individual that they remain consistent, regardless of the surrounding OC? This study intends to fill the void in the literature and address the need to examine the nature of OC in hotels and assess its influence on the service predispositions of hotel workers.

CHAPTER 2

AN EXPLORATION OF THE SERVICE PREDISPOSITIONS CONCEPT

"Attitudes are the mind's paintbrush. They color any situation" (Anonymous)

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the literature on the service orientations of service employees and introduces some of the extant theories and models that examine the relationship between service provider characteristics and service provision. It presents an examination of the literature pertaining to employee attitudes and behaviour, service orientation and service predispositions. Further, it highlights the research that supports the notion that dispositions such as personality traits, service orientations and attitudes influence the behaviour of employees in the service encounter. The chapter concludes with an overview of the Service Predisposition Model (SPM) and the Service Predisposition Instrument (SPI) and their applicability to this study.

2.2 The Role of the Employee

2.2.1 The Service Encounter

The service encounter and the customer's evaluation of the quality of the service encounter are critical to the success of any service business. Perhaps one of the most important aspects of a successful service encounter is the service employee. Various authors acknowledge the importance of the customer-employee interaction in the service delivery process (e.g. Berry *et al.* 1988; Lovelock, 1985; Reisinger, 2001). According to Mills (1986) the service encounter in hospitality settings is a complex and extremely intense one that relies on the behaviour and performance of the service provider, their knowledge, skills, competence and personality. Lee-Ross (1999) adds that the attitudes of service industry workers can be a key factor in service provision. Reisinger (2001) also notes that this type of interpersonal transaction is very labour intensive and that the attitudes of the provider toward a customer can greatly influence the customer's satisfaction.

Past research has acknowledged the significance of the customer-employee interaction in the production of service (e.g. Berry, Zeithaml, & Parasuraman, 1985; Lovelock, 1984). For service organizations, high quality services that meet customers' needs are critical in achieving a competitive advantage (Holmlund & Kock, 1996; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988). More specifically, the pivotal role played by service providers in customers' evaluation of service delivery are recognized as being very important (e.g. Heskett, 1987; Heskett, *et al.*, 1994; Matteson, 1994). Baum and Nickson (1998, p. 76) remark that:

> The (service) industry proclaims itself as a 'people industry', dependent on the capability and enthusiasm of its front-line staff in order to deliver quality products and service with consistency.

These factors suggest that managers need to recognize the crucial nature of the service encounter and more specifically, the key characteristics of employees and their performance at the customer interface.

2.2.2 Service Workers: The "Public Face" of Their Organisations

Customer contact personnel have also been referred to as "boundary spanners", "gatekeepers" and "image makers" (Bowen & Schneider, 1985). They are the organisation's primary interface with the customers. Further, they are often perceived by the customer as being the service:

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

Service has been defined as "all actions and reactions that customers perceive they have purchased" (Lovelock, 1984, p.3). In hospitality, service is performed for the customer by people (e.g. a bar attendant serving drinks, a receptionist checking in a customer). From the customer's point of view, service is essentially presented by the performance of the staff who is the "public face" of the service organisation (Baum & Nickson, 1998). A brusque waiter can spoil a good meal or a hotel stay ruined by a cantankerous receptionist. Both the customer and service provider are involved in the service

transaction and the service experience may be enhanced or dampened by the interaction of both parties during the service encounter. Undoubtedly, the tangible side of the service experience must also be acceptable to the customer. For example, a friendly, efficient waiter does not compensate for a bad meal or dirty restaurant. Hence, both the tangible goods (e.g. meal, rooms) and intangible services (e.g. behaviour of service provider) are essential ingredients for a positive experience.

The relationship between characteristics of service providers and the quality of service delivered has attracted much attention in the literature. Anderson *et al.* (2003) observe that while the skills base of many service industry employees is considered to be low, for these same workers to deliver quality service, they need high levels of interpersonal and communication skills. They emphasise that customer relations skills are vital for front-line staff, such as front-office employees in the hotel industry. In addition, Cran (1994) proposes that "if service is regarded as a key job factor individual service orientation should hold as high a priority as skills, abilities or knowledge" (pp. 37-38). Cran (1994) points out, however, that the service orientation of workers varies and that individuals will differ in the way they respond to service interactions. Anderson *et al.* (2003) add that some workers' attitudes to service delivery will not be as positive as others. They propose that the personality of service workers affects their delivery of service. This study acknowledges the research on the influence of personality traits on employees' performance (e.g. Barrick & Mount, 1991; Chait, Carraher, & Buckley, 2000; Cran, 1994; McBride, Mendoza, & Carraher, 1997) and also recognizes that there is a lack of evidence about the relationship between employee's personality and effective service provision in the hospitality industry. Similarly, research into the impact of employees' service attitudes on service delivery is scant (Larsen & Bastiensen, 1991; Lee-Ross, 1999, 2000).

In terms of recruitment and selection, knowledge of the skills needed by customer contact personnel is crucial (Bitner, Booms, & Tetreault, 1990). It is risky to assume that service providers will automatically develop customer-oriented behaviour and that training is the miracle cure-all. Dubinsky (1994, p. 36) notes that first, service providers need the "right mental attitude for treating customers with genuine empathy, concern, respect, civility and affability". Second, the organisational culture (OC) should support a customer-oriented disposition in service personnel.

Organisations consist of people with differing characteristics, such as gender, social and cultural aspects, developmental aspects, motivation, abilities, personalities and attitudes (Mullins, 1995). All of these characteristics are dynamic and interact to produce the uniqueness of each individual. The management literature emphasizes the impact of various attributes of individuals on their behaviour in organisations and stresses that managers need to recognize individual differences between their employees if they are to foster a work environment that satisfies both individual and organisational needs and goals. In the world of service, personality is often viewed as a valuable predictor of people's behaviour and some contributors focus on the personality traits/types, which allegedly underpin service inclination (Cran, 1984; Grayson, 1998; Hogan, Hogan, & Busch, 1984; Hurley, 1998; McBride, Mendoza & Carraher, 1997). Of equal importance, attitudes are becoming increasingly recognized as important predictors of individuals' behaviour in the workplace. However, Anderson *et al.* (2003) point out that despite the suggestion service quality and effectiveness is affected by the personality and attitudes of service providers, to date the research examining this area is very limited.

Larsen and Bastiensen (1991, p. 27) identify service attitudes as "a relatively permanent tendency on the part of the employee to behave in a particular fashion towards customers in client-customer interactions". They add that despite focus on the attitude concept in theoretical and applied psychology and sociology, very little attention has been paid to service attitudes. With the growing prominence of service industries, it seems vital that a greater research effort be directed at exploring the service attitude concept.

One of the aims of this study is to enhance the measurement and understanding of service attitudes and as such to fill the void in the current knowledge of service predispositions. Hence, this study provides a timely opportunity to examine the service attitudes of employees within the service sector. This chapter continues with a discussion of service predispositions, in particular differentiating between personality and attitudes.

2.3 Service Orientation

2.3.1 Dispositions

It is widely acknowledged that the quality of service is affected by the selection of suitable employees and the provision of adequate training (Anderson *et al.*, 2003; Chait *et al.*, 2000; Lee-Ross, 2001). Forte (1992, p. 2 in Guerrier & Adib, 2000, p. 271) points out that:

> In a service industry, the most important ingredient in the product is the people. The quality of our people determines the quality of the service we give to customers and thus our success in the market place.

Further, workers who can consistently provide high-quality service are becoming increasingly sought after. It is not uncommon to try and explain individuals' behaviour in terms of stable underlying dispositions (Campbell, 1963; Heider, 1958; Mullins, 1995; Robbins, 2001; Wood *et al.*, 1998). Personality and attitudes are characteristics that appear to be vital indicators of predispositions to providing consistent quality service. They are said to be dispositional concepts, which are "not only useful" but also "indispensable" in assessing behaviour (Ajzen, 1988, p. 150).

Personality and social psychologists have long used dispositional explanations for behaviour. Personality psychologists have focused on the *trait* concept resulting in the identification of many personality traits. Similarly, social psychologists have used the concept of *attitudes* to explain behaviour. Ajzen (1988, p. 2) notes that "personality traits and attitudes are latent, hypothetical characteristics that can only be *inferred* from external, observable cues … verbal or nonverbal, and the context in which the behavior occurs". Campbell (1963) indicates that personalities and attitudes portray factors in the past, which have left an enduring mark on the individual that continues to influence individuals' behaviour. Ajzen (1988, p. 146) adds that: "By assessing attitudes or personality traits we attempt to unveil the hidden factors that, as a result of past events, have come to predispose an individual to act in certain ways".

2.3.2 Personality

The term *personality* can be defined as "the sum total of ways in which an individual reacts and interacts with others" (Robbins, 2001) or "those characteristics of the person that account for consistent patterns of behavior" (Pervin, 1993, p.3). Over the years, many theories have been developed regarding personality and these include psychoanalytic theory, phenomenological theory, cognitive theory, trait theory, learning theory and social cognitive theory. Of these, trait theory tends to provide a greater understanding of the basic structure of personality. Trait theorists assume that individuals possess broad predispositions or traits, that influence their behaviour and that these traits are the basic units of personality. Personality traits can be defined as "the enduring patterns of thought, feeling, and behavior that are expressed in different circumstances" (Westen, 1996, p. 448) or "enduring characteristics that describe an individual's behaviour" (Robbins, 2001, p. 53). Everyday terms such as "outgoing", "hardworking", and "conscientious" are regularly used to describe these individual characteristics. Early research into personality traits identified many traits. Eysenck and Eysenck (1975) identified three traits as the basic dimensions of human personality. By contrast, Cattell (1973) identified sixteen personality factors, which he called the *primary* traits. Norman (1963) used factor analysis to produce a reduced set of five traits from Cattell's set. From these studies emerged what is generally referred to as the Five-Factor Model with the following five dimensions (Costa & McCrae, 1992):

(1) *Extroversion (E).* People high in extroversion are outgoing, gregarious, optimistic and sociable.

(2) *Neuroticism (N).* Highly neurotic individuals are prone to mood swings, have little emotional stability, and are anxious and prone to depression. This factor is also known as *Emotional Stability*

(3) *Agreeableness (A).* Highly agreeable people who are easy to get on with, and may be widely liked.

(4) *Conscientiousness (C).* Conscientious individuals who prefer to conform to rules and regulations, and are reliable and hard working.

(5) *Openness to experience (O).* People who are highly open to experience tend to be liberal and approach problems in new and innovative ways.

Within each of these broad dimensions of personality there are a lesser number of narrow traits (e.g. anxiety, friendliness or gregariousness). Either the broad or narrow traits are used to describe personality.

Chait *et al.* (2000) conducted a study using 605 individuals who were applicants for customer service positions with a financial services organisation. Using principal component analysis they extracted a five-factor model that was similar to the Big Five Personality factors of Extroversion, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability, Agreeableness, and Openness to Experience. From the above study, Chait *et al.* (2000) concluded that it is possible to effectively profile service orientations by using personality inventories such as the one described above. In fact, they found that outgoing and gregarious personalities were highly indicative of service-orientation. Chait *et al.* (2000) proposed that such inventories could be used as screening tools for the selection of individuals who would most likely exhibit strong service-oriented behaviours.

The value of using trait approaches in determining individuals' behaviour in organisations is that employees possess stable personality attributes that influence their attitudes and behavioural responses to various organisational situations and identifying these traits can contribute greater understanding to individuals' behaviour and how it can be managed (Robbins, 2001). Trait theorists contend that traits vary in their stability. There are *cardinal traits* that are considered so powerful that they undermine behaviour and produce consistent behaviour in all situations (House, Shane, & Herold, 1996). These traits are said to be relatively uncommon. More common are *primary traits* which influence behaviour on a general and consistent basis but which may not be displayed in all settings. For example, a person may be outgoing but may act in a conservative way at a board meeting. Then there are *secondary traits*, which are peripheral and only show up in certain situations. Generally, primary traits are used to predict employee attitudes and behaviour and several authors consider these to be a relatively precise way of depicting people. In organisations, there is substantial support for traits and personality tests are often used in the recruitment of new employees (House *et al.*, 1996).

2.3.3 Service Orientations

The usefulness of personality traits in the explanation and prediction of service-oriented behaviours permeates the research into service orientation. The seminal work of Hogan *et al*. (1984) was significant in linking personality traits to every day performance and identifying service-oriented employees for the purpose of personnel selection. They defined service orientation as: "a set of attitudes and behaviors that affect the quality of the interaction between … the staff of any organization and its customers" (p. 167) and "a syndrome containing elements of good adjustment, likeability, social skill and willingness to follow rules" (p. 173). They stated that service orientation is a component of the nontechnical aspects of job performance that refers to a set of attitudes reflected in personality traits, which dispose service providers to behaviours, which affects the quality of the interaction between employees and customers and the overall performance of employees. Hogan *et al.* (1984) developed the Service Orientation Index (SOI) to measure traits. It was based on a "general theory of human effectiveness" (Hogan *et al*., 1984, p. 168) that encapsulates the "language of personality" or the "trait lexicon" which is the use of evaluative terms to describe individuals, similar to the broad and narrow traits mentioned previously. Earlier, Hogan (1983 in Hogan *et al.*, 1984) had developed a "self-report" inventory known as the Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI), which consists of six dimensions (Intellectance, Adjustment, Prudence, Ambition, Sociability, and Likeability). Hogan *et al.* (1984) claimed that the HPI had effectively predicted the performance of Navy personnel stationed in Antarctica and the training performance of a Navy technical school.

From the HPI, Hogan *et al.* (1984) developed the Service Orientation Instrument (SOI), a questionnaire consisting of 92 true-false items that addressed issues of adjustment, sociability, agreeableness and conscientiousness. Hogan *et al*. (1984) sought to validate the service orientation construct through the SOI, as they believed it assessed service orientation as a behavioural syndrome containing elements of positive and negative personality traits and appeared to identify employees who were more service oriented. Hogan *et al*. (1984) found that employees' behaviour was correspondingly dichotomous in nature. They distinguished between actions that were positive and socially acceptable,

such as “courtesy, consideration and tact” (Hogan *et al.*, 1984, p. 167) and, alternatively, behaviour that reflected staff in a negative way - “thoughtless”, “abrasive”, “rude, tactless, and socially inept” (p. 173).

Several researchers acknowledge the pioneering work of Hogan *et al*. (1984) and provided extensions of this approach. For example, Cran (1994) used the Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI) to assess the construct of service orientation. He supported the use of personality traits to identify service orientation because he argued that personality reflects the overall manner in which employees behave, is stable over time and so, is a useful indicator of an employee’s potential success on the job or in training. Cran’s (1994) study supported the findings of Hogan and his team and indicated that service orientation is “an inherent disposition” (p. 34) but added “ambition” (p. 34) to the list of personality traits. Cran (1994) proposed that employees with low service orientation could present long-term attitudinal and performance issues for organisations, even if training were provided. He also stated that employees with high service orientation may decide to leave an organisation because of environmental factors in the workplace, such as inadequately designed jobs, poor manager-employee relations, perceptions of obstacles to effective service performance. In the instance of terminating employees, Cran (1994) suggests that employers may benefit from acting upon data collected from exit interviews to improve service environments and so, retention of high performance employees. Cran (1994) confers that the use of the HPI to measure personality is effective because the HPI scales and subscales may be amalgamated into the SOI to produce profiles identifying the important personality or success characteristics for individual occupational roles.

McBride *et al*. (1997) also used Hogan’s SOI in conjunction with a biographical inventory to identify the service orientation of individuals. They found that both instruments had potential in identifying service-oriented employees. Individual scores on the Service Orientation Index correlated significantly with ratings of service orientation in that individuals with higher service-orientation ratings were rated as being more likeable, sociable, and well adjusted when compared with individuals rated lower on the criterion. The biographical inventory highlighted seven scales - Satisfaction, Sociability, Agreeableness, Resistance to stress, Responsibility, Need for achievement, and Need to make a good impression. While the aim of the study

conducted by McBride *et al*. (1997) was to provide an alternative instrument to the SOI to measure service orientation, they contend that scores on the SOI were significantly correlated with scores on two biographical scales, Sociability and the Need to make a good impression. Individuals with high scores on these two scales had correspondingly high ratings on service orientation. This supported the contention that both instruments are useful in identifying service-oriented individuals.

More recently, Petrillose *et al*. (1998) used the SOI to examine the relationship between service orientation and employees' job performance in three upscale hotel properties in the US. Like many authors before them (e.g. Schneider *et al*., 1980; Czepiel *et al*., 1985a; Solomon, Suprenant, Czepiel, & Gutman, 1985), Petrillose *et al*. (1998) recognised the importance of the employee in the service encounter and hence, the necessity to examine service orientation of employees. Part of the study, examined the service orientation of employees between departments within the same hotel and between the different hotels. An interesting outcome of the study was that there was a difference in employees' level of education and service orientation. Employees with lower levels of education seemed to be more service oriented than those with higher levels of education. Petrillose *et al*. (1998) suggested that this was because employees with higher levels of education were less committed to the organisation as their jobs were temporary and that the service orientation of an employee may be positively related to job performance in departments with low-contact service positions.

Further, results of the study indicated that the relationship between service orientation and job performance could not be validly predicted by use of the SOI. Petrillose *et al*. (1998) proposed that: (a) employees' service orientation may not be adequately cultivated by the hotels' training programmes, (b) measure of job performance may not be effective, and (c) behavioural benchmarks used to evaluate and distinguish employees' performance may not have been clearly understood by the supervisor/manager. They recommended that greater emphasis be placed on the training process, especially in high-contact service positions. In terms of future research, Petrillose *et al*. (1998) concluded that there is a need to explore the differences between high and low guest contact positions, and investigate the relationship between employee variables (such as age, organisational commitment, levels of income, ethnicity, and gender) on service orientation.

On a positive note, the results of the study by Petrillose *et al.* (1998) supported the findings of Hogan *et al.* (1984) and Munchinsky (1993) validating the use of personality traits in the recruitment of employees for service organisations. While the study by Hogan *et al.* (1984) assessed the service orientation of nursing students, that of Munchinsky (1993) analysed the service orientation of clerical employees in insurance industries and that of Petrillose *et al.* (1998) evaluated the service orientation of employees of hotels there was consistency in the SOI scores for the various personality construct components. The scores were within the acceptable range of 35% to 65% as detailed by Hogan *et al.* (1984).

Lee-Ross (2000) suggests that while these studies attempt to measure and understand service orientation add to the current body of knowledge on the construct, they have a range of limitations that extend from impracticality to over-complexity. Johns *et al.* (unpublished) add to this by arguing that instruments such as the SOI developed by Hogan *et al.* (1984) ignore critical aspects of service, such as OC and training. A view that is maintained by Petrillose *et al.* (1998) in their recommendations for future research and as outlined above. Schneider and colleagues examine possible relationships between personality and these factors (Schneider, 1987; Schneider & Bowen, 1985; Schneider *et al.*, 1992). Johns *et al.* (unpublished) acknowledge the work of Schneider and his colleagues and reason that if nurture as well as nature is important elements in any consideration of service orientation, a more dynamic view of service orientation is needed than the relatively stable view of personality that underpins the SOI. This leads to the presentation of an alternative service orientation instrument as determined by Dienhart, Gregoire, & Downey (1990) and confirmed by Groves, Gregoire, & Downey (1995). While Johns *et al.* (unpublished) recognise the value of this instrument, they maintain that it warrants the theoretical basis of the work by Hogan and his colleagues. This limitation is supported by Lee-Ross (2000).

2.3.4 Service Orientation & Organisational Support

Dienhart *et al.* (1990) examined the service orientation of restaurant employees and managers. From their results, they suggested that service orientation consists of three elements: organisational support, customer focus, and service under pressure. Dienhart

et al. (1990) found that each of the three components was related to job security, such that employees with higher ratings of service orientation components had job security rated highly. By contrast, employees who indicated higher ratings for job satisfaction and job involvement also had higher ratings for organisational support. Part of the study carried out by Dienhart *et al.* (1990) supported the view that service orientation of employees was related to employee's innate personality. This point was drawn out in the Customer Focus component of the study and stressed that a combination of factors form Customer Focus. These include service interaction, job enjoyment, and job satisfaction. These last two factors, in particular, were determined as "highly predictive variables of (both) Organizational Support and Customer Focus" (p. 428).

The study by Dienhart *et al*. (1990) also indicated that organisational service oriented climate can maintain service orientation through training, procedures, and systems. The final outcome of the work by Dienhart *et al.* (1990) was that employees could enjoy the service encounter, want to provide customer satisfaction, and maintain pride in their work and organisation if the feeling for job security is strong. This undermined all three components of service orientation as defined by Dienhart *et al*. (1990). The work of Dienhart *et al.* (1990) was supported by a study conducted by Groves *et al.* (1995). They confirmed that the service orientation of service employees seems to have the three components outlined by Dienhart *et al*. (1990).

Earlier, Buergermeister (1988) noted that while service orientation is a multifaceted characteristic in employees, improving job security, job involvement, and job satisfaction, it may assist in enhancing their service orientation. He suggested that managers be aware of this and that they identify the signals that indicate job security, job involvement, and job satisfaction so that employees can fully utilise their service orientation. The importance of organisational support is further elaborated by Schneider (1987) who proposed that the attributes of employees may contribute to the organisational behaviour moreso than the nature of the external environment or organisational structure or organisational technology. He argues that positive job attitudes of employees will occur when the processes and structures that have evolved in an establishment, allow the individual to express their natural inclinations in their behaviour.

Recent studies that have focused on the management of service organisations also support the need for organisational support (Lovelock, 1992; Zeithaml, Parasuraman, & Berry, 1985). This literature has emerged from recognition that goods and services vary along several continua (Schneider *et al.* 1992). Comparison of goods and services has spawned the idea "that organisations can foster a service climate by establishing practices that facilitate service delivery and by expecting and rewarding service excellence" (Schneider *et al*., 1992, p. 705). This idea is founded on the notion that when organisations provide employees with the necessary resources (e.g. logistical, managerial, equipment and administrative support), and when the organisation treats employees as if they are customers, employees will provide excellent service. These studies extend the idea that delivery of quality service is related to employees' personality and consider an additional dimension, that of the organisational environment. This point is interesting and relevant to this study, which sets out to explore the influence of OC on service predispositions but more about this later.

In the Hogan *et al.* (1984) study, service orientation was assessed as a behavioural syndrome containing elements of positive and negative personality traits. They found that the SOI distinguished between positive behaviour such as "courtesy, consideration, and tact" (p. 167) and negative actions, such as "rude, tactless, and socially inept" (p.173). So the researchers concluded that the SOI was promising tool for assessing and predicting on-the-job performance. However, recently it has been suggested that service organisations should select employees on the basis of their service attitudes rather than personality traits (Bettencourt, Gwinner, & Meuter, 2001; Lee-Ross, 2000; Williams & Sanchez, 1998). An overview of attitudes is provided in the next section.

2.4 Employee Attitudes

According to Robbins (2001, p. 140), attitudes are defined as "evaluative statements – either favorable or unfavorable – concerning objects, people, or events. They reflect how one feels about something". Similarly, Ajzen (1988, p. 4) defines an attitudes as "a disposition to respond favorably or unfavourable to an object, person, institution, or event". Definitions of attitude may vary but most social psychologists agree that the key attribute of attitudes is their evaluative characteristic (e.g. Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Hill, 1981; Mullins, 1975; Osgood, Suci, Tannenbaum, 1957; Oskamp, 1977; Robbins, 2001). Some authors acknowledge that individuals are born with certain genetic predispositions

(e.g. Arvey & Bouchard, 1994) and then throughout life individuals' attitudes are acquired or learned by modelling parents, teachers and peer group members or people that are admired, respected or feared (Mullins, 1995; Robbins, 2001). The socialization process enforces some attitudes over others resulting in some attitudes, which are central to individuals (core constructs) and others, which are more peripheral. The core attitudes, such as religious beliefs, are highly resistant to any alteration while the peripheral attitudes may change as new experiences or events occur or new information is received.

Classification systems of attitudes divide attitudes into three categories of responses: cognitive (thinking), affective (feeling) and connative (behavioral intention) (e.g. Allport, 1954; Hilgard, 1980; McGurie, 1969). The three-component model of attitudes was devised by Rosenberg and Hovland (1960) who suggest that an attitude is a single entity and consists of the three inter-dependent components (Figure 2.1).

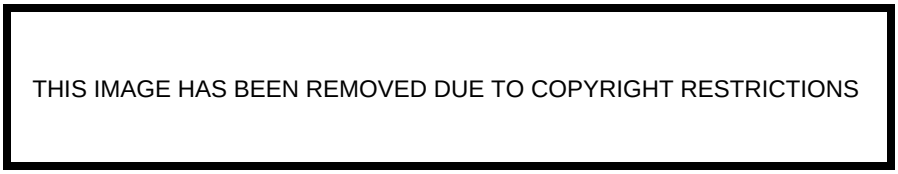


Figure 2.1: The three-component view of attitude.
[Source: Rosenberg and Hovland, 1960 in Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980, p. 19, Figure 2.1]

In Rosenberg and Hovland's (1960) model, a person's responses to a stimulus are moderated by the individual's attitude toward the "stimulus object". The schematic representation (Figure 2.1) shows the classification of responses into three categories, with each category corresponding to one component of attitude:

- cognitive - perceptual responses and verbal statements of belief;
- affective - sympathetic nervous responses and statements of affect or emotion;
- conative - overt actions and statements concerning behaviour.

The model implies that all three components should be evaluated if a complete portrayal of attitude is to be gained. According to Rosenberg and Hovland (1960) measures of all three response classes will reflect a comprehensive assessment of attitude and represent a valid analysis of the relationship between attitude and behaviour.

The *cognitive component* of an attitude refers to the way individuals think and develop ideas or arguments about an issue or thing. It relates to the cognitive mechanisms and aspects of an attitude, the actual thinking process. The *affective component* refers to the emotional or feeling aspects of an attitude. It evokes sympathetic responses of positive or negative emotion/affect toward something. The *behavioural component* of an attitude is that part relating to the actual behaviour or action that an attitude directs individuals toward. In this way, the three-component view of attitudes provides some explanation of the relationship between attitudes and behaviour. It distinguishes between thoughts, feelings, and actions as separate but interrelated components of an attitude. In organisations attitudes are important because they affect job behaviour. For example, in a restaurant situation, the staff may think that the manager deliberately rosters on insufficient staff so that staff work harder with less labour hours and reduced labour costs. In response, staff develop an 'I don't care attitude". It is then in the best interest of the manager to identify the behaviour and its related attitude and try and make amends.

This traditional view of the tripartite division of an attitude has raised some concerns over the degree of interrelation between the three components. Some authors suggest

that the three components are highly interrelated (e.g. McGuire, 1969). Others have stated that the relationship between the three components is moderate (e.g. Krech, Crutchfield, and Ballachey, 1962). This debate has led to a newer theoretical view of attitudes than that by Rosenberg and Hovland (1960). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) have advocated that the three components of attitudes as described above are distinct separate entities whose relationship varies depending on the particular situation. There may not necessarily be a relationship among the three components but the theory allows for a strong connection under particular conditions. According to Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), the term "attitude" should be restricted to the affective dimension, while the cognitive component is referred to as "beliefs", and the behavioural dimension is labelled "behavioural intentions". Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) maintain that attitudes are a function of beliefs and are a measure of the person's affect toward a specific target (e.g. "I like the service"; "I enjoy eating at this restaurant"). The "beliefs" are defined by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) as indicators of a person's subjective probability that a target or an object has a specific characteristic (e.g. "The service is excellent"; "The waitperson was understanding"). The "behavioural intentions" are defined as a person's subjective probability that he/she will exhibit a particular behaviour toward a target ("I am going to have dinner at this restaurant").

According to Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory, attitudes are a function of beliefs - behavioural beliefs and/or normative beliefs. Figure 2.2 depicts the successive steps in the sequence from beliefs to behaviour.

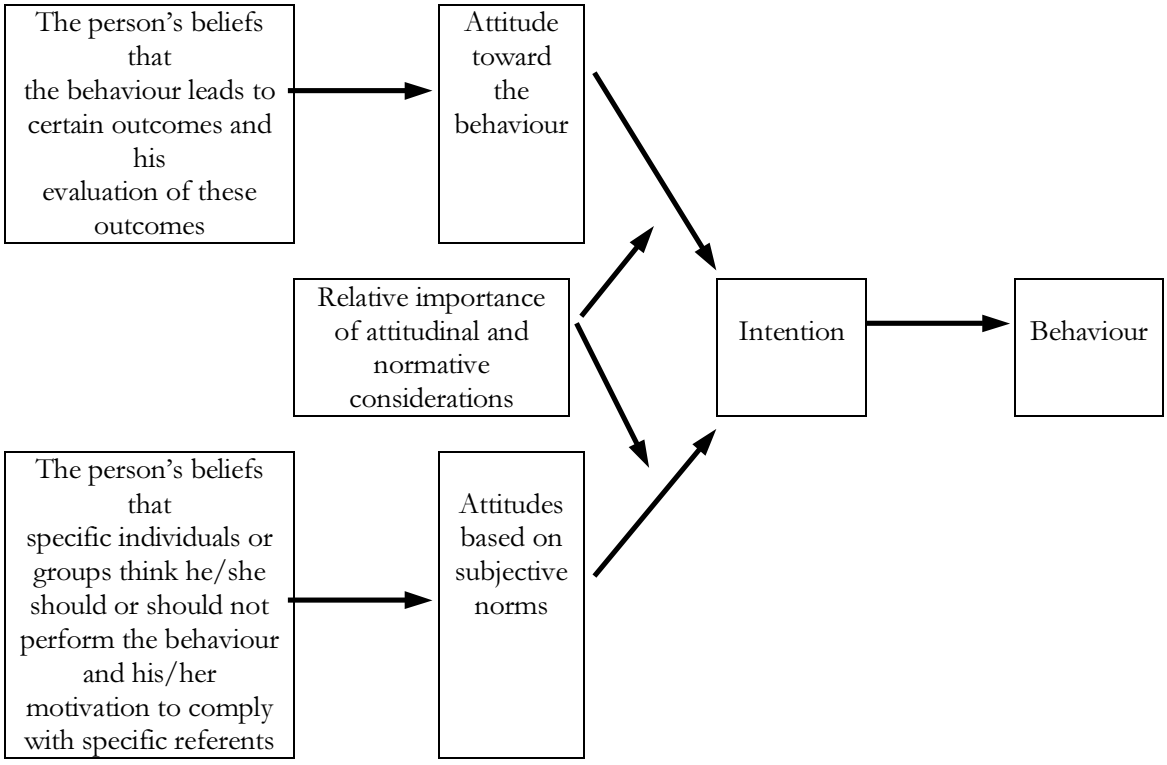


Figure 2.2: Separate entities view of attitudes
[Source: Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980, p. 8, Figure 1.1]

Behavioural beliefs are personal in nature and reflect the person's positive and negative assessment of performing the behaviour. They are termed attitude toward the behaviour. The other determinant affecting a person's intention is a reflection of the individual's perception of the social pressures imposed on him/her to perform or not to perform the behaviour. These normative beliefs affecting attitudes are referred to as subjective norms. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) argue that the relative importance of the behavioural and normative beliefs as determinants of attitudes varies with the intention being examined. In some cases, the behavioural beliefs are more important than the normative beliefs and for other intentions there may be a predominance of normative beliefs. Generally, intentions are influenced by both factors and the relative weighting of the beliefs varies with each individual and the situation at hand. Hence, it is possible to trace the causes of behaviour back to the individual's beliefs through a succession of intermediary constructs.

Gross (1987) suggests that an attitude may be formed by adding a 'value' ingredient to a 'belief'. Mullins (1995, p. 112) defines beliefs as concerns 'with what is known about the world; they centre on what 'is', on reality as it is understood" and values as concerns "with what 'should' be and what is desirable". He adds that while people may have thousands of beliefs they may only have a few dozen values and so, one or two hundred attitudes.

2.5 Attitudes or Personality Traits

Trait theorists argue that these are stable individual attributes that account for consistencies in individual behaviour and for much of the differences in behaviour between people (Robbins, 2001). However, some authors contest the stability of traits across situations. For example, Davis-Blake and Pfeffer (1989) suggest that there are two important reasons why traits fail to explain people's behaviour in organisations. First, they note that organisational settings provide strong situations that can have a powerful influence on individuals' attitudes and behaviour. They argue that in relatively weak situations, traits will be more pronounced and in relatively strong situations, traits will be less prominent. Based on the notion that organisational settings are made strong through formal structures (rules, regulations, policies and reward systems) and informal norms (that determine appropriate behaviours), Davis-Blake and Pfeffer (1989) rationalize that employees' attitudes and behaviour reflect these formal and informal constraints and the organisational roles they dictate. These, in turn, diminishes the impact of personality traits in organisational settings.

Second, Davis-Blake and Pfeffer (1989) reason that people are very adaptive and that their personality traits will change in response to various organisational situations. Like Mullins (1995), they argue that people's personalities are changed by the organisations they belong to or have belonged to. Their personalities are the combination of adult work experiences (achievements, roles and working experiences), early development experiences (social, family and culture) and dynamics (gender, abilities, physique, motivation, attitudes and perception). Individuals' personality traits are part of the dynamics component and also contribute to an individual's uniqueness. In fulfilling different roles in the same or different organisations, individuals adjust their characteristics to meet the requirements of each particular situation. This situational

flexibility raises concern about the trait theorists' idea that employees possess stable traits that result in consistency in attitudes and behaviour in different situations. In fact, it seems likely that people's personality may change with time and situations. So, then, how do managers predict the behaviour of employees in the workplace?

Ajzen (1988) notes that there are some important differences between personality traits and attitudes that can help managers decide on which characteristics may lend more insight into an individual's performance in the workplace. He emphasizes that:

> Clearly, both terms refer to latent, hypothetical constructs that manifest themselves in a wide variety of observable responses. In the case of attitudes, these responses are evaluative in nature and they are directed at a given object or target (a person, institution, policy, or event). Personality traits, by contrast, are not necessarily evaluative. They describe response tendencies in a given domain, such as the tendency to behave in a conscientious manner, to be sociable, to be self-confident, etc. The responses that reflect an underlying trait do not focus on any particular external target. Instead, they focus on the individual him-or herself and they can thus be used to differentiate between individuals and to classify them into different personality types. Although attitudes and traits are both assumed to be relatively stable, enduring dispositions, attitudes are typically viewed as more malleable than personality traits. Evaluations can change rapidly as events unfold and new information about a person or issue becomes available, but the configuration of personality traits that characterizes an individual is much more resistant to transformation. (p.7)

Each workplace presents different people, interactions and issues to the employee. Individuals' evaluation of those situations will more accurately reflect these elements. They afford an opportunity to link specific behavioural dispositions (i.e. behaviour in the workplace) with specific response tendencies (i.e. attitudes in the workplace). Ajzen (1988) notes the importance this point in the value of using attitudes and personality traits to predict behaviour. Hence, in attempting to predict people's behaviour in the workplace, it may be more appropriate to assess attitudes than personality traits. In the area of motivation at work, attitudes have been found to be more effective predictors of

behaviour than less 'immediate' variables such as an individual's culture, upbringing or personality. Barrick, Piotrowski and Stewart (2002) confirm this notion, commenting that cognitive-motivational work orientations are mediators of the relationship between personality traits and performance. Thus, the present study assumes that likely employee behaviour is linked powerfully with work-based attitudes towards delivering services and consciously assesses quality of service delivery via workers' own attitudes. Given the dearth of worker attitude/service quality related studies, Lee-Ross' (2000) recent Service Predispositions Instrument (SPI) seemed appropriate for the present study. The SPI is based on pioneering work of Larsen and Bastiansen (1991).

2.6 A Measure of Attitudes toward Service Provision

Larsen and Bastiansen (1991) attempted to establish a theoretically robust measure of service-orientation. They used the service quality dimensions identified by Parasuraman *et al.* (1985) to define service-orientation in terms of attitudes, rather than personality, of service providers. Their research resulted in the development of an instrument for measuring service attitudes, the Service Attitude Questionnaire (SAQ). The SAQ was used to measure service attitudes in both private and public organisations. The study found a difference between the hotel and restaurant staff and registered nurses from the public health care system with the former having more positive service attitudes, more confidence in employee-customer relations, and more competent. A content analysis showed ten factors that were considered by participants of the study to be indicators of positive service attitudes. These included skill, politeness, give something extra, empathy, smile/good mood in every situation, individual treatment, flexibility, reliability, willingness to deviate from job instructions, and good rapport with clients. Larsen and Bastiansen (1991) concluded that service attitudes appeared to be better in private rather than the public sector and that the psychological factors of the service-employee relationship should predominate any study of service.

2.7 Service Predispositions

2.7.1 A New Approach

Lee-Ross (1999, 2000) extended the work of Larsen and Bastiansen (1991) and provided a theoretical foundation for the concept of service orientation in the development of the Service Predisposition Instrument (SPI). The SPI recognises the

critical role played by service providers at the customer/server interface and basically, attempts to examine the relationship between server attitudes and service provision (Lee-Ross, 2000). Lee-Ross (2000) states that the instrument is based on a number of variables specified by the model and is dependent on the theory of how service providers view their respective importance throughout the service encounter. The SPI consists of question statements that provide measures of service elements, cognitive expressions and personal service outcome (Lee-Ross, 2000). It not only provides a useful means of identifying the attitudes of existing employees but it is also anticipated that the use of the SPI in recruitment, selection and training procedures will provide a practical means of improving the overall quality of service provision within an organisation.

In order to determine the critical factors that were important to the measurement of service predispositions, Lee-Ross (1999, 2000) conducted a pilot study where 60 undergraduate students from Bournemouth University were selected at random and invited to list determinants they thought suggested positive service predispositions. A content analysis of the most common statements highlighted seven dimensions - disposition, affinity/understanding, competence/ability, deference, extra, individual, consideration, communication. In order to develop question statements that would provide specific measures of service predisposition, Lee-Ross (1999, 2000) used the three-component view of attitudes, one of the most commonly agreed models of attitudes (Carmouche & Kelly, 1995). The analysis resulted in eleven components, each with the predicted three items and resulted in the development of the Service Predisposition Model (SPM) and the Service Predisposition Instrument (SPI).

2.7.2 The Service Predispositions Model

According to the SPM, there are six service dimensions that stimulate cognitive expressions (Lee-Ross, 1999). These are *competence, extra, individual attention, affinity, disposition, communication* (Table 2.1). The SPM suggests that these service dimensions stimulate the three cognitive expressions of *conscious implementation, conscious commitment,* and *knowledge of performance* (Table 2.1). The model infers that when all these three cognitive expressions are realised, there is a maximisation of the positive outcome of "personal satisfaction" with the service provided.

Table 2.1: Description of Dimensions from the SPM

DIMENSION	DESCRIPTION
Service Dimensions	
Disposition	The degree to which an individual is willing to deviate from job instructions into areas that may not be within their area of responsibility in order to satisfy customers.
Extra	The recognition that customers sometimes require additional services to those they expect.
Affinity	The importance of a close relationship with customers so that service delays may be explained, understood and accepted by customers.
Communication	The degree to which an individual expresses enthusiasm to customers and communicates clearly and openly.
Individual consideration	The acceptance that all customers are different and a willingness to consider their needs on an exclusive basis are necessary.
Competence	The recognition that job knowledge is essential in providing clients with a quality service.
Cognitive Expressions	
Conscious implementation	The degree to which the service provider feels that they have fulfilled their service tasks.
Conscious commitment	The degree to which the service provider feels obligated toward their customers.
Knowledge of performance	The degree to which the service provider considers important knowledge about their work accomplishments.
Outcome	
Personal outcome - Satisfaction	The reactions and impressions that employees feel as a result of their service provision.
Moderator	
Deference	The recognition that customers drive the service encounter even if they prove to be awkward resulting in a complex composite of personal and cultural differences which manifest and express themselves as deference.

[Source: Lee-Ross, 2000, pp. 151-2.]

Lee-Ross states that the seventh service dimension of *deference*, acts as a moderator. Based on the idea that at the customer/employee interface, the server generally assumes a deferential role, Lee-Ross (1999) proffers that deference may be offered as a conceptualisation of the individual's attitudes toward service provision. That is, individuals with a high deference score are more likely to go out of their way to meet

customer's needs and requests. Also, the SPM supposes that deference provides an indication of an individual's response to other model-specified variables.

With regard to *deference*, it is recognised that a range of factors affects service attitudes. These factors include personality traits (Cran, 1994) and culture (Larsen & Bastiansen, 1992). Researchers posit that the server usually maintains a differential role at the client interface regardless of whether it is accentuated by personality or culture. From this, Lee-Ross postulates that deference conceptualises the server's attitude toward service provision and as such, it acts as a moderator to other model specific variables. The relationships between the dimensions of the SPM are described in Figure 2.3.

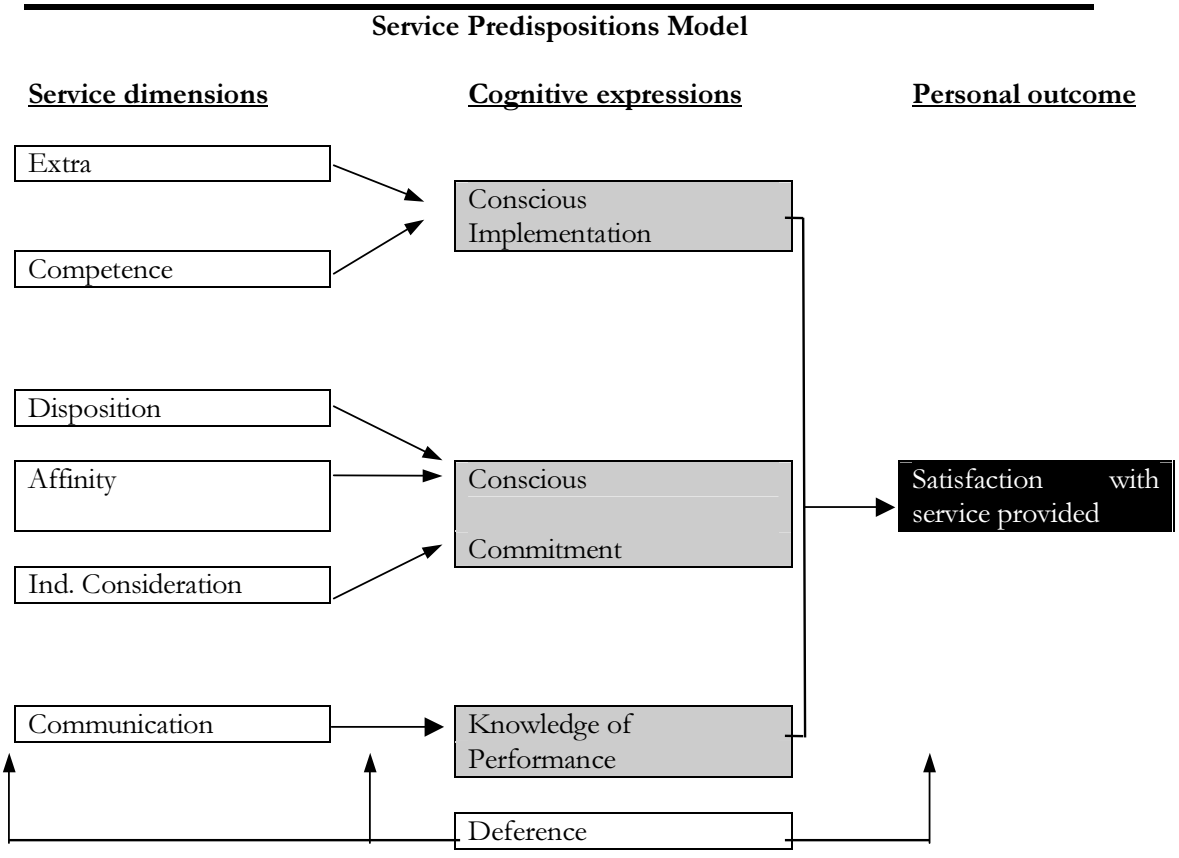


Figure 2.3: The Service Predisposition Model
[Source: Lee-Ross, 2000, p. 149, Figure 1]

The SPM (Figure 2.3) shows that there are six service dimensions which stimulate the three cognitive expressions:

- the two service dimensions of *competence* and *extra*, augment the cognitive expression of *conscious commitment*;
- the service dimensions of *individual attention*, *affinity* and *disposition* increase *conscious implementation*; and
- *communication* enhances *knowledge of performance*.

The three cognitive expressions, in turn, influence the positive outcome of personal satisfaction with service provided.

The SPM has resulted in the development of the Service Predispositions Instrument (SPI). The SPI consists of 33 seven-point Likert-style question statements. So as to obtain a complete description of attitudes, development of the question statements was based on the three-component view of attitudes: cognitive, affective, and conative. The importance of assessing all three response classes has been outlined earlier and so, in the SPI there are three question statements for each model-specified variable of the six service dimensions that target each of the three components of attitudes mentioned above. Two of the statements are worded positively and one negatively. The SPI is divided into two sections: service dimensions and cognitive expressions. In each of the two sections, the model-specified variables are measured by question statements written in diverse formats and placed randomly to minimise the chance of confounding key constituents and measurement validity.

As such, the SPI can provide an indication of whether reduced service quality is employee related or related to some other factor(s). If it is employee related, the SPI provides a means of pinpointing the areas that may need remedial action through training and development. Lee-Ross (2000) explains that employees in service industries who are completing the SPI provide data on the relationships and variables outlined in the SPM. For service organisations, this means that "organisational norms" can be instituted and that the SPI can be used for the discernible recruitment and training of new and current employees.

2.8 Organisational Influence

An employee's performance is greatly dictated by knowing what he or she should or should not do, i.e. the OC (Robbins, 2001). Earlier it was noted that Dienhart *et al.* (1990) found 'organisational support' has a strong impact on employees' performance. Further, Titz (2001) notes that service must become part of the OC and that management must nurture a service environment that supports good service. Some authors have stressed that the management of individual service encounters is influenced by expansive management issues of organisational structure, philosophy, and culture (Gronroos, 1984; Schneider *et al.*, 1992; Ziethaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1988). As Czepiel *et al.* (1985a, p. ix) state, service encounters are "set in a specific environment; and they are intertwined with a complex of managerial issues, ranging from marketing and consumer behaviour to employee relations and organizational behaviour". Schneider and Bowen (1985) also suggest that while service inclinations may be inherent in employees, it is possible that employees may be prevented from providing quality service because of constraining factors within the organisation, e.g. managerial practices. These studies recognize that elements at the customer-employee interface influence customer evaluations and so, affect employee attitudes and behaviour, perceptions of service quality, and customer satisfaction.

There has been some detailing of management and organisational design issues that should be addressed in managing the service encounter and service organisations (Czepiel et al. 1985a, Lovelock, 1992). These issues have ranged from appraisal and reward systems through training programmes (Goldstein, 1986), to the creation of climate or culture conducive to the provision of quality service (Schein, 1985; Schneider, 1987). However, if, as the literature suggests employees' attitudes and behaviour may be affected by organisational climate or culture, it seems that research into the relationship between OC and service predispositions is worthy of investigation.

2.9 Summary

One of the most important things to service organisations is the quality of employees who are in direct contact with its customers. The employee's role and attitude in the service encounter is critical to the organisation because it affects the customers' perceptions of service delivery, especially the level of quality associated with the service transaction. In service businesses, customer satisfaction is a critical indicator of performance. In fact, the literature on marketing and organisational behaviour has been giving considerable attention to the interaction between customers and employees at the frontline of service businesses (Mattesson, 1994; Wiley, 1990). A great deal of the research in this area has focused on the relationship between employees' attitudes or behaviours and customers' perceptions of service quality and customer satisfaction (Bitner, 1990; Parasuraman, Ziethaml, & Berry, 1985; Schneider & Bowen, 1985).

Yet, while considerable research exists concerning the "service encounter", little theory exists on the customer-contact employees' inclinations to deliver service. Schneider and Schechter (1992) define service inclinations as "individual's interest in doing service related work" (p. 343). Hogan *et al.* (1984) add that service providers may vary in their degree of service inclinations. They showed that the level of service excellence can be correlated to personality characteristics that undermine service-orientation and these include thoughtfulness, courtesy and consideration. Parasuraman *et al*. (1985) pursued this line of thought and argued that since service quality is a multidimensional entity, the delivery of service necessitates individuals who are multidimensional in their service orientation. They found that customers perceive service quality along many dimensions (e.g. reliability, responsiveness, and courtesy) and inferred that service providers should demonstrate inclinations toward these areas to effectively meet customers' expectations.

From the preceding service oriented research studies there have emerged several models that examine the relationship between personality traits and/or attitudes of service providers and service provision (e.g. Hogan et. al., 1984; Larsen & Bastiansen, 1992; Lee-Ross, 1999, 2000). Of particular interest to this research is the Service Predisposition Instrument (SPI) developed by Lee-Ross (1999, 2000). The SPI defines service attitudes of service providers along seven service dimensions that influence three determinant cognitive expressions that result in a feeling of job satisfaction upon

provision of excellent service. One of the main benefits of the instrument is that it identifies "work related" attitudes rather than general values, beliefs and attitudes of the individual. Thus, the SPI is more immediately apparent than other psychometric tests. This section of the thesis has comprehensively described the SPI and presented an argument for its application in this study. A brief overview was presented of the SPM, the backbone of the SPI. On a final note, this chapter briefly considered the influence of OC on employees' service predispositions. The next chapter examines the concept of OC in greater detail.

CHAPTER 3

AN EXPLORATION OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

3.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to explicate many aspects of OC by considering: what culture is, what it does, how it can be measured and observed, and how it may be used in evaluating organisations. It examines the literature on OC and provides an overview of some of the fundamental issues of OC relating to this study. It begins by tracing the history and development of the major concepts and elements of OC. Attention is then drawn to the many definitions and typologies of OC that have emerged. The origins, development and perpetuation of OC are considered and emphasise the practical usefulness of identifying OC. Also, some of the complexities associated with studying OC are presented, in particular, strong versus weak cultures and the relationship between culture and climate. The discussion explores the significance of the OC construct in relation to service industries and, in particular, the hospitality industry.

3.2 A Prologue on Organisational Culture

Winston Churchill characterised Russia as, "... a riddle wrapped in a mystery inside an enigma" (Ference, 2001, p.12). The same can be said about organisational culture (OC) with its various layers or levels. In fact, Pacanowsky and O'Doneell-Trujillo (1983, p. 126) stated that "organisational culture is not just another piece of the puzzle, it is the puzzle. From our point of view, a culture is not something an organisation has; a culture is something an organisation is".

The concept of OC has received extraordinary attention from both academics and practitioners over the last few years. For example, Schein (1985) describes culture in a way that highlights the evolution of culture within an organisation and enhances the meaning on culture:

> Culture is an independent defined stable social unit. That is, if one can demonstrate that a given set of people have shared a significant number of important experiences in the process of solving external and internal problems, one can assume that such common experiences have led them, over time, to a shared view of the world around them and their place in it. There has to have been enough shared experience to have led to a shared view, and this shared view has to have worked for long enough to have come to be taken for granted and to have dropped out of awareness. Culture, in this sense, is a *learned product of group experience* and is a definable group with a significant history. (p. 7)

This description of culture amplifies the complexities of culture. It stresses that culture is learned and that each new experience contributes to its evolution.

A perusal of the literature shows that 'organisational culture' has many meaning and connotations. Some of the more common meanings are presented in Table 3.1

Table 3.1: Some common meanings of organisational culture

1.	*Observed behavioural regularities* when people interact, such as the language used and the rituals around deference and demeanor (Goffman, 1967; Van Maanen, 1979)
2.	The *norms* that evolve in working groups, such as the particular norm of :a fair day's work for a fair day's pay: that evolved in the Bank Wiring Room in the Hawthorne studies (Homans, 1950)
3.	The *dominant values espoused* by an organization, such as "product quality" or "price leadership" (Dealy & Kennedy, 1982)
4.	The *philosophy* that guides an organization's policy toward employees and/or customers (Ouchi, 1981; Pascale & Athos, 1981)
5.	The *rules* of the game for getting along in the organiszation, "the ropes" that a newcomer must learn in order to become an accepted member (Schein, 1978; Van Maanen, 1979)
6.	The *feeling* or *climate* that is conveyed in an organization by the physical layout and the way in which members of the organization interact with customers or other outsiders (Tagiuri & Litwin, 1968)

[Source: Schein (1985, p. 6)]

These definitions provide some indication of the complexity, multidimensionality and dynamic nature of 'organisational culture'. Schein (1985) captures the vivacity of culture and provides an appropriate summary of when he states, " ... most of the writers of organizational culture use different definitions, different methods of determining what they mean by culture, and different standards for evaluating how culture affects organizations" (p. 7). An examination of the history of research into organisational culture provides a deeper understanding of the nature and characteristics of organisational culture.

3.3 A History of Organisational Culture

3.3.1 Founding Fathers of Organisational Culture

Research into the culture of organisations began in earnest in the 1930s. While this research was spasmodic and evolved from various theoretical perspectives, the knowledge gained from these studies provided valuable contributions to the understanding of organisations. During the early 1930s, the Hawthorn studies at the Western Electric Company in Chicago, Illinois, were the first orderly attempt to understand the cultural aspects of modern organisations (Trice & Breyer, 1993). Nonetheless, the roots of OC can be traced back to the field of cultural anthropology. In fact, many of the central ideas, themes and frameworks have been derived from anthropology and its counterpart, sociology.

In 1871 Edward B. Tylor, the first professional anthropologist, introduced the term 'culture' into the English language. He proposed the following definition:

> Culture ... is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, arts, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society. (Scupin, 2000, p. 38)

In Tylor's view, culture relates to all aspects of human activity and includes all "the plans, rules, techniques, designs, and policies for living" (Scupin, 2000, p. 38). Tylor's original conception of cultures has been greatly refined and elaborated by modern anthropologists. Most modern anthropologists view culture as "a shared way of life that

includes values, beliefs, and norms transmitted within a particular society from generation to generation" (Scupin, 2000, p. 38). According to Scupin (2000), the human capacity for culture is unique and occurs through a process of 'encultration' whereby individuals learn and acquire their culture formally and consciously or informally and unconsciously through social interaction. Anthropologists recognise that the several elements of culture can be divided into material (e.g. tools, clothing, shelter, signs, symbols) and nonmaterial (language, rites, rituals and social structures, values, beliefs and norms) components.

The intellectual traditions of anthropology and sociology have had a considerable influence on the development of organisational theory and the evolution of OC within that framework. For example, as various systematic studies of societies and culture emerged in the 19th century, ethnographic approaches, such as observation and interviews, were developed to conduct the research. Researchers investigating organisational change adopted these approaches. Chapin (1928) explored culture and cultural change in social institutions. He provided a four 'type-parts' framework of institutional structure "which combine to produce the configuration or cultural concretion known as social institutions" (Chapin, 1928, p. 49). This framework is shown in Figure 3.1. The framework identifies factors, which can be aligned with Scupin's (2000) interpretation of culture: 'common reciprocating attitudes', 'symbolic culture traits', 'utilitarian culture' and descriptive language symbols'.

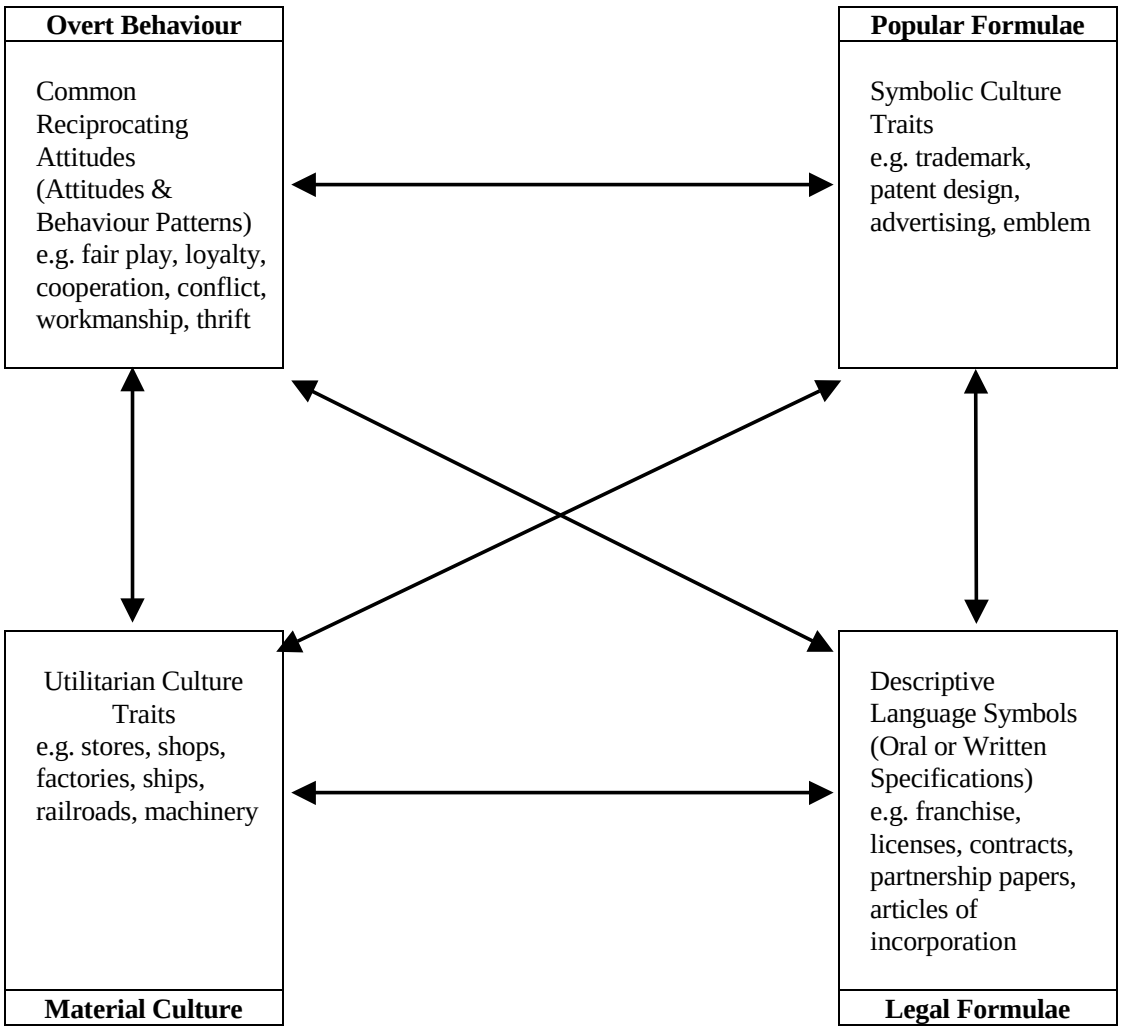


Figure 3.1: Diagram of four type-parts of institutional structure adapted from Chapin (1928, p. 432)

3.3.2 Other Veterans of Organisational Culture

Emile Durkheim was another influential sociologist, a founding father of the social sciences, who proposed that symbols, myths and rituals were important to understanding social conditions (Brown, 1995). Corporate writers such as Peters and Waterman (1982) have adopted Durkheim's concept of solidarity among occupational groups to describe unifying (homogeneous) cultures in the workplace. In the book *The Elementary Forms of Religious Life* (1965), Durkheim introduced the concept of 'competing values' to emphasise differences between groups. Mary Douglas utilised this approach to develop four typologies of culture (Douglas, 1982). Douglas'

investigation highlighted the variations that can occur within cultures. This was a marked contrast to Durkheims' unitary approach to culture.

In 1938, Chester Barnard's book *Functions of the Executive* supported the idea a non-rational informal aspect supplements the formal organisation (Scott, 1990). Barnard envisaged that a fundamental function of the chief executive was to develop and foster a system of organisational 'morals' that promoted cooperation rather than conflict (Ott, 1989). Levitt and March (1990) suggested that the 'morals' referred to by Barnard were representative of the beliefs and values of a culture. According to Barnard (1938), the formal structures of organisations alone could not provide an understanding of working relations in the workplace. Rather, Barnard argued that it is the informal structure, in particular, the interpersonal relations that influence employees' performance. Clearly, Barnard had an understanding and appreciation of aspects such as values, beliefs and group cultural norms. Also, Barnard's portrait of the role of an executive represented a symbolic personification for leaders. This was a significant departure from the perception that an organisation had rational control over its employees through a bureaucratic web of rules and regulations. Barnard's work was said to have influenced Durkheim's writings and so, authors such as Peters and Waterman (Starkey, 1992).

3.3.3 The Hawthorne Studies

During the 1920s, organisational writers began to pay greater attention to the behaviour of employees at work and the social factors within organisations. This was the time of the great depression and writers emphasised human relations. The famous Hawthorne experiments at the Western Electric Company in Cicero Illinois (1924 - 1932) were the turning point for the human relations movement. From these studies emerged the concept of "group norms'. The Hawthorne studies are documented in the classic text written by Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) called *Management and the Worker*. The Hawthorne studies have been subjected to severe criticism (e.g. on methodology, lack of consideration of environmental factors). O'Brien (1984) details some of the criticisms directed at the Hawthorne studies. Similarly, Bolton (1994) summarises articles, which both criticise and commend the Hawthorne studies. However, the Hawthorne studies are recognised as one of the most important of all social science studies (Mullin, 1995). They are regarded as the foundation of the human relations approach in management

and seminal in the development of organisational behaviour. The investigations of Elton Mayo and his group of researchers generated new ideas on human behaviour at work and management thinking. This gave impetus to the importance of work groups, leadership, motivation, job design and communications. This led to the work of writer such as Maslow, Herzberg, McGregor, Likert and Argyris. The human relations approach identified the informal organisation to be just as important as the formal structure. Blau and Scott (1962) emphasised the notion that there were both formal and informal dimensions to all organisations. They stressed that knowledge and understanding of the operations of an organisation could only be fathomed by obtaining a distinct understanding of its informal properties.

3.3.4 The Mid 1940s and Beyond

Some authors have suggested that the OC perspective originated with the neoclassical organisation theory of the mid 1940s, especially with the writings of Elliott Jacques and Philip Selznick. In 1952, Elliott Jacques from the Tavistock Institute in England published *The Changing Culture of a Factory*. Ott (1989) states that this is the "earliest published use of the word *culture* in an organisational context" (p. 150). In describing the culture of a factory, Jacques states that:

> Its customary and traditional way of thinking and of doing things, which is shared to a greater or lesser degree by all its members, and which new members must learn, and a least partially accept, in order to be accepted into service in the firm ... The culture of the factory consists of the means or techniques which lie at the disposal of the individual for handling his relationships, and on which he depends for making his way among, and with, other members and groups. (Jacques, 1952, p. 251)

Jacque's description recognised elements of OC that are relevant today: attitudes, habits, customs, knowledge, and values. Further, he identified the socialisation process; the interaction between personality, culture and structure, the use of culture to control behaviour (p. 253); and the link between authority and power in the sanctioning process of culture (p. 255). Essentially, Jacques's work formed the intellectual foundation for

the current conceptualisation of organisational culture as 'basic underlying assumptions'.

Another sociologist of the neoclassical school, Philip Selznick (1957) extended Barnard's conceptualisation of organisational norms, values and non-rational behaviour. Selznick (1957) believed that organisations were infused with values that were beyond technical rationality and so, caused organisations to become socially institutions. He noted that institutions are socially integrated organisations where "distinctive outlooks, habits, and other commitments are unified, coloring all aspects of organisational life ... that goes well beyond formal coordination and command" (p. 40).

3.3.5 The Role of the Human Relations School

Ott (1989) remarks, "the seeds of the OC perspective may have been planted in the neoclassical era, but they germinated during the human relations era of the late 1950s and the 1960s" (p. 152). This was an era of optimism for people. The maturing social sciences provided understanding of human behaviour through a range of new theories and empirical research findings. The human relations school focused on organisational issues such as motivation, work groups, group dynamics, leadership, commitment and employee growth and development. Further, the human relations school encouraged studies on beliefs, values and attitudes and so, contributed markedly to the evolution of the culture perspective. It is popularised by several OC scholars: for example, Deal, Kilmann, Pfeffer, Sathe and Schein.

3.3.6 "Modern" Structural Theory

The human relations perspective was followed by the "modern" structural perspective, which started in the 1960s. Structural organisational theory considered organisations to be rational, goal-oriented and mechanistic (Ott, 1989, Brown, 1995). It focused on issues of authority, coordination and hierarchy as exemplified by organisational charts. The roots of the modern structuralists are in the ideologies of the classical structuralists such as Fayol, Taylor, Gulick and Weber. One of the few commonalties between modern structural theory and OC is the concepts of "differentiation" and "integration". For example, Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) maintained that one of the most critical

factors affecting organisations is “achieving a balance between the conflicting needs for the demands of differentiation and integration” (Ott, 1989, p. 158). In a similar vein Schein (1992, p. 12) asserted that the essence of OC was the responses learned by members in struggling to solve “problems of external adaptation (differentiation) and internal integration”.

3.3.7 Systems and Contingencies Theories

Late in the 1960s, the human relations perspective began to wane and there was a shift toward rational, economic views with a focus on measurement, computers, information systems, statistics and models. During this period, two very important publications appeared: *The Social Psychology of Organisations* by Katz and Khan (1966) and *The Causal Textures of Organisational Environments* by Emery and Trist (1965). Katz and Kahn (1966) pursued the notion that organisations were “open” or “interdependent” systems that were connected by inputs, outputs and feedback loops. Emery and Trist (1965) identified interactions between the internal and external environment and recognised the existence of “ values that have overriding significance for all members of the field” (p. 256).

The OC perspective acknowledged the systems’ perspective that organisations are open systems where the OC is influenced by the broader culture of the external environment and by the nature of the business. However, the OC perspective considered organisations to be social cultures that could not be controlled, explained or directed by quantitative tools and techniques (Ott, 1989).

3.3.8 The Power and Politics Perspective

According to Brown (1995), the power and politics perspective “suggests that organisations are complexes of individuals and coalitions with different and often competing values, interests and preferences” (p. 5). This statement enforces the common assumptions held by this perspective and the OC one in relation to how organisations function. Both schools maintain that organisational behaviour can be irrational, especially in times of uncertainty; that structural authority does not necessarily control organisational behaviour; and, that organisations are organised into groups (coalitions or subcultures) whose values, beliefs, and preferences influence

organisational behaviour. Some eminent organisational theorists have noted the similarities between both perspectives in their works (e.g. Kanter, 1977; Mintzberg, 1983; Pfeffer, 1981).

3.3.9 A Real Interest in Organisational Culture

In 1978, the first principal analysis of the informal character of OC and management was published (Peters, 1981; Ott, 1989). This was soon followed by an article written by Pettigrew (1979) on culture and published in the *Administrative Science Quarterly*. Pettigrew (1979) presented an anthropological concept of culture and demonstrated how the related concepts such as symbolism, myth and ritual were useful in analysis of organisations. It was suggested that there are cognitive systems within OC that enable people to think, reason and make decisions (Pettigrew, 1979). In follow-up studies, Pettigrew (1990) proposed that culture consisted of different levels with the deepest level being a complex set of values, beliefs and assumptions that guide the way in which the organisation directs its business. As the concept of organisation culture began to evolve authors became interested in the importance of "shared values" as a competitive advantage for organisations. Pettigrew's ideas began to be synthesised and resulted in a number of popular management books: *The Art of Japanese Management* (Pascale and Athos, 1981), *Corporate Culture: The Rites and Rituals of Organizational Life* (Deal & Kennedy, 1982) and, *In Search of Excellence* (Peters & Waterman, 1982).

Paralleling the works of these management authors was the conceptualisations of academic researchers who began to view organisations in terms of "structures of meanings" (Wallace, Hunt & Richards, 1999, p. 549). For example, Hofstede (1981) explored the concept of culture as a construct that is characteristic of an organisation at a particular location and within a specific society. Lois (1983) reviewed the literature on OC and argued that concepts such as metaphors, symbols and myths were all "artefacts" of culture.

3.3.10 Varying Perspectives on Organisational Culture

As the interest in OC expanded, authors began to formulate various approaches to the concept. For example, Smircich's (1983) framework consisted of five themes: cross-cultural or comparative management, corporate culture, organisational cognition, organisational symbolism, and unconscious processes and organisation. Comparative management and corporate culture were regarded as managerial approaches that perceived OC as a dependent variable of its internal or external environment. The other three themes were anthropological approaches that discern OC as a root metaphor suitable for describing organisations. Smircich (1983) explains that all five approaches are "a viable mode of inquiry" (p. 342).

Schultz (1995) provides an alternative approach using three theoretical perspectives to OC: rationalism, functionalism, and symbolism. With this approach, OC is seen as a variable or mechanism, which influences organisational efficiency, effectiveness or performance. For example, Peters and Watermann (1982) maintain that if the organisation's culture has strong unifying values, it can achieve excellence. Similarly, Kilmann, Saxton and Serpa (1985) argue that there are three aspects of OC that combine to affect organisational performance: direction, pervasiveness (the degree to which culture is shard within a different group) and strength (the level of pressure the culture places on individuals within the organisation to behave in a particular manner). The functionalism approach is an anthropological or social systems perspective that examines the function served by culture. For example, Schein (1992) views the function of culture as "a pattern of shard values and basic assumptions which perform functions concerning external adaptation and internal integration" (Schultz, 1995, p. 14). Schein's perspective will be examined in greater detail later in the thesis.

Finally, Schultz's (1995) symbolism approach considers culture to be "a pattern of socially constructed symbols and meanings" (p. 14). This perspective considers culture to be a root metaphor and requires an ethnographic approach to study culture so as to understand the meaning and symbols within the organisation. Schultz (1995) notes that the symbolism perspective views "organisations as human systems which express

patterns of symbolic action" (p. 15). Service organisations provide a rich environment for utilisation of the symbolism perspective and some examples of ethnographic studies of hospitality organisations are *The World of Waiters* by Mars and Nicols (1984) and Shamir (1975).

In an attempt to make sense of the myriad of definitions that prevail on the concept of OC, Brown (1995) also makes the distinction between perspectives that view culture as a metaphor and those that see culture as an "objective entity" (Figure 3.2).

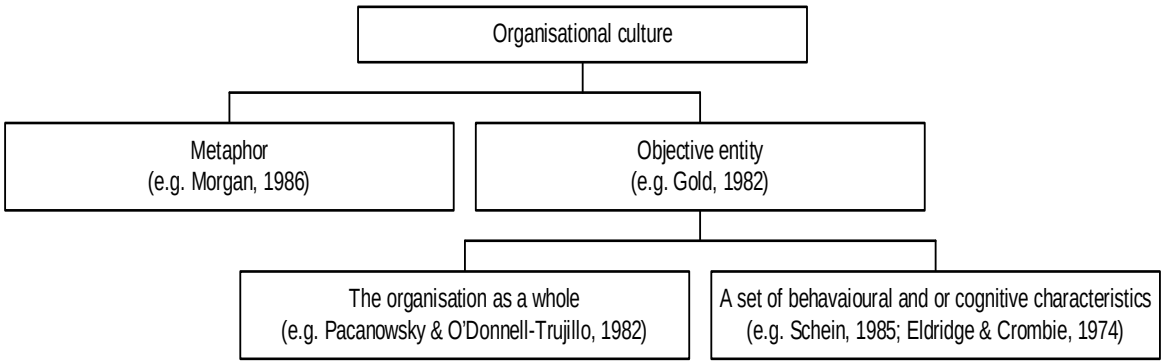


Figure 3.2: Classifying definitions of organisational culture

In the study of organisations, metaphors have been used to facilitate understanding of organisations. Traditionally, the "machine" and the "organism" have been used as metaphors to explain the nature of organisations (Brown, 1995). Manghan & Overington (1983) use the "theatre" to illustrate aspects of life within organisation. Pfeffer (1981) refers to organisations as "the political arena". Smircich (1983) notes that the term "organisation" itself is a metaphor that relates to the coordination and order.

Other authors have viewed culture as an objective entity. For example, Pacanowsky and O'Doneell-Trujillo (1982) maintain that organisations as a whole are cultures with the processes, procedures, policies and systems constituting the varying aspects of cultural life. Brown (1995) comments that this outlook is very similar to the idea of culture as a

metaphor. Schein (1985), however, focuses on individuals rather than the organisation as whole and considers OC to be a set of psychological characteristics organisational members posses, which allow them to think and behave in particular ways. Related to this, Eldridge and Crombie (1974) acknowledge organisational culture as a behavioural phenomenon as well as a cognitive one. This is exemplified in their detailed definition of OC below:

> The culture of an organisation refers to the unique configuration of norms, values, beliefs, ways of behaving and so on that characterise the manner in which groups and individuals combine to get things done. The distinctiveness of a particular organisation is intimately bound up with its history and the character-building effects of past decisions and past leaders. It is manifested in the folkways, mores, and the ideology to which members defer, as well as in the strategic choices made by the organisation as a whole. (p. 89)

Some researchers illustrate the difference between culture as a metaphor and as an objective entity by emphasising that there is a distinction in the definition of culture between culture as something an organisation *is* and culture as something an organisation *has* (Smircich, 1983). The first definition promotes a native-view paradigm (Gregory, 1983) and is generally an exploratory and descriptive approach. Originally, this approach was taken by academics to describe the culture concept as a 'root metaphor' where organisations were viewed as forms in which meanings are created and expressed through social interactions (Wilson, 2001). As management thinking developed, the view that OC is something an organisation *is* began to wane and theorists began to see culture as something an organisation *has*. This second perspective considers cultures as systems of shared meanings, assumptions and underlying values and so, relates culture to a variable rather than a metaphor (Schein, 1985). Some of the earliest researchers, who employed culture as an internal variable of organisations included Jacques (1952) and Harrison (1972). Later researchers began to examine relationships between various types of cultures (e.g. "strong versus weak") to specific outcome variable (e.g. performance and internal integration). These researchers included Deal and Kennedy (1982) and Wilkins and Ouchi (1983). Others began to

view culture as a vehicle for achieving managerial effectiveness and control (Barley, Meyer, & Dash, 1988; Peters & Waterman, 1982).

3.4 Toward a Definition of Organisational Culture

3.4.1 Which Definition?

Despite classification systems such as Brown's (1995), the phenomenon of OC is still subsumed by a myriad of definitions that reflect various understandings of what OC is. This section will present some of the more widely promulgated definitions.

As noted earlier, the concept of culture has arisen from the disciplines of sociology, anthropology and social psychology. Haggett (1975), a cultural geographer, provided a summary of the various definitions for culture that have evolved in each of these disciplines, "culture describes patterns of behaviour that form a durable template by which ideas and images can be transferred from one generation to another, or from one group to another" (p. 238). It is important to expand on this summary. First, the reference made to the 'transfer of behaviour' supports the social interaction between individuals within a group and the importance of this factor to the concept of culture (Wilson, 2001). Second, the idea that culture is 'a durable template' suggests that the various components of culture tend to form a relatively stable entity that may be slow to change. Third, the 'ideas and images' of culture enforce the notion that culture provides direction for the way members of the group should behave.

Some of the early definitions of OC were merely descriptive. For example, Tagiuri and Litwin (1968) referred to culture as the "feeling in the organisation". Similarly, Van Maanen (1976, 1979) and Ritti and Funkhouser (1982) mentioned "the rules of the game" and Drennan (1992) notes, "culture is '*how things are done around here*'. It is what is *typical* of the organisation, the *habits*, the prevailing *attitudes*, the grown-up pattern of *accepted* behaviour" (p. 3). These rudimentary descriptions differ from the more comprehensive definitions articulated by some of the theorists.

According to Schein (1985, p. 6), culture can be defined as the:

> Deeper level of basic assumptions and beliefs that are shared by members of an organisation that operate unconsciously and define, in a basic taken-for-granted fashion, an organisation's view or itself and its environment.

In 1990, Schein refined this definition to:

> A pattern of shared basic assumptions - invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration - that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to these problems. (p. 111)

Louis (1985, p. 74) reverberates Schein's (1985) view when she defines culture as, "A set of understandings *meanings shared* by a group of people. The meanings are largely *tacit* among members, are clearly *relevant* to the group, and are *distinctive* to the group. Meanings are *passed on* to new group members."

Another definition that supports Schein's perspective is that of Schneider (1988, p. 353):

> Culture refers to: (a) the values that lie beneath what the organisation rewards, supports and expects; (b) the norms that surround and/or underpin the policies, practices and procedures of organisation; and (c) the meaning incumbents share about what the norms and values of the organisation are.

Kotter and Heskett (1992) also contribute to the understanding of culture:

> At the deeper and less visible level, culture refers to values that are shared by the people in a group and that tend to persist over time even when group membership changes. At the more visible level, culture represents the behaviour patterns or style of an organisation that new employees are automatically encouraged to follow by their fellow

> employees. Each level of culture has a tendency to influence the other. (p. 4)

They add that "culture represents an interdependent set of values and ways of behaving that are common in a community and that tend to perpetuate themselves, sometimes over long periods of time" (Kotter & Heskett, 1992, p. 141).

3.4.2 Key elements of the definitions of organisational culture

Out of the many definitions suggested for OC it is possible to draw some common key elements. Principally, there is a common thread that OC is a shared phenomenon (e.g. Pfeffer, 1981; Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983). This element focuses on the idea that culture is a learned outcome of experiences within a definable group that has some history. Another common element is that most researchers propose that culture has two or more levels: visible levels and deeper, less visible levels. The visible levels relate to behaviour patterns, the written and spoken language, and the physical and social environment. A popular approach to examining these levels is the semiotic approach (e.g. Barley, 1983; Manning, 1979; Van Maanen, 1977). The deeper, less visible levels encompass the group's values, goals, concerns or basic assumptions (Schein, 1991). Yet another element is the socialisation process for new employees, i.e. the way in which these group members are induced into the group. One other element is the notion that changes in culture are very slow over time. Such change can be instigated by changes in society, changes in the organisation's environment or turnover of group members (Kotter & Heskett, 1992). Wilson (2001) has combined these elements into a formidable definition of OC:

> As the visible and less visible norms, values and behaviour that are shared by a group of employees which shape the group's sense of what is acceptable and valid. These are generally slow to change and new group members learn them through both an informal and formal socialisation process. (p. 356)

3.5 The Essence of Organisational Culture

The above definitions are useful in that they provide a framework for clarifying the complexities of OC. However, to further understand the nature of OC, an examination of the models that have guided the OC research will also be presented. These models are important in determining methodologies that can be used in exploring culture in organisations. They identify elements of OC that can be examined in the search to unveil the culture of an organisation. Ott (1989, p. 48) emphasises this point by noting that "the definitional question has major practical implications, such as when one needs to select a method for deciphering or identifying, strengthening, altering, changing, or managing OC".

Brown (1995) sites the following:

- artefacts;
- language in the form of metaphors, jokes, stories, myths and legends;
- behaviour patterns in the form of rites, rituals, ceremonies and celebrations;
- norms of behaviour;
- symbols and symbolic action;
- heroes;
- history; and,
- beliefs, values and attitudes; ethical codes; basic assumptions.

In an attempt to make some sense of these categories of elements of culture, researchers have developed models. Two of the most widely noted models of OC are those by Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, and Sanders (1990) and Schein (1985). A third less well-known model is the cultural web (Johnson, 1992).

3.6 Hofstede's Software of the Mind

Hofstede (1997) points out that "social (or cultural) anthropology is the science of human societies" (p. 5) and that social anthropology or culture refers to the patterns of thinking, feeling, and potential behaviour that an individual learns throughout his/her

lifetime. He calls these patterns “mental programs” and in relating them to computer programming, Hofstede (1997) also calls them “software of the mind”. Hence, Hofstede (1997) defines culture as “the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (p. 5). Hofstede (1997) maintains that cultural differences can manifest themselves in many ways but can be subsumed into four categories: symbols, heroes, rituals, and values. The four categories are related to the “skins of an onion” (Figure 3.3) with symbols representing the most superficial layer and values indicating the deepest manifestation of cultures are at the core of culture. Heroes and rituals constitute the layers in between (Hofstede, 1997). Figure 3.3 shows that symbols, heroes and rituals can be embodied by a fifth element “practices”. These practices are visible but the explication of the culture they represent is subject to the interpretations of the observer.

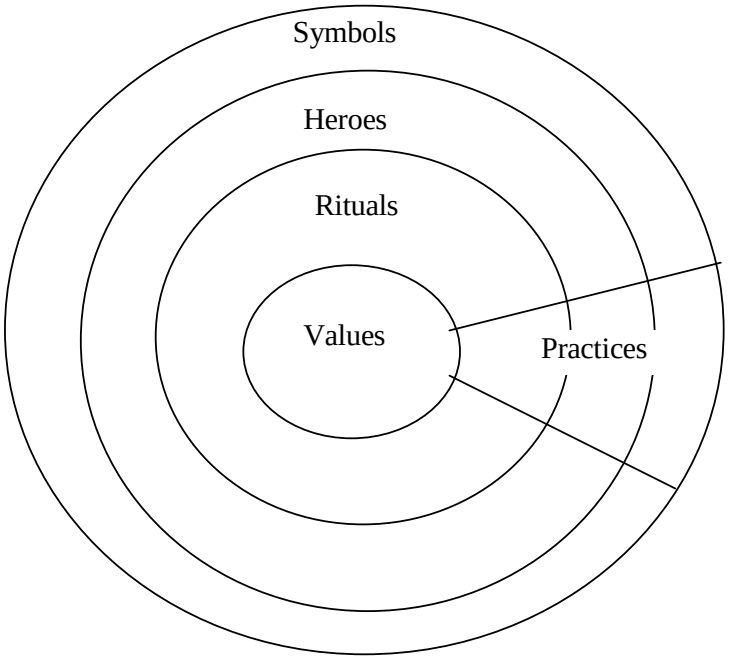


Figure 3.3: The manifestations of culture depicted as “skins of an onion” by Hofstede (1990, p. 291, Figure 1)

According to Hofstede (1997, p. 7):

> *Symbols* are "words, gestures, pictures or objects that carry a particular meaning which is recognised only by those who share the culture ... (and this category includes) language or jargon ... dress, hairstyles ... flags and status symbols... *Heroes* are persons, alive or dead, real or imaginary, who possess characteristics which are highly prizes in a culture, and who thus serve as models for behavior ... *Rituals* are collective activities, technically superfluous in reaching desired ends, but which, within a culture, are considered as socially essential: they are carried out for their own sake ... (and include) ... Ways of greeting and paying respect to others, social and religious ceremonies ... *Values* are broad tendencies to prefer certain state of affairs over others. Values are feelings with ... a plus and a minus side. (Hofstede, 1997, pp. 7-8).

In discussing values, Hofstede (1997) notes that the deeper, underlying level of values determines the meaning for people of their practices. He provides examples of values: such as evil, dirty and ugly compared with good, clean and beautiful, respectively. Hofstede makes one further definition and that is 'norms'. According to Hofstede (1997), norms are " the standards for values that exist within a group or category of people (p. 9). Hofstede (1990, p. 292) suggests that in order to attenuate the various layers, the following questions may be asked:

- What are special terms here that only insiders understand? *(To determine symbols)*
- What kind of people are most likely to make a fast career here? Whom do you consider as particularly meaningful persons for this organization? *(To determine heroes)*
- In what periodic meetings do you participate? How do people behave during these meetings? *(To determine rituals)*

- What things do people very much like to see happening here? What is the biggest mistake one can make? What work problems can keep you awake at night? *(To determine values)*

Hofstede (1997) conducted a cross-national study with IBM using 20 organisational units in Denmark and the Netherlands and found four dimensions of national culture that were labelled as dimensions of 'values': power distance, individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity, and uncertainty avoidance. In a cross-organisational study, Hofstede and his team found six dimensions of practices that distinguished the 20 organisations from each other:

- process (means) oriented versus results (goals) oriented
- employee (people oriented) versus job (task) oriented
- parochial (organisational) versus professional (job)
- open system (to newcomers & outsiders) versus closed (secretive) system
- loose control versus tight control
- normative (market) versus pragmatic (procedures)

3.7 Schein's Levels of Culture

Schein (1985) suggested that culture has three fundamentally different levels (Figure 3.4): observable artefacts, values, and basic underlying assumptions.

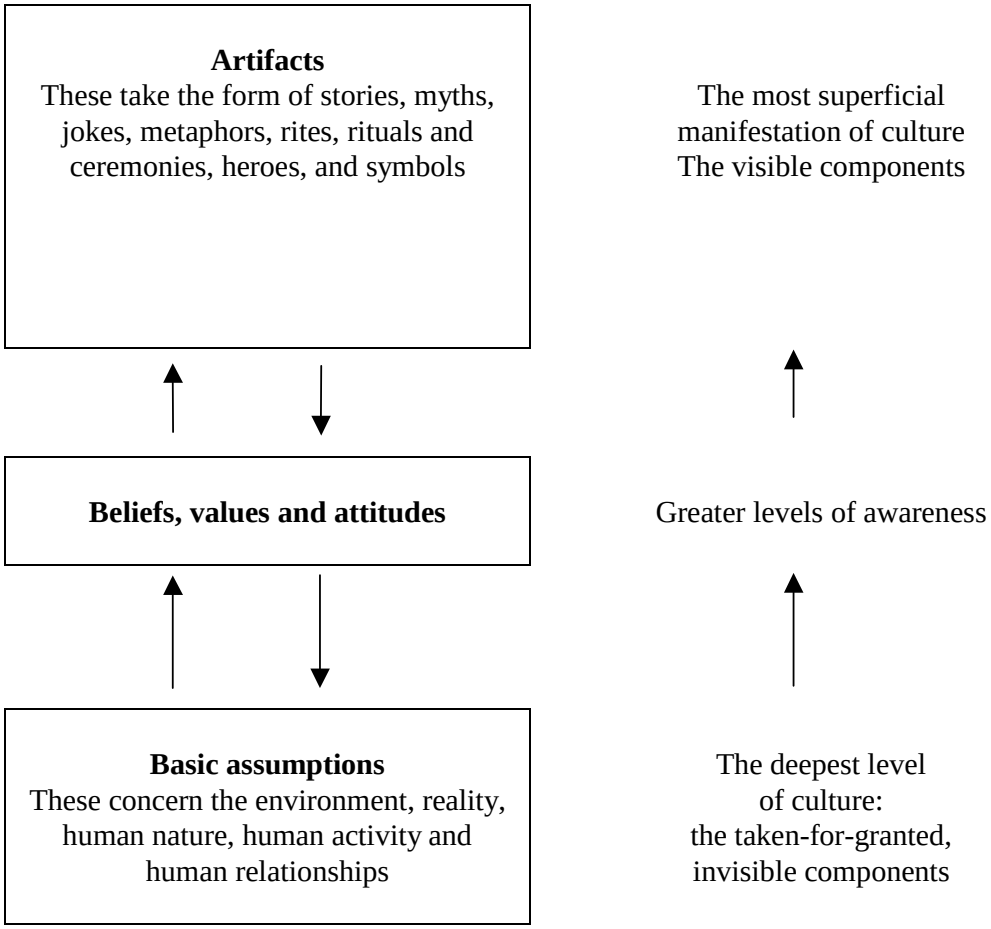


Figure 3.4: Levels of culture and their interaction
[Adapted from Schein (1985, p. 14, Figure 1)]

The level of 'artifacts and creations' is the most visible level of culture. It is the constructed physical and social environment (Schein, 1985). In 1990, Schein stated that:

> When one enters an organization one observes and feels its *artifacts*. This category includes everything from the physical layout, the dress code, the manner in which people address each other, the smell and feel of the place, its emotional intensity, and other phenomena, to the

more permanent archival manifestations such as company records, products, statements of philosophy, and annual reports. (p. 111)

The "artifacts' level is defined as the visible results of the other two levels: values and basic assumptions. It is often referred to as 'the sensory level' because "one can look at physical space, the technological output of the group, its written and spoken language, artistic productions, and the overt behaviour of its members" (Schein, 1985, p. 14). Artefacts are the material and nonmaterial objects and patterns of behaviour that intentionally or non-intentionally maintain and transmit information about the organisation's beliefs, values and assumptions. Artefacts may be symbols, signs, language, jargon, metaphors, stories, scripts, heroes, sagas, legends, ceremonies, celebrations, rites, rituals, and behavioural norms. Brown (1995) outlines some categories of artefacts and these are detailed in Table (3.2).

Table 3.2: A summary of the different levels of organisational culture as determined from Brown (1995)

	EXAMPLES
ARTIFACTS	
Material objects	Annual reports, corporate logos, mission statements, the products the organisation makes, sales and advertising brochures
Physical layouts	Dress codes, the quality and functionality of the furnishings, the general appearance of the buildings and car parks, the architecture
Language	Jokes, anecdotes, stories, metaphors, jargon terms, myths
Behaviour patterns	Rites, rituals, ceremonies, celebrations, norms of behaviours
Symbols	Words, objects, conditions, acts or characteristics of persons that represent something different or wider and which can have meaning for an individual or group
Rules, systems, procedures and programmes	E.g. human resource systems, compensation, appraisal & promotion, meetings, quality assurance programmes
Heroes	Power, right or wrong person, unity or disunity, a mixed blessing

Table 3.2 shows a huge range of different types and forms of artefacts that can be observed in an organisation. The significance of these artefacts will be determined by their association with the deeper levels of the organisation's culture. For example, in most hotels the senior managers (e.g. the general manager, the human resources manager) tend to be accommodated in individual offices. Brown (1995) suggests that this reflects "an ethic of individual autonomy and independence" (p. 9). The middle

managers, however, tend to share offices (e.g. the restaurant manager and supervisors; the sales coordinator and sales team). This may indicate a culture that supports teamwork and cooperation.

The "values" level relates to what is desirable or 'what ought to be' (Schein, 1985). Ott (1989) notes, "*beliefs, values, ethical codes, moral codes,* and *ideologies* mean essentially the same things in the language of organizational culture" (p. 38). Schein (1985, p. 16) clarifies this statement by proposing, "the value gradually starts a process of *cognitive transformation* into a belief and, ultimately, an assumption". It is surmised that shared beliefs and values are central to OC because they shape artefacts and drive the behaviour of people in organisations (Ott, 1989). Values can be reflected in cultural inclinations for autonomy, cooperation, creativity, equality, honesty, rationality and adaptability (Brown, 1995).

Schein (1985) argues that these elements are tested in the physical environment and by social consensus. Theoretically, a group's values determine the solution they will propose for a new task, issue or problem. Once the group perceive that the solution works successfully, the value becomes a belief and gradually a taken-for-granted assumption. Values and beliefs are conscious and identifiable but assumptions are unconscious and automatic. They exist because repeated successes allow the individual to assume that if they react in a particular way, a particular result will eventuate.

Ott (1989) points out that:

> Beliefs are cognitions (*cognitions*) ... basic assumptions include not only beliefs but also perceptions (*interpretations of cognitions*) and values and feelings (*affects*) ... Thus, basic assumptions can be thought of as a comprehensive, potent, but out-of-conscious system of beliefs, perceptions, and values ... Basic assumptions are beliefs, values, ethical and moral codes, and ideologies ... they are unquestioned perceptions of truth, reality, ways of thinking and thinking about, and feeling that develop through repeated successes in solving problems over extended periods of time. Important basic

> assumptions are passed on to new members, often unconsciously. (p. 42 & p. 47)

In essence, the level of basic assumptions, reflects the result of the process where an idea that was once a hypothesis and based on only a 'hunch', belief, feeling, perception or value gradually comes to be regarded as a reality (Schein, 1985, p.14). The beliefs and values provide "explicit directions and justifications for patterns of organizational behaviour, as well as the energy to enact them ... (they) are the birthplaces of basic assumptions" (Ott, 1989, p. 47). The different members of the organisation share the beliefs and values in varying degrees. The magnitude to which these beliefs and values are shared is dependent on a number of factors (e.g. leadership as in Schein, 1985). As organisational values are gradually taken for granted, they subconsciously influence how individuals interpret situations, decisions and actions (Schein, 1985). As organisations develop unity in their culture they will be able to function effectively. In fact, Johnson and Scholes (1999) suggest that "a cultural system in which various parts of the organisation are all working to a common end can provide advantage ... can be the very basis of *competitive advantage* in markets because it may prove difficult to imitate" (p. 73).

Schein (1984) advocates that assumptions can become archetyped into cultural "paradigms". He states, "A cultural paradigm is a set of interrelated assumptions that form a coherent pattern. In an effort to analyse cultural paradigms and so, study assumptions, Schein (1984) proposed a set of categories (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3: Basic underlying assumptions around which cultural paradigms form

DIMENSION	QUESTION
1. **The Organization's Relationship to Its Environment.** Reflecting even more basic assumptions about the relationship of humanity to nature, one can assess whether the key members of the organization view the relationship as one of dominance, submission, harmonizing, finding an appropriate niche, and so on.	Does the organization perceive itself to be dominant, submissive, harmonizing, searching out a niche?
2. **The Nature of Reality and Truth.** Here are the linguistic and behavioural rules that define what is real and what is not, what is a "fact", how truth is ultimately to be determine, and whether truth is "revealed" or "discovered"; basic concepts of time as linear or cyclical, monochronic or polychronic; basic concepts such as space as limited or infinite and property as communal or individual; and so forth.	How do we define what is true and what is not true: and how is truth ultimately determined both in the physical and social world?
3. **The Nature of Human Nature** What does it mean to be "human" and what attributes are considered intrinsic or ultimate? Is human nature good, evil, or neutral? Are human beings perfectible or not? Which is better, Theory X or Theory Y?	Are humans basically good, neutral, or evil, and is human nature perfectible or fixed?
4. **The Nature of Human Activity** What is the "right" thing for human beings to do, on the basis of the above assumptions about reality, the environment, and human nature: to be active, passive, self-developmental, fatalistic or what: What is work and what is play?	Is the "correct" way for human to behave to be dominant/pro-active, harmonizing, or passive/fatalistic?
5. **The Nature of Human Relationships** What is considered to be the "right" way for people to relate to each other, to distribute power and love? Is life cooperative or competitive; individualistic, group collaborative, or communal; based on traditional lineal authority, law, or charisma; or what?	What is the "correct" way for people to relate to each other, to distribute power and affection?

[Adapted from Schein (1984, p. 6, Table 1) & Schein (1990, p. 114, Table 2)]

Table 3.3 shows that the underlying dimensions of OC are consistent with anthropological typologies of societies in general (Schein, 1990). Culture covers all aspects of a group's existence. Culture is "ubiquitous" (Schein, 1990, p. 112). Schein (1990) maintains that by drawing on the universal issues that face all societies, it is possible to decipher the culture of a particular organisation. So in trying to infer the underlying assumptions, the researcher can ask questions that are pertinent to the above

dimensions. For example, in relation to 'the nature of human activity" the researcher may ask, "Is the "correct" way for human to behave to be dominant/pro-active, harmonizing, or passive/fatalistic?"

3.8 Spinning a Cultural web

Organisational culture and its main elements can also be defined using Johnson's (1992) "cultural web" as a framework (Figure 3.5). Johnson's (1992) definition of 'paradigms' is similar to Schein's (1985) in that a paradigm is "the set of assumptions held relatively in common and taken for granted in an organisation" (p. 28). It is noted that the underlying assumptions that make up the "paradigm" of OC are generally apparent in the day-to-day conversations or discussions between people in the organisation or are so taken-for-granted that they are only evident in people's behaviour (Johnson & Scholes, 1999).

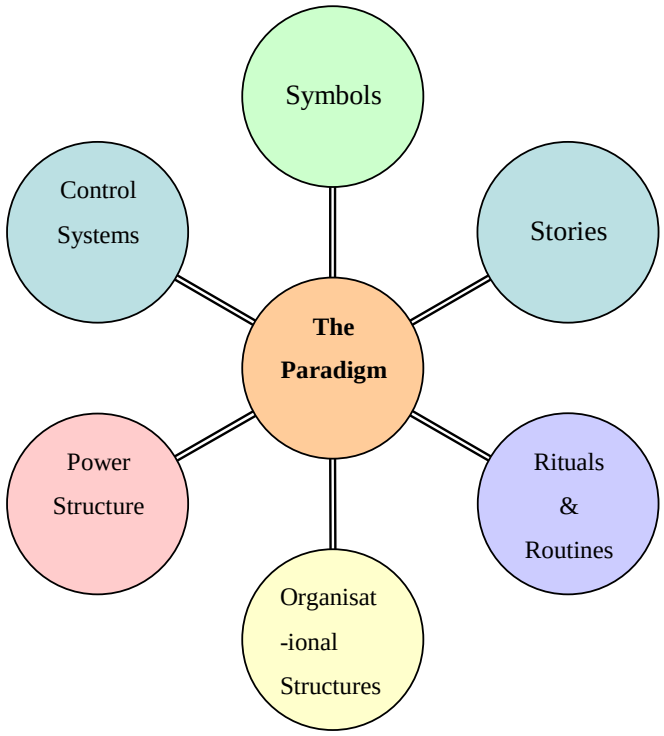


Figure 3.5: The cultural web of an organisation
[Source: Adapted from Johnson (1992, p. 31, Figure 2)]

Figure 3.5 shows that the cultural web is a representation of the paradigm (or the taken-for-granted assumptions) and the physical manifestations of OC. The physical manifestations of the cultural web include the *routines and rituals*, *stories*, *symbols*, *power*, *controls* and *organisation*. The cultural web, hence, is in many ways similar to Hofstede's (1990) onion layers with the 'values' as the core of culture in Hofstede's model being comparable with Johnson's 'paradigm' and the other elements (rituals, heroes, symbols and practices) as the peripheral layers of Hofstede's model being similar to Johnson's outer web. Johnson's cultural web can also be related to Schein's (1985) levels of culture with the 'paradigm' of Johnson's model representing 'the basic assumptions' of Schein's model and the outer web being analogous to Schein's 'artifacts'. Johnson and Scholes (1999) outline some possible questions that the researcher may ask when investigating the cultural web (Table 3.4).

Table 3.4: Some useful questions for investigating the cultural web

Stories

- What core beliefs do stories reflect?
- Describe the most significant things that have happened to the company in the last two or three years?
- How pervasive are these beliefs (through levels)?
- Do stories relate to: strengths or weaknesses; successes or failures; conformity or mavericks?
- Who are the heroes and villains?
- What norms do the mavericks deviate from?

Routines and rituals

- Which routines are emphasised?
- Which would look odd if changed?
- What behaviour do routines encourage?
- What are the key rituals?
- What core beliefs do they reflect?
- What do training programmes emphasise?

Organisational structure

- How mechanistic or organic are the structures?
- How flat or hierarchical are the structures?
- How formal or informal are the structures?
- Do structures encourage collaboration or competition?
- What types of power structure do they support?

Control systems

- What is most closely monitored or controlled?
- Is emphasis on reward or punishment?
- Are controls related to history or current strategies?
- Are there many or few controls?

Power structures

- What are the core beliefs of the leadership?
- How strongly held are these beliefs (idealists or pragmatists)?
- How is power distributed in the organisation?
- Where are the main blockages to change?

Symbols

- What language and jargon is used?
- How internal or accessible is it?
- What aspects of strategy are highlighted in publicity?
- What status symbols are there?
- Are there particular symbols, which denote the organisation?

[Source: Johnson and Scholes (1999, p. 238, Exhibit 5.11)]

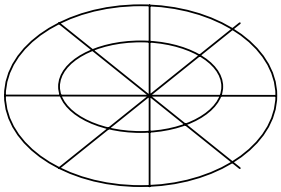
The questions can be used to provide important clues to the underlying paradigm. For example, taking note of the stories people choose to talk about can provide some indication of what is important to the members of the organisation and to the taken-for-granted assumptions of the organisation. Also, these investigations may highlight areas of concern or avenues for developing and implementing new strategies. With all of the above models, it is useful to remember in investigating the culture of an organisation that it is the overall picture that is painted from the responses ascertained from questioning and the observations discerned that is of importance not the separate answers or inferences that mean the most.

3.9 Typologies of organisational culture

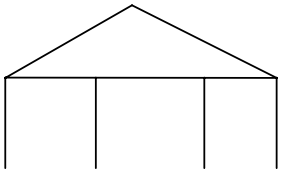
Having examined the contents of OC, it is apparent that OC can be a highly complex phenomenon. In order to provide a comprehensible account of OC, it may be useful to classify or categorise culture. Categorising OC into typologies allows the researcher to organise the elements of OC (e.g. as identified in the models above) into a framework for considering alternative methods for studying OC. Typologies are valuable because they not only provide an indication of the variety of cultures that exist but they have also been useful in deciding on approaches for examining OC. The typologies that have been developed vary markedly in their level of sophistication, the variables that have been used and the applicability across organisations (Brown, 1995). This section will detail some of the best-known typologies of OC.

The Harrison/ Handy Typology

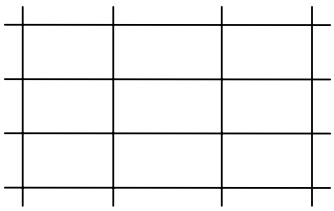
In 1972, Roger Harrison divided organisations into four categories: *power*, *role*, *task* and *person*. Six years later, Handy (1978) presented a reviewed version of Harrison's four main types and described the categories by using pictograms that made reference to Greek mythology (Figure 3.6).



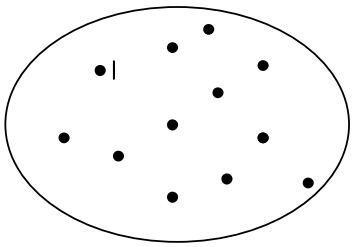
Power culture (the web):
The 'club' or 'Zeus' culture
A culture reflecting the presence of an omnipotent leader, single source of power controlling from the centre with functional and specialist strings that radiate outward; highly dependent on trust, empathy and personal communication for effectiveness; few rules, little bureaucratic procedures; a tough, abrasive culture with a great ability to react quickly.



Role culture (the Greek temple):
Associated with Apollo, the god of reason
A bureaucratic culture centred around logic, rationality, legality, legitimacy and responsibility; it is made up of a series of pillars that represent functions or specialists (e.g. finance, purchasing, production, service) and which are coordinated and controlled by a small group of senior executives (the pediment); rules procedures and job descriptions dominate this culture; authority exercised through position power and extent expert power.
Examples: hospitality, civil service, retail banking, oil industry.



Task culture (lattice):
A culture represented by diffuse power with a focus on expertise, knowledge and competence; a team culture driven by flexibility, adaptability, individual autonomy and mutual respect based on ability; project groups very common.
Example: advertising agencies.



Person culture (cluster):
The 'Dionysus' culture, the god of self-oriented individuals
A culture where no individual dominates but develops from a band of group of people who band together to share the costs of office space, equipment and secretarial assistance.
Example: barristers, doctors, architects.

Figure 3.6: Handy's categorisation of organisational culture into four main types
[Adapted from Handy (1985 in Brown, 1995, p. 67, Figure 2.3)]

Schein's typology

Figure 3.6 shows the simplicity of this classification scheme and Brown (1995) notes that it has been greatly influential in the understanding of OC. In a similar vein, Schein (1985) isolated four different categories of culture: power, role, achievement and support cultures (Table 3.5).

Table 3.5: Schien's (1985) categories of culture

Power culture • Leadership resides in a few, and rests on their ability • People motivated by rewards and punishments (and association with strong leaders) • Good power cultures have strong, just, firm fair leaders • Bad power cultures have corrupt, fear-inducing leaders • Can be good for entrepreneurial and start-up organisations • Problems arise when the size and complexity or organizations increase	*Role culture* • Power is balanced equitably between the leader and bureaucratic structures • Roles and rules are clearly defined, and 'contracts' are established • Values are order, dependability, rationality and delegation • Little supervision is needed • These culture work well in stable environments • They can be impersonal, against innovation and change, and tend to make members feel entrusted
Achievement culture • Stresses personal intrusive motivation and commitment where people can do their own thing' • The attempt to evoke passion, commitment and the sense of a 'calling' • People voluntarily 'line up' behind exciting, noble goals • These cultures value action, excitement and impact • High demands are made on people's energy and time • However, the culture is difficult to sustain, and people are prone to burn-out and disillusionment • There is more common vision to organize the work, than subjection to discipline and procedures	*Support culture* • Here support is voluntary and relationships are characterized by mutuality • People contribute out of a sense of commitment and solidarity • Found in the military, foreign service, ex-pat communities, union organizers, start-up teams • There is reciprocal caring and trust, and concern for others' welfare • A strong feature is extremely strong motivation in the service of the group; a willingness to make sacrifice • A weakness in a tendency to avoid conflict' consensus is over-valued and there is some favouritism.

[Adapted from Furnham & Gunter, 1993, pp. 84-5]

Both these approaches provide some useful information of the dimensions of OC. Yet some caution should be taken into interpretation of what they represent. First, they seem to be very broad approaches that offer four distinguishable types, which could easily be inferred as different cultures relating to occupational or industry categories. While the classification of cultures can help organisations become aware of their own culture and provides data on clusters that may otherwise not have been so obvious, this approach with a small number of types could lead to the researcher missing out on really important elements of culture. The other danger is that these approaches could provide an incomplete or distorted knowledge base, which may be incomplete and incorrect. Hence, it is suggested that while these categories may be useful in providing a 'cultural atlas' of the organisation, they should not be regarded as the total picture on culture.

Deal and Kennedy's Typology

Deal and Kennedy (1982) also specified four types of culture: the *tough-guy macho* culture, the *work-hard/play hard* culture, the *bet-your-company* culture, and the *process* culture. These researchers, however, acknowledged that these four categories were generic and that it is possible that no organisation will fit perfectly into anyone of the four groups and that perhaps some organisations will not fit the model at all. In differentiating their cultures, Deal and Kennedy (1982) considered two factors: the degree of risk associated with the organisation's activities and the length of time required for the organisation and its employees to gain feedback on their decisions and strategies. The Deal and Kennedy typology is depicted in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Deal and Kennedy's (1982) generic types of culture

Tough-guy macho culture • A world of risk-taking individualists, eager for immediate feedback • High-risk, high-gain philosophies abound • Heroes are survivors who win high stakes • The chance-like nature of success in this world means many superstitions, 'comfort blanket' rituals exist • Very short-term oriented • Unlikely to learn from failures, set-backs • The culture fosters immaturity and distrust of colleagues • Frequently construction, management constancy, venture capital, media, publishing, sports	*Work hard - Play hard culture* • The culture encourages people to maintain a high level of relatively low-risk activity • Success comes with persistence, so this is most rewarded • Client/customer centred, aimed at meeting a need and filling it • Heroes are friendly, carousing, super sales people • Rites and rituals revolve around energetic games and contests, meetings • The action-oriented culture is ideal for people who thrive on quick tangible feedback • But quality is sacrificed for quantity • There may also be a lack of thoughtfulness and attention • They can get fooled by success because of little long-term planning • High energy enthusiasts drift into cynicism when the quick-fix existence loses its meaning • The culture requires great respect and cultivates young people • Frequently real-estate, computer companies, automotive distributors, door-to-door sales operation
Bet-your-company culture • This culture is a high-risk, slow feedback existence with less pressure but 'slow-drip water torture' • They are often ponderous, deliberate companies where good ideas are given a proper chance to show success • Decisions are slow, consultative, but top-down • Heroes can cope with long-term ambiguity, and are those who respect authority and technical competence and rely upon it • These organizations move with awesome slowness • These cultures are vulnerable to short-term fluctuations and cash-flow problems • Frequently banks, mining companies, large-system business, architectural firms, computer-design companies, actuarial insurance companies	*Process culture* • This is the classic bureaucracy - a world of little feedback, where it is difficult to concentrate on outcome, so people concentrate on process • Characterized by excessive reliance on memos by people trying 'cover the backsides' • Protectiveness and caution are natural responses to the absence of feedback • Heroes are orderly, punctual, attend to detail • Sport/play is important - which sport, how often, who with • Special language and jargon abound • Greeting rituals may be peculiar to this company • Co-worker rituals: tough guys score points off each other; workers/players drink together, seniors mentor each other; process people discuss memos • Frequently government, local government, utilities, some banks and insurance companies, heavily regulated industries

[Adapted from Furnham & Gunter, 1993, pp. 82-3]

Graves Typology

Graves (1986) also identifies four types of culture: barbarian, monarchical, presidential, pharaonic (Table 3.7). The notable difference with Graves' approach is that the imagery is distinctly unique but the four 'standard' categories are clearly evident. Some concerns, however, are raised with Graves' system because neither evidence nor explanation is provided by Graves (1986) on how the categories were derived or why the particular typologies were chosen.

Table 3.7: Graves' (1986) categorising system of organisational culture

Barbarian culture • Anti-bureaucratic, ego-driven culture that rejects procedures and formality • Warriors (workers) are workaholics, mavericks, pop-star individualists • Leadership is charismatic and groups are unstable • There is an atmosphere of perpetual ferment • Members share the experience of the thrill of the switchback, the euphoria of high life and the bitterness of despair • Character types are 'fixers' in strong battle, truculent in defeat and contemptuous of a settled life	*Monarchical culture* • Contempt for formalization and bureaucracy and planning, yet loyalty and doggedness are highly praised • Heavily dependent on the skills of the leader • Succession can be a serious problem • Promotion comes from within and the quality of leadership is variable
Presidential culture • In this democratic culture the elected leader embodies the needs and aspirations of all the people in the organization • The leader is sustained by subordinates, who know his term is short and his influence limited • The leader needs to give clear messages to prevent people drifting into sub-groups • Bad cultures of this type tend to be reactive rather than proactive, living off internal momentum	*Pharaonic culture* • A culture with a passion for order, status and ritual • The culture is changeless but shadowy, healthy but false • Individualism is accepted but the pre-eminence of the system is maintained

[Adapted from Furnham & Gunter, 1993, pp. 85-6]

Quinn & McGrath's typology

Quinn and McGrath (1985) differentiated four types of cultures based on the nature of the transactions associated with information exchange in the organisations: the rational culture (*market*), the ideological culture (*adhocracy*), the consensual culture (*clan*), and the hierarchical culture (*hierarchy*). This typology was developed on the idea that during these transactions valued information was being exchanged, which was important to the satisfaction, status and power of individuals within the group.

Scholz's typology

Scholz (1987) distinguished three cultural typologies: *evolution* (how cultures change over time), *internal* (how the internal circumstances of an organisation affect its culture), and *external* (how an organisation's environment affects its culture). Scholz' external-induced dimension was consistent with the typologies of Deal and Kennedy (1982) and the dimensions were borrowed from there. From the evolution-induced culture, Scholz (1987) specified five culture types: *stable, reactive, anticipating, exploring, and creative*. These were further subdivided according to *personality, time-orientation, risk-orientation, slogan, and change-orientation.* With the internal-induced dimension, Scholz (1987) ascribed three culture types: *production*, *bureaucratic*, and *professional*, which he further distinguished according to *routines, standardisation, skill requirements*, and *property rights.*

The Mile and Snow Typology

In 1978, Miles and Snow specified three typologies that were based on the relationship between prevailing culture and the strategic pattern: *defenders, prospectors,* and *analysers*. Miles and Snow maintained that the environment, strategy, objectives and systems could be used to distinguish between the three cultures. So a 'defender culture' had a stable environment with a centralised system that emphasised efficiency and objectives to secure the market and strategies of specialisation and cost efficiency. The prospector culture, on the other hand, had a dynamic, growing environment with a decentralised, flexible, *ad hoc*, system and objectives that sought new opportunities to

promote a strategy of growth. In between these two types is the analyser culture, which has a moderately changing environment, mixed, loose-tight system with objectives to expand and protect with a strategy of steady growth.

The typologies described above share some common elements. For example, Deal and Kennedy's (1982) 'tough-guy' culture with its risk-taking and individualistic characteristics is similar to Schein's 'power' culture with its entrepreneurial approach and ability values. Likewise, Graves' (1980) 'barbarian' culture with its ego-driven, workaholic nature could be compared to these and to Harrison/Handy's (1972/1980) 'power-oriented' culture with its competitive, personality outlook. Also, the 'work/play hard' culture of Deal and Kennedy with its persistent and sociable elements can be likened to Schein's 'achievement' culture with its personal, intrinsic motivation focus and Graves' 'presidential' culture with its democratic, hierarchical orientation and Harrison/Handy's 'people-oriented' culture with consensual, non-management control perspective.

The above section has provided some typologies of OC and while there is some overall similarity among these disparate systems, there remains no overall consensus on a basic system of categories for OC. The efforts of these writers raise the question as to whether it is possible to have a culture classification system. Jamieson (1981) suggests that while it may be desirable to have a conceptual 'meta-language' that facilitates the comparison and contrasting of organisations, it may not be possible to develop such a system. There is no doubt that the authors above describe some interesting aspects of the major types, but OC and its reality is far too complex to be captured by use of typologies alone. Essentially, these classifications identify ideal culture types or models that can be used to compare and examine actual OC. The typologies can be valuable in that they highlight "what dimensions are important, why, and how they interact with each other to form a coherent social whole" (Brown, 1995, p. 73). This is but a sample of the many typologies that theorists have formulated and despite their numbers, typologies leave many questions about culture unanswered, e.g. how does culture originate, how is it perpetuated. These questions and others will be examined later in the

chapter but first, the concept of organisational climate introduces and its relationship to OC will be examined.

3.10 Bridging the Gap Between Organisational Culture and Organisational Climate

Despite the many publications written to compare climate and culture (e.g. Schneider, 1975; Reichers & Schneider, 1990; Hofstede, 1998), the question remains as to, "What exactly is the relationship between the concept of climate and that of culture?

The concept of climate has a long history that can be traced back to the research of Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939). Essentially, the concept of climate was born before the concept of culture with major publications on climate dating back to the 1960s and 1970s. The study of Lewin *et al*. (1939) examined 'social climates' in particular leadership style and climate. In their study, Lewin and his team found that the behaviour of the boys in the study was influenced by the social climate created by their leaders: authoritarian, democratic or laissez faire. Lewin (1951) presented a framework for the relationship between individuals and their social environment and expressed this by the equation:

$$B = f(P.E)$$

where B = Behaviour, E = Environment, and P = the Person

In 1953, Fleishman pursued the idea of leadership climate but did not provide a definition of climate. He explored the notion that leadership climate was responsible for the 'failure of a training programme to transfer to a field setting (Reichers & Schneider, 1990). It was the seminal work of Argyris (1958) that defined climate "in terms of formal organisation policies, and employee needs, values, and personalities that operate in a self-perpetuating system of "living complexity"" (p. 514). Even so, Reichers and Schneider note that Argyris used the term hesitatingly, presenting it in quotation marks and using interchangeably with the expression 'informal culture'.

As the empirical research on climate experienced a roaring start, very little attention was paid to its definition and theoretical conceptualisation. There was a groundswell of

empirical data that focused on the validity of the concept and assessed its correlation to salesperson success (Schneider & Bartlett, 1968, 1970) work motivation, achievement, power and affiliation (Litwin & Stringer, 1968) but discussion on what climate is and is not was slow in its evolution. In 1960, McGregor's book *The Human Side of Enterprise* presented a chapter on what he termed 'the managerial climate'. McGregor (1960) was more forthcoming with a definition of climate, defining it as "... day-by-day behaviour of the immediate superior and of other significant people in the managerial organization" (p. 133). He proposed that the managerial climate influenced fairness in the workplace, productivity and employees' morale. McGregor concluded, "managers create the climate in which the subordinates work by what they do, how they do it, how competent they are, and their ability to make things happen through upward influence in the organization" (Reichers & Schneider, 1990, p. 18).

According to Reichers and Schneider (1990), it was Litwin and Stringer who formally and "comprehensively conceptualized and operationalized climate" (p. 18) with the presentation of an article at a conference on climate in 1966. In that article, Litwin and Stringer (1966) identified six climate dimensions, including reward, structure, support and warmth. Litwin and Stringer defined organisational climate in 1968 as:

> A set of measurable properties of the work environment, perceived directly or indirectly by the people who live and work in this environment and assumed to influence their motivation and behavior. (in Reichers & Schnieder, 1990, p. 18)

Tagiuri and Litwin edited a collection of papers from the conference and these were published in 1968 in *Motivation and Organizational Climate*. The papers in this publication were significant because they explored the nature of the climate construct, discussed its definition and presented some early empirical research data. Simultaneously, Litwin and Stringer (1968) published the book *Motivation and Organizational Climate*, which investigated the influence of the supposed concept of climate on employees' motivation and productivity. Both these publications, some thirty years after Lewin, Lippitt and White's (1939) use of the term 'climate', can be viewed as origin of the concept of climate.

Like, OC, conceptual considerations of organisational climate have led to a myriad of definitions for the word. The emphasis of these definitions of organisational climate has shifted since the late 1960s. Early definitions described climate as a characteristic of the organisation. For example, Tagiuri and Litwin (1968) summarised climate as, "The relatively enduring quality of the total (organizational) environment that (a) is experienced by the occupants; (b) influences their behaviour; and (c) can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics (or) attributes of the environment" (p. 27). Similarly, Forehand and Gilmer (1964) recognised climate as the set of characteristics that describe organisations and distinguish them from one another, are enduring over time, and influence the behavior of people within them. Later, Schneider and Hall (1972) stated that climate relates to individuals' perceptions of their organisations. Other researchers noted that climate was specified by the shared common perceptions of people within the organisation (Joyce & Slocum, 1979; Rentsch, 1988). At times, climate was even viewed as a representation of OC. It is interesting to note that Argyris (1958) used 'climate' interchangeably with 'culture'. Barker (1994) concedes that the two terms are regularly used synonymously. Field and Abelson (1982) note that although there are numerous studies into climate, the distinction between the two constructs has been problematic.

Moran and Volkwein (1992) argue that there is an overlap between the two concepts. In fact, in their attempt to explain how organisational climate is formed Moran and Volkein (1992) note that the development of organisational climate is achieved by four processes: *structural*, *perceptual*, *interactive*, and *cultural*. Moran and Volkein (1992) state that the cultural approach extends the interactive approach and includes the interaction of group members as a predominant component of organisational climate. It also proposes that the shared knowledge and meanings of the OC are a key effect. From this basis Moran and Volkein (1992) have developed a definition of organisational climate, which incorporates elements of previous definitions and heralds the critical role played by OC:

> Organizational climate is a relatively enduring characteristic of an organisation which distinguishes it form other organizations and: (a)

> embodies members collective perceptions about their organization with respect to such dimensions as autonomy, trust, cohesiveness, support, recognition, innovation, and fairness; (b) is produced by member interaction; (c) serves as a basis for interpreting the situation' (d) reflects the prevalent norms, values and attitudes of the organization's culture; and (e) acts as a source of influence for shaping behavior. (p. 20)

Reichers and Schneider (1990) define culture as "a common set of shared meaning or understandings about the group/organization and its problems, goals, and practices" (p. 23). Similarly, Schein (1992, p. 12) describes culture as learned responses by the group to "problems of external adaptation and internal integration" that are subliminal, taken-for-granted and shared by group members. In essence, Schein (1992) states that culture provides a means of feeling, perceiving and thinking in response to the groups' problems. The idea of shared perceptions has also been used widely by climate researchers (e.g. Bruner, 1964; Schneider, 1972; Joyce & Slocum, 1984). For example, Reichers and Schneider (1990) define climate as the "shared perceptions of organisational policies, practices, and procedures, both formal and informal" (p. 22).

Denison (1996) stated that it was not apparent whether culture and climate are examining the same or different organisational phenomenon and provided a summary that outlines the contrasting nature of climate and culture (Table 3.8).

Table 3.8: A contrasting look at organisational culture and climate

Research Perspective	***Cultural Literature***	***Climate Literature***
Epistemological	Contextualised and idiographic (individual)	Comparative and nomothetic (group)
View Point	Emic (native)	Etic (researcher's view)
Methodological	Qualitative observation	Quantitative data
Temporal Orientation	Historical evolution	A historical snapshot
Level of Analysis	Underlying values and assumptions	Surface level manifestations
Discipline	Sociology	Psychology

[Source: Denison (1996, p. 625)]

It was thought that culture studies were looking for factors, which are unique in each setting and used qualitative approaches. In contrast, climate studies searched for elements that could be generalised over various situations and used quantitative studies. Denison (1996, pp. 621-625) concluded that:

> Culture researchers were more concerned with the evolution of social systems over time ... whereas climate researchers were generally less concerned with evolution but more concerned with the impact that organisational systems have on groups and individuals ... Culture researchers argued for the importance of underlying assumptions ... Climate researchers in contrast, typically placed greater emphasis on organisational members perceptions of observable practices and procedures that are closer to the surface of organisational life ... and categorisation of these practices and perceptions into analytic dimensions defined by the researchers.

Reichers and Schneider (1990) concede, “climate and culture are very similar concepts” (p. 23). This view supports Schein’s (1985) contention that values, norms, rituals, and climate are all expressions of culture. Reichers and Schneider (1990) maintain that culture is “a deeper, less consciously held set of meaning than ... organisational climate” and that there is a high degree of conceptual overlap between the two constructs. They suggest that climate and culture are “reciprocal processes, the one causing the other in an endless cycle over time” (p. 24). Perhaps, then, it can be argued that climate (e.g. an organisation’s reward policies) is the manifestation of culture (e.g. assumptions about worker motivation). Reichers and Schneider (1990) argue that “both climate and culture ... in combination ... can specify, fairly precisely, the context of human behavior in organisations ... (and) allows researchers to describe, explain, and perhaps predict behaviour in a variety of circumstances” (p. 28). They even suggest that culture may be the *E* in Lewin’s equation of $B = f(P, E)$. It is undeniable that the two concepts share a number of conceptual similarities (Reichers & Schneider, 1990):

1. Both concepts are concerned with the manner in which members of the organisation make sense of their environment;
2. Both concepts are 'learned' mainly through socialization and the symbolic interaction between group members;
3. Both are multidimensional;
4. Both endeavour to identify the environmental factors that influence the behaviour of individuals in organisations.

Reichers and Schneider (1990) conclude by saying that culture is a "higher level of abstraction" than climate. Schein (1990) also notes, "climate is only a surface manifestation of culture" (p. 109). In addition, Moran and Volkein (1992) assert that:

> Climate is influenced by the more stable, deeper forms of culture ... organisational culture can be regarded as the way in which the deep structures of culture are manifested (operationalised) ... organisational climate ... can be identified within the broader construct of organisational culture ... organisational climate is more shallow than culture in the extent to which it penetrates consciousness and to which it penetrates organisational realities. (p. 40)

Ashforth (1985) echoes this belief and predicts that the gap between the climate and culture concepts will narrow with time. Already there have been some authors that acknowledge the merger of the two constructs. For example, in their article on "absence culture", Nicholson and Johns (1985) accept that this phenomenon could also be referred to as "climate for absence".

Ashforth (1985) contends that culture informs climate by directly communicating to individuals what are the important environmental factors and indirectly by influencing the environment, which impacts on the individual. In contrast, climate is underpinned by the assumptions and values of the culture to influence factors relating to the group, socialisation of newcomers, and symbolic management. Figure 3.7 depicts Ashforth's conceptualisation of culture and its relationship to climate.

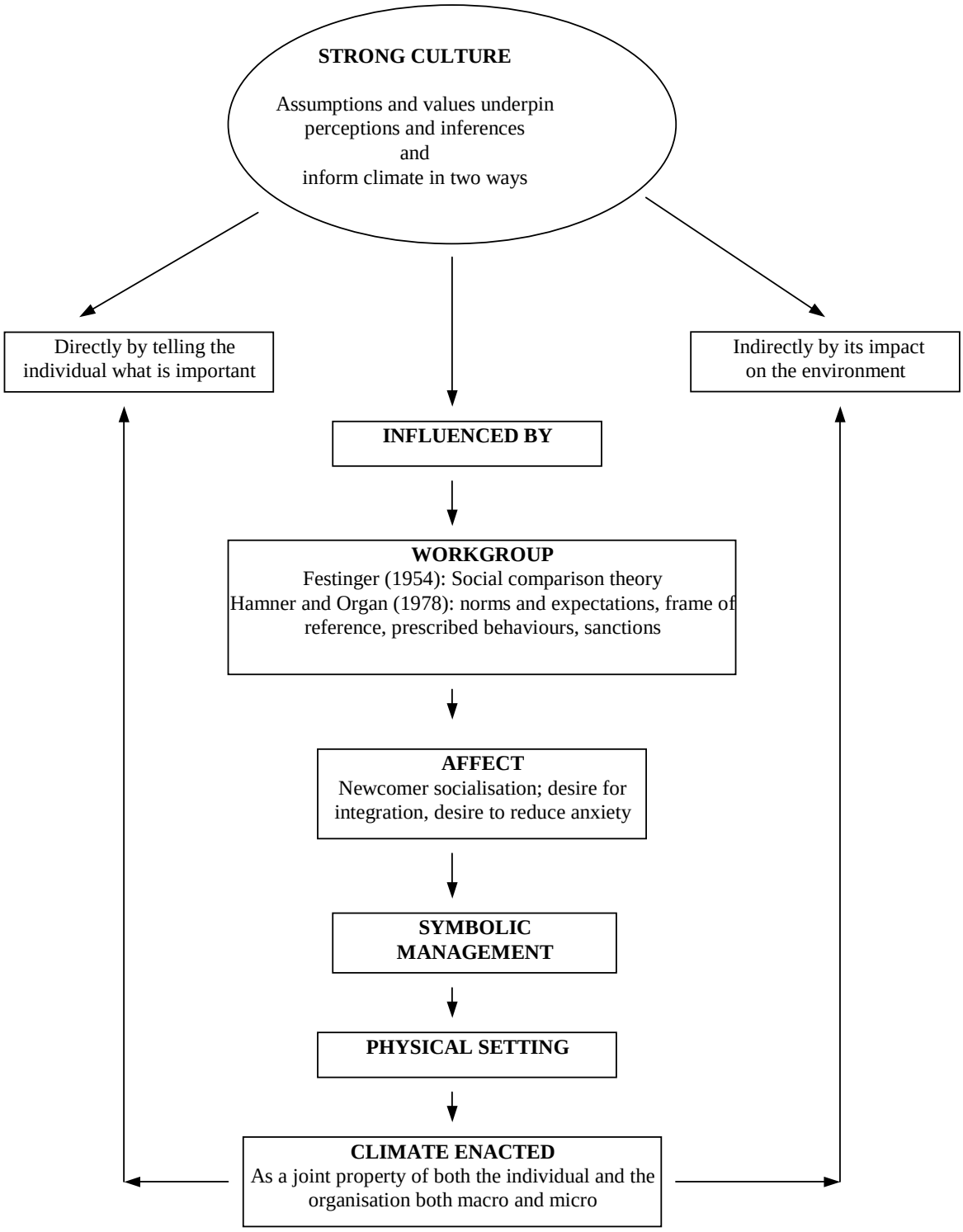


Figure 3.7: Describing a relationship between climate and culture
[Adapted from Ashforth (1985)]

Similarly, Moran and Volkein (1992) construed a relationship between culture and climate where an organisation's climate was considered to be a part of the overall culture construct. Moran and Volkein (1992) examined the literature on culture and climate in an attempt to assess the relationship between the two constructs. Figure 3.8 illustrates the relationship between culture and climate as conceptualised by Moran and Volkein (1992). They not only viewed culture as an invisible concept that influences individual behaviour but they also considered culture as the factor which sets the agenda from which climate evolves to become an enduring quality of the organisation.

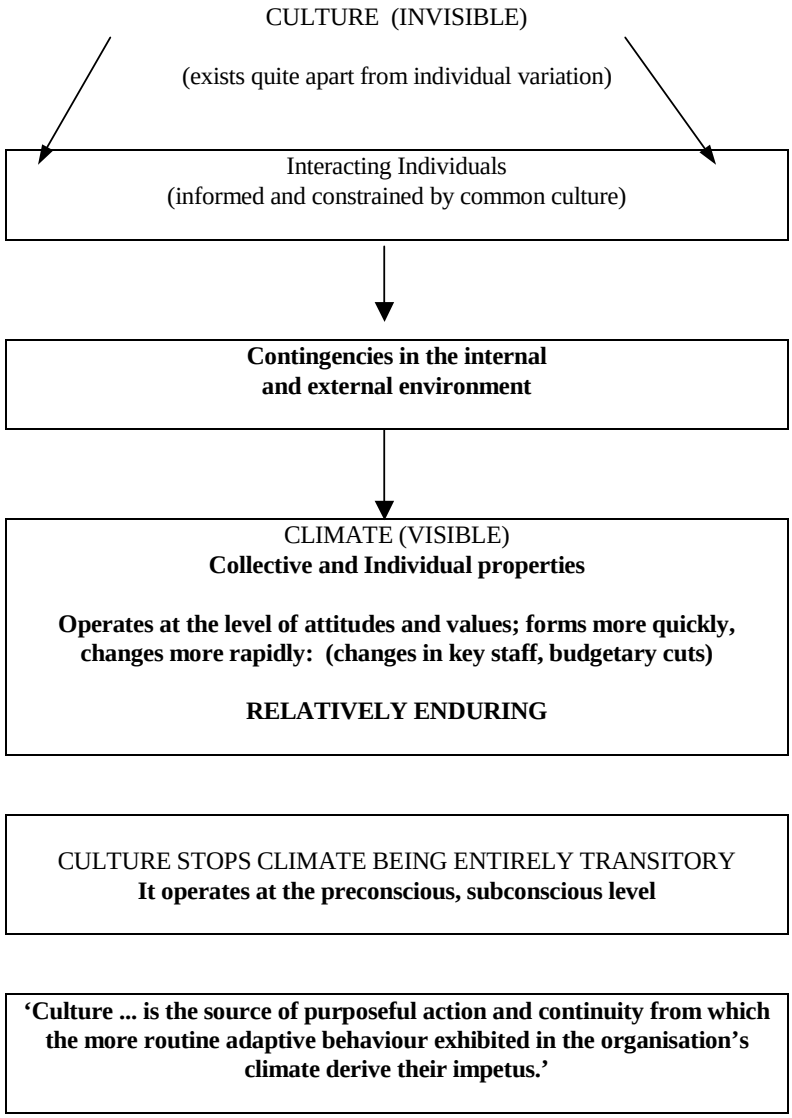


Figure 3.8: Moran and Volkein's portrayal of the relationship between culture and climate.
[Adapted from Moran and Volkein (1992)]

Kopelman, Brief, and Guzzo (1990) also represented diagrammatically the relationship between culture and climate. Their linear model of organisational functioning (Figure 3.9) identifies organisational and societal cultures as the parameters that engender human resource (HRM) practices. The HRM practices influences the organisational climate, which, in turn, produces the cognitive and affective states of individuals (i.e. work motivation and job satisfaction). While the model focuses on organisational productivity, it still highlights the position of climate as an intervening variable. The model indicates that OC impacts on both individual and organisational perspectives and that salient organisational behaviours (i.e. attachment, performance and citizenship) act as intervening factors between the climate and the final outcomes (such as physical output and total labour costs).

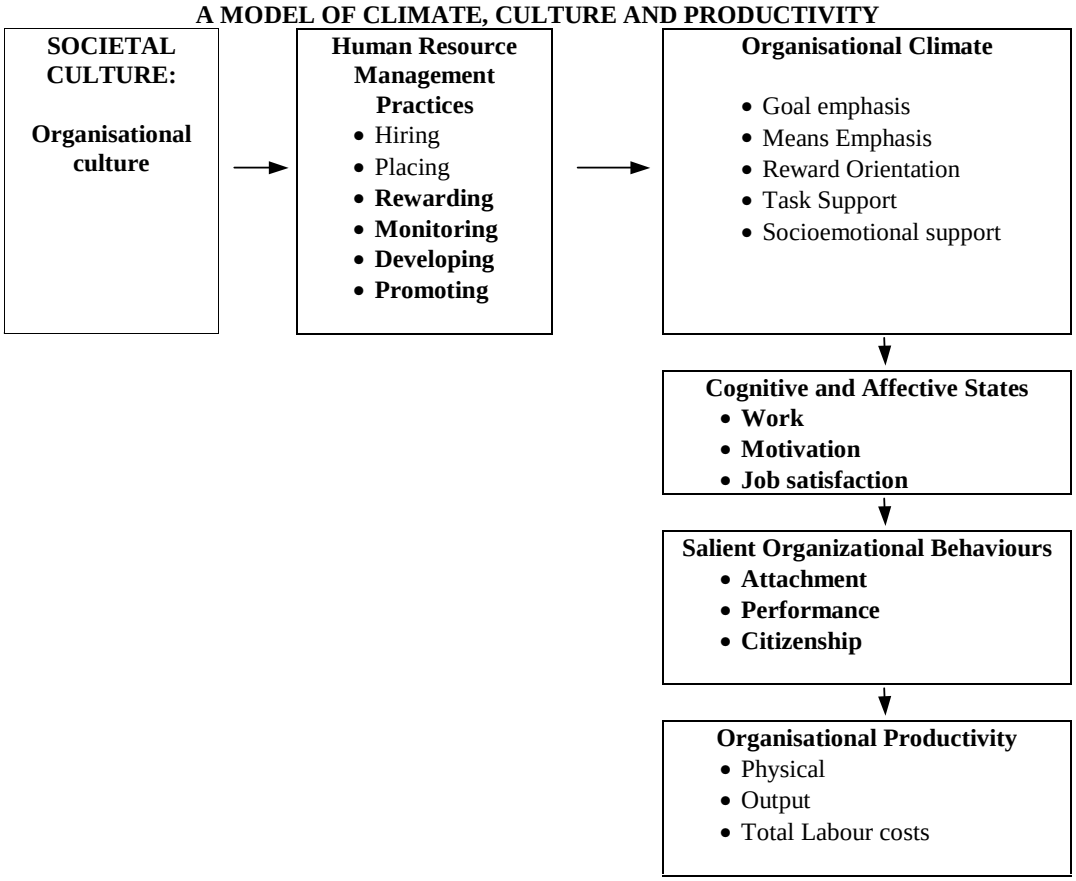


Figure 3.9: A model of climate, culture and productivity depicting the relationship between culture and climate.
[Adapted from Kopelman, Brief & Guzzo (1990)]

Likewise, Moran and Volkein (1992) developed a model that depicts organisational climate as occupying a particular niche within the 'construct space' of OC (Figure 3.10).

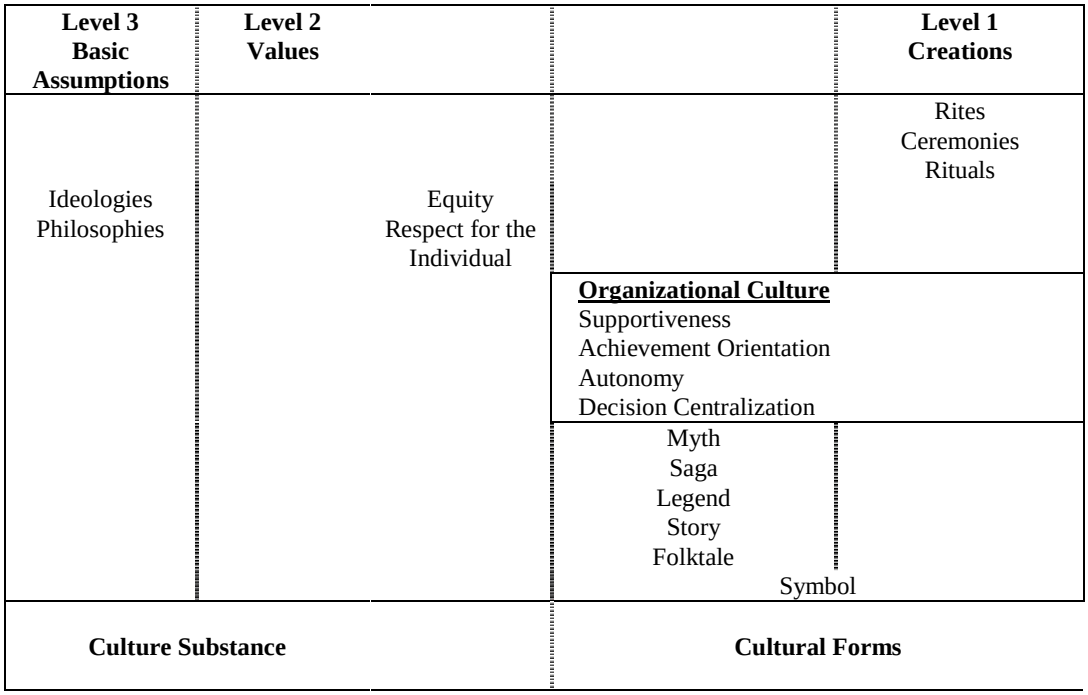


Figure 3.10: Climate being subsumed by culture
[Adapted from Moran and Volkein (1992, p.38, Fig. 6)]

Glick (1985) notes, "climate research has a prominent, if not glorious history in organizational science" (p. 601). Some of the empirical findings include that climate has an affects on organizational performance (Franklin, 1975; Mudrack, 1989; Likert, 1967), that climate influences managerial practices and activities (James and Hones, 1974; Glick, 1985; Tierney, 1990; Ryder and Southey, 1990) and that climate influences the motivation and behaviour of members of the organisation (Bowers, 1973; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Lafollette & Sims, 1975; Pritchard & Karasick, 1976; Schneider & Snyder, 1975). The empirical research on culture is not as extensive but more recent and also includes studies that examine the relationship between culture and organisational performance (Maull, Brown & Cliffe, 2001; NcNabb & Sepic, 1995), culture and managerial practices and activities (Lagrosen, 2003; Ogbonna & Harris, 2002; Wallace, Hunt & Richards, 1999), and culture and members' motivation and behaviour (Dwyer *et al*., 2000 Lund, 2003).

Based on this evidence is it possible that the two constructs of culture and climate are in fact the same construct but with differing nomenclature? The situation is further exasperated by the confusion over definitions of the constructs and uncertainty as to the most appropriate analysis. Moran and Volkein (1992) propose that there are two reasons why there is confusion. First, there is a lack of definition of the two terms. Second, culture and climate arose from two different disciplines, climate from social psychology and culture from anthropology. This argument leads Moran and Volkein (1992) to conclude that:

> Both the psychologist and the anthropologist acknowledge the significance of events and activities as stimuli, which induce responses. Both treat the interpretation of events as the enactment of human consciousness. But the psychologist is primarily concerned with the individual derivation of social meaning, while the anthropologist is more concerned with its collective analog. Both acknowledge, though, the importance of shared meaning, expectations, and legitimisation as indispensable to the process of "organizing." It is in these respects that OC and organizational climate can be observed to overlap."(p. 41)

The study conducted by Moran and Volkein (1992) provided support for the idea that the constructs of climate and culture are related through the influence that OC has on the formation of organisational climate.

In 1990, Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayr and Sanders reported on an empirical analysis of ten different organisations. They found that organisational practices (rather than the expected basic assumptions) were the most differentiating components of OC. Moran and Volkein (1992) note that this is "precisely the level at which organizational climate can be most appropriately defined" (p. 22). Does this then suggest that what in fact Hofstede *et al*. (1990) assessed was in fact climate not culture? Or is it possible, as suggested above that culture is climate by another name and vice versa?

Reichers and Schneider (1990) note that:

> There is some evidence just beginning to appear that culture and climate are drawing closer ... toward a marriage of methods and terminology ... an amalgamated climate/culture concept that exhibits many of the conceptual, methodological, and practical characteristics that are presently unique to one concept or the other. (p. 31)

It is obvious that further research, theoretical and empirical, is required to explain the relationship between OC and climate. In the meantime, this thesis draws on both the OC and climate literature to develop a questionnaire to explore the organisational environment of hotels.

3.11 Some Other Pertinent Aspects of Organisational Culture

3.11.1 Do Organisations Have Uniform Cultures?

As Ott (1989) notes "organizational cultures are not monolithic". Subcultures pervade most organisations. In the hospitality situation, often departments delineate the subcultures such that the marketing department may be very different from the food and beverage department, which in turn is very different from the housekeeping department. It is recognised that subcultures may overlap, coincide, interlock or even conflict (Ott, 1989). Siehl and Martin (1984) propose three types of subcultures: enhancing, orthogonal and countercultural. Enhancing subcultures have assumptions, beliefs and values that are consistent with those of the dominant culture but are often held more strongly than those of the dominant culture. Orthogonal subcultures adhere to the basic assumptions of the dominant culture but they also accept a separate unique set of basic assumptions. The counter cultures are directly challenging to the dominant culture. While subcultures can act to "enhance, refine, or challenge a dominant organizational culture", such that they foster creativity and innovation, they may also be sources of divisive behaviour (Ott, 1989).

3.12 Strong versus Weak Cultures

Peters and Waterman (1982) claim that 'strong' cultures are more effective than 'weak' cultures. Hofstede (1997) interpreted a 'strong' culture to be a homogeneous culture

(i.e. one in which all participants in the survey provided similar answers) and a 'weak' culture as a heterogeneous culture (i.e. one in which different people from the same organisational unit provided greatly varying answers). In a similar vein, Martin and Meyerson (1988) assert that a strong culture is a desirable culture and one that is characterised by organisation-wide consensus, consistency and clarity in the pattern of relationships between the various cultural factors that make up the cultural portrait. They maintain that espoused values are consistent with formal practices. These, in turn, are consistent with informal norms, rituals, stories, artefacts and so on. The conglomeration of these manifestations produces a mutually reinforcing matrix that fosters organisational consensus. Within the organisation, its members share similar values and understandings resulting in a shared sense of elements such as loyalty, commitment and productivity. Martin and Meyeson (1988) argue that such consensus promotes clarity.

In a service environment, a strong culture could be transcribed to include a culture where all employees share a "passion for service" (Schneider, Wheeler & Cox, 1992) or" willingness for service" (Reichers, 2000) or "a spirit to serve" (Ray Warren, General Manager, San Deigo Marriott Hotel & Marina, in Durrett, 2003). In such a culture, the employees' energy, enthusiasm and initiative would be directed at providing exception service. As Brown (1995) suggests in such a culture, "there are few problems of coordination and control, communication is quick and effective, and resources are not wasted in internal conflicts" (p. 183).

3.13 The origins of organisational culture

In an attempt to ascribe the origins of culture, Graves (1972) found that culture is produced by: the market (context) in which the organization operates, including the legal framework; the structures and functions of the organisation; and, the attitudes of the people in the workplace. Brown (1995) agrees with the first point and highlights that an organisation's culture originates in part from "the *type of business* an organisation conducts and the nature of its *business environment*" (p. 41). He adds that other factors that contribute to the sources of OC are the societal or national culture within which the organisation is located and the characteristics of the organisation's founder or dominant

leader. This latter point is emphasised by the founder's or leader's vision, personality and management style. Drennan (1992) confers on these and adds the history of the organisation, procedures and policies, reward systems, information and control systems, goals, values and beliefs.

In the hospitality context, it is anticipated that the hotels could have similar cultural profiles because of the fact that they are all in the same industry and also, all operate in the same locality of Cairns.

3.14 The perpetuation of culture

Ott (1989) comments that the transmission and perpetuation of organisation is based on a framework of interacting processes. Sathe (1985) details these processes (Figure 3.11) as including: pre-selection and hiring of new members, socialisation, incorporation or rejection, justifications of behaviour, and cultural communications. Buchanan (1975) adds that perpetuation of organisational culture begins at the selection phase where employees who have suitable qualities and characteristics are recruited. For example, if a hotel wants to perpetuate a quality service culture, they would need to select employees whose service orientation is high.

Through socialisation, employees learn the cultural values, beliefs, norms, assumptions, behaviours and other elements that enable them to become effective members of the organisation (Ott, 1989). It is possible that individuals may have to renounce some of their personal values, beliefs, attitudes and behaviours to gain membership. Ott (1989) continues by suggesting that people who do not fit in with the OC will eventually leave, either voluntarily or involuntarily.

In the next step of the process, Sathe (1985) remarks that by rewarding appropriate behaviour and punishing unacceptable behaviour, the OC perpetuates certain types of behaviour and this leads to *justification of behaviour* through reinforcement of beliefs and values that justify the way things are done. The final step of the model highlights that culture can be communicated through several media within the organisation, such as language, stories, scripts, celebrations, rituals and so on. Understanding cultural

perpetuation is important in identifying the unique and similar aspects of OC and determining how they affect the individual working within that organisation.

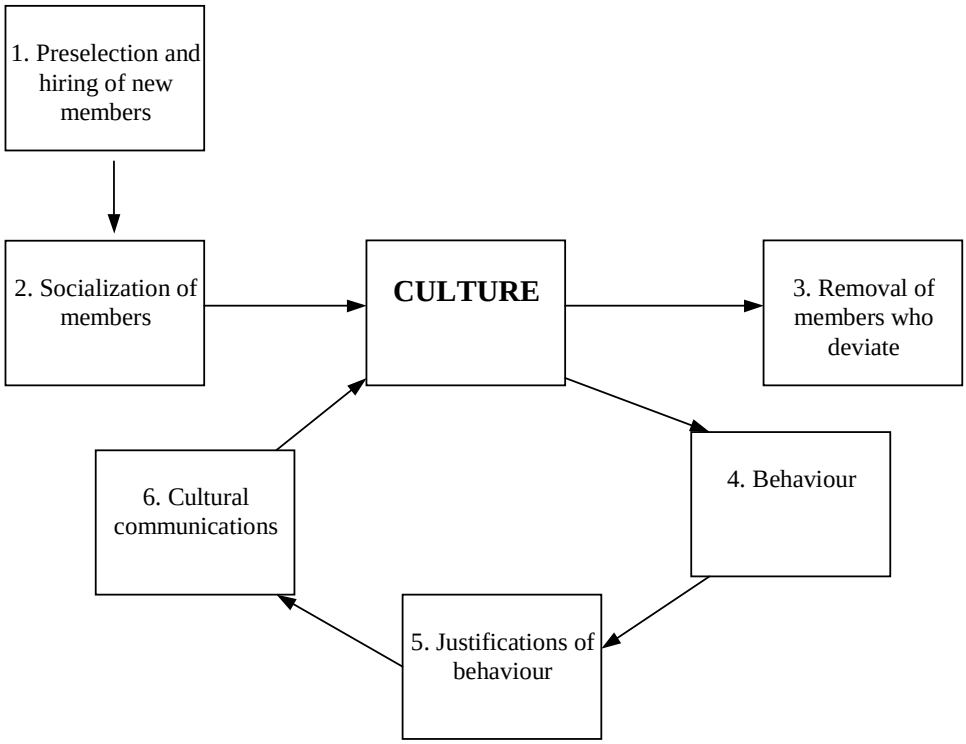


Figure 3.11: The perpetuation of organisational culture
[Source: Sathe (1985, p. 385)]

3.15 Organisational Culture in the Service Industry

For service industries, OC can be seen as a mechanism for improving the effectiveness and quality of service delivery. A number of studies in hospitality have highlighted the importance of culture to the industry. For example, Meudell and Gadd (1994) examined climate and culture in short life organisations; Silcox, Cacioppe and Soutar (1996) investigated the management of various sub-cultures during any intervention; Vallen (1993) explored the burnout of service staff using the 'Profile of Organisational Characteristics (POC)' questionnaire; Kemp and Dwyer (2001) applied the cultural web model to the Regent Hotel in Sydney to explore the use of culture in improving

organisational performance; and Ogbonna and Harris (2002) explored OC interventions with a view to managing cultural change.

Organisational culture is especially relevant to all service industries, such as hospitality, where the nature of the service delivery is characterised by intangibility, heterogeneity, perishability, and simultaneous production and consumption (Reisinger, 2001). Carlzon (1987) describes the 'moment of truth' in the service encounter and stresses that it is difficult to directly control the outcome of the service delivery. Schneider, Gunnarson and Niles-Jolly (1994) also recognise that service industries are different and the management of the service process can be elusive, "... in the absence of direct control of the service encounter, it is the climate and culture that determine high quality service" (p. 23). It has been said that, in some ways culture becomes a substitute for management and leadership in the hospitality industry (Kerr and Jermier, 1978). Schneider *et al.* (1980) argued that if the policies, practices and procedures of an organisation meet the needs of employees the result is satisfied employees who will provide service quality for the customers. The relationship between a climate for service and the service quality perceptions of the customers is summarised by Schneider *et al*. (1980) as follows:

> The ways in which branch employees describe some facets of the service orientation of the branch and the support received from some systems outside the branch are related to what customers say about the quality of the service they receive in the branch. (p. 262)

In this case, the creation of an organisational environment that promotes service quality is indicative of the pervasive nature of OC and how it can be used indirectly to influence the behaviour of employees of the service industry. Schneider and Bowen (1993) point out that those organisations, like Four Seasons Hotels and the like, have implemented employee-centred human resource management practices that recognises the uniqueness of the hospitality industry and that such a move provides them with a competitive advantage over other less successful competitors. In their study, Schneider and Bowen (1993) found that:

> This research points out that managers, in their pursuit of service quality need to create two related, but different climates: a climate for service and a climate for employee well-being. Our research indicates that a climate for employee well-being serves as a foundation for a climate for service. Employees need to feel that their own needs have been met within the organization before they can become enthusiastic about meeting the needs of customers. (p. 43)

However, Schneider and Bowen (1993) emphasise that a generic set of human resource management practices will not automatically lead to positive customer perceptions of service quality. The set of practices need to be designed to match the organisational setting and the customers' expectations of service quality. For example, the degree of empowerment may be varied according to the organisation in line with the resources available, skill of the staff, availability of training and other such factors. Shea (1996) pointed out that many service organisations such as Ritz Carlton Hotel Group, Avis, St George Bank and Amex are now beginning to use surveys to determine employees' perceptions of their organisations so as to assist them in the development of appropriate management strategies.

Traditionally, hospitality organisations have not effectively managed service (Anderson *et al.*, 2001; Mullins, 1995). With the increased emphasis on quality within service industries, including hospitality organisations, there has been an increased focus on the need to affectively manage service and the delivery of high quality products. As this refocusing occurs and service management strategies are being developed and implemented, it is being realised that for these strategies to be effective and successful, they need to be accompanied by an organisational culture that engenders delivery of quality service (e.g. Mullins, 1995; Schneider & Bowen, 1993).

For organisations within the service industry one of the most prominent ways of determining organisational performance is through customer satisfaction. The effective delivery of excellent service by employees is paramount to the customer's gaining a high level of satisfaction. The service quality literature supports the view that employees are more likely to deliver excellent service when the organisation establishes

practices that facilitate provision of service and also, reward employees' efforts in delivering excellent service (Johnson, 1996; Schneider, Wheeler, & Cox, 1992).

Schneider and Bowen (1995) suggested a similar set of practices, resources and conditions that they believed to be related to an organisation's capacity to provide quality service: hiring people who are willing and able to deliver excellent service, train employees on aspects of service provision, reward employees for providing quality service, and provide equipment, technology and procedures to facilitate service delivery. Likewise, Albercht and Zemke (1985) offered examples of management practices that are expected to enhance service. These included designing customer-friendly service systems; understanding customers' wants, needs and expectations; developing and communicating a service strategy that defines excellent service and the process of delivery; and having well-trained, service-oriented personnel. Healy (1992) supports this view and states that insurance companies "can create a plan for implementing quality customer service by researching their customers, reconciling service to customer expectations, and communicating the company's strategies to all employees" (p. 35). Within the hospitality industry, some organisations have begun to implement these initiatives in a fragmentary way and the implementation of such practices in a holistic way is unfortunately limited to only a few organisations (Vallen, 1993).

Along with these developments, service industries are recognising the need to understand the culture within their organisations because of its relationship with the employee perceptions and the standard of customer service delivered. Much is to be learnt from studying the influence of OC on the day-to-day activities within hotels. Early studies such as those of Litwin and Stringer (1968), McGregor (1987) and Kozlowsksi and Dougherty (1989) showed the effect of leadership and managerial actions on the organisational environment. Argyris (1964) and Kahn (1990) advocated a supportive style of management that varies with level of control. It accommodates employee freedom and a sense of security so as to produce motivation and job commitment. Similarly, Brown and Leigh (1996) favoured a supportive management style where employees are allowed to try and fail without any fear of reprisals. The study of Brown and Leigh (1996) showed that supportive management and clear work goals were critical factors in producing greater job effort, performance and

commitment. They concluded that there is a relationship between when the "organisational environment is perceived as psychologically safe and meaningful ... directly to job involvement and indirectly to effort and work performance" (p. 365).

Schneider, Brief and Guzzo (1996) explored the relationship between OC and climate and total organisational change in organisations such as Ritz Carlton. They found that these organisations were more successful because they are more effective in managing three aspects of the organisational environment: the nature of interpersonal relationships; the nature of the hierarchy; and, the focus on support and rewards. Similarly, Schneider, Gunnarson and Niles-Jolly (1994) concluded that an organisational environment that promotes citizenship behaviour, innovation and customer service enhances organisational performance and success.

Organisations, like the Ritz Carlton, who pursue a high level of service quality, seem to have an in depth understanding of the influence of OC on the provision of service. The Ritz Carlton, in particular, details to its staff the routines they are to follow while simultaneously making every employee feel as though they are a valued member of the organisation (Partlow, 1993). A document called the *Ritz Carlton 'Gold Standards'*, which forms the operational 'mantra' for all employees. This document contains the *'Credo'*, the *'Motto'*, the *'Three Steps to Service'* and the *'Basics'* and articulates the practices and procedures to be followed by present employees and the induction process for new employees. Wilson (1989) stresses that organisations should provide employees with noteworthy, established ways of dealing with their situations in their workplaces. Organisational processes, procedures and policies are developed from the interaction between culture, climate and people, and people legitimise and direct the work performed within the organisation (Wilson, 1989). As McNabb and Sepic (1995) contend:

> Culture dictates what behaviors are acceptable, it also establishes the ways that problems are addressed, spells out how relationships are defined and supported, and establishes how work is done. Once a culture is established, it affects everyone and is extremely difficult to change... Culture is to an organization what personality is to an

> individual. Like human culture generally, it is passes on from one generation to the next. It changes slowly, if at all. (p. 371-2)

This statement in turn relates to Schein's (1985) suggestion that the ability of an organisation to carry out its mission is dependent on the effective integration of culture, climate and policies. Equally, Normann (1991) contends that OC is an important factor in the behaviour of service personnel. According to Normann (1991) the inherent norms, beliefs and values that exist within an organisation influence the social process of the service transaction. Schneider *et al*. (1994) identifies three climates that are important to service industries: a climate for citizenship behaviour (human resources or employees), a climate for service, and a climate for innovation. The climate for citizenship is seen as the basis for the other two climates. Pfeffer (1998) extends this view by arguing that certain organisational characteristics will impact on the successful management of employees. These are: employee security, selective hiring of new personnel, self-managed teams and decentralisation of decision-making, extensive training, reduced status distinctions and barriers (including dress, language, office arrangements and wage differences), and extensive sharing of financial and performance information throughout the organisation.

So it can be seen that there are profound and serious implications for the hospitality industry in relation to the influence of OC on the provision of services. For managers and supervisors, this means that an understanding of the OC of their organisation is vital to the improved and satisfactory delivery of quality service. This study aims to provide managers with information, knowledge and a tool to assist managers in hospitality and other related service industries to understand the nature of OC in their organisations. This, in turn, can assist managers in implementing appropriate strategies to enhance service quality and customer satisfaction. However, prior to conducting the field research, one other aspect of culture needs to be examined and that is the presence of occupational communities. Chapter 1 has introduced the concept of occupational communities. Here it is extended to emphasise its importance and relevance to this study and reframed as "occupational hospitality culture".

3.16 Occupational Hospitality Culture

Johnson and Scholes (1999) acknowledge, "it is important to recognise the way in which organisations operating in similar environments or industries come to resemble each other in terms of cultural norms" (p. 58). Hofstede (1997) identifies 'business' or 'industry' cultures as components of OC. In his study on OC, Hofstede (1997) identifies six dimensions of OC and proposes that four of these dimensions (process vs. results, parochial vs. professional, loose vs. tight and normative vs. pragmatic) reflect business or industry culture. For example, Hofstede (1997) makes the comparison between service units who scored high on the pragmatic (market-driven) side and legal units scored high on the normative (procedures) side. Hofstede (1997) recognises these cultures as part of OC. He rationalises that "because a given industry employs specific occupations and it also maintains specific organisational practices, for logical or traditional reasons", it gives rise to particular occupational-organisational or industry cultures (p. 192). Hence, industry cultures (e.g. occupational hospitality culture) exist because a particular industry (e.g. hospitality industry) will employ specific occupations (e.g. waiters, chefs, telephonists) and fosters specific organisational practices that are maintained because of logical or traditional reasons (e.g. split shifts, high casualisation of labour force, and working unsociable hours).

Other authors, like Hofstede (1997), recognise industry cultures as being related to OC. For example, Schein (1996) notes that occupational communities:

> Generate cultures that cut across organizations … In these cases, the shared assumptions derive from a common educational background, their requirements of a given occupation … and the shared contact with others in the occupation … Salespeople the world over, accountants, assembly line workers, and engineers share some tacit assumptions about the nature of their work regardless of who their particular employer is at any given time. (pp. 12-13)

Hence, it is proposed that employees of the hotel industry as an occupational community generate an occupational hospitality culture where hospitality workers share

some commonalities about the nature of being hospitable and service delivery, regardless of the hotel or firm they work for.

3.17 Conclusions

In light of the significance and pervasiveness of culture, this study proposes that OC influences the service predispositions of hotel workers and it is suggested that this relationship can best be described by a revised Service Predispositions Model. In this revised model, named the Organisational Culture-Service Predispositions Model, it is proposed that OC affects the SPI dimensions in four critical places: directly on the service dimensions, between the service dimensions and cognitive expressions, between the cognitive expressions and personal outcome and directly on personal outcome. These relationships are illustrated in Figure 3.12.

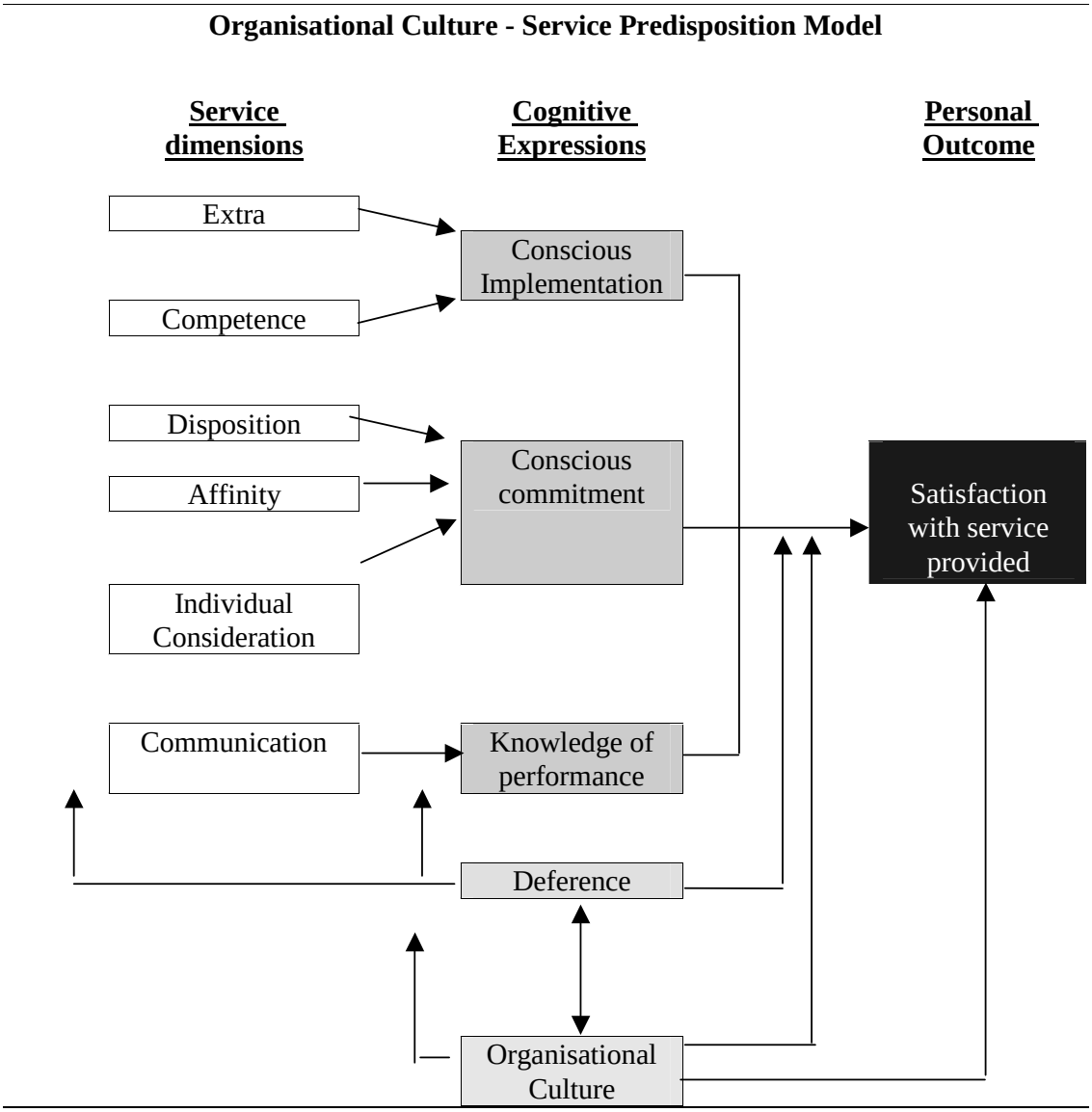


Figure 3.12: Organistional Culture – Service Predispositions Model as proposed by this study.

3.18 Summary

The research on culture has presented many ways of developing a definition for the concept. Some researchers have tried to specify the dimensions of culture (e.g. Schein, 1990, Hofstede, 1997); others have focused on the functions of culture (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Graves, 1986); while other have attempted to produce taxonomies (e.g. Deal & Kennedy, 1982); and others have seriously tried to define culture (e.g. Geertz, 1973; Hofstede, 1998; Schein, 1985). It seems that culture is a concept with many different meanings and analysed for different purposes while being contrasted by various disciplines (anthropology, sociology, psychology, organisational behaviour).

This chapter has reviewed some of the literature relating to the concept of OC. Further, OC was compared to organisational climate and it was found that the distinction between the two still remains unclear. Often the two terms are used interchangeably and at other times it has been thought that culture represents the visible components of culture such as artefacts and behavioural patterns while culture represents the subliminal, assumptions. So for the purposes of this study it was decided to use dimensions that are found in the literature relating to both culture and climate but this will be discussed further in the next chapter.

The importance of culture to the service industry was discussed with links to organisational effectiveness and employee performance being considered in several studies. The literature presented in this chapter highlighted the influence of OC on the delivery of quality service and hence, the need to consider culture within the hospitality industry, in particular it impact at the service personnel-customer interface. This chapter also extended the concept of occupational communities to include occupational industry cultures, in particular, occupational hospitality culture. The next chapter will focus on the methodological approaches used in this study.

CHAPTER 4

THE RESEARCH APPROACHES

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a discussion of the main research methods used in this study and justification for the particular research paradigms. In light of the objectives of this study, it is argued that a triangulation of methods is most appropriate. Use of both quantitative and qualitative approaches contributes to a holistic and rich profile of the working life of hotel workers. In this chapter, advantages and disadvantages of both approaches are examined. Attention is give to the statistical analyses used, the criteria for selection of hotels, the process of administering the questionnaire, and the strategies for obtaining qualitative data.

4.2 Research Plan

As noted in Chapter 1, the overall aim of this study is to determine the influence of OC on employees' service predispositions within the hospitality industry of Tropical North Queensland. A triangulation of research methods is used to achieve this purpose. They include quantitative and qualitative approaches. The quantitative approach is based on the administration of a questionnaire, which includes the SPI, a demographics section and an OC survey. The qualitative approach is largely an ethnographic study. The research plan is outlined in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1: Outline of Research Plan for this study

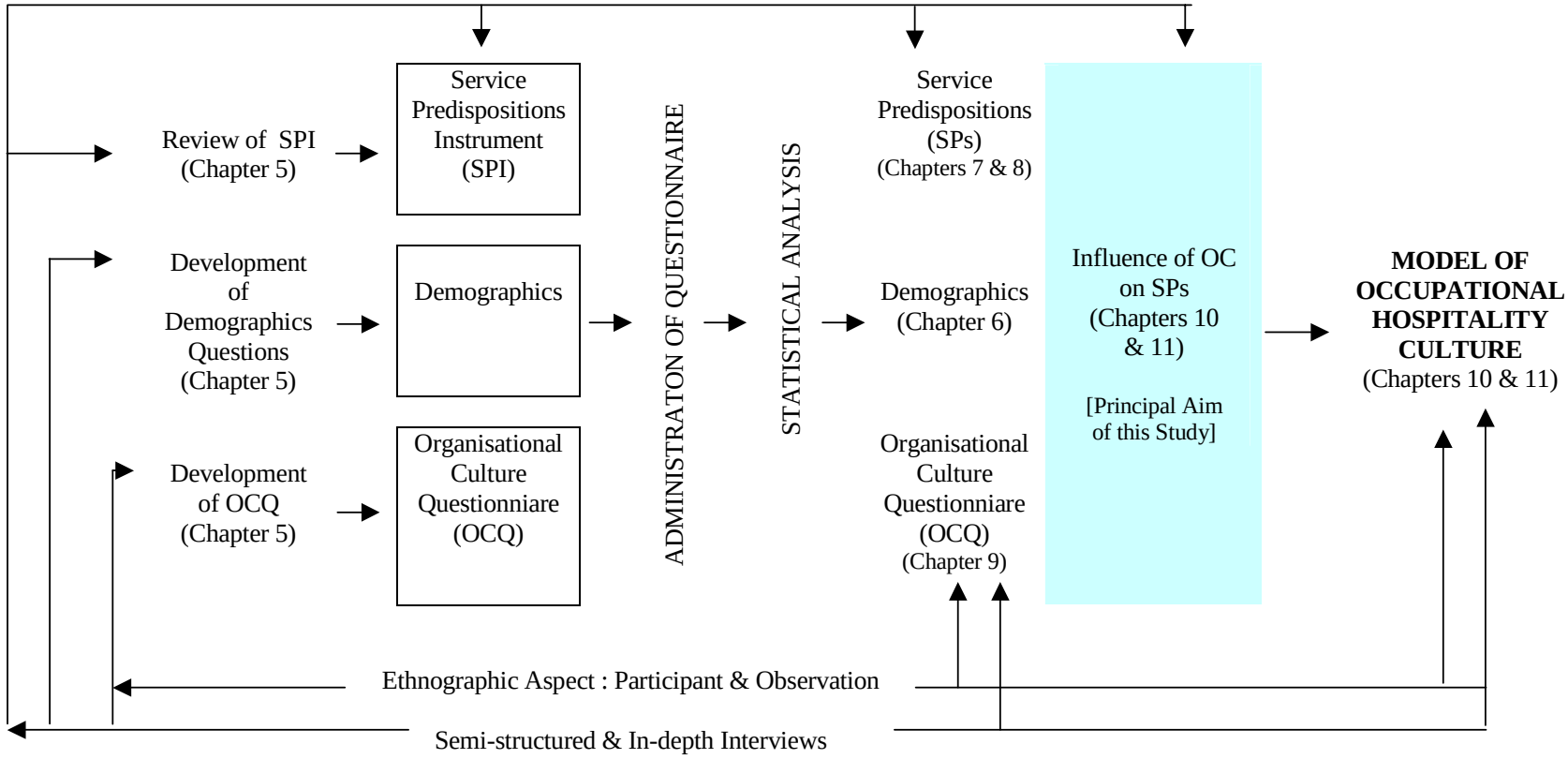


Figure 4.1 shows how the various research approaches triangulate to deliver a cohesive research plan. The process begins with the use of semi-structured and in-depth interviews and ethnographic approaches to reveal factors to consider in the development of the questionnaire. Once the questionnaire is administered, quantitative assessment of demographics, service predispositions and organisational culture are undertaken. These methods tend to be exploratory in order to build a profile of hotel workers and their work environment. Thereafter, qualitative methods are used so as to add depth to this profile and construct a rich, holistic picture of the hotel workers working world. The research strategy needed to be a progressive procedure, using multiple sources of information and with each method building upon and providing a more detailed focus than the previous one.

In line with the aim of this study and the research approaches, the objectives will be addressed in the following manner:

- A profile of the service predispositions of employees within the hotel industry of Cairns will be developed by using the SPI (Lee-Ross, 1999, 2000). As Figure 4.1 shows, first, the SPI will be reviewed so it better reflects the three response classes for attitudes, i.e. cognitive, affective and connative components. This is discussed in more detail in Chapter 5. Second, once the data has been collated, statistical analyses will be performed to test the instrument and the model (Chapter 7) and to build a profile of hotel workers' service predispositions (Chapter 8). Data gained from the qualitative approach will be used to enhance the profile developed. This is presented in Chapter 11.

- The nature and characteristics of OC within various hotels will be identified by use of an OC questionnaire developed specifically for this study (Chapter 5). Figure 4.1 shows that once the questionnaire has been administered and data collated, statistical analyses will be used to test the new instrument (Chapter 9) and to construct a profile of OC as perceived by the respondent sample (Chapter 9). Ethnographic data will be presented in Chapter 11 to augment the quantitative results for OC.

- Figure 4.1 shows that the influence of OC on the service predispositions of hotel employees will be investigated by integrating the data from both the SPI and OC

surveys to identify any underlying relationships. The statistical techniques used will be discussed later in this chapter and the quantitative results are presented in Chapter 10. Chapter 11 presents data from the qualitative approach, adding depth to the findings on the relationship between OC and service predispositions.

- Finally, the data gained from the triangulation of methods will be viewed with the purpose of providing information to hospitality managers that can assist them to better understand the potential of the people they recruit, the behaviour of employees within their establishment and the nature of the OC so that they can formulate service strategies and design service systems that are appropriate and effective in the delivery of quality service. This is presented in Chapter 12.

4.3 Methodological Considerations

Justification for the research methods is rooted in the social sciences. In the social sciences there exist two paradigms for the study of various constructs: the positivist/empiricist orientation and the constructivist or phenomenological approach. Ghuari, Grønhaug & Kristanslund (1995) note that scientific methods are applied in the positivist orientation. All data, whether quantitative or qualitative, can be measured and classified in order to provide general explanatory laws. Even qualitative data can be analysed from and interpreted using highly structured content analyses aided by computer software packages. Bowling (2002) states that positivism "assumes that human behaviour is a reaction to external stimuli and that it is possible to observe and measure social phenomena, using the principles of the natural scientist" (p. 131). By contrast, the phenomenological approach focuses more on the involvement of the researcher and searches for meaning rather than quantification and generalization. This study uses both approaches. Use of a questionnaire to measure service predispositions and OC incorporates a positivist orientation. Conducting interviews and use of participant observation and ethnography makes use of a phenomenological approach.

Further, discussions of research methods relating to constructs in social sciences (e.g. attitudes and OC) often consider two approaches, i.e. qualitative and quantitative. Qualitative research is usually concerned with context and meaning and requires interpretation and subjectivity (Carlson, Buskist, & Martin, 2000; Patton, 1990). It adopts

a holistic approach and is often referred to as phenomenological (Hayes, 1997). Quantitative research, on the other hand, is empirical and reduces phenomenon to quantities, such as a score on a questionnaire (Carlson *et al.*, 2000; Sechrest and Sidani, 1995). These two approaches are often referred to as emic approach (native's or insider's point of view) and etic (researcher's or outsider's point of view). While both approaches are viewed as having inherent problems, they are generally considered to be appropriate for studying phenomenon relating to anthropology, social sciences and psychology. Hence, they are considered suitable for studying OC and employee attitudes.

The literature notes that one of the major advantages of qualitative methods is that it can provide depth or richness to a study (e.g. Carlson *et al.*, 2000; Schein, 1990). In discussing ethnographic studies of culture, Geertz (1973) refers to qualitative research as a "thick description". Others argue that qualitative research "enriches and guides the general process of scientific inquiry" (Needleman & Needleman, 1996). In fact, Needleman and Needleman (1996) identify four ways in which a qualitative approach may be beneficial:

- As a scout, to explore and gain familiarity with the setting prior to conducting research;
- A reality check, to validate statistical results;
- An interpreter, to unearth meaning, e.g. as with OC;
- An incumbent of theory, to assist in the refinement, development or discovery of theory.

Schein (1992) sums up the applicability of qualitative approaches to the study of OC. He states that cultures are unique, intangible and largely subconscious and that a qualitative approach allows researchers to explore all these aspects of OC.

One of the principal disadvantages of qualitative research has been that the analysis and interpretation of the qualitative data is subjective, i.e. made by the researcher (Carlson *et al.*, 2000). It is believed that this process may introduce bias into the study. One other criticism of qualitative research is that it can be a lengthy process (Ott, 1989).

Similarly, quantitative research has both advantages and disadvantages. Langan-Fox and Tan (1997) state that quantitative methods enable researchers to seek patterns and generalize the findings and so, explore diversity rather than uniformity. This can be useful in terms of increasing external validity of the findings and allowing comparisons to be made (e.g. between organisations). Hence, the use of surveys is considered suitable for research examining OC (Reichers & Schneider, 1990). Further, when used in organisations, quantitative approaches can be swift and unobtrusive (Ott, 1989).

The disadvantages cited for quantitative research include the etic nature of the approach. Some authors argue that an etic approach not only misrepresents the views, attitudes, feelings and thoughts of respondents but also seeks to sculpt findings into a predetermined framework (Schein, 1992). Others maintain that such an approach invalidates the findings of the study (Rousseau, 1990) and limits interpretation of the data (Needleman & Needleman, 1996). Reid and Bojanic (2001) provide a summary of the advantages and disadvantages of questionnaire (quantitative) and interview (qualitative) approaches. These are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Advantages and Disadvantages of Questionnaires and Personal Interviews.

CHARACTERISTIC	QUESTIONNAIRES		INTERVIEWS	
	Advantages	Disadvantages	Advantages	Disadvantages
Cost per Respondent & Respondent Rate	Relatively economical	Low response rate	Respondents can be very cooperative	Can be costly (especially, time & travel)
Sample Size & Level of Feedback	Can administer to large sample size	Can be inflexible with only superficial data obtained	Can clarify questions and probe for more information	Difficult to cover large sample sizes
Administration & Ability to Handle Complex Questions	Relatively easy to administer	Questions need to be relatively straight forward, unambiguous and clear	Questions can be adjusted to suit interviewees' literacy and comprehension	May require interviewer training
Interviewer Bias	Data more concise and structured	However, low response rate could skew results (e.g. not representative of population)	Information gained more accurate and detailed	Interviewer can influence respondent
Ability to Handle Sensitive Topics & Timing of Responses	Due to anonymity, respondents more willing to answer questions on sensitive topics; some latitude provided for completion	No magnitude for follow-up or in-depth questioning	Allows researcher to make observations while interviewing	Due to closer contact, respondents may be more reluctant to answer questions relating to sensitive topics; respondents need to answer there and then

[Source: Reid & Bojanic (2001, pp. 164-165)]

Table 4.1 shows that two major advantages of questionnaires are their low cost and relative ease of administration to large sample sizes. Tucker, McCoy and Evans (1990) add that quantitative approaches are useful because they allow the researcher to be unobtrusive, to compare data sets, and to analyse relationships between organisational variables and other variables. Some researchers argue that questionnaires do not truly capture the content themes of culture (e.g. Schein, 1992; Wilkins & Dyer, 1988). In this study the questionnaire was used to gain an overview of the nature and characteristics of OC. It was not intended that the deeper nuances of culture would be captured through the questionnaire. Personal interviews were used to gain a deeper and richer insight into the OC of hotels. Table 4.1 also shows that the major advantages of personal interviewing are the opportunities to explore topics in great depth and detail, to adjust the interview according to the respondent or direction of the interview and gathering of supplemental information through observations.

Several authors advocate the use of multiple methods (also referred to as 'triangulation') in research relating to social sciences, such as the study of OC (Hayes, 1997; Rousseau, 1990; Sechrest & Sidani, 1995; Tucker *et al.*, 1990). Patton (1990) contends that the use of triangulation of methods can increase the overall validity of the findings and add depth (from the richness of data obtained) and breadth (allowing generalization of results obtained from quantitative methods) to the study. Previous studies on hotel work (e.g. Shamir, 1975; Riley & Dodirill, 1992) suggest that the attitudes of hotel workers are complex characteristics. Hence, a research design which can extract these complexities is worthy of being used. The triangulation approach was considered appropriate for this study as it uses several complimentary methods which focus progressively on the subject matter.

4.4 Various Approaches

4.4.1. Triangulation

Bowling (2002) states that every research method has some bias. Denzin (1989) argued that triangulation minimizes the biases that originate for single methodologies. According to Ghuari *et al.* (1995), triangulation is the use of several different research methodologies in the investigation of the same phenomenon. Triangulation allows the researcher to "improve the accuracy of judgments and results … and enhance the

validity" of the research (Ghuari *et al*., 1995, p. 93). In essence, triangulation provides "a more complete, holistic and contextual portrait of the object under study" (p. 94). Miles and Hauberman (1994) note that triangulation refers to the use of multiple investigators, multiple sources of data or multiple methods, and that it enables researchers to confirm their emerging findings and build or test hypotheses and propositions. Denzin (1970, 1978) identifies three types of triangulation: data triangulation (data collected from different times and places and form different people or groups); theory triangulation (use of greater than one theoretical approach to analysis of data); and, methodological triangulation (use of multiple methods to collect data or use of multiple measurements within the same method).

Triangulation may not always produce consistent results to other methods used but it does provide a better understanding of the research problem or question. Greene and McClintock (1985) differentiate between triangulation methods that produce congruence and/or complimentary results. With congruence of results, the different methods used reach the same conclusions. If divergence occurs, triangulation of methods can lead to reconciliation of the difference through a complimentary process. With complimentary processes, the triangulation adds richness to the findings and generally, the results from one of the methods can elucidate findings from another method.

Triangulation has several advantages and disadvantages. Advantages of triangulation include:

- Cross validation of results obtained (Ghuari *et al*., 1995);
- Increase in richness and reliability of the results obtained (Greene & McClintock, 1985; Ott, 1989)
- Minimisation of weaknesses and biases associated with just one method (Denzin, 1988; Sechrest & Sidani, 1995);
- Capturing realities associated with happenings in the organisation (Denzin, 1988; Jick, 1979); and
- A more holistic and complete analysis (Jick, 1979).

Some disadvantages include:

- Cost and time involved (Denzin, 1988);
- Difficulty in obtaining cooperation from potential participants (Denzin, 1988);

- ❖ Difficulty in replicating results (Jick, 1979).

This thesis used a triangulation of methods, using both quantitative (survey) and qualitative (interviews, observations and ethnographic) approaches. It was anticipated that the use of multiple methods would add richness to the findings and provide some convergence of the data.

4.4.2. Discovering Organisational Culture through Triangulation of Methods

Culture is "a characteristic of the organisation ... (that) is manifested in and measured from the verbal and/or nonverbal behaviour of individuals" (Hofstede, 1998, p. 479). Traditionally, case studies involving interviews and participant observation have been used to study OC (e.g. Hofstede, 1994). Such methods can provide deep and rich insights. Questionnaire survey techniques are another way of examining OC. The survey method involves the use of a series of questions or statements about the organisation that the employee evaluates and indicates their response on the questionnaire. The questionnaires should be distributed to a representative sample of members of the organisation. Brown (1995) notes, "If the questionnaire has been well designed the results of the survey should then provide the researcher with a good overall impression of the prevailing beliefs, values and attitudes within the organisation" (p. 61). Surveys are valuable tools in that they produce quantitative information that can be beneficial for making meaningful comparisons between organisations and even between departments of the same organisation (Brown, 1995).

A fundamental issue with using solely the questionnaire approach is that surveys do not gather essential information relating to the details of stories, rites, rituals, myths, legends and other artefacts. Also, questionnaires rely on the responses (i.e. perceptions) of employees and they may not be aware of the basic underlying assumptions of the organisation because these are taken-for-granted and may be unconscious. Hence, in order to conduct a comprehensive investigation of OC, data from questionnaires needs to be supplemented by collection of information through intense interviews with employees and direct observation of the organisation's artefacts. This combined use of questionnaire, interviews and observations can be very time-consuming and labour-

intensive but collectively they should provide a significant insight into the culture of the organisation.

Part of the reason why there is uncertainty as to how culture should be examined has to do with whether assessment should be based on subjective beliefs, values, attitudes and basic underlying assumptions or whether it should be based on the more observable phenomena of artefacts (behavioural norms, rites, rituals, heroes, etc). The issues raised are related to assessing phenomena that is subjective versus objective, superficial versus deep, conscious versus unconscious, and accessible versus inaccessible (Furnham & Gunter, 1999). The idea that culture exists at an unconscious level added to the notion that organisations are unique and so cannot be compared further contributes to the debates on measurement of culture.

One stance often taken in this debate is the difference between the perspective of the *emic/insider* who believes that "culture is highly subjective, idiosyncratic, unique, requiring non-standardized, sensitive, interactive probing (by observation and interview)" and the *etic/outsider* view who supports the "supports the tradition of psychometrics and survey research, which seeks to compare and contrast organizations on standard measures" (Furnham & Gunter, 1999, p. 96). There seems to be some agreement that the best approach is to use multiple methods (e.g. Dwyer, Teal, Kemp & Yue Wha, 2000; Reichers & Schneider, 1990; Schein, 1985).

Further, in explaining the behaviour of people, psychologists use both idiographic (individual) and nomothetic (group) methods (Mullins, 1996). With OC, one of the questions raised is 'what is the appropriate level of analysis: the individual, the workgroup, the department or subunit or the organisation?'. Reichers and Schnieder (1990) summarise these dichotomous approaches by stating that:

> Climate researchers have been content, for the most part, to use the nomothetic, quantitative procedures that encompass the etic perspective. The *etic* perspective imposes meaning on a set of data rather than letting the meaning emerge from the members of the groups under study. This latter approach is termed *emic*. (p. 24)

Use of instruments to analyse OC can be useful in tapping the essence of OC but their explanatory value can be very limited (Reichers & Schneider, 1990; Dwyer *et al*., 2000). A comprehensive analysis of OC should ideally be a combination of questionnaire surveys and detailed interviews and observations. Hence, in this study it was decided to use a combination of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. A framework of twelve key characteristics was selected to direct the analysis. This was augmented with interview questions and participant observations to provide a richer insight into the OC of the hotels being examined. The key characteristics are: values, rituals, heroes, behaviours, work satisfaction, team spirit, getting the job done, service delivery, communication, relationships, planning, power structure. How these were derived and how the questionnaire to assess OC was developed will be discussed in the next chapter.

As noted earlier, previous hotel studies have indicated that the attitudes of hotel workers are a complex phenomenon (e.g. Shamir, 1975; Riley & Dodrill, 1992; Lee-Ross, 2000). In assessing service predispositions, a quantitative approach was taken for this part of the study. The SPI, discussed in Chapter 2 was chosen as the most appropriate tool for identifying the attitude profiles of hotel workers and was used employees' perceptions of their predispositions to delivery of quality service. However, in the final part of the study, the use of an ethnographic approach was considered appropriate because it would allow the researcher to understand and explain the complexities of attitudes more fully.

4.4.3. An Ethnographic Approach

Ethnography is a phenomenological, qualitative research approach or process that draws on several techniques and at times combines a variety of methods such as observation and interview (Ticehurst & Veal, 1999). Its aim is to "see the world through the eyes of those being researched, allowing them to speak for themselves" (Tricehurst & Veal, 1999, p. 104). Generally, it involves researchers immersing themselves in a culture, workplace or organisation that may be familiar or foreign to them and becoming part of that group. Bowling (2002) states that ethnography is "a method of naturalistic enquiry" (p. 352) which focuses on studying people in their natural settings. She adds that it provides "a descriptive account of social life and culture in a defined social system, based on qualitative methods (eg detailed observations, unstructured interviews, analysis of documents)" (Bowling, 1997, p. 352). This approach allows the researcher to gain a

better “understanding of the (values,) meaning and importance that members of the group impart to their own behaviour and the behaviour of others” (Tricehurst & Veal, 1999, p. 104).

Traditionally, ethnography is associated with the disciplines of anthropology and sociology where it is used to study culture. Recently, ethnography has been used in education, psychology and business studies. Ott (1989) recommends the use of ethnographic methods in OC research. He argues that such an approach enables the researcher to uncover the deeper, more invisible level of basic assumptions. He notes that such methods include participant observation, semiotics[1] and in-depth unstructured interviews. In OC research, however, studies using ethnographic approaches are limited (Schultz, 1995). Some have used ethnography on its own (e.g. Barley, 1983; Whyte, 1948). Others have used this methodology in combination with other approaches (e.g. Siehl & Martin, 1984). Some have been conducted in the hotel industry. For example, Whyte (1948) used participant observation and interview methods to conduct an ethnographic study of the restaurant industry in Chicago. He examined individuals’ attitudes in an attempt to uncover not only the restaurant structure but also the human side, and its problems, of the restaurant sector.

It is argued that these ethnographic approaches to studying cultures have several advantages. They can provide depth and richness to a study by tapping into nonverbal cues such as signs and symbols. For example, Barley (1983) used a semiotic approach, to study the significance of signs in funeral homes. He found that when corpses were laid out for viewing, signs were used or created around the corpse so as to give viewers the impression that the person was asleep. The impression was “to simulate a lifelike appearance” (Barley, 1983, p. 402).

Ethnographic methods, when used in conjunction with other research methods can also provide profound insights into OC. For example, Siehl and Martin (1984) used interviews to supplement findings from questionnaires to uncover the enculturation process of new

[1] Semiotics refers to: “the study of human communication, especially communication using signs and symbols” The *Collins Australian Pocket Dictionary* (1989).

sales staff and compare such processes between groups within the organisation and across time frames.

In this study, by working in the industry, the researcher was afforded the opportunity to take an ethnographic approach. This approach provided an 'insider's view' of the hotel industry and so, offered a fuller understanding of employees' attitudes, OC and the relationship between the two. Working in the industry meant that the researcher was able to observe behaviour and ask questions relating to the OC themes that were being explored in this study. Such an approach proved to be a powerful way of obtaining enriching this study because in addition to adding depth to the findings that had been drawn out of the quantitative technique (i.e. use of questionnaire), other factors emerged that further explained work in hotels.

4.5 The Quantitative Study

4.5.1. The Instrument

The research process for this study begins with a quantitative assessment (i.e. a self-administered questionnaire) of the service predispositions of hotel workers and the OC of hotels in the Cairns region. The questionnaire consists of three parts: the SPI, Employee Demographics, and the Organisational Culture Questionnaire (OCQ). The SPI was a slightly modified version of the original SPI (Lee-Ross, 2000). A demographics section was included to obtain some details of individual employees. The questions were designed to gather information that would assist in the development of profiles of hospitality workers. The OC questionnaire was specifically developed for this study. The details of this process are explained in the next chapter. While the questionnaires were being reviewed advice was sought from key people (academics and industry people). This process formed the pilot study, which is discussed more fully in Chapter 5. Once the questionnaire was finalized it was administered to employees from participating hotels. The data gathered was collated and statistically analysed.

4.5.2. Statistical Analysis

This study used various statistical techniques to analyse the data. The demographic data was collated using descriptive and some inferential statistics. Both the SPI and the OCQ

were statistically assessed using a number of multivariate data analysis techniques. The statistical package, SPSS for Windows Version 10.0 was used.

Coakes and Steed (2003, p. 27) note, “The first step in the analytical process is to explore the characteristics of the data”. The purpose of this is to determine if data has been incorrectly entered and/or if the data is normally distributed. According to Coakes and Steed (2003), the assumption of normality is a qualification for inferential statistical analyses. This assumption may be explored through both graphical and statistical techniques. The graphical approaches include histogram, stem-and-leaf plots, boxplots, normal probability plots, and detrended normal plots. Further, statistics such as Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic, skewness and kurtosis test for normality. All these techniques were used to determine the normality of the data set.

The graphical representations showed that there were some concerns about the data being normally distributed. The shape of the distribution of some of the histograms and stem-and-leaf plots was not considered normal. Equally, some boxplots indicated that there were some extreme scores. Similarly, the normal probability plots and detrended normal plots indicated the data was non-normally distributed. These results were confirmed by the Kilmogorov-Smirnov statistic. Coakes and Steed (2003) state that the accompanying Lilliefors significance level for testing normality should be greater than 0.05 if normality is to be assumed. The data from this study produced a Lilliefors significance level of 0.000 for all data. Hence, the data was considered to be non-normally distributed.

Coakes and Steed (2003) point out that if distributions are not normal, data may be statistically analysed by non-parametric techniques, such as Kruskal-Wallis and Chi-square tests. These were the principal techniques used in this study.

The quantitative data analysis for this study was divided into four parts. Table 4.2 presents a diagrammatic representation of the various parts and the statistical analyses used.

Table 4.2: Summary of Statistical Analyses used in this Study

DEMOGRAPHICS	SERVICE PREDISPOSITIONS (SPs)	ORGANISATINAL CULTURE (OC)	SPs & OC
Chapter 6	*Chapter 7 & 8*	*Chapter 9*	*Chapter 10*
❖ Descriptive Statistics ❖ Frequencies (%) ❖ Crosstabs	❖ Reliability & Dimensionality of instrument ❖ Factor analysis ❖ Cronbach's alpha	❖ Reliability & Dimensionality of instrument ❖ Factor analysis ❖ Cronbach's alpha ❖	❖ Correlations
❖ Correlations	❖ Rationale of Model ❖ Correlations ❖ Multiple regressions	❖ Descriptive Statistics ❖ Means	❖ Multiple Regressions
❖ Chi-square	❖ Moderating affect of deference ❖ Correlations	❖ Organisational Culture ❖ Kruskal-Wallis Tests ❖ Tukey's HSD Test ❖ Cross-tabulations	
❖ Kruskal-Wallis tests	❖ Service Predispositions ❖ Kruskal-Wallis Tests ❖ Tukey's HSD Test ❖ Cross-tabulations ❖ Discriminant Analysis		

Table 4.2 shows that the first part presents a profile of the research sample (Chapter 6). This data in this section was collated using descriptive statistics, such as frequency and percentages, and Chi-square statistics to determine significant differences between sample groups.

The second part in Table 4.2 assesses the dimensionality, reliability and validity of the SPI (Chapter 7) and presented a profile of the service predispositions of hospitality workers (Chapter 8). Statistical techniques used in this section included factor analysis, correlations, and multiple regressions to test the instrument and model. Tests to examine significant differences between respondents form different hotels included crosstabs, Kruskal-Wallis tests, and Tukey's HSD tests. Discriminant analysis was used to

determine which aspects of individuals' service predispositions contributed to their satisfaction with service delivered.

Table 4.2 shows that the third part investigates the dimensionality, reliability and validity of the OCQ and presents a profile of the OC prevalent in the hotels sampled (Chapter 9). Again, factor analysis and correlations were used to assess the instrument and significant variations in respondents' perceptions of OC were determined using tests such as crosstabs, Kruskal-Wallis tests, and Tukey's HSD tests.

The fourth part in Table 4.2 examines the relationship between service predispositions of hotel workers and hotel OC (Chapter 10). Statistical analyses used in this part included correlations and multiple regressions.

Further details of statistical analysis procedures are discussed in relevant sections of the thesis. It should be borne in mind that while the data was collected using a convenience employee sample approach, the generalisability of the findings from the research might be limited. These limitations will be discussed more fully in the final chapter.

4.6 Hotels

4.6.1. Criteria for Selection of Hotels

There are many levels and styles of hotels. In this study, the main criterion for selecting hotels was that the hotels were to be of three to five star rating and within the Cairns region. This resulted in a convenience sample of six hotels of four- to five-star rating in the Cairns region for the quantitative study. Cairns was chosen because it is a Mecca tourism centre, as described in Chapter 1 and because of its convenience for the researcher. The choice of hotel quality grading was to allow the researcher a range of hotels in terms of quality and size, especially if culture was to be compared between hotels. The Royal Automobile of Queensland (RACQ) provides definitions for hotel ratings. These are:

Five Star Hotels -

International style establishments offering a superior standard of appointments, furnishings and décor with and extensive range of first class guest services. A number and variety of room styles and/or suites available. Choice of dining facilities, 24 hour room service and additional shopping or recreational facilities available.

Four and half star hotels -

Establishments offering all the comfort of a four star establishment but with a greater range of facilities, higher levels of presentation and individual guest services.

Four star hotels –

Exceptionally well appointed establishments with high quality furnishings and offering a high degree of comfort. Fully air conditioned. High standard of presentation and guest services provided. Restaurant and meals available on premises.

Three star hotels –

Well-appointed establishments offering a comfortable standard of accommodation, with above average floor coverings, furnishings, lighting and ample heating/cooling facilities.

(Source: RACQ, 1997, p. 22)

A list of hotels matching the above categories was drawn up from the researchers' knowledge of the hotel industry in Cairns region. This was confirmed by checking in the RACQ Accommodation Guide 2002-2003, local phone books and on the Internet. A total of 22 suitable hotels were recorded in the Cairns region: eight four-star, nine four-and-a-half-star and five five-star hotels. The researcher contacted these hotels. Of these six participated in administration of the questionnaire.

4.6.2. Gaining Participation of Hotels

Initially, Human Resource (HR) Managers were contacted by telephone to solicit employee participation in this study. Generally, HR Managers were able to assist. Occasionally, this led to contact with the General Manager of the hotel. During this phase of the research, the researcher became aware that some hotels were already administering their own OC surveys (e.g. the Accor hotels). The HR manager from one hotel (non-Accor hotel, name withheld) stated that they would have been happy to participate but they had just administered their own questionnaire to staff and did not think it was fair to expect staff to fill in another one so soon. In the end, twenty hotels showed some interest with a possible sample of 720 respondents. For these hotels, the calls were followed by an email containing a copy of the questionnaire. This allowed managers time for perusal and consultation with other managers, especially the general manager, food and beverage manager and front office manager, to gain approval.

From this sample of twenty, twelve hotels agreed to participate with access to up to 80 employees from each hotel. For various reasons six of these were unable to participate in the study and no quantitative data was collected from their employees. Three of these eventually decided that they did not want to participate. The reason given by one hotel was that when the managers had given the project more thought, they had decided that it would be too time consuming for employees. Another hotel said that they had realized it was 'a big ask' from their employees. The manager from the other hotel simply said that they had changed their mind. No reason was given. One hotel was eliminated from the sample because only three out of sixty questionnaires were returned. Two other hotels were eliminated because questionnaires were administered only to managers. In this latter case it was felt that the results would be biased and not be a true reflection of the *status quo.* Hence, these responses were not included in the data analyses.

Once approval from the management of each participating hotel was established, participation was solicited from front-line hotel workers. In all cases HR managers asked the researcher which was the best way to administer the questionnaire. From knowledge of the industry and past experience, the researcher encouraged HR managers to contact department managers who, in turn, were better positioned to administer the questionnaire

to frontline staff. It was also suggested that HR managers contact department managers on a weekly basis to make sure that questionnaires had been administered and were being returned. Frontline staff was given two options: returning the questionnaire to the researcher by mail using the reply paid envelope provided; or, returning the questionnaire in the sealed envelope to the HR manager who would then forward them onto the researcher. In one hotel, all questionnaires were returned to the HR manager who then personally delivered them to the researcher.

In selecting the research sample, consideration was given to a number of factors. First, one of the primary aims of the study was to develop profiles of service predispositions of hotel workers. If this was to be a true indication of employees' potential for service delivery, it was rationalized that staff from front office and food and beverage departments would be the most suitable candidates. These individuals were considered to be the employees most exposed to service delivery and so, would provide the most accurate, valuable and rich data. Second, the question was raised as to whether the sample should include supervisors and managers as well as non-management staff. Again, due to the nature of hospitality work with it being operations focused and with supervisors and managers expected to be active at the frontline, meant that supervisory and management staff should be included. One area of concern was that some of the questions related to employees' perceptions of management. It was rationalized that due to the hierarchy of hotel structure, supervisors and managers have other managers above them. Therefore, the questionnaire was administered to frontline, supervisory and management staff.

4.6.3. Response Rate

Table 4.4 summarises the response rate for the survey.

Table 4.3: Response rate for the survey

Hotel	Number of questionnaires administered	Number of questionnaires returned	Percentage returned	Number of valid surveys	Percent used
Hotel A	80	62	77.50	60	75.0
Hotel B	80	55	68.75	50	62.5
Hotel C	60	45	75.00	43	71.67
Hotel D	60	42	70.00	40	66.67
Hotel E	60	47	78.33	43	71.67
Hotel F	40	21	52.50	18	45.00
Total	380	272	71.58	254	66.84

As table 4.4 shows a total of 380 questionnaires were administered to six different hotels. Of these 272 (71.58%) were returned of which 254 (66.84%) were valid. For each separate hotel, response rates varied from 45% for Hotel F to 75% for Hotel A. As per Deery (1999), cases with more than ten percent of data missing were not included in the analysis. The author was conscious of the fact that the organisational part of the questionnaire contained 96 items and that the item to case ratio was low. Hence, it was important to use as many of the questionnaires as possible.

4.7 The Qualitative Study

4.7.1. Research Design

The qualitative part of this study involved three approaches: in-depth interviews with frontline, supervisory and managerial staff; observations; and, ethnography. Questions for the interviews were based on: employees' service predispositions and how these affect delivery of service; and, the dimensions of OC which addressed such elements as training, management support, workgroup conflict and workplace values and norms. The researcher working in the industry facilitated gaining access to employees and securing their participation in interviews. All employees that participated in this part of the study were most willing and forthcoming in providing information for the researcher. Most of these respondents were from the hotels that participated in the quantitative part of the study. However, due to the nature of the hotel industry in Cairns with employees working more than one job, the researcher had opportunity to discuss the work environment with

several employees who were not part of the quantitative study and their comments appear in the qualitative section. Eventually, seventy-four in-depth interviews were conducted with frontline employees from ten different hotels, including the six that participated in the quantitative aspect of the study.

These interviews were supplemented by observations made while the researcher worked in the industry. Often the questions that triggered the discussions came from the researchers' observations of incidences, knowledge of happenings within the industry and people volunteering information. This latter was made possible because most employees knew of the researchers' study. Working in the industry, allowed the researcher to combine interviews and observations with an ethnographic approach. It was then possible to know, understand and feel what the hotel workers were experiencing. At the same time it was possible for the researcher to remain objective because this was a casual job that the researcher understood would afford valuable opportunities to explore the hotel industry. Details on the collation of the qualitative data are provided in Chapter 11.

4.7.2. The Ethnographic Approach

Earlier in this chapter, the advantages of triangulation of methods and ethnography were discussed. The reasons why ethnography was chosen as an appropriate method of enquiry for this study were also deliberated. Ethnography was defined as an interpretive and naturalistic inquiry into the shared meanings by which group members make sense of and add importance to everyday behaviour (Ticehurst & Veal, 1999). At an exploratory level of inquiry into the phenomenon of hospitality work, ethnography provides flexibility to explore, describe and analyse the working lives of hospitality workers from within the cultural context of their working environment. This exposition presents a portrayal of the day-to-day experiences of hospitality workers and the meanings these hold for them.

Fieldwork for this part of the study was based on the researcher working in the hospitality industry and assuming the role of participant observer. It included semi-structured, face-to-face, in-depth interviews with front-line service personnel (i.e. known as interviewees), and observation of interactions between both hotel personnel and hotel personnel and guests, to gain data. Information and vignettes were recorded daily in field

notebooks and a personal journal. Gathering information about hospitality workers and OC in hotels was facilitated by the researcher working in the industry. This provided the opportunity to be in close and prolonged contact with them and to observe first-hand the various elements of their everyday working lives. It also allowed the researcher to make use of situations or opportunities that arose to conduct interviews. All employees who participated or volunteered information were informed that the researcher was undertaking this study and were happy to participate. During the time of this study the researcher worked in two hotels. Information about these hotels was largely facilitated by taking advantage of the immediacy of situations. The researcher observed as fully as possible and asked questions as events occurred. Information about other hotels was gathered in a similar fashion from employees who worked in other hotels, from employees the researcher encountered while on training programmes with employees from other hotels (from the same chain), and from Technical and Further Education (TAFE) and university students. Encounters with people from other hotels was taken advantage of and used as an opportunity to observe, ask questions and/or conduct an interview.

Participant observation was the fundamental and constant method of data gathering. Being there enabled the researcher to listen to workers who volunteered information in a timely and convenient way. Generally, this occurred in informal situations where the workers spoke of their experiences and feelings, as events were happening and issues surfaced. They would make statements like, “Here’s something for your study” and then talk about an issue or event that was bothering them. This approach allowed the researcher easy access to participants and to follow-up with in-depth interviews as the opportunity arose. Also, the researcher found that as a consequence of working relationships between the researcher and participants, this approach allowed interviewees to be more relaxed, open and honest with their responses and interviews were informative with interviewees speaking freely about work attitudes, OC and the hotel industry. These occasions were a valuable source of rich data that revealed the true nature of hospitality work.

In this ethnographic approach, the researcher was both an insider and an outsider. As an insider, the researcher was part of the situation, feeling and understanding what it was like for hospitality workers. As an outsider and a detached observer, the researcher was

separate from the activities, events and issues and viewed the happenings as objects to be studied. This detachment was an easy shift as the researcher was constantly reminded of the objectives of this research and the valuable opportunities afforded by the ethnographic approach that should be used as effectively as possible.

Just as immediate was the shift from participant observer to interviewer. Interviews were important as an opportunity to explore more formally events, activities or issues that the researcher had observed. Interviews were beneficial as they provided time for interviewees to reflect upon and express their views on particular situations. The congenial nature of interviews in this study and the continued presence of the researcher in the field meant that there was opportunity for interviewees to add to their initial responses. This was not unusual and at times a week or more would elapse when the interviewee would raise an issue again with the researcher. It was not uncommon for interviewees at such times to share with the researcher additional information or other ideas in relation to earlier discussions or interviews as they came to mind.

4.7.3. Emergence of Themes

A number of themes emerged from the quantitative part of this study. The basic themes are those relating to the Service Predispositions Model (SPM) and the OC Questionnaire. Concurrently, this inquiry led to the discovery of an *occupational hospitality culture*, which is described as an overarching, pan culture that influences hospitality workers' service delivery regardless of the department or organisation they work for. The Model of Hospitality Culture (Figure 10.2) shows that 'hospitality' represents the innermost level of hospitality OC. Hospitality is the basic assumptions that drives hospitality workers approach to their work. As detailed in Chapter 1, hospitality is about being hospitable. It is argued that to be hospitable is to provide hospitality and what defines hospitality relates to being hospitable. Chapter 1 also presented several definitions of hospitality. In the main, these definitions provide an awareness of the connotations emphasized by the term hospitality and identify hospitality as a complex blend of tangible goods (e.g. accommodation, meals) and intangible service elements (e.g. cheerful and helpful staff), namely physical environment and social interaction. In particular, they indicated a strong focus on the attitudinal and behavioural aspects of the service provided by hospitality workers. In the model these are represented by elements such as individual's service

predispositions, the service encounter, national culture, and hotel demographics. In addition, this study has recognised another element that is linked to central core of hospitality, i.e. occupational hospitality culture.

Occupational hospitality culture describes the consistencies observed in the skills, knowledge and attitudes of hospitality workers in the delivery of service. While situational factors vary between departments and organisations, hospitality workers are unified by an occupational hospitality culture that guides their behaviour and performance. In addition, the basic OC themes relating to values and artifacts identified above are characterized by their linkages to occupational hospitality culture. These themes are detailed in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Themes explored in the qualitative part of the study

Levels of Hospitality Culture and Corresponding Themes
✶ **Service Predispositions**: disposition, affinity, individual consideration, extra, competence.
✶ **Artifacts**: stories, rituals, social club, senior management, communication, and grapevine, valued member, group membership, heroes, care & concern, importance of job, role ambiguity, hotel politics, team spirit, workgroup conflict, being equal, and relationships & processes, training, promotional opportunities, doing extra, behaviours, job variety, getting the job done, power structure, and planning & decision-making.
✶ **Values**: values, customer orientation, and organisational philosophies.
✶ **Hospitality**: basic assumptions guiding hospitality workers behaviour and performance, associated with Occupational Hospitality Culture.
✶ The Influence of OC on Service Predispositions
Themes that Emerged from Ethnographic Approach
✶ To Serve is not to be Servile To Serve is not to be Servile ✶ Negative Attitudes ✶ Emotional Labour

Questions for the semi-structured interviews matched the SPM and OC themes to see if they substantiated responses to the quantitative findings. For the SPM, the dimensions examined in the qualitative research included disposition, affinity, individual consideration, extra, competence, communication, implementation, commitment, performance, deference and personal outcome. From the OC questionnaire, the OC dimensions were grouped together under artifacts, values and hospitality.

Table 4.4 shows that, in addition to the themes that emerged from the quantitative approach, three new themes surfaced from the qualitative approach. These were to serve is not to be servile, negative attitudes, and emotional labour. These names have been formed by the researcher to reflect the nature of the themes and will be discussed more fully later.

4.7.4. Some questions

While interviews were dialogic and interactive, they were based on a set of questions, which were drawn from themes that had emerged from the quantitative research (Table 11.1) and the researchers' observations of incidences that occurred. The insider role provided insights that raised further questions that were considered to be of importance to this study. To begin the session and focus the interviewee, the first question was a general broad one asking the interviewee to comment on the service predispositions of hospitality workers or the culture of the organisation, such as: *"What do you think are the characteristics of someone you would consider to be suitable to be working in hospitality?"* or *"Can you describe the culture of this organisation, that is, the way things are done around here?"* Both questions typically produced some global descriptions of the ideal hospitality worker and hotel environment. Common responses were "friendly", "team-oriented" and "customer-focused". Further information about each descriptor was sought by asking interviewees to elaborate on their comments. For example, if the interviewee reported that being customer-focused was an important disposition for hospitality workers to possess, the researcher would ask a question such as, *"What are the things that someone does that enables you to describe them as being customer-focused?"* Also, if the participant described the organisation as team-oriented, the interviewer would ask, *"What are the kinds of things that happen around here that make you think that the organisation is team-oriented?"*

These general descriptive questions were also a way of netting what interviewees' understandings were of service predispositions and culture. For example, the idea of culture often drew confused responses with interviewees thinking of national rather than OC. Once the researcher clarified that responses were sought to OC and not national culture, interviewees were forthcoming with pertinent information. This was aided by the use of more specific questions such as those presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Some example questions used in the face-to-face interviews

Questions for interviewees	Questions for researcher
Stories, Heroes	
• Can you describe one of the most significant things that have happened in the organisation in the last two or three years? • Is there anyone in this organisation that you would consider a hero? Why? • Are there people here that you would consider to be mavericks, i.e. people who deviate for the norms?	• What core beliefs do stories reflect? • How pervasive are these beliefs (through levels)? • Do stories relate to: strengths or weaknesses; successes or failures; conformity or mavericks? • Who are the heroes and villains? • What norms do the mavericks deviate from?
Routines, Rituals & Behaviour	
• Are there some routines that are emphasized more than others in this organisation? • What kind of rituals is important in this organisation? • What kind of training is provided for you?	• Which routines are emphasised? • Which would look odd if changed? • What behaviour do routines encourage? • What are the key rituals? • What core beliefs do they reflect? • What do training programmes emphasise?
Organisational structure	
• How formal is the hierarchical structure of this hotel? • Do the structures encourage or hinder collaboration? Or competition?	• How mechanistic or organic are the structures? • How flat or hierarchical are the structures? • How formal or informal are the structures? • What types of power structure do they support?
Control systems	
• How closely do you feel that things are controlled in this hotel? • In this hotel is there much emphasis on reward? Or punishment?	• What is most closely monitored or controlled? • Are controls related to history or current strategies? • Are there many or few controls?
Power structures	
• Do you have any individuals in this hotel that stand out as leaders? • Is staff empowered in this hotel?	• What are the core beliefs of the leadership? • How strongly held are these beliefs (idealists or pragmatists)? • How is power distributed in the organisation? • Where are the main blockages to change?
Symbols	
• Are there particular symbols or icons that represent the organisation?	• What language and jargon is used? • How internal or accessible is it? • What aspects of strategy are highlighted in publicity? • What status symbols are there? • Are there particular symbols, which denote the organisation?

Table 4.5 shows that interviews were semi-structured with the researcher preparing areas for questions, based on the themes outlined in Table 11.1. Questions were tailored and elaborated upon to meet issues or events being addressed, the interviewees' level of understanding of the concepts (e.g. leadership as opposed to management), and the time available. For example, in order to further explore the notion that OC influences service predispositions, interviewees were asked, *"Do you think that you delivery of service is affected by the way things are done around here?"* This would generally elicit a "yes" or "no" response, which would be followed by questions such as, *"In what ways?"* Another approach was to ask, *"Can you give me any examples?"*

Questions were both open and closed. For example, a common question was: "*Do you think that it requires a certain kind of person to work in hospitality?*" This closed question required a simple 'yes' or 'no' response but was generally followed by an open question to allow interviewees to expand on their comments, such as "*What are these characteristics?*" or "*So you think personality is important, but what about employees' attitudes to providing service?*"

4.7.5. Response

A total of 74 in-depth interviews were conducted over a period of ten months from January to October 2003. Interviews involved a convenience sample of interviewees and resulted in a pool of hospitality workers from ten different hotels, including the six associated with the quantitative research. Interviewees were frontline personnel from both front office and food and beverage departments. Profiles of interviewees are presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Profiles of Interviewees

	GENDER	FRONT OFFICE	FOOD & BEVERAGE	TOTALS
SUPERVISORS	Females	3	4	7
	Males	2	3	5
FRONTLINE EMPLOYEES	Females	14	21	35
	Males	11	16	27
		30	44	74

Each interview lasted between twenty to sixty minutes. Often subsequent discussions ensued to confirm or expand on certain points. The methodology used for the in-depth interviews followed that prescribed by Whyte (1982). Once interviewees consented to the interviews, interviews were tape-recorded and later transcribed verbatim. Occasionally, interviewees did not agree to or feel comfortable with the tape-recording and the researcher took hand-written notes.

4.7.6. Analysis of qualitative data

Analysis of data was concurrent with gathering of informaiton. Content analysis was used to categorise responses were possible according to the dimensions of the questionnaire. Content analysis is also referred to as "thematic analysis" (McClelland, 1961). It is a process that involves classifying or developing categories for qualitative data, material or content (Holsti, 1969; Krippendorff, 1980). In this study, content analysis was used to identify and code the themes or dimensions that emerged from employees' descriptions of hospitality workers' service predispositions and hotel culture. Use of content analysis enabled the researcher to guide and channel the research toward the conceptual themes pertinent to this study.

It is acknowledged that the process of content analysis involves an element of subjectivity (Hultsman and Harper, 1992). At times it was unclear if an issue should be included in one category or another. At other times, the responses related to more than one category. In these instances, advice was sought from two hotel industry professionals to clarify the classification. Some of the opinions given by interviewees were similar and only representative responses are presented in this chapter. Where it was felt that the

responses provided an alternative outlook in the same category, these have been included to substantiate understanding.

4.8 Summary

This chapter has shown that there are many different methods available for conducting research into OC. These range from purely quantitative or etic methods, such as use of questionnaires, to purely qualitative or emic methods, such as ethnography and observation techniques. Each of these methods has inherent advantages and disadvantages. Some are perhaps better suited to different aspects of the culture phenomenon. For example, questionnaires are more practical in situations where a response is required quickly and unobtrusively. They provide breadth of description and allow generalisability. So they are perhaps more suited at assessing the upper layers of OC, what Schein (1985) would describe as the artifacts and espoused values. Basic assumptions are best researched through qualitative methods. Such approaches provide a deep, rich, 'thick' description of OC. Some OC researchers espouse the use of multiple methods.

This study uses both approaches. First, it uses the SPI, an established instrument to assess employees' service predispositions. Second, it aims to develop a valid and reliable questionnaire to assess OC in the hotel industry. Third, support is sought from qualitative approaches, such as ethnography and observation, to explore the richness of employees' experiences, thoughts, feelings, and social interactions and how these are affected by OC. While there are several questionnaires available that have merit as diagnostic tools for the assessment of OC, such as OCI and CVF, it was considered that they were inadequate for the measurement and assessment of OC in the hotel industry. The next chapter discusses the development of the OC questionnaire used in this study.

CHAPTER 5

DEVELOPMENT OF QUESTIONNAIRE

5.1 Introduction

The research process for this study begins with a quantitative assessment of the service predispositions of hotel workers and the organisational culture (OC) of hotels in the Cairns region. This is basically achieved through the collection of data via a self-administered questionnaire and analyses of the data using various statistical techniques. The questionnaire consists of three parts: the Service Predispositions Instrument (SPI), Employee Demographics, and the Organisational Culture Questionnaire (OC Q). The SPI was a slightly modified version of the original SPI (Lee-Ross, 2000). A demographics section was included to obtain some details of individual employees and the questions in this section were designed to gather information that would assist in the development of profiles of hospitality workers. The OCQ was specifically developed for this study and constructed from an extensive literature review, discussions with hospitality workers and the researchers' knowledge of the industry. This chapter outlines some of the changes made to the SPI and details the development of a valid and reliable instrument for measuring (OC) in the hospitality industry.

5.2 A Review of the SPI

The SPI was presented and discussed in Chapter 2. In summary, the SPI consists of 33 question statements with three statements for each variable. Each of the three statements targets one of the three response classes for attitudes: cognitive, affective and connative. All question statements are Likert-type using a response scale of 1 (disagree strongly) to 7 (agree strongly). In the original SPI (Lee-Ross, 2000), two statements were worded positively and one negatively. For example, with competence, the following question statements were used:

- I am satisfied that I know how to do my job. (Positive)

- It is important to me that I am knowledgeable enough to provide clients with excellent service. (Positive)

- It is important whether some gaps in my knowledge will cause me to make small mistakes in my job. (Negative)

In the pilot study, it was found that this was confusing to some respondents. Further, two of the academics involved in the pilot study, suggested that the wording of the statements be amended to better reflect the three response classes for attitudes, i.e. cognitive, affective and connative components. These considerations were taken into account and prior to administering the SPI each question was re-examined. Hence, some changes were made to the original SPI. For example, the new question statements relating to competence are:

- I am competent in my job and know that I have the knowledge needed to provide guests with a high standard of service (cognitive).

- I feel that it is important that I am knowledgeable enough to provide guests with excellent service (affective).

- I believe that I should have the job knowledge to know how to do my job and so, provide guests with a quality service (connative).

The adaptations to the items meant that the reliability and validity of the SPI in this study needed assessing. The details of these analyses are presented in Chapter 7.

5.3 Employee Demographics

Concurrently with the review of the SPI, question statements were sought to add information to the study about the respondents. It was felt that the use of demographic data could add some richness and value to the findings by providing a greater understanding of the respondent sample. Price and Mueller (1986) refer to demographic information as ‘correlates’. They point out that it is relatively easy to collect data relating

to the correlates. However, they do not include correlates in any analyses relating to the model 'because of their specificity' (p. 27). Price and Mueller (1986) add that correlates measure very specific attributes about the respondents and can characterize a sample. By contrast, variables in the model are more general attributes and can be common to respondents in other samples.

The original SPI already had several demographic questions attached to it but some of these were considered inappropriate for the respondent sample in this study. For example, the original SPI asked:

- I live (please tick):

  On organization premises……..…….

  Outside organization premises in the family home ……

  Other (please state) ……

It was felt that since the hotels participating in the study were on the mainland, the information gained from this question would have not been informative. It was removed in this study. Another question that was eliminated was:

- I work in this organization (please tick):

  All year round……..……

  Only during the busy season……

  Other (please state). ……

At the time the questionnaire was being developed, the Cairns hotel industry had been enjoying a consistent flow of business with no distinguishable peaks and ebbs. The presence of the Cairns Convention Centre has been instrumental in providing a steady stream of clients to the region. The Centre is ranked fourth in the world and attracts many visitors to the region (Cairns Chamber of Commerce, 2003). Further, the region itself is a huge draw card for the business sector. In the year ended June 2003, 399 business events were held in the region, drawing 151 141 delegates to the area. Hence, the above question was considered unnecessary.

Advice from people working in the industry (both frontline, supervisory and managerial) and academics was sought to identify other possible demographic questions. These sources became known as 'participants'. The researcher's knowledge and experience of the industry was also called upon in developing this set of questions. The traditional questions relating to age, gender, marital status, organisation and employment status were included. As mentioned in Chapter 1, the hospitality industry is renowned for having a low skilled workforce, its high labour turnover and lack of training (e.g. Deery, 1999; Guerrier & Adib, 2000) and so questions relating to job tenure, intention to stay, education and training were included in the demographics section. With the focus of this study on employees' delivery of quality service, a question relating to customer service (Q.13) was considered to be necessary. Further, Price and Mueller (1986, p. 27) note that correlates are useful because:

> The correlates are used to check the explanatory power of the model . . . If the explanatory power of the model is significantly increased when the correlates are added, then we assume that the correlates are measuring abstract concepts not in our model.

This reasoning led to the inclusion of a question relating to 'job satisfaction' and another relating to 'enjoy working in the hospitality industry'. Schneider (1985, p. 579) notes, "Satisfaction is an important human outcome of organization life". Further, Price and Mueller (1986) argue that there is a negative relationship between the attitude of job satisfaction and employee turnover. Since employee turnover is an issue of concern in the hospitality industry, the variable of job satisfaction was included. Locke (1976) remarks that job satisfaction is related to several individual and organisational variables. Including it in the demographics section of the questionnaire meant that it could be more readily used in analysis to determine its relationship with either the SPM or OC variables.

Also, the model presented in Chapter 3 proposes that elements of OC influence employees' service predispositions. Susskind, Borchgrevink, Kacmar, and Brymer (2000) maintain that employees' perceived organisational support influences their job satisfaction and that employees' job satisfaction influences work-related attitudes. They define

organisational support as: “the extent to which an employee believes that their employer is concerned about their well-being” (Susskind *et al.*, 2000, p. 55). Job satisfaction is recognized as: “an attitudinal measure which relates perceptions of past events and rewards to current impression of a job” (Susskind *et al.*, 2000, p. 56). Job satisfaction has been linked to a number of organisational outcomes such as job performance (Meyer, Paynonen, Gellatly, Goffin, & Jackson, 1989), customer satisfaction (Bitner, 1990), turnover intention (Tett & Meyer, 1993), and organisational commitment (Locke & Latham, 1990). It is anticipated that employees experiencing higher levels of organisational support will report higher job satisfaction. For example, in a restaurant, an unsatisfied customer may express his or her dissatisfaction to the waiter, whether or not the waiter is the cause of the dissatisfaction. If the employee receives support from management, he or she may have a positive outcome and their job satisfaction may be enhanced. However, if management is non-supportive, the waiter may have negative feelings about their job, feelings that may result in job dissatisfaction.

5.4 Developing the OC Questionnaire

Debate exits over methodological difficulties in assessing and analyzing OC. Some of the problems arise from the nature of OC; in particular, the various levels at which culture can operate (e.g. Schein’s three levels of culture), from the role played by organisational politics, and from the role of subcultures within an organisation (Langan-Fox & Tan, 1997). Schein (1992) proposes that OC be studied using multiple methods, ranging from questionnaires to ethnographic approaches. The previous chapter discussed some of the relevant methodological approaches. In terms of quantitative assessment of OC, throughout the history of organisational climate and culture, many instruments have been developed to assess these constructs as academics and researchers have strived to find an appropriate instrument. The quest to develop a universal tool is compounded by the uniqueness of each situation and each research’s endeavour. This section of this chapter provides an overview of several instruments that have been used in the past. It follows from Chapter 3 where it was established that for the purpose of this thesis the boundaries between ‘climate’ and ‘culture’ are obscure and that most probably the two constructs are one and the same entity taken from a different perspective. This part of this chapter examines the empirical contributions made by both streams of research to the current understanding of the dimensions or variables that make up these constructs. It outlines the

use of these dimensions as the basis of development of the OC questionnaire used in this study.

The identification of the variables to be used and the generation of items for the variables were conducted using three approaches. Initially, the literature was perused, especially existing questionnaires, to determine the constructs, variables and scales that were highlighted in previous writings and research on OC. Concurrently, discussions were held individually with frontline staff, supervisors and managers within the hotel industry. These discussions were based on ideas, issues and problems that had emerged from the researcher's knowledge and experience of the industry and that were being identified by the researcher from the literature. As items emerged, they were used in focus groups with tertiary business students (from university and TAFE) to facilitate discussion. Further, in-depth, one-on-one interviews were conducted with the following individuals: five fronline hospitality workers, five hotel supervisors, two hotel managers, two academics, and five hospitality students from James Cook University. The discussions with students and hotel employees, supervisors and managers provided the basis for constructs, variables and items that needed addressing in the development of the questionnaire. Commonalities between the literature and the discussions were used in developing the final questionnaire for this study. In the end, the PCOC (Personal, Customer orientation, Organisational and Cultural) questionnaire developed by Maull, Brown and Cliffe (2001) was found to be the most appropriate to use as the backbone of the OC questionnaire for this study.

5.4.1 Contributions from organisational climate literature

The history of research into organisational climate can be traced back to the late 1930s with the seminal work of Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939) when they examined the relationship between climate and leadership style. Pursuant to this work, there have been numerous reconceptualisations and empirical findings. In the 1970s there was a resurgence of interest in organisational climate, out of which arose several important studies. These studies included work by Pritchard and Karasick (1973) who factor analysed climate dimensions as they showed climate to be related to performance of subunits and to individual job satisfaction; Schneider and Snyder (1975) who examined individuals' global perception of organisations and tried to identify relationships between job satisfaction and organisational climate; Reichers and Schneider (1990) provide a

summary of the development of the climate concept and identify three stages in its history; and, James and Jones (1976) who conducted a review of the theory and research on organisational climate and attempted to identify dimensions of climate that were generic to several studies. From their review of the literature James and Jones (1976) identified 35 concepts relating to organisational climate and developed the Psychological Climate Questionnaire (PCQ). Eleven concepts related to job and role characteristics, eight to leadership characteristics, four to work-group characteristics and 12 to sub-system and organisational level characteristics. This produced 35 *a priori* composite variables, each with two to seven items, resulting in a 145-item questionnaire.

Other current instruments relating to organisational climate include:

- The Business Organisation Climate Index by Patterson, Payne & West (1996) which consists of 28 item scales

- An instrument developed by Kozlowski and Doherty (1989) which uses 55 measures consisting of 11 sub-scales that are similar to those of Jones and James (1979)

- An instrument developed by Taylor and Bowers (1972), which was a composite of several other instruments and modified by Drexler (1977) in his survey of operations.

- An instrument developed by Campbell, Dunette, Lawler and Weick (1970) which resulted in four climate dimensions with 22 items

- An instrument developed by Pritchard and Karasick (1973) based on the work of Campbell *et al.* (1970) resulting in ten dimensions, which was later factor analysed by Joyce and Slocum (1982) and reduced to six dimensions.

Of the numerous climate surveys, Davidson, Manning, Timo and Ryder's (2001) questionnaire was of particular interest because of its application to the hotel industry. Davidson *et al.* (2001) used a modified version of the questionnaire developed by James and Jones (1976). The researcher was specifically interested in the elements of the

questionnaire. As the researcher gained information from the participants and themes emerged, their links to the literature were sought. Some of the variables that these researchers used in their work are detailed in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Some dimensions of organisational climate

Davidson *et al.* (2001)		Jones and James (1979)	
D1*	*Leadership, facilitation and support*	D3	*Leadership, facilitation and support* Reflects perceived leader behaviours such as the extent to which the leader is seen as helping to accomplish work goals by means of scheduling activities, planning, etc., as well as the extent to which he was perceived as facilitating interpersonal relationships and providing personal support
D2	*Professional and organizational spirit*	D5	*Professional and organizational spirit* Reflects perceived external image and desirable growth potential offered by the job and the organization.
D3	*Conflict and ambiguity*	D1	*Conflict and ambiguity* Reflects perceived conflict in organizational goals and objectives, combined with ambiguity of organizational structures and roles, a lack of interdepartmental cooperation, and poor communication from management.
D4	*Regulations, organization and pressure*		
D5	*Job variety, challenge and autonomy*	D2	*Job challenge, importance and variety* Reflects a job perceived as challenging, important to the organization, which involved a variety of duties, including dealing with people. The job was seen as providing autonomy and feedback, and demanding high standards of quality and performance.
D6	*Work group cooperation, friendliness and warmth*	D4	*Work group cooperation, friendliness and warmth* Generally described relationships among group members and their pride in the workgroup.
D7	*Job standards*	D6	*Job standards* Reflect the degree to which the job was seen as having rigid standards of quality and accuracy, combined with inadequate time, manpower, training, and resources to complete the task.

*D=Dimension

[Source: Adapted from Davidson (2003, p. 208, Table II) & Davidson (2000, p. 28)]

Table 5.1 shows that Davidson *et al.* (2001) maintained the elements considered important by Jones and James (1979) and added one further element, that is, "regulations,

organization and pressure". The similarities between the elements used by Davidson *et al.* (2001) and Jones and James (1979) are also visible in the work of other researchers.

Campbell, Dunette, Lawler, and Weick (1970) conducted a review of the work of several researchers (e.g. Litwin and Stringer, 1966; Schneider and Bartlett, 1968; Taiguiri, 1966; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek & Rosenthal, 1968) and found four elements common to each of these studies: (a) individual autonomy, (b) degree of structure imposed on the position, (c) reward orientation, and (d) consideration, warmth and support. Similarly, Davidson (2000) made a comparison of climate dimensions between studies and found some commonality in the dimensions that were measured. These are presented in Table 5. 2.

Table 5.2: Comparison of Climate Dimensions across studies

[Source: Davidson (2000, p. 30, Table 2.2)]

The studies described in Table 5.2 related to various work environments. In the late 1970s and early 1980s, Schneider and his team conducted a series of interviews with bank customers and employees and developed surveys to investigate employees' perceptions of routines and rewards. Ten *a priori* dimensions of a service climate were identified and these are outlined in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Dimensions of Service Climate: Employees' Views

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[Source: Schneider (1990, p. 398, Table 11.2)]

Schneider and his team found that key issues relating to service climate include human resource practices, management's emphasis on service, the adequacy of equipment and supplies, operational support and staff competence and courtesy. Schneider (1990) was concerned with the impact of these dimensions on service quality. The hypothesized relationships are summarized in Figure 5.1.

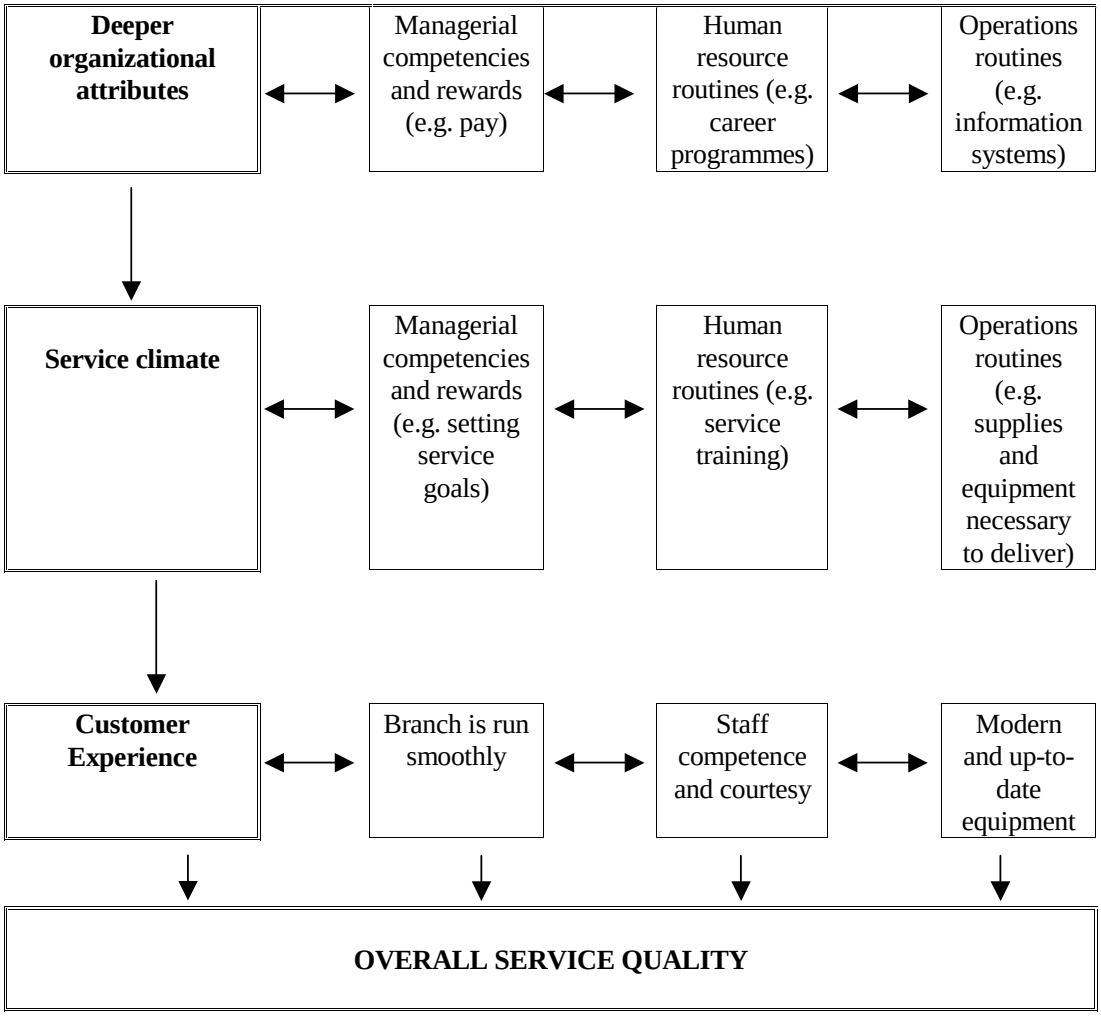

Figure 5.1: A conceptualization of system effects on service quality
[Source: Adapted from Schneider (1990, p. 400, Figure 11.1)]

Schneider (1990, p. 407) recognized that in service settings "close and immediate supervision" is difficult to achieve and that a good substitute is the creation of a service climate that emphasizes routines and rewards of organisations. The work of Schneider and other climate authors emphasizes the structural, perceptual and interactive approaches (Moran & Volkein, 1992). The structural approach considers "the formal properties of organizations" while the perceptual approach focuses on "the subjective psychological characteristics of participants" and the interactive approach examines "the way in which individual human consciousness blends these elements" (Moran & Volkein, 1992, p. 33). Schneider's service climate is a combination of these three approaches. Moran and Volkein (1992) consider a third approach and this is the cultural approach. According to

Moran and Volkein (1992, p. 33), "the cultural approach focuses on the manner by which groups interpret, construct, and negotiate reality through the creation of an organizational culture".

5.4.2 Contributions from the culture literature

While the research on climate has a long history, the work on OC is relatively new. The "scholarly explication and study of culture" formally began in the late 1970s and early 1980s (Reichers & Schneider, 1990, p. 19). Rousseau (1990) conducted a review of the extant literature to identify quantitative assessments of culture and provided seven examples of such assessments. The surveys and the dimensions they explore are detailed in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4: Some culture assessment instruments

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[Source: Rousseau (1990, pp. 174-177, Table 5.2)]

Table 5.4 shows that while each instrument has a different focus, they are all concerned with the factors within the organisation that guide employee behaviour. For example, the *Organizational Culture Profile (OCP)* (O'Reilly *et al.*, 1988) focuses on values within an organisation and stresses values that are important and define how to behave and what attitudes are appropriate. The work of O'Reilly *et al.* (1988, 1991) considers the employee-organisation fit notion. Judge and Cable (1997) have used the OCP to examine the relationship between personality traits and OC. Similarly, Glasser's (1983) *Corporate Culture Survey* focuses on values and beliefs to identify the strength and type of culture. Likewise, Allen and Dyer (1980) use the *Norms Diagnostic Index* and emphasis that

"norms, the building blocks of culture, are the expected, accepted, and supported ways of behaving" (Rousseau, 1990, p. 174).

From the previous research into culture, it is the work of Schein (1985, 1990) and the approach by Maull *et al.* (2001) that provide the framework for the development of the OCQ. Schein's work highlights the levels of culture and emphasizes the interaction of individuals, that is, the way groups "interpret, construct, and negotiate reality" (Moran & Volkein, 1992, p. 33). Schein (1985) argues that culture is a pattern of basic assumptions, which is invented, discovered and developed by a particular group. Later, Schein (1990) adds that culture evolves through coping with problems of external adaptation and internal integration and that new employees should learn the right way to perceive, think and feel with regard to these problems.

Schein's (1985) model of cultural levels has particular utility for the purposes of this study because it identifies three levels of culture, which provide a valuable framework for identifying and managing the various aspects of culture. Further, it links culture and climate. Schein's representation of culture is presented in Figure 5.2.

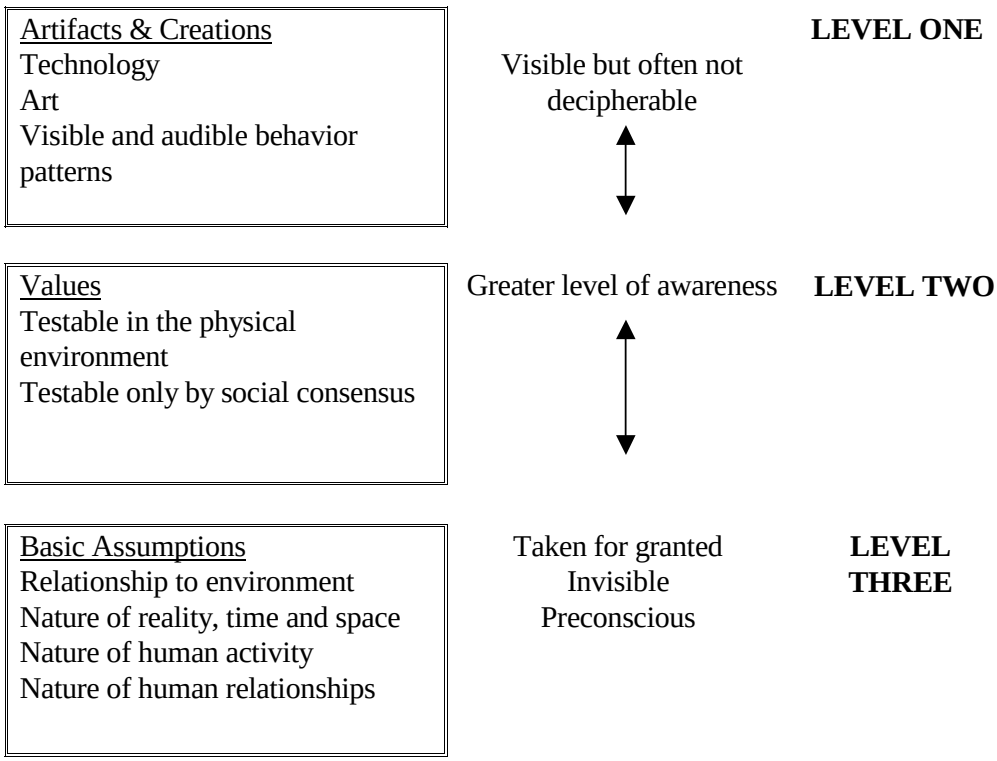

Figure 5.2: Elements of culture viewed as interacting levels
[Source: Schein (1985, p. 14, Figure 1)]

Figure 5.2 shows that in the first two levels, Schein's model views culture as comprising various elements (e.g. physical layout and design, shared rules and procedures, and basic values) that reflect the social unit's ideology or philosophy. According to the model, these elements constitute the underlying conceptual factors and assumptions (Level Three), which guide people's interpretation of everyday events and their behaviour (Moran & Volkein, 1992). The model regards the basic assumptions as the "essence of culture" and the artifacts, values and behaviours as the observable manifestations of the essence of culture. The artifacts level includes the physical layout of the premises, technology, signs, rituals and stories. These aspects of culture can be equated to climate. Vecchio, Hearn, and Southey (1996, p. 691) state:

> Thus, organizational culture is an all-encompassing concept, which includes deeply held, taken-for-granted assumptions, values and norms that may never be articulated. However, organizational climate usually refers to articulated perceptions of aspects of the organization. These perceptions may change

more quickly than the foundations of culture. Thus in some senses climate could be considered to be a sub-set of organizational culture.

The second level of values is described by Schein (1985, p.13) as an individual's "sense of what ought to be, as distinct from what is". Vecchio *et al.* (1996) suggest that these are "the overt statements made about the organisation, what it does and how it does it, which reflect its culture" (p. 690). They provide the example of Pacific Dunlop where there were "No more flowers in the executive's offices, no more morning papers for executives, company cars are to be serviceable not luxurious" in an attempt by the managing director to refocus the company of shareholders rather than executives.

The basic assumptions level is said to include all those elements which are underlying, invisible and immutable but which pervade an organisation or work group. Vecchio *et al.* (1996) illustrate this level using the example of an organisation, which attempts to control employees, provide low autonomy, follow strict rules about behaviour, and maintain close supervision. They note that the underlying assumptions in such an organisation would include, "People are lazy, they will avoid work as much as possible, they cannot be trusted with any responsibility, they lack ambition and prefer to be led and will take no account of organizational needs" (Vecchio *et al.*, 1996, p. 690). Moran and Volkein (1992) note that the elements of culture as outlined by Schein (1985) are "interacting levels of culture" (p. 37) and that as particular values are reinforced over time, the process of "cognitive transformation" enables these values to become beliefs and eventually, assumptions.

While a range of instruments is available, choosing the ideal instrument to measure culture in the hospitality industry is difficult. Each instrument has its limitations. For example, the Organisational Culture Inventory (OCI) has been used to assess culture at the level of normative beliefs (norms) and shared behavioral expectations (Cooke and Lafferty, 1987; Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Cooke & Szumal, 1993, Rousseau, 1990). It allows exploration of the deeper manifestations of culture but it is under copyright and can be costly to use. The Corporate Culture Survey is easy to use but provides only a limited number of culture types and may lack the detail required to guide management strategies for improvement. The culture instruments either take a typological approach, in which the

tool measures one or more "types" of OC, or a dimensional approach, in which culture is described by a number of variables. The dimensional instruments have between 13 and 135 items and generally use a Likert-type scale (Scott, Mannion, Davies, & Marshall, 2003).

As information continued to be gathered from participants, it became clear that an instrument with a dimensional approach would be most suitable for use in the hotel industry. Also, as themes emerged from the fieldwork, correlations were made with dimensions identified by previous researchers and available in the literature. In the end, the PCOC developed by Maull *et al.* (2001) was selected as the most appropriate instrument for use as the framework for the questionnaire to be used in this study.

Maull *et al.* (2001) combined the cultural and climate elements and created the PCOC (Personal, Customer orientation, Organisational and Cultural issues) model which is presented in Figure 5.3.

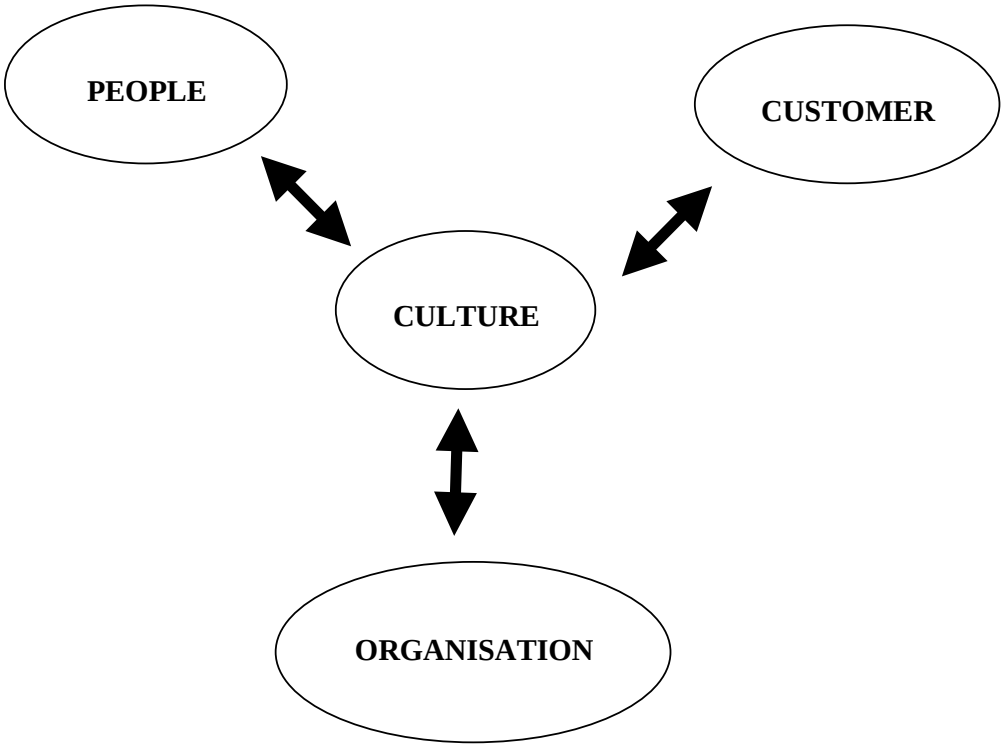

Figure 5.3: The PCOC (People, Customer orientation, Organisational and Cultural issues) model

[Source: Maull *et al.* (2001, p. 309, Figure 2)]

Figure 5.3 shows that, in their model, Maull *et al.* (2001) recognises that it is important to measure the impact of culture on the everyday operations and workings of the organisation, that is, how the organisation organizes itself, its relations with customers (both internal and external) and how the organisation treats staff. Maull *et al.* (2001) maintain that their model is a holistic one where culture plays the central role in bringing together the elements of organisational climate. This idea combined with knowledge that the PCOC examined both climate and culture and that it was designed to connect OC with quality improvement made this instrument relevant to this research and led to further consideration of the PCOC as the basis for this study. The dimensions developed by Maull *et al.* (2001) are comprehensive and are presented in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5: The elements of the PCOC model

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[Source: Maull ***et al.*** (2001, p. 309, Table 1)]

The thirteen elements of the PCOC model are measured by 100 items, each presented with five options ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. Maull *et al.* (2001) aimed to develop a cultural analysis model that companies could undertake before embarking on a total quality management (TQM) programmed. They argued that many companies undertaking TQM programmes have forgone the application of TQM tools and techniques in an attempt to align their TQM programme with the prevailing OC. This means that managers need to identify the OC (s) and tailor their TQM programmes to match that culture. Maull *et al*. (2001) sought to present a model of OC that could provide results for these managers by identifying areas that need development and focused intervention and can assist organisational and quality improvements. They applied the model in four separate business units of a financial services organisation and found that the model identified each unit as unique with its own particular work environment and culture. This outcome was valuable because it indicated that each unit would require its own individual change programme that matched its culture. Further, it identified problem areas that required key decisions to be made on a continual basis.

The PCOC was identified by the researcher as being most suitable for this research. First, it combined climate and culture. Second, while it was lengthy with 100 items, it appeared to be straightforward for respondents to fill in. Third, the elements identified by the PCOC had commonalities with dimensions in the service literature and were consistent with observations made by the researcher in the industry. Fourth, the PCOC was concerned with quality, as was this study. Fifth, it was structured into thirteen dimensions, which would facilitate groupings of themes that were emerging from discussions with individuals in the industry and academics. Hence, the PCOC questionnaire developed by Maull *et al.* (2001) was used as the backbone of the OCQ for this study.

5.4.3 Generating variables and items

As mentioned earlier, the identification of the variables to be used and the generation of items for the variables were conducted using three approaches. Initially, the literature was perused, especially existing questionnaires, to determine the constructs, variables and scales that were highlighted in previous writings and research on OC. Concurrently, discussions were held individually with frontline staff, supervisors and managers within the hotel industry. These discussions were based on ideas, issues and problems that had

emerged from the researcher's knowledge and experience of the industry and that were being identified by the researcher from the literature. As items emerged, they were used in focus groups with tertiary business students (from university and TAFE) to facilitate discussion. The discussions with students and hotel employees, supervisors and managers highlighted themes that were used in the development of the questionnaire. Commonalities between the literature and the discussions were used in developing the final questionnaire for this study.

Throughout the literature search, the PCOC (Personal, Customer orientation, Organisational and Cultural) questionnaire developed by Maull, Brown and Cliffe (2001) had emerged as a potential instrument to use for this study. Hence, Dr Roger Maull from the Department of Management at the University of Exeter (UK) was contacted in the hope of obtaining details of the PCOC. This contact led to correspondence with Paul Brown who forwarded the breakdown of the questionnaire. This was valuable because it allowed the researcher to identify the *a priori* structure of the PCOC instrument and facilitated the integration of the themes emerging from interviews and discussions with participants into a systematic format that became the framework of the OCQ used in this study.

While the research of Maull *et al.* (2001) is valuable and the approach taken is appropriate to this study, it was found that some modifications needed to be made to the questionnaire to fit the context of the hospitality industry. For example, Questions 7 and 19 from the PCOC read: *This organization balances the demands of work and personal/family demands* and *it is important to wear a suit in this organization*, respectively. The nature of hospitality work is such that it involves long and irregular hours and from the feedback provided by participants and from the researcher's experience, most hospitality organisations expect employees to balance the demands of work and personal or family life. As far as most hospitality organisations are concerned this is the employee's responsibility, not the organisations. Therefore, Question 7 was eliminated. Also, Cairns is a tropical region and it is very unusual to see managers, even general managers of hotels in a suit. Hence, Question 19 was eliminated. As questions from the PCOC were eliminated and participants identified other issues as important key themes, alternative

questions were developed that more accurately represented and depicted the hotel industry.

As the themes identified by participants were collated, it became apparent that some of the questions from the PCOC matched these themes. A table was set up with the thirteen PCOC elements as the backbone and the themes slotted into this framework along with statements from the participants and items from the literature. Items were drawn from studies by Maull *et al*. (2000), Jones and James (1979, 1989), O'Reilly *et al*. (1991), Schneider (1990), Vecchio (1995) and Deery (1999), Sureshchandar, Rajendran, and Anantharaman, (2001). Where respondents noted items that could not be identified from previous studies, these were accredited to respondents.

5.4.4 Pilot Study of OCQ

These initial items were collated into an OCQ for a pilot study. The purpose of this process was to assess the questionnaire for item wording, scaling and presentation format. Wording of items focused on tailoring the questionnaire for the hotel industry. For this pilot study, the OCQ was administered to five frontline staff, two hospitality managers, two academics and five hospitality students from James Cook University. Once the participants had completed the questionnaire, the researcher met with each participant on an individual basis to note their comments. Participants were asked to provide feedback on the following:

- Format & structure of questionnaire
- Length of questionnaire
- Wording, language and suitability to respondents
- Deletion of questions? Which ones?
- The addition of other questions
- The addition of new measures
- Ease of completion
- Clarity of instructions
- Terminology – appropriate, not too elaborate

Originally, the OCQ consisted of 144 questions. These were reduced to 96 statements with a consistent 7-point Likert anchored scale and sorted into 28 elements. Details of the items are discussed in the next section.

5.4.5 The Final OCQ

The four categories and most of the dimensions used by Maull *et al.* (2001) were retained. Table 5.6 shows the dimensions used in this study: Some dimensions were common to both studies (i.e. non-shaded areas); others were specific to this study (i.e. shaded areas). The table also shows from where in the literature these constructs emanated for the Maull *et al.* (2001) study.

Table 5.6: Dimensions used in this study of OC compared with those used by Maull *et al.* (2001)

Organisational culture
Values, Valued member, Stories
Broad tendencies to prefer certain states over others and are the deepest level of culture (Hofstede, 1980)
Rituals, The Social Club, Group membership
Collective activities which are considered socially essential (Hofstede, 1980)
Heroes, Senior management, Care & Concern
Persons who possess characteristics which are highly prized and are often "winners" or those who get on in an organisation (Hofstede, 1980)
Behaviours, Doing extra
The most overt element of culture and are there gestures, objects or words recognized by those who are part of the same organizational culture (Hofstede, 1980)
Personal Outcome
Work Satisfaction – Importance of job, Role ambiguity, Promotional opportunities, job variety, hotel politics
Issues that help to keep staff satisfied in their jobs, focusing at job, departmental and organizational levels (McNabb & Sepic, 1995)
Team Spirit, Workgroup conflict
Concerns interactions between employees and their coworkers (Milliman, Czaplewski & Ferguson, 2003)
Getting job done, Being equal, Training
The extent of sufficient resources necessary to fulfil the responsibilities or the assigned job (Iverson, Olekalns, & Erwin, 1998).

Customer orientation
Service delivery to internal and external customers
Understanding customers, their requirements and the concept of the internal customer (British Quality Foundation, 1995)
Organizational issues
Communications, Grapevine
Issues of formal and informal channels of communications as well as interdepartmental communications (Dastmalchian, Blyton, & Adamson, 1991)
Power Structure
The sharing or otherwise of power and responsibility (Kim, Pindur, & Reynolds, 1995)
Relationships and processes
The process management philosophy and how demarcation issues relating to processes which flow between departments are resolved (British Quality Foundation, 1995)
Planning and decision making, Organisational philosophies
The importance of planning for the future (Kim *et al.*, 1995; British Quality Foundation, 1995)

Table 5.6 shows that most of the dimensions used by Maull *et al.* (2001) were retained in the final OCQ. However, in the generation of items to fit these dimensions, items from studies other than Maull *et al*. (2000) were in some cases considered to be more suitable. This was because of the wording of the items, its suitability to the hospitality industry, or it was not included in Maull *et al*. (2000) but was considered necessary for this study. Items were drawn from studies by Maull *et al*. (2000), Jones and James (1979, 1989), O'Reilly *et al*. (1991), Schneider (1990), Vecchio (1995) and Deery (1999), Sureshchandar, Rajendran, and Anantharaman, (2001). Where respondents noted items that could not be identified from previous studies, these were accredited to respondents. In the following the importance of each dimension to this study is considered and the corresponding items are noted.

Values

Questions 1 to 11 related to values. In the OC literature, values are seen as an important element of OC and so, questions relating to values were included. Schermerhorn, Hunt, and Osborn (1995) note, "*shared values* can play a critical part in linking people together and can provide a powerful motivational mechanism for members of the culture" (p. 254). Vecchio *et al.* (1996) maintain that norms and values are at the heart of OC. They define

norms as, “expectations for the behaviour of the orgnaisation’s members” and values as, “preferences among activities and outcomes” (p. 704). Robbins (1998) adds that values are important because they influence attitudes and behaviour. Maull *et al*. (2000) use Hofstede’s (1980) definition for values. Aspects that are identified by Maull *et al*. (2001) as reflecting values include loyalty, respect, pride, customer service, continuous improvement, stories, family commitments and fair treatment of employees. Themes that were identified by participants were similar to these and included loyalty, respect, approachability, pride, professional espirit de corps, stories that depict the values of the organisation, and feelings of being a valued member. Vecchio (1995) remarks that organisational stories can convey themes that embody the values of the organisation. He points out that ‘stories’ can have either positive or negative connotations and can be used to control or induce certain feelings in employees. Robbins (1998) adds, “Stories anchor the present in the past and provide explanations and legitimacy for current practices” (p. 610). Questions 1 to 11 from the OCQ relate to values and are presented in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7: Scale for Values Dimension

Question number	Item	Authors
01	My loyalty to the organization is fairly rewarded.	Maull *et al*. (2000)
02	I am treated with respect from my immediate supervisors and mangers.	Participants
03	Employees respect each other and value each other’s contributions.	Vecchio (1995)
04	Supervisors and managers are friendly and easy to approach..	Jones & James (1979)
05	I am proud to work for this organization.	Maull *et al*. (2000)
06	This hotel inspires me to perform well.	Deery (1999)
07	I would recommend this hotel to a prospective staff member.	Jones & James (1979)
08	People talk about things that have happened in the past in this organization.	Maull *et al*. (2000)
09	There are favourite stories about employees (past & present) who have worked for this hotel.	Deery (1999)
10	I feel that I am a valued member of this organization.	Maull *et al*. (2000)
11	Employees who make outstanding contributions on the job are recognized by the organization.	Participants

Rituals

Much of the literature on OC, states that rituals are a key characteristic of OC. Vecchio (2000) states that organisational rituals are key factors in the development and maintenance of OC. Robbins (1998) defines rituals as, "repetitive sequences of activities that express and reinforce the key values of the organisation, what goals are most important, which people are important and which are expendable" (p. 610). An example of this would be the rituals associated with awarding Employee of the Month. Maull *et al.* (2001) use Hofstede's (1980) conceptualization of rituals to define the construct and related rituals to meetings, induction of new employees and celebrations. Factors identified as rituals by participants were attendance at meetings, induction of new employees, big events (e.g. Christmas Party, Employee of the Month) and the social club. Out of this area, arose issues relating to group membership and the existence of cliques. Questions 12 to 21 were concerned with rituals and are presented in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8: Scale for Rituals Dimension

Question number	Item	Authors
12	I always attend meetings that concern me.	Participants
13	New employees are trained on-the-job by supervisors and/or managers.	Maull *et al.* (2000)
14	Most employees play an active role in helping new employees.	Vecchio (1995)
15	In this organization we regularly celebrate (morning tea, dinner, parties) our achievements (e.g. long term employment such as 5 to 10 years).	Deery (1999)
16	I feel that big organizational events (e.g. Christmas Party) are an important part of the organization.	Vecchio (1995)
17	Most staff involves themselves in the social club.	Vecchio (1995)
18	Events organized by the social club are greeted with enthusiasm and support by all members.	Vecchio (1995)
19	Non-members are welcome to attend social club events.	Vecchio (1995)
20	Apart form big organization events, for most employees, the workplace is the only place that employees meet and socialize.	Vecchio (1995)
21	Cliques are a common part of the workplace here.	Vecchio (1995)

Heroes

Hofstede (1980) recognizes that heroes are an important part of culture. He defines heroes as people who possess characteristics, which are highly valued and are often "winners" or those people who succeed in an organisation. Often, managers and supervisors are in positions to be viewed as heroes. Their leadership can make them heroes. Much has been written in the hospitality literature about managers providing leadership. For example, Nebel and Stearns (1977) explored the leadership styles of supervisors in the American hotel and restaurant industry and found that the most effective style of management leadership was a task-oriented style. By contrast, Keegan (1983) surveyed managers in the hotel and restaurant industry and found that effective managers were conscious of the need for, and the trend towards, a more human relations style of leadership. Keegan (1983) argued that managerial leadership should adopt a more behavioural approach in which managers are characterized as being personal, participative and supportive. This was echoed by participants who emphasised the participative and supportive roles of managers. They also mentioned individuals who had been instrumental in the career they had pursued and the experience they had gained while in the industry. Participants repetitively stressed the influence of supervisors and managers on their behaviour and performance in the workplace. Maull *et al.* (2000) recognized heroes as an important aspect of OC and use it as a dimensions. In light of these points, it was considered appropriate to include some questions on people in the workplace being heroes. Questions 22 to 30 were concerned with heroes and are presented in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9: Scale for Heroes Dimension

Question Number	Item	Authors
22	This organization cares about the needs of its employees.	Participants
23	My supervisors do not seem to care about their employees.	Vecchio (1995)
24	My supervisors can be relied on for support when things get difficult at work.	Deery (1999)
25	My supervisors and managers are tolerant and provide valuable constructive feedback to help employees deal with their job-related problems and/or mistakes.	Vecchio (1995)
26	The General Manager makes an effort to know employees' names.	Vecchio (1995)
27	The General Manager greets all employees he/she meets during the day.	Vecchio (1995)
28	Senior managers take time to talk informally to employees.	Maull *et al*. (2000)
29	Employees generally trust their supervisors and managers.	Jones & James (1979)
30	Everything in this hotel is checked; individual judgment is not trusted.	Jones & James (1979)

Behaviours

Individuals' behaviour in organisations can be governed by the routines and rewards an organisation fosters. Schneider (1990) highlights the significance of routines and rewards to the culture of the organisation. Schneider (1990) defines climate as:

> The incumbents' perceptions of the events, practices, and procedures and the kinds of behaviors that get rewarded, supported, and expected in a setting. Events, practices, and procedures of organizations have been referred to … as the *routines* of a setting … (and) the behaviors that get rewarded, supported, and expected the *rewards* of the setting … the many routines and rewards of a setting are not only perceived by incumbents but … incumbents attach meaning to these routines and rewards … The meanings attached to the routines and rewards communicate a message to employees about what it is that is valued in the setting. Thus the routines and rewards serve a signaling and focusing function, signaling the outcomes

> that are valued in the setting and focusing energies and competencies on the attainment of those outcomes. (p. 384)

This definition points out the role of routines and rewards in mirroring the values of organisations. The literature on organisational behaviour is littered with information relating to the importance of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards on the motivation of employees (e.g. Robbins, 1998; Vecchio *et al*., 1996). It follows, then, that since organisations' values are displayed through the rewards they present to their staff and that through their reward systems they can motivate staff. Similarly, the routines emphasized and maintained by organisations reflect the values they uphold. Written prescriptions can delineate individuals' responsibilities and performance and the routines upheld in theory (Vecchio *et al.*, 1996) and the level of control exerted by the organisation (Robbins, 1998). The dimensions of 'Behaviours' and 'Work Satisfaction' as identified by Maull *et al.* (2001) were concerned with dress, established procedures, and pay and bonus. In this study, behaviours related to acceptable standards of work, policies and procedures, rules and regulations, and innovation. Participants agreed that factors such as rewards, policies and procedures influenced their behaviour and performance in the workplace. They also indicated that excessive rules and regulations could hinder their work and that they should be more empowered to deliver service. Questions 31 to 40 from the OCQ addressed behaviour and are presented in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10: Scale for Behaviours Dimension

Question number	Item	Author
31	My supervisors and managers set good examples by working to high standards themselves.	Participants
32	We are required to meet high standards of quality in our work.	Jones & James (1979)
33	Most of the staff are very thorough and really pay attention to detail.	Vecchio (1995)
34	Most of the staff just do the bare minimum and do not go beyond their duties.	Vecchio (1995)
35	People in this organization pursue a high standard of excellence.	Participants
36	My department has established policies and procedures that everyone follows precisely.	Maull *et al*. (2000)
37	Things in this hotel proceed in line with the set rules and regulations.	Jones & James (1979)
38	Supervisors and managers listen to employees' new ideas for job-related problems.	Maull *et al*. (2000)
39	Supervisors and managers allow employees to put into action their new ideas.	Maull *et al*. (2000)
40	The right people are recruited/hired/promoted to do the job required.	Maull *et al*. (2000)

Work Satisfaction

Work satisfaction is a job-related attitude that appears consistently in the organisational behaviour literature. Robbins (1998) defines job satisfaction as, "a general attitude toward one's job" (p. 142) and notes that employees' assessments of job satisfaction are "a complex summation of a number of discrete job elements" (p. 151). McNabb and Sepic (1995) consider job satisfaction in light of issues that affect employees at various levels: job, departmental and organisational. Vecchio *et al.* (1996) discuss the importance of job satisfaction and its relation to employees' well-being, turnover and absenteeism. Maull *et al*. (2000) found that work satisfaction was related to enthusiasm about the job, promotional opportunities, role ambiguity and conflict, job variety, and hotel politics. These factors were also raised by participants as being critical to job satisfaction. Questions 41 to 55 of the OCQ address these factors and are presented in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11: Scale for Work Satisfaction Dimension

Question number	Item	Author
41	I really enjoy working within my department.	Participants
42	I am enthusiastic about my job.	Deery (1999)
43	This organization provides opportunities for professional growth and development.	Jones & James (1979)
44	Everybody has an individual development plan through which they can improve their skills and knowledge.	Maull *et al*. (2000)
45	This hotel provides good opportunities for promotion.	Deery (1999)
46	Hotel 'politics' count in getting a promotion in this organization.	Jones & James (1979)
47	My job responsibilities are clearly defined and in know what is expected of me.	Participants
48	I have the opportunities to complete the work I start.	Jones & James (1979)
49	Excessive rules and regulations interfere with how well I am able to do my job.	Jones & James (1979)
50	I find my job reasonably challenging.	Participants
51	There is variety in my job.	Jones & James (1979)
52	I consider my work to be important to the success of the organization.	Participants
53	I have opportunities to make effective use of my knowledge and skills in my job.	Jones & James (1979)
54	There are opportunities to learn new worthwhile skills and knowledge in my job.	Jones & James (1979)
55	My job provides opportunity for independent thought and action, i.e. I can use my own initiative or judgment on how I go about doing my work.	Jones & James (1979)

Team Spirit

The behaviour and performance of individuals in the workplace and their work satisfaction can be affected by the presence of other individuals. Robbins (1998) recognizes that teams can be used as a "central device to coordinate work activities" (p. 493) and that they generate "positive synergy through coordinated effort" (p. 286). He acknowledges that team spirit concerns high interaction among team members and involves trust and openness. Berger and Vanger (1986) stress the importance in the hospitality industry of people being able to work together. They note that hospitality is a

people industry and that a successful team will improve employees' productivity. Robbins (1998) agrees that work teams result in higher levels of productivity. He also adds to the list for values of teams: Increased employee motivation and satisfaction, improved communication, expanded job skills and organisational flexibility. In contrast, it is recognized that workplace conflict can be a serious and damaging problem in organisations, affecting morale and performance (Robbins, 1998). Conflict can be a positive force in a group but it is the dysfunctional conflict that hinders group performance, which is of concern here.

Hospitality operations rely on group-based activities. Mullins (1995, p. 283) explains that "how people behave and perform as a member of a group is as important as their behaviour or performance as individuals." In particular, he notes the importance of teamwork. Simmons and Teare (1993) support this view and provide examples of teamwork at all levels of Scott's Hotels, e.g. quality improvement teams and action teams. Mullins (1995) acknowledges that teamwork impacts on staff morale, reduction of workgroup conflict and customer satisfaction. Participants also ranked teamwork very highly and stressed its importance to the hospitality industry and so, its inclusion was important in this study. Factors considered by Maull *et al*. (2000) as relevant to work satisfaction were: pay and bonus, enthusiasm toward work, communication, training, availability of resources, and receptiveness of new ideas. Questions 56 to 61 address the issues of team spirit and workgroup conflict and are presented in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12: Scale for Team Spirit Dimension

Question number	Item	Author
56	There is a real sense of team spirit within my department.	Vecchio (1995)
57	Employees view tasks as "everyone for himself or herself".	Vecchio (1995)
58	A friendly atmosphere prevails among most of the members of my workgroup.	Jones & James (1979)
59	A spirit of cooperation exists in my workgroup.	Jones & James (1979)
60	There is friction in my workgroup.	Jones & James (1979)
61	Morale within our department is good.	Participants

Getting the Job Done

Staff is a vital resource. Optimizing their contribution is important to organisational performance. The performance, productivity and retention of employees can be dependent on a number of factors. Some of the factors highlighted in the organisational behaviour literature include: existence of equipment, supplies and facilities that allow delivery of quality service; managerial behaviour which recognizes and rewards service excellence; existence of policies and procedures that articulate standards of service excellence; concerns about equity; and, training (e.g. Robbins, 1998; Schneider & Bowen, 1993; Vecchio *et al*., 1996).

Training is necessary to enhancement of knowledge and skills and ensuring staff's technical and social competence. The literature highlights the benefits of training to both individuals and organisations. Mullins (1995, p. 197) states that training "is a key element in the morale, job satisfaction and commitment of staff, and in improved delivery of service and customer relationships." Training was an aspect that participants felt was critical to 'getting the job done' and so, questions relating to it were included in this section.

Concerns about equity include perceptions about the fairness of recruitment and selection, rewards, job supervision and promotion rules. Jameson (1999) found that the approach to recruitment and training in the tourism and hospitality industry was characterised by informality and a relatively unsophisticated management style. Haynes and Freyer (2000) discuss the negative impacts of such an approach on the delivery of quality services and emphasise the importance of strong human resource practices with key areas of intervention that include training, communication, empowerment, and performance appraisal. McGunnigle and Jameson (2000) agree and add recruitment and selection, training and development, reward systems and employee involvement or empowerment to the list. Hence, this section also includes questions relating to other factors that impact on getting the job done, such as provision of necessary resources to complete the tasks required, equity in staff treatment and feedback through rewards and performance incentives. Questions 62 to 72 were concerned with getting the job done and are presented in Table 5.13.

Table 5.13: Scale for Getting the Job Done Dimension

Question number	Item	Author
62	Procedures are designed so that resources are used efficiently.	Jones & James (1979)
63	I have and/or am able to get the required supplies, tools and equipment to do my job effectively and efficiently.	Participants
64	Supervisors and managers within the department make every effort to treat everyone equally.	Vecchio (1995)
65	Only those who socialize with the right people within the organization are given special consideration or treatment.	Vecchio (1995)
66	Most members of the organisation make every effort to make everyone feel equal.	Vecchio (1995)
67	Supervisors use the rewards they have (such as praise, performance appraisals) to let people know when they have done a good job.	Schneider & Bowen (1985)
68	Reward systems, performance incentives, promotion criteria and other measures of success are fair.	Deery (1999)
69	I received adequate departmental on-the-job-training to assist me in doing my job properly.	Participants
70	Employees are not only encouraged but they are paid to attend training programmes.	Vecchio (1995)
71	Supervisors and/or managers always make the individual aware of how well he/she is performing his/her job.	Jones & James (1979)

Service Delivery

In hospitality, the quality of service delivery is crucial to customer satisfaction. Parasuraman, Berry and Zeithaml (1991) recognized that competitive advantage can be gained through delivering high quality services. Many other authors have agreed on the importance of quality service in hospitality (e.g. Kandampully, Mok, & Sparks, 2001; Olsen, Teare, & Gummesson, 1996; Walker, 1996). Wuest (2001, p. 54) states that "Service quality is the result of a complex network of several dimensions (and) A variety of factors have been identified as contributing to service quality." According to Parasuraman *et al.* (1991), the service dimensions of service quality are reliability, tangibles, responsiveness, assurance and empathy. Gronroos (1984) proposes that service quality consists of three components: technical quality, functional quality and image. The technical quality represents the tangible dimension of the service encounter, e.g. the hotel room or the restaurant meal. The intangible dimensions of the service interaction, e.g. the

attitude, knowledge and skills of the staff, characterize functional quality. Gronroos (1984) argues that technical and functional qualities contribute to the creation of the third component, an image in the customer's mind of the service experience.

Enz and Siguaw (2000) assessed a dozen lodging operations to identify how these organisations excelled in enhancing service. They found that one of the key factors was to foster a strong service culture that focused on training, development and empowerment of service personnel. They reason that a service culture supports customer service through policies, procedures, reward systems and action. Similarly, Schneider (1987) notes that organisational structures, processes and technology influence employees' "attitudes, feelings, experiences, meanings, and behaviors" (p. 451). Questions 73 to 78 were developed from themes mentioned by participants and are consistent with these aspects of service quality discussed in the literature. They address issues such as friendly and efficient customer service, empowerment, adequate resources for provision of service quality, and responding to customer complaints. The focus of these questions was different to that of Maull *et al.* (2001), who considered interdepartmental cooperation, policies and procedures, meeting customer needs, internal customers, and the cost of quality as important factors relating to service delivery. Questions 73 to 78 are presented in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14: Scale for Service Delivery Dimension

Question number	Item	Author
73	This hotel has a good reputation for providing friendly, efficient customer service.	Schneider & Bowen (1985)
74	In my workplace, employees are given the authority to make decisions or take action, within reason, to meet our customers' needs.	Participants
75	This organization is committed to providing outstanding customer service.	Participants
76	I have access to necessary and adequate resources (e.g. tools, equipment) so as to provide good customer service.	Sureshchandar *et al*. (2001).
77	There is adequate staff for the provision of good customer service.	Sureshchandar *et al*. (2001).
78	All employees pay serious attention to and respond to complaints from guests.	Vecchio (1995)

Communication

Questions 79 to 84 consider the formal and informal channels of communication. Berger and Vanger (1986) argue that teamwork also relies on communication. Mullins (1995) adds that communication is an all-pervasive, complex concept that affects every aspect of people's lives. Pincus (1986) notes that supervisors and managers should be aware of their employees' perceptions of openness in communication and 'receptivity' because these can affect employees' job satisfaction. Authors in the quality literature stress the importance of communication. Williams and Buswell (2003, p. 195)) state that "a quality culture requires the process of communicating to be seen as more than a technique but a part of the values and ways of working". Tourish and Tourish (1997) add that communication is vital in generating trust and cooperation, promoting positive attitudes and behaviour and providing feedback. The participants supported these views and so communication was included in this study.

Dastmalchian, Blyton, and Adamson (1991) acknowledge the importance of communications to an organisation's ecology. Mullins (1995, p. 345) support this contention and add, "effective communication is an essential requirement of the numerous formal and informal contacts that occur each day in hospitality organisations between managers and staff, or with customers". Patterns of communication are said to reinforce culture (Mullins, 1995). Participants recognized communication as a "two-way channel' where managers and supervisors relay appropriate information to staff in a timely and clear way so that employees can carry out their work. Questions 79 and 80 related to these comments. Participants also felt that it was important that communication channels allow employees to communicate upwards, if necessary. For example, if staff has a complaint, they can voice their concerns freely and without impediments. Information gained from the interviews also indicated that informal channels, such as the grapevine, relayed most information. Maull *et al.* (2001) also mentioned the presence of the "grapevine" in their questionnaire. Other factors they included in this section were: team meetings, senior managers communicating informally with staff and upward communication. Items for the communication scale are covered by Questions 79 to 84 and are presented in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15: Scale for Communication Dimension

Question number	Item	Author
79	Supervisors and managers share the appropriate information with employees so that we can do our job properly.	Participants
80	Job-related changes are communicated clearly and timely to all concerned employees.	Participants
81	Channels for employees to express complaints are readily available.	Vecchio (1995)
82	The goals, objectives and policies of the hotel are clearly defined for everyone to know and understand.	Jones & James (1979)
83	Important information comes from the "grapevine" rather than formal communication channels.	Maull *et al*. (2000)
84	Communication is hindered by following chain of command rules.	Jones & James (1979)

Power Structure

Kim, Pindur, and Reynolds (1995) acknowledge the power structure within the overall framework of organisations. Mullins (1995, p. 67) notes that structure provides the framework for order, command and so, power by which tasks and responsibilities, work roles and relationships, and authority are guided and established. Maull *et al*. (2000) focused on the power of departments and empowerment of employees. Participants also raised the issue of managers' ability to pass on responsibility and power. In hospitality there is high level of reliance on the initiative of front-line workers in service delivery and hence, empowerment of staff is an important issue for managers to consider. Questions 85 and 86 presented in Table 5.16 relate to power structure.

Table 5.16: Scale for Power Structure Dimension

Question number	Item	Author
85	People in this organization are controlled and organized through job descriptions, work rules, direction of activities and so on.	Participants
86	Managers are prepared to pass on responsibility and power.	Maull *et al*. (2000)

Relationships & Processes

As roles and responsibilities are defined, the development of relationships relating to processes which flow between different areas of the organization become important (British Quality Foundation, 1995). The hotel industry is renowned for the prevalence of inter-departmental conflict (Dann & Hornsey, 1994). Participants supported this view and referred to the classic divisions between front-of-house and back-of-house (e.g. restaurant and kitchen brigades) and between departments (e.g. front office and food and beverage). Mullins (1995, p. 294) points out that "receptionists see themselves as a high-status group whilst other positions such as kitchen porters carry a distinct stigma." Maull *et al.* (2001) recognized the importance of relationships and process. Likewise, this study addresses inter-departmental relationships and processes through Questions 87 and 88 and are presented in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17: Scale for Relationships and Processes Dimension

Question number	Item	Author
87	Generally, there are friendly and cooperative relationships between the different departments of the hotel.	Jones & James (1979)
88	Problems over cross-functional or inter-departmental processes are resolved to everyone's satisfaction.	Maull *et al*. (2000)

Planning & Decision-Making

Associated with power structure, relationships and process, there is the importance of planning and decision-making within organisations (Kim *et al*., 1995). Maull *et al.* (2001) considered planning and strategy, who in the organisation make the decisions relating to these issues (e.g. senior managers only) and what factors are taken into account in making these decisions (e.g. long-term factors, the market place and competitors). These factors were also considered pertinent to the hospitality industry. Participants form the hotel industry, related planning and decision-making to issues of empowerment. Ford and Fotler (1995, pp. 21-22) define empowerment as a process "of 'directed autonomy' whereby employees are given an overall direction yet considerable leeway concerning how they go

about following that direction". Shimko (1994, p. 19) emphasizes that frontline hospitality employees often find "themselves in situations that demand they make spur-of-the-moment decisions." Worsfold (1987) acknowledged that the general management style in the hospitality industry was autocratic. Kandampully (2002, p. 251) adds that traditionally hospitality organisations, like other service organisations, have "rigid policies, structures, and systems" that foster "a feeling of disempowerment". These factors suggest that planning and decision-making in the hospitality industry may be restricted to employees in management position. In this study, questions 89 to 92 related to planning and decision-making. These questions are concerned with the currency of plans and decisions and whether decisions are reached through consultation. They are presented in Table 5.18.

Table 5.18: Scale for Planning & Decision-Making Dimension

Question number	Item	Author
89	In my department, all staff are involved in continuously reviewing and improving processes.	Participants
90	Changes within my department are normally made through consultation.	Maull *et al*. (2000)
91	This hotel strives to do a better job than other hotels of the same type.	Jones & James (1979)
92	The methods and practices of my work are kept up-to-date.	Jones & James (1979)
93	Budget pressures have no impact on decisions being made.	Maull *et al*. (2000)
94	The mission of this organization is promoted and made known to everyone.	Maull *et al*. (2000)
95	This organization has a clear guiding philosophy that unites all staff under a common goal.	O'Reilly *et al.* (1991)
96	In this organization, there is a preference for continuous improvement.	Maull *et al*. (2000)

Table 5.18 also shows questions relating to organisational philosophies. The organisation's philosophies determine the "the common doctrine and codes of behaviour which guide the hotel in its dealings with others and the conduct of its operations" (Mullins, 1995, p. 19). It also influences the behaviour and performance of staff. Policies and procedures communicate the organisation's philosophies to its staff. For example, in the hospitality industry, the provision of quality service is critical to customer satisfaction. Organisations, such as the Ritz Carlton, that are guided by philosophies that support a quality service culture (e.g. by empowering staff) enhance their provision of service.

Maull *et al.* (2001) acknowledged the importance of employees knowing and understanding the mission and vision of the organisation. This study also recognized the guiding principles of organisational philosophies and addressed this through questions 93 to 96. Several participants expressed concern that often profit motives permeated organisations' philosophies and influenced decisions. Question 93 sought to explicate respondents' feelings on this issue.

Open Response Question

The final statement in the OCQ was an open-ended question, which asked respondents to describe the culture of their organisation. It was anticipated that this would allow respondents to elaborate on the issues raised in the questionnaire or mention any issues that had not been included in the questionnaire.

5.5 The Pilot Study

When the questionnaire was in its final format, it was piloted. For this pilot study, the entire questionnaire with all three parts, i.e. the SPI, the Employee Demographics and the OCQ, was administered to seven frontline staff, three hospitality managers, two academics and five students from the Tropical North Queensland Institute of TAFE. Participants were asked to make comments as in the pilot study for the OCQ (5.4.4).

5.6 The Final Instrument

The final questionnaire consisted of three parts: the SPI, Employee Demographics and the OCQ. It is presented in Appendix 5.1.

5.7 Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to outline the development of the questionnaire used in this study. The first step was to refine the SPI and adjust it to suit the hotel industry. Second, the demographics section was reviewed so as to identify the characteristics of the research sample and provide information that was considered to be useful in this study. Third, the OCQ was developed and finalised. This latter part constituted a major part of the research process and was detailed in this chapter.

This chapter reviewed instruments extant in the literature and discussed the selection of the PCOC (Maull *et al*., 2000) as the framework for the OCQ used in this study. Existing questionnaires, such as the PCOC, are particularly relevant to assessing OC in the hospitality industry. In order to develop an instrument that captured the essence of OC in hospitality, comments were sought from key individuals, such as frontline staff, supervisors, managers, and academics (i.e. participants). This led to the identification of themes similar to the PCOC and resulted in the use of the PCOC as the backbone of the OCQ. Other themes emerged from discussions with participants. Some of these were consistent with items found in the literature, in which case the authors were acknowledged. Themes mentioned by participants and not found in the literature were credited to participants. Themes identified were layered with the PCOC and resulted in twelve dimensions addressed by 96 items, each on a seven point Likert-scale. Concurrently, the OC and hospitality literature was perused to determine the theoretical underpinning for dimensions established in this study. This information was used as the rationale for scale development of each dimension.

Once the questionnaire was developed and pilot tested, the final version was administered. The following five chapters discuss the quantitative results obtained from implementation of the questionnaire. Chapter 6 presents the demographic findings for the research sample.

CHAPTER 6

DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF THE RESEARCH SAMPLE

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents data describing the characteristics of the research sample. It aims to assess how these characteristics relate to the profile of hotel workers as described in the literature and so, discusses the representativeness of the group and the limitations of the research sample. According to some researchers, demographic items can provide valuable insight into results obtained in the main analysis and can be examined in a separate section (e.g. Davidson, 2000; Deery, 1999; Price & Mueller, 1986). This thesis follows the process adopted by Price and Mueller (1986). Demographic variables considered in this chapter include: gender, age, marital status, current department, employment status, tenure, overall tenure in hospitality, education, other jobs, provision of training, why working in hospitality, intention to stay in hospitality, enjoy working in hospitality and job satisfaction. The main analysis of the data is descriptive. However, inferential statistical analyses are also used to obtain information that may prove useful in understanding the characteristics of employees and the workplace.

6.2 Characteristics of the Research Sample

6.2.1 Demographics

The usefulness of results is a valuable feature of any research and in this study, the similarities between the six separate hotels is a point of interest. Hence, the demographic composition of the total research group is examined so as to shed some light on the characteristics of the hotel industry and the generalisability of these results is assessed. While there is a dearth of official statistics on the hotel labour force specifically, official statistics available on the tourism industry from the Industry Commission (1996) provides a picture of the workforce as:

- Young and female
- With a relatively high proportion of casual and part-time employees

- With a relatively high proportion of jobs being low-skilled
- Having low levels of formal educational qualifications
- With a mobile workforce that exhibits high turnover rates.

The description supplied by the Industry Commission is of the tourism industry as a collective. However, because the hospitality industry is such an integral component of the tourism industry, the description can be considered as an appropriate depiction of the hotel industry workforce.

Clark (1991) presents similar statistics for the service industry, stating that women occupy 67% of frontline service jobs. Likewise, Powers (1995) concedes that both young people and women have substantially contributed to the part-time and seasonal workforce in hospitality. He predicts that the workforce will become increasingly diverse in terms of education, skill level, abilities as well as gender, age, place of birth and ethnic background. Christensen (1993, p. 83) adds that there are benefits to having a diverse workforce:

> **Within the hospitality industry, the ability to attract and retain the highest quality employees, improve responsiveness to consumer needs, enhance creativity and innovation, and continually improve operating efficiencies is becoming essential for survival. Companies that *value* diversity will best be able to meet this challenge.**

Guerrier and Adib (2000) observe that there are patterns by gender, age and ethnicity in the hospitality industry. They agree that the industry employs mainly women and young people. Traditionally men have filled the roles of chefs and waiters while women have assumed roles of room attendants and breakfast waitress. While women constitute a great part of the industry workforce they fill the less skilled roles as room attendants and food and beverage attendants. There are a greater percentage of men in the skilled jobs (e.g. chefs) and in managerial roles.

In writing about the workforce in the USA, Lucas (1995) mentions that employees from ethnic minority and migrant groups generally fill the least skilled jobs. While this may be of interest it is not pursued in this study. These people generally have limited education and can only obtain unskilled work initially. Lucas (1995) notes that the majority of workers employed in the hospitality industry are unskilled, semi-skilled or skilled manual workers.

Demographic questions discussed in this section relate to gender, age, marital status, current department, employment status, tenure, overall tenure, always in hospitality, other departments, other industry, education and intention to stay. These questions are used to obtain a profile of respondents in the sample and to assess their representativeness, where possible, of the hospitality industry as portrayed in the literature. Other questions, more attitudinal type questions such as intention to stay, from the Employees' Details section of the questionnaire will be discussed later in this chapter.

While descriptive statistics were principally used, analysis of data includes cross tabulations of demographic items and key frequencies are presented in Appendix 6.1. As noted in Chapter 4, the data set was found to be non-normally distributed. Hence, non-parametric tests, such as chi-square, were utilized.

In examining cross tabs for demographic items, chi-square analysis was returned with warnings of cells with less than five as the expected frequency. As one of the assumptions of chi-square is that when degrees of freedom equal 1, each expected frequency for each cell should be at least 5 (Cooper & Emery, 1995; Norusis, 1993). A two by two table has one degree of freedom and so, need to abide by the above assumption. Hence, some relationships between demographic items and attitudinal variables were assessed using correlation analysis. Cooper and Emery (1995) advise the use of nonparametric analyses with nominal and ordinal data. Most of the demographic data was nominal or ordinal, so Spearman's rho correlation was used and these are presented later in the chapter.

The relationship between demographic variables and hotels, was explored using Kruskal-Wallis tests were employed. These tests use one-way analysis of variance by ranks. It was reasoned that any variations found in the data could be useful in interpreting outcomes from the SPI and organisational culture (OC) data sets. For example, if SPI and organisational variables were significantly different between hotels, inferential statistical comparisons could determine if demographics can explain some of the differences.

6.2.2 Gender

Table 6.1 presents a profile of the respondents from all hotels.

Table 6.1 Demographic profile of respondents.

Characteristics of Respondents	Frequency Percentage						
	Hotel						Total
	A	B	C	D	E	F	
Gender							
Male	45.0	34.0	23.3	27.5	48.8	33.3	**36.2**
Female	55.0	66.0	76.7	72.5	51.2	67.1	**63.8**
Age							
15-20	5.0	14.0	9.3	5.0	-	-	**6.3**
21-40	85.0	80.0	72.1	85.0	74.4	83.3	**79.9**
41-60	10.0	6.0	18.6	10.0	25.6	16.7	**13.8**
Marital Status							
Married	26.7	22.0	23.3	12.5	27.9	38.9	**24.0**
Defacto	20.0	10.0	27.9	35.0	23.3	27.8	**22.8**
Single	53.3	68.0	48.8	52.5	48.8	33.3	**53.1**
Current Department							
Front Office	38.3	44.0	48.8	42.5	48.8	38.9	**43.7**
Food & Beverage	61.7	56.0	51.2	57.5	51.2	61.1	**56.3**
Employment status							
Full-time	50.0	18.0	27.9	22.5	48.1	72.2	**38.6**
Part-time	50.0	32.0	14.0	17.5	11.6	22.2	**26.8**
Casual	0.00	50.0	58.1	60.0	30.2	5.6	**34.6**
Tenure							
0-6 months	35.0	14.0	9.3	30.0	11.6	11.1	**20.1**
7-11 months	10.0	22.0	7.0	2.5	7.0	5.6	**9.8**
1-2 years	26.7	38.0	39.5	45.0	39.5	16.7	**35.4**
3-4 years	18.3	26.0	34.9	22.5	39.5	50.0	**30.7**
5-10 years	8.3	-	9.3	-	2.3	11.1	**3.2**
> 10 years	1.7	-	-	-	-	5.6	**0.8**
Overall Tenure in Hospitality							
0-6 months	6.7	6.0	4.7	-	4.7	-	**4.3**
7-11 months	5.0	2.0	-	-	4.7	5.6	**2.0**
1-2 years	10.0	24.0	18.6	25.0	20.9	5.6	**15.4**
3-4 years	31.7	46.0	34.9	50.0	30.2	38.9	**41.7**
5-10 years	26.7	10.0	20.9	7.5	20.9	27.8	**18.5**
> 10 years	20.0	12.0	20.9	17.5	18.6	22.2	**18.1**
Always Worked in Hospitality							
Yes	48.3	46.0	65.1	60.0	34.9	50.0	**50.4**
No	51.7	54.0	34.9	40.0	65.1	50.0	**49.6**

Characteristics of Respondents	Frequency (Percentage)						
	Hotel						Total
	A	B	C	D	E	F	
Other Departments Worked in							
Front Office	13.3	6.0	14.0	10.0	9.3	27.8	**11.8**
Food & Beverage	30.0	24.0	39.5	30.0	9.3	5.6	**25.2**
Housekeeping	1.7	4.0	2.3	7.5	2.3	16.7	**2.4**
Other Industries Worked In							
Overall	50.0	50.0	37.2	40.0	69.8	50.0	**49.6**
Retail	25.0	26.0	25.6	27.5	16.3	11.1	**23.2**
Health	3.3	-	-	2.5	7.0	11.1	**3.1**
Teaching	6.7	-	-	-	7.0	5.6	**3.1**
Manufacturing	1.7	4.0	-	2.5	7.0	5.6	**3.1**
Tours	1.7	4.0	2.3	2.5	9.3	5.6	**3.9**
Car sales	1.7	2.0	-	2.5	-	5.6	**1.6**
Shipping	1.7	2.0	-	-	2.3	-	**1.2**
Motor	1.7	2.0	-	-	-	-	**0.8**
Office work	5.0	2.0	-	-	11.6	-	**3.5**
Pharmacy	3.3	-	-	-	-	-	**0.8**
Entertainment	1.7	-	-	-	-	-	**0.4**
Construction	-	4.0	2.3	2.5	4.7	-	**2.4**
Farming	-	-	2.3	-	2.3	-	**0.8**
Butcher	-	-	2.3	-	-	-	**0.4**
Hairdresser	-	2.0	-	-	-	-	**0.4**
Childcare	-	6.0	-	-	-	-	**1.2**
Banking	-	-	-	-	2.3	-	**0.4**
Education							
Primary	3.3	4.0	-	2.5	4.7	5.6	**3.1**
Secondary	28.3	64.0	51.2	55.0	53.5	5.6	**46.1**
Tertiary Certificate/Diploma	31.7	18.0	39.5	40.0	32.6	50.0	**33.1**
University Degree	36.7	14.0	9.3	2.5	9.3	38.9	**17.7**
Training Provided							
Yes	93.3	92.0	100.0	97.5	93.0	88.9	**94.8**
No	6.7	8.0	-	2.5	7.0	11.1	**5.5**
Informal	21.7	22.0	16.3	30.0	11.6	5.6	**19.3**
Formal	16.7	12.0	14.0	70.0	7.0	22.2	**11.4**
Both informal & formal	50.0	28.0	69.8	-	72.1	55.6	**62.2**
Both plus external	5.0	-	-	-	7.0	16.7	**3.5**
Customer Service training							
Yes	56.7	8.0	30.2	25.0	41.9	55.6	**35.0**
No	43.3	92.0	69.8	75.0	58.1	44.5	**65.0**

Characteristics of Respondents	Frequency (Percentage)						
	Hotel						Total
	A	B	C	D	E	F	
Why working in hospitality							
Like it	71.7	74.0	72.1	72.5	48.8	66.7	**68.1**
Career	33.3	26.0	30.2	45.0	11.6	33.3	**29.5**
No other jobs	18.3	10.0	2.3	5.0	11.6	16.7	**10.6**
Good pay	8.3	2.0	18.6	17.9	9.3	5.6	**10.3**
Flexibility	25.0	14.0	46.5	25.0	34.9	27.8	**28.3**
Variety	40.0	32.0	44.2	27.5	23.3	44.4	**34.6**
Love working with people	70.0	56.0	60.5	42.5	65.1	50.0	**59.1**
Intention to Stay in Hospitality							
Yes	70.0	66.0	67.4	75.0	67.4	61.1	68.5
No	26.7	28.0	27.9	25.0	30.2	33.3	28.0
Unsure	3.3	6.0	4.7	-	2.3	5.6	3.5
Job Satisfaction							
Not satisfied	1.7	-	-	-	2.3	5.6	1.2
Less satisfied	3.3	-	-	-	-	-	0.8
Moderately satisfied	20.0	10.0	7.0	2.5	11.6	16.7	11.4
Satisfied	25.0	26.0	32.6	45.0	30.2	22.2	30.3
Very satisfied	30.0	58.0	51.2	40.0	41.9	33.3	42.9
Extremely satisfied	20.0	6.0	9.3	12.5	14.0	22.2	13.4
Enjoy Hospitality							
Do not enjoy	1.7	-	-	-	-	5.6	0.8
Enjoy a little	3.3	-	-	2.5	-	-	1.2
Enjoy moderately	8.3	6.0	7.0	-	9.3	5.6	6.3
Enjoy a fair bit	16.7	18.0	9.3	17.5	23.3	16.7	16.9
Enjoy a lot	33.3	52.0	53.5	50.0	39.5	50.0	45.3
Enjoy very much	36.7	24.0	30.2	30.0	27.9	22.2	29.5
Suitability							
Somewhat	3.3	2.0	-	-	4.7	11.1	2.8
Suitable	10.0	-	7.0	2.5	2.3	-	4.3
Good suitability	10.0	12.0	7.0	15.0	-	5.6	8.7
Very good suitability	40.0	54.0	46.5	52.5	41.9	44.4	46.5
Extremely suitable	36.7	32.0	39.5	30.0	51.2	38.9	37.8
Guest Contact							
Moderate	23.3	4.0	4.6	5.0	14.0	16.7	11.4
High	31.7	28.0	44.2	27.5	23.3	38.9	31.5
Very high	43.3	66.0	51.2	67.5	62.8	44.4	57.1

Table 6.1 shows that overall in the research sample the majority of the workforce were female (63.8%) and young (86.2% were less than 40 years old). These results are consistent with those depicted by the Industry Commission (1996). Similarly, Clark (1991) found mainly females (67%) occupied frontline positions. Likewise, Cran (1995)

reported more females (64%) in customer-contact service jobs. Cran (1995) also found that 75% of the 20 years and under age group and 76% of all part-timers or casual employees were females. In this study it was found that 81.3% of the age group 20 and under were female and also 63.5% of the age group 40 and under were females (Appendix 6.1). Further, 56.1% of full-time staff, 54.4% of part-time staff and 78.4% of casual staff were female. Further analysis (Table 6.2) shows that correlations between gender and employment status were significant ($r = 0.0176$, $p = 0.005$).

While these findings support the literature in noting that young women occupy most front-line positions in hospitality, there are some responses in this study that differ from the profile described by the literature. Table 6.1 shows that while there is a range in gender distribution between the hotels, the majority of the workforce in hotels is female (63.8%). For some hotels, Hotel A and Hotel E, there are almost equal proportions of each gender, with 55.0% and 51.2% of females respectively. In other hotels, Hotel B, C, D and F, there are more females, 66.0%, 76.7%, 72.5% and 67.1% respectively. Chi-square analysis showed no significant variation in gender mix between hotels ($\chi^2 = 9.544$, df = 5, p=0.089). These results are inconsistent with normal accounts for a higher proportion of females found working in hospitality.

6.2.3 Age

Results from Table 6.1 indicate that most of the respondents (79.9%) were within the age group of 21 to 40 and only 6.3% were under 21 and 13.8% were over 40. This pattern was observed for all hotels except Hotel B, which employed more staff under 21 (14%) than staff over 40 (6%). Chi-square analysis showed significant variation for age mix between hotels ($\chi^2 = 14.326$, df = 5, p=0.014). These results are inconsistent with normal accounts for a higher proportion of young people working in hospitality (e.g. Guerrier & Adib, 2000). In an attempt to further assess the relationship between demographic variables, correlations were determined and these are presented in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2 Correlations between some demographic items

1. Gender	1.00													
2. Age	-0.112	1.00												
3. Organisation	0.035	0.161*	1.00											
4. Department	-0.091	-0.119	-0.042	1.00										
5. Employment status	0.176**	-.201**	0.029	0.155*	1.00									
6. Tenure	0.019	0.326**	0.201**	-0.215**	-0.189**	1.00								
7. Tenure in hospitality	-0.001	0.318**	0.079	-0.237**	-0.278**	0.433**	1.00							
8. Always in hospitality	-0.165*	0.0129*	0.004	0.001	-0.088	-0.081	-0.127*	1.00						
9. Education level	0.057	0.079	-0.090	-0.181**	-0.203**	0.001	0.054	-0.032	1.00					
10. Training provided	0.073	-0.118	0.000	0.006	-0.046	-0.091	-0.167**	-0.071	-0.045	1.00				
11. Customer training	0.078	-0.116	0.0310	0.078	0.353**	-0.047	-0.190**	0.206**	-0.221**	0.032	1.00			
12. Staying in hospitality	0.098	-0.003	0.009	-0.012	0.053	0.082	0.022	0.150*	0.061	0.062	0.155*	1.00		
13. Enjoy hospitality	-0.103	0.072	-0.029	0.112	-0.002	-0.042	0.052	-0.115	-0.026	0.011	-0.010	-0.470**	1.00	
14. Suitability	-0.012	0.163**	0.091	0.034	-0.056	-0.030	0.219**	0.014	-0.022	0.119	-0.040	-0.267**	0.491**	1.00

*** Correlation significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed)**

****Correlation significant at 0.01 level of significance (2-tailed)**

Table 6.2 shows that several significant correlations were observed for age and included positive relationships with organisation, tenure, tenure in hospitality, always in hospitality and suitability. Cross tabulations (Appendix 1) suggest that the negative correlation between age and employment status ($r = -0.201$, $p = 0.001$) could relate to most young people (under 21) being employed as casuals (56.3%) or most older people (over 41) being employed as full-timers (60.0%) or that most full-timers (78.6%), part-timers (83.8%) and casuals (78.4%) were between 21 to 40 years old.

6.2.4 Employment status

Several researchers note that there are high proportions of young people in the hotel industry, especially in the food and beverage sector (Industry Commission, 1996; Guerrier & Adib, 2000). It is argued that for many it is "the first work experience … and an extra income" while they are students (Guerrier & Adib, 2000, p. 259). This suggests that most staff is employed as either part-timers or casuals. Employment status results, however, showed that the spread of employees was very similar. Overall 38.6% of employees were full-time, 26.8% part-time and 34.6% casual (Table 6.1). These figures are a surprising contrast to the literature, which suggests that most hospitality work is casual or part-time. It could be that these figures are not a true representation of the employment status mix in the industry but rather a reflection of the sampling strategy of this study. As mentioned earlier, Chapter 4, managers distributed questionnaires to staff. It is possible that questionnaires were handed out tom employees who were present most of the time. From the author's experience, it is common that casuals work only during busy times. Then because of labour costs they are sent home expediently and very often matters that need to be communicated are forgotten until well after the casual employee has left. The literature supports this idea by noting that the hotel industry utilized its staff on an 'as needed' basis (Timo, 1995) so that labour costs can be controlled (Robinson and Wallace, 1983).

Hence, it is possible that when service slowed down, managers remembered the survey but by then it was too late as the casuals had left. So questionnaires were distributed to staff that were present most of the time. Still, in terms of the representatitiveness of the data, the employment status (full-time, part-time and casual) was equally distributed

among the response set, suggesting that the findings for the SPI and OC will come from a good cross-section of employees.

In examining the pattern of employment status for each individual hotel, the overall distribution of 38.6% full-time, 26.8% part-time and 34.6% casual (Table 6.1) was not representative of responses from individual hotels. For example, Hotel A respondents were either full-time (50%) or part-time (50%). It should be borne in mind that his may not be representative of the hotel but rather of the administration of the questionnaire with the respondents being chosen because of convenience. Personal discussion with the human resource manager revealed that in front office and food and beverage 38.2% of staff were full-time, 41.4% part-time and 20.4% were casuals. This organisation believed that employing more full-timers and part-timers would contribute to a more reliable and committed workforce. Employment tenure results for this hotel showed that 18.3% of staff had been there for 3 to 4 years. This was the lowest result for that category across hotels, suggesting that the hotel's philosophy may not be completely right or that there are other circumstances, such as OC, which are impacting on staff turnover. Chi-square analysis showed significant variation for employment status between hotels ($\chi^2 = 54.749$, df = 5, p = 0.000). These results are not surprising given that Hotels B, C, D and E favoured employing casuals over part-timers.

Discussions with a food and beverage manager from hotel C indicated that in an industry where there are huge fluctuations in customer levels, employing casuals affords greater flexibility in meeting the daily changing needs of the hotel. This hotel manager who had been in the industry for over 15 years had experimented with the number of part-timers employed and found that if there were unexpected events, such as the Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) epidemic of 2003 he was faced with the situation of having to provide at least 15 hours employment to part-time staff when he was struggling to provide the required hours for his full-timers. Since then he had resolved to employee full-time supervisors and casual food and beverage attendants. This seemed to be working very well. Other hotels in Cairns, not included in this study, have been noted as following a similar practice. Then again, Hotels B, C, D, and E, those with many casuals, showed no employees with tenure of greater than 10 years. Perhaps in the long term the strategy adopted by Hotel A is more productive in retaining employees.

6.2.5 Marital status

Further observations of demographic items (Table 6.1) show that almost half the respondents were single (53.1%) and the other half were in some relationship, either married (24.0%) or defacto (22.8%). The pattern of mainly singles to be found working in the industry was consistent for all six hotels, except for Hotel F where 38.9% were married and 33.3% were single. It could be that due to the nature of hospitality work with its irregular, long and unsociable hours (Guerrier & Adib, 2000), it attracts mainly single people. Despite these figures Chi-square analysis showed no significant variation for marital status between hotels (χ^2 = 6.791, df = 5, p =0.237).

6.2.6 Employment tenure

Table 6.1 also shows that 96.0% of employees have been with their organisation for less than four years and of these 65.3% have been with the organisation for less than two years. For overall tenure in hospitality, 41.7% of employees have been in hospitality for between 3 to 4 years, 18.5% for 5 to 10years, 18.1% for over 10 years, 15.4% for 1 to 2 years and 6.3% for less than one year. These figures suggest that while employees may have come from other industries (49.6%) or have always worked in hospitality (50.4%), and while 36.6% have worked in hospitality for greater than five years, tenure in the current organisation was moderate with most employees (63.4%) having been with the current organisation for less than four years. Table 6.2 shows that correlations between tenure and time in hospitality were significant (r=0.401, p=0.000). These results collectively support the notion that the hospitality workforce is mobile with high turnover rates.

These results are further supported in assessment of hotels individually where most employees have been with the organisation for less than three years (Hotel A: 90.0%; Hotel B: 100%; Hotel C: 90.7%; Hotel D: 100%; Hotel E: 97.7%; Hotel F: 83.3%) and of these almost half have been with the organisation for less than two years (Hotel A: 71.7%; Hotel B: 74.0%; Hotel C: 55.8%; Hotel D: 77.5%; Hotel E: 58.2%; Hotel F: 33.3%). Chi-square analysis for tenure between hotels was significant (χ^2 = 19.692, df = 5, p =0.001). These results may be useful later when OC is discussed.

6.2.7 Education level

Results from education level are also inconsistent with the report from the Industry Commission (1996). For example, the report states that hospitality workers have low levels of formal education. In this study, however, at least 46.1% of respondents had completed high school and at least 33.1% had undertaken some tertiary qualification. Similarly, Deery (1999) found that 44% had completed secondary school or some technical courses and 47 % had undertaken or completed a tertiary degree. As mentioned earlier, it could very well be that employees are also currently students and using hospitality as a means to support themselves while studying. Results from this study also showed that while a good percentage of respondents (68.5%) intended to stay in hospitality and 3.5% were unsure, only 29.5% of the overall sample was pursuing a career in hospitality. These findings suggest that people are quite happy to work in hospitality without making it their career and that perhaps they are working in hospitality while pursuing other careers. In fact, some other reasons given for working in hospitality were like it (68.1%), working with people (59.1%), variety (34.6%), flexible job (28.3%), no other jobs (10.6%), and good pay (10.3%).

Another possibility for the unexpected levels of education status could be that work in hospitality is becoming recognised as an area where training and education are applicable and necessary and acquiring recognition as a true profession, with real career potential (Powers, 1995; Pearce, Morrison, & Rutledge, 1998). Increasingly, education is being viewed as "the professional bridge between an everyday interest in tourism and hospitality and a career in the industry" (Pearce *et al.*, 1998, p. 358). In particular, certification is becoming an important necessity for augmenting the professional growth of hospitality employees. Hospitality has been an area where formal qualifications have been unnecessary and skills are learnt on the job. Working in hospitality has been aligned to a "light-hearted or non-serious endeavour" (Pearce *et al.*, 1998, p. 367). However, as hospitality gains momentum as a global industry and its economic, social and cultural contributions are gaining acceptance both academically and within the broader community, hospitality employees are seeking recognition and respect for their job status. Further, in the wake of the industry's growing importance, the need for professional

management of hospitality organisations is increasing. The response has been a surgence of education and training in hospitality at many levels. In high schools, technical colleges and universities, hospitality courses are now being offered (Powers, 1995). Consequently, the educational status results could be a reflection of the increased focus on improving employees' skills and abilities through education and training or from people undertaking education to pursue a career in hospitality. Pearce *et al.* (1998) discuss the increasing relevance of education in tourism but the argument could be equally applied to hospitality, a related industry. They state that:

Individuals who occupy positions in tourism businesses need both training-based skills and educational insights to perform their work. Ideally, therefore, a blend of training and education, of skill development and analytical thinking, is desirable for all tourism staff. (Pearce *et al.*, 1998, p. 359)

This latter supports the trend toward gaining recognition of hospitality as a profession and that the operation side requires certain skills that TAFE colleges are working toward fulfilling. Also the push toward differentiation of organisations based on quality service is forcing a push toward development and maintenance of standards and the need for employing people with qualifications. Most TAFE colleges now provide basic training for individuals seeking employment in hospitality. Students' basic training can be at the skill level and include setting tables, greeting guests or taking an accommodation reservation or at the attitudinal level and include cultural awareness, customer service or conflict resolution. While results from this study indicate that 33.1% of respondents had tertiary diplomas or certificates, it was unclear if these were in areas related to hospitality and had been undertaken for career purposes. A striking 17.7% with university or college degrees but again it was unclear whether respondents were in the process of acquiring these or have completed them. Perhaps the addition of a further question to determine which courses respondents had completed and why they had undertaken those courses would shed some light on the impact of education and training on hospitality.

In the workplace, many hospitality organisations now employee human resource managers to address staff development and training needs. This means that some formal and structured training is provided at work. This study showed that training was an important aspect of hospitality work with 94.5% of respondents having received training.

Of these, 19.3% had received informal training, 11.4% formal and 62.2% had received both formal and informal training. In the overall sample, 35% of respondents had received customer service training. Similarly, Finegold, (2000) conducted a study on career development within 47 hotels in Britain and found that almost 95 percent of employees received training of one type or another. The training ranged from on-the-job training to more formal training programs provided off-site.

Current Australian Bureau of Statistics figures (2001) reflect the growing importance of education in society. They show that the labour force status of those with qualifications in food, hospitality and personal services was 54.2% employed full-time, 22.2% part-time, 6.0% unemployed and 28.1% not in the labour force. For females, 37.5% were in full-time employment, 31.7% part-time, 4.4% unemployed and 26.7% not in the labour force. For males, 76.8% were in full-time employment, 93.5% part-time, 3.3% unemployed and 10.5% not in labour force. It should be noted that while these figures indicate the area in which individuals achieved highest education, it does not detail if employment is in the area related to the highest education attained.

In examining educational status across hotels, chi-square analysis showed significant differences ($\chi^2 = 21.568$, df = 5, p = 0.000). Perhaps the most interesting results were the number of responses to 'University Degree' for Hotels A (36.7%) and F (38.9). Again, it was not clear whether respondents had already completed these degrees or were using hospitality as a means of income while studying. Guerrier and Adib (2001) suggest that some employees choose hotel work because it suits their lifestyle and provides a source of income. This information raises the question as to why people choose hotel work: Are individuals drawn to hotel jobs as a career choice or are they motivated by need for income while pursuing studies toward another career. The inclusion of other questions in future studies could help to clarify employees' motives for working in hospitality. An example of this is presented in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3 Possible questions for future questionnaires

Are you currently a student:	**.....**	**No**
	…….....	**Yes**
If yes, do you attend:	**School ……**	
	TAFE/College …….	
	University ……	
	Other: ……..	

If at TAFE, College or University, what course are you studying:

…….....

For Hotels B, D, D and E most respondents had undertaken some form of secondary studies (64.0%, 51.2%, 55.0%, and 53.5% respectively). For all of the hotels, approximately one third of respondents had a tertiary certificate or diploma (Hotel A: 31.7%; Hotel B: 18.0%; Hotel C: 39.5%; Hotel D: 40.0%; Hotel E: 32.6%; and, Hotel F: 50.0%). All these results support the increasing importance of education.

6.2.8 Departments

In assessing the distribution of respondents between departments it was found that the sample was almost equally divided between front office employees (43.7%) and food and beverage attendants (56.3%). The results also showed that employees moved between departments. For example, 11.8% of food and beverage staff had also worked in front office, 25.2% of front office staff had also worked in food and beverage and 2.4% of all respondents had even worked in housekeeping. With individual hotels, Hotel C had the greatest percentage of movement between departments. Hotel E, on the other hand, had the least percentage of individuals working in other departments. This could be indicative of a hotel culture that encourages cross-training. The results also suggest that there is a great deal of fluidity between front office and food and beverage. Staff moving between housekeeping and other departments does not seem to be as noticeable. This could be related to the nature of skills required and the employment strategies employed in the various departments. From the author's experience people employed in housekeeping are generally of lower socio-economic and educational status and people employed in front office and food and beverage have generally completed some education and training in

these areas. The education figures support this notion. These findings may be important and will be examined in more detail later when examining the SPI and OC.

Also, the results for people working in other departments suggest that cross training may be encouraged by the particular hotels. While it is not possible to directly determine this from the survey responses and it would have been ideal to include a question asking respondent if they had partaken in a cross training program, the number of respondents working in other departments indicate that the practice is not uncommon. Finegold *et al.*(2000) revealed that several hotels were offering cross training programs. These programs included employees learning different tasks in the same or other departments. The authors' experience in the industry provides testimony to the practice of cross training in hotels. In Cairns, employees are entitled to undertake cross training programs and in most cases 40 hours of training are required in another department and all hours are logged and signed by the trainee and trainer and documented in the HR department. Finegold *et al.2000* espouses the values of cross training by noting that it increases flexibility of staffing through multiskilling, promotes better customer service, reduces turnover by motivating staff and encouraging internal promotions, and improves communication and understanding between departments.

6.2.9 Customer Service Training

From Table 6.1 it can be seen that Hotel B presents a high percentage of no customer service training (92.0%) compared with Hotels A (56.7%), E (41.9%) and F (55.6%), which have the highest responses to providing customer, service training. Chi-square analysis showed significant differences between hotels for customer service training (χ^2 = 33.089, df = 5, p = 0.000). These figures are interesting from the point of view that the hospitality industry is heavily oriented toward providing customer service and yet training staff toward delivering quality service does not appear to be a priority. Correlations of this with SPI results will be explored later in this chapter.

6.3 Relationships between Demographic Items & SPI Dimensions

This section examines the relationship between key demographic items with the attitudinal variables from the SPI. Kruskal-Walllis one-way ANOVA analysis produced several statistically significant differences and these are presented in Table 6.4.

Table 6.4 Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance of demographic items and SPI dimensions

	Gender	Age	Marital status	Organisation	Department	Employment status	Tenure	Tenure in hospitality
Disposition								
Affinity			$\chi^2 = 8.242$, df = 2, p=0.016	$\chi^2 = 17.652$, df = 5, p=0.003		$\chi^2 = 6.054$, df = 2, p=0.048		$\chi^2 = 27.530$, df = 8, p=0.001
Individual Consideration			$\chi^2 = 9.202$, df = 2, p=0.010	$\chi^2 = 15.188$, df = 5, p=0.010				$\chi^2 = 17.741$, df = 8, p=0.023
Extra					$\chi^2 = 4.235$, df = 5, p=0.040		$\chi^2 = 19.975$, df = 8, p=0.010	$\chi^2 = 18.289$, df = 8, p=0.019
Competence		$\chi^2 = 6.799$, df = 2, p=0.033	$\chi^2 = 31.469$, df = 2, p=0.000	$\chi^2 = 15.545$, df = 5, p=0.008			$\chi^2 = 16.821$, df = 8, p=0.032	$\chi^2 = 28.526$, df = 8, p=0.000
Communication			$\chi^2 = 6.268$, df = 2, p=0.044					
Implementation								$\chi^2 = 17.405$, df = 8, p=0.026
Commitment	$\chi^2 = 5.409$, df = 1, p=0.020	$\chi^2 = 6.450$, df = 2, p=0.040	$\chi^2 = 19.269$, df = 2, p=0.000	$\chi^2 = 13.772$, df = 5, p=0.017				$\chi^2 = 23.875$, df = 8, p=0.002
Performance				$\chi^2 = 13.166$, df = 5, p=0.022				
Satisfaction								$\chi^2 = 16.116$, df = 8, p=0.041
Deference								$\chi^2 = 27.510$, df = 8, p=0.001

	Always in hospitality	Education Level	Training Provided	Type of Training	Customer Training	Staying in Hospitality	Enjoy Hospitality	Suitability	Job Satisfaction
Disposition									$\chi^2 = 21.382$, df = 5, p=0.001
Affinity	$\chi^2 = 4.127$, df = 2, p=0.042		$\chi^2 = 7.336$, df = 1, p=0.007	$\chi^2 = 19.724$, df = 4, p=0.001			$\chi^2 = 14.111$, df = 4, p=0.007	$\chi^2 = 11.748$, df = 3, p=0.008	$\chi^2 = 21.073$, df = 5, p=0.001
Individual Consideration			$\chi^2 = 4.312$, df = 1, p=0.038		$\chi^2 = 4.760$, df = 1, p=0.029			$\chi^2 = 10.041$, df = 3, p=0.018	$\chi^2 = 18.735$, df = 5, p=0.002
Extra					$\chi^2 = 4.255$, df = 1, p=0.039			$\chi^2 = 10.391$, df = 3, p=0.016	
Competence				$\chi^2 = 19.920$, df = 4, p=0.001	$\chi^2 = 6.765$ df = 1 p=0.009				$\chi^2 = 17.712$, df = 35, p=0.003
Communication								$\chi^2 = 12.474$, df = 3, p=0.006	$\chi^2 = 20.973$, df = 5, p=0.001
Implementation								$\chi^2 = 7.723$, df = 3, p=0.052	$\chi^2 = 13.937$, df = 5, p=0.016
Commitment							$\chi^2 = 9.713$, df = 4, p=0.046	$\chi^2 = 9.586$, df = 3, p=0.022	$\chi^2 = 26.167$, df = 5, p=0.000
Performance				$\chi^2 = 10.897$, df = 4, p=0.028					$\chi^2 = 12.335$, df = 5, p=0.030
Satisfaction		$\chi^2 = 8.080$, df = 3, p=0.044						$\chi^2 = 13.556$, df = 3, p=0.004	$\chi^2 = 20.339$, df = 5, p=0.001
Deference		$\chi^2 = 9.370$, df = 3, p=0.025			$\chi^2 = 4.132$, df = 1, p=0.042				$\chi^2 = 18.790$, df = 5, p=0.002

	Why Working in Hospitality						
	Like it	**Career**	**No other jobs**	**Good pay**	**Flexibility**	**Variety**	**Working with people**
Disposition		χ^2 = 4.708, df = 1, p=0.030	χ^2 = 16.108, df = 1, p=0.000				
Affinity			χ^2 = 14.959, df = 1, p=0.000				
Individual Consideration			χ^2 = 3.905, df = 1, p=0.048				
Extra			χ^2 = 8.204, df = 1, p=0.004		χ^2 = 4.274, df = 1, p=0.039		
Competence			χ^2 = 4.723, df = 1, p=0.030				
Communication			χ^2 = 7.021, df = 1, p=0.008	χ^2 = 4.669, df = 1, p=0.031			χ^2 = 8.591, df = 1, p=0.003
Implementation					χ^2 = 3.890, df = 1 p=0.049		
Commitment			χ^2 = 12..275, df = 1, p=0.000	χ^2 = 6.694, df = 1, p=0.010	χ^2 = 4.147, df = 1, p=0.042		χ^2 = 6.308, df = 1, p=0.012
Performance				χ^2 = 5.111, df = 1, p=0.024			
Satisfaction							
Deference				χ^2 = 5.629, df = 1, p=0.018			

Table 6.4 shows that the demographic variables of staying in hospitality, like it and variety showed no relationships with the SPI dimensions. By contrast job satisfaction illustrated significant relationships with ten out of the eleven SPI dimensions. These findings could indicate that people with high job satisfaction will display high ratings for the SPI scores. This relationship will be explored later in Chapter 8. Overall tenure in hospitality and suitability also displayed several strong relationships (eight and seven, respectively, out of eleven). This comes as no surprise because it would be expected that if individuals who stay in hospitality for a long time, have certain predispositions, as defined by the SPI, toward delivering quality service. Similarly, no other job resulted in seven significant relationships and marital status. Perhaps individuals who could not find any other job are appreciative of having a job and will be more willing to demonstrate the characteristics that are warranted of a job in hospitality. Likewise, marital status showed five significant relationships with the SPI dimensions. It is possible that married people have greater responsibilities in their personal lives and so, are more forthcoming with the requirements of a hospitality job.

Differences were also found for organisations with significant relationships being displayed for affinity, individual consideration, competence, commitment, and performance. These results suggest that different organisations provide an OC that is amenable to individuals exhibiting these SPI dimensions. Customer service training produced significant relationships with individual consideration, extra, competence and deference. These links are not surprising because they show that by providing customer service training, employees gain more confidence and therefore, become more competent in their job and are more comfortable with providing individual consideration and that something extra for the customers. The type of training, whether it was formal or informal, also affected competence and showed relationships to affinity and performance. Again, it is expected that performance will be improved with training. Provision of training showed relationships with only affinity and individual consideration. Perhaps these results suggest that it is not whether training is provided but moreso, what type of training is the important factor: formal, informal or customer service training.

Satisfaction with delivery of service and deference were influenced by education level. This finding could be referring to the possibility that many employees are working in

hospitality to financially support themselves while they are completing their studies. It is possible then that these individuals have greater deference and service satisfaction because they are in hospitality for only short periods and, so do not get weighed down by the emotional labour, long, irregular hours or constant requirement to meet customers' needs. Respondents who enjoyed hospitality showed significant responses for affinity and commitment, while those who enjoyed working with people related to communication and commitment and individuals who appreciated the flexibility of the job responded significantly to extra, implementation and commitment. For those who thought good pay was important, significant relationships were found for communication, performance, deference and commitment. Commitment was also significantly related to age (χ^2 = 6.450, df = 2, p=0.040) and gender (χ^2 = 5.409, df = 1, p=0.020). For age, 66.9% of 21 to 40 year olds scored highly for commitment ($\geq$ 6) compared with 12.2% of individuals aged 41 to 60 and 3.2% of individuals under 21. Likewise, more females (50.8%) showed significantly more commitment ($\geq$ 6) than males (41.5%).

Significant differences (χ^2 = 4.235, df = 5, p=0.040) for providing extra seemed to be influenced by the department within which staff worked, with 31% of food and beverage respondents scoring 6 or more for extra compared with 24% of front office respondents. Statements pertaining to extra included: "I believe it's important to show concern for my guests, I always like to give them something extra" with a score of 7 relating to "I always ensure guests are happy, even if it means giving them something extra" and a score of 1 relating to "Guests receive adequate care, there is no need to give anything extra". The nature of food and beverage service is such that the service encounter is over an extended period of time, e.g. the meal. By comparison, the front office interaction is generally more fleeting with less opportunity for staff to offer 'extra' service. These results could also be indicative of the level of empowerment afforded to staff.

Affinity was related to always in hospitality and employment status. There was a significant difference (χ^2 = 6.054, df = 2, p=0.048) between staff for affinity with only 12.3% of part-time staff scoring highly ($\geq$ 6) compared with 20.4% of full-time and 23.2% of casual staff scoring similarly. Also, there was significant difference (χ^2 = 4.127, df = 2, p=0.042) between staff for affinity in those who responded yes to always staying in hospitality (10.6% $\geq$ 7) and those who responded no (6.3% $\geq$ 7) with 7 indicating the most positive response. This result is not surprising, as one would expect that staff that wants to

stay in the industry have an affinity to providing service. By contrast, disposition did not seem to play a significant role (χ^2 = 4.708, df = 1, p=0.030) in making a career out of hospitality. Fifty percent of individuals who stated that they did not want to pursue a career in hospitality scored 6 or higher for disposition compared with 18.5% of respondents who stated 'yes'.

6.4 Summary

This chapter reported findings relating to the demographic data of the response sample and some relationships between demographic items and the SPI and OC dimensions. This data were important in providing a profile of the research sample and assessing its representativeness of the hotel industry. It also provided a framework within which the SPI and OC can further be analysed and interpreted.

Overall there were some similarities between the respondent sample and that depicted in the literature. For example, in this study the majority of respondents were young (86.2% were less than 40 years old) and female (63.8%). However, the sample had an almost equal spread of employees across the three employment status categories of full-time, part-time and casual. These results are different to traditional depictions of the hospitality workforce as one with high proportions of casuals and part-timers. Respondents did exhibit high levels of mobility and turnover with 96.0% of the sample having been with their organisation for less than four years and 65.3% for less than two years when 36.6% had worked in the industry for more than five years and 68.5% intended to stay in the industry (Table 6.1). The results from this study contradicted the notion that the hospitality workforce is mainly low- skilled. Most respondents (94.8%) indicated that some form of training was provided. The level of respondents (35.0%) receiving customer service training is surprising considering that they work in hospitality, which is primarily service-oriented. Then again, 33.1% of respondents stated that they had undertaken studies toward tertiary certificates or diplomas, suggesting that perhaps they are developing their skills elsewhere. A further 46.1% had at least secondary education, a result that was also inconsistent with the idea that hospitality workers had low levels of formal education.

In assessing the influence of demographic items on SPI dimensions, several significant relationships were found. For example, overall tenure in hospitality strong relationships

with most of the SPI dimensions (affinity, individual consideration, extra, competence, implementation, commitment, satisfaction and deference). By contrast, employment status suggested that individuals who were employed full-time and casual exhibited greater affinity as did employees who wanted to stay in hospitality. Also, employees from food and beverage scored more highly for extra and females displayed greater commitment in their delivery of service while employees who did not want to pursue a career in hospitality exhibited greater disposition.

This chapter has presented an overall picture of the characteristics of the sample. It has also provided some insight into the relationships between the demographic items and between demographic items and dimensions from the SPI. Further, it has investigated differences between hotels for several of the demographic items. It was found that there while gender showed no significant differences across the six hotels, there were significant variations between hotels for age, employment status, tenure, education level and customer service training. Some of these findings may be useful in later discussions of the SPI and OC of the various hotels. For now, the next chapter will present an examination of the service predisposition instrument.

CHAPTER 7

AN EXAMINATION OF THE SERVICE PREDISPOSITIONS INSTRUMENT

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter the reliability and validity of the Service Predispositions Instrument are assessed. The main statistical analyses used are (1) Principal Components Factor Analysis to determine the dimensionality of the instrument; (2) Cronbach's alpha to establish the adequacy and statistical strength of the items; and (3) correlations and multiple regressions to examine the relationships between the variables. The rationale of the service predispositions model (SPM) was discussed in Chapter 2 but some key features will here be restated briefly.

Theoretically, the SPM relates to individuals predispositions to providing quality service. It is rationalized that individuals posses certain characteristics which enable them to deliver service. The more pronounced these characteristics are within an individual, the more likely it is that those individuals will deliver exceptional service.

The SPM proposes relationships between three groups of variables: service dimensions, cognitive expressions and personal outcome. The variables associated with service dimensions (disposition, affinity, individual consideration, extra, competence, and communication) need to be present in order that the elements of cognitive expressions (implementation, commitment, and performance) can manifest themselves. The dimension of implementation is enhanced by extra and competence. Similarly, commitment is fortified by disposition, affinity and individual consideration. Also, performance is enforced by communication. According to the SPM, positive personal outcome (i.e. satisfaction with service provided) is the result of all three cognitive expressions being expressed by the individual where these cognitive expressions, in turn, are the result of individuals displaying the service dimensions. However, it is believed that the relationships between service dimensions and cognitive expressions and the relationship between cognitive expressions and personal outcome are influenced by a

further variable, deference, which acts as a moderator of the relationships between variables specified by the model. Initially, it was suggested that deference is a conceptualization of personality or cultural elements that allow individuals to fulfill deferential roles at the customer interface (Lee-Ross, 1999).

It is argued that individuals who are highly deferential will score highly with service dimensions and so, with cognitive expressions and personal outcome. On the other hand, an individual who is weakly deferential will not be as amenable to delivering quality service and so, may not respond positively. Hence, deference is considered as a moderator of the relationships described by the model.

Originally, Lee-Ross (1999) conducted a study with 768 respondents from eight organisations and presented within-scale item correlations (ranging from 0.49 to 0.74, at $p< 0.01$) and between-scale inter-item correlations (ranging from 0.11 to 0.23, at $p< 0.01$) to assess internal consistency reliabilities and discriminant validity, respectively. Similar statistical analyses will also be used in this study. First, the reliability and dimensionality of the instrument will be examined using factor analysis. The reliability will be further tested using Cronbach's alpha. Then correlations and multiple regressions will be used to explore relationships between variables and determine the extent to which they support the rationale for the model. Finally, the moderating effect of deference will be investigated. This next section begins with an examination of factor analysis.

7.2 Reliability of the Instrument

7.2.1 Factor Analysis

The SPI consists of 33 items that *a priori* form 11 factors as described by the SPM: disposition, affinity, individual consideration, extra, competence, communication, implementation, commitment, performance, deference, and satisfaction. This part of the analysis sought to reduce the number of items so as to facilitate analysis and interpretation of the data. Norusis (1993, p. 47) describes factor analysis as "a statistical technique used to identify a relatively small number of factors that can be used to represent relationships among sets of many interrelated variables". According to Cooper and Emory (1995, p. 520) factor analysis identifies "patterns among the variables to discover if an underlying combination of the original variables (a factor) can summarise

the original set." Factor analysis is a generic term used to describe multivariate techniques that can determine the underlying structure in a data matrix (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995). The data matrix consists of intercorrelations among several variables, all of which are considered to be independent of each other. In analyzing the data, factor analysis considers all the variables simultaneously and constructs a new set of variables based on the relationships recognized by the correlations matrix. As a result linear combinations of variables are produced. These are called factors, components or dimensions and represent common and unique sets of variance. These factors are used to explain the underlying structure of the whole variable set.

Factor analysis may be exploratory or confirmatory. With exploratory factor analysis the researcher is seeking the structure while with confirmatory factor analysis, the data is examined to confirm a structure that has already been defined in previous studies. This study proposes to use factor analysis to assess the dimensionality of the SPM. Since the SPI has not been used extensively to date, it was considered that the best approach for this study was to use exploratory factor analysis as a means of checking the rationale of the SPM and assessing the reliability of the SPI. There are two main methods of factor analysis: Principal Components Analysis (PCA) and Common Factor Analysis. Principal components analysis is the most commonly used method. It "transforms a set of variables into a new set of composite variables or principal components that are not correlated with each other" (Cooper & Emery, 1995, p. 538).

7.2.2 Factor analysis of all SPI items collectively

The 33 items relating to the service dimensions were subjected to principal components analysis using Varimax orthogonal rotation and SPSS Windows Version 10.0.7 (2000). This analysis was performed using the whole sample. The preliminary analysis of all data displayed statistical significance for the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO = 0.856) and Bartlett's test of Sphericity (Chi-square = 4028.933; df = 528; p = 0.000). This procedure determines whether the data deviates significantly from a random matrix (Weiss, 1970) and whether the sample is adequate for the technique of factor analysis (Norusis, 1993). These results indicate a high level of sampling adequacy and were satisfactory since the observed significance was less than *alpha* = 0.05. Norusis (1993, p. 52) notes that a KMO measure of 0.80 is *meritorious* compared with 0.70 as *middling* and 0.90 as *marvellous.*

Eleven factors were sought, corresponding to the eleven dimensions as described by the model. Eight factors with Eigenvalues greater than one were returned. Table 7.1 shows factor structures for the overall sample. According to Lewis (1984, p. 68) “reasonable comprehensiveness” is maintained when extracted factors explain at least sixty percent of variance. Table 7.1 shows that the total variance explained by all eight factors was greater at around 63.65%.

The results also illustrate the abbreviated results of factor analysis of determinant attributes (without Eigenvalues). For a sample size of 254, correlations of less than 0.5 were excluded. Hair *et al.*(1998) contend that for a sample size of 350 cases, 0.35 is the acceptable cut-off point. Since the sample size for this study was 254, it was considered to err with caution and adhere to suggestions made by Woodliff, Watson, Newby and McDowell (1999) that factor loadings of less than 0.50 should be excluded. Therefore, Table 7.1 only presents correlations greater than 0.50.

It was expected that each dimension contained three items as per rationale of the model. Some favourable groupings of items were as expected. For example, the three items for each of the following five dimensions loaded onto the same factor: individual consideration, communication, satisfaction, performance and affinity. For the following three dimensions, two items loaded collectively: commitment, disposition and deference. For the other three dimensions there were some anomalies. Table 7.1 presents these results.

Table 7.1: Rotated component analysis of whole data sample

Item	Components								Eigenvalue	Percent of variance explained
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		
Indcon 3 Indcon 2 Extra 3 Comm. 2 Incon 1 Implem 2 Commit 3 Commit 2 Comm 3 Def 1 Comm 1	0.790 0.759 0.605 0.575 0.560 0.550 0.549 0.537 0.535 0.535 0.504								10.108	30.629%
Satis 3 Satis 2 Compt 3 Satis 1 Implem 3 Comp 1		0.724 0.656 0.648 0.635 0.580 0.553							2.238	6.783%
Perf 1 Perf 2 Perf 3			0.8.3 0.824 0.767						1.833	5.554%
Aff 1 Aff 3 Aff 2				0.826 0.784 0.674					1.610	4.877%
Extra 1 Disp 1 Disp 3					0.773 0.748 0.614				1.459	4.423
Implem 1 Commit 1 Compt 2						0.755 0.664 0.508			1.444	4.376
Def 3 Def 2							0.836 0.691		1.234	3.738
Extra 2 Disp 2								-0.717 0.561	1.079	3.268
Total variance										**63.65%**

Assessing the factors from Table 7.1, it can be seen that the first factor extracted contains more than the predicted three items with subsequent factors extracting correspondingly less. Factors loading onto factor one included all three items of individual consideration and commitment, two of communication and one each of extra, implementation and deference. Loadings onto factor two were also confusing with all three factors for satisfaction loading collectively, two items for competence and one for implement. Loadings onto factors three to seven became increasingly 'cleaner', with Factors 3 and 4 loading all three items for performance and affinity, respectively. Factor 5 had two items for disposition and one for extra while Factor 7 had two items for deference. The other two factors, Factors 6 and 8 were 'messy'. The anomalies found in the factor structure could be a consequence of the uniqueness of the sample. Previous work using the SPI has been conducted in England using nurses and hospitality workers (e.g. Lee-Ross, 1999). The different factor structure could be due to cultural differences producing different interpretations for the questions. Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, and Sanders (1990) argue that national culture influences organisational culture (OC) and perhaps, this had some affect on the study sample's responses.

7.2.3 Factor analysis of service dimensions only

The 18 items relating to the service dimensions only were subjected to principal components analysis using Varimax orthogonal rotation. Six factors were sought, corresponding to the six service dimensions as described by the model. Table 7.2 shows factor structures for the overall sample. The preliminary analysis of all data displayed statistical significance for the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO = 0.800) and Bartlett's test of Sphericity (Chi-square = 1806.059; df = 153; p = 0.000). The factor analysis presented four factors with Eigenvalues greater than one and two just below one (see Table 7.2). Total variance explained by all six factors was around sixty-eight percent. The results also illustrate the abbreviated results of factor analysis of determinant attributes (without Eigenvalues).

Table 7.2: Factor analysis for SPI service dimensions only

Item	Components						Eigenvalue	Percent of variance explained
	1	2	3	4	5	6		
Indcon 2 Indcon 3 Comm. 2 Incon 1 Comm 3 Comm 1	0.766 0.740 0.706 0.664 0.659 0.645						5.984	33.243%
Aff 1 Aff 3 Aff 2		0.875 0.841 0.585					1.752	9.731%
Compt 2 Compt 1 Compt 3			0.807 0.714 0.674				1.361	7.559%
Extra 1 Disp 1 Disp 3				0.800 0.798 0.611			1.330	7.386%
Extra 3					0.730		0.971	5.395%
Extra 2 Disp 2						0.770 0.530	0.877	4.872%
Total variance								**68.19%**

Generally, the items making up each of the dimensions individual consideration, communication, affinity and competence were strongly interrelated. The first factor extracted contained six items: the three items for individual consideration and the three for communication. The three items for affinity loaded onto the second factor and the three for competence onto the third factor. The dimensions of extra and disposition did not factorise as cleanly as the others. Two items for disposition loaded onto factor 4 and the third item onto factor 6 with one of the items for extra. The other two items for extra loaded onto factor 4 and 5. Overall, these results support the findings for when all items were subject to factor analysis (Table 7.1) and support the idea that the model is robust with some confusion for one of the disposition items and the dimension of extra.

7.2.4 Factor analysis of cognitive expression items only

The 9 items relating to cognitive expressions dimensions only were subjected to principal components analysis using Varimax orthogonal rotation. Three factors were sought, corresponding to the six service dimensions as described by the model. Table 7.3 shows factor structures for the overall sample. The preliminary analysis of all data displayed

statistical significance for the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO = 0.783) and Bartlett's test of Sphericity (Chi-square = 682.927; df = 36; p = 0.000). The factor analysis presented two factors with Eigenvalues greater than one and one below one (see Table 7.3). Total variance explained by all three factors was around sixty-six percent. The results also illustrate the abbreviated results of factor analysis of determinant attributes (without Eigenvalues).

Table 7.3: Factor analysis for SPI cognitive expressions dimensions only

Item	Components			Eigenvalue	Percent of variance explained
	1	2	3		
Perf 1 Perf 2 Perf 3	0.873 0.854 0.777			3.386	37.626%
Commit 1 Impl 1 Impl 2		0.810 0.780 0.637		1.690	18.777%
Impl 3 Commit 2 Commit 3			0.862 0.587 0.551	0.889	9.879%
Total variance					**66.28%**

Table 7.3 shows that the first factor extracted three items: the three items for the dimension of performance were strongly interrelated. The dimensions of commitment and implementation did not factorise as cleanly as performance. Two items for implementation loaded onto Factor 2 and the third item onto Factor 3 with one of two of the items for commitment. These results further support the robustness of the SPM with some confusion for the dimensions of implementation and commitment.

Overall the results from all factor analyses are comparable with those outlined by the SPM, indicating significant levels of reliability and dimensionality of the SPI as an instrument. However, to further determine the reliability of the instrument, Cronbach's alpha was used for each scale or dimension.

7.2.5 Cronbach's alpha

Cronbach's alpha is one of the most frequently used approaches for testing reliability of an instrument with multi-item scales at the interval level of measurement (Cooper & Emery, 1995). It assesses internal consistency reliabilities and so, was considered to be appropriate for use in this study. Lee-Ross (2000) computed the original reliabilities for

the SPI by use of alpha coefficients and these are compared with results from this present study (Table 7.4). The reliability analysis was conducted using *a priori* criteria for the scales as determined by the model. Further information on reliability analysis for the SPI dimensions can be found in Appendix 7.1.

Table 7.4: Reliabilities of the service predisposition instrument scales

SPI scales	Question statements per variable	Internal consistency reliability	
		Present study	Lee-Ross (2000)
Service dimensions			
Disposition	3	0.63	0.65
Extra	3	0.30	0.55
Affinity	3	0.75	0.66
Communication	3	0.73	0.49
Individual consideration	3	0.80	0.72
Competence	3	0.72	0.54
Cognitive expressions			
Conscious	3	0.57	0.58
implementation	3	0.67	0.74
Conscious commitment	3	0.79	0.72
Knowledge of performance			
Outcome measure			
Personal satisfaction	3	0.74	0.59
Moderator			
Deference	3	0.65	0.61

(n = 254)

Table 7.4 shows that the strength of the reliability scores varied and that overall were consistent with those found by Lee-Ross (2000). Internal consistency reliabilities originally obtained by Lee-Ross ranged from 0.49 for communication to 0.74 for conscious commitment. In this study the values were slightly stronger and ranged from 0.57 for conscious implementation to 0.80 for individual consideration, with extra showing an alpha correlation of 0.30. Further, the results from Appendix 7.1 show that most were robust and that eliminating an item would not markedly alter the alpha coefficient. The only noticeable and disappointing measure was that for extra. Appendix 7.1 shows that removal of the item Extra 3 improves the alpha coefficient to 0.41. These results support the findings from the factor analysis where items for the dimension of extra did not load onto the same factor. This suggests that the items for extra should be

reviewed in future studies. Otherwise, the results for internal consistency reliabilities were considered satisfactory and these results together with those of factor analysis support the reliability and dimensionality of the instrument. The next section further explores the SPI and assesses the rationale of the model.

7.3 Rationale of the Service Predispositions Model

7.3.1 Correlations

Originally, Lee-Ross (1999) used mean correlations of service dimensions and cognitive expressions with personal outcome to confirm the relationships as described by the SPM and found that the relationship between cognitive expressions and personal outcome was markedly stronger than the relationship between service dimensions and personal outcome. This approach will also be used here. Table 7.5 depicts the relationship between service dimensions and cognitive expressions with the personal outcome of satisfaction with delivery of service as described by Spearman's rho correlation analyses.

Table 7.5: Mean correlations of service dimensions and cognitive expressions with personal outcome of satisfaction with delivery of service

	Personal Outcome	
	Present study	**Lee-Ross (2000)**
Service dimensions		
Disposition	0.46**	0.14*
Extra	0.37**	0.22**
Communication	0.57**	0.22**
Individual consideration	0.49**	0.40**
Competence	0.62**	0.28**
Affinity	0.38**	0.54**
Cognitive expressions		
Conscious implementation	0.45**	0.60**
Conscious commitment	0.57**	0.57**
Knowledge of performance	0.30**	0.41**

*p = < 0.05; ** p = < 0.01

Theoretically, cognitive expressions are immediately causal of personal outcome and, so should correlate more strongly with personal outcome than the service dimensions. The results from the Lee-Ross (2000) study support this reasoning. However, with this study the findings were not as good (Table 7.5). For example, an examination of the model

shows that the relationship between commitment (r=0.57) with personal outcome should be stronger than any of disposition (r=0.46), individual consideration (r=0.49) or affinity (r=0.38) with it. These correlations are as expected but with implementation and performance, correlations are not quite as expected. The correlation for implementation with personal outcome (r=0.45) was stronger than for extra (r=0.37) but slightly weaker than that of competence (r=0.62). Similarly, the correlation for performance (r=0.30) was not as strong as that for communication (r=0.57) and personal outcome. However, all the correlations are in the predicted positive direction and all are substantially significant. In order to examine these relationships further, multiple regression analysis was conducted on the data.

7.3.2 Regression analysis

In line with processes used for the Job Diagnostic Model (JDM) as described by Hackman and Oldham (1974), the SPM was subjected to several analyses similar to those used for the JDM. The theoretical underpinning of the SPM suggests that the three cognitive expressions mediate between the service dimensions and personal outcome. This idea was examined by answering a number of propositions as suggested by Hackman and Oldham:

> **Question 1**: Are predictions of personal outcome from cognitive expressions maximized when all three cognitive expressions are used, or are do each of the cognitive expressions demonstrate equally strong relationships on their own or when paired?
>
> **Question 2**:Are relationships between service dimensions and personal outcome empirically dependent on cognitive expressions, or do service dimensions predict personal outcome just as well when cognitive expressions are overlooked?
>
> **Question 3**: Do specific service dimensions relate to cognitive expressions as specified by the model?

Question 1: Are predictions of personal outcome from cognitive expressions maximized when all three cognitive expressions are used, or are do each of the cognitive expressions demonstrate equally strong relationships on their own or when paired?

Multiple regressions were used to determine in various combinations whether predictions of personal outcome from cognitive expression were maximized when all three cognitive expressions were used, or whether strong relationships were obtained when using cognitive expressions alone or in pairs. These results are presented in Table 7.6.

Table 7.6: Average variance controlled in multiple regressions used to predict personal outcome from one, two or three cognitive expressions

Combinations of predictors used in regressions	**Mean R^2 for personal outcome**
One	
Implementation	0.17**
Commitment	0.31**
Performance	0.09**
Two	
Implementation + Commitment	0.33**
Commit ment + Performance	0.34**
Implementation + Performance	0.17**
Three	
Implementation + Commit ment + Performance	0.34**

Table 7.6 shows that the three cognitive expressions (implementation, commitment and performance) when correlated alone with personal outcomes produced R^2 values of 0.17, 0.31 and 0.09, respectively. When implementation and commitment were correlated as pairs against personal outcome, a slightly higher R^2 value (0.33) was produced. Likewise, with commitment and performance the R^2 values were 0.34 and implementation and performance the R^2 value of 0.17. However, when all three dimensions were correlated against personal outcome, the R^2 value did not increase any further and remained at 0.34. These results were consistent with Hackman and Oldham's (1974) findings in that when cognitive expressions (comparable with psychological states from the JDM) are added to

the regression equations, the amount of variance controlled for personal outcome increases but the increase in R^2 is markedly more between one and two predictors than between two and three. In summary, to some extent as additional cognitive expressions are added to regressions an increasing proportion of the variance for personal outcome is controlled. This is consistent with the SPM.

Question 2: Are relationships between service dimensions and personal outcome empirically dependent on cognitive expressions, or do service dimensions predict personal outcome just as well when cognitive expressions are overlooked?

Relationships between service dimensions and personal outcome were examined to assess whether they were empirically dependent on cognitive expressions or whether service dimensions would predict personal outcome just as well when cognitive expressions are overlooked. As with Hackman and Oldham (1974), two methods were used to examine these relationships. First, multiple regressions were used to examine these relationships. The three cognitive expressions were introduced into a multiple regression equation as primary predictors and then, the six service dimensions were added to the regression equation as secondary predictors. As Hackman and Oldham (1974) note, if the model is accurate, in that the cognitive expressions are causal to personal outcome and mediate the relationship between service dimensions and personal outcome, the cognitive expressions alone should constitute a great part of the variable variance and the addition of the service dimensions should not show any marked increase in the variance controlled. Results for these analyses are shown in Table 7.7.

Table 7.7: Comparison of multiple regressions predicting personal outcome from all prior variables (cognitive expressions & service dimensions) with predictions from cognitive expressions only

		Multiple correlation (R) for all nine variables		Multiple correlation (R) for all three cognitive expressions		Mean R^2 for the three cognitive expressions		Mean R^2 for hierarchical regression of the nine variables
Personal outcome		0.75**		0.59**		0.34**		0.56**
Standardized regression weights for equation with all variables								
	Conscious implementation	Conscious commitment	Knowledge of performance	Disposition	Extra	Affinity	Communication	Competence	Individual consideration
Personal outcome	-0.02	0.15	0.12	0.19	0.06	-0.02	0.23	0.38	-0.12

(** $p < 0.01$; $n = 254$)

Results from Table 7.7 support the prediction that cognitive expression collectively accounts for a considerable amount of variance for personal outcome (34%). Introduction of the service dimensions into the regression equations produced an increase of 23%. For Hackman and Oldman's examination of the JDM, the increase in variance controlled was small (1%, 2% and 9%). By comparison, the 23% increase observed in this study for the SPM is quite sizeable and suggests that the service dimensions may have some direct influence on personal outcome. Assessment of the standardized coefficients lends further support to this suggestion.

It was expected that standardized coefficients for cognitive expressions would have been moderate to high and ideally, higher than those for service dimensions because of the relationships described by the model (Hackman & Oldham, 1974). However, implementation contributes minimally and negatively (β=-0.02) to personal outcome while the other two cognitive expressions, commitment (β=0.15) and performance (β=0.12) have slightly higher but also relatively small regression coefficients. Further, communication (the service dimensions theoretically mediated by performance) has a higher regression coefficient (β=0.38) than does performance (β=0.12). Similarly, competence (service dimension mediated by implementation) has a high coefficient (β=0.38) than implementation (β=-0.02). The results thus far appear to provide general support for the proposition that cognitive expressions mediate between service dimensions and the measure of personal outcome. In light of these results, it was decided to use another analysis method that would contribute to the investigation of the relationships between the service dimensions, cognitive expressions and personal outcome. This was as per Hackman and Oldham (1974) and involved the use of partial correlation.

Partial correlation was used to statistically control the mediating cognitive expressions while the relationships between service dimensions and personal outcomes were examined. Hence, the effect of commitment was controlled while relationships of disposition, affinity and individual consideration with personal outcome were assessed; implementation was controlled for relationships of extra and competence with personal outcome; and performance was controlled for relationships of communication with personal outcome. Hackman and Oldham (1974, p. 17) suggest that if the model is accurate, "the partial correlations should approach zero and be substantially lower in

magnitude than the direct or zero-order correlations" between the service dimensions and personal outcome. The results are presented in Table 7.8.

Table 7.8: Use of partial correlation to statistically control cognitive expressions while examining relationships of service dimensions with personal outcome

	Personal Outcome		
	Direct correlation	**Partial correlation**	**Difference**
Service dimensions			
Disposition	0.46**	0.35**	0.11
Extra	0.37**	0.25**	0.12
Communication	0.57**	0.52**	0.05
Individual	0.49**	0.15**	0.34
consideration	0.62**	0.55**	0.07
Competence	0.38**	0.12*	0.26
Affinity			

Table 7.8 shows that the partial correlations of the service dimensions with personal outcome are lower in magnitude than the direct correlations. These results support the idea that the cognitive expressions mediate between the service dimensions and the personal outcome. By statistically controlling the matching cognitive expression, the scale of the relationship was lowered. For example, by controlling commitment, the correlation between each of disposition, affinity and individual consideration with personal outcome was lower than the direct correlation. Similarly, by controlling implementation, extra and competence displayed lower correlations with personal outcome than in the direct relationship. Also, by controlling performance, the relationship between communication and personal outcome was less interrelated. Further, all of the partial correlations, except for communication and competence, were low. Results for communication and competence did decrease with the partial correlations but partial correlations relating to these variables did not approach zero.

Use of multiple regressions and partial correlations has allowed the relationships between cognitive expression and personal outcome to be explored. Findings from these analyses suggest that the relationships between service dimensions and personal outcome are empirically dependent on the cognitive expressions. Hence, the service dimensions do

not predict personal outcome as effectively when the cognitive expressions are ignored and the relationships described by the SPM are robust.

Question 3: Do specific service dimensions relate to cognitive expressions as specified by the model?

The question was raised as to whether specific service dimensions relate to cognitive expressions as specified by the model. In order to examine this question, regressions were carried out for each of the cognitive expressions where the primary predictor(s) were the service dimensions described by the model as being directly causal of the cognitive expressions. For example, implementation was predicted from extra and competence; commitment from disposition, affinity and individual consideration; and, performance from communication. Then, the remaining service dimensions were added as secondary predictors. If the model is accurate, the service dimensions specified by the model should contribute noticeably to variance in cognitive expressions and the introduction of the other service dimensions should have little effect on the controlled variance. These analyses are presented in Table 7.9.

Table 7.9: Comparison of multiple regressions predicting the cognitive expressions from all service dimensions with predictions from the model-specified service dimensions only

	Multiple correlation (R) for all variables	R^2 for the model-specified service dimensions only	R^2 for hierarchical regression when all service dimensions	Incremental increase in R^2
Conscious implementation	0.59	0.22	0.35	0.13
Conscious commitment	0.75	0.47	0.56	0.09
Knowledge of performance	0.48	0.18	0.21	0.03

Standardized regression weights for equation with all variables						
	Disposition	Extra	Affinity	Communication	Competence	Individual consideration
Conscious implementation	-0.07	0.19	0.15	0.18	0.12	0.25
Conscious commitment	0.10	0.12	0.08	0.30	0.17	0.24
Knowledge of performance	-0.13	0.08	0.09	0.37	-0.10	0.12

(** $p < 0.01$; $n = 254$)

Table 7.9 shows that the model-specified service dimensions do account for a considerable amount of variance in the cognitive expressions. For example, extra and competence account for 22% of the variance in implementation; disposition, affinity and individual consideration account for 47% of variance in commitment; and, communication accounts for 18% of variance in performance. The addition of service dimensions other than those predicted by the model produced small increases in variance. For example, addition of the other service dimensions to implementation explained a further 13% of variance; to commitment, a further 9%; and, to performance, a small 3%. Some of the standardized regression weights for equations predicting cognitive expressions are as expected. For example, communication was the strongest predictor of performance, as depicted by the model.

The model suggests that extra and competence predict implementation. The results show that for implementation, individual consideration was the strongest predictor, followed by extra, communication and affinity. Individual consideration was also a good predictor of commitment, as the model indicates. Competence was also a strong predictor for commitment while the other model-specified variable of affinity and dispositions were moderately predictive of commitment. Overall, it is the incremental increase in controlled variance that provides support for the notion that service dimensions do relate to cognitive expressions as prescribed by the model.

7.4 Moderating affect of deference

The service predispositions model proposes that deference can moderate individuals' predispositions at two points: between service dimensions and cognitive expressions and between cognitive expressions and personal outcome. Theoretically, the model argues that highly deferential individuals (those who score deference highly) are better able to experience the psychological effects of a heightened internal sense from the first part of the model (the Service Dimensions). Hence, they are also more disposed to respond favourably to the experience of service delivery (i.e. the personal outcome). It is therefore, predicted that the relationship between cognitive expressions and personal outcome will be stronger for employees with higher deference than those with lower deference. Similarly, the relationship between service dimensions and their corresponding cognitive expressions will be stronger for employees with higher deference than those with lower deference. Essentially, the model suggests that

individuals with high deference will be more capable of experiencing the cognitive expressions of their service dimensions and so, be better able to deliver service to the level of satisfaction expected.

Like the other dimensions of the SPI, individuals' scores for deference were computed by averaging individuals' responses to the three items ascribed to this dimension. In determining the moderating effect of deference, the upper and lower quartiles of employees' responses to deference were identified. To assess the moderating effect of deference on the cognitive expressions-personal outcome relationship, a similar process to Hackman and Oldham's (1974) approach was taken. The upper and lower quartiles for deference were determined. Individuals with high deference (upper quartile) were then selected and responses for cognitive expressions were correlated with personal outcome and for service dimensions with corresponding cognitive expressions. A similar process was followed for individuals with low deference (lower quartile). Hackman and Oldham (1974, p. 21) also used the product of the three psychological states in their study. The psychological states of the JDS are comparable to the cognitive expressions of the SPM, in relation to their positioning in the models. Hackman and Oldham (1974, p. 21) argued, "It would be desirable to use a single measure that would summarize the degree to which all three psychological states simultaneously are present. The product of the three psychological states has this property". Hence, in determining the moderating effect of deference, the product of all three cognitive expressions was used as the single measure outcome and correlated with personal outcome for when deference was both high and low. Table 7.10 shows the correlations for upper and lower quartiles.

Table 7.10: Comparison of correlations for top and bottom quartiles of dimensions to determine moderating effect of deference

	High deference (Upper quartile)	Low deference (Lower quartile)	Difference
Disposition + Commitment	0.374**	0.452**	-0.078
Affinity + Commitment	0.242*	0.391**	-0.149
Individual consideration + Commitment	0.357**	0.611**	-0.254
Extra + Implementation	0.291*	0.220	0.071
Competence + Implementation	0.295**	0.128	0.167
Communication + Performance	0.462**	0.297**	0.165
Commitment + Personal Outcome	0.528**	0.380**	0.148
Implementation + Personal Outcome	0.549**	0.377**	0.172
Performance + Personal Outcome	0.470**	0.213	0.257
(Implementation x commitment x performance) + personal outcome	0.613**	0.445**	0.168

Overall, the correlations were statistically significant (except for extra and competence when deference is low) and differences in the strength of the correlations for employees with high versus low deference are all in the expected direction (except for disposition, affinity and individual consideration). When deference is high the cognitive expressions show a stronger correlation with personal outcome than when deference is low. Likewise, when deference is high the product of the cognitive expressions is high and when deference is low, it is low. Similarly, when deference is high the service dimensions relating to implementation show a stronger correlation with the cognitive expression of implementation than when deference is low; and the service dimension of communication shows a stronger correlation with performance than when deference is

low. However, for the cognitive expression of commitment, the service dimensions of disposition, affinity and individual consideration show a weaker correlation than when deference is low. These findings suggests that deference has a strong moderating affect on the relationships between cognitive expressions and personal outcome, and the relationships between extra and competence with implementation and between communication and performance, as described by the model. Further, the relationships between commitment and disposition, affinity and individual consideration are negatively moderated by deference, so that when deference is low these relationships are stronger.

It is argued that the dimensions of extra, competence and communication are important factors in the delivery of high levels of quality service and that possession of these characteristics may differentiate individuals who are more likely to deliver exceptional quality service. Hence, a person who would be considered to have an excellent predisposition for service delivery would be considered to exhibit high levels of deference and of extra, competence and communication. Similarly, these individuals would exhibit high levels of commitment, implementation and performance. On the other hand, it seems to be that when deference is low, the relationships between commitment and disposition, affinity, and individual consideration are better described and perhaps more important. It may be that these characteristics are important for basic delivery of service but individuals who cannot surpass these levels of service delivery, and exhibit all the other dimensions described by the SPM, may not have the necessary predispositions to deliver exceptional service. Hence, it may be that the dimensions prescribed by the model are aligned hierarchically in terms of identifying individuals with service predispositions. For example, the dimensions of disposition, affinity and individual consideration may be at the lower end of the scale and the cognitive expressions at the higher end of the scale for assessing individuals who have low to high service predispositions. Further, it may be that deference is a moderator of the dimensions for individuals whose service predispositions are very high and that deference plays a key role in identifying individuals who have high service predispositions. Possibly, individuals who have minimal service predispositions do not experience the nature of deference. Individuals who are truly predisposed to delivery of service, on the other hand, will experience the affects of deference much more. Therefore, as *per* the predictions, it is possible that individuals with high deference will posses the necessary service

dimensions to facilitate the cognitive expressions necessary for prescribing their predispositions to delivery of quality service.

7.5 Summary of reliability and validity of Service Predispositions Model

In the main, the results for the study sample provide support for the rationale of the SPM. The dimensionality of the instrument was assessed using Principal Components Factor Analysis and was determined to be satisfactory. Factor analysis of all SPI items resulted in 8 dimensions with Eigenvalues greater than 1 and with five dimensions loading with three items as expected. The loading of other items was favourable. The adequacy and statistical strength of the items was further assessed using Cronbachs alpha. The internal consistency of the items was in most cases stronger than previous findings by Lee-Ross (2000) and suggests that the reliability and dimensionality of the instrument are acceptable.

Correlations and multiple regressions were used to examine if the relationships between the variables were as specified by the SPM. Most correlations between the dimensions and personal outcome were stronger than the original study but even those that were weaker were all in the predicted positive direction and all were substantially significant. In exploring the relationships specified by the model further, regression analyses showed that cognitive expressions accounted for a moderate amount of variance on personal outcome and that the service dimensions contributed an increase in the amount of variance but the amount was not as high as that for the cognitive expressions. Use of partial correlations added to the idea that the relationships between service dimensions and personal outcome are empirically dependent on the cognitive expressions. Multiple regressions investigating the relationships between the service dimensions and cognitive expressions revealed that incremental increases in controlled variance supported these relationships. The moderating affect of deference was not precisely as expected but did lend support to the proposition that individuals high in deference may possess service predispositions favourable for delivery of high quality service. Hence, overall, statistical analyses appear to acknowledge that the relationships described by the model are robust and for purposes of this study, the *a priori* structure of the factors has been retained. The next chapter presents the results of the SPI when used to assess the attitudes of hotel workers in Tropical North Queensland.

CHAPTER 8

THE SPI SURVEY RESULTS

8.1 Introduction

This chapter addresses the first aim of this study, that is, to develop a profile of the service predispositions of employees within the hotel industry of Cairns. In so doing, it addresses two of the research questions raised in Chapter 1:

- Do profiles of the service predispositions of employees vary between hotels and departments?
- Is there a collective profile of service predispositions, which relates to employees of the hotel industry in Cairns?

It presents analyses of results elicited by the Service Predispositions Instrument (SPI), specifically differences between hotels, departments and individuals identified profiles, which were grouped as Industry, Organisational and Departmental Norms. The purpose of such differentiation is to pinpoint where the differences, if any, exist. It is considered that if significant differences exist at the organisational level, the results support the notion that organisational culture (OC) influences service predispositions. If, on the other hand, there is no difference at the organisational level, the findings lend support for the existence of an overarching hospitality culture. Such a culture would be common to most hotels and encourage individuals to behave in a similar fashion regardless of the hotel they are working in. Further analyses is used to identify which dimensions are best predictors of service predispositions of individuals who deliver excellent service. The results are augmented by findings from the ethnographic perspective.

The chapter begins by reviewing the service predispositions model before presenting the results of the data from administration of the SPI.

8.2 Service Predispositions Model Revisited

The relationships proposed for the dimensions as described by the Service Predispositions Model (SPM) are presented in Figure 8.1.

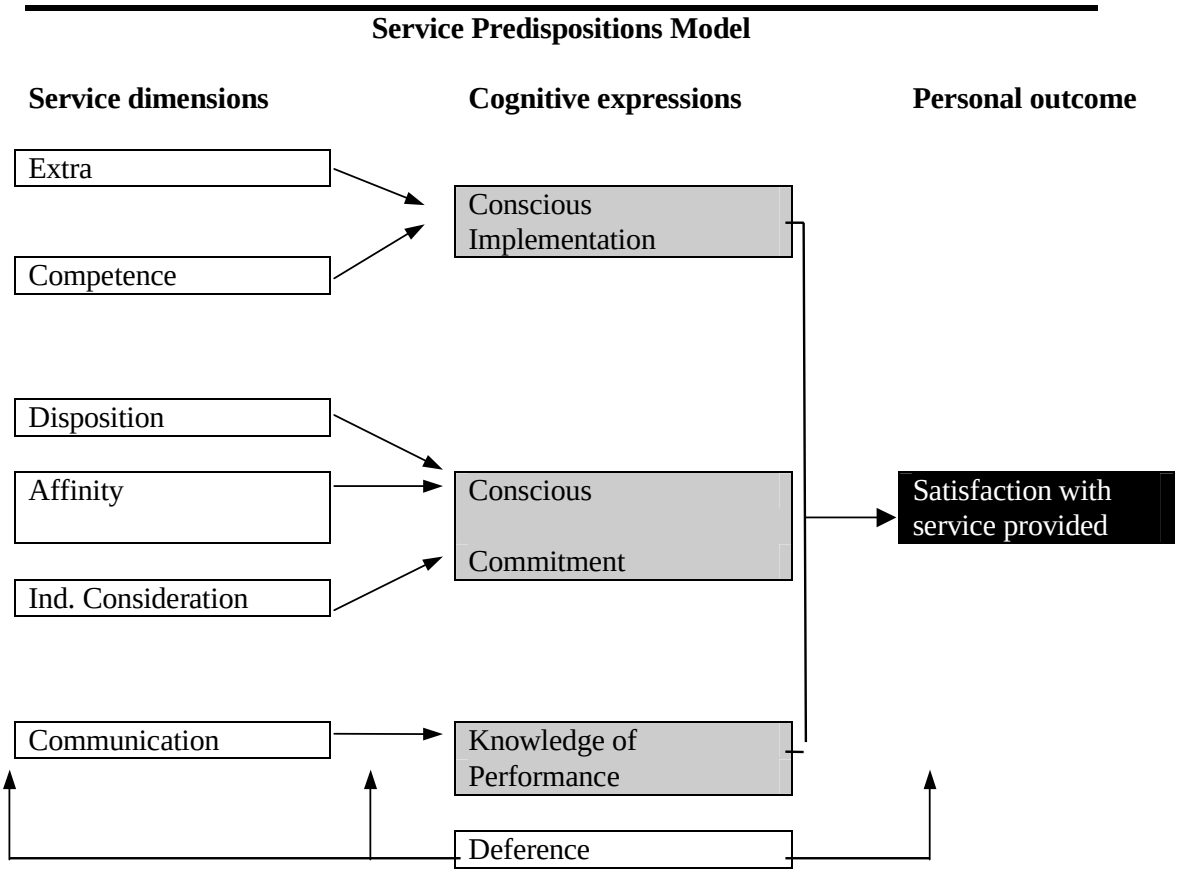

Figure 8.1: The Service Predisposition Model
[Source: Lee-Ross, 2000, p. 149, Figure 1]

As noted in Chapter 2, according to the SPM, there are six service dimensions that stimulate cognitive expressions (Lee-Ross, 1999). These are *competence, extra, individual attention, affinity, disposition, communication.* The SPM suggests that these service dimensions stimulate the three cognitive expressions of *conscious implementation, conscious commitment,* and *knowledge of performance.* The model infers that when all these three cognitive expressions are realised, there is a maximisation of the positive outcome of *personal satisfaction* with the service

provided. The seventh service dimension of *deference*, acts as a moderator at various levels, that is, between service dimensions and cognitive expressions and between cognitive expressions and personal outcome. Three statements represent each dimension, where each statement addresses one of the three components of attitudes as described by Ajzen and Fishbein (1980), that is, conative, cognitive and affective components. In the analyses for this chapter, results for the three statements were averaged to obtain a mean score for each dimension. The results for those dimensions are presented in this chapter at various levels, that is, industry, organisational and departmental.

8.3 Hospitality Workers' Service Predispositions Norms

As profiles of the service predispositions were developed and the various levels (industry, organisation, department and individual) were examined, the name 'norms' (being short for what is normal for that group) was given to the various groups. Industry norms, that is, norms representing all respondent hospitality workers, were obtained by using the complete data set in determining averages for each dimension. These average ratings were used to develop a mean profile for hospitality employees in Cairns. Figure 8.1 shows these average ratings for the SPM dimensions.

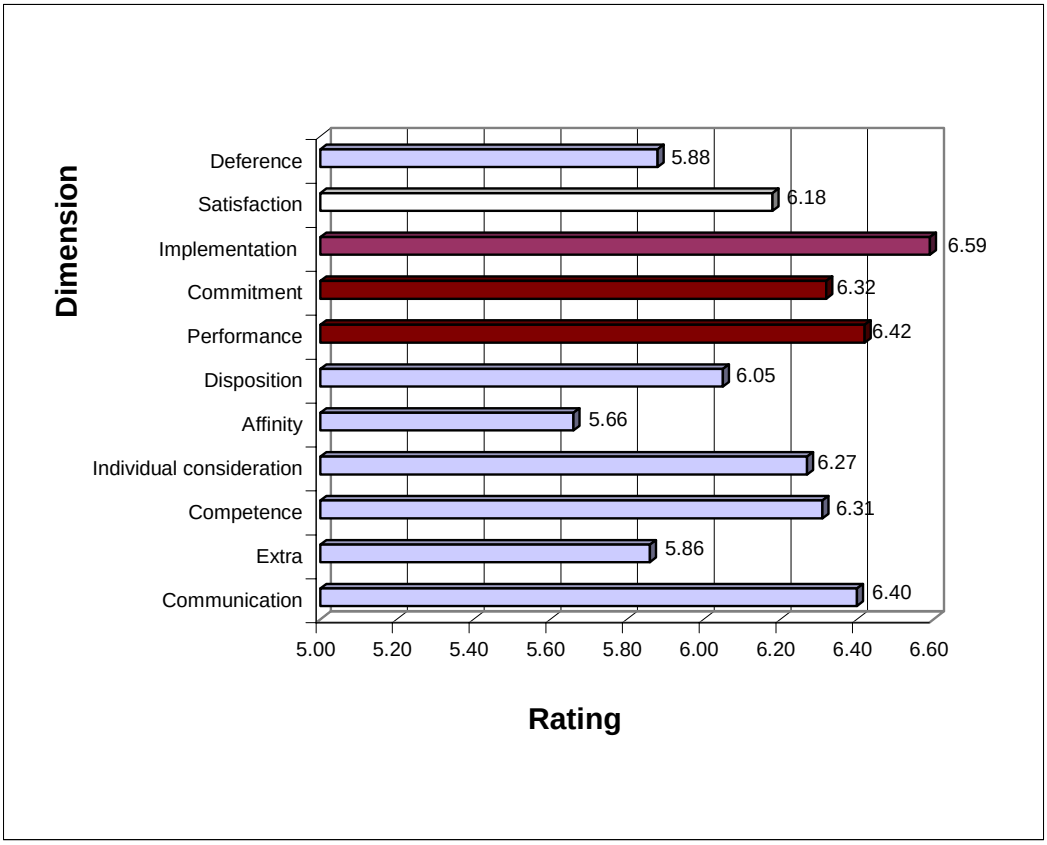

Figure 8.2: Profile of mean dimension scores for all hotel workers (n=254).

Figure 8.2 shows that although no scores fell below 5.66 (affinity), dimensions of 'competence', 'communication' and 'individual consideration' were clearly held as important by hotel employees for delivering quality service. In particular, communication was considered to be the principal dimension. The dimension of 'affinity' was reported as the least notable of the dimensions.

Ratings for cognitive expressions were slightly higher than those for service dimensions: commitment (6.32), implementation (6.59) and performance (6.42). These findings are reasonable in light of the rationale of the service predispositions model that the service dimensions (disposition, affinity, individual consideration, extra, competence, and communication) need to be present in order that the elements of cognitive expressions (implementation, commitment, and performance) can manifest themselves.

The model also proposes that cognitive expressions are causal of personal outcome (satisfaction) when individuals display certain service dimensions. The results reveal that

satisfaction (6.18) was rated slightly lower than the cognitive expressions and in line with the average score for deference, which was 5.88.

The results indicate that the cognitive expressions were considered to be most important, since they were scored the highest. So, these dimensions could be regarded as critical in representing industry norms, that is, the norms reflective of hospitality workers. To gain some insight into the underlying factors that may be affecting individual's service predispositions further analyses were conducted to extrapolate Organisational Norms.

8.4 Organisational Norms

'Organisational norms' was the name given to profiles of individuals from different organisations. They were developed by averaging results for individuals from each hotel for each dimension. It was hypothesised that any value differences between hotels would suggest that OC within each organisation contributes to service predispositions. From here, further investigations based upon organisational cultural variables would provide some indication of the level of the relationship between OC and service predispositions.

Previous studies suggest that significant differences exist between groups of service workers for certain dimensions (Lee-Ross, 1999). For example, nurses ranked disposition significantly lower than hospitality workers but ranked deference significantly higher. In an attempt to determine differences between hospitality organisations, average ratings for individual SPI specified dimensions were compared between employees from different organisations. ANOVAs were performed to see whether these dimensions differed by organisation. The results are shown in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1: One-Way Analysis of Variance and Kruskal-Wallis tests examining hotel and dimensions

Dimension	Hotel						ANOVA Test					Kruskal-Wallis	
	A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**	**F**	*df*	*Mean Squares*		*F*	Significance	χ^2	Sig.
								Between Groups	*Within Groups*				
Disposition	5.97	6.19	5.85	6.19	6.09	6.04	5	0.777	0.472	1.645	0.149	9.051	0.107
Affinity	5.10	5.73	5.98	6.04	5.86	5.26	5	6.802	1.400	4.860	**0.000****	17.652	**0.003****
Individual consideration	6.31	6.26	5.99	6.35	6.53	6.13	5	1.373	0.423	3.247	**0.007****	15.188	**0.010****
Extra	5.88	6.02	5.77	5.81	5.83	5.76	5	0.381	0.645	0.590	0.707	5.384	0.371
Competence	6.27	6.15	6.33	6.15	6.60	6.52	5	1.399	0.489	2.861	**0.016****	15.545	**0.008****
Communication	6.40	6.34	6.29	6.43	6.57	6.37	5	0.376	0.396	0.951	0.449	5.613	0.346
Commitment	6.23	6.31	6.21	6.38	6.58	6.11	5	0.965	0.367	2.625	**0.025****	13.772	**0.017****
Implementation	6.59	6.59	6.50	6.60	6.71	6.56	5	0.211	0.235	0.898	0.483	5.146	0.398
Performance	6.51	6.35	6.26	6.33	6.61	6.39	5	0.736	0.548	1.344	0.246	13.166	**0.022****
Satisfaction	6.07	6.13	6.16	6.23	6.37	6.17	5	0.504	0.369	1.365	0.238	4.748	0.447
Deference	5.87	5.83	5.81	5.94	6.09	5.63	5	0.722	0.829	0.870	0.502	5.326	0.377
Number of respondents (n)	**60**	**50**	**43**	**40**	**43**	**18**							

**p<0.05

Table 8.1 shows that some of the service predispositions are significantly different between employees from different hotels. Significant differences were found among dimension scores for individual consideration, competence, affinity and commitment. Kruskal-Wallis analyses support these and also indicate significant difference for performance. These were examined further using Tukey HSD *post hoc* tests. The results are shown in Table 8.2.

Table 8.2: Tukey's HSD test to determine differences between hotels for service predispositions

Dimension	Hotel	Hotel	Mean Difference	Significant
Individual consideration	C	E	-0.535	0.002
Competence	B	E	-0.458	0.020
	D	E	-0.454	0.036
Affinity	C	A	-0.885	0.003
	D	A	-0.942	0.001
	E	A	-0.761	0.016
Commitment	A	E	-0.348	0.047
	C	E	-0.372	0.050

Table 8.2 shows that for individual consideration, the significant difference was between Hotels C and E; for competence, significant differences were observed for both Hotels B and D with Hotel E; for affinity, significant differences were observed for Hotels C, D, and E with Hotel A; and, for commitment, significant differences were observed for Hotels A and C with Hotel E. Further clarification for differences between the hotels was sought by using cross tabulations. These tabulations are presented in Table 8.3.

Table 8.3: Cross tabulations between hotels for dimensions that showed significant differences

RATING	DIMENSIONS											
	Individual consideration		Competence			Commitment			Affinity			
	Hotel C	**Hotel E**	**Hotel B**	**Hotel D**	**Hotel E**	**Hotel A**	**Hotel C**	**Hotel E**	**Hotel A**	**Hotel C**	**Hotel D**	**Hotel E**
<5.00	**4.66%**	**0%**	4.00%	7.50%	2.32%	3.33%	0%	2.33%	40.00%	6.98%	7.50%	13.95%
5.00 to < 6.00	39.53%	6.98%	32.00%	20.00%	6.98%	23.33%	23.25%	2.33%	25.00%	32.56%	20.00%	16.28%
6.00 to < 7.00	41.86%	46.51%	42.00%	50.00%	41.86%	46.67%	60.47%	51.15%	23.33%	39.53%	55.00%	60.47%
≥ 7.00	13.95%	46.51%	22.00%	22.50%	48.84%	26.67%	16.28%	44.19%	11.67%	20.93%	17.5%	9.30%

Table 8.3 shows significant differences for individual consideration between Hotels E and C. That is the former had ratings (93.02%) at 6.00 or more while Hotel C had most ratings (86.05%) at less than 7. Similarly for competence, Hotel E had most of its ratings (90.70%) at 6.00 or more while Hotels B and D had most of its ratings at less than 7.00 (78.0% and 77.5%, respectively). The dimensions of commitment and affinity also support the notion that employees from Hotel E exhibited the highest ratings.

These results show some significant differences between hotels and particularly, for the dimensions of individual consideration, competence, commitment and affinity. This finding suggests that organisational norms could be represented by a strong focus on these four dimensions. Earlier (Figure 8.2) it was shown that all employees held dimensions of individual consideration, competence and communication as important. Organisational norms may, therefore, be consistent with industry norms. The next section examines the data, comparing employees from different departments.

8.5 Departmental Norms

A similar procedure was followed to determine differences between departments and develop ‘departmental norms’. Comparisons of average ratings for departments collectively were made between employees from front office and food and beverage, using one-way ANOVA. These results are shown in Table 8.4.

Table 8.4: One-Way Analysis of Variance and Kruskal-Wallis tests examining service predispositions dimensions for departments in hotels overall

Dimension	Department		ANOVA Test					Kruskal-Wallis	
	Front Office	**Food & Beverage**	*df*	*Mean Squares*		*F*	Significance	χ^2	Sig.
				Between Groups	*Within Groups*				
Disposition	5.99	6.09	1	0.645	0.478	1.350	0.246	1.946	0.163
Affinity	5.62	5.70	1			0.274	0.601	0.116	0.733
Individual consideration	6.28	6.28	1	7.411	0.443	0.000	0.989	0.104	0.747
Extra	5.87	5.86	1	5.911	0.642	0.009	0.924	0.002	0.969
Competence	6.42	6.23	1	2.287	0.500	4.574	**0.033****	3.415	0.065
Communication	6.41	6.39	1	2.451	0.397	0.062	0.804	0.035	0.852
Commitment	6.28	6.35	1	0.246	0.380	0.647	0.422	0.899	0.343
Implementation	6.64	6.56	1	0.350	0.234	1.499	0.222	1.151	0.283
Performance	6.42	6.41	1	3.834	0.554	0.007	0.934	0.044	0.834
Satisfaction	6.16	6.20	1	0.107	0.373	0.286	0.593	1.561	0.211
Deference	5.86	5.90	1	8.979	0.830	0.108	0.743	0.111	0.739
Number of respondents (n)	**111**	**143**							

**p<0.05

Table 8.4 shows that for departments collectively, competence displays a significant difference between departments (df=5; F=4.574; p=0.033) with the one-way ANOVA analysis. Kruskal-Wallis tests indicated no significant differences. No post hoc results were returned for this section because there were fewer than three groups. Cross tabulations for competence, however, showed that the greatest difference between ratings for competence was at <5.00 where 1.8% of front office respondents produced this score compared with 6.29% of food and beverage respondents. The findings here vary somewhat with earlier observations. So, further analyses of the data were conducted with the aim of determining whether there were differences between departments if hotels were considered individually. It is hypothesized that if similar significant differences between departments are found in this latter case, then it is possible that the service predispositions noted of individuals at the organisational level are so strong that they mask that of individuals at the departmental level.

Earlier (Table 8.1), when the data was assessed at the organisational level, it was found that significant differences existed between hotels for affinity, individual consideration, competence and performance. Here, when the data was assessed at the overall departmental level, competence only was found to be of any significance. Hence, the data

was analysed by departments for each hotel separately to determine if significant differences observed in Table 8.3 were an organisational characteristic or whether the differences could be pinpointed to a specific department. One-way analysis of variance was used to determine differences between departments for each hotel individually. The results are shown in Table 8.5.

Table 8.5: One-Way Analysis of Variance and Kruskal-Wallis tests examining service predispositions dimensions for departments in hotels individually

Dimension	Depts	Hotel					
		A	B	C	D	E	F
Disposition	**FO**	5.86	6.03	5.84	6.22	5.98	6.29
	FB	6.04	6.31	5.86	6.17	6.18	5.88
Extra	**FO**	5.81	5.97	5.65	**6.22****	5.74	5.90
	FB	5.92	6.05	5.89	**5.51****	5.92	5.67
Communication	**FO**	6.36	6.23	6.33	6.49	6.65	6.48
	FB	6.42	6.43	6.26	6.38	6.48	6.30
Individual consideration	**FO**	6.24	6.24	6.06	6.41	6.46	6.24
	FB	6.35	6.27	5.92	6.30	6.59	6.06
Competence	**FO**	6.42	6.21	6.43	6.22	6.68	6.71
	FB	6.17	6.10	6.23	6.10	6.53	6.39
Affinity	**FO**	5.14	**5.21****	6.00	**5.73****	5.79	**6.48****
	FB	5.07	**6.13****	5.97	**6.27****	5.92	**4.48****
Implementation	**FO**	6.64	6.61	6.49	6.69	6.75	6.71
	FB	6.57	6.57	6.50	6.54	6.68	6.45
Commitment	**FO**	6.14	6.21	6.24	6.53	**6.41****	6.10
	FB	6.29	6.39	6.18	6.26	**6.74****	6.121
Performance	**FO**	6.54	6.29	6.22	6.20	6.75	6.62
	FB	6.49	6.40	6.30	6.42	6.48	6.24
Satisfaction	**FO**	6.14	**5.92****	6.19	6.29	6.30	6.09
	FB	6.03	**6.30****	6.14	6.19	6.44	6.21
Deference	**FO**	5.65	5.62	**6.03****	6.10	6.02	5.76
	FB	6.00	5.99	**5.59****	5.83	6.17	5.55

FO = Front Office
FB = Food & Beverage
N = 254
**p<0.05

Table 8.5 shows that when hotels are considered individually, there were no significant differences for the dimensions of disposition, communication, individual consideration, competence, implementation and performance. The dimensions of extra, commitment, satisfaction and deference showed significant differences between departments for one hotel each and affinity showed significant differences for three hotels. In order to gain an

overall understanding of the ratings for the service predispositions dimensions, findings of the one-way ANOVA analyses are summarized in Table 8.6.

Table 8.6: Summary of One-Way ANOVA analyses for the SPM dimensions

DIMENSION	**INDUSTRY** (In order of decreasing rating)	**ORGANISATIONAL**	**DEPARTMENTAL** (Overall Hotels)	**DEPARTMENTAL** (Individual Hotels)
Implementation	6.59	No significance	No significance	No significance
Performance	6.42	No significance	No significance	No significance
Communication	6.40	No significance	No significance	No significance
Commitment	6.32	**Significant difference**	No significance	**Significant differences for Hotel E**
Competence	6.31	**Significant difference**	**Significant difference**	No significance
Individual consideration	6.27	**Significant difference**	No significance	No significance
Satisfaction	6.18	No significance	No significance	**Significant differences for Hotel B**
Disposition	6.05	No significance	No significance	No significance
Deference	5.88	No significance	No significance	**Significant differences for Hotel C**
Extra	5.86	No significance	No significance	**Significant differences for Hotel D**
Affinity	5.66	**Significant difference**	No significance	**Significant differences for Hotel B, D & E**

Table 8.6 shows that for the dimensions of disposition, communication, performance and implementation there were no significant differences at the organisational and departmental levels. Therefore, it can be said that individuals' presentation of the dimensions of disposition, communication, performance and implementation is consistent across departments, organisations and the hotel industry.

Table 8.6 also shows that for the dimensions of satisfaction, deference and extra there were no significant differences at the organisational level, that is, the ratings of these dimensions were consistent between hotels. Further, when hotels were considered collectively, there was no significant difference between departments indicating that the

ratings for these dimensions were uniform across departments. A closer look at the hotels individually, showed that for each of these dimensions, there was one hotel that exhibited a significant difference between departments. For example, for satisfaction, Hotel B showed significant differences between departments with front office having an average rating of 5.92 compared with 6.30 for food & beverage; for deference, Hotel C showed significant differences; and, for extra, Hotel D showed significant differences. These results indicate that the ratings observed at the organisational and overall departmental levels need to be viewed with caution, that is, that for some hotels there may be some departmental variances. It should be noted, however, that since these variances were not apparent at either the organisational and overall departmental levels, the nuances observed for these dimensions and for the hotels noted in Table 8.6, are characteristics of those specific hotels only. It is possible that the strength of these dimensions is strong between departments but not strong enough to pervade the entire hotel. Further, the differences at the departmental levels are idiosyncrasies of individual departments and not reflective of organisational or industry norms. In summary, for the dimensions of satisfaction, extra and deference, the ratings observed at the industry and organisational levels can be said to be indicative of industry and organisational norms but it should be noted that for these dimensions there are some departmental variances.

Table 8.6 shows that for individual consideration (IC) there were significant differences between hotels but none at overall or individual departmental level. Table 8.3 showed significant differences between Hotels C and E for IC. This suggests that individuals within hotels and generally across hotels rated IC similarly. However, for individuals from Hotels C and E, the ratings for IC were markedly different to other hotels. Hence, it can be summarized that for IC, the ratings observed at the organisational level were indicative of organisational rather than departmental anomalies.

For competence there was a significant difference between and within hotels (Table 8.6). Table 8.1 shows that for competence, Hotels B and D had the lowest ratings and Hotel E had the highest ratings. Hence, at the organisational level, the differences observed can be attributed to the characteristics of these three hotels, that is, Hotels B, D and E. Table 8.6 shows that when all departments were considered collectively, there was a significant difference in ratings within hotels for competence, indicating that there may have been some notable differences between departments. However, when hotels were analysed

separately, there was no significant difference between departments. This suggests that for competence, the significant differences observed at departmental levels are consistent across hotels rather than specific to any particular hotel.

Further, Table 8.6 shows that for commitment and affinity there were significant differences at the organisational and departmental (individual hotels) levels but none at departmental (overall hotels) level. Affinity showed that lowest rating at the industry level, that is, when scores for all hotel workers were considered collectively. At the organisational level there were significant differences for this dimension between Hotels C and A, Hotels D and A, and Hotels E and A. At the departmental level, affinity showed significant differences between front office and food & Beverage departments for Hotels B, D and F. This suggests that for Hotel D, the affinity rating was so markedly different between the departments that this difference was reflected at the organisational level. A similar argument could be made for commitment, that is, that the differences in ratings for this dimension between the two departments is so marked that it is sustained to the organisational level. Again, for commitment, significant differences were observed between Hotels A and E, and Hotels C and E. Therefore, it was no surprise that for commitment there were significant differences for Hotel E.

Finally, Table 8.6 shows that competence had significant differences at the organisational and departmental (overall hotels) levels but not at the departmental (individual hotels) level. This indicates that the significant differences observed for competence at the organisational level are most probably a reflection of the overall departmental differences while not specific to any hotel in particular. Cross tabulations for competence were calculated. These are shown in Table 8.7.

Table 8.7: Cross tabulations for comparison of ratings for commitment between departments

RATINGS	Individual consideration	
	Front Office	**Food & Beverage**
<5.00	1.8%	2.9%
5.00 to < 6.00	9.9%	8.4%
6.00 to < 7.00	45.0%	33.6%
≥ 7.00	23.4%	30.1%

Table 8.7 shows that cross tabulations for competence presented the greatest difference between ratings at <5.00 where 1.8% of front office respondents produced this score compared with 6.29% of food and beverage staff. So it seems that food and beverage attendants rate having competence as a more important factor in their delivery of service quality than front office staff.

The data presented until now has sought to identify which SPI dimensions best characterize the hotel industry at several levels, which is, the industry, organisational and departmental levels. Further analyses of the data sought to relate the findings to the actual model prescribing the dimensions (the SPM). The aim of this part of the study was to identify 'service attitudes' and to determine which dimensions are best predictors of delivery of quality service. The results of these analyses are presented in the next section.

8.6 Searching for Service Attitudes

Thus far it is reasonable to assert that some dimensions are more important than others. The importance of each dimension varies across industry, organization or department. This concept is now extended further to determine whether the importance of each dimension varies in relation to the dimension of personal outcome (i.e. satisfaction with service provided) from the SPM. The rationale of the SPM proposes that personal outcome is the final product of the model. It is the culmination of the dynamics and interactions of the other dimensions in the model. As such it not only provides a good indication of individuals' potential to deliver quality service but it is also a reflection of the importance of each dimension to the realization of this final outcome. Hence, it was theorized that because of the rationale of the model, the dimension of personal outcome

could be used to describe service predispositions collectively. The term 'service attitudes' was coined to reflect the cumulative nature of the dimension of personal outcome.

8.6.1 Dimensions Profiling Individuals' Service Attitudes

Discriminant analysis (DA) is a technique used to predict what variables discriminate between two or more groups (Diekoff, 1992). In this study it is used to identify which dimensions best differentiate between individuals with high and low service attitudes based on their responses to the dimension of personal outcome, (i.e. satisfaction with service provided). In order to conduct the discriminant analysis, the respondents needed to be grouped. Since service attitudes were the criteria being addressed, groups were identified according to particular responses to the dimension of personal outcome.

Cluster analysis was used to identify quartiles or four groups of service attitudes ranging from those with 'high service satisfaction' to those with 'low service satisfaction'. T-tests were conducted to determine the level of similarity between the groups. The results are shown in Table 8.8.

Table 8.8: Grouping of Personal Outcome from low to high service attitudes

Group	Rating	Satisfaction with Service Provided, i.e. service attitudes	Percent
1	4.00 to 5.99	Low	25%
2	6.00 to 6.29	↓	25%
3	6.30 to 6.66		25%
4	6.67 to 7.00	High	25%
			100%
* t=37.013; df=253; p=0.000			

Table 8.8 shows that t-tests comparing means for the groups were all significant ($p<0.05$). This suggests that there were significant differences between the means for the groups of staff in relation to their satisfaction with service provided and so, their service attitudes. These clusters or groups were then entered into a DA as the grouping variable and all the SPI dimensions were entered as the independent variables.

With DA, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices is tested using Box's M (Coakes & Steed, 1999). The results indicate that Box's M is significant (F=3.062; df1= 165; df2=101103.9; p=0.000) and hence, the assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices has been compromised. However, the within-groups correlation

matrix shows that correlations between variables vary from low (0.006) to marginal (0.358), and so, multicolinearity is not a problem. Tabachnick and Fidell (1989 in Coates & Steele, 1999) contend that minor multicolinearity is acceptable because the DA program automatically tests for this assumption and eliminates variables if the assumption is severely compromised. The DA results also showed that three discriminant functions were extracted. The eigenvalues and variances for these are described in Table 8.9.

Table 8.9: Using Eigenvalues to test for significance of discriminant functions

Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Canonical correlation
1	1.017	85.3%	0.710
2	0.130	10.9%	0.339
3	0.046	3.9%	0.210

Diekoff (1992) notes that eigenvalues associated with each particular function provide an indication of the discriminating power of each discriminant function. Eigenvalues present an indication of the proportion of the total between-group separation that is endowed by each discriminant function. The first discriminant function provides the most overall separation of groups. Hence, the earlier discriminant functions will have the larger and more powerful eigenvalues. Table 8.9 shows that the first discriminant function has an eigenvalue of 1.017, which contributes eight times more discriminating power than the second function. Also, the first function accounts for 85.3% of the between-group variance, i.e. separation, while the second function explains 10.9% of variance, and the third function explains 3.9% of variance. Hence, the results so far indicate that the first function is a very powerful one while the second and third functions are much weaker in the total separation achieved. This is also supported by the large canonical correlation of 0.710 reported for the first function (Table 8.9).

The canonical correlation measures the degree of association between scores on that discriminant function and scores on the variable that delineates group membership (Diekoff, 1992). Squaring the canonical correlation provides a measure of the amount of total variance in group membership that is described by the discriminant function. Hence, in this study, the canonical correlation for the first function indicates that this function is strongly correlated to group differences and that 50.41% [correlation^2 = $(0.71)^2$] of variance in group membership is described by this first function. The second function is not so strongly correlated to group differences and explains 11.49% of variance in group

membership. The third function is the least correlated to group differences and accounts for 4.41% of variance. The low percent of variance explained by function 3 (above) and the low canonical correlation observed for this factor led the researcher to drop this Function from any further considerations. Another indicator of a discriminant function's power is the Wilk's Lambda statistic and this is presented in Table 8.10.

Table 8.10: Using Wilk's Lambda to test for significance of discriminant functions

Function	Wilk's Lambda	Chi-square	df	Significance
1	0.419	213.737	30	0.000
2	0.846	41.089	18	0.001
3	0.956	11.097	8	0.020

The Wilk's Lambda (Λ˘ranges in values from 0 to 1, such that the closer the value is to zero, the better the separation (Diekoff, 1992). The very small Wilk's Lambda value for Functions 1 through 3 (Λ=0.419) in Table 8.10 indicates strong separation of groups using these three discriminant functions. Examination of the chi-square test of Wilk's Lambda shows that for the three functions collectively, the chi-square value of 213.737 is highly significant ($p<0.0001$) and suggests that the discrimination represented by the three functions together is very good. For the two functions 2 and 3, the Wilk's Lambda value is markedly larger than the first one (Λ=0.846). However, the chi-square test of significance is also highly significant (χ^2=41.089; df=18; p=0.001) and suggests that the second function also provides significant separation of groups. The third function has the largest Wilk's Lambda (Λ=0.956) and is also significant (χ^2=11.097; df=8; p=0.020). To further confirm that the functions satisfactorily discriminated between the groups, the results were validated (Coake & Steed, 1999). This was achieved by examining the classification results to determine the extent to which the DA is able to correctly predict group membership (Table 8.11).

Table 8.11: Classification results of predicted group membership*

Actual Group	Number of cases	Predicted group membership			
		1	**2**	**3**	**4**
1	51	**38**	6	4	3
		74.5%	11.8%	7.8%	5.9%
2	76	11	**43**	9	13
		14.5%	**56.6%**	11.8%	17.1%
3	49	4	7	**30**	8
		8.2%	14.3%	**61.2%**	16.3%
4	78	2	8	20	**48**
		2.6%	10.3%	25.6%	**61.5%**

*58.7% of original grouped cases correctly classified.

The results (Table 8.11) show that 58.7% of cases were correctly classified. There was 74.5% correct prediction for Group 1 (very low service attitudes), 56.6% for Group 2 (low service attitudes), 61.2% for Group 3 (high service attitudes) and 61.5% for Group 4 (very high service attitudes). From Group 1, 11.8% were misclassified as Group 2, and 14.5% of Group 2 were misclassified as Group 1 while 25.6% of Group 4 were misclassified as Group 3 and 16.3% of Group 3 were misclassified as Group 4. Hence, it seems that Groups 3 and 4 have some elements in common, as do Groups 1 and 2 and, most importantly, Functions 1 and 2, which are the functions of interest here are reasonably well represented with 74.5% and 56.6%, respectively, of cases correctly classified.

Having identified the significance of the discriminant functions, a further description of the between-group differences was sought by attempting to determine which groups are discriminated by each discriminant function. In other words, the question being asked is "How do individuals with high service attitudes differ from those with low service attitudes?" where service attitudes are described by individuals' responses to service satisfaction. This was achieved by examining group centroids, the structure matrix and standardized canonical discriminant function coefficients. Means for each of the groups (group centroids) can provide information about the differences between the groups and these are presented in Table 8.12.

Table 8.12: Functions at group centroids

Groups	Service Attitudes Groups	Function		
		1	2	3
1	Very low service attitudes	-1.738	0.129	-0.194
2	Low service attitudes	-0.144	-0.445	0.187
3	High service attitudes	0.277	0.581	-0.258
4	Very high service attitudes	1.103	-1.57	0.217

Table 8.12 shows that Group 1 (very low service attitudes) and Group 4 (very high service attitudes) have a high score on Functions 1, (-1.738 and 1.103, respectively). Hence, Function 1 strongly discriminates between individuals with very low service attitudes (-1.738) and those with very high service attitudes (1.103). By contrast, Function 2 discriminates between individuals with low service attitudes (-0.445) against individuals with high service attitudes (0.581). The canonical discriminant functions show a graphical representation of the group centroids and support these findings (Appendix 8.1). It clearly shows that Group 4 differs from Group 1 on Function 1 and, to a lesser extent, Group 2 differs from Group 3 on Function 2. Similarly, the territorial map depicts the same pattern with individuals in Group 4 having higher values than individuals in Group 1 on Function 1 and individuals in Group 2 generally having higher values than those in Group 3 on Function 2 (Appendix 8.2). The effectiveness of discriminations can be confirmed by the standardized canonical discriminant function coefficient, which provides an indication of which variables (dimensions) seem to discriminate between each function (Table 8.13).

Table 8.13: Standardized canonical discriminant function coefficients

	Function	
	1	2
Service Attitudes →	**Discriminates between Function 4 (Very High, +) & Function 1 (Very Low, -)**	**Discriminates between Function 3 (High, +) and Function 2 (Low, -)**
Service Dimensions		
Disposition	0.140	-0.003
Extra	0.129	**-0.457**
Communication	**0.456**	0.091
Individual consideration	-0.246	**0.778**
Competence	**0.596**	-0.024
Affinity	-0.075	**0.658**
Implementation	0.039	**0.680**
Commitment	0.227	**-0.587**
Performance	0.095	**-0.778**
Deference	0.196	-0.233

From Table 8.13 it can be seen that using standardized canonical discriminant function coefficients descriptions, the most important contributors to Function 1 are communication and competence. To a lesser extent commitment and individual consideration also discriminate between individuals with very high and very low service attitudes. Communication is twice as powerful as commitment and individual consideration having an inverse relationship with service attitudes. Hence, Function 1 shows that individuals with high emphasis on communication and competence will tend to have very high service attitudes. Important to a lesser degree for these individuals are all the other dimensions with implementation and affinity having the least importance.

For Function 2, individual consideration, affinity, implementation, extra, commitment and performance were the principal discriminating variables and to a lesser degree, deference and then, the other dimensions. Function 2 shows that of these dimensions, extra was half as powerful as the others and that extra, commitment and performance had an inverse relationship with service attitudes. Therefore, Function 2 indicates that individuals with high focus on individual consideration, affinity, and implementation but with low emphasis on extra, commitment, performance and deference will tend to have high service attitudes.

In an attempt to further interpret the results, it was decided to view the dimensions presented in Table 8.13 one by one and in relation to the level of service attitude it corresponds with. This is presented in Table 8.14.

Table 8.14: Hierarchy of dimensions in relation to individuals with low and high service attitudes

Very HIGH Service Attitudes →	**HIGH Service Attitudes** →	**LOW Service Attitudes** →	**LOW Service Attitudes**
Competence Communication	Individual consideration Implementation Affinity	Performance Commitment Extra	Individual consideration

Table 8.14 shows that the dimensions of communication and competence played a more important role in the service attitudes of individuals with very high service attitudes and that of commitment, performance and extra performed a key function in the service attitudes of individuals with low service attitudes. Implementation, affinity and individual consideration were principal dimensions for individuals with high service attitudes. Similarly, individual consideration was central to individuals with very low service attitudes.

8.6.2 Discussion of Service Attitudes

The standardized canonical discriminant function coefficients (Table 8.9) suggested that those individuals who display very high or very low service attitudes are best differentiated by Function 1. Individuals with very high service attitudes tended to have high values on Function 1 while the two groups of individuals who are at the very low end of service attitudes, tended to have low values on Function 1. Further, the results (Table 8.13) show that those individual with very high service attitudes foster high communication and competence. By contrast, as Function 2 shows, commitment, performance and extra play a more critical role for individuals with low service attitudes.

Function 2 discriminated between low and high service attitudes. For Function 2, individuals who had high service attitudes tended to have high values for individual consideration, affinity and implementation. The cognitive expressions (commitment, performance and implementation), which are shown to be important at the industry level (Figure 8.2) appear here as variables powerfully discriminating between individuals with high and low service attitudes. In line with the rationale of the SPM it can be argued that individuals who score highly on the cognitive expressions are better able to experience the psychological effects of a heightened internal sense of the second part of the model and also more disposed to respond favourably to the experience of service delivery (i.e. personal outcome). These results indicate that at the industry level hospitality workers have highly developed service predispositions. With high ratings for the cognitive expressions (Figure 8.2), hospitality workers in the respondent sample are one step away from achieving a positive personal outcome. The discriminant analysis showed that the cognitive expressions discriminated between high and low service attitudes, suggesting that these dimensions are critical in differentiating individuals from these two categories.

According to the SPM, deference can also play a critical role in enabling individuals to realize their full potential in delivery of quality service. Table 8.13 shows deference as playing a role, be it minor, in discriminating between low and high service attitudes. It is possible that deference is the key linchpin in developing individuals' service predispositions from low to high levels. Certainly, the moderating role of deference as was observed in Section 7.4 indicates that the importance of deference should not be undermined. The DA has provided some indication that deference plays a major role in the service attitudes of individuals with low to high service attitudes. Its moderating role as described by the SPM is supported by the results for individuals with both high and low service attitudes. For example, the DA results in Table 8.13 indicate that individuals with high service attitudes will have an inverse relationship with deference and that deference is more critical for individuals with low service attitudes. This supports the rationale for the SPM, which proposes that if deference is present, it will have a positive moderating effect on the cognitive expressions, which are immediately causal of personal outcome and so, produce high service attitudes. Further research would need to be done in assessing the role played by deference.

The dominance of performance and commitment for individuals with low service attitudes may at first glance appear to be an anomaly but it is possible that individuals are performing well in their jobs, are committed and can implement their tasks and duties even though they have low satisfaction with service provided or low service attitudes. Perhaps then, the finding that the cognitive expressions appear to be most representative of hospitality industry norms indicates that overall individuals' service predispositions in the hotel industry in Cairns are high but some hospitality workers express low satisfaction with the service they provide. This suggests to managers that there is some latitude for them to influence individuals' satisfaction with service provided. Training, rewards and promotional opportunities are some areas for managers to consider. These are discussed more fully in Chapter 12.

Further, the importance of extra to individuals with low service attitudes may appear to be unexpected because if individuals are providing extra, then surely they are providing quality service. However, perhaps through their training, hospitality employees learn that providing extra is a normal part of their job and so, routinely provide extra without considering it to be anything extra. Alternatively, providing extra may be a real issue for

individuals with low service attitudes. It is possible that these individuals find it difficult to provide extra, perform well and be committed. The ethnographic study in the next section explores this notion further.

8.7 A Qualitative Approach

This chapter has detailed results of the questionnaire relating to service predispositions of hotel workers. The quantitative results offer support for the dimensions detailed by the SPM. These findings were largely supported by the qualitative research but there were also some interesting surprises. For example, apart from the SPM dimensions, new themes emerged, such as "To serve is not to be servile", "Emotional Laour" and the "Negative Attitudes". These are discussed in the section, *The Service Encounter*. First each dimension of the SPM is discussed from an ethnographic perspective.

8.7.1 Service Predispositions

Communication and the Service Provider

This section relates to individual considerations in communications. Later in the OC section, organisational considerations in communication will be discussed. Earlier, communication was represented as the principal dimension supporting individuals' service predispositions. This is not surprising since communication is one of the most used skills in the hospitality industry. Front-line personnel are continually interacting with customers and other employees. Further, employees communicate among themselves, with managers, suppliers and other people they need to give or receive information from in order to perform their duties. Due to the nature of hospitality services, communication skills are desirable characteristics for service providers to possess. In the SPM, communication refers to "the degree to which an individual expresses enthusiasm to customers and communicates clearly and openly." In-depth interviews supported the importance of this dimension. For example, a receptionist remarked:

> Being enthusiastic and having good communication skills is very important in this job because sometimes, difficult situations arise and it's then that good communication skills help you deal with distraught or unhappy customers. I feel that if I'm not enthusiastic about my job or not able to communicate appropriately to the guest, the situation can easily got out of hand.

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In a similar fashion, food and beverage attendants described how communication was a critical factor in their jobs. Several interviewees agreed that in the restaurant communicating delays to customers was very important because if they did not and the customer was left waiting, it was highly probable that the customer would get irate. A food and beverage attendant described the following situation:

> On my pad I had written beef burger for one of the customers when that person had really said they wanted a club sandwich. If I had read the order back, as we are supposed to I would have picked up the mistake but we were so busy and it was not till the food was delivered to the table that I realized the mistake. Definitely, communication is very important in this job, especially making sure that you understand clearly what people want.

Some interviewees supported the idea that communicating clearly and appropriately to other staff was also important. One receptionist expressed her feelings on communication as follows:

> As I was clearing the message tray, I noticed that the top message read, "Attention Samuel [Front Office Manager], This chickey babe named …" I thought how totally inappropriate it was. I asked the Supervisor if he wanted me to drop off the message off into Samuel's office, he looked at the message I was holding and said, "Oh that one. No, I need to rewrite that one." I was not surprised. At least someone else thought along the same lines as me and had some standards for communicating with other staff."

The consistency of thought among interviewees on the importance of communication skills for hospitality workers reinforced comments in the literature. Parasuraman *et al.* (1985, p. 43) identify communication as one of the ten original dimensions of service quality and define it as "the clarity and understandability of the information given to the client". The above quotes illustrate the importance of communicating clearly and openly not only to customers but also fellow workers. The importance of adopting an enthusiastic attitude was also noted as a critical factor in maintaining relationships. Similarly, individual consideration plays a vital role in developing and nurturing relationships between providers and customers.

Individual consideration

According to the SPM, individual consideration refers to, "the acceptance that all customers are different and a willingness to consider their needs on an exclusive basis is

necessary" (Lee-Ross, 2000, p. 151). Results from the quantitative data (Figure 8.2) showed that individual consideration was given a high rating 6.27 out of 7.00[8.1]. This result reflects the importance of this dimension to interviewees. Similar feedback was gained from the in-depth interviews. Generally, hotel workers recognised the necessity of meeting customers' individual needs and felt that they could meet these needs. One waiter stated that this was a very important characteristic for staff to possess:

> One other thing that staff need is tolerance. Not just with the guests but also with the people they work with as well! In this industry, you've got to be very understanding and tolerant of people's customs, the way they are and the way they behave. We work with all sorts of people, as you know, and meet people from all sorts of backgrounds and it's not always easy dealing with people. Sometimes it's really hard and I think that being tolerant of individual differences in people is very important.

From a marketing perspective, frontline personnel play a key role in satisfying customers by meeting their needs. Determining customers' needs presents challenges for front-line workers. A receptionist elaborated on this view and said:

> Hospitality work is about meeting the needs of individual customers. Each customer comes to you with a specific request. Whether it the type of room they want or the view they want or the price range they can afford – each guest has their own needs. Same in the restaurant, each guest has his or her own likes and dislikes. For example, sometimes on seafood buffet night there may be one or two people that don't like seafood, so then we offer the a-la-carte menu and even then, they may not like the a-la-carte menu, so then we offer the Day Menu. This way one way or another there's got to be something there to satisfy everyone.

From the discussions on individual consideration, emerged the idea of nurturing individual relationships with past and present customers. Most interviewees acknowledged that by building, maintaining and enhancing relationships with individual customers their jobs were facilitated. A food and beverage attendant emphasized this point by saying:

[8.1] All rating scales in for the service predispositions are from 1 to 7 with 1 representing a low score and negative attitude and 7 representing a high score and positive attitude.

> When you get 'regulars' it's easier to meet their needs and anticipate what they want. Often guests will stay for two or three nights or may be more, so it's possible to develop a fleeting relationship with them – enough to get to know their likes and dislikes.

Similarly, a food and beverage attendant noted that:

> As you get to know your 'regulars', this relationship with them develops and you get to know their likes and dislikes and you can give them that individual consideration more readily. You can also do it with other guests and most times it's quite easy to meet their needs. Occasionally, there may be some difficult guests and then, it's much harder to satisfy them.

This passage illustrates some of the difficulties that service providers face in dealing with difficult customers. It began to indicate that the work of hospitality workers was one, which entailed emotional labour. As this suggestion was pursued, it became evident that emotional labor was worthy of being recognised as a theme on its own. Responses to the SPM dimension of affinity also supported the existence of such a theme.

Affinity

In Chapter 2, affinity was described as "The importance of a close relationship with customers so that service delays may be explained, understood and accepted by customers." As was evident with responses to the theme of individual consideration, relationships with customers can have a great influence on the success of service encounters. The literature acknowledges that customized treatment of customers makes them feel extra-special and contributes to building long-term customer loyalty (e.g. Morrison, 1996). It adds that managing relationships with customers can be compounded by the person-to-person interactions involved in service delivery. It follows, then, that if front-line employees have a good rapport with customers, it will be easier to inform them of interruptions to the provision of service. The quantitative results (Figure 8.2) showed that affinity was the lowest scoring of the SPM dimensions. This could be an indication that service providers do not consider it important to inform customers of delays or it could reflect difficulties some service providers have with informing customers. The latter could be a consequence of service providers not knowing how or not having the skills or not having the experience in dealing with these situations. The following excerpt from an interview with a food and beverage attendant illustrates such uncertainties:

> I hate it when there are service delays and I have to explain it to the guest because even though it's not your fault it makes you look bad! Most guests, however, are quite understanding, especially the regulars. They know what you're about and they say, "It's ok!" but occasionally you get that difficult guest who starts complaining.

Another food and beverage attendant who provided a similar response also added:

> I know that's why some staff will not inform guests of delays. They're scared they'll get complaints and then they'll have to deal with an irate guest. And they figure, it's just not worth it. They think that hopefully the guest won't notice the delay or say anything.

These comments highlight that at times hospitality workers need to mask their true emotions and that their work is one of emotional labour. For some this presented difficulties but others were more confident a food and beverage attendant indicated that he had no reservations about informing customers of delays. He recognised it as part of his job, something that had to be done whether he had had time to develop a relationship with the customer or not. He explained:

> Service delays are inevitable. Often this happens because of staff shortages. For example, the other night we got slammed in the restaurant and there were only three of us on the floor and three chefs in the kitchen. As delays were happening from the kitchen side, I explained to guests that there would be delays and gave everyone an extra free drink (not necessarily alcoholic) and that made everyone happy. We had no complaints that night.

This extract shows that service providers are in key positions to develop close relationships with customers and so, be able to relay service delays such that they are understood and accepted. In this case, something as simple as offering complimentary drinks was sufficient to break the barriers and appease customers. Basically, it involves some gesture, which makes the customer feel special. The importance of relationship building was further exemplified in the following discussion with a receptionist:

> We always get people arriving early thinking that check-in is at 11:00. The guests who have been here before know that check-in is at 2:00 and they're ok with that. Often you need to explain to guests that they have to wait. Usually it's ok but it doesn't go down well with guests who have been on long flights. I try to get them on side by offering free tea or coffee or offering

> towels and sending them to the pool. The thought of food usually wins them over.

Again, this excerpt reveals the precociousness of the provider-customer relationship. Further responses to affinity were very similar to those for individual consideration and most interviewees felt that it was easier to display affinity with customers that regularly visited the hotel, like the locals or regulars, because there is already in place some kind of relationship in place. A receptionist reinforced this view. She stated:

> Telling regulars about service delays is much easier because you've got that understanding or rapport with them. The other week I sent one of our regulars to a room, which I thought was ready. Within minutes they returned, still carrying their bags, which I though was quite odd. Their air con wasn't working. I apologized and found them another room. But they had to wait another hour. They were cool with that and said they'd wonder over to the restaurant. I'm certain that if I didn't know them it would have been different story. I would probably have to throw in a fruit plate or a bottle of wine.

The above statement suggests that if a relationship exists between a provider and customer, the customer may be more tolerant of service failures when they occur. Very often this is dependent on providers' skills in dealing with situations but certainly a good relationship with customers can be bent a little to accommodate occasional discrepancies in service delivery. Continual service failures, however, could endanger the provider-customer relationship.

Disposition

Disposition is one of those characteristics that enables service providers to deal with awkward situations at the frontline. In Chapter 2 disposition was defined as "willing to deviate from their job instructions into areas that may not be within their area of responsibility in order to satisfy customers." In the quantitative research, it was found that disposition had a high rating of 6.05 (Figure 8.2). This meant that it is not unusual for individuals to go out of their way to help people. In the qualitative research, the researcher observed many incidences where individuals exhibited the true nature of this dimension. This attitude was observed in the following situation:

> This morning there was a couple having just finished their breakfast in the restaurant when they asked the waiter where the nearest shopping centre was because they needed to get some sunscreen because they were going out on

> the Reef. It was 7:00 on a Sunday so finding somewhere that was open before 10:00 was going to be difficult. The waiter must have then remembered the Utility Shop that was open at that hour near the hotel lobby. The customers looked confused by the directions the waiter was giving them. The waiter, sensing this, personally walked the customers over to the Shop.

In another incident, the researcher observed the following display of disposition:

> An elderly couple was having lunch in the restaurant when they asked a waiter for directions to the nearest shopping centre. The waiter said she would be back in a minute and expediently went over to the porters' desk, picked up a pocket size map of the region and returned to the customers, marked directions on the map and provided the customers with a permanent record of their directions.

When interviewees were asked about disposition, most agreed that it was "part of their job to assist customers in every way possible", as a receptionist explained. Similarly, a porter remarked:

> It's part of my job to make sure that guests are satisfied and if this means I have to go out of my way to do so, then so be it.

A food and beverage attendant echoed this opinion by saying:

> A few days ago I answered the phone, in my usual way, "Room Service. This is Nathan." when the guest asked me if I could deliver some hand soap to his room. I thought this person obviously thinks room service is room service and you can get anything delivered to your room. And I thought to myself – what do I do? Do I explain that I'm from the food and beverage side of things and that housekeeping look after things like toiletries? Or what do I say? Well, I told him that I would organize for it to be delivered to his room.

This vignette exemplifies that while delivering hand soap was not part of the room service attendants' duties, deviating from that role meant that there would be a satisfied customer in the long run. Such an exhibition of disposition highlights the importance of such a characteristic in the profile of hospitality workers. Similarly, the dimension of extra is a valued quality. It too denotes that service providers have to sometimes deviate form their usual course of service delivery.

Extra

In hospitality, as in any service industry, occasions arise where it is recognized that customers "sometimes require additional services to those expected". According to the SPM, this dimension is about providing something 'extra'. The quantitative research showed that extra was rated the second lowest of the SPM dimensions, 5.86 (Figure 8.2). Morrison (1996, p. 269) points out that:

> Books such as *Service America! Doing Business in the New Economy* suggests that there is a crisis in the service industries. Poor or indifferent service is the rule, rather than the exception. In this era of mediocre service, those who devote above-average attention to hiring, orienting, training, empowering, and keeping service-oriented employees will have a distinct marketing advantage.

This quote raises a number of concerns. It is possible that people lack the gumption to provide extra because it is not considered normal. It is not "the rule". Alternatively, they may think that there is no need to provide extra. Additionally, it may be that managers are not hiring the right people, providing adequate training or appropriately motivating staff. Throughout the time of this study there were occasions when the researcher observed staff providing that something extra to customers. It is sad to say that these were not many and what is here reported as extra may seem to be what should be provided in the normal standard of service. Unfortunately, the researcher observed on occasions an attitude in the local hospitality industry that can best be summarized as: "Near enough is way too much!" It seemed that if staff could take short cuts they would. A food and beverage attendant explained it in the following way:

> I had this foreign lady come in for breakfast yesterday. She spoke very little English. I asked for her room number and when I checked against our records, I noticed that her breakfast was not included and asked her if she would like to charge it to her room. As I said that, she looked at me with a baffled look and said, "My husband had a free breakfast this morning." As I had not long started my shift, I called the supervisor and asked her if she knew anything about the man from Room 609 and whether he'd been charged for his breakfast. She said, quite abruptly, that his breakfast was not included and that both he and his wife needed to be charged. I wasn't happy with her reply. So I rang front office and found out that their breakfast was included. They did not need to pay.

The supervisor's approach in the above scene was indicative of the attitude adopted by many hotel workers. There is no denying that the work of hospitality employees can be

physically and emotionally taxing and when it is busy, in particular, it can be quite stressful and the temptation is there to do things half-heartedly. Such observations led the researcher to note the existence of another theme, named "Negative Attitudes" which will be discussed later.

On a more positive note the following describe some incidences that interviewees reported and which could be classed, in light of the above, as cases where hotel workers did provide something extra. A food and beverage attendant aptly portrayed the theme of extra in this statement:

> The other day at breakfast, an old lady who'd been staying with us for over a week asked about organising a boxed breakfast for the following morning. I took her details and put in the paperwork. A couple of hours later, a receptionist came to see me and said she'd put in the paperwork for the boxed breakfast and sent a message up to the lady's room to say that she could pick up the breakfast at the front counter. I said, "Couldn't we organize for someone to take it up to her. After all, she is an old lady. She speaks very little English and it looks like she is traveling on her own." The receptionist insisted that we needed at least 24 hours notice to deliver boxed breakfasts to the rooms. Well, that was it for me! I stormed off and went to see Kelly, the cold larder chef, and asked if she could make up the boxed breakfast for room 272 now. As soon as it was ready, I took it up to the room.

The above example illustrates that at times there are customers who do not fit neatly into the system and require additional services. The old lady may have been content with picking up her breakfast from reception. The food and beverage attendant saw it as part of her job to provide additional service in this case and acted accordingly. Similarly, another food and beverage attendant said the following:

> I had a family of five in the other day. Mum, Dad and three children under seven. The kids, as usual, finished their breakfast early and seemed very restless. The young boy, who was about five, kept getting up and running around. I felt a bit sorry for the Mum who was trying to finish off her breakfast. She'd been chasing after the others all morning – getting them things off the buffet. Then I remembered I'd seen some coloring books and pencils in one of the drawers at the cashier's station. I tore three coloring sheets out of the book and grabbed the pencils and took them over to the

> table. That kept the kids quite – well long enough for Mum and Dad to finish breakfast.

Staff also spoke of having to deliver extra as a means of service recovery when there has been a failure. This point is highlighted by the following statement made by a food and beverage attendant in response to the question, *"Do you think that staff in Food and Beverage has greater opportunity to deliver excellent service than staff in Front Office*?:

> No. Not really because it's first impressions that always count and when guests come to a hotel, the first people they see are the receptionists or the porters and if those people don't do their job properly then, they make things harder for everyone else in the hotel because then everyone else has to pick up the pieces and make amends. And, you know, depending on the seriousness of the situation, then the Duty Manager will come over and we have to give the guests freebies and so on. However, if the receptionists and porters do their job right and provide the service they're supposed to, it has a flow on effect. The guests will come to us in a better mood and it makes our job easier.

By contrast, in response to the above question, some interviewees, both front office and food and beverage staff, felt that food and beverage staff had greater opportunity to provide extra to customers. The following response by a receptionist exemplifies this feeling:

> Yes, I think so because staff in Food and Beverage has more time to spend with the guests. For instance, staff at the front desk will see guests on check-in and checkout and if the guest has a problem during their stay. We see guests a fair bit during their stay. They'll come in for breakfast, maybe lunch and dinner and then visit the Pool Bar during the day or the Relaxing Bar during the evening. Then while they're eating or drinking we have time to chat with them and get to know them a little or a lot. [Bar names changed so as not to identify hotel].

These excerpts highlight the difference that providing extra can make to the experiences customers will take away with them and to the working lives of hospitality workers. Providing extra is a tool that hospitality workers can use to enhance their delivery of service and customer satisfaction. In terms of marketing, it is the frontline personnel who are the true marketers of the establishment. If they provide memorable experiences to customers, customers will return or tell others. Likewise, a competent employee can also promote an establishment.

Competence

According to the SPM, competence is "the recognition that job knowledge is essential in providing clients with a quality service". Generally, it was felt that competence was an important characteristic for hotel workers to possess. The quantitative study showed that competence was one of the highest scoring SPM dimensions with an average rating of 6.31 (Figure 8.2). In the qualitative study, most staff indicated that staff should have the knowledge and skills necessary to perform their job adequately. A front office supervisor noted that:

> Staff should have both technical and non-technical skills. Having the knowledge is great and it's a real bonus but what's more important is that staff has good interpersonal and communication skills and even more important is that they have the right personality and attitude. Because, basically people can acquire knowledge and you can teach people new skills but if they haven't got the right personality or the attitude, you may as well forget about it.

The researcher observed that most staff had the basic technical skills to meet the demands of the hospitality job they were involved in, whether it was front office or food and beverage work. However, the researcher also observed that the level of quality in the delivery of those skills varied considerably. This seemed to be an anomaly among individuals rather than between departments or organisations. Whether this is attributable to lack of training or motivation or inappropriate selection is beyond the realms of this study and remains an area for future research. The issue of relevance to this study is that competence in the non-technical skills is highly evident and inadequacies in this area seemed to be the cause of many service problems. A food and beverage attendant explained:

> We had this waiter, a man in his late 30s, who was a really hard worker and very competent when it came to the technical side of things. But he had no confidence and was continually stressing. It was just so draining on people who worked with him because you'd have to be continually pepping him up. We'd be saying things like, "Don't worry. You're doing a great job. We'll get there." It was just so exhausting to work with him. He ended up leaving.

In the hospitality industry, service providers are expected to exhibit a number of characteristics that allows them to provide positive customer experiences. While interviewees concurred that competence was one of these characteristics and emphasized

the importance of competence in non-technical skills, such as interpersonal and communication skills, one example that stood out was the following. A food and beverage attendant provides this insight:

> First off, they've got to have commonsense in dealing with people. They've got to know how to solve problems themselves when they're faced with a customer. They can't be asking questions all the time. They've got to have it in them to have a feel for working with people. To me, it's about having commonsense.

Within the hospitality industry, it is unfortunate that at times individuals are selected to positions on the strength of their technical capabilities, with little or no consideration for their non-technical skills. In frontline jobs, effective use of non-technical skills is critical to the development of good customer relations. Sometimes, inadequacies in this area are not detected until the individual is employed. It is then the responsibility of the organisation to detect and correct such deficiencies, e.g. through training. Through training and practice of both technical and non-technical skills, the hospitality workers are uniquely positioned to deliver quality service and feel capable of handling any situation, such as when to serve is not to be servile, as explained in the next section.

8.7.2 The Service Encounter

Discussion in interviews identified themes that were related to the interaction between hospitality workers and customers during the service encounter. These themes are: To Serve is not to be Servile, Emotional Labour, and Negative Attitudes.

To Serve is not to be Servile

This theme grew out of information gained from interviewees regarding their relationship with customers, in particular, an attitude they felt was presented toward them by some customers. Traditionally, the role of the hospitality worker highlights a status distinction between service provider and customer (e.g. Guerrier & Adib, 2000; Shamir, 1980; Whyte, 1946). Some interviewees expressed discontent that for some customers such a mentality still pervaded the service encounter. A food and beverage attendant noted the following:

> It takes a special kind of person to accept that when you clear a table people show you no courtesy. It doesn't take much to say "Thank-you" and yet it's surprising how many people don't even acknowledge that you are clearing their table. They're so rude sometimes. Worst of all, though, I hate when they grunt at you. Like you're some kind of animal or something.

Other participants exemplified this feeling of servitude and a food and beverage attendant added:

> But sometimes I get my own back. If they don't say anything, I might say to them "You're welcome. Have a lovely day". Then, the other day, I cleared this couple's table and they seemed very respectful but when I cleared the plates, and I did it a couple of times while they were there, they said nothing. Then the final time before they left, I cleared the table next to them and the lady said: "Thank-you, Stacey" as she looked at my name on my badge. I looked at her straight in the eye and I said loud enough for the people on the next table to hear: "You're welcome!" and then looked over at the people on the next table. I caught the man's eye because he'd obviously overheard me and I smiled at him with a big artificial smile.

Similarly, another food and beverage worker expressed resentment at being considered "a servant". He made the following point:

> Some people [in reference to the customers] treat you like you're beneath them. Like you're a servant. It really pisses me off. You greet them and seat them, feed them and smile at them and then they're so rude toward you. There's no thank-yous. They totally ignore you. I hate it. Sometimes I feel like throwing their drinks on them, just to shake them up."

The above snippets illustrate that feelings of servitude resonated strongly from the food and beverage department. Perhaps this is a reflection of the closer and more prolonged contact exhibited between food and beverage workers and customers. Fortunately, however, such occurrences in modern hospitality settings are less common. With the swing toward less formal styles of service, issues relating to status differences between hospitality workers and customers are replaced with more friendly and enjoyable encounters. Nonetheless, hospitality work is still a process, which involves emotional labour.

Emotional Labour

The notion of emotional labour (EL) is not new to the hospitality industry. In 1983, Hochschild introduced the concept of EL and defined it as "management of feeling to create publicly observable facial and bodily display" (p. 7). Later, James (1989, p. 15) defined emotional labour as:

> The labour involved in dealing with other people's feelings, a core component of which is the regulation of emotions … Emotional labour facilitates and regulates the expression of emotion in the public domain.

In the hospitality industry, EL involves interactions between hospitality workers and customers. Most notably, the EL of hospitality workers involves "a willingness to be of service" (Anderson *et al.*, 2003, p. 1). Albrecht and Zemke (1985, pp. 114-115) add:

> The service person must deliberately involve his or her feeling in the situation. He or she may not particularly feel like being cordial and becoming a one-minute friend to the next customer who approaches, but that is indeed what frontline work entails.

Hence, Albrecht and Zemke infer that EL is part of hospitality work and that EL is the management of emotional display to produce a positive atmosphere in which the service encounter occurs. It is part of the job. Kruml and Geddes (2000) propose that EL is either healthy or unhealthy. Consequences of unhealthy EL can be decline in quality of service, low morale, burnout, turnover, absenteeism (Anderson *et al.*, 2003). Interviewees conceded that at times it was difficult to manage one's emotions, especially when customers are difficult or rude. The following recount by a food and beverage attendant illustrates this dilemma:

> We had this group on Tuesday night and they were so rude. They all came in at once and they all wanted drinks at once and they were all making these noises like "Ugh! Ugh!" as they signaled to us. And the group leader was saying, "Faster, faster!" We were doing the best we could. The three of us were run off our feet. And it was very hard being nice to them when they were so rude.

Most interviewees, however, accepted that emotional labour was part of their job and some said that they thrived on it. The following discussion with a food and beverage attendant makes this point:

> I like helping people. And making people feel good. I find it very rewarding. It gives me a real buzz. When people come to the hotel they are generally on holidays, they are there to relax and have a good time. And that's what I'm there for to help them have a real good time.

Similarly, another food and beverage attendant, spoke of the positive aspects of emotional labour:

> Our job is about dealing with people. So, of course, there's going to be lots of emotions involved. But most times, its good emotions. It gives me a high to look after them and they get a high from being looked after. I love it.

A receptionist reverberated these thoughts:

> It depends. I love working with people and I wouldn't consider it emotional labour. But mind you it can be emotional, particularly when you get a difficult customer but it's never laborious. Well not for me anyway.

In contrast, when asked, "Would you consider hospitality work to be emotional labour?" a receptionist replied:

> Well, I wouldn't call it that. If it was a counselor or a lawyer where you get involved in people's lives and solve their problems, then it's emotional labour because you're getting emotionally involved in people's lives. Perhaps more importantly, you're exposed to people's emotions. And perhaps if you were maître d'hôtel in an exclusive restaurant it would be stressful and emotionally taxing and them I would call it emotional labour but here hospitality's fairly easy-going.

While most interviewees agreed that their jobs were emotionally labouring, the receptionist in the passage above made a valuable point. He indicated that emotional labour occurred when individuals were "exposed to people's emotions". Some interviewees gave examples of situations were emotions ran high and because they had "got to know the guests", it was hard to remain detached. Such examples included people

having handbags stolen, guests' rooms being broken into, and people getting ill or having an accident while they were on holiday. Another receptionist told the following:

> We've had this guest in house for over a week now. She got sick when she landed in Cairns and ended up in hospital. In hospital she found out that her travel insurance could not be used to cover the hospital bill and the hospital were not going to let her out till she paid. This was a frail mature age lady whose group had moved on and she'd been left in this strange town on her own. I felt for her. Especially, when she told me of her fears and how she felt alienated by the hospital. To me, that's emotional labour but in a sad way. But I felt good because I could make here stay here comfortable and good.

Most interviewees supported the idea that EL can be healthy and that staff can effectively perform EL. It is argued that employers should be mindful in the selection of employees who focus on healthy EL. Anderson *et al.* (2003) contend that personal characteristics, such as personality, can be used as predictors of employees with the ability to perform EL effectively. In this study, it seems that individuals who exhibit genuine EL enjoy their work and are enthusiastic about it (i.e. communication), are willing to go out of their way to help individuals and meet their special needs (i.e. provide extra, disposition, individual consideration), develop positive relationships with customers (i.e. affinity), and exhibit competence in non-technical skills (i.e. competence). Here each of these attributes of genuine EL has been aligned with dimensions from the SPM. Future research could examine the factors that identify EL in hospitality and assess the depth of the proposed alignment. Discussions of EL brought to the researchers' attention the notion of negative attitudes.

Negative Attitudes

In discussing the most desirable characteristics for hotel workers, a theme that emerged was that there are often negative attitudes toward service delivery that exist in the workplace. The following snippets represent some of the responses that detailed negative attitudes. One interviewee said that her stomach cringed one day as she overheard a receptionist say abruptly to an elderly man as he waited at the desk to be checked in:

> "Are you right there?" Lucky for her the man seemed overwhelmed by the fact that someone had actually acknowledged his presence that he overlooked her brusque remark. The interviewee said that: "the sad part is that the receptionist is exceptionally knowledgeable and skilled in the technical aspects of her job but has a habit of being curt with customers, rarely smiling and being unapproachable. She has undertaken some customer service training but still has a long way to go".

Similarly, a receptionist commented on Thomas, a food and beverage attendant who had "a cynical attitude" as she put it. She told the following tale:

> One day I was in the restaurant just as breakfast service had finished. I was returning my dirty cup when I overheard a customer asking him if it was possible to have another cup of coffee. He turned around and said: "Breakfast is finished. There's no more coffee." I couldn't believe what I was hearing. But just as well for the customer, Janet was there and she politely said to the customer that she would go and get him one. I never really liked him and, now, every time I come in to get my coffee I check to see that Thomas is not here. I just don't like his attitude.

In an interview with a Restaurant Supervisor similar concerns about negative attitudes were raised. The supervisor said:

> The attitude's not there. There's no passion or enthusiasm for the job here. I consider myself to be a fairly knowledgeable – I've worked at a number of prestigious hotels, e.g. the Sheraton Mirage in Port Douglas, and I'm quite willing to share my knowledge with the others, especially to help them learn and acquire new skills but they never come and ask me: "Stella, how do you do this?" or "What's in this cocktail?" When I first started out in the industry, I was bursting to find things out, to learn things but these kids don't seem to be interested and I wonder what they're doing here. There's a kind of lethargy to their job. It's something they do, then go home and then come back and do the same thing again with the same attitude.

Another story on negative attitudes was supplied by a supervisor, Rhonda, who said that it was hard for her to imagine any of the supervisors or managers as her heroes. She related this to their 'attitudes' toward other staff. She said that:

> Some have an 'I don't give a damn' attitude. Sandra, in particular, doesn't care about anyone else. I hate it when I am meant to finish at 3:00 and when she turns up, she's usually late and then disappears. So I'm left in the restaurant wondering whether I can go home or not.

The existence of negative attitudes was also supported in a response provided by a receptionist in relation to an employee who had the right personality for hospitality work but not the right attitude. This is what the receptionist said:

> We had this young girl start here last year. She'd finished Year 12 the year before and had never worked in hospitality before. She was a pretty thing with a wonderful personality – sweet, friendly, softly-spoken, gentle and sincere. The Front Office Manager saw great potential in her and decided to give her a go even though she was 'green'. I was her buddy and found her to be a very fast learner. However, from the very beginning you could see that her heart was not in the job. From when she started her shift she would start moaning: "Oh no! Another three hours to go." or "I can't wait till I finish." or "I hope the time goes quickly" and similar remarks. As time went on, I realized that even the most simplest of tasks was like a huge chore for her and she whinged and groaned all through it. And when we were really busy, she complained non-stop. It got to the point where it was actually quite annoying working with her because listening to her brought morale down. And as she spoke to customers, I noticed that while the smile was still there, the sincerity had disappeared. It was like customers had become a burden. Eventually, after six months, she left. There was a wonderful young lady who had great potential with a wonderful personality but a negative attitude.

The notion of staff having negative attitudes was enforced by other behaviour that was consistently repeated. The researcher observed that it was common for staff to return to the waiter's station and 'bag' the guests by saying something malicious about them. This behaviour was customary at all levels and was practiced by front-line staff, supervisors and managers. It almost seemed like it gave the staff some sense of power or justification for their role in the delivery of service for when guests were rude to them or ignored them. The most disconcerting aspect of this behaviour was that the waiter's station was within earshot of customer's tables. For example, it was common for food and beverage staff to be amused by the following:

> I can't believe it! How can they forget their room number? How do they get back to their rooms?

To the researcher it was perfectly understandable in light of the fact that people were on holidays and if they were on tour they probably had visited five or more hotels in as many weeks. Perhaps if staff felt urged to make such comments they should be done in places our of the customers' hearing, e.g. back-of-house. Other popular comment were like the following one made by a food and beverage attendant:

> Gees, some guests are stupid. They go and sit at a dirty table when there's heaps of clean ones. And if they think that I'm going to go over there and clean and reset it now, they've got another thing coming.

Sometimes staff would make statements like: "I can't believe what pigs people are. They not only eat so much but they also waste heaps of food." It was also common practice to talk about other staff members at the waiter's station. Comments were not always positive and pleasant and "certainly not something customers should be subject to hearing" as one food and beverage supervisor said. She added:

> If only staff stopped to think of the image of their workplace this was presenting to customers perhaps they would have though twice about talking about these things in a public area.

The researcher also observed that another prevalent discussion topics at the waiter's station was what staff had done on the weekend and often this included sharing of information relating to drinking sessions, night clubbing, being intoxicated, and turning up late for work and with no sleep. These discussions were often pursued with total oblivion and neglect of customers and their needs. The researcher observed occasions when the staff would be "chatting" at the waiters' station and tables would need clearing or resetting. Granted that hospitality work can be a demanding and, at times, demeaning job, it could be that the recognition received from fellow workers makes the job more bearable for hotel workers, i.e a means to deal with emotional labour.

The researcher acknowledges that the level of negative attitudes presented was variable within hotels and while in some hotels managers were more diligent in keeping an eye on their employees so that they displayed the appropriate attitudes and would not converse at

the waiters' station or reception desk, staff still managed to talk, laugh and share comments. The more noticeable difference was that in those departments and hotels where managers were more expectant of their staff, there was less workgroup conflict and fostering of negative attitudes in the work environment. It seemed that the negative attitudes were squelched before they had time to permeate through the workplace.

8.8 Summary

This chapter sought to fulfill the first aim of this study and that was: To develop a profile of the service predispositions of employees within the hotel industry of Cairns. In an attempt to distinguish profiles at the various levels of analyses (industry, organisational, departmental and individual) the notion of 'norms' was introduced. First, hospitality workers' norms (or industry norms) were examined. The results showed that respondents rated the cognitive expressions as the principal dimensions. Also of importance but to a lesser degree were the dimensions of communication, competence and individual consideration. Hence, it could be said that hospitality norms are characterized principally by the cognitive expressions (commitment, implementation and performance), communication, competence, and individual consideration.

Examination of the SPI dimensions at the organisational level partly supported these findings and led to the conclusion that the dimensions of competence, individual consideration and affinity characterized organisational norms. At the departmental level, competence was found to be indicative of departmental norms. Also, at the individual level, service attitudes showed that communication and competence were the best predictors of very high service attitudes. For hospitality managers this latter finding suggests that communication and competence are two factors that need to be emphasized in an industry that is people focused and pursues service excellence as a competitive advantage. In summary, the top eight dimensions were: competence, individual consideration, communication, commitment, and affinity. The competence was important at all four levels of operation: industry, organisational, departmental, and individual. Individual consideration was of significance to both the industry and organisational levels.

The results are promising in terms of the utility of the SPI in developing profiles of individuals' predispositions and in differentiating between individuals with high and low service attitudes. Hence, for hospitality managers the results demonstrate the strength and value of the SPI as a tool for depicting individuals that best meet the needs of the hospitality industry in providing quality service. Further, for hospitality managers, the SPI provides an expedient and efficient tool for identifying training requirements and benchmarking different positions to assist in recruitment and selection. In addition, information gained from administering the SPI can provide managers with information that can be used to identify the affect of service predispositions on other aspects of individuals' jobs, such as job satisfaction, enjoyment of their job, staying in hospitality and training. Section 8.6 provided another pragmatic approach to utilizing the SPI in the workplace. It aimed to identify individuals with high service attitudes and to highlight service dimensions, which may be more important than others in the delivery of excellent service.

For example, the cognitive expressions (commitment, performance and implementation), which were shown to be important at the industry level (Figure 8.2), also appeared as variables powerfully discriminating between individuals with high and low service attitudes. The results (Table 8.13) showed that for individuals with low service attitudes, performance, commitment and extra were the dominant discriminating dimensions. It was interpreted that for the respondent sample, individuals are performing well in their jobs, are committed, and can provide extra even though they have low satisfaction with service provided or low service attitudes. On the other hand, individuals for whom the job allows them to implement their tasks and duties, provide individual consideration, and have an affinity with customers, have a high satisfaction with service provided.

Perhaps then, the finding that the cognitive expressions appear to be most representative of hospitality industry norms indicates that overall individuals' service predispositions in the hotel industry in Cairns are high but some hospitality workers express low satisfaction with the service they provide. This suggests to managers that there is some latitude for them to influence individuals' satisfaction with service provided. As noted earlier, training, recognition, rewards and promotional opportunities are some ways managers can assist employees to gain greater satisfaction with service delivery. These are discussed more fully in Chapter 12.

For service predispositions, six themes, relating to the six service dimensions from the SPM, were explored in greater depth through the ethnographic approach to expose the real nature of service predispositions of hospitality workers. The qualitative findings support the notion that individuals working in the hotel industry possess certain inherent characteristics that predispose them to providing quality service. In other words, the attitudes described by the SPI were generally supported by the qualitative research. It was found that most individuals enjoy their work and are keen to communicate their enthusiasm. Further, it was recognised that hospitality workers are people-oriented individuals who have genuine interests in meeting their customers' needs and forthcoming in caring for and helping others. Also, hotel workers are generally gregarious individuals who love talking to people from all walks of life and take pleasure in being around people.

In addition to the six themes from the SPM, several other themes were exposed. It was discovered that hotel workers are masters of emotional labour and are readily able to disguise their true feelings. Their predispositions enable them to build, maintain and enhance relationships with customers, a factor they believe facilitates them in their delivery of service. These commonalities unite hospitality workers under a common approach to their work. In essence, attitudes of hospitality workers are characteristics common to the umbrella hospitality culture that governs individuals' behaviour in hospitality, a notion that will be explored in more detail in Chapters 10 and 11.

In summary, the findings from this chapter lend strong support for the SPI and its value as a tool in the development and implementation of human resource strategies, policies and procedures. Further analyses involving the SPI, in particular in relation to OC, will be examined later but first the next chapter explores OC.

CHAPTER 9

ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS

9.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the organisational culture (OC) questionnaire and addresses the second aim of this study: To identify the nature and characteristics of OC within various hotels in Cairns. Thus, it seeks to address the research question raised in Chapter 1: What elements characterize the nature of OC within the hotel industry in Cairns? First, factor analysis, using Principal Components Analysis (PCA), was applied to the data to ascertain the underlying dimensionality of OC within the sample. Once the factors of OC were established, reliability analyses were conducted to determine the internal consistency of the instrument. Finally, profiles of OC were developed for and compared between the six hotels and the two departments, food and beverage and front office.

9.2 Statistical Analysis of Organisational Culture Questionnaire

9.2.1 Principal Components Analysis

One of the major aims of this study was determine the affect of OC on the service predispositions of individuals working in hospitality. Since the organisational component of the questionnaire as presented in this study had not been used in previous studies, it was decided to conduct an exploratory, rather than confirmatory, PCA. In order to assess the dimensionality of the OC questionnaire, all 96 items were loaded at once. The PCA, using a Varimax Rotation, extracted 21 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 (Appendix 9.1). These 21 factors accounted for 76.33% of the total variance. The preliminary analysis of all data displayed statistical significance for the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO = 0.863) and Bartlett's test of Sphericity (Chi-square = 22419.548; df = 4560; p = 0.000). These results were satisfactory since the observed significance was less than p = 0.05. Appendix 9.1 shows that the loading of the items for each factor was not as expected.

The first factor extracted contained 19 items from various OC dimensions. It represented a general dimension that was difficult to interpret. The 19 items were more than the expected number of items for any dimension. The dimension of work satisfaction was expected to have 15 items because it had 15 question statements associated with it (See Table 9.1). The number of items in factor 1 exceeds this number. Hence, it is apparent that some confusion exists with items loaded onto factor one. Subsequent factors extracted correspondingly less number of items than factor 1 onto one factor as expected. For example, some of the questions relating to value (01, 02, 04, 05, 06, 07 and 10) loaded onto Factor 2; some for getting the job done (getjd) (05, 07, 10 and 11) onto Factor 2; some for team spirit (teamsp) (01, 03, 04, 05, and 06) loaded onto Factor 5; some for planning and decision-making (05, 06, 07, 08) (plan) loaded onto Factor 6; and, some for work satisfaction (works) (03, 04, 05, 12) loaded onto Factor 7. Also Factors 12 to 17 each had two items loaded as expected. These findings suggest that there is some strength in the *a priori* factoring of the OC questionnaire as described in Chapter 5. Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998) noted that factor analysis using *a priori* criteria is suitable when testing a theory or hypotheses. Since meaningful interpretation of factor one proved difficult, a factor analysis using the *a priori* approach rather than loading all the items at once was conducted. The results of this factor analysis are shown in Table 9.1 and detailed more fully in Appendix 9.2. It includes the reliability scores for each factor.

Table 9.1: Rotated component analysis using *a priori* criteria

Old Factor	New Factors & Related Items [Includes question/item number (LHS) &code for that item (RHS)]		Cronbach's alpha (reliability)
VALUES	**Values**		0.8663
	06	Values 06	
	07	Values 07	
	02	Values 02	
	05	Values 05	
	01	Values 01	
	11	Values 11	
	Valued Member		0.8036
	10	Values 10	
	04	Values 04	
	03	Values 03	
	Stories		0.7959
	09	Values 09	
	08	Values 08	
RITUALS	**Rituals**		0.6400
	15	Rituals 04	
	16	Rituals 05	
	13	Rituals 02	
	14	Rituals 03	
	12	Rituals 01	
	The Social Club		0.6988
	18	Rituals 07	
	17	Rituals 06	
	Group Membership		0.5010
	20	Rituals 09	
	21	Rituals 10	
	19	Rituals 08	
HEROES	**Heroes**		0.8549
	25	Heroes 04	
	29	Heroes 08	
	24	Heroes 03	
	22	Heroes 01	
	Senior Management		0.8480
	27	Heroes 06	
	26	Heroes 05	
	28	Heroes 07	
	Care & Concern		0.2528
	30	Heroes 09	
	23	Heroes 02	

Old Factor	New Factors & Related Items [Includes question/item number (LHS) &code for that item (RHS)]		Cronbach's alpha (reliability)
BEHAVIOURS	**Behaviours**		
	31	Behav 01	0.8798
	38	Behav 08	
	39	Behav 09	
	35	Behav 05	
	37	Behav 07	
	32	Behav 02	
	40	Behav 10	
	36	Behav 06	
	Doing Extra		0.2410
	34*	Behave 04	
	33	Behave 03	
WORK SATISFACTION	**Importance of Job**		0.7946
	52	Worksat 12	
	42	Worksat 02	
	41	Worksat 01	
	54	Worksat 14	
	Role Ambiguity		0.7972
	48	Worksat 08	
	47	Worksat 07	
	55	Worksat 15	
	53	Worksat 13	
	Promotional Opportunities		0.7489
	44	Worksat 04	
	43	Worksat 03	
	45	Worksat 05	
	Job Variety		0.7032
	50	Worksat 10	
	51	Worksat 11	
	Hotel Politics		0.6334
	46	Worksat 06	
	49	Worksat 09	
TEAM SPIRIT	**Team Spirit**		0.8354
	58	Teamspirit 03	
	56	Teamspirit 01	
	59	Teamspirit 04	
	61	Teamspirit 06	
	Workgroup Conflict		0.7355
	57	Teamspirit 02	
	60	Teamspirit 05	
GETTING JOB DONE	**Getting the Job Done**		0.8784
	63	Getjobdone 02	
	69	Getjobdone 09	
	62	Getjobdone 01	
	68	Getjobdone 08	
	67	Getjobdone 07	
	72	Getjobdone 11	

Old Factor	New Factors & Related Items [Includes question/item number (LHS) &code for that item (RHS)]		Cronbach's alpha (reliability)
	Being Equal		0.6543
	65	Getjobdone 04	
	64	Getjobdone 03	
	66	Getjobdone 05	
	Training		0.4628
	70	Getjobdone 09	
	71	Getjobdone 10	
SERVICE DELIVERY	**Customer Orientation**		0.8158
	76	Servdel 04	
	77	Servdel 05	
	78	Servdel 06	
	74	Servdel 02	
	75	Servdel 03	
	73	Servdel 01	
COMMUNICATION	**Communication**		0.8079
	80	Commun 02	
	79	Commun 01	
	82	Commun 04	
	81	Commun 03	
	Grapevine		0.6094
	84	Commun 06	
	83	Commun 05	
POWER STRUCTURE	**Power Structure**		0.2851
	85	Powstruc 01	
	86	Powstruc 02	
RELATIONSHIPS & PROCESSES	**Relationships & Processes**		0.7249
	87	Relproc 01	
	88	Relproc 02	
PLANNING & DECISION MAKING	**Planning & Decision Making**		0.6855
	92	Plandec 04	
	91	Plandec 03	
	89	Plandec 01	
	90	Plandec 02	
	Organisation's Philosophies		0.7758
	94	Plandec 06	
	95	Plandec 07	
	93	Plandec 05	
	96	Plandec 08	

*These items have been reverse coded.

[N=254; Overall coefficient alpha (Cronbach's) = 0.9498].

Table 9.1 shows that in general, the findings from the factor analysis lend support for the dimensionality of the *a priori* scales. From the *a priori* scales, it was expected that 12 factors would be produced: values, rituals, heroes, behaviours, work satisfaction, team spirit, getting job done, customer orientation, service delivery, communication, relationships, planning & decision-making and power structure. The first factor analysis (Appendix 9.1) indicated that some of these groupings might be unstable. The factor analysis from Table 9.1 yielded 28 factors because some of the less stable factors produced more than one factor. For example, the *a priori* group of 'values' split into three separate factors, renamed as 'values, 'valued member' and 'stories'; rituals separated into 'rituals', 'the social club', and 'group membership'; and, heroes was divided into 'heroes', 'senior management', and 'care & concern'.

Generally, the reliability scores were strong and ranged from 0.50 for 'group membership' to 0.88 for 'behaviours' with an overall coefficient alpha (Cronbach's) of 0.9498, indicating a moderate to excellent level of internal consistency. Hair *et al.* (1998) argue that Cronbach's alpha of 0.60 is acceptable in exploratory studies. However, some of the reliability scores were low. For example, 'doing extra' had reliability score of 0.24 while 'care & concern" had one of 0.25 and 'power structure' had one of 0.29. Gregory (1996, p.96) proposes that scales, which "measure more than one trait", can cause low alpha coefficients. Examining the questions suggests that this may be what has occurred in this study. For example, item #86 (i.e. *Managers are prepared to pass on responsibility and power*) relates to the factor of 'power & structure' and seems to have two parts 'responsibility' and 'power' and supports Gregory's idea that if more than one characteristic is measured, the alpha coefficient may be low. Similarly, item #33 which contributes to 'doing extra', reads as '*Most of the staff are very thorough and really pay attention to detail*' and could be interpreted as addressing two different aspects: 'being thorough' and 'paying attention to detail'. Hence, in future studies it is recommended that these questions be revised. For now, the factors have been retained because they were statistically significant (KMOs indicated a high level of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of Sphericity were significant) and positively correlated. Further, most dimensions showed strong factor loadings of 0.5 or greater. These statistical findings provide support for retaining the factors.

Summing up, the factor analysis for the OC part of the questionnaire produced twenty-eight factors that displayed high factor loading and content validity for the *a priori* approach. In most cases, reliability coefficients were moderate to very strong. Statistical results support the retention of the twenty-eight factors. This enabled further analyses to be conducted on the OC data. Findings from these analyses are presented in the next section.

9.3 In Search of a 'Hotel Culture'

9.3.1 Overall variation in culture dimensions

In order to determine the overall nature and characteristics of OC, average scores for each of the underlying dimensions of OC were sought. These were computed as follows: the items relating to each factor were averaged creating 28 scores, one for each of the OC dimensions. For example, in order to get scores for 'values', the mean was calculated for items numbered 06, 07, 02, 05, 01, and 11. The results are presented in Figure 9.1.

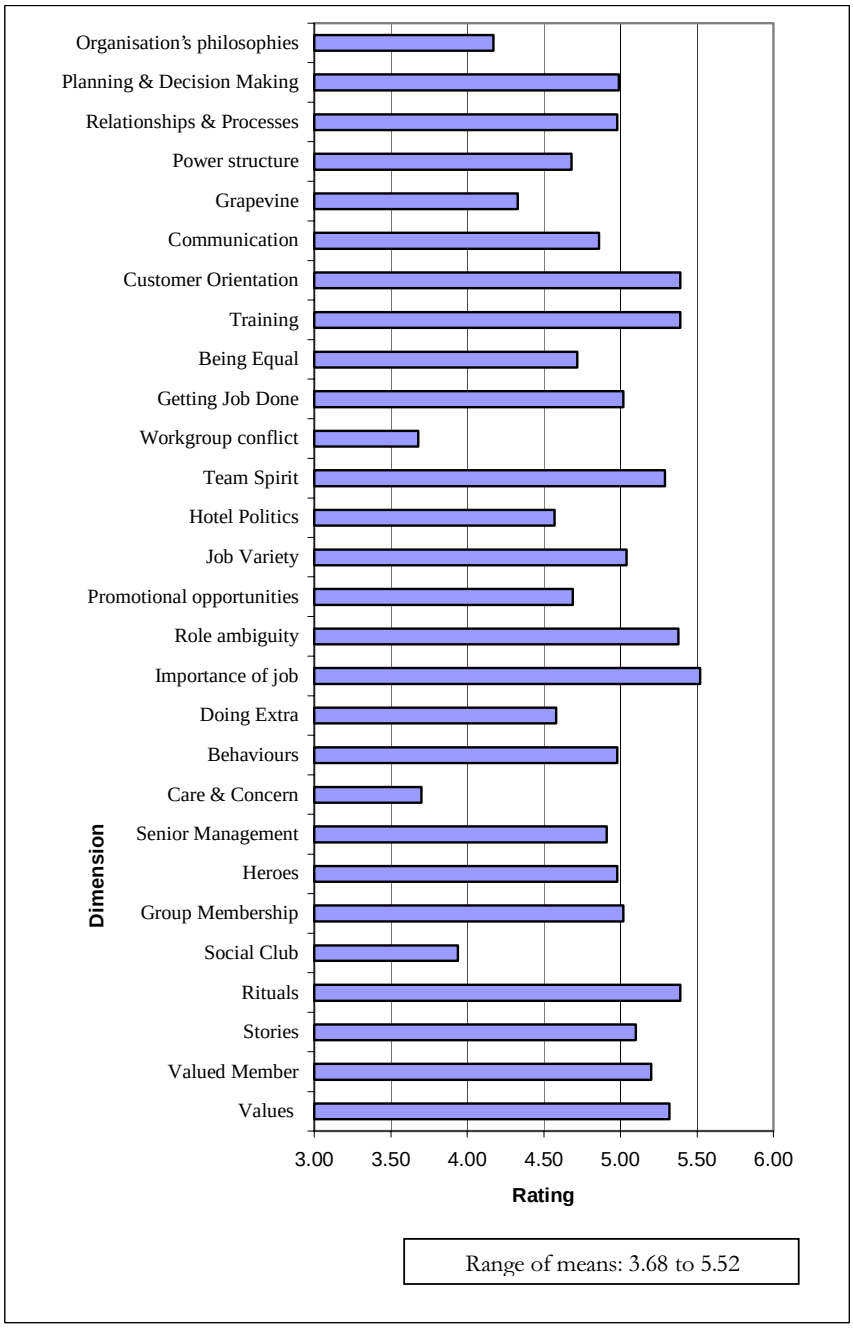

Figure 9.1: Overall ratings for organisational culture.

Figure 9.1 shows that the mean scores for each of the underlying dimensions of OC varied from 3.68 for 'workgroup conflict' to 5.52 for 'importance of job'. At the lower end of the scale were also 'care & concern' (3.70) and 'social club' (3.94) while other dimensions that were rated most highly included 'customer orientation' (5.39), training (5.38), 'team spirit' (5.29), 'role ambiguity' (5.38), 'rituals' (5.39), 'stories' (5.10), 'valued member' (5.20), 'values' (5.32).

Having obtained an overall profile of OC for the hotels in Cairns, analyses were conducted to determine any variation in OC between hotels. First the mean scores of OC dimensions (Composite Scores) for each hotel were examined and, second, the mean of each dimension was compared between hotels using one-way analysis of variance.

9.3.2 A Composite Measure of Organisational Culture for each Hotel

In order to generate an overall index of OC, an approach similar to that adopted by Davidson (2000) was utilized. That is, a composite measure or score for OC for each hotel was calculated. It was thought that such an index would be of practical use for operational managers in assessing the nature of their OC and its influence on the SPs of its employees. For each hotel, the mean was computed across all OC dimensions (factors). This produced six new variables known as the 'Composite Score of OC' for each hotel. These measures are presented in Table 9.2.

Table 9.2: Composite Measure of organisational culture and mean scores for each dimension for each hotel

Dimensions (Factors)	Hotels						Average
	A	B	C	D	E	F	
Values	5.47	4.89	5.46	5.02	5.71	5.44	5.32
Valued member	5.51	4.70	5.24	4.65	5.75	5.31	5.20
Stories	4.78	4.63	5.53	5.34	5.37	5.19	5.10
Rituals	5.29	5.20	5.72	5.17	5.71	5.27	5.39
Social club	3.95	4.28	4.15	4.10	3.38	3.50	3.94
Group membership	4.74	5.25	5.19	5.07	5.10	4.67	5.02
Heroes	5.13	4.54	5.14	4.48	5.50	5.24	4.98
Senior management	5.18	4.40	4.19	4.19	6.14	5.74	4.91
Care & concern	3.43	4.12	4.05	3.75	3.40	3.25	3.70
Behaviours	5.21	4.48	4.97	4.60	5.54	5.23	4.98
Doing extra	4.83	4.33	4.51	4.44	4.19	5.83	4.58
Importance of job	5.49	5.24	5.58	5.46	5.95	5.39	5.52
Role ambiguity	5.59	4.88	5.55	5.19	5.59	5.68	5.38
Promotional opportunities	4.91	4.37	4.67	4.63	4.81	4.70	4.69
Job variety	5.04	4.80	5.08	4.56	5.71	5.08	5.04
Hotel politics	3.94	5.13	4.70	4.98	4.49	4.08	4.57
Team spirit	5.43	4.96	5.40	5.13	5.42	5.57	5.29
Workgroup conflict	3.44	3.82	3.95	3.98	3.49	3.25	3.68
Getting job done	5.16	4.61	5.22	4.52	5.47	5.23	5.19
Being equal	4.79	4.65	4.72	4.42	5.02	4.69	4.72
Training	5.18	5.36	5.48	5.19	5.91	5.14	5.39
Customer orientation	5.63	5.05	5.46	4.99	5.60	5.75	5.39
Communication	5.22	4.33	4.91	4.27	5.27	5.36	4.86
Grapevine	3.88	4.81	4.67	4.53	4.12	3.78	4.33
Power structure	4.73	4.55	4.94	4.54	4.50	4.97	4.68
Relationships & processes	5.05	4.97	5.22	4.78	4.91	4.89	4.98
Planning & decision-making	5.17	4.60	5.02	4.66	5.34	5.31	4.99
Organisation's philosophies	4.75	3.65	3.85	4.28	4.03	4.57	4.17
Composite Score	**4.89**	**4.64**	**4.93**	**4.65**	**5.04**	**4.94**	**4.85**

Table 9.2 shows that there were differences between the means scores for each of the OC dimensions and that the measures ranged from 3.25 for Hotel F and workgroup conflict

to 5.83 for Hotel F and doing extra. Hotel E had a similar extreme of values with the lowest measure being 3.40 for care & concern and the highest measure of 5.75 being for valued member. The range for the other four hotels was more moderate with Hotel D having a low of 3.75 for care & concern and a high of 5.46 for importance of job, Hotel C having a low of 3.85 for organisational philosophies and a high of 5.72 for rituals, Hotel B having a low of 3.65 for organisational philosophies and a high of 5.36 for training, Hotel A having a low of 3.44 for workgroup conflict and a high of 5.63 for customer orientation. Hence, across hotels, care & concern, workgroup conflict and organisational philosophies had the lowest measures twice (for Hotels D and E; Hotels A and F; and, Hotels B and C, respectively). The Composite Scores show that Hotel E had the highest mean measure for all OC dimensions while Hotel B had the lowest and the overall mean Composite Score was 4.85. The differences between culture dimensions were explored further to test for significance.

9.3.3 Comparing culture dimensions between hotels.

In order to gain a deeper understanding of the nature and characteristics of OC and establish whether OC influences individuals' service predispositions, comparisons of OC between hotels were tested for significance. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used for each dimension and the results are presented in Table 9.3.

Table 9.3: Summary of one-way ANOVAs & Kruskal-Wallis tests used to compare each of the means of each hotel for each dimension

	ANOVA						Kruskal-Wallis (df = 5)	
Dimension	**df**		**Mean square**		**F**	**Sig.**	χ^2	**Sig.**
	bn	**within**	**between**	**within**				
Values*	5	248	4.317	0.872	4.948	0.000	20.654	0.001
Valued member	5	248	8.721	1.078	8.093	0.000	29.477	0.000
Stories	5	248	6.158	1.484	4.149	0.001	23.591	0.000
Rituals	5	248	2.730	0.697	3.917	0.002	17.013	0.004
Social club*	5	248	5.102	1.303	3.915	0.002	18.737	0.002
Group membership	5	248	2.184	0.992	2.202	0.055	12.934	0.024
Heroes	5	248	7.038	1.202	5.856	0.000	18.164	0.003
Senior management	5	248	27.522	1.774	15.518	0.000	63.965	0.000
Care & concern	5	248	5.197	1.471	3.533	0.004	12.557	0.028
Behaviours	5	248	7.221	0.761	9.491	0.000	33.471	0.000
Doing extra	5	248	8.537	8.408	1.015	0.409	6.268	0.281
Importance of job*	5	248	2.522	0.850	2.968	0.013	17.765	0.003
Role ambiguity	5	248	4.276	0.980	4.365	0.001	15.486	0.008
Promotional opportunities*	5	248	1.758	1.558	1.129	0.346	6.506	0.260
Job variety	5	248	6.274	1.155	5.432	0.000	23.977	0.000
Hotel politics	5	248	10.236	1.830	5.593	0.000	22.416	0.000
Team spirit*	5	248	2.069	0.924	2.238	0.051	9.809	0.081
Workgroup conflict	5	248	3.198	2.231	1.434	0.213	6.951	0.224
Getting job done	5	248	6.154	1.056	5.827	0.000	24.065	0.000
Being equal*	5	248	1.601	0.553	2.896	0.015	10.512	0.062
Training	5	248	3.440	0.985	3.491	0.005	17.940	0.003
Customer orientation	5	248	3.990	0.666	5.990	0.000	23.784	0.000
Communication	5	248	9.476	1.179	8.036	0.000	28.792	0.000
Grapevine	5	248	7.603	1.884	4.036	0.002	15.646	0.008
Power structure	5	248	1.541	0.875	1.762	0.121	8.868	0.114
Relationships & processes	5	248	0.970	1.018	0.952	0.448	7.240	0.203
Planning & decision-making*	5	248	4.155	0.789	5.264	0.000	22.356	0.000
Organisation's philosophies	5	248	8.467	1.572	5.387	0.000	25.768	0.000

*Levene's test: $p>0.05$

Table 9.3 sows that Levene's test for homogeneity of variances was not significant ($p>0.05$) for values, the social club, importance of job, promotions opportunities, being equal, team spirit and planning & decision-making and so, for these dimensions the

population variances for each group can be assumed to be approximately equal. For the other dimensions, however, the homogeneity of variance was compromised ($p<0.05$), suggesting that the results should be interpreted with caution. Kruskal-Wallis analyses, however, confirmed the ANOVA results except for 'group membership', which was not significant with the ANOVA test ($p = 0.055$) but significant with the Kruskal-Wallis test ($\chi^2=12.934$; df=5; $p=0.024$) and 'being equal', which was significant with the ANOVA test ($p=0.015$) but not significant with Kruskal-Wallis ($\chi^2=10.512$; df=5; $p=0.062$). Hence, further interpretation of the results was done with confidence that there were significant differences between the hotels as noted above.

In summary, significant differences were found between hotels for all the OC dimensions except doing extra, promotional opportunities, team spirit, workgroup conflict, power structure, and relationships & processes. For those hotels that displayed significant differences Tukey HSD post hoc tests highlighted where the significant differences were. These are presented in Appendix 9.3. These results show that for the dimension of 'senior management' there were several significant differences between hotels, especially between Hotels E and F and the other hotels. Similarly, 'customer orientation' and 'communication' had numerous significant differences between hotels, again between Hotels E, F and A with the other hotels. By contrast, for 'importance of job', the only significant difference was between Hotels B and E. The results were summarized in terms of which dimensions presented significant differences for the hotels and the findings are summarised in Table 9.4.

Table 9.4: Summary of Tukey HSD tests depicting differences between hotels

	Hotel A	Hotel B	Hotel C	Hotel D	Hotel E	Hotel F
Hotel B	• Values • Valued member • Senior mgt • Care & concern • Behaviours • Role ambiguity • Hotel politics • Customer orientation • Communication • Grapevine • Planning & decn-mkg • Org's philosophies					
Hotel C	• Stories • Senior mgt • Grapevine • Org's philosophies	• Values • Rituals • Role ambiguity				
Hotel D	• Valued member • Senior mgt • Behaviours • Hotel politics • Getting job done • Customer orientation • Communication	• Stories	• Rituals • Behaviours • Getting job done			

	Hotel A	Hotel B	Hotel C	Hotel D	Hotel E	Hotel F
Hotel E	• Senior management • Training • Org's philosophies	• Values • Valued member • Stories • Rituals • Behaviors • Social club • Heroes • Senior mgt • Care & concern • Importance of job • Role ambiguity • Job variety • Getting job done • Customer orientation • Communication • Planning & decn-mkg	• Social club • Senior mgt	• Values • Rituals • Social club • Heroes • Senior mgt • Behaviours • Job variety • Getting job done • Being equal • Training • Customer orientation • Communication • Planning & decision-making		
Hotel F	No significant differences	• Senior mgt • Role ambiguity • Customer orientation • Communication • Planning & decn-mkg	• Senior mgt	• Valued member • Senior management • Customer orientation • Communication	No significant differences	

One of the most interesting points from Table 9.4 is that neither Hotel A nor Hotel E has any significant difference along any of the dimensions with Hotel F. This suggests that the culture from these three hotels may be very similar. Their influence on service predispositions, to be investigated in the next chapter, will be of particular interest because if the three hotels have very similar cultures, then all three should be impacting on service predispositions in the same way.

On the other hand, Hotels B and E had significant differences on the most number of dimensions (sixteen of them), indicating that these two hotels are possibly the most different in terms of OC. Similarly, Hotels A and B, had significant differences on twelve of the twenty-eight dimensions of OC, suggesting that these two hotels also are very different. Likewise, Hotels D and E had significant differences on thirteen dimensions. These significant differences may provide some explanation for the differences observed in service predispositions of individuals from different hotels (Chapter 8).

Of the other hotels, Hotels B and D and Hotels C and F had only one significant difference between them while Hotels C and E had two significant differences between them, and Hotels C and B, Hotels C and D and Hotels A and E had three significant differences between them. Of the fifteen options for combinations between pairs of hotels, three had several significant differences and twelve had less than six significant differences between them. This suggests that a 'hotel culture' pervades the Cairns community. If so, such a culture is characterized by doing extra, promotional opportunities, team spirit, workgroup conflict, power structure and relationships and processes, as mentioned earlier. However, to explore this notion further and investigate the possibility of the existence of subcultures, the dimensions of OC were examined for differences between departments.

9.4 Variations in culture dimensions between departments

In a fashion similar to that for different hotels, the data was analysed to identify variation in culture dimensions between departments. The results for ANOVA are presented in Table 9.5.

Table 9.5: Summary of one-way ANOVAs & Kruskal-Wallis tests used to compare each of the means of each department for each dimension

	ANOVA						Kruskal-Wallis (df = 1)	
Dimension	**df**		**Mean square**		**F**	**Sig.**	χ^2	**Sig.**
	bn	**within**	**Between**	**within**				
Values	1	252	7.596	0.944	0.008	0.929	0.016	0.899
Valued member	1	252	2.449	1.224	2.001	0.158	1.571	0.210
Stories	1	252	1.377	1.583	0.001	0.976	0.104	0.747
Rituals	1	252	0.474	0.738	0.641	0.424	0.160	0.689
Social club	1	252	7.662	1.353	5.611	0.018	4.791	0.029
Group membership	1	252	25.974	0.917	28.336	0.000	24.483	0.000
Heroes	1	252	5.733	1.322	0.043	0.835	0.003	0.955
Senior management	1	252	26.911	2.185	12.318	0.001	9.847	0.002
Care & concern	1	252	28.912	1.436	20.132	0.000	16.092	0.000
Behaviours	1	252	0.467	0.890	0.525	0.469	0.241	0.623
Doing extra	1	252	1.944	8.436	0.230	0.632	5.897	0.015
Importance of job	1	252	6.77	0.886	0.001	0.978	0.055	0.815
Role ambiguity	1	252	1.454	1.043	1.394	0.239	1.365	0.243
Promotional opportunities	1	252	11.5425	1.522	7.583	0.006	6.505	0.011
Job variety	1	252	2.955	1.249	2.365	0.125	2.528	0.112
Hotel politics	1	252	35.571	1.863	19.093	0.000	18.116	0.000
Team spirit	1	252	0.493	0.949	0.520	0.472	0.101	0.750
Workgroup conflict	1	252	15.480	2.197	7.045	0.008	6.133	0.013
Getting job done	1	252	6.154	1.056	5.827	0.000	24.065	0.000
Being equal	1	252	1.601	0.553	2.896	0.015	10.512	0.062
Training	1	252	3.440	0.985	6.491	0.005	17.940	0.003
Customer orientation	1	252	0.671	0.732	0.917	0.339	0.342	0.559
Communication	1	252	3.385	1.335	2.536	0.113	2.752	0.097
Grapevine	1	252	53.291	1.793	29.716	0.000	25.016	0.000
Power structure	1	252	0.110	0.891	0.123	0.726	0.136	0.713
Relationships & processes	1	252	0.289	1.020	0.284	0.595	1.642	0.200
Planning & decision-making	1	252	2.008	0.851	2.359	0.126	1.645	0.200
Organisation's philosophies	1	252	5.098	1.694	3.009	0.084	3.626	0.057

For variation between departments, Table 9.5 shows that there were significant differences for 'the social club', 'group membership', 'promotional opportunities', work conflict', 'grapevine', senior management', 'care & concern', and 'hotel politics'. For all dimensions, except the last three, Levene's test for homogeneity of variance was not significant ($p>0.05$), and so, for these dimensions the population variances for each group can be assumed to be approximately equal. Use of Kruskal-Wallis to compare the means of the dimensions between departments supported the significant differences found above

with the exception that with the Kruskal-Wallis test for 'doing extra' was significant (χ^2=5.987; df=1; p=0.015) when the ANOVA was not (F=0.230; df=1; p=0.632) and for 'being equal' was not significant (χ^2=10.512; df=1; p=0.062) when the ANOVA was significant (F=2.896; df=1; p=0.015). Cross tabulations were conducted to determine where the differences between ratings were for each of the OC dimension that showed significance and these are summarized in Table 9.6.

Table 9.6: Summary of cross tabulations for OC dimensions between departments

Dimension	Department	<4.99	5.00 to 5.99	6.00 to 6.99	7.00
Social club	Front Office	76.58	19.82	3.60	-
	Food & Bev	66.44	23.78	8.38	1.40
Group membership	Front Office	56.76	31.53	11.71	-
	Food & Bev	33.57	30.07	32.86	3.50
Senior management	Front Office	33.33	26.13	29.73	10.81
	Food & Bev	45.45	27.27	20.99	6.29
Care & concern	Front Office	91.89	5.41	2.70	-
	Food & Bev	76.23	11.19	7.69	4.89
Doing extra	Front Office	81.08	16.22	2.7	-
	Food & Bev	66.43	25.89	6.99	0.70
Promotional opportunities	Front Office	39.64	35.14	17.12	8.10
	Food & Bev	54.55	33.57	9.79	2.09
Hotel politics	Front Office	76.58	9.00	10.82	3.60
	Food & Bev	51.05	12.59	23.78	12.58
Workgroup conflict	Front Office	81.98	8.11	9.91	-
	Food & Bev	70.63	16.78	7.69	4.90
Getting job done	Front Office	43.2	32.4	20.7	3.7
	Food & Bev	36.4	40.3	22.4	0.7
Being equal	Front Office	71.1	24.3	4.6	-
	Food & Bev	50.3	39.9	9.1	0.7
Training	Front Office	23.4	36.0	28.8	11.8
	Food & Bev	28.7	25.9	39.2	6.3
Grapevine	Front Office	75.68	18.92	4.50	0.90
	Food & Bev	51.05	22.38	16.78	9.79

*The measures presented in this table are percentages (%).

Table 9.6 shows that overall front office staff rated the OC dimensions lower than food and beverage attendants. On a number of dimensions, food and beverage attendants had

responses for the rating of 7.00 where the front office staff had no responses (e.g. social club, group membership, care & concern, doing extra and workgroup conflict). For the OC dimensions of senior management and promotional opportunities, front office staff had higher ratings than food and beverage attendants. With senior management, front 40.54% of office staff scored 6.00 and higher compared with 27.26% of food and beverage staff. Similarly, for promotional opportunities 25.22% of front office staff scored 6.00 and higher compared with 11.88% of food and beverage staff. By contrast, for hotel politics 36.60% of food and beverage attendants scored 6.00 and higher compared with 14.42% of front office staff. Similarly, for doing extra 7.69% of food and beverage attendants scored 6.00 and higher compared with 2.7% of front office staff.

For some of the dimensions, there was little distribution of the scores between employees from either department. For example, for the dimension of workgroup conflict, most respondents score 6.00 and less. Similarly, for group membership most respondents scored 6.00 and less.

9.5 Summary

In this chapter, employees' responses to the OC component of the questionnaire were assessed in an attempt to address the second aim of this study which was to determine the nature and characteristics of OC in various hotels in Cairns. The purpose of this was to identify the hotel culture present in Cairns. Factor analysis showed that OC consisted of 28 key attributes. A reliability analysis indicated a high level of internal consistency for the instrument as applied in this study with an overall coefficient alpha (Cronbach's) = 0.9498. Such an outcome provided support for the use of data from the OC questionnaire in further analyses. Mean scores for each of the underlying dimensions ranged from 3.68 for 'workgroup conflict' to 5.52 for 'importance of job'. At the lower end of the scale were also 'care & concern' (3.70) and 'social club' (3.94) while other dimensions that were rated most highly included 'customer orientation' (5.39), training (5.38), 'team spirit' (5.29), 'role ambiguity' (5.38), 'rituals' (5.39), 'stories' (5.10), 'valued member' (5.20), 'values' (5.32). Hence, a 'hotel culture' for the study sample could be described as one placing greatest emphasis on importance of job, rituals, customer orientation, training, role ambiguity, values, team spirit, being a valued member and telling stories and paying the least attention to workgroup conflict, care & concern, the social club, organisational philosophies and the grapevine.

Mean scores for each dimension also led to the calculation of a single overall index for OC, known as the Composite Score that may provide a pragmatic approach for hospitality managers and will be incorporated in further analyses later in the thesis. Examination of variation in culture dimensions between hotels indicated that while there were some significant differences between dimensions across hotels, the non-significant differences lent further support to the possible existence of a 'hotel culture'. Significant differences were found between hotels for all the dimensions except doing extra, promotional opportunities, team spirit, workgroup conflict, power structure, and relationships & processes. These were of interest because if there was no significant differences for these dimensions then the results are possibly suggesting that collectively these dimensions may be contributing to a "hotel culture" that is consistent between hotels. The other dimensions, however, do vary from one hotel to another. Such a culture could therefore, in this case, be considered to be characterized as one that focuses on relationships & processes with a prevalence for doing extra, emphasizes power structure but promotes team spirit and minimizes work conflict while fostering promotional opportunities. This will be explored further in the qualitative component of this study.

Significant differences on the most number of dimensions (sixteen of them) were observed for Hotels B and E, indicating that these two hotels are possibly the most different in terms of OC. Similarly, Hotels A and B, had significant differences on twelve of the twenty-eight dimensions of OC, suggesting that these two hotels also are very different. Likewise, Hotels D and E had significant differences on thirteen dimensions. These significant differences may provide some explanation for the differences observed in service predispositions of individuals from different hotels (Chapter 8). Looking at Chapter 8, results showed that significant differences were observed between service predispositions of individuals from Hotels B and E and between Hotels D and E for the dimension of 'competence' but no significant differences between Hotels A and B for any of the SPI dimensions. Further, results indicated that for SPS Scores 5.00 to 5.99, 6.00 to 6.99 and 7.00 significant differences occurred between Hotels B and E (Table 8.7). Also, Hotels A and B demonstrated significant differences for SPS Scores of 7.00. These findings provide support for the idea that for Hotels A, B, D and E there are strong organisational factors that may be exerting an influence on individuals' service predispositions. This will be explored further in Chapter 10.

Examination of variation in OC dimensions between departments demonstrated that some of the dimensions varied significantly between the departments. Overall front office staff rated the OC dimensions lower than food and beverage attendants (Table 9.6). Food and beverage attendants had responses rating 7.00 on a number of dimensions, where the front office staff had no responses (e.g. social club, group membership, care & concern, doing extra and workgroup conflict). These may suggest that food and beverage staff valued more those OC dimensions which they rated higher than the front office counterparts or it could be that front office staff has higher values or standards. With this latter point, if the front office staff is better educated (see Chapter 6) then it could be that through their education or training they have learnt to expect more. Examining the dimensions individually, for hotel politics, food and beverage attendants had more respondents score higher than front office staff. This suggests that hotel politics plays a greater role in the lives of food and beverage staff. Similarly, for doing extra, more food and beverage attendants scored higher than front office staff. This indicates that the food and beverage department has a greater tendency to foster a culture that promotes providing extra to the customers.

For some of the OC dimensions there was little difference between the ratings between respondents from either department. This was noted for the dimensions of social club, group membership, workgroup conflict, getting the job done, being equal, training and grapevine. This implies that the importance of these dimensions is consistent between departments. Earlier, it was found that workgroup conflict showed no significance between hotels. Within departments, it was found that workgroup conflict was not a concern. This suggests that across hotels, workgroup conflict is not considered to be an issue. That is, that most employees within the hotel industry of Cairns get along very well. Similarly, for getting the job done, most respondents score low for this, indicating that this was not an issue. This suggests that most hotel workers are aware that their job is hard work and that they just need to get in there and do it.

For the OC dimensions of senior management and promotional opportunities, front office staff had higher ratings than food and beverage attendants. It is thought that this may be an indication that front office get along better with senior management and that they have the greater promotional opportunities and therefore, are happy with these aspects of OC. From the researcher's experience, senior management such as the General Manager and

Assistant Executive of the Hotel are located in the back-of-house close to the front office staff. This means that front office staff have ample opportunities to interact with senior management whereas food and beverage attendants would have limited exposure to senior management, especially if they are casual and work odd hours when senior management (who normally work nine to five) are not on the premises.

The implications of these differences together with those found between hotels are explored further in the next chapter that examines the influence of OC on the service predisposition of hotel employees.

CHAPTER 10
THE INFLUENCE OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE ON EMPLOYEES' SERVICE PREDISPOSITIONS

10.1 Introduction

This chapter addresses the third aim of this study. It presents results of the analyses that investigate the influence of organisational culture (OC) on the service predispositions of hotel employees. Accordingly, it addresses the research questions raised in Chapter 1:

- Is the influence of these characteristics of OC the same between hotels, and within hotels?
- Is there a common hospitality culture, which permeates the hotel industry in the region?
- If so, what are its characteristics?

The model presented in Chapter 3 directs the overall analyses. The model proposes that the dimensions of OC impact on the dimensions of the Service Predispositions Model (SPM) so as to affect the personal outcome, i.e. satisfaction with service provided. The relationships prescribed by the model were assessed in three ways. First, correlations were conducted to reveal any significant relationships between OC and SPM dimensions, i.e. individuals' service predispositions. Second, regressions were performed to try and establish how much variation OC contributed to the dimension of personal outcome. Third, the notion of OC as a moderator is explored in a similar manner in which deference was considered to be a moderator for the elements of the SPM dimensions (Chapter 7). Finally, this chapter examines the findings in light of the concept of occupational communities.

10.2 Service Predispositions & Organisational Culture

In Chapter 3, a revised model of the SPM was presented, the Organisational Culture-Service Predispositions Model. This model illustrated the proposed relationships between OC and the SPM variables. It is argued that OC affects the SPM dimensions in four critical places: directly on the service dimensions, between the service dimensions and cognitive expressions, between the cognitive expressions and personal outcome and directly on personal outcome. These relationships are illustrated in Figure 10.1.

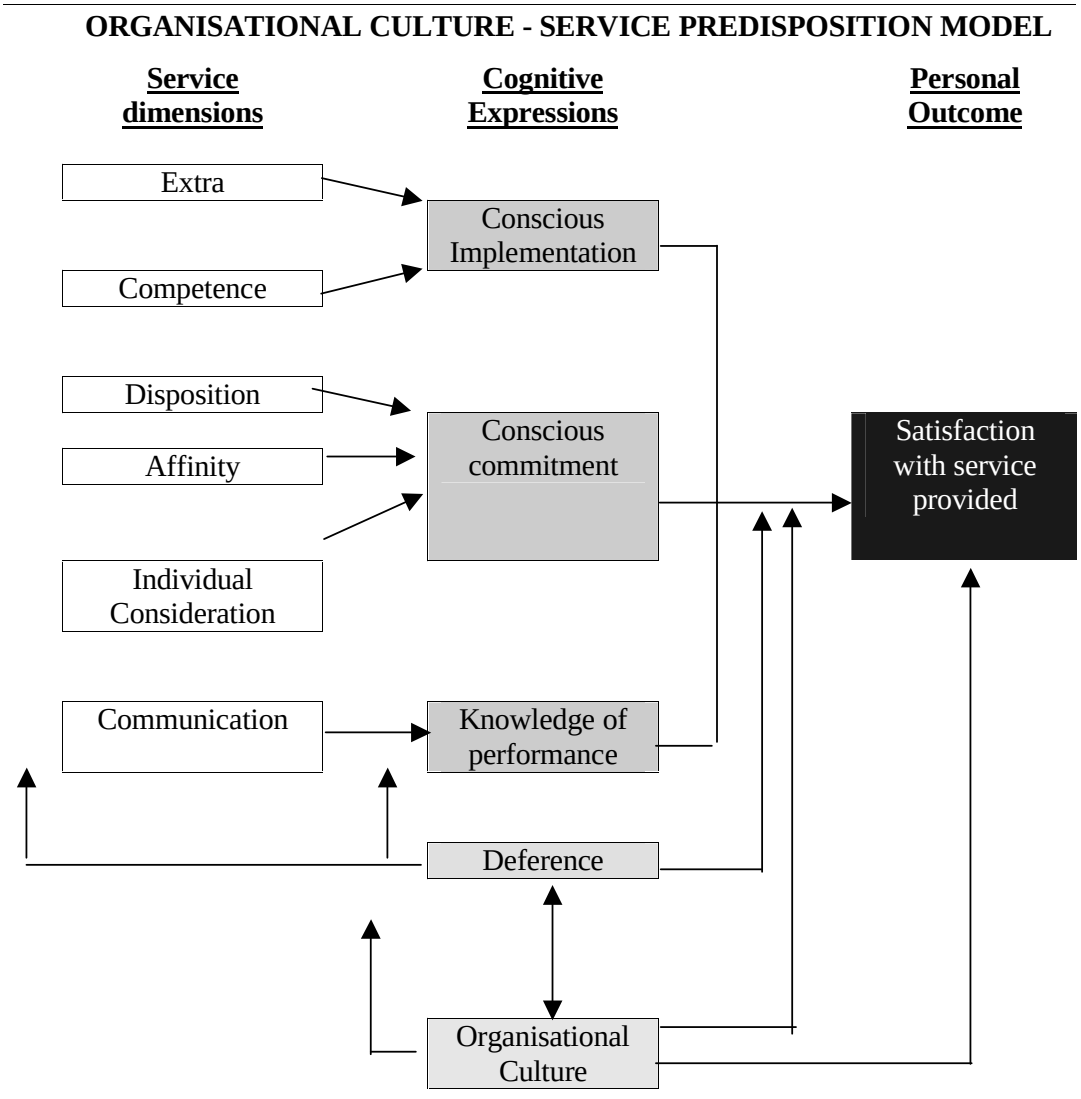

Figure 10.1: Organisational Culture – Service Predispositions Model as proposed by this study.

In an attempt to try and explain the relationship between SPM variables and OC dimensions, scores for each of the SPM variables were correlated with ratings for the OC dimensions. Then, multiple regressions were used to ascertain if the OC dimensions are predictors of the personal outcome of the SPM, i.e. individuals' satisfaction with service provided.

10.2.1 Correlations of organisational culture dimensions with the SPI dimensions

When investigating the influence of OC on the service predispositions of individuals working in hospitality, the first approach was to determine if there were any relationships between OC and SPM variables. This was achieved by correlating scores from the SPM variables with the OC dimensions. Table 10.1 displays the results for significant correlations.

Table 10.1: Correlations of organisational culture dimensions with the SPM variables

		SPI Dimensions										
		Disposit	**Extra**	**Commun**	**Individual consideration**	**Competence**	**Affinity**	**Implementa -tion**	**Commit**	**Perform**	**Satisfaction**	**Deference**
Organisational culture dimensions	**Composite Measure**	**0.081**	**0.009**	**0.201****	**0.186****	**0.277****	**0.135***	**0.060**	**0.166****	**0.063**	**0.260****	**0.273****
	Values	-	-	0.170**	0.178**	0.179**	0.142**	-	0.196**	-	0.161*	0.196**
	Valued member	-	-	0.152*	0.158*	0.253**	-	-	0.203**	-	0.178**	0.241**
	Stories	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.181**	-	-	-	-
	Rituals	0.136*	-	0.223*	0.254**	0.276**	0.278**	0.157*	0.194*	-	0.264**	0.265**
	Social club	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Group membership	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.216**	0.145*
	Heroes	-	-	0.164**	0.215**	0.250**	0.164**	-	0.168**	-	0.178**	0.273**
	Senior management	-	-	-	0.162**	0.367**	-	-	0.142*	-	0.143*	0.135*
	Care & concern	-	-0.136*	-0.168**	-0.130*	-0.252**	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Behaviours	-	-	0.178**	0.218**	0.312**	-	0.139*	0.216**	-	0.263--	0.313**
	Doing extra-	-	-	-	-0.195**	-0.129*	-	-0.195**	-0.135*	-	-	-0.147*
	Importance of job	0.176**	0.154*	0.346**	0.306**	0.248**	-	0.236**	0.400**	-	0.226**	0.254**
	Role ambiguity	-	-	0.253**	0.168**	0.370**	-	-	0.194	-	0.287**	0.236**
	Promotional opportunities	-	-	0.186**	0.200**	0.193**	0.128*	0.174*	0.128*	-	-	0.249**
	Job variety	0.166**	0.176**	0.294**	0.303**	0.168**	0.163**	-	0.191**	0.147*	0.205**	0.255*
	Hotel politics	-	-0.164**	-	-0.158*	-0.216**	-	-	-	-	-0.132*	-0.187**
	Team spirit	-	-	0.191**	0.138*	0.204**	-	-	0.194**	-	0.194**	0.138*
	Workgroup conflict	-	-0.166**	-0.213**	-0.179**	-	-	-	-0.212**	-	-	-0.178**
	Getting job done	-	-	0.148*	0.187*	0.333	-	-	0.133*	-	0.255**	0.260**
	Being equal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.129*	0.265**
	Training	-	-	-	0.237**	0.235**	-	0.224**	0.231**	0.127*	0.241**	0.301**
	Customer orientation	-	-	-	-	0.279**	-	-	-	-	0.202**	0.208**
	Communicat - ion	-	0.144*	-	0.134*	0.273*	-	-	-	-	0.218**	0.273**

	SPI Dimensions										
	Disposit	**Extra**	**Commun**	**Individual consideration**	**Competence**	**Affinity**	**Implementa -tion**	**Commit**	**Perform**	**Satisfaction**	**Deference**
Grapevine	-	-0.159*	-	-0.199	-	-	-0.222**	-	-	-	-
Power structure	-	-	-	-	0.311**	-	-	-	-	-	0.167**
Relationships & processes	0.142*	-	0.252**	-	-	0.203**	-	0.169**	-	0.173**	0.197**
Planning & decision-making	-	-	0.169**	0.147*	0.282**	-	-	0.157*	-	0.171*	0.201**
Organisation's philosophies	-	-	0.198**	0.178**	0.203**	-	0.127*	0.193**	-	0.137*	0.231*
Total number of significant links	4	7	16	21	21	6	9	18	2	20	24

*p<0.05
**p<0.001
N = 254

Table 10.1 shows that there are several significant correlations between OC dimensions and the SPM variables. The significant correlations ranged from 0.127 for the relationship between organisational philosophies and implementation to 0.400 for the relationship between importance of job and commitment. In Chapter 9, the Composite OC score was calculated to represent an overall measure of OC as determined by the respondent sample. In table 10.1, the Composite Measure of OC shows significant correlations ($p<0.05$ & $p<0.001$) with several of the SPI dimensions, i.e. communication (r=0.201**), individual consideration (r=0.186**), competence (r=0.277**), commitment (r=0.166**), satisfaction (r=0.260**) and deference (r=0.273**).

Table 10.1 also shows that for all the SPM dimensions, there were significant correlations with OC dimensions, with some SPM dimensions having several significant correlations. For example, there were 16 out of 28 OC dimensions that indicated a significant link with communication, 21 with individual consideration, 21 with competence, 18 with commitment, 19 with satisfaction and 24 with deference. Third, the relationships between OC dimensions and SPI dimensions were both positive and negative. Table 10.2 summarises the number of positive and negative links between OC and SPM dimensions.

Table 10.2: Correlations of OC dimensions with SPI dimensions sorted by number of links (Numbers in brackets indicate the number of significant links)

POSITIVE	NEGATIVE	NO CORRELATION
Job variety (10)	Doing extra (5)	Social club (0)
Importance of job (9)	Hotel politics (5)	
Rituals (9)	Workgroup conflict (5)	
Values (7)	Care & concern (4)	
Heroes (7)	Grapevine (3)	
Behaviours (7)	Stories (1)	
Promotional opportunities (7)		
Training (7)		
Organisational philosophies (7)		
Composite OC Score (6)		
Valued member (6)		
Role ambiguity (6)		
Team spirit (6)		
Getting job done (6)		
Relationships & processes (6)		
Planning & decision-making (6)		
Senior management (5)		
Communication (5)		
Customer orientation (3)		
Group membership (2)		
Being equal (2)		
Power structure (2)		

Table 10.2 shows many positive links but some were negative. For example, stories had a negative link with implementation and so did care & concern with extra, communication, individual consideration and competence. Similarly, doing extra, hotel politics, workgroup conflict and grapevine indicated all negative relationships with some SPI dimensions. Overall, twenty-two of the OC dimensions had positive significant links with the SPI dimensions while five of the OC dimensions had negative significant relationships with the SPI dimensions and the social club had no significant correlations with any of the SPI dimensions. These findings suggest that OC has a considerable influence on the service predispositions of hospitality workers. To see if this relationship was evident in hotels, correlations between the Composite Measure for OC and the SPI dimensions were computed for each hotel separately. The results are presented in Table 10.3.

Table 10.3: Correlations of OC's Composite Measure with the SPI dimensions for each hotel separately

	Hotel A	**Hotel B**	**Hotel C**	**Hotel D**	**Hotel E**	**Hotel F**
Disposition	0.204	0.131	0.020	-0.244	0.241	0.135
Extra	0.144	-0.018	-0.126	-0.239	0.089	0.124
Communication	0.188	0.201	-0.001	-0.047	**0.563****	0.315
Individual consideration	**0.257***	0.012	0.016	-0.240	**0.556****	**0.502***
Competence	0.251	0.259	-0.016	0.077	**0.517****	0.015
Affinity	0.215	0.125	0.020	-0.017	0.235	0.353
Implementation	0.220	-0.189	-0.182	-0.182	0.230	0.366
Commitment	**0.289***	0.125	-0.207	-0.184	0.272	0.404
Performance	0.084	-0.172	-0.006	-0.025	0.194	0.175
Deference	0.218	**0.537****	-0.094	0.101	**0.412****	0.334
Satisfaction	0.192	0.236	0.086	0.165	**0.524****	0.203

*p=0.05
**p=0.001

Table 10.3 shows that when the hotels were considered individually, there was further evidence that OC influences service predispositions. The correlations were changeable, with five SPI dimensions showing correlations with the OC Composite Measure and some not. For example, for individual consideration there were significant relationships for Hotels A, E and F but for affinity there were none. Also, some hotels showed more significant correlations than others. For example, Hotel E had several significant and

moderately strong links between the SPI dimensions and OC's Composite Measure, e.g. communication (r=0.563, p=0.001), individual consideration (r=0.556, p=0.001), competence (r=0.517, p=0.001), deference (r=0.412, p=0.001) and satisfaction (r=0.524, p=0.001). Hotel A had significant correlations with individual consideration (r=0.257, p=0.05) and commitment (r=0.289, p=0.05). Hotels B and F had one significant correlation and that was with deference (r=0.0537, p=0.001) and individual consideration (r=0.502, p=0.05), respectively. Hotels C and D had no significant correlations.

Further analyses using multiple regressions were conducted in order to determine how much of the variance for service predispositions could be explained by the OC dimensions. The rationale of the SPM model was used as a basis for doing this. The Service Predispositions Model is incorporated in Figure 10.1. It was noted in Chapter 2 that the SPM proposes relationships between the three groups of service predispositions variables: service dimensions, cognitive expressions and personal outcome. The model (Figure 10.1) rationalizes that the variables associated with service dimensions (disposition, affinity, individual consideration, extra, competence, and communication) need to be present in order that the elements of cognitive expressions (implementation, commitment, and performance) can manifest themselves. The dimension of implementation is enhanced by extra and competence. Similarly, commitment is fortified by disposition, affinity and individual consideration. Also, performance is enforced by communication.

According to the SPM, positive personal outcome (i.e. satisfaction with service provided) is the result of all three cognitive expressions being expressed by the individual where these cognitive expressions, in turn, are causal of personal outcome when the individual displays certain service dimensions. However, it is believed that the relationships between service dimensions and cognitive expressions and the relationship between cognitive expressions and personal outcome are influenced by a further variable, deference, which acts as a moderator of the relationships between variables specified by the model. Since personal outcome is the cumulative result of individuals' service predispositions, personal outcome was used in the multiple regressions as the dependent variable and the OC dimensions as independent variables.

10.2.2 Multiple regressions of organisational culture on the SPI

The 28 OC variables and the dimensions from the SPM (except personal outcome) were entered into a multiple linear regression analysis as predictor variables for the personal outcome dimension of the SPM. The SPM dimension of 'personal outcome' was chosen as the dependent variable because it is viewed as the ultimate outcome of the model, as noted above. The standard multiple regression procedure aims to make predictions based on the relationship that best describes the links between variables (Johnson & Kuby, 2000). With standard multiple regression, all the independent variables are entered into the regression equation simultaneously. Hence, this analysis empirically identifies the most powerful predictors of personal outcome. The results of the standard multiple regressions with the significant predictor variables are presented in Table 10.4.

Table 10.4: Summary table of standard multiple regressions predicting personal outcome from all organisational culture (OC) and SPM variables

	Multiple correlation (R) for all variables (SPM & OC)	**Mean R^2 for all variables**	
Personal outcome	0.814**	0. 663**	
Standardized regression weights for equation with all variables			
Personal Outcome			
	Standardised beta coefficients	**t**	**Sig.**
OC Dimensions			
Valued member	0.167	1.989	0.048
Stories	0.136	2.786	0.006
Rituals	0.180	2.545	0.012
Group membership	0.212	3.944	0.000
Heroes	0.209	2.186	0.030
Care & concern	0.149	2.399	0.017
Promotional opportunities	0.201	2.823	0.005
Team spirit	0.146	2.170	0.031
Relationships & processes	0.137	2.310	0.022
SPM Dimensions			
Disposition	0.194	3.495	0.001
Communication	0.242	3.369	0.001
Competence	0.278	4.305	0.000
Deference	0.099	1.891	0.050

Table 10.4 presents the results from the standard multiple regressions (i.e. when predictors are entered simultaneously) and shows that a number of OC and SPM variables are important determinants of personal outcome, i.e. satisfaction with service

delivered. It indicates that both the OC and SPM dimensions collectively explain 66.3% of the variance in individuals satisfaction with service provided. An examination of the variables in the equation table shows that the following OC dimensions are significant predictors of personal outcome: valued member, rituals, stories, group membership, heroes, care & concern, promotional opportunities, team spirit and relationships and processes. Of the SPM dimensions, disposition, communication, competence and deference presented as important predictors of personal outcome.

Alternatives to standard multiple regression, are hierarchical and stepwise regressions. Where in standard multiple regressions, all independent variables are entered into the regression equation simultaneously, i.e. with no particular order, in hierarchical regression, the order of entry of the independent variables is stipulated. In stepwise regression, "the number of independent variables entered and the order of entry are determined by statistical criteria generated by the stepwise procedure" (Coakes & Steed, 1999, p. 162). It is theorized that in the workplace, an individual approaches the delivery of service with an innate set of service predispositions that are influenced by OC. Further, it is argued that the importance of the SPM dimensions will vary as will the importance of the OC dimensions. In order to investigate the contribution of OC to service predispositions, a hierarchical regression was performed whereby the SPM variables were entered first and the OC variables were included second. So as to identify which of the SPM and OC dimensions were most important as predictors of personal outcome, the SPM and OC dimensions were separately subject to stepwise regressions, i.e. within the hierarchical order already defined. The results of the combined hierarchical and stepwise regressions are presented in Table 10.5.

Table 10.5: Summary of multiple hierarchical and stepwise regressions predicting personal outcome from all organisational culture (OC) and SPM variables

			Mean R^2 for the SPM variables only		Mean R^2 for hierarchical regression all variables		Change in R^2
Personal outcome			0.563**		0.661**		0.098
	R^2	**Change in R^2**	**F Change**	**df1**	**df2**	**Sig. F Change**	**Progressive addition of significant variables**
Model 1	0.385	0.385	157.955	1	252	0.000	Competence
Model 2	0.501	0.116	58.508	1	251	0.000	Communication (SPM)
Model 3	0.536	0.035	18.832	1	250	0.000	Disposition
Model 4	0.545	0.009	4.758	1	249	0.030	Deference
Model 5	0.562	0.017	9.288	1	248	0.003	Group membership
Model 6	0.572	0.010	6.038	1	247	0.015	Stories

Table 10.5 shows that with the hierarchical and stepwise regressions, where the SPM dimensions entered first and the OC dimensions second, the principal predictors of personal outcome were principally the SPM dimensions were:

- competence (explained 38.5% of variance explained),
- communication (additional 11.6% of variance),
- disposition (3.5% of variance),
- deference (0.9%),
- group membership (1.60%), and
- stories (1.0%).

This confirms the findings of Table 10.2, which indicates that of the OC dimensions stories and group membership were among the most significant predictors of personal outcome. It also indicates that the SPM variables, in particular competence, communication, disposition and deference, are the most important predictors of personal

outcome explaining collectively 56.3% of the variance. By contrast, the OC variables explained a marginal 9.8% of the variance for personal outcome.

10.2.3 The Influence of Each Hotel Independently

To ascertain if the magnitude of the variance for ‘personal outcome’ explained by either OC or SPM dimensions was consistent at the hotel level, separate multiple regressions were performed for each hotel. These results are presented in Table 10.6.

Table 10.6: Comparison between hotels of multiple stepwise regressions predicting personal outcome from all organisational culture (OC) and SPM variables

		Mean R^2 for regression of all variables	Change in R^2	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Progressive addition of significant variables
Hotel A	Model 1	0.572	0.572	77.571	1	58	0.000	Competence
	Model 2	0.660	0.088	14.770	1	57	0.000	Communication (SPM)
	Model 3	0.696	0.036	6.535	1	56	0.013	Implementation
	Model 4	0.719	0.023	4.558	1	55	0.037	Role ambiguity
Hotel B	Model 1	0.498	0.498	47.651	1	48	0.000	Communication (SPM)
	Model 2	0.595	0.096	11.180	1	47	0.002	Competence
	Model 3	0.651	0.057	70.506	1	46	0.009	Group membership
	Model 4	0.681	0.029	4.159	1	45	0.047	Promotional opportunities
Hotel C	Model 1	0.357	0.357	22.762	1	41	0.000	Competence
	Model 2	0.436	0.079	5.626	1	40	0.023	Performance
	Model 3	0.517	0.080	6.480	1	39	0.015	Planning & decision-making
Hotel D	Model 1	0.312	0.312	17.269	1	38	0.000	Competence
	Model 2	0.479	0.167	11.830	1	37	0.001	Team spirit
	Model 3	0.595	0.116	10.274	1	36	0.003	Commitment
	Model 4	0.655	0.061	6.161	1	35	0.018	Hotel politics
	Model 5	0.704	0.049	5.589	1	34	0.024	Heroes
	Model 6	0.738	0.034	4.293	1	33	0.046	Job variety
Hotel E	Model 1	0.405	0.405	27.871	1	41	0.000	Disposition
	Model 2	0568	0.163	15.108	1	40	0.000	Commitment
	Model 3	0.628	0.086	9.734	1	39	0.003	Social club
	Model 4	0.662	0.040	4.971	1	38	0.032	Extra (OC)

		Mean R^2 for regression of all variables	Change in R^2	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	Progressive addition of significant variables
Hotel F	Model 1	0.248	0.248	5.290	1	16	0.035	Role ambiguity
	Model 2	0.545	0.296	9.754	1	15	0.007	Stories
	Model 3	0.691	0.147	6.649	1	14	0.022	Team spirit
	Model 4	0.817	0.126	8.927	1	13	0.010	Communication (SPM)

Table 10.6 indicates that for all hotels, except Hotel F, the SPM dimensions contributed the greatest variance for personal outcome, ranging from 57.2% for competence in Hotel A to 3.6% for implementation in Hotel A and that these contributions were highly significant ($p<0.01$and $p< 0.05$, respectively). The OC dimensions explained variance for personal outcome ranging from 24.8% for role ambiguity in Hotel F to 2.3 for role ambiguity in Hotel A. Also, the dimensions that significantly predicted personal outcome varied from hotel to hotel. Some dimensions appeared as a predictor for more than one hotel, e.g. role ambiguity, team spirit, competence, communication and commitment. Other SPM dimensions that presented as predictors included commitment, competence, communication, implementation, performance, disposition and extra, with competence being the most commonly occurring predictor, followed by communication. The OC dimensions indicated as predictors were role ambiguity, group membership, promotional opportunities, team spirit, hotel politics, heroes, job variety, social club, planning & decision-making and stories.

Previously Table 10.1 (Correlations of OC dimensions with SPM variables) showed that there is a relationship between OC and service predispositions. The multiple regressions for all hotels collectively (Table 10.4) indicated that both OC and service predispositions explained 66.3% of the variance for personal outcome. The hierarchical and stepwise regressions for the hotel industry collectively (Table 10.5) suggested that the service predispositions were the principal predictors of personal outcome, explaining 54.5% of the variance compared with the dimensions of OC which explained 9.8% of the variance for personal outcome. The stepwise regressions for each hotel separately (Table 10.6) suggested that generally, the service predispositions were the principal predictors of personal outcome. For example, for Hotel A, 69.6% of the variance for personal outcome

was explained by SPM variables (i.e. competence, communication and implementation). Similarly, for Hotel B 59.5% of the variance was explained by SPM variables (i.e. communication and competence). For Hotel C, 43.6% of the variance was explained by SPM variables, i.e. competence and performance. For Hotel D, 59.5% of the variance was explained by SPM variable but 14.4% of the variance was explained by OC dimensions. Likewise, for Hotel E, 14.6% of the variance was explained by OC dimensions while 56.8% was explained by the SPM variables. By contrast, for Hotel F, most of the variance (69.1%) was explained by OC variables and 12.6% by SPM variables. This indicates that the OC of Hotel F has a dominant influence on individuals' propensity to deliver quality service. Generally, however, the results reveal that it is those innate service predispositions, which have the most powerful influence on an individual's propensity to deliver quality service. In light of this finding it seems possible that OC acts as a moderator of service predispositions. This relationship was investigated in the next section.

10.3 Organisational Culture Dimensions as Moderators

The main aim of this thesis was to determine the relationship between the service predispositions of employees and the OC of hotels. The Culture – Service Predispositions Model (Figure 10.1) proposes that OC may act as a moderator between the service dimensions and cognitive expressions and between the cognitive expressions and personal outcome. This part of the thesis examines this relationship.

10.3.1 Organisational culture as a moderator of the SPM dimensions

In Chapter 7 the idea that deference was a moderator of the SPM variables was explored. In order to determine whether OC was a moderator of the SPM variables, analyses were used as per the SPM in Chapter 7 where deference was examined as a moderator of the various SPM variables.

The Organisational Culture-Service Predispositions Model (Figure 10.1) proposes that deference can moderate individuals' predispositions at two points: between service dimensions and cognitive expressions and between cognitive expressions and personal outcome. Theoretically, the model argues that individuals who score OC highly are better able to experience the psychological effects of a heightened internal sense from the first part of the model (the Service Dimensions). Hence, they are also more disposed to

respond favourably to the experience of service delivery (i.e. the personal outcome). It is therefore argued that if OC is a moderator of SPM variables, the relationship between cognitive expressions and personal outcome will be stronger for employees who score OC highly than those with lower OC scores. Similarly, the relationship between service dimensions and their corresponding cognitive expressions will be stronger for employees with higher OC scores than those with lower OC scores. Essentially, the model suggests that individuals with high OC scores work in environments conducive to them experiencing the cognitive expressions of their service dimensions and so, be better able to deliver service to the level of satisfaction expected.

In determining the moderating effect of OC, the upper and lower quartiles of employees' responses to Composite OC Scores were identified. In Chapter 9, the Composite OC Scores were computed as a convenient representative of OC. It was obtained by averaging the score for the OC dimensions to obtain a collective score. In this part of the thesis, the Composite OC Score was considered suitable for assessing the moderating affect of OC.

To assess the moderating effect of deference on the service dimensions-cognitive expressions-personal outcome relationship, a comparable process to Hackman and Oldham's (1974) approach was taken. In a similar fashion here, the upper and lower quartiles for the Composite OC Scores were ascertained. Individuals with high Composite OC Scores (upper quartile) were then selected and responses for cognitive expressions were correlated with personal outcome. Likewise, service dimensions were correlated with corresponding cognitive expressions. A similar process was followed for individuals with low deference (lower quartile). Hackman and Oldham (1974, p. 21) also used the product of the three psychological states in their study. The psychological states of the Job Diagnostic Survey are comparable to the cognitive expressions of the SPM, in relation to their positioning in the models. Hackman and Oldham (1974, p. 21) argued that it would be desirable "to use a single measure that would summarize the degree to which all three psychological states simultaneously are present. The product of the three psychological states has this property". Hence, in determining the moderating effect of OC, the product of all three cognitive expressions was used as the single measure outcome and correlated with personal outcome for when OC was both high and low. Table 10.7 shows the correlations for upper and lower quartiles.

Table 10.7: Comparison of correlations for top and bottom quartiles of OC Composite Score to determine moderating effect of organisational culture on service predispositions as described by the SPM. (**p<0.001; *p<0.05)

	High OC Composite Score (Upper quartile)	Low OC Composite Score (Lower quartile)	Difference
Disposition + Commitment	0.499**	0.754**	-0.255**
Affinity + Commitment	0.499**	0.400**	0.099**
Individual consideration + Commitment	0.805**	0.641**	0.164**
Extra + Implementation	0.393**	0.547**	-0.154**
Competence + Implementation	0.291*	0.140	0.151
Communication + Performance	0.653**	0.272	0.380
Commitment + Personal Outcome	0.658**	0.538**	0.120**
Implementation + Personal Outcome	0.655**	0.295**	0.360**
Performance + Personal Outcome	0.550**	0.089	0.461
(Implementation x commitment x performance) + personal outcome	0.700**	0.353**	0.337**

The results from Table 10.7 indicate that OC acts as a moderator of the SPM dimensions. For all of the relationships, except disposition and commitment, and extra and implementation, the correlations were strongest when OC was high and all were highly significant. When OC was low some of the relationships were not significant, e.g. communication and performance, competence and implementation, and performance and personal outcome. All other correlations were significant suggesting that OC is a moderator of the SPM dimensions.

10.4 Organisational Culture and Deference

In this study, deference has been considered as a key dimension in determining individuals' service predispositions. According to ***The Collins Australian Pocket Dictionary*** (1992, p. 219), deference is defined as "compliance with the wishes of another". This suggests that service providers who are highly deferential at the customer

interface are more likely to go out of their way to meet the needs and requests of the customer. Within the SPM, deference was viewed as playing a critical role as a moderator of the other SPM dimensions. Also, Lee-Ross (2000, p. 152) notes that: "In each individual this variable is viewed as a complex composite of personal and cultural differences which manifest (and therefore may be expressed) as deference". If this is so, and deference could be representing personal and cultural differences, it was considered appropriate to explore the relationship between deference and the OC dimensions further. This was achieved in two ways. First, correlations between deference and the OC dimensions were examined to determine if any relationships existed between these two elements. Second, multiple regressions were used to determine how much of the variance in deference could be explained by the OC dimensions.

10.4.1 Correlations of Deference and Organisational Culture

Correlations between deference and the OC dimensions are presented in Table 10.1. The results show that there were significant relationships between deference and several of the OC dimensions. For example, with behaviours (r=0.313, p=0.001), training (r=0.301, p=0.001) and heroes (r=0.273, p=0.001) there were positive relationships. Some relationships, however, were negative. For example, doing extra (r=-0.147, p=0.05), hotel politics (r=-0.187, p=0.001) and workgroup conflict (r=-0.178, p=0.001) indicated that these dimensions had an adverse influence on deference.

10.4.2 Predictors of Deference

In order to determine how much of the variance in deference could be explained by the OC dimensions, stepwise regressions on deference were conducted. For these regressions, the same rationale as previously (Section 10.1.2) was used, i.e. it is theorized that in the workplace, an individual approaches the delivery of service with an innate set of service predispositions that are influenced by OC. Hence, SPM dimensions were entered first and OC dimensions entered second. The results are presented in Table 10.8.

Table 10.8: Comparison of stepwise regressions used to predict deference from all OC and SPM variables

	Mean R^2 for all OC variables	Change in R^2
Deference	0.286**	0.182

Model	R^2	Change in R^2	Progressive addition of significant variables
Model 1	0.096	0.096	Behaviour
Model 2	0.130	0.034	Training
Model 3	0.147	0.017	Group Membership
Model 4	0.170	0.037	Hotel Politics

**p<0.001

Table 10.8 shows that the OC dimensions collectively explain 18.2% of the variance in individuals' deference scores and are significant predictors (p<0.001). Stepwise regressions revealed that behaviour was the principal OC predictor of deference, explaining 9.6% of the variance; training explained 3.4% of the variance; group membership, 1.7%; and, hotel politics, 3.7%.

10.5 Discussion

10.5.1 Influence of OC on Service Predispositions

This chapter explored the fourth aim (and overall question) of this study, that is, does OC influence individual's service predispositions? In conclusion, it was found that the principal outcome of this part of the study was that Organisational Culture, whether viewed as a multidimensional construct or as a collective measure, does have an influence on the service predispositions of hospitality workers.

The correlations (Table 10.1) results indicate that OC influences individual's service predispositions. In fact, they revealed that some dimensions of OC enhance individuals' service predispositions while others hinder them. In this study, service predispositions were affected positively by cultures that provide job variety, promotional opportunities and training; have strong values, organisational philosophies and team spirit; highlight importance of job, rituals and communication; and, consider their employees to be valued members. Service predispositions were negatively affected by cultures that fostered stories, nurtured hotel politics, relished work conflict, communicated through the grapevine, exhibited no care & concern for employees and doing extra is not the norm.

It may appear that the last two OC dimensions are an anomaly. People working in hospitality are expected to show care and concern and provide something extra. However, examination of the two statements relating to care & concern show that these findings are understandable. For example, the statements relating to care & concern were *My supervisors do not seem to care about their employees* and *everything in this hotel is checked; individual judgment is not trusted.* These are negative statements and are statements that relate to how the employee perceives their supervisor showing care and concern for employees. So, it is makes sense that they may have a negative impact on individuals' service predispositions.

All the other service predispositions were amplified to varying degrees by the other OC dimensions. Some dimensions had an impact on only one or two of the SPM dimensions, for example, stories on implementation, group membership on satisfaction and deference and power structure on competence and deference (Table 10.2). Other dimensions influenced nearly all of the SPM dimensions, for example, job variety had positive correlations with all of the SPM dimensions except implementation; similarly, rituals with all but extra and performance; and, likewise, importance of job with all but affinity and performance. This suggests that OC has variable influences on service predispositions. This is understandable considering that there are differences between organisations and even departments.

An examination of the individual SPM dimensions in Table 8.6 (Chapter 8) shows that for the SPM dimensions of disposition, communication, performance and implementation there were no significant differences at either organisational or departmental level. This indicated that these dimensions were similar across the sample hotel industry. It would seem then that the influence of OC on these dimensions would also be very similar. Table 10.1 summarises correlations between OC and SPM dimensions. It shows that even for those SPM dimensions (the SPM pan dimensions) that were consistent across the industry, the influence of OC is changeable. For some dimensions there were many OC dimensions that significantly influenced service predispositions and for others not so many. For example, communication had 16 significant correlations with OC dimensions whereas disposition presented four significant correlations. Hence, the results indicate that those OC dimensions observed for these pan SPM dimensions and, as noted in Table 10.1, are those OC dimensions impacting on the SPM dimensions at the industry level.

For example, disposition at an industry level is influenced by rituals, importance of job, job variety and relationships and processes. Similarly, performance at an industry level is influenced by job variety and training. This was confirmed by investigations at the hotel level and summarized in Table 10.3. These results showed that those SPM dimensions that were SPM pan dimensions, i.e. disposition, implementation and performance showed no significant links with the OC Composite Measure for any specific hotel, that is the only significant correlations were at industry level. Therefore, it is at the industry level that these SPM dimensions are most influenced by OC. Once again, this lends support for the existence of an overarching hotel culture. Only communication, which was also a pan SPM dimension, showed a significant correlation for Hotel E.

In comparing the correlations between OC and SPM dimensions (Table 10.1) and the correlations between OC's Composite Measure and SPM dimensions for each hotel separately (Table 10.3), it can be seen that SPM dimensions that presented the least number of correlations with OC dimensions at the industry level (Table 10.1) also showed least number of correlations with OC's Composite Measure at the organisational level (Table 10.3). For example, individual consideration presented 21 correlations with OC dimensions (Table 10.1) and three (the highest number of correlations) with OCs Composite Measure (Table 10.3) while disposition showed four correlations with OC dimensions (Table 10.1) and zero with OCs Composite Measure (Table 10.3). Hence, it is expected that for those dimensions that there were the least number of correlations, OC would have the least influence on individuals' service predispositions.

Table 8.6 (Chapter 8) showed that for some SPM dimensions there were significant differences at the organisational level. These dimensions were commitment, competence, individual consideration and affinity. The correlations for these SPM dimensions with OC dimensions observed in Table 10.1 are an indication of the OC factors that could be impacting on these SPM dimensions at the industry level. Table 10.1 shows that for the SPM variables there were several significant correlations with OC dimension: for commitment there were 18 such correlations; for competence and individual consideration there were 21; and, for affinity there were six. Further, Table 10.6 shows that for Hotels A, B, C and D, competence significantly explained 57.2% of the variance on personal outcome. Similarly, for Hotels D and E, commitment significantly explained the variance on personal outcome, 11.6% and 16.3% respectively. In a similar fashion,

individual consideration showed many correlations with OC dimensions at the industry level (Table 10.1) and the most correlations at the organisational level for OCs Composite measure (Table 10.3). Affinity was also consistent at both individual and organisational levels, with few significant correlations at individual levels and none at organisational levels.

These findings indicate that OC influences service predispositions to varying degrees within both industry and organisational levels, but the influence of various dimensions of OC is consistent between levels. That is, dimensions that impact on OC at one level have a similar affect in another level. Further, some SPM variables appear to be most strongly influenced by OC, i.e. communication, competence, individual consideration, commitment, satisfaction and deference were mostly affected by OC.

Investigations of correlations between SPM dimensions and hotels' Composite Scores supported the contention that OC does influence service predispositions to varying degrees at both the industry and organisational levels. Table 10.1 shows that the overall Composite Measure had significant correlations with seven out of eleven of the SPM dimensions: communication, individual consideration, competence, affinity, commitment, deference and satisfaction. All these dimensions but for affinity were the same for both the correlations of SPM dimensions with overall OC Composite Scores and for correlations of SPM dimensions with the individual Hotel OC Composite Scores. This suggests that there is an overarching hotel culture that affects the service predispositions of communication, individual consideration, competence, commitment, satisfaction, deference and, possibly, affinity. Multiple regressions were used to explore the extent to which the overarching OC affects service predispositions.

Multiple regressions for the SPM and OC dimensions (Table 10.4) indicated the significant predictors of personal outcome were valued member, stories, rituals, group membership, heroes, care & concern, promotional opportunities, valued member, stories, rituals, team spirit, relationships & processes, disposition, communication and competence. Further, the multiple regressions analyses showed that 66.3% of the variance in personal outcome was explained by the OC and SPM dimensions collectively. Hierarchical regression analyses (Table 10.5) showed that the SPM dimensions accounted for 56.3% of the variance for personal outcome and the OC dimensions for 9.8% of the variance. With 66.1% of the variance for personal outcome

explained by both SPM and OC variables, the remaining 33.6% of the variance must be explained by other factors. Findings from the current research have shown some significant difference between organisations for the influence of OC on service predispositions. Hence, hotel demographics could impact assist in explaining the outstanding variance. Further, it is possible that national culture or personal factors such as motivation or some of the demographic variables such as 'enjoy hospitality', 'training' and 'staying in hospitality' may also be affecting personal outcome. Also, the dynamics of customer-provider interaction at the service encounter could also impact on employees' personal outcome. Future studies could explore this idea further.

The stepwise regressions for each hotel separately (Table 10.6) also suggested that generally, the service predispositions were the principal predictors of personal outcome. These results also provide support for earlier results in Chapter 8 where competence was the SPM dimension that appeared as the main norm at all levels: industry, organisational, departmental and individual. In this chapter, competence explained 38.5% of the variance for personal outcome at the industry level (Table 10.5) and 57.2% for Hotel A, 35.7% FOR Hotel C, and 31.2% for Hotel C (Table 10.6). Communication was also an important factor at industry and organisation levels both here and in Chapter 8. Here, communication was an principal predictor of personal outcome, explaining 11.6% of variance at the industry level and for Hotels A, B and F explaining 8.8%, 49.8% and 1.26% of the variance respectively.

For the OC dimensions at the hotel level (Table 10.6), group membership and stories which appeared as main predictors at the industry level (Table 10.5), explained 5.7% of the variance for personal outcome for Hotel B and 29.6% for Hotel F, respectively. Other OC dimensions which play significant roles at the hotel level include role ambiguity for Hotels A and F; promotional opportunities for Hotel B; planning & decision-making for Hotel C; team spirit for Hotels D and F; hotel politics, heroes and job variety for Hotel D; and, social club and extra (OC) for Hotel E. The results suggest that these dimensions are the dimensions, which most characterize the hotel culture in the respondent sample.

Further, the results when viewed for hotels separately suggest that in some cases, OC dimensions make a greater contribution to the personal outcome experienced by hotel staff than the individuals' own service predispositions. For example, in Hotel F role ambiguity, stories and team spirit collectively contributed 69.10% of variance in the

personal outcome (Table 10.6). Hence, despite individuals' service predispositions, the OC of the organisation may impose a greater influence on the behaviour, performance and service delivery of frontline employees. Perhaps this is reflective of the pervasive and powerful nature of OC in particular hotels. For example, the OC of Hotel F appears to have a strong influence on service predispositions, with three OC dimensions explaining 69.1 % of the variance for personal outcome (Table 10.6). Generally, however, the results indicate that when hotels were considered separately, the SPM dimensions are the largest predictors of personal outcome. For example, with Hotel A the SPM dimensions accounted for 69.6% of the variance and in Hotel E, 56.8% of the variance.

These results are suggesting that these OC dimensions may be having the greatest influence on service predispositions. Earlier, Figure 9.1 showed a profile of OC at the industry level. The OC ratings from this graph indicate that role ambiguity (5.38), ream spirit (5.29) and job variety (5.04) were among the top ten scoring OC dimensions. These results from Chapter 9 together with the results presented here indicate that these three OC dimensions were not only considered important by respondents but are also strongly impacting on the service predispositions of individuals. The other OC dimensions from Table 10.6 and noted above that respondents may not have given great importance to in Chapter 9 are considered here to be significant in their role as influencing individuals' service delivery. Collectively, the results suggest that the OC dimensions of role ambiguity, promotional opportunities, planning & decisions-making, team spirit, hotel politics, heroes, job variety, social club and extra (OC) are the OC dimensions which most characterise the hotel culture in this study.

In Chapter 9 it was noted that neither Hotel A nor Hotel E had any significant difference along any of the OC dimensions with Hotel F (Table 9.4). This indicated that the culture from these three hotels may be very similar and hence, all three would be impacting on service predispositions in the same way. The regression analysis in Table 10.6 showed that Hotels A and F both had role ambiguity and communication (SPM) as significant predictors but there were no commonalities with Hotel E. However, correlations of OC's Composite Measure with the SPM dimensions (Table 10.3) showed that all three hotels had significant and moderate links with individual consideration. Also, in Chapter 9 it was noted that there were no significant differences in the culture dimensions between Hotels A and F, and F and E but there were some differences between Hotels A and E

were these related to senior management and organisational philosophies. While there appear to be some similarities between the SPM and OC components of these three hotels, the is no overwhelming evidence to suggest that each hotels' culture impacts in the same way on the service predispositions of its employee.

Further investigations into the relationship between OC and service predispositions examined the role of the OC as a moderator. The results indicated that OC does act as a moderator of the SPM dimensions (Table 10.7). For all of the relationships, except disposition and commitment, and extra and implementation, the correlations were strongest when OC was high and all were highly significant. When OC was low some of the relationships were not significant, e.g. communication and performance, competence and implementation, and performance and personal outcome. All other correlations were significant. Also, OC correlates significantly with deference over a number of OC dimensions (Section 10.3.1). Thus, while OC may not in itself be a strong predictor of personal outcome, it can influence the SPM dimensions either as a moderator itself or through deference.

In further exploring the notion that deference plays a key role in individuals' predispositions to deliver quality service, the idea that deference may be a manifestation of "a complex composite of personal and cultural differences" was pursued. It was considered that if this was the case then personal differences, such as the dimensions of the SPM, and cultural difference, such as the OC dimensions would be able to lend some insight into the role that deference plays. Stepwise regressions showed that 28.6 % of variance in deference was explained by the dimensions of OC (Table 10.8).

It was also found that OC acts as a moderator of the relationships between deference and the other SPM dimensions. For all of the relationships, except extra and deference, the correlations were strongest when OC was high and all were moderately significant. When OC was low some of the relationships were not significant, e.g. individual consideration, affinity, extra, satisfaction and implementation and in fact, the relationship between performance and deference was negative. All other correlations were significant. These results indicate that while deference plays a pivotal role in individuals' service predispositions and is a moderator of the SPM dimensions, it is influenced by OC.

Table 10.1 showed that there were several significant correlations between OC and SPM dimensions. Multiple regressions of OC and SPM dimensions on personal outcome, showed that the OC dimensions contributed 9.8% of the variance in personal outcome while the SPM dimensions contributed 56.3% of the variance (Table 10.5). The contributions by the OC variables were surprisingly low, considering the earlier correlations of SPM and OC dimensions (Table 10.1). However, multiple regressions of the OC Composite Scores on deference explained 18.2% of the variance (Table 10.8). Further, Table 10.9 showed that OC was a moderator of deference. These results suggest that OC influences service predispositions through deference rather than directly on service satisfaction. Also, the fact that not all the variance are explained by either the OC or SPM dimensions indicates that there are other factors impacting on personal outcome, factors such as demographics (e.g. job satisfaction, job tenure, education, age, gender) or other personal factor (e.g. motivation, personality) or national culture. These findings lead to areas of future research where the relationships between these new factors and the OC and SPM dimensions can be explored in greater depth. In the meantime, however, it is argued that the OC explored in this study is actually a hospitality culture, which includes elements of the structural variables, i.e. the OC variables described in this study (e.g. importance of job, training and promotional opportunities); individual variables, i.e. the SPM variables detailed in this thesis and individual's demographics; endogenous variables, such as job satisfaction, enjoy hospitality, job tenure and the service encounter; and, exogenous variables such as hotel demographics and national culture. This has led to the development of a new model of hospitality culture, which is described below.

10.5.2 A New Hospitality Culture

In Chapter 3, various typologies of OC were presented. For example, Harrison (1972) divided organisations into four categories: *power, role, task* and *person*; Deal and Kennedy (1982) also specified four types of culture: the *tough-guy macho* culture, the *work-hard/play hard* culture, the *bet-your-company* culture, and the *process* culture; and, Graves (1986) also identifies four types of culture: barbarian, monarchical, presidential, pharaonic. It was argued that each of these typologies or cultural styles encourages specific employee behaviour. As a consequence of this behaviour, various cultures evolve. Hence, culture is an organic entity that is kept alive through the people within the organisation. This study shows that OC influences individuals' service predispositions,

either by: (1) directly impacting on SPM variables; or (2) influencing deference, which in turn, influences the SPM variables. Also, it indicates that certain dimensions of OC have the greatest impact, e.g. role ambiguity, heroes and promotional opportunities (Table 10.6). Further, some of the SPM variables are more sensitive to the nature of OC, e.g. communication, individual consideration, competence, commitment, satisfaction and deference (Table 10.3). The results have also shown compelling commonalities across the hotel industry for OC dimensions, SPM variables and the relationships between the two. Collectively, these findings and the dynamic nature of OC lend support to the existence of not only a hospitality culture but also an overarching occupational hospitality culture whose roots are founded in the nature of hospitality. The relationships between hospitality, hospitality culture and occupational hospitality culture are depicted in the Model of Hospitality Culture presented in Figure 10.2.

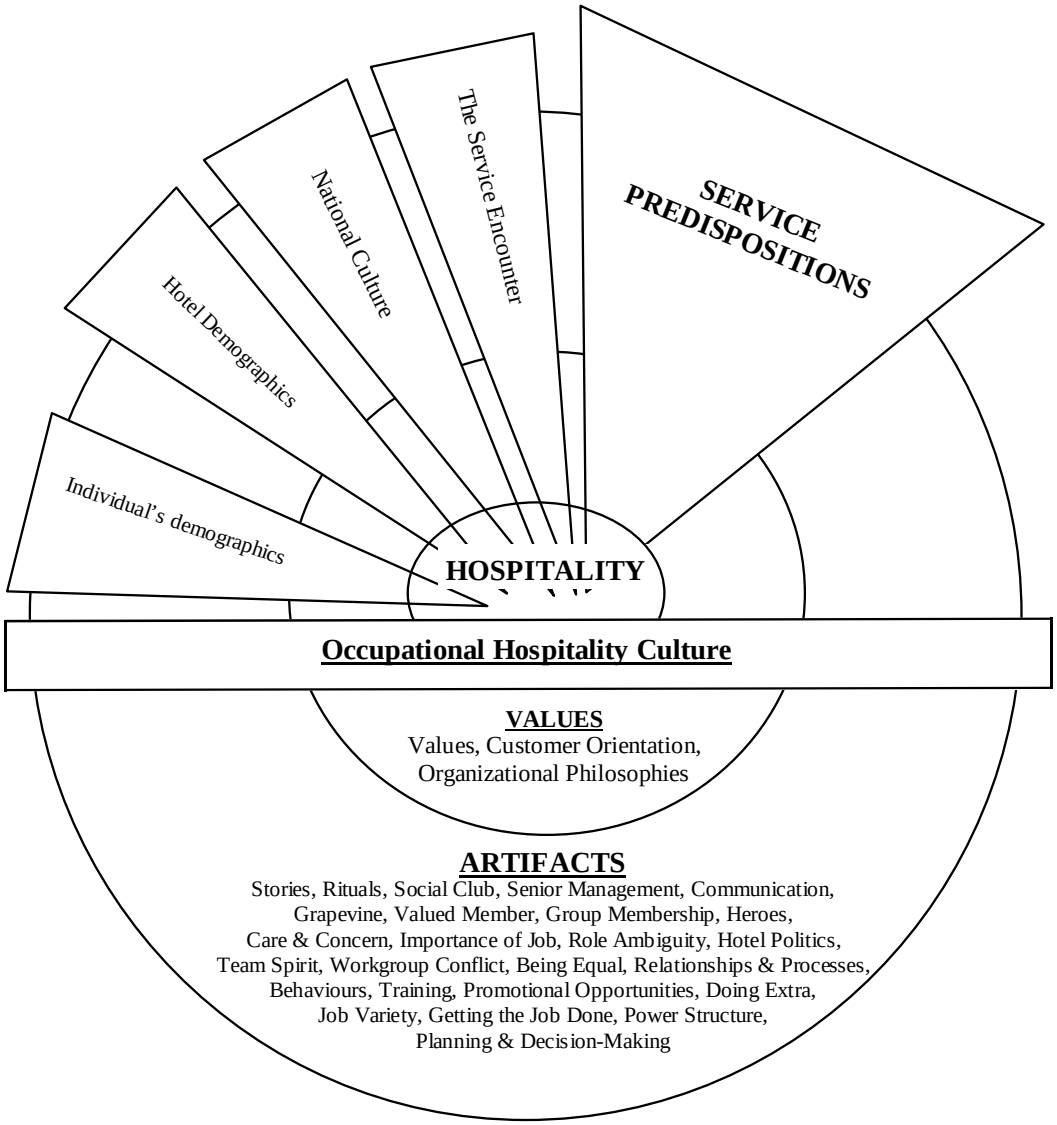

Figure 10.2: A Model of Hospitality Culture

Figure 10.2 illustrates the derived relationships between the elements of OC and the SPM. It includes other elements, which are considered to impact on individuals' delivery of service, such as individuals' demographics, hotel demographics and national culture. The model also attempts to describe the relationships between all these factors and hospitality, hospitality culture and occupational hospitality culture. This model has been developed using a combination of Hofstede's, Schein's and Lewis' ideas. It has used Hofstede's manifestations of culture from shallow to deep concentric circles, Schein's differentiation of levels of culture as the various layers, and Lewis' representation of each layer. In this theorized model, the outermost (most shallow) circle represents "artifacts". These artifacts represent behaviours and actions that are readily observable and audible,

e.g. stories, rituals, social club and management. At this level, Lewis (1998) includes symbols, processes, forms, and behaviours. In her model, symbols refer to logos, slogans, rituals, ceremonies, stories, day-to-day work practices, power holders, promotions, rewards, and language. According to Lewis (1998, p. 254) processes relate to:

> The methods that an organisation uses to carry out its tasks, such as who reports to whom, the design of the work; the mechanisms for integration and differentiation; management decision-making strategies; socialization procedures for new staff and performance appraisal and other review processes for existing staff (Schein, 1983); the official communication channels (Schall, 1983); and rules and regulations about meetings and attendance (Lewis, 1992).

In Lewis' (1998) definition of OC, forms are represented by newsletters, memos, documents, and speeches; furniture; and, physical spaces, buildings, and facades. For Lewis (1998, p. 254), behaviour refers to "the specific day-to-day actions performed by organizational members". Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, & Sanders (1990) refer to these components as "what is" in OC.

In this study, symbols, processes, forms and behaviours are combined and include all the OC dimensions except values, customer orientation and organisational philosophies. These last three components have been included in the layer called 'values'. In the Model of Hospitality Culture, artifacts are subsumed by values. Hofstede *et al.* (1990) refer to these values as "what should be". As per the model above (Figure 10.2), Lewis (1998) identifies this layer as the second layer in OC. She includes beliefs, feelings and values at this level. In this study this second layer has been called 'values' and relates to what Lewis (1998, p. 254) describes as "members' beliefs about what is ultimately worth having or doing". As this study relates to hospitality it includes values, organisational philosophies and customer orientation.

In the Model of Hospitality Culture above, the innermost layer consists of the basic assumptions. In this case, it is the basic assumption of "Hospitality", which drives the hospitality culture. Chapter 1 defined the concept of hospitality as the "friendly, and generous reception and entertainment of customers or strangers" (*Oxford Reference*

Dictionary, 1996, p.424) and as "the kindness in welcoming strangers or customers" (*The Collins Australian Pocket Dictionary*, 1992, p. 398). Lashley (2000) extends the understanding of hospitality to include:

> Hospitality is essentially a relationship based on host and guest. To be effective, hospitality requires the guest to feel that the host is being hospitable through feelings of generosity, a desire to please, and a genuine regard for the guest as an individual. (p. 15).

Hence, it is argued that the basic assumption of hospitality underlies attitudes and values that are then represented by the observed artifacts of hospitality culture.

Further, this model acknowledges that the relationship between the layers is two-way, where culture shapes and frames the behaviours of individuals but also, culture is sustained by the behaviours and actions of people in that culture. Hence, in the model various factors are seen to emanate from the central core of hospitality and are thought to illustrate this reflexive relationship. These include such elements as service predispositions, individuals' demographics, hotel demographics, national culture, and occupational hospitality culture. Earlier in this thesis, service predispositions were described as innate characteristics, which individuals bring to the service encounter but as was observed in this chapter, they are influenced by the OC. However, it is recognised that other factors may influence service predispositions. Hence, service predispositions are drawn as emanating from the hospitality core, the one element uniting all the elements of the model.

Earlier in this chapter, multiple regressions showed that individuals' delivery of service, which was measured by the SPM dimension of personal outcome in this study, could not be fully explained by either the OC or individuals' service predispositions. At the time it was suggested that other factors such as national culture, hotel demographics, the customer-service provider interaction (the service encounter), individual's demographics and hotel demographics could also be influencing personal outcome. In this model these factors have been included in a manner similar to service predispositions, i.e. emerging from and connecting to the central core.

In this study, individuals demographics consists of factors such as gender, age, marital status, current department, employment status, tenure, overall tenure in hospitality, education, other jobs, provision of training, why working in hospitality, intention to stay in hospitality, enjoy working in hospitality and job satisfaction. In the model, individual demographics can be extended to include personality and motivation. Hotel demographics refer to factors such as hotel environment (external and internal), size of hotel, and hotel affiliations (e.g. part of a chain or franchise). The literature discusses the influence of national culture on OC (e.g. work of Hofstede). Hence, national culture was included here.

Kandampully (2002) notes, 'A service is the result of a deed, a performance, an effort, or an encounter in time" (p. 30). He emphasizes, "In services that rely on personal contact and interaction between service deliverer and customer, quality is determined by service delivery" (p. 33). This suggests that customer satisfaction is dependent on the experience gained by the customer form the service encounter. Organisational policies, structures and systems can influence the service encounter. Lashley (1996) acknowledges that traditional structures in hospitality organisations can inhibit employees in their delivery of service and like other authors (e.g. Kandampully, 2002) suggests that systems and procedures, which empower be fostered by the OC. The dynamics of the service encounter and the employees' key role in this process have led to the inclusion of this element in the model. The other predominant element of the model is occupational hospitality culture.

As noted earlier, hospitality is the basic assumption of both the hospitality culture and occupational hospitality culture. It is the origin of these cultures. It is argued, however, that sometimes, the occupational hospitality culture becomes such a pervasive force that it can be the basic assumption of hospitality culture permeating all levels and aspects of hospitality culture. From the findings of this research, it has become apparent that for the hotel sample, such is the case. That is, the occupational hospitality culture is a pan culture, which dictates the behaviours and actions of hospitality workers in the Cairns region.

As noted in Chapter 1, the concept of hospitality is poorly researched and its link to OC is even less well defined. The literature identifies hospitality as:

> A relationship based on host and guest … hospitality requires the guest to feel that the host is being hospitable through feelings of generosity, a desire to please, and a genuine regard for the guest as an individual.
> (Lashley, 2000, p. 15).

Research examining the characteristics that enable individuals to be hospitable emphasises the importance of personality traits and attitudes in the delivery of hospitable service (e.g. Hogan *et al.*, 1984; Larsen & Bastiensen, 1991). Although the concept of hospitality culture has received some attention (e.g. Riley, 1984; Teare, 1992; Woods, 1989) the emphasis has been only on elements of the OC that contribute to a hospitality culture. This study has found that the dynamic interaction between employees' service predispositions and OC produce a unique culture, which is more pervasive than OC and permeates the entire industry. This culture represents the very nature of hospitality, extends beyond the organisational hospitality culture and is akin to the culture of occupational communities. Van Maanen and Barley (1984, p. 287) defined occupational communities as:

> A group of people who consider themselves to be engaged in the same sort of work; whose identity is drawn from the work; who share with one another a set of values, norms, perspectives that apply to but extend beyond work related matters; and whose social relationships meld work and leisure … occupational cultures are seen to create and sustain relatively unique work culture consisting of, among other things, task rituals, standards for proper and improper behavior, work codes, surrounding relatively routine practices.

Hospitality workers are "a group of people who … (are) … engaged in the same sort of work" and that work is to provide hospitality to their customers. Hospitality workers through the need to be hospitable in their work tend to possess a compelling identity. Traditionally, the hospitality industry is a 'people industry' and the employees are

required to possess social and human skills that reflect their ability to get along with other people. Hence, for hospitality workers, their "identity is drawn from the work".

This nature of hospitality work presents some commonalities for hospitality workers and means that they "share with one another a set of values, norms, perspectives that apply to" their work. Hospitality cultures can be "seen to create and sustain relatively unique work culture consisting of, among other things, task rituals, standards for proper and improper behavior, work codes, surrounding relatively routine practices". Food and beverage attendants have particular ways of performing their tasks, e.g. setting tables, folding napkins, opening a wine bottle, making and service coffees, seating customers at a table. These tasks require certain rituals, e.g. that cutlery and glassware is be polished, white wine is placed in an ice bucket and red wine served at room temperature, and entrée is served before mains. These rituals dictate standards for proper and improper behaviour. For example, clean tea towels and hot water are used for polishing cutlery, not spit and a dirty cloth. These factors lead to particular 'work codes' that surround 'relatively routine practices' such that if a customer enters a hotel restaurant, they can expect to be greeted with a friendly and courteous smile, be ushered to and seated at a clean table and be assisted in their selection of drinks and menu items. Riley (1991) notes that hospitality workers can have high levels of attachment to their work. This is particularly true in cases where workers live-in where the workplace becomes the individual's life. Hence, at times strong social bonds can develop in hotel organisations but this does not always "extend beyond work related matters; … (such that) … social relationships meld work and leisure". Hence, a hospitality culture is a form of occupational community but not in the full sense of its definition as detailed by Van Maanen and Barley (1984).

This study has found that hotel workers have unique orientations to work (i.e. service predispositions) that are influenced by OC. If hospitality culture is to be viewed in a holistic way and since hospitality can be viewed as an occupational community, it is argued that the individual characteristics of hospitality workers need to be considered in any assessment of hospitality culture. The use of individual characteristics as variables in defining a type of OC is not new. For example, Deery (1999) presented a turnover culture that contained individual variables that included negative and positive affectivity. This

study extends this idea and suggests that the SPM dimensions could be incorporated in the measurement of hospitality culture as described in Figure 10.2.

10.6 Summary

In summary, this chapter revealed that OC does influence service predispositions and moderates the relationships as described by the SPM. Of the OC dimensions, competence, communication, individual consideration, commitment, satisfaction and deference were the principal predictors of individuals' satisfaction with their delivery of service (i.e. personal outcome). Comparing, OC and SPM dimensions, it was found that the SPM variables have the greatest influence on personal outcome (Table 10.5). Of the SPM dimensions, competence, communication, dispositions and deference were the main predictors of personal outcome. The data also shows that OC acts as a moderator of the SPM variables (Table 10.7). Further, it was ascertained that OC correlates with deference, indicating that OC influences individuals service predispositions either: (1) directly by impacting on SPM variables; or (2) indirectly by influencing deference, which in turn, influences the SPM variables.

The results have also shown some striking commonalities across the hotel industry for OC dimensions, SPM variables and the relationships between the two. This has led to the conclusion that the OC observed in this study is a hospitality culture, which acknowledges the dynamic nature of OC, the influence of individuals' behaviour and actions on the culture, and the impact of other elements on individuals' delivery of service. Further, the uniqueness of the hospitality industry has indicated the presence of a culture, which represents the very nature of hospitality within the respondent sample and extends beyond the organisational hospitality culture. This culture is noted as being akin to the notion of occupational communities and recognised as an occupational hospitality culture. All these factors have resulted in the development of a Model of Hospitality Culture, which provides the basis for future research into the ecology of hospitality.

Although these results present some interesting findings, it was thought that they could be augmented by a qualitative approach so as to provide a much richer, deeper and more comprehensive view of the influence of OC on the service predispositions of hospitality workers. Chapter 11 presents information gained from the qualitative approach.

CHAPTER 11

HOSPITALITY ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE: A QUALITATIVE APPROACH

11.1 Introduction

This chapter continues to address the third aim of this study, which seeks to determine the influence of organisational culture (OC) on the service predispositions of hospitality workers. Further, it adds to the research questions associated with this aim:

- Is the influence of these characteristics of OC the same between hotels, and within hotels?
- Is there a common hospitality culture, which permeates the hotel industry in the region?
- If so, what are its characteristics?

The last chapter provided a quantitative assessment of the issue and determined that OC does affect service predispositions. In this chapter, a qualitative approach is taken with the results adding richness and depth to the findings from the analyses of the questionnaire and the concepts of service predispositions and OC. In particular, the ideas of a hospitality culture and an occupational hospitality culture and their impact on employees' attitudes to the delivery of service are explored through an ethnographic approach, which includes observations and interviews.

The next section presents snippets from the descriptive data. Table 4.4 themes that emerged from the quantitative part of this study, i.e. those relating to the Service Predispositions Model (SPM) and the OC Questionnaire. In the following section each theme for OC from Table 4.4 is described separately and is exemplified by data collected from the ethnographic inquiry.

11.2 Qualitative Findings for Organistional Culture

11.2.1 Overview

Material from the interviews supported the principal finding of the questionnaire and that is that OC does to some extent influence the service predispositions of hospitality workers. It provided rich insights into the service predispositions of hospitality workers and the nature of OC within hotels. Of great interest was that information gained form the interviews confirmed the presence of a hospitality culture and revealed that its basic assumptions are centered in the nature of hospitality, i.e. being hospitable. Further, the results show an association between hospitality culture and occupational hospitality culture, where occupational hospitality culture is defined in this study as the consistent nature of hospitality work evident among workers, between departments and organisations, across situations and from time to time. This theme reflected a recurrent basic assumption that is at the core of hospitality work. While it was unclear whether hospitality culture powers occupational hospitality culture or vice versa, this was a significant revelation. It showed that in Cairns the hospitality culture has evolved into an overarching occupational hospitality culture, which unifies people across the industry and within the region. The hospitality culture is a melting pot for factors that drive hospitality work, i.e. hospitality, service predispositions, hotel demographics, individuals' demographics, national culture and the service encounter. These are subsumed by the overarching occupational hospitality culture, which guides people's delivery of service. and is characterized by a camaraderie that is strengthened by people working in the same industry. Themes that are subsumed by occupational hospitality culture are mostly related to service predispositions and OC. Additionally, other themes emerged which are clearly important and needed to be introduced and reported, e.g. servility, emotional labour and negative attitudes. The ethnographic aspects of the service predispositions themes have already been discussed in Chapter 8. The following section present expositions from qualitative findings on aspects of OC.

11.2.2 Organisational culture

In Chapter 3 it was noted that OC can manifest itself at different levels:

- ✶ The level of deep tacit assumptions that are the basis of culture,
- ✶ The level of espoused values that generally reflect what a group aspires to be, and
- ✶ The level of artifacts that are evident in the day-to-day behaviour and are represented by the dynamic interaction of the deeper assumptions, the espoused values and the situational contingencies.

It is acknowledged that culture is a set of basic assumptions that a group of people share and that determines their feeling, thoughts, attitudes and behaviour. In order to uncover the basic elements of culture, it is important to ascertain the underlying values and assumptions that direct the behaviour of individuals. This section seeks to use a qualitative approach to expose some of the fundamentals of OC within hotels by reporting and reflecting on the characteristics of hospitality culture.

Chapter 10 presented a Model of Hospitality Culture in which the dimensions of OC identified in Chapter 9 were aligned with the various levels described above. These dimensions are here listed in Table 11.1 as themes under the levels of OC identified earlier.

Table 11.1 Levels of Hospitality Culture and Corresponding Themes.

✶	**Artifacts**: stories, rituals, social club, senior management, communication, and grapevine, valued member, group membership, heroes, care & concern, importance of job, behaviours, role ambiguity, hotel politics, team spirit, workgroup conflict, being equal, and relationships & processes, training, promotional opportunities, doing extra, job variety, getting the job done, power structure, and planning & decision-making.
✶	**Values**: values, customer orientation, and organisational philosophies.
✶	**Hospitality**: basic assumptions guiding hospitality workers behaviour and performance, associated with Occupational Hospitality Culture

These themes were used as the basis of the semi-structured interviews with questions developed for each dimension. Themes varied in their level of importance to interviewees. Some themes raised little discussion and others were of noticeable concern to interviewees. In Chapter 9 it was found that respondents accentuated importance of job, role ambiguity, rituals, values, valued member, stories, training, team spirit and customer orientation (Figure 9.1) as the most important OC dimensions. This ranking contrasted somewhat with the qualitative findings. While the interviews were semi-structured and the researcher had set questions relating to each theme, often the interview had a particular focus. This depended on the issues or problems that were of particular concern to the interviewee. For many interviewees the role played by supervisors and managers was a factor, which largely affected the workplace environment. Other factors included training, team spirit, communication and rewards. The factors considered most important by interviewees are summarized in Table 11.2.

Table 11.2 OC factors that were of prominent concern for interviewees

Factor of most concern	Percentage of interviewees
Supervisor & Managers	25%
Hotel Politics	12.5%
Rewards	8.75%
Communication	6.25%
Team Spirit	5%
Training	5%
Workgroup Conflict	5%
Resources – Getting job done	5%
Practices & Procedures	5%
Others, e.g. commitment, own initiative, fitting in, other departments.	22.5%

Excerpts from interviews with frontline hotel personnel in relation to OC are presented in the following sections. The presentation of these follows the levels and themes outlined in Table 11.5.

ARTIFACTS

Artifacts as relating to this study were defined earlier in Chapter 10 in relation to the Hospitality Culture Model. They were described as the visible products of the culture. Themes from this study that related to artifacts included: stories, rituals, social club, senior management, communication, grapevine, valued member, group membership, heroes, care & concern, importance of job, role ambiguity, hotel politics, team spirit,

workgroup conflict, being equal, and relationships & processes. In Chapter 9, average rates for these dimensions were presented (Figure 9.1). Their ranking, in order of descending rating, is presented in Table 11.3.

Table 11.3 Ranking of average rate for OC dimensions relating to artifacts

THEME	RATING
Importance of job	5.52
Rituals	5.39
Training	5.39
Role Ambiguity	5.38
Team Spirit	5.29
Valued Member	5.20
Stories	5.10
Job Variety	5.04
Getting Job Done	5.02
Group Membership	5.02
Behaviours	4.98
Heroes	4.98
Relationships & Processes	4.98
Senior Management	4.91
Communications	4.86
Being Equal	4.72
Promotional Opportunities	4.69
Power Structure	4.68
Doing Extra	4.58
Hotel Politics	4.57
Grapevine	4.33
Social Club	3.94
Care & Concern	3.70
Workgroup conflict	3.68

The next section examines each of these themes separately, highlighting their exposition through in-depth interviews. Where possible, they are presented in order of descending ratings as detailed in Table 11.3. Some themes that were interrelated were combined and discussed collectively.

Importance of job

This dimension focuses on the importance of the job to employees in terms of being enthusiastic about the job, enjoyment in working in particular department, opportunities for professional development and sense of contributing to the organisation's success (see Table 9.1 for items relating to this dimension). From the quantitative data, importance of

job was given an average rating of 5.52[11.1], the highest of all OC dimensions. The qualitative research revealed that generally interviewees were happy in their jobs and they enjoyed the camaraderie within their department. A receptionist illustrated this point by saying:

> I love working here. I think it's one of the greatest hotels to work in Cairns. I've worked in a number of hotels in Cairns, and this one is the best. The people that work here are great. They care for you and help you out if you need help. Especially during busy periods, everyone works as a team. It we get busy and the porters see that we need help, they come and help. The AMs (Duty Managers) are always helping out. They even help out in the restaurant or bars. Yeh! It's great here.

Also expressing enthusiasm for the job, a food and beverage attendant said:

> Oh yes! I love it here. If I don't like a place, I don't stay there very long. I've been here four years now and that says a lot about this place. It's a good place to work in.

Likewise, another food and beverage attendant made positive comments. In this case the interviewee gave some consideration to the people in the organisation:

> I like the people, the staff, and the management. The people who work here are very nice, except for maybe one or two, but they're leaving anyway. Management is very considerate of the staff. They look after you. They're very flexible. For example, you tell them when you can work, when you're available and it's ok with them. They just put you on when you can work. Compared to the Hotel A, where I used to work before, this place is very good. At Hotel A, the way they think is 'you work for us and you'll come in when we tell you'.

This last passage also gave some insight into the influence of other employees and management styles on employees' morale and performance. In general, interviewees felt that their job was important to them and to their organisation. In reference to the later, a receptionist remarked:

> Ooohh! Yeh! If we weren't here doing our jobs, there would be no hotel. It's the floor staff that holds the place together. We're the ones that sell the rooms, the food and the drinks. We're the ones that attend to customers' requests and listen to the customers' complaints.

[11.1] Ratings for items from the OC Questionnaire are on a 1 to 7 Likert scale where 1 represents strongly disagree and 7 represents strongly agree.

Similar feelings were echoed by other staff, with a bar attendant summarizing the general consensus:

> I love my job. I love working with people, being around people, and helping people. I'm a people person and really can't live without being around people. I like this particular hotel. I've been here three years and have no intentions of moving on just yet. It's a good company to work for with lots of perks, especially with the ABC card. And working in the bar, I'm pretty much my own boss. And as for contributing to the organisation's success – I think I'm pretty good at my job. I can sell, up sell, and more sell. Yesterday I banked $XXX big ones.

This statement emphasizes the importance of individuals enjoying their job, being motivated in their work and contributing to organisational success, in the process. The fact that importance of job was rated as an important dimension in the quantitative data supports the contention that frontline staff is a valuable asset for any organisation. Earlier in the thesis, e.g. Chapters 1 and 2, the notion that frontline personnel play a key role in service industries was explored in depth. The results from this study confirm this idea for the hospitality industry.

Rituals

The quantitative results show that rituals was rated 5.39. This dimension covered events regularly celebrated, employees being trained on-the-job, employees learning the ropes, and attending meetings. Interviews revealed that the relatively high score for this dimension was related to consensus on the applicability of all these factors to the hospitality industry. Interviews also indicated its importance as a theme. In hospitality most training seems to be on-the-job training (Powers, 1995). Interviews provided evidence for this practice. A food and beverage attendant says:

> We get a lot of people in here who are green, i.e. they have no hospitality background or experience at all. They're young as well so they don't have life experiences or that maturity either to guide them through their work or to know what they need to do.

Another food and beverage attendant highlighted the difficulties of employing someone who is "green" and is trained on-the-job.

> There was a young girl who had no work experience at all but was also lost as to what she might do in a situation. One morning the phone rang and I had my arms full of plates and I asked her to pick it up. She said, "What do I say?" now I don't blame the girl for this but before she was put on the floor, she should have undergone some sort of basic skills testing or training. Because she'd never had a job before, she didn't even feel confident in answering the phone.

Another food and beverage attendant spoke of similar problems:

> On Thursday morning I was in the restaurant with a new waiter when a crisis broke out in back-of-house. With only him and me in the restaurant for breakfast, I asked him if he'd be ok while I went to sort out the situation in the back. He assured me that he would be okay. When I came back five minutes later, it was to find that he didn't know how to check people into the restaurant. He had no idea of how to see if guests' breakfasts were included, charge if not and so on.

While on the same topic, a food and beverage attendant provided a possible solution.

> I think in our industry, you can't get away from training on-the-job. It's the best way to learn because you are put in real life situations. However, there should be some buddy system that makes this process easier.

The researcher observed in several hotels where it was not uncommon to buddy a new employee with someone who had been in the organisation for some length of period. This appeared to work well and as one new receptionist said:

> For me, it's been great having a buddy. I did a course in front office at TAFE but it's not the same as being here with real live customers in front of you. It's been good to know that if I was stuck or had any questions, there is someone I can call upon that doesn't mind helping me out. I found it's a good way for a new employee to learn the ropes.

Interviewees spoke of other rituals such as attending meetings, induction and celebratory occasions. A receptionist remarked on celebrations relating to Employee of the Month and its entrenchment into the schedule of things.

> Employee of the Month has become a huge thing here. We usually have a theme, e.g. Footy Fever, Fasta Pasta, or Ploughman's Lunch, and have food to suit the occasion. It's on a Friday at lunchtime. Most staff finds this an opportune time to take a break and come and join us for some fun.

The above snippets reveal the important contributions rituals make to the development and maintenance of culture. Some rituals may be deliberately planned, e.g. Employee of the Month celebrations. Others may be informal and a traditional part of the hospitality way. By contrast role ambiguity can cloud a culture.

Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity refers to opportunities to complete work started, clearly defined job responsibilities, opportunity to use own initiative or judgment, and opportunities to make effective use of knowledge. The quantitative data presented an average rate for this dimension of 5.38. Qualitative research highlighted the clarity given by interviewees to job responsibilities but stressed some of the concerns they felt with opportunities to use their own initiative. Ambiguities associated with the roles they are expected to assume was also an issue. A food and beverage attendant explains:

> I'm a relief supervisor in the restaurant and when I'm not supervising, I'm just and F&B attendant. And sometimes this creates confusion, for both the employees and me. For me, it's hard sometimes to make that paradigm shift. For example, if I'm busy and I see something that needs doing and there's someone who's not so busy, I'll ask them to do the job. At times like that I feel that I'm wearing my supervisor's hat when I shouldn't be. Also, for staff it can be confusing. They'll turn to me and ask me things they would normally ask the supervisor, things like: "Shall I set the front or the back of the restaurant?" or "Can I knock off now?" or "Shall I go on my break now?"

This example presents one interpretation of role ambiguity. More common comments relating to this theme are exemplified by the following remark from a receptionist:

> I've found that in most hotels the hierarchical structure is quite clear. In front office you have receptionists at the desk. They answer to front office supervisors and the front office manager. And people's job responsibilities are clearly aligned with the hierarchy of positions. For example, I'm a receptionist and there are only certain things that I'm allowed to do. If a guest has a complaint, which I can't resolve with a room change or bottle of wine or fruit plate, then I have to call in the supervisor.

Most frontline hotel workers agreed with the above statement but some added comments similar to that of this food and beverage attendant:

> Our job responsibilities are fairly clear and supervisors and managers constantly remind you of this. If you try to take the initiative in dealing with a

> guest, they stick their head in and ask, "What's going on?" or "Why did you do that?"

Likewise, another food and beverage attendant expressed some comments on the level of initiative frontline workers are allowed to take:

> I think I can use my knowledge effectively to a certain point and that's within the realm of a food and beverage attendant. If we display initiative in dealing with problems, the supervisors get cranky and remind us that we should let them know what we're doing. That's fine but they're not always around and sometimes you've got to take the initiative. And then of course, take the consequences.

Additionally, a porter said:

> Managers allow us to make suggestions and they listen to them. But they don't act upon them.

These recounts indicate that traditional autocratic management styles that seek to control employees are still current in the hospitality industry. The service literature suggests that managers should empower frontline employees because of their close contact with customers. They should provide employees with the "authority, responsibility, confidence, and necessary resources (i.e. access to information and training to use that information) to make independent decisions" (Go, Manachello, & Baum, 1996). Employees should be empowered to use their own discretion and initiative to meet customers' requests or resolve problems immediately (e.g. Chernish, 2001; Powers, 1995). It seems that in most cases, hospitality workers in the interviewee sample had clear job responsibilities and were able to make effective use of their knowledge as it related to their position but were afforded minimal opportunities, if at all, to use their own initiative or judgment. Empowering employees could be one way that hotels could increase job satisfaction, enhance employee growth and development, and maximise customer satisfaction. Similarly, a focus on team spirit has many benefits, as can be seen from the next section.

Team Spirit & Workgroup Conflict & Relationships & Processes

In this study team spirit relates to cooperation in workgroups, good morale, and friendly atmosphere. The qualitative results provide an average rating for team spirit of 5.29. Most interviewees agreed that a strong team spirit was important in the workplace and this is evident in the following comments made by a food and beverage attendant:

> Teamwork is very important in this department. The work is really hard at times and especially during service you can be going a-mile-a-minute with ten things to do at once and that's when teamwork is very important to get the job done quickly and to the customer's satisfaction.

A receptionist extended these thoughts on team spirit and emphasized its camaraderie aspect:

> Team spirit is about camaraderie. It's about people working together. If someone sees things that need to be done and the other person is struggling to get those things done, then that someone pitches in and helps out.

In a similar vein, a food and beverage attendant elaborated on the benefits to be had with teamwork:

> A lot depends on the people you work with. If they're good then you enjoy your job more, you work harder, you work better as a team and the job gets done better. Look at today. Today, we had the A-team on. Everyone worked well together. Stepping in and helping each other out when there was the need. Everyone worked hard, worked together and we did very well.

While this latter commentary heralded the solidarity that is at the heart of team spirit, it hints at the idea that while team spirit unites the workforce, it also divides the workers. The following remarks by a food and beverage attendant illustrates this point:

> In this place team spirit is limited to which crew you belong to. There's the night crew and the breakfast crew and neither like each other. The breakfast crew whinge about the night crew and the night crew blame the breakfast crew whinge about the breakfast crew. And sometimes it goes beyond this with staff writing nasty messages in the logbook about the other crew. The logbook has become the whinging board.

Another food and beverage attendant echoed these negative thoughts. In Chapter 3 the notion of espoused OC was mentioned. Organisations may espouse particular values such as "communication", "teamwork" or "customer orientation" but in reality nurture behaviour that is contrary to the espoused values. One example of this contradiction between espoused and actual culture was evident in relation to teamwork. In one establishment, the restaurant manager said: "We have a motto here that 'Teamwork Produces the Best Work" and always encourage staff to work as a team. We even have Team Leaders here to ensure that the teamwork thing is really working." The following week in an interview with a waiter from the same establishment, the waiter said:

> Teamwork! That's a laugh in this place! They promote themselves as encouraging teamwork and we actually have team leaders but in reality it's not working. Actually, the morning crew seems to work well as a team. I am usually on the evening crew but when they need someone I often work mornings as well. And, I must admit, I love working mornings. Everyone works well together. There are no dramas. If someone sees that a job needs to be done they get in and help out. There's none of this: 'This is my section, that's yours, and stay away from mine' or "They're my tips". It's absolutely ridiculous!

This recount provides an example of a situation where the underlying values and assumptions that drive the behaviour of the group members is contrary to the espoused values and assumptions. Clearly, in this situation, individual effort rather than group effort is rewarded. The incentive system of tips that the organisation encourages is based more on a shared assumption that only individuals are accountable and that the best results come from a system of individual competition and rewards (i.e. tips). On the surface, the group appears to be behaving as a team, i.e. the 'evening crew' or 'morning crew' with their own team leaders but on the floor level, individuals share the belief that they can be successful, where success is determined by the tips received, by individual effort rather than group effort.

Fortunately most examples were more positive and espoused the benefits of teamwork and identified workgroup conflict as an issue of little concern. This was also evident in the quantitative results by the low average rating given to workgroup conflict (3.68 – Table 11.5) and the number of individuals who believed team spirit in the hospitality industry was alive and well.

The greatest area of workgroup conflict occurred between and within departments. Intradepartmental conflicts generally arose out of conflict between night and day shifts. As a food and beverage attendant explains:

> A couple of days ago, night staff put in a formal complaint against the day staff. Apparently we don't do our job properly. Someone made the remark, "What do we do all day?" because when they come in at three, there's still heaps of things to be done. They don't stop to think that we may have been busy for lunch and breakfast before that with little time to catch up.

Employees across the board spoke of these divisions within departments. One receptionist tried to rationalize the problem as follows:

> It's just because of the divisions at the moment between night and day staff. Night staff just does nights; day staff just does days. There's no crossover, no interaction. There's just a great deal of animosity. It's pretty bad. And it's affecting morale now. It's only one or two people in particular that seem to have issue with the day staff but they're making it bad for everyone.

Relationships between departments were often strained. In the study the theme of relationships and processes examined this situation. The quantitative data returned a moderate rating of 4.98 for this dimension. This suggested that interdepartmental relationships could be improved. The in-depth interviews revealed that relationships were stressed and usually over minor events. As a receptionist summed it up:

> It's a territorial thing. It's like this is our department. We know what we're doing over here. You butt out.

On the same point, a restaurant supervisor said:

> We get along quite well with housekeeping but with front office it's another story. I'm quite prepared to do housekeeping a favour because when we need one they always help out, no questions asked. If we need special linen for a function, or need napkins in a hurry, they're always obliging. Front office, instead, every time you ask them a question, they treat you like you're dumb. Sometimes, they don't provide all the necessary info and when we question them about the situation, they get their back up. But then at the drop of a hat they want teas and coffees prepared or wines and champagne delivered.

Other food and beverage personnel echoed this feeling. One food and beverage attendant stated:

> I wouldn't mind that much but they think that they are so much better than us.

Another food and beverage attendant described an incident that highlighted how under such strained relationships it was easy for things to get out of hand:

> In the restaurant there was an issue where guests seemed to be coming into the restaurant at breakfast time without having their vouchers checked or being checked to see if their breakfast was included or whether they needed to pay. The Duty Manager was concerned about the loss of revenue. After some deliberation he decided to send a general email to all supervisors and managers concerned detailing how he perceived the situation and how it could best be resolved. Although the email was sent to no one specifically,

> one of the restaurant supervisors took quite an offence to the email. It was almost like she considered being a personal attack. She said that the Duty Manager had no right to interfere with the operations of the restaurant and as far as his suggestions went, there was "Fat Chance" of them being put in place.

The researcher asked another food and beverage supervisor about this incident. The supervisor replied:

> I think Deirdre has gone overboard. She's overreacted and misinterpreted the things that the Duty Manager mentioned in his email. All she's succeeded in doing is putting a strain on the relationship between them and us now. He was only trying to help. And she behaved in a manner that was totally unbecoming of her position as a Restaurant Supervisor.

Most employees agreed, however, that relationships between departments were healthy. The following remark by a receptionist sums up the feelings:

> I never have any problems with the other departments. Food and beverage are always friendly and willing to help us out if we ever need anything from food and bev. Housekeeping also are very cooperative. They keep in touch with us about rooms – when they're vacant, when they're ready and so on. If ever we need anything extra or a room transformed, they're always obliging.

A food and beverage attendant added the following:

> Occasionally, we have a misunderstanding but most times we get along really well. It helps with people doing cross–training because that way you get to know people and also, you get to know how different departments work. That way you become more tolerant and understanding of each other.

This later remark raises the issue of cross training and the benefits to be had from such a practice. It will be discussed in more detail later. For now, interviewees had similar positive remarks to make about being a valued member of the organisation.

Valued Member & Hotel Politics

In the quantitative research, valued member was given a rating of 5.20. The qualitative research presented a more positive view of this theme. When asked if they felt they were valued members of the organisation, most employees answered affirmatively. They also added that supervisors and managers made them feel valued, and employees respected and valued each other. A food and beverage attendant made the following remarks:

> I worked in this hotel where if the GM [General Manager] found out that you'd made an achievement outside of work he'd write you a congratulatory letter. It could be related to anything. It could be to do with sport, school, community work, anything. These made us feel like valued members.

This comment highlights the integral role played by senior managers and emphasizes that it often does not take much to make individuals feel like they are valued members of the organisation. In this case, the general manager cared enough about his employees to acknowledge what they achieved outside the workplace. At a level closer to the frontline, interviewees agreed that often all it takes is for supervisors/managers to acknowledge their contributions for the day that makes them feel as valued members. A receptionist makes this point:

> I know that I'm a valued member of this organisation because I'm passionate about my work and I'm good at my work. But what makes me feel valued is when at the end of the shift, the supervisor or manager turns around and says, "Thanks for today. You did a great job." or "Thanks for today. Your efforts made a real difference. Thanks."

This comment reflected the opinion of many interviewees. It shows that very often it does not take much for morale and motivation to be boosted. A positive comment from supervisors and managers can go a long way. For others it takes a little more to feel like a valued member. Some interviewees remarked that they felt to be valued members when the organisation took an interest in their growth and development. This was partially reflected in the following comment made by a food and beverage attendant:

> I don't feel like I'm a valued member here. I don't know how many times I've applied for internal promotions and never got anywhere. They allow me to do the cross-training to learn about the job but when it comes to the crunch, they make some lame excuse as to why I don't get the job. They have their favorites – they're the valued members. Not me.

This example also highlights how inequitable events may appear. It was a feeling that was expressed by a few interviewees but most felt that hotels provided valuable opportunities for those pursuing growth and development. The following remarks by a receptionist emphasise this point:

> This hotel makes you feel like you are a valued member. They take a real interest in your personal growth and development by encouraging you to do cross-training or attend training programmes that may help you. I'm looking at becoming a supervisor one day. And they paid for me to do my Cert IV. I've also done cross-training in reservations and sales and marketing. To me it makes me feel like I'm worthy of doing all these things. I know they help the organisation in the long run. But I could easily walk and take those skills with me.

This last excerpt also raises the issue of hotel politics. Almost 13 % of interviewees raised the issue of hotel politics. Most interviewees indicated that hotel politics affects promotions within the organisation. In the quantitative research, it was given a moderate rating of 4.57. The qualitative findings indicated that hotel politics had a greater influence than had been indicated by the quantitative data. Most employees thought that in some cases hotel politics played a part in promotions. In one case, a receptionist had applied for several jobs within the organisation during her three-year tenure. She had been unsuccessful and in a moment of despair arranged for an interview with the Human Resources Manager. The following remarks from a receptionist describe her meeting:

> I explained that I had applied for a number of jobs, which I felt I was suitable for, but had been unsuccessful and I wanted to know why I had been unsuccessful. He replied, "The Hotel Traineeship came up and you applied for that. You then showed an interest in the Restaurant Supervisor's job and applied for that. You also applied for a job in Reservations. You need to make up your mind as to what you want to do". At that point I began to think whether hotel politics was involved in what he was saying. I obviously did not meet his criteria of someone suitable of working in certain areas, despite my qualifications and experience.

Other interviewees indicated that hotel politics affected decisions made within the organisation. This is reflected in the following comments made by a food and beverage attendant.

> Recently we've had the issue of shifts being given to staff from other departments when our staff is not getting enough shifts themselves. We know it's fairly quite now and everyone from every department is getting very few shifts. What's annoying everyone here is that front office staff has been rostered to do shifts when there's barely enough for us. And staff, who have been given the shifts are people who socialize with Mark (the Restaurant Manager). I, and many others, think it's unfair. How's that for hotel politics for you.

The interviews reflected that individuals had different views of what made them feel like a valued member. It was very much a personal issue, which seemed to be tied in with their needs and motivations. There also seemed to be considerable variation amongst the hotels with different hotel cultures emphasizing the value of employees to the organisation while others did not. The next section on stories further highlights differences in hotel cultures.

Stories

People in the hotel industry love talking and most of all they love to tell stories. They tell stories about people working in the hotel, customers, people working in other hotels, and people working together with other people in other hospitality establishments. The quantitative data presented an average rating of 5.10 for this dimension. The strong support for the importance of stories was reflected in the qualitative data. The researcher observed that favourite stories included stories of famous people that had stayed at the hotels. These included notaries such as actors, sports people, politicians, and musicians. Sometimes an event would occur in the media that would spark conversations about the famous person and as a receptionist said:

> We say things like, "Do you remember when he stayed here? He was …"

Stories were also points of learning. For example, a receptionist told the following story:

> When I'm training someone new on the desk, I have a famous story which I tell to emphasise that we really need to check that the rooms are ready before we send guests up there. When we opened this hotel, a receptionist sent some guests up to their room. It turned out the room had no door. Just as well that guest was a staff member and his family.

Similar views were expressed by a food and beverage attendant:

> We have some particularly funny stories of events that have happened in this department and every now and then we'll rehash them to make a point, especially with a new staff member.

This part of the research encouraged interviewees to share a number of stories with the researcher. Many were amusing and several reflected the challenges faced by hospitality workers. As an example, the following is a story told by a food and beverage attendant:

> One evening I went to serve the meals at a table of twelve. Being smart, I carried four plates of hot food to the table. As I approached the table, I tripped on something in the crowded dining room but managed to regain my posture, still carrying the four plates. The only thing was that the pork chop from one of the plates was missing. As I looked up I saw it slap-bang on the back of the gentleman wearing a light coloured formal jacket. As a young recruit in the hospitality industry, and someone straight out of TAFE that night was a steep learning curve for me.

This food and beverage attendant soon learnt that there was more to providing service than being able to juggle plates. Customer satisfaction relies on the efforts made by service personnel and the recovery strategies they use when the service goes wrong. Similarly, a restaurant supervisor found out that sometimes it is peers and managers that need to be faced as a consequence of inappropriate behaviour. She recounted the following:

> Wine-tasting is a common event here. The wine distributors come to the hotel and put on information and tasting sessions for the staff. The very first one I went to was not long after I'd started here as supervisor. I ended up drinking so much wine that by the end of the session, I was quite tipsy. I was that tipsy that I ended up singing and dancing through the foyer. The next day I had to start at 5:30 and I've never felt so embarrassed in my life. I knew it wouldn't be long before I'd have to face the GM (General Manager) that morning.

The above snippets show that stories are a valuable tool in uniting staff, in the socialization process of new staff, and as a learning tool for new and current staff. Stories are important aspects of the culture because they promote the sharing of values, beliefs and feelings that drive the culture. As culture is created and maintained it, in turn, impacts on individuals. It can influence how individuals relate to each other in the workplace, especially in terms of group membership.

Group Membership & the Social Club

As mentioned in Chapter 1, working in hospitality is unique: labour intensive with long, irregular working hours, and working when most others are out socializing. These factors raise the question as to whether the uniqueness of hospitality work gives rise to special bonds developing between workers. Hence, this section sought to examine the collegiality of the workgroup. It asked whether individuals socialized with work

colleagues outside of working hours, cliques were a common part of the workplace, and non-members welcome to the social club. The qualitative data rated this dimension at 5.02. By contrast, the dimension of the Social Club rated low (3.94). The qualitative research showed that the low rating for the social club was due to the fact that most organisations involved in this study did not have an active social club. In relation to the dimension of group membership, the qualitative data showed that the relatively high response for this dimension was largely due to a sense of collegiality among hospitability workers. It seems that the openness of the culture of hospitality workers encouraged workers to be hospitable toward each other inside and outside of work hours. As one receptionist stated:

> People have minor differences here but generally, everyone gets along with each other, regardless of nationality, age or gender. If someone's having a party, they'll invite everyone, even regardless of department. A sign will go up in the locker rooms that so-and-so is having a party – all welcome.

Most interviewees echoed this comment, and a food and beverage attendant added:

> Occasionally, there are some disagreements between individuals but on the whole, people get along with each other. And, yeh, they go out and socialize together. Not everyone goes but the invitation is there for those that one to go. And there's always the regulars that go. Because you know some of us hang out together.

This comment articulated observations made by the researcher. It appears that the occasional party attracted most workers. However, some workers formed groups that socialized on a regular basis. Another receptionist further described this as follows:

> There's a little group of us that go out on a regular basis for drinks after work or when we're not working. Some of us have known each other for a long time. For example, Mick and I worked at the Ranches together. We always went out after work then and still do. In fact, I found out about this job through Mick.

A number of interesting issues emerge from this latter passage. The concept of an overarching hospitality culture has been raised on several occasions in this thesis. The

comments above indicate that the pervasiveness of such a culture is strengthened by the presence of an occupational hospitality culture. Van Maanen and Barley (1984, p. 287) describe occupational communities as:

> A group of people who consider themselves to be engaged in the same sort of work, whose identity is drawn from their work; who share with one another a set of values, norms, and perspectives that apply but extend beyond work related matters, and whose social relationships meld work and leisure.

Hence, the very nature of occupational communities creates and sustains unique work cultures, e.g. occupational hospitality culture. For hospitality workers, this means that their hospitableness extends beyond the workplace, to socializing with work colleagues outside work. Leisure time becomes an extension of work time. The researcher observed on numerous occasions, hospitality workers talking about or planning their collective social life at work. While it was not all workers who behaved in this manner, the positive aspect of this behaviour is that the presence of cliques was minimized. As a food and beverage attendant noted:

> Cliques don't have much chance to make roots here. Everyone is so open, outgoing and friendly. It's just like a big family. There's the occasional tiff where people have a falling out. But on the whole everyone gets along with each other. We love socializing and we love inviting everyone when we do. Everyone loves a good time. Heh! After all we work in hospitality. So who better than us knows about hospitality?

This comment suggests that the meaning of work for most hospitality workers is about being hospitable. As Van Maanen and Barley (1984, p.288) argue perhaps behaviour in hospitality organisations is best viewed "through an occupational rather than organizational lens". With such a view, the perspective in which hospitality workers consider their work is raised. Perhaps, for hospitality workers, work is not just about careers, money, power, status, and other rewards. Instead, it is possible that for hospitality workers, work is about collegiality, interacting with others and getting support from others. Life is an extension of work. In which case, the behaviour of hospitality workers has its roots in a realm deeper than that provided by the organisation through its training, rewards and other programmes. Rather, the behaviour of hospitality workers is rooted in the occupational hospitality culture that subsumes all other aspects of hospitality work. This has been illustrated in Chapter 10 with the Model of Hospitality Culture which is reproduced here and presented in Figure 11.1.

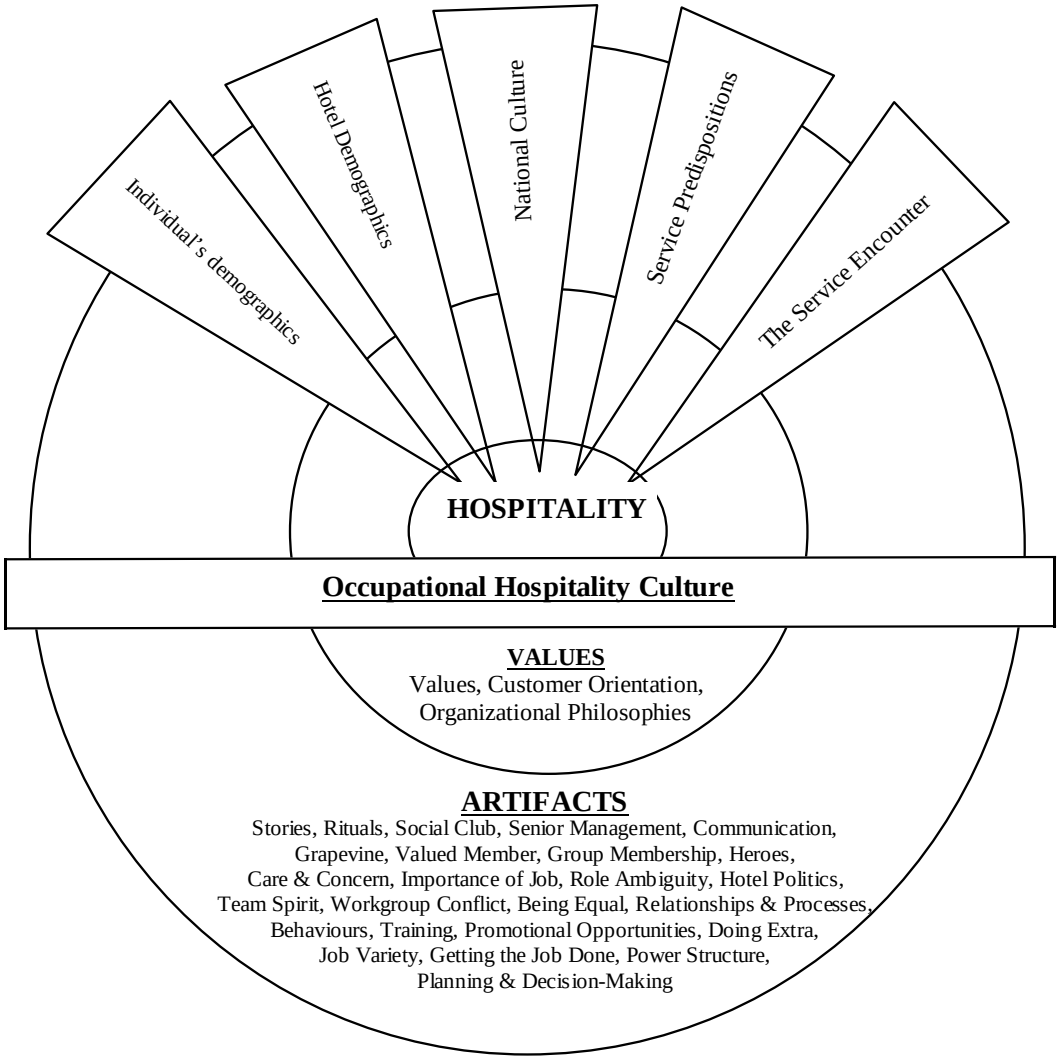

Figure 11.1: Modified model of hospitality culture

Figure 11.1 shows that relationship between the themes that have emerged from this study. In particular, it is argued that occupational hospitality culture is a culture that emanates from the notion of being hospitable and permeates the working and social lives of hospitality workers. It is a culture which hospitality workers carry with them as they move from one organisation to another. In particular, such a culture dictates acceptable workplace behaviours. Hospitality is the basic assumption of the both hospitality culture and occupational hospitality culture. It is the origin of these cultures. However,

sometimes, the occupational hospitality culture becomes such a pervasive force that it can be the basic assumption of hospitality culture. From the findings of this research, it has become apparent that for the hotel sample, such is the case. That is, the occupational hospitality culture is a pan culture, which dictates the behaviours and actions of hospitality workers in the Cairns region.

Behaviours

The behaviours in this section related to how interviewees viewed the behaviour of employees, supervisors and mangers. They included factors such as: supervisors and managers setting good examples, employees pursuing high standards of excellence, employees following set rules and regulations, and recruitment and promotional procedures. Rating for this dimension in the quantitative data was 4.98. This suggested that this area was an area of concern. The qualitative research revealed that there were a number of issues relating to work performance and behaviors that troubled hospitality workers. Interviewees consistently raised the role played by supervisors and managers, as is evident in the following comments made by a food and beverage attendant:

> Initially, when this hotel opened, there was a stigma attached to working on the buffet. It was considered to be a position for people with low technical skills and poor communication skills, e.g. migrants and people new to the industry. Of the more skilled workers, no one wanted to work on the buffet. However, as time went on, and supervisors and the restaurant manager were seen helping out on the buffet, it became "a cool thing" and people didn't mind. The amazing thing was that this acceptance of buffet work by everyone has pulled the team together. It's good to see those people who always did buffet come out onto the floor and expand their skills.

This expose highlights the influence that supervisors and managers have on the behavior of individuals and the culture of the workplace. Observations made by the researcher add support to this idea. The following excerpt from the field notes illustrates this point:

> As I sat and observed the working relationships between staff and their supervisors (in this case, restaurant manager, RM), I notice that staff are relaxed and comfortable in her presence. The RM is obviously a hands-on person and while there appear to be roles designated to each staff (e.g. one waiter looks after drinks, another is the food runner, another is the cashier), the RM makes herself busy helping out where and when the need arises. It might be with taking orders, delivering drinks or clearing tables. Whatever it is, she is there.

Additional field notes to this passage reflect the influence the restaurant manager's presence had on the delivery of service.

> It was like the RM had this aura about her. She set the pace and maintained the momentum. Just as readily as she worked with the staff, she mingled with the customers. She was confident, professional and apologetic when the food took too long to be delivered. She also set the standards. On one occasion, a young female waiter who was obviously a novice and very nervous was resetting a table. The RM noticed some discrepancy in the way it was being set and went over and showed her the right way and then let the girl finish.

The strongest evidence for the impact made by supervisors and manager was in the consensus that individuals worked differently depending on the supervisor or manager working on their shift. A food and beverage attendant exemplified this in the following statement:

> Generally, I'm happy with the service I provide but I must be honest and say that I work different depending on which supervisor is working. They can also influence your appraisal. Today I had my appraisal done and lucky for me it was the supervisor that I get along best with that did my appraisal. I felt relaxed with her and was able to be honest with her. Finally, after two years of being in this place, I was able to tell her about things that I'm not happy about. She also raised a couple of things she had noticed. And together we were able to discuss and come up with some possible solutions.

This expose shows that relationships between supervisors/managers and employees can be positive and constructive. In so doing they can assist employees to perform to their fullest potential, be more productive and motivated. By contrast, relationships between supervisors/managers and employees can be strained, fragile and sensitive. Feelings towards supervisors and managers were not always positive. Comments made by the following receptionist reflect this:

> It's the supervisors and mangers way or it's no way. If you follow the rules they have laid down then you're ok. They write the book and they don't like it when you use your own initiative or be innovative. There's no scope for this. If you do use your initiative, they pull you up, tell you off and dampen your enthusiasm. There's no freedom at all here. People are like robots. In the end, people get jack of it and leave.

Other interviewees echoed similar feelings and this is reflected in the following remarks from a restaurant supervisor:

> I've found that most supervisors and managers in this industry like the control and power of their position. They always want to keep check on what you're doing and question anything out of the ordinary that you may be doing. When I first started in hospitality I found this very stifling and felt that I wasn't learning anything. Then we got a new supervisor and she helped me a lot. She allowed me to have a go at new things and was very patient when I messed things up. She'd always come to the rescue. I owe it to her that I'm now in the position I'm in.

Likewise, a receptionist commented as follows:

> Each supervisor has his or her own style of working, of supervising. With some the work flows more smoothly, you feel more comfortable. With other supervisors, the supervisor wants to always be in control; he/she is always looking over your shoulder. There's no trust in the staff. And all this affects your attitude to work and, definitely, your performance.

While this last two passages support the general feeling of interviewees that supervisors controlled their behaviour, it highlights the fact that not all supervisors and mangers are controlling and that some will allow employees to develop and grow. Some of these supervisors and managers are embellished to the position of heroes, as is described in the next section.

Heroes, Senior Management, Care & Concern, and Being Equal

In the hospitality industry, where work can entail long hours and on-the-job learning is the norm, it is not unusual for employees to view their supervisors and managers with an aura of heroism. The quantitative data showed that the dimensions of hero and senior management were moderately rated (4.98 and 4.91, respectively). The related dimension of care and concern had a low rating of 3.70. These results suggested that employees' perceptions in these areas could be improved. The qualitative research indicated that management had an enormous impact on employees' behaviour and performance in the workplace. Twenty-five percent of interviewees raised some issue they had with management. The above section has already provided some insight into employees' perceptions of their supervisors and managers. This section highlights the ways in which

employees thought their supervisors and managers were tolerant, provided valuable feedback, trusting, supportive and caring. It also examines employees' perceptions of equality in the workplace. The section begins with an extract from an interview with a food and beverage attendant. The interview was conducted shortly after a new restaurant manager had started and at a time when the restaurant was experiencing a busy period.

> I don't personally have a problem with her [the food and beverage attendant is referring to the new restaurant manager]. But she can be a bit abrupt. But it's all tongue-in-cheek. She'll come up to you and say, "Have you finished resetting yet? And that can be at 10 in the morning when you've just had a busy breakfast and the restaurant's a mess. It's not that she expects you to have it finished. It's her way of saying, "How you going with your section?" I know a lot of the staff didn't like her in the beginning but many of them have changed their mind this past week. We've been very busy and very short staffed. Everyone's been working eleven to twelve hour shifts, seven to eleven days in a row, and these last few days, people have been ringing in sick because it's all getting too much for them. And Lauretta (the Restaurant Manager) has been there with the staff doing her fair share of the work. She hasn't asked anyone to do anything she wouldn't do. Seeing her work so hard has changed a lot of people's minds about her. And everyone's been impressed that she hasn't lost her cool. She didn't lose her cool once. And in some ways she has become our hero. Or heroine!

This last passage presents an insight into the working lives of hospitality workers. It exemplifies the long and laborious hours worked by staff, often continually for seven or more days in a row without a break, and often with limited staff. This latter factor means that extra pressure is placed on staff to work harder. Despite these adversities most staff continue to enjoy hospitality work and view their supervisors and managers as heroes.

> They say that respect works two-ways. There's one hotel that I worked at and there I had a great deal of respect for the managers. And you know why? Because they didn't think that they were that much better than the frontline employees. They made you feel important. They respected you. For example, when we were busy, even the Executive Assistant, the guy who was second-in-charge of the hotel, would come into the restaurant, roll up his sleeves and come and help us. He'd say to us, "I know nothing about food service but I can carry the plates into the kitchen for you". And so he would. It made us all proud to have him as our top boss. For many he was a hero.

Discussions on leadership often turn to the role assumed by senior managers in hotels. Their presence can be an avenue of awe and respect or disregard. As can be seen from the above, interviewees spoke ambivalently of the respect they had for their supervisors,

managers and senior managers. Most managers made the mark, others left a lot to be desired. The following excerpt from an interview with a food and beverage attendant reflects negative perceptions. The researcher asked the interviewee whether she would consider her managers or supervisors to be her heroes. The food and beverage attendant replied:

> No, never! I work with them and alongside them but they're not my heroes. For some of them I have a great deal of respect and for other not so and some, one or two in particular, I totally detest. Sarah's one that I would never consider my hero. The other day we were changing shifts and I told Sarah that a couple over on Table #36 had ordered a chicken breast and that they were sharing and that the order was nearly ready to come out. I filled in my timesheet and as I was leaving the restaurant, I looked around to see where Sarah was. I couldn't see her but I thought to myself that she was probably at the waiter's station bending down to get something. So I went downstairs. As I passed the canteen, I saw Sarah in the canteen eating a muffin. I opened the door and said: "Who's upstairs looking after the guests?" And with that and her half eaten muffin she raced up the stairs. How can you respect someone like that? How can someone like that be your hero?

In other interviews, Sarah's name cropped up again. On one occasion, the researcher was discussing the issue of heroes in the workplace with another supervisor, Karen, and asked Karen if she knew who was going to be Employee of the Year. She said that she didn't know but she also added quite swiftly:

> I sure as hell hope that it's not Sarah because we'll never hear the end of it. It will go straight to her head and that's big enough already.

Equally, when asked, "What do you like about this organisation?" a receptionist remarked about the importance of autonomy, and care and concern shown by management:

> I like the way they just let you do your job and don't look over your shoulder all the time, except for one person of course (as she explained later, the interviewee was referring to the supervisor who appeared to be giving the receptionist a hard time). And the staff work together. There's no bitching. Everyone gets along. People care for you here. In other hotels that I've worked in, everyone has their little group and if you don't fit into their little group they don't want to know you. Usually, the bar people are separate to the restaurant people and the restaurant people were separate to the room service people. And then, in the restaurant, there are little groups again where

> people stick together and help out the people within their group and not others even if you're busting your gut. One hotel I worked at, Hotel B, management was so arrogant. They don't care about their staff over there. All management care about is "sucking up" to each other. I didn't stay there very long. I didn't like it there. At all!

The interviews show that there are mixed feelings among employees about viewing their supervisors and managers as heroes, or valuing the care and concern shown by supervisors or managers. Generally, employees revered their supervisors and managers and valued the support, trust and feedback they received. The ease with which such ideals were exchanged depended greatly on the relationship between the two parties, management styles and care & concern shown by managers toward employees. Another theme, which emerged as an area of concern for some interviewees was perceptions of inequality in the treatment of employees. Often this reflected differences in personality. This was demonstrated in the following thoughts from a food and beverage attendant. A new supervisor had been appointed in the restaurant and some unrest had arisen:

> I've been here two years and my work has been fine till now. Now a new supervisor starts and all of a sudden, he's saying that I'm lazy, that's I'm slow at cashiering, and that I should be able to look after a section while cashiering. No other supervisor or manager seems to be having any problems with me. But this new supervisor has complained to the Food and Beverage Manager. He's since cut my hours back. I used to get five shifts a week and now it's only two. I won't be taking this lying down. I'm off to see HR [Human Resources Department] tomorrow. I've got a colleague coming in with me.

Like the interviewee in the above example, interviewees that spoke of feelings of inequality stated that they felt that supervisors and managers treated them "inferiorly", like they were "a nobody". An Asian woman who had a teaching degree and was currently completing a community welfare degree complained about the treatment she received from a restaurant supervisor:

> She has no idea who I am but she treats me like an imbecile. She always puts me on the buffet and won't allow me anywhere near the front desk, not even to answer the phone. If I go to the waiter's station to help with clearing, she sends me back to the buffet. She treats me like a simpleton.

This interviewee was reluctant to "make waves" but the restaurant manager learnt of the treatment this food and beverage attendant was receiving, the supervisor received

counseling and the situation was alleviated. Occasionally, however, the supervisor fell back into her old practices and made life "hard" for the employee concerned. Eventually the supervisor left and several months later the restaurant manager remarked to the researcher in an interview:

> You know I didn't realize how much of a bad influence Katrina had on the staff. Ever since she left people seem to be much happier. And I don't get any more complaints like I used to.

Other interviewees also commented on the feelings of incompetence that some managers made them feel. A food and beverage attendant made the following comment:

> There's this supervisor in the restaurant and she won't let anyone go near the cashier's desk. I do relief supervisory work here and she won't even let me near there. If she's not at the desk and guests approach the desk, if any other employee makes a move to allow the guests in she comes racing from whatever corner of the restaurant she is in and yelling at the top of her voice, "It's alright I'll get that". I don't know about the others but it makes me feel totally incompetent in my job.

Several interviewees mentioned that their sense of inequality rose from the power that some supervisors and mangers exuded. A receptionist made the following remark about a young man who had recently been appointed to the position of Duty Manager.

> He's always hovering over us. Double-checking what we're doing. It's like the power of the position has got to his head.

While supervisors and managers played the dual role of heroes and villains, employees wrestled with feelings of equality, trust, support, and care and concern. These are factors at a personal level, which can affect the culture of an organisation. Perhaps if managers, supervisors and employees are more aware of their communication skills, relationships would be more positive. Earlier in the service predispositions section the issues of personal communication in the workplace was raised. The next section examines interviewees' response to communication at the organisational level.

Communication within the organisation & the Grapevine

In Chapter 8, communication was represented as a principal dimension at the personal level, supporting individuals' service predispositions. It was given an average rating of 6.40 by interviewees. In the OC survey, the importance of communication at the cultural level was given a moderate rating, 4.86. These results suggest that interpersonal communication is considered to be more important than communication at the cultural level. Also, in the qualitative research, communication was found to be one of the principal concerns with 6.25% of interviewees raising it as an issue. Williams and Buswell (2003) acknowledge that, "quality culture requires the process of communicating to be seen as more than a technique but a part of the values and ways of working" (p. 195). Tourish and Tourish (1997) concur and highlight a number of critical factors for effective communication in quality cultures. These include widespread informal and face-to-face communication, a management philosophy that encourages maximum flow of information, and use of communication audits. For example, a food and beverage attendant described a situation where communication was a weak link in the organisation and consequently, affected customer service:

> Communication is very poor in this establishment. I know I'm only a casual and sometimes five days will go past between shifts so I miss out on a lot of information but I know that this is a problem for everyone. Everyone complains that information, necessary information, is not passed on. For example, the other day they put up the prices for breakfast and didn't say anything or type up a memo. Absolutely nothing! I hadn't been to work for five days and I served all through breakfast, hosting and cashiering and not knowing that the prices had changed. At the end of the breakfast shift I went to put up the lunchtime menu and noticed that the breakfast board was missing. I asked the supervisor where it was and she said that it had gone to get new prices on it. I then realized that the breakfast prices had gone up and that I'd been telling people all morning the old prices.

This excerpt illustrates how important communication is for employees to perform their work effectively and efficiently. The following recount by a food and beverage attendant further emphasizes this point:

> It really annoys me. There's no communication at all in this place. During the week the fridge was broken. Do you think anyone told me or put a notice on the fridge? No! What do I do - I was the 5:30 [am] starter and I noticed that there was only a couple of cartons of milk and a little butter in the fridge. I go downstairs to get the stuff, all the time cursing the night staff for not stocking

> the fridge ready for the morning. I've got better things to be doing at 5:30 in the morning. I lug all this stuff up and am putting it in the fridge when the supervisor walks past and says that the fridge isn't working properly and the milk and other stuff are in the big fridge, the Chef's fridge. Then I had to take everything out again and bring it downstairs. I was livid.

Similar to communication at the personal level as described in the Service Predispositions section, communication here at the organisational level is still important. As the literature indicates communication is an important vehicle for managers to inform their staff of the values that are espoused by the organisation (e.g. Williams & Buswell, 2003). Some authors add that communication can affect employees' job satisfaction (Mullins, 1995), teamwork (Berger & Vanger, 1986), absenteeism and turnover (Tourish & Tourish, 1997). Pincus (1986) agrees that openness in communication and 'receptivity' can affect employees' job satisfaction. In-depth interviews presented support for the importance of this dimension. The following comment by a receptionist expresses the general view of interviewees on communication within the hotel sample:

> Communication can be very poor within hotels. Especially from one department to another but even within a department it can be bad. It gets quite frustrating when you don't have the information at hand that you need to do your job properly. Yesterday's a good example. There'd been a number of incidences where reservations had not informed us of updates in people's bookings. This had caused the supervisor a great deal of frustration. And this was quite obvious because she's normally quite placid but when I asked her later that morning if she knew what time the Anders Group was due to arrive, she turned around and said, "Don't ask me. I don't know anything. No one ever tells me anything."

In a similar vein, food and beverage staff expressed annoyance at instances of breakdown in the communication chain. In the interviews they provided many examples of such occurrences. Of greatest concern to the food and beverage staff was the shallow communication between departments, in particular great animosity was expressed toward reception and reservations. With reservations the issues were similar to front office staff, i.e. that information on bookings was not timely and clear and that any changes to bookings were not passed on. This is evident in remarks made by a restaurant supervisor:

> We have BEOs [Banquet Event Orders] that come through from reservations. Each group will have their own set of BEOs for the duration of their stay.

> The BEOs are important because they tell us in detail the requirements of the group, how many pax to expect, how much to charge them, etc. We also have Function Activity Sheets which we print out. These provide a summary of the groups that we are expecting. I don't know how many times there will be a group on the Function Activity Sheet and we don't have a BEO for the group. Then we have to go and chase that up with reservations or front office. And I don't know how many times we've told them about this and they still can't get it right.

This passage alludes to the importance and accuracy of information communicated to the operations of hotels. It is exemplified in the following recount provided by a food and beverage attendant:

> One day we had a group leader come into the restaurant to check if 12:30 was still ok for him to bring in his group. The supervisor and I looked at each other. The restaurant was still a mess from breakfast. Tables had been wiped but only a couple had been set for lunch. We weren't expecting any group. We went and checked the BEOs folder. There were no BEOs for this group to have lunch. There was no record in the Function Activity Sheet. The group leader informed us that he had 40 hungry tourists who had just come back from a morning at Port Douglas. … Within thirty minutes, the chefs had put together a buffet, we'd set one of the function rooms and we were ready to go. We got there in the end but it would have been nice to be informed in advance.

For the food and beverage staff, communication breakdowns within the department were not uncommon. Several interviewees complained of times when menus had been changed and they had not been informed. The following comment by a food and beverage attendant sums up the feelings expressed:

> This week they changed the menu again. And again, they didn't tell anyone. I just turned up to work one afternoon and noticed the menus were a different colour. I asked the supervisor if we'd printed up some new ones. And he's reply was, "It's a new menu". It would have been great to know earlier, to possibly have a tastings session. How are we supposed to sell the dishes if we don't know what they look like or taste like?

When formal channels of communication do not work, staff often relies on the grapevine. The grapevine refers to informal channels of communication (Go *et al.,* 1996). Many interviewees commented that the grapevine is a valuable source for delivering information and that often it was speedier, more accurate and timelier than the formal channels. The following comment by a restaurant supervisor illustrates this point:

> The supervisor's job had been advertised and I thought we were getting a new supervisor soon. It was only by accident that I found out that it wouldn't be for a while yet. I was speaking to Tess [a food and beverage attendant] on Wednesday and mentioned that I've told Daniel to apply for the supervisor's job. She turned around to me and said, "Well, that's not going to be for a while yet. Helene [restaurant manager] said that she was in no hurry to fill the position and that we'd be ok till the New Year". I thought: That's right a food and beverage attendant knows more about this than me when I'm the one that's going to work every Sunday now.

Similar remarks by front office staff illustrated that the grapevine often provided flow of vital information. The following comment by a receptionist emphasizes this point:

> It's amazing what you hear through the grapevine. I couldn't understand why all of sudden there's this immense concern for labour productivity. I hate it because we're always short staffed and the staff who are on have to work till they drop. Then a couple of days ago I heard from another receptionist that the hotel is up for sale and they want to make the figures look good.

This passage shows that what is heard through the grapevine can make a difference to employees' perceptions of the requirements of the job. It can also appease relationships between individuals. The grapevine is often associated with the passing along of gossip or rumours. The following remark by a food and beverage attendant highlights that this is not such a negative factor:

> The grapevine saved my life. All morning another food and beverage attendant had been giving me the cold shoulder. I thought what I have done to upset her. I was ready to confront her on the issue when I mentioned her behaviour to one of the other staff and she said that her boyfriend of six years had left her for another woman. With this news I backed of. If I hadn't known I would have definitely confronted her.

Most interviewees agreed that they gathered information through the grapevine that they may not have otherwise found out about. Often it was information relating to other staff but sometimes it was about different things that were happening in the hotel. All agreed that it made their working life easier. Two receptionists reflect this in the following quotes:

> Sometimes you hear some bad rumours through the grapevine but most times it's helpful because you find out stuff you may not otherwise get to know. Sometimes it's stuff that affects your work or performance.

> Formal communication is slow in this place. The only way you can get to know anything fast is through the grapevine. Usually someone in the place knows on an informal basis what's going on. This is important because sometimes it's information that is needed to get the job done properly.

The above snippets have provided some insight into the role of communication at the organisational level. They have highlighted that effective communication systems, whether they be formal or informal, are vital to the success of organisations' day-to-day operations. Likewise, practices are crucial in the effective functioning of hotels. The next section examines the themes associated with practices.

Training & Job Variety

It is acknowledged that while training is an important factor in determining business success, most hospitality organisations consider the training function to be of low influence and status for employees at the frontline (e.g. Anderson *et al.*, 2003; Go *et al.*, 1996; Powers, 1995). As Powers (1995) notes, the most common form of training in the hospitality industry is on-the-job training. Generally, a new employee is assigned to an experienced employee who takes the new employee "through the ropes". As Powers (1995, p. 477) points out this is "often done haphazardly". In the quantitative component of this study the average rating for training was 5.39. This indicated that interviewees were enthusiastic and supportive of training programmes and that organisations paid for them to attend the sessions. The qualitative research confirmed these findings. In addition, interviews with employees showed that most employees would have preferred a more formal approach to training. Comments made by the following food and beverage attendants reflected general views on this matter:

> There is a dire need in this industry for formal training. At least that way we can get some consistency in the way people do their jobs. Standards are important in certain parts of our job and those standards should be made known to all employees, new and old.

> It can't be that difficult to train people properly. Service in food and beverage is very similar regardless of where you work. If someone new starts, then it's up to the managers to check that the new person knows what the jobs about

> and has the skills required. And it's up to managers to organize proper training if necessary. At least then everyone knows what's expected of them and the service is standard across the board.

Some interviewees, however, had some reservations about formal training. Several interviewees, both front office and food and beverage, echoed the following opinion expressed by a receptionist:

> Training can be good or it can make no difference. It needs to be timely and relevant. And there is a need for people to want to be trained. I can't tell you how many times we have training sessions here and they're a total waste of time. People go along because they have to or because they're paid to. Once the session is over, they forget everything and go back to their usual ways.

Similarly, a restaurant supervisor remarked:

> You hire someone because you think they have the right personality for hospitality – bubbly, friendly, cheerful and so on. Yet when you put them in the restaurant they lose their luster. They just don't know how to provide excellent service. You try to motivate them with different rewards, you provide training and they still don't come up to scratch. Sometimes it seems that no matter how much training some individuals receive, they never seem to be able to reach the mark in providing service to the standard required.

Other interviewees questioned the benefits of training for hospitality work. The following comments made by a food and beverage attendant reflected the view of a number of interviewees:

> Hospitality is a hands-on job. What's training going to do for you? It's ok to have scenarios in pretend classrooms but the real test is out there in the restaurant. It's a totally different story when you've got a full house, the chefs are yelling at you, customers are getting impatient and you're running around like crazy.

Front office staff had similar feelings and these are represented by the following comments made by a receptionist:

> Before I started in the industry, I went off to TAFE and did a course in Front Office. First day on the job, I came in so cocky. I thought I knew everything I needed to know and could handle the customers easy. What a shocker that day was. We were so busy. I had a buddy but he had no time at all to show me how things were done in this hotel. And I found it a totally different situation being there with real live guests who were demanding this and

> demanding that and complaining. It was a real eye-opener. No amount of classroom training would have prepared me for that.

This last remark raises the issue that the real test of training is at the frontline and because hospitality work is related to people, can the people skills really be taught. Most interviewees felt that they could not be learnt in the classroom. As the above receptionist commented some felt that they learnt as they went along. Others interviewees felt that people needed to "have it in them" to work in hospitality. This is exemplified by the following remark made by a restaurant manager:

> You learn to set a table in one hotel restaurant, you know how to set a table; you learn how to check in a guest in one hotel, you pretty much know how to check in a guest. What is hard to learn and to duplicate is personality and attitude. Providing good service is paramount in any hotel and if your staff has the right personality and the right attitude, then right service follows. You can't go wrong. You can teach them how to answer a phone and how to open a wine bottle but if they don't have the right personality and the right attitude, then no amount of training is going to change them.

Despite these last three comments, several interviewees agreed that some form of customer service training would be of benefit. The following receptionist explains;

> I would like to have some training on customer service, especially on how to deal with irate guests. Occasionally you get a guest who can be quite abusive and it's hard then to keep your cool. I've watched some of the more experienced staff and they seem to now what to do. They're good because they always come to the rescue but I dread the day that I'm confronted with a hostile guest on my own.

The views expressed in this last excerpt raise an important point about the influence of experienced workers and that is are they presenting good or bad habits to the novice workers. Perhaps unintentionally they are endorsing inappropriate values. This is one of the dangers of on-the-job training. As more and more corporate hotels appear on the scene, it is possible that the training function will respond to the training needs of both individuals and groups (e.g. departments). In the meantime, hospitality staff are required to get the job done with the resources they have.

Getting the Job Done & Doing Extra

In this study 'getting the job done' was concerned with staff having the necessary training, resources and rewards to do their job efficiently and effectively. Results relating to training are discussed earlier in this chapter. This section focuses on the resources and rewards available to staff. It also includes results concerning 'doing extra', which was defined as the level of effort exerted by employees.

In the quantitative results, getting the job done was rated on average at 5.02 and doing extra at 4.58. These figures suggest that most staff found the elements of getting the job done as moderately satisfactory. The qualitative data showed that while staff found several inadequacies with resources available and training and reward systems, they adapted to the circumstances and did their best in getting the job done. For the dimension of doing extra, the quantitative results indicate that managers should provide a greater focus on this element. Perhaps through training and reward systems staff could be motivated to do extra.

In terms of physical resources most staff "made do with what they had", as a food and beverage attendants noted. Another food and beverage attendant added:

> When we're really busy, we're short of cups and cutlery; and, we've been known to run out of food. Especially on weekends, on occasion we've run out of bread and someone's had to make a mad dash to the supermarket.

Of greater concern to interviewees was the lack of human resources available for them to complete their tasks effectively and efficiently. They explained how staff shortages affected their delivery of service and this is highlighted later in this chapter. The researcher noted repeatedly that managers monitored productivity through labour hours. This meant that most shifts operated with minimal staff performing to maximum capacity.

Most employees contended with the lack of adequate resources but found it much more difficult to accept the inequities they observed in the reward systems. One of the elements associated with getting the job done is evaluation of employees' task and on-the-job performance. As noted in Chapter 6, the respondent sample was one third casual. The researcher observed that casual employees were called upon "at the drop of a hat" as one

receptionist commented. Most employees accepted this practice as part of their job but expressed some annoyance at managers who 'punished' them if they turned down a shift. A food and beverage attendant summed up the feelings articulated by a number of interviewees:

> I hate it when managers ring up at the eleventh hour and expect you to drop everything and come in; and then, if you say no, they won't give you anymore shifts for a couple of weeks; until they get quite desperate and ring you again.

Similarly, allocation of hours to casuals was also seen as a measure of performance. A receptionist explains:

> If someone is seen as being lazy or not carrying their weight or being "non-productive" as the managers say, then there are no hours thrown to that employee.

Several interviewees expressed dissatisfaction with the Employee of the Month Award. This award was viewed by hotels as a means of rewarding staff for customer service. Most interviewees considered it to be a reflection of hotel politics. As the following receptionists noted:

> I've worked for this hotel for over four years and I've been nominated many times for Employee of the Month but never received the award. And I've often wondered why. Recently I found out that while guests nominate staff for the award, at the end of the month all the names are forwarded to managers, who then mark their first three preferences and it is the managers' choices which then determines who is awarded the award. So unless you're sucking up to the managers, socializing with them or always in their face, you don't get a look in. I just do my work and mind my own business. That's why I never get the award.

> It's all political. If you don't socialize with the boss, you don't get the award. The quiet achievers never get a second glance.

A food and beverage attendants made the following comment about a supervisor who had been awarded Employee of the Month:

> You walk out of your shift when the going gets tough, you come in with a major hang-over, you interfere in another supervisor's shift and you get

> rewarded by being Employee of the Month. What kind of message is that sending out to staff?

It is apparent that hotel managers should give greater thought to the objectivity and transparency of their reward practices. A key factor is to what extent workers feel that rewards contribute to their getting the job done. A number of interviewees commented that the greatest reward for them was appreciation expressed by their immediate supervisors and managers. A receptionist summed up the feelings of several interviewees as follows:

> When you do a shift with a supervisor or manager and that person thanks you for your help or for a job well done, it means a lot. To me that goes a lot further than monetary rewards because you know that you've been genuinely appreciated.

Similarly, a food and beverage attendant commented:

> At the end of the shift, when the supervisor or manager says to me, "Thanks for today. I really appreciated your help", it gives me a real buzz. It keeps me going and want to come back and do my best next time.

These snippets show that very often "it's the little things in life, that make the biggest difference", as a receptionist noted in commenting about getting the job done. They also allude to the motivational aspects of rewards and suggest that managers should operationalise reward systems which motivate staff to take responsibility for getting the job done.

The dimension of "doing extra" emerged in Chapter 9 as a factor of the dimension "behaviours". Extra was also part of the service predispositions component of the questionnaire and interviewees responses to doing extra have been incorporated therein.

Planning & Decision-making

In the quantitative results, this dimension had a moderate rating (4.99). The qualitative data supported this moderate rating and showed that generally, staff "had very little say in the planning and decision-making" as a receptionist noted.

Most interviewees were happy with the opportunities they were given to improve processes in the workplace. This was explicated by a receptionist as follows:

> When it comes to the day-to-day planning and decision-making in our area, we're left up to our own devices. The bigger plans and decisions are made by supervisors and managers. We have no say in those.

Similar views were echoed from the food and beverage departments. A food and beverage attendant detailed the following:

> Waiters will plan and make decisions about their section, in terms of sequence of food service. But the bigger decisions are made by supervisors and managers. Decisions about what times to have breaks, how many staff to roster on shift, employing new staff, training, and so on are all made by supervisors and managers.

Some interviewees, however, felt that at least managers listened to their suggestions, and sometimes even took their ideas on board. A food and beverage attendant noted:

> For some time we wanted to cloth the tables for our dinner settings. No one had the guts to ask the Restaurant Manger. Then one day we got some new tablecloths and one of the night staff suggested it to the Restaurant Manager. She thought it was a great idea, and worth the extra laundry expenses. She even went out and bought some vases and pretty flowers.

Another food and beverage attendant expressed similar views:

> When I first started here they put me on cashiering and everytime I needed a proforma I had to leave the desk and walk over to the cabinet. I suggested to the Restaurant Manager that we have a folder, which we could keep at the desk with all the necessary pro formas we needed. She agreed and allowed me to do one up. Now it's a much better system.

These comments indicated that when it came to making decisions about minor problems and issues at the frontline, staff was generally allowed opportunities to change processes and make relevant decisions. However, in certain issues, namely those which had a greater effect on customer service, staff were restricted in the decisions they could make. Much has been written in the literature about empowerment. Chernish (2000, p. 223) fittingly says, "Motivation, leadership, empowerment, workers, and service quality are all inextricably intertwined". For appropriate service to be delivered, employees must be

empowered to immediately act in response customers' needs. It seems that the hotel industry, employers need to have greater trust in their frontline staff to create and deliver the appropriate level of service.

Power Structure

The literature confirms that planning and decision-making are processes associated with work at any level of the organisation hierarchy (e.g. Go *et al*., 1996; Powers, 1995). This research showed that the characteristics of these processes vary with the power structure within the organisation. The quantitative research showed that the average rating for power structure was 4.68, indicating that most interviewees had moderate concerns about the power structure within their organisations. The qualitative data revealed that the issue of power, especially position power was a real issue in the workplace. Some interviewees pointed out that supervisors and managers used their positions and the formal authority it carried to influence workers. A restaurant supervisor provided the following example:

> As a supervisor, a couple of times, I've questioned decisions made by managers. On one occasion, the restaurant manager turned around to me and said, "When you wear the badge that I'm wearing (as he pointed to his name badge) you can make whatever decisions you like.

A food and beverage attendant made a similar comment:

> One Saturday afternoon the Bar supervisor came through the restaurant. We were really busy and I asked him if he could help us. He said to me, as he pointed to his name badge, "You see this. What does it say? When you get to this position you can ask me." And with that he walked off.

It seemed that the power structure was often used as an excuse to avoid work and some interviewees expressed annoyance at the unwillingness of supervisors and managers to participate in the frontline work. Traditionally, hospitality work is seen as a "hands-on job" and several food and beverage attendants echoed the following comments made by a food and beverage attendant:

> Hospitality work is supposed to be hands-on work, even at the supervisory and managerial levels. Our evening supervisor won't lift a finger to help out on the floor. As for the Food and Beverage Manager he treats his work as a 9 to 5 job and you never see him in the restaurant.

Most interviewees, however, commended their supervisors and managers for being there with them and sharing in the work load. This was exemplified by the following comments made by a food and beverage attendant:

> It's good to see the supervisors and mangers lead by example. The staff works better when they see them on the floor helping out.

The literature draws attention to the kinds of behaviour of people in leadership positions and the influence of that behaviour on individuals' and group performance (e.g. Mullins, 1995). Worsfold (1989) examined the leadership style of 31 General Managers of hotels in the UK. He concluded that effective leadership styles were characterized by good interpersonal skills with employees and organizing group activities to achieve organisational goals and objectives. Mullins (1995, p. 327) adds, "In order to get the best results from subordinates, the manager must also have regard for the need to encourage high morale, a spirit of involvement and co-operation, and a willingness to work." Lee-Ross (1993) agrees and concludes that hands-on managers who work alongside their staff will have similar job perceptions, be more aware of operational issues and problems and therefore, be effective in promoting job satisfaction. As can be seen from above, the interview results from this study strongly support these views. They suggest that employees in hospitality prefer managers who are involved at the operative level but the management style may vary departmentally and between organisations. Likewise, promotional opportunities are contingent on the prevalent hotel cultures.

Promotional Opportunities

The quality of frontline service personnel is one of the most important factors in the determining customer satisfaction and effectiveness of hospitality organisations. As Mullins (1995) realizes, staff development and training is necessary to ensure a adequate supply of suitably capable individuals to meet the present and future needs of the organisation. The implementation of staff development and training practices should be based on underlying philosophies of promotional opportunities. While promotional opportunities may not be the driving force for all individuals, the literature identifies the intrinsic rewards of work motivation (e.g. Mullins, 1995; Robbins, 2001). The scope for personal development and availability of such opportunities should exist for individuals who wish to pursue a career in hospitality. The demographic data in Chapter 6 showed that 33.1% of the respondent sample had some form of tertiary education. Whether this was in hospitality or some other area was not evident from the quantitative study. The researcher, however, observed that a number of individuals at the frontline were university students pursuing careers in other fields, including education, social work and science. In this study, promotional opportunities referred to individuals' having their own development plan, organisations providing professional growth and development and opportunities for promotion. The quantitative study indicated moderate support for these practices in hotels. it was given an average rating of 4.69. The qualitative research revealed that most hotels provide excellent promotional opportunities for those who wish to make a career in hospitality. All interviewees were employed by hotels that were part of hotel chains. The chains' multiple operations meant that these hotels could offer transfers to interested individuals. Transfers generally involved promotions to positions that provided incremental increases in responsibility and authority. The following observation made by a food and beverage attendant highlights this point:

> This hotel looks after you, if you are keen. Douglas started back in food and beverage today. He used to be a supervisor here, then went on to become a Duty Manager, then Sales and Marketing Coordinator and now Food and Beverage Manager.

Similar stories were told by both front office and food and beverage staff. Deery (1999) in her expose on turnover culture in the hospitality industry acknowledges that it is part of the hospitality culture for employees to move from one organisation to another so as to

promote their careers. For some lower level frontline employees opportunities to improve their skills and knowledge were not as forthcoming. The following remark by a food and beverage attendant was expressed by several interviewees:

> It all depends who you work with. I was here for three years before I really learnt new worthwhile skills. I desperately wanted to learn cashiering but none of the supervisors would give me a real go. If I asked something, they'd show me just that and then because I was rarely at the front desk, I'd forget what they'd shown me and then, they'd get impatient with me and that made it worse for me because I couldn't learn under those conditions. So for ages I gave up. Then this new supervisor started working here and I used to work Friday and Saturdays with her and she showed me everything. And I haven't looked back since. I learnt so much with her. And if I made a mistake, she would help me. She was very patient and understanding with me. I was sad when she left.

Similarly, in relation to individuals learning new worthwhile skills and gaining knowledge, a disheartened receptionist said:

> Oh! It's always the same boring stuff. You've worked in one hotel; you can work in any hotel. The systems and procedures are pretty much the same. I don't feel like I'm learning anything new and worthwhile.

The importance of being able to learn new skills and gain knowledge is considered important in gaining promotions. Whether this guaranteed a promotion was not always the case. Some interviewees felt that while they had the knowledge and skills to be promoted, often hotel politics governed who was promoted. A receptionist echoed the feelings of others:

> It's only if you're nice to the supervisors and managers that you get the opportunities to learn new things. Otherwise, they keep you in the same routine, mundane jobs. Especially if you're past the big 30, they just don't want to know you

Similarly, a food and beverage attendant added:

> In order to get a promotion who you need to be seen as a "Yes person". That is some one who agrees with what the supervisors and managers say, play along with their games and don't make waves.

Further discussions about promotional opportunities, revealed that the prevalent mentality in the industry was that a tertiary education was not necessary for individuals pursuing a career in hospitality. Individuals were expected to "work their way up through the ranks" as a restaurant manager stated. This was reiterated by other individuals and summed up as follows by a receptionist:

> If you want to get ahead in the hospitality industry, it's no use going to uni. People who work at the operational level and work their way up are most respected.

A food and beverage attendant added the following observation:

> If you look around at the managers and General Managers in the hotels in the area, you'll notice that none have a qualification higher than an associate diploma or diploma in hospitality.

Similarly a receptionist made the following point:

> Some individuals with uni degrees are starting to filter through organisations. These individuals are at generally found in HR [Human Resources], accounts and sales and marketing. Most managers in influential positions have minimal tertiary qualifications.

These snippets highlight an interesting aspect of the hospitality culture which pervades the region and support some of the findings in the literature. For example, Wood (1992) had doubts about the qualifications and level of professionalisation of managers within the hospitality industry. Aiery and Tribe (2001) acknowledge the value of vocational orientation in hospitality management education. The above exposes support a vocational and functionalist approach at the formal level of education for hospitality. In summary, while promotional opportunities exist within the hospitality industry, often they are not dependent on individuals' skills and knowledge but rather their relationships with supervisors and managers. In an industry that functions on interactions among people, this comes as no surprise. This study has also revealed that to date it has been possible to achieve high status in the hotel hierarchy with limited formal higher education. As more individuals with tertiary qualifications enter the workforce, the effect on the quality and standards expected of managers may change. This remains as an avenue of future research.

Promotional opportunities, like the other artifact themes, reflect the nature of OC in hotels. a deeper and more insightful perspective of OC is gained by examining the underlying values. These are discussed in the following section.

VALUES

Values predict behaviour which is observed at the artifact level. If they are espoused values they will not predict what individuals will actually do. Schein (1985, p. 21) states,

> If espoused values are reasonably congruent with the underlying assumptions, then the articulation of those values into a philosophy of operating can be helpful in bringing the group together, serving as a source of identity and core mission.

This suggests that values may only be indicative of rationalizations or objectives. They may not reflect true occurrences within organisations. This section identifies dimensions of OC which relate to values and presents employees' perceptions of these. For this study dimensions associated with values include customer orientation, values and organisational philosophies. Their ranking for these dimensions from the qualitative data is presented in Table 11.4.

Table 11.4 Ranking of average rating of OC dimensions relating to values

DIMENSION	RATING
Customer Orientation	5.39
Values	5.32
Organisational Philosophies	4.17

The next section presents these dimensions as themes. It highlights exposes from in-depth interviews relating to these themes.

Values

From Chapter 3 it was evident that there is consensus on the idea that OC is "a cognitive framework consisting of assumptions and values shared by organization members" (Greenberg, 2001, p. 307). This means that employees share different values and so, understandings, about different aspects of their work life. For example, while in one establishment employees would think seriously about taking time off from work, in another establishment it is acceptable for individuals to call in sick. For example, a receptionist recounted the following:

> At a front office morning briefing, front office staff were informed that one particular employee "was unable to come in to work because her husband had not arrived home yet and she was not going to leave her teenage daughters home alone" as the supervisor reported in a snide manner. After the meeting, one receptionist said, "I've never worked in a place where there's such huge problems with the staff not turning up for work. And I think that it's got to do with the fact that they allow staff to ring in at the last minute, like ten to eight when you're meant to start at eight, with lame excuses and let them get away with it. When I worked at the Meadow, you came in to work even if you were dying. But here, the slightest little thing and you can ring in sick. If you did, you knew that your job would be the first to go or they wouldn't give you any more hours. On Tuesday, Leslie (the Department Manager) was ready to fill in for Marg when she rang up with the excuse that her dog was sick again. At the Meadow, you would not have even used the excuse that your kids were sick. They would have frowned on it. But here you get away with any excuse and that's why they have such huge problems with people not turning up for shifts

Noticeably, in this establishment the values were such that it was acceptable for employees not to turn up for their shifts. The culture through its values guided employees and made it clear what they could do in a particular situation. It provided consistent responses that became accepted as the norm. As another employee from the above establishment said:

> If staff cannot or do not want to come in to work, they can use whatever excuse they feel like and the supervisors and managers allow them to get away with it.

The above interpretation of events contrasts with another example in a different establishment where one receptionist told the researcher:

> "I've got my kids out the back at the moment. Rorrie (her husband) was having a day off with the kids. They'd gone to the movies and Rorrie got called in for a Search and Rescue job so he left the boys at the movies with taxi fare to come over here. They've had a swim in the pool and lunch in the restaurant and now they're out the back drawing. Another half hour and then, I'll take them home.

Obviously, not all establishments will allow their employees to bring their children in to work and use the workplace facilities but in the latter case, it meant that the employee was still able to complete her shift. In these two cases, the different values fostered by the different organisations highlighted what is valued as important and acceptable behaviour

in the workplace. Both organisations were flexible with respect to their employees' needs. The first had a negative impact on the other staff where resentment and animosity were being generated. The values held by the second organisation, instead, produced more positive results in terms of staff morale and satisfaction. By contrast, the Meadow, referred to by one of the interviewees above, clearly defined its values through its rigid and inflexible approach to employees taking time off work. This discouraged employees from pursuing such behaviour. Hence, each establishment through its OC, heightens employee behaviour that is most valued by the organisation.

Customer Orientation

The quantitative part of this study provided an average rating of 5.48 for customer orientation. Information gained from the qualitative component of the research provided strong support for this finding and indicated that customer orientation is a huge concern for most staff. Generally, staff felt that management supported them in their approach to customer service. A receptionist summed up the feelings of most interviewees in the following expose:

> Our Front Office Manager is very focused on customer service. If a guest complains, he then sits us down and goes through what went wrong, how we handled it and how we could have handled it. I've learnt so much about how customer service since he's been here.

Similarly, a food and beverage attendant noted:

> Our Restaurant Manager likes to make sure that we've done the right thing by our guests. If ever there is any issues we log them or raise them with her and she always follows up to make sure that we feel comfortable with how issues with guests have been dealt with. She always reflects on things and is always looking at ways we can perfect our customer service.

These comments highlight the importance of a service culture, which provides support and training to frontline employees. The dynamics of the interaction between service provider and customer, makes the service encounter a complex occurrence. Appropriate customer service programmes communicate the organisation's position on customer orientation and assist staff in service delivery. Most interviewees felt that their organisations had a strong customer orientation. Staff from both front office and food and beverage confirmed the following comment made by a receptionist, "A staff member

always needs to be at the desk or in the restaurant to answer the phone or answer to guests' needs". A food and beverage attendant added:

> Management gets quite stroppy when noone's in the restaurant and the phone rings or a guest comes to the desk. Sometimes it's hard when we don't have enough staff and we're real busy.

Some interviewees raised the importance of teamwork in facilitating customer orientation. The following recount by a food and beverage attendant extols the virtues of teamwork in ensuring a successful service encounter:

> This department is all about customer service. Everyone works together to make sure that the guest is happy. If someone is caught up doing something, another waiter will help out with a guest, even if that guest is not in that waiters' section.

These points, however, cannot guarantee that staff will provide quality service. As Lee-Ross (2001, p. 93) states, "Dialogue, attitudes and behaviour during service encounters are effectively beyond the control of management". Attitudes of hospitality workers have been discussed earlier in this chapter. The next expose by a food and beverage attendant encapsulate the attitudes and expectations of both hospitality workers and customers:

> I'm a Southerner and I've always felt that the level of service quality accepted by customers in Cairns may be different to that elsewhere. Cairns has a laid-back attitude that is reflected in the low expectations of the hospitality clientele and the laissez-faire attitude of hospitality workers. The people here seem to be accepting of a lower level of service. I have worked in a restaurant where because of staff shortages, the restaurant has looked like a pigsty with people sitting at tables stacked with dirty dishes because staff are so run-off their feet that they can't get to them and the guests are oblivious to the mess. The guests seem to be happy to carry on their conversations and get-togethers with their friends amongst all the mess. And these guests are locals that keep coming back time and time again. They'll thank-you for the service and do not seem to mind that the restaurant is a pigsty. The staff also doesn't seem to be bothered by the mess. And while they are go-go-go, they don't seem to be stressed.

Another food and beverage agreed that hospitality workers in Cairns have a casual approach and added:

> They [the staff] have an attitude of, 'Why get stressed over it? You can only do so much. If people want to sit at a dirty table let them. I'll get to them when I can.' Anyway the guests don't seem to mind. Look at them talking and carrying on. They're just happy to get out of the house for a couple of days. They get a night or two of accommodation and the fact that they get breakfast included is a bonus. They're stoked.

The researcher repeatedly observed situations where hospitality workers shoed care and concern for customers. Staff worked systematically attending to customers' need, reflecting the innate tendencies to provide hospitality to their guests' if a 'laissez-faire' attitude existed it was rarely in front of customers. This attitude was considered by the researcher to be an expression of emotional labour. It was in back-of-house and at waiters' stations that the extent of the emotional labour was most apparent. For example, in restaurants and front office, staff would complain about the presence of customers. Remarks such as, "I wish they'd [customers] go away" or "I hope no one comes in for lunch today" or "Good, we're not busy today" were comments often overheard by the researcher. Staff gave the impression that customers were a burden. However, the researcher found that generally, hospitality workers were people-oriented individuals who have genuine interests in meeting their customers' needs. Supervisors, managers and organisations can communicate their expectations, rules and policies but ultimately frontline hospitality workers are in immediate control of the service encounter. Managers directly and indirectly control encounters by "focusing on service delivery and system redesign, a knowledge of OC, an appropriate selection and training procedures" (Lee-Ross, 2001, p. 93). Organisations indirectly control encounters through their OC. The next section examines organisational philosophies and how this aspect of OC works to inform employees of the companies' values relating to service delivery.

Orgnisational Philosophies

In this study, organisational philosophies related to employees being aware of the organisation's mission and philosophies, the impact of budgetary pressures on decision-making, and a preference for continuous improvement. The quantitative results presented an average rating of 4.17 for this dimension. The qualitative findings generally supported the moderate response to this dimension.

One of the aspects of this dimension was that "Budget pressures have no impact on decisions being made". Interview evidence from hotel workers, especially supervisors

showed that budget pressures very often have a great influence on decisions being made, in particular, in relation to staffing and labour costs. In one hotel this was a very big issue and a restaurant supervisor said:

> They are so concerned about labour productivity that service is suffering. Sundays are the worst. On Sundays we're very busy and I've requested that we have a couple of extra staff on. Harry, the Food and Beverage Manager, says that he'll wait till late in the week and check to see how many people we are expecting and roster staff on accordingly. I have Friday and Saturday off, and by then Harry's forgotten about it. Then when I come in on Sundays, there's never enough staff to provide the service we are supposed to provide. People don't want to know that you don't have enough staff because management is so concerned about labour costs. They just want their tables cleared or a table to sit at would be nice.

Another food and beverage supervisor from another hotel had similar feelings about the quality of service being provided. She said:

> I had a chat one day with Eleanor, the Restaurant Manager, and said that it was fine to worry about labour productivity but service was suffering because we were trying to reach some unrealistic target that had been set by Marcus, the Financial Controller, who, by the way, sat in his office all day and did not know what the hell was going on down here. She replied that she and Lucas both appreciated the target Marcus had set and that it made their job easier. Well, what about our jobs I said to her but all she could see was that they were making management happy and this took a lot of pressure off them.

And yet another food and beverage supervisor from a different hotel echoed similar views. He said:

> Donald came up to the cashier's desk one day last week and asked me how much we had made for breakfast and I told him we had made so many thousands of dollars. He said, "That's great! Now you only need to make another $100 and I'll have won my $50 bet with Tony [financial controller]". I thought that's all that matters - your $50 bet with Tony. What about the staff and the fact that they have to bust their butts to get the work done because we are always understaffed and what about the guests who never get the level of service they deserve and pay for.

In general, frontline employees also felt that budget pressures always influenced decisions made. Several food and beverage attendants complained that often they had to work with insufficient resources because management had not replaced them. One food and beverage attendant summed up the views of several interviewees:

> Again and again there's not sufficient cutlery or glassware or cups which means that during a busy service, staff have to ensure that dirties are quickly returned to the kitchen and then, that cutlery is polished as it comes out and glasses and cups put back on the buffet. It's ridiculous because most times were understaffed as well. We just can't keep up.

Some non-supervisory interviewees were also concerned with the affect the shortage of resources was having on customer satisfaction. The following comment made by a food and beverage attendant reflected these concerns:

> You know what I hate the most in terms of not having enough resources is when we don't have enough food on the buffet. Guests pay good money to eat off the buffet and the chefs put out the bare minimum. I don't know how many times the buffet looks bare. It's ok for them they hide out the back. We're the ones that have to face the music.

This last excerpt alluded to a deeper sentiment that was expressed by a handful of interviewees. Some interviewees felt that management made decisions about work at the frontline when they did not really know what was going on at the frontline. These interviewees felt that things could be improved if management came and worked more often at the frontline. Grievances in this area related mainly to inadequate staffing levels. A food and beverage attendant summed it up as follows:

> Get management down here on a Friday or Saturday night or Sunday morning and we'll see if they roster on more staff.

While employees felt that management was unaware of what was happening at the frontline, most employees were in the dark as to what management were doing. Interviewees acknowledged that they did not know what was the organisation's mission or the guiding philosophies. Some individuals had noticed mission statement but confirmed that they were not widely publisiced. This receptionist said:

> I have noticed the mission statement on the wall in the back-of-house, behind reception but I've never really stopped to read it. I've never seen anyone reading it either. It's like it's a formality or a company requirement that they have it on display. The thing is that not everyone comes into that area. I'd be very surprised if most employees knew the organisation's mission or philosophies.

This comment was echoed by most interviewees. To managers it indicates that a greater emphasis needs to be placed on marketing their organisation's mission and philosophies. Also, with regard to a preference for continuous improvement, interviewees agreed that they were not aware of any formal efforts being made in this direction. In fact, most interviewees felt that their organisation just went along with the flow. As one receptionist pointed out:

> Hospitality is hospitality and one hotel is pretty much like another in the basic service they provide to guests. Guests basically want a bed, some food and somewhere to relax and that's what we provide. We're four star and our style of service may be a little different to that from other hotels, say a five star hotel. But at the end of the day I see that the five star hotel down the road provides a buffet and so do we. They provide a- la-carte and so do we. They provide rooms and so do we.

Viewing it from another perspective a porter commented:

> I've been here for seven years and as long as I can remember we've always offered the same things and done things the same old way. I can't see any preference for continuous improvement. Anyways, if things are working why do we need to change them. People keep coming back. We must be doing something right.

These points of view were reiterated by a number of interviewees, as articulated by a food and beverage attendant:

> I can't see if the organisation has a preference for continuous improvement. Hospitality is seeped in tradition, especially food and beverage. There are certain rituals that we follow religiously regardless of the hotel we work in.

The resonating point that emerged from the above recounts was that there exists an overarching hospitality culture, which influences individual's behaviour "regardless of the hotel they work in". Interviewees support for the notion of a hospitality culture is further explored in the next section.

11.2.3 An Occupational Hospitality Culture

The above expositions reveal that the elements of OC identified in Chapter 9 and used as themes to characterize OC in both the quantitative and qualitative studies have relevance

to the hospitality industry. In Chapter 10 a Model of Hospitality Culture was presented. The model comprises three layers with hospitality as its core of basic assumptions, values as the next outermost layer to basic assumptions, and artifacts as the outermost and most shallow layer. The model shows that hospitality is the basic assumption of both hospitality culture and occupational hospitality culture. It is the origin of these cultures. It is argued that at times the occupational hospitality culture is such a pervasive force that it is the basic assumption of hospitality culture. The quantitative data from Chapter 10 indicated that for the hotel sample of this study, the occupational hospitality culture is a pan culture, which is at the core of the hospitality culture and dictates the behaviours and actions of hospitality workers in the Cairns region. Information gained from interviews supported these findings and provided some insight into the nature of this ubiquitous force.

During the ethnographic component of this study, the researcher noted that most often there appeared to be no relationship between OC and service predispositions. It seemed that regardless of the culture of the organisation, employees were governed by a different force, a force which affected all hospitality workers such that there was consistency in their behaviour and individuals could move from one department to another or one hotel to another and fit in comfortably. In an attempt to rationalize these observations, the researcher proposed that due to the nature of hospitality work, it is possible that there exists a culture that tends to coalesce around the occupation as a whole. Perhaps it is the occupational title of 'hospitality worker', which imbues an occupational identity cuing individuals to perform in a particular way. For example, the researcher observed that hotel workers were to varying levels gregarious individuals who loved talking and being around people, masters of emotional labour (able to disguise their true feelings), and forthcoming in caring for and helping others. Ashforth and Humphrey (1995) comment that individuals personify the occupation and that their behaviour is wedged at both the interpersonal level (between individuals) and at the intergroup level (between role occupants). Ashforth and Kreiner (1999, p.418) add, "People sharing a common social category and social pressures come to regard themselves as "in the same boat" – as sharing a common fate". Similarly, Trice and Beyer (1993) describe distinctive and localized occupational or workgroup cultures that are embedded within the larger OC. In the case of hospitality, it appears that occupational hospitality culture is larger than any

OC. It is a pan culture embracing hospitality workers regardless of the department or organisation they work in.

Trice and Beyer (1993) note that conditions, which promote the group's identity include high task interdependencies, physical proximity between individuals, group longevity, clear physical boundaries and isolation, and collective socialization. Ashforth and Kreiner (1999) also include unconventional work hours or habits. In the case of hotel workers, there is a marked level of task interdependence and physical proximity. For example, waiters all work out of the one restaurant and possibly share waiter's stations. There is also high task interdependence. For example, waiters rely on chefs to make meals as requested by the customer, the barperson to mix or pour the right drinks and the cashier to charge the meal at the correct price. While tasks bring employees closer together, working long, unsocial hours provides clear physical boundaries and isolation for many hospitality workers. Having to work Christmas Day, New Year's Day and other public holidays differentiates them from most other workers.

Further, hospitality workers regardless of the hotel they work in, basically undertake the same tasks within specific departments. For example, there are standards of work performance within the industry that dictate the procedures for checking in a guest, pouring a bottle of wine, serving food at the table, answering the phone, or handling guests' luggage. Each hotel will have slight variations in procedures and practices and may utilize different technological systems, but similarities in tasks and work settings provide a powerful cohesive force between hospitality workers. The universal nature of hotel jobs means once individuals have acquired skills in one area they can easily move to another hotel without the need for retraining. Such movement of staff enhances the communication and sustainability of a pan-industrial culture.

As for group longevity, with Cairns being a defined region, it was not unusual for some employees to have worked with others in previous hotels and then move on together to another hotel or meet again at a later date. A food and beverage said:

> There was a bunch of us, probably a dozen, frontline staff from F&B (Food and Beverage) and Front Office that had worked at the Azure and then moved to the Tropical Lagoon when it opened. The HR (Human Resource

> Manager) from the Azure got a job at the Tropical Lagoon and she just took us with her. I guess she knew what we were about and was confident that we could do the job required.

Similar stories were told by a number of interviewees. It seemed that everyone had worked with someone else or knew someone who had worked with someone else at some stage in his or her hospitality career. Another food and beverage attendant echoed this sentiment:

> When I first started out in the industry I got a job in Breezes Restaurant, the fine dining restaurant, at the Hilton. I was buddied with two men, Cameron and Anthony. I worked there for a little while and then at several other places till I came here. One day when I was doing a relief shift as supervisor, the Restaurant Manager brought in this man and introduced him. She said, "This is Cameron, our new barman." Sure enough it was Cameron from Breezes. What a small world.

Also, it was not uncommon for employees to "get a job" for someone they knew. The researcher often heard workers make remarks such as: "I worked with Alison at the Outrigger, she was looking for work and I told her to put her resume in here." or "Mark was looking for work, I knew we need staff here, so I told him to come and see the Manager".

The fact that people work together in other places means that they know how they work, individually and collectively, and bring their practices and values, i.e. their own 'culture' to the new place. In the new place their culture is nurtured, changed and evolves further. If the OC is weak or non-existent, especially in the establishment of a new hotel, the culture individuals bring with them easily dominates and it is this dominant occupational hospitality culture, which follows people, wherever they go. With Cairns' defined boundaries, as individuals move from hotel to hotel this common shared occupational culture permeates most hotels. This means that most employees starting a new job in another hotel feel comfortable and fit in almost immediately. The following comments by a receptionist highlight this point:

> When I started work at Balminess, I felt like I'd always worked there. I already knew a couple of the front office girls because I'd worked with them

> elsewhere and I'd worked with the manager before. So I knew his style and standards. Front office work is the same pretty much wherever you go and once you know the people, you're home and hosed.

Employees who work in more than one organisation further support the argument of a pan culture. A food and beverage attendant explains:

> Between here and Tornados, I work fifty hours a week. I consider myself to be my own boss and not fitting to any organisation in particular. I have been in the industry for nearly twenty years, working in both restaurants and hotels. Wherever I go, I find that I can quickly adapt to each establishment. I think most hospitality workers are like this. Most people don't stay in one place long enough to make roots. When they move, they take their baggage or as you call it 'culture' with them.

Several other interviewees conveyed similar stories. The consensus appeared to be that the nature of the work unified hospitality workers under one umbrella. A receptionist exemplifies this sense of unity and solidarity in the following remark:

> Most hospitality workers understand the culture that we work under. It doesn't matter what hotel you work for, service is service and its service that makes the culture.

With the distinct physical boundaries defined by the industry itself, isolation and collective socialization emerged from the unique nature of hospitality work. Long unconventional work hours or habits often lead to hospitality workers making their own social hours and spending time together outside of work. A receptionist echoed points made by other interviewees:

> It's very hard to unwind after a long day in the hotel. Usually when we finish work we'll go to a nightclub for a few drinks, unless you need to work in the morning.

Even where individuals did not socialize together, the characteristics of hospitality work provided workers with common ground and enforced their solidarity. A food and beverage attendant summed this up as follows:

> I'm much older than the others and though they always invite me out, I have a young family and do not to socialize with them. But even though I don't go out with them, they still ask me out and make me feel like I'm part of their group.

It is agreed that factors such as those noted above facilitate the development of strong occupational cultures (e.g. Ashforth & Kriener, 1999; Trice & Beyer, 1993). Some authors acknowledge the existence of "occupational identity" and note, "The nature of the work and its environment are important" (Riley, Lockwood, Powell-Perry, & Baker, 1988, p. 161). People working in hospitality come from various backgrounds with different interests and motivations for working in the industry. However, when it comes to service delivery, they share a common occupational identity. A restaurant supervisor highlighted this as follows:

> In this restaurant, our frontline staff is all casuals. Most are university students whose interests lie elsewhere but when they're in the restaurant they know that service is our business and they work towards that goal.

This comment offers evidence of commitment to the nature of hospitality work. Mobility within the industry contributes to occupational identity. Occupational ideologies have been defined as "systems of beliefs that provide a means for interpreting and understanding what the occupation does and why it matters" (Ashforth & Kreiner, 1999, p. 7). As ideologies become shared among members, they become validated. In hospitality, as workers move from one hotel to another they create opportunities for their understanding of the hospitality occupation to be communicated and strengthened. Synchronously, the hospitality culture is shared and sustained. It is reasonable, then, to suggest that in Cairns an occupational hospitality culture exists which eclipses the OCs of individual hotels, provides guiding ideologies for hotel workers and underlies the behaviour and performance of all hotel workers within the region. More specifically, it is possible that this hotel culture influences individuals' attitudes in the workplace and lends itself to the concept of 'occupational attitudes'.

The very nature of service means that supervisors and managers have little direct control of the interaction between the employee and the customer. At this point, employees are in most control of the situation. Hence, it is possible that employees can be involved in the service interaction and not be affected by their surrounding environment, including the culture of the environment. In fact, it is probable that at the customer interface, employees are affected more by their personal abilities, efforts, attitudes, skills and knowledge than the OC. Also, it is plausible that in the service encounter that service providers may feel that they have some control over their representation. They may feel confident in their ability to deliver the service required and empowered by this confidence deliver the service required. To the researcher it appeared that individuals who had some experience in hospitality shared this confidence and empowerment. It was like they embraced their own culture, a culture that governed their behaviour regardless of which hotel they had worked in. It was a culture, which transcended organisational boundaries.

It is suggested by this study that people have particular attitudes that make them highly suitable for selection or recruitment to a particular job. The attitudes that are reflected in the predispositions of those individuals seem to be consistent with the occupation more than with the organisation. Hence, this has resulted in the conception of the term of 'occupational attitudes'. It is theorised that regardless of the organistion people work for, if those people have high predispositions for a particular job, the influence of OC on those individual's performance will be subsumed by the individuals' occupational attitudes. In hospitality, it seems that in that 'moment of truth', individuals' service predispositions are directed more by their occupational attitudes than the OC. It is argued here that the occupational attitudes relate to being hospitable or the provision of hospitality, which is the foundation of the occupational hospitality culture noted earlier.

Further, it is rationalised that OC in hotels is in fact a hospitality culture. Findings from this study have revealed the existence of a pan occupational hospitality culture, which dominates the industry in Cairns. Therefore, in relation to this discovery, it can be further argued that the themes characterizing OC and, normally, hospitality culture, can be used in this study to describe occupational hospitality culture.

11.3 Summary and Conclusions

Through this ethnographic research, the researcher has explored, described and analysed hospitality work as it applies to hotels in the Cairns region. It has presented a portrayal of the realities and everyday occurrences experienced by hospitality workers and the meanings these hold for them. Prolonged participant observation and semi-structured in-depth interviews uncovered the working lives of hotel workers. The knowledge gained provides a deepened and richer understanding of hotel workers and hospitality OC.

This study examined service predispositions of hospitality workers and hospitality OC through a series of themes that emerged from the quantitative data. Organisational culture was explored through themes that were combined under levels as described in Table 11.4. Each theme had distinctive characteristics, which were used to reveal different aspects of OC or more specifically organisational and occupational cultures.

The above expositions reveal that the elements of OC identified in Chapter 9 and used as themes to characterize OC in both the quantitative and qualitative studies have relevance to the hospitality industry. Within the context of this study, OC in hotels is referred to as hospitality culture. Findings from this study have revealed the existence of a pan occupational hospitality culture, which dominates the industry in Cairns. In relation to this discovery, the themes characterizing OC and, normally, hospitality culture, are here found to describe occupational hospitality culture. Further, the qualitative data supports the notion that this occupational hospitality culture, because of its very nature, influences individual's service predispositions.

In this chapter, a number of factors were identified that confirmed the existence of an occupational hospitality culture. These factors included the following:

- Universal nature of hotel jobs mitigates similar rituals and practices in tasks performed
- Collective socialization due to individuals working in the same hotel or industry and sharing the same characteristic and interests

- High task interdependencies between individuals within the same work area. For example, chefs and waiters need to work together to present a meal
- Physical proximity between individuals within the same work area or within the same hotel or region.
- Group longevity sustained by people moving from one hotel to another as a group or individually and sharing a history of having worked together in one or more places
- Clear physical boundaries and isolation determined by the fact that hospitality workers are work in the same industry and experience long, irregular and unconventional working hours
- Consistent hotel structure and hierarchy within hotels provides similarities between promotional opportunities offered between different hotels and allows hospitality workers to transfer from one hotel to another in order to progress up the hierarchical ladder.
- Tradition of on-the-job training for frontline employees practiced by many hotels.
- Traditional autocratic management practices with little opportunities for empowerment
- Collegiality and camaraderie fostered because of common work environment.
- Hotel workers are gregarious individuals who enjoy talking and being around people, masters of emotional labour (able to disguise their true feelings), and forthcoming in caring for and helping others.

This naturalistic enquiry into service predispositions and OC provides an explanation for the characteristics of hospitality workers and of the culture within the hotel industry in Cairns. It presents an insight into the working lives of hospitality workers and their working environment, providing knowledge and understanding for managers to consider in their roles as hospitality mangers. The next chapter summarizes the findings of this thesis, discusses implications and recommendations, and provides direction for future research.

CHAPTER 12

SUMMARY & CONCLUSIONS

> "The man you see is an unfortunate wanderer who has strayed here and now commands our care, since all strangers and beggars come under the protection of Zeus, and the charity that is trifle to us can be precious to others. Bestir yourselves … provide our guest with food and drink and [take him to the river to bathe] where there's shelter from the wind," says Princess Nausicaa about Odysseus whom she finds shipwrecked on the shore (Homer, translated by Rieu, 1946, p.59)

12.1 Introduction

Being hospitable has its roots in the earliest societies, as the quote form *The Odyssey* above indicates. This thesis has focused on hospitality and the characteristics of the occupation. This concluding chapter reviews and summarises the major findings of the research and contextualizes these in terms of implications for the hospitality industry, the occupation, and managers in the industry. Outcomes of the research into service predispositions and organisational culture (OC) are discussed separately and then, the findings into the influence of OC on service predispositions are considered. These are integrated with revelations of the presence and nature of the phenomenon of an occupational hospitality culture. Further, in discussing implications for managers, it is recommended that managers address issues of recruitment and selection, recognition and rewards, training, a hospitality service culture, leadership, and empowerment at both the strategic and operational levels. In addition, the limitations of this study are addressed and directions for further research are discussed.

12.2 The Significance & Contribution of the Thesis

Through this study some significant findings have emerged that contribute to the knowledge and understanding of the working environment of hotel workers. This section summarises the principal findings of this research. The significance and contribution of these to theory and practice are discussed in greater depth throughout the chapter.

In this study, the researcher explored the influence of OC on the service predispositions of hospitality workers in Tropical North Queensland. The study used a triangulation of methods to describe and analyse the everyday realities of hospitality work and aspects of hotel OC as they impact on the predispositions of hotel workers in providing quality service. A quantitative survey approach assessed the service predispositions of hotel workers and the OC of hotels within the region. Through the use of the Service Predispositions Instrument (SPI) this study developed a profile of employees' service predisposition. Indeed it was noted in this study that individuals possess certain innate predispositions that determine whether an individual has high or low service orientations in the delivery of quality service. Also, through the use of an OC questionnaire this study identified a set of OC dimensions that highlight the nature and characteristics of OC. Further, the data obtained from both instruments showed that different aspects of OC have varying influences on individuals' performance in the workplace. Data from this etic approach revealed a link between OC and service predispositions and highlighted the nature of OC in hospitality settings. This culture is referred to as 'organisational hospitality culture'. The findings indicate that this hospitality culture plus other elements, such as service predispositions, individuals' demographics and hotel demographics, contribute to an individual's delivery of quality service. The relationships between these elements are depicted in the Model of Hospitality Culture presented in Chapter 10.

Another theme, which emerged from this quantitative approach, was the presence of an overarching occupational hospitality culture. This phenomenon is said to be a pervasive force, which characterizes the shared values, norms, and objectives that are reflected in the behaviour and actions of hospitality workers irrespective of the organisation they work in. This is a significant finding of the thesis and is discussed more fully later in this chapter. Expositions from the emic approach provided a rich narrative of the day-to-day working lives of hospitality workers. These findings confirmed results from the

quantitative research and added insights and understanding into the ecology of hospitality work. Further, the emic approach supported the complexity of hospitality culture and clarified the presence and strength of an overarching occupational hospitality culture.

The information unearthed in this research contributes immensely to theory and practice. It has provided knowledge and understanding for both practitioners and academics. In summary, it has enforced the following points:

- The pivotal role played by frontline hotel workers.
- The power and significance of employees' attitudes in the workplace.
- The importance of selecting employees who possess attitudes that predispose them to being hospitable and so, providing quality service.
- The presence of an occupational hospitality culture which encapsulates the knowledge, beliefs, values, objects and customs of the hospitality industry.
- The need for hospitality organisations to acknowledge the nature of hospitality and nurture a culture of hospitality.
- The complexity of OC and its presence as a conglomerate of factors which attract and keep productive workers.
- The identification of organisational hospitality culture as the organisational culture specific to particular hotels, restaurants or other hospitality organisations.
- The recognition that organisations can improve and enhance employees' attitudes by promoting elements of OC which contribute to the quality of their worklife.
- The predominance of employees' innate service predispositions, organisational hospitality culture and occupational hospitality culture in the interplay of a number of factors toward the ultimate delivery of hospitality service to customers.

Information was gained by addressing the aims of this study, which are as follows:

1. To develop a profile of the service predispositions of employees within the hotel industry of Cairns.
2. To identify the nature and characteristics of OC within various hotels
3. To investigate the influence of OC on the service predispositions of hotel employees.
4. To provide information that can assist hospitality managers to better understand the potential of the people they recruit, the behaviour of employees within their establishment and the nature of the OC so that they can formulate service strategies and design service systems that are appropriate and effective.

Each of these aims is discussed in the following sections. First profiles of employees' service predispositions are discussed.

12.3 Service Predispositions

12.3.1 Profiles of Service Predispositions

The first aim of this study was to develop a profile of service predispositions of employees within the hotel industry of Cairns. In order to achieve this aim, the Service Predispositions Instrument (SPI) developed Lee-Ross (1999, 2000) was used. This instrument provided a convenient way of assessing individuals' attitudes to the delivery of quality service. The SPI is based on the Service Predispositions Model (SPM) which proposes that there are six service dimensions that stimulate cognitive expressions (Lee-Ross, 1999). These are *competence*, *extra*, *individual attention*, *affinity*, *disposition*, *communication* (Table 2.1). The SPM suggests that these service dimensions stimulate the three cognitive expressions of *conscious implementation*, *conscious commitment*, and *knowledge of performance* (Table 2.1). The model infers that when all these three cognitive expressions are realised, there is a maximisation of the positive outcome of "personal satisfaction" with the service provided. The personal outcome is the final stage of the model.

The first aim raised two research questions:

- Do profiles of the service predispositions of employees vary between hotels and departments?
- Is there a collective profile of service predispositions, which relates to employees of the hotel industry in Cairns?

In an attempt to distinguish profiles at the various levels of analyses (industry, organisational, and departmental) the notion of 'norms' was introduced. First, hospitality workers' norms (or industry norms) were examined. The results showed that respondents rated the cognitive expressions as most important. Also of importance but to a lesser degree were the dimensions of communication, competence and individual consideration. Hence, it could be said that hospitality norms are characterized principally by the cognitive expressions (commitment, implementation and performance), communication, competence and, individual consideration. For hospitality managers, the results send out a message that these are the characteristics they need to consider when recruiting and selecting individuals for their organisations.

Investigations at the industry level also highlight the key role played by deference. Briefly, if deference is high and the service dimensions are present, the cognitive expressions will be enhanced. The cognitive expressions under the moderating effect of deference, in turn, give rise to satisfaction with service provided, i.e. the personal outcome. Hence, it seems that individuals within the respondent sample were sufficiently deferential and realized the cognitive expressions, rating these highest of the SPI dimensions. The rating for personal outcome at the industry level was comparatively high at 6.18. This suggests that the respondent sample were also sufficiently deferential and realized the final stage of the model and be satisfied with their delivery of service. For managers, these results indicate that of all the SPM dimensions, the most critical is deference and that deference is a factor that managers need to take seriously in all their management activities. Hence, managers using the SPI in recruitment and selection processes may decide to select individuals on the basis of their rating for deference rather than the other dimensions. If individuals score well with deference, managers may overlook poor scores on the other dimensions without it having a significant impact on their delivery of quality service. By being highly deferential these individuals can provide the hospitality service required (i.e. they are hospitable).

It may also be reasonable to suggest that individuals with high service attitudes have 'innate' service predispositions making them immune to external influences such as OC. It was proposed that hospitality workers posses an internal affinity for hospitality, i.e. being hospitable. This "hospitableness" drives and nurtures the occupational hospitality culture noted in this study. Further, it was argued that deference plays a critical role in individuals' delivery of hospitality service. If individuals are deferential, they will realize satisfaction with the service provided, which is the final personal outcome of the SPM.

Examination of the SPI dimensions at the organisational level also supported findings at the industry level and led to the conclusion that the dimensions of competence, individual consideration and affinity could distinguish organisational norms. These three dimensions were also found to be important at the industry level. From a departmental perspective, competence was found to be indicative of departmental norms. Hence, from an internal organisational perspective, the service dimensions, rather than the cognitive expressions or deference were of greater significance. These results indicate that the hospitality culture observed at the organisational level may not always be reflective of the occupational hospitality culture at the industry level and that the two may be distinct. For managers, these results suggest that an understanding of their internal culture at both departmental and organisational level, as well as the occupational hospitality culture, can highlight issues or problems that may be affecting staff.

The following provides an explanation for why employees within hospitality organisations may not be truly reflective of the hospitality spirit that sustains the occupational hospitality culture. At the fundamental departmental and organisational levels, staff are caught up in the basics of service delivery and cannot realize their cognitive expressions or personal outcome. It seems that environmental factors at these levels inhibit the expression of deference and the realization of the latter dimensions of the SPM model. For managers these results indicate that if they wish to fully energise the spirit of hospitality, they need to develop and nurture departmental and OCs, which facilitate delivery of hospitality service and engender the desire to provide exceptional hospitality service. This could entail addressing issues such as training and skills development, recognition and rewarding of employees, and other factors, which are discussed later under the section of "Implications for Managers".

12.3.2 Characteristics of Service Attitudes

Results from Section 8.6 provided another pragmatic approach to utilizing the SPI in the workplace. This was an important finding of the thesis. This part aimed to identify individuals with high service attitudes and to highlight service dimensions, which may be more important than others in the delivery of excellent service. There were several interesting results. For example, the cognitive expressions (commitment, performance and implementation), which were shown to be important at the industry level (Figure 8.2), also appeared as variables powerfully discriminating between individuals with high and low service attitudes. The results (Table 8.13) showed that for individuals with low service attitudes, performance, commitment, and extra were the dominant discriminating dimensions. It was interpreted that for the respondent sample, individuals are performing well in their jobs, are committed, and can provide extra even though they have low satisfaction with service provided or low service attitudes. On the other hand, individuals for whom the job allows them to implement their tasks and duties, provide individual consideration, and have an affinity with customers and have a high satisfaction with service provided. These results suggest that hotel workers have innate dispositions in providing hospitality even if the work environment prevents them from providing service to the level they desire or are satisfied with.

The discriminant analyses used in Chapter 8 also highlighted the key role played by deference. According to the SPM, deference can also play a critical role in enabling individuals to realize their full potential in delivery of quality service. Table 8.13 shows deference as playing a role, be it minor, in discriminating between low and high service attitudes. It is rationalized that deference may be the key linchpin in developing individuals' service predispositions from low to high levels. Certainly, the moderating role of deference as was observed in Section 7.4 indicates that the importance of deference should not be undermined. The discriminant analyses provided further support that deference plays a major role in the service attitudes of individuals with low to high service attitudes. For example, the discriminant analysis results in Table 8.13 indicate that individuals with high service attitudes will have an inverse relationship with deference and that deference is more critical for individuals with low service attitudes. This supports the rationale for the SPM, which proposes that if deference is present, it

will have a positive moderating effect on the cognitive expressions, which are immediately causal of personal outcome and so, produce high service attitudes. In this case, deference may be of major importance to individuals with low service attitudes in realizing their cognitive expressions as the personal outcome of satisfaction with service delivery. Further research would need to be done in assessing the role played by deference.

Perhaps then, the finding that the cognitive expressions appear to be most representative of hospitality industry norms (Figure 8.2) indicates that overall individuals' service predispositions in the hotel industry in Cairns are high but some hospitality workers express low satisfaction with the service they provide. This suggests to managers that there is some latitude for them to influence individuals' satisfaction with service provided. As noted earlier, training, recognition, rewards and promotional opportunities are some ways managers can assist employees to gain greater satisfaction with service delivery. These are discussed more fully later in this chapter.

12.3.3 Utility of the SPI

The results are promising in terms of the utility of the SPI in developing profiles of individuals' predispositions and in differentiating between individuals with high and low service attitudes. For hospitality managers the results demonstrate the strength and value of the SPI as a tool for depicting individuals that best meet the needs of the hospitality industry in providing quality service. Further, for hospitality managers, the SPI provides an expedient and efficient tool for identifying training requirements and benchmarking different positions to assist in recruitment and selection. In addition, information gained from administering the SPI can provide managers with information that can be used to identify the affect of service predispositions on other aspects of individuals' jobs, such as job satisfaction, enjoyment of their job, staying in hospitality and training.

In summary, the results from this part of the study lend strong support for the SPI and its value as a tool in the development and implementation of human resource strategies, policies, and procedures. Further analyses involving the SPI, in particular in relation to OC, will be examined later but first, the next section explores OC.

12.4 Organisational Culture

The second aim of this study was to identify the nature and characteristics of OC within various hotels. It sought to address the research question: What elements characterize the nature of OC within the hotel industry in Cairns? In this study, hotel employees provided their own perceptions of the OC in the hospitality industry. The instrument used was developed specifically for this study and is detailed in Chapter 5. Average responses from the OC questionnaire were subject to factor analysis to assess the dimensionality of the instrument and facilitate interpretation of the dataset. Factor analyses showed that OC consisted of 28 key attributes. A reliability analysis indicated a high level of internal consistency for the instrument as applied in this study with an overall coefficient alpha (Cronbach's) = 0.9498. Such an outcome provides strong support for use of data from the OC questionnaire in further analyses. Mean scores for each of the underlying dimensions showed that a 'hotel culture' for the study sample could be described as one placing greatest emphasis on importance of job, rituals, customer orientation, training, role ambiguity, values, team spirit, being a valued member and telling stories and paying the least attention to workgroup conflict, care & concern, the social club, organisational philosophies and the grapevine.

Mean scores for each dimension also led to the calculation of a single overall index for OC, known as the Composite Score that may provide a pragmatic approach for hospitality managers and was valuable in assessing the influence of OC on service predispositions. Examination of variation in culture dimensions between hotels indicated that while there were some significant differences between dimensions across hotels, the non-significant differences lent further support to the possible existence of a common 'hotel culture' or 'hospitality culture'. Significant differences were found between hotels for all the dimensions except doing extra, promotional opportunities, team spirit, workgroup conflict, power structure, and relationships & processes. These were of interest. If there was no significant differences for these dimensions then the results suggest that collectively these dimensions may be contributing to a "hotel culture" that is consistent between hotels. Such a hospitality culture for this respondent sample, therefore, is considered as one that focuses on relationships & processes. Moreover, it is characterized by a prevalence for doing extra, emphasizes power structure but promotes

team spirit and minimizes work conflict while fostering promotional opportunities. Having established a taxonomy of the elements of the hospitality culture, attempts were made to determine the influence of such a culture on the service predispositions of hotel workers. Findings from this part of the study are summarized in the next section.

12.5 Service Predispositions & Organisational Culture

The third aim of this study was to investigate the influence of OC on the service predispositions of hotel employees. Three research questions were raised from this aim:

- Is the influence of these characteristics of OC the same between hotels, and within hotels?
- Is there a common hospitality culture, which permeates the hotel industry in the region?
- If so, what are its characteristics?

The objective was to achieve this through both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The quantitative method presented the following findings.

12.5.1 A Hospitality Culture

Correlations (Table 10.1 in Chapter 10) indicated a relationship between OC and service predispositions. In fact, they revealed that some dimensions of OC enhance individuals' service predispositions while others hinder them. In this study, service predispositions are affected positively by cultures that provide job variety, promotional opportunities and training; have strong values, organisational philosophies and team spirit; highlight importance of job, rituals and communication; and, consider their employees to be valued members. By contrast, service predispositions displayed a negative relationship with cultures that foster stories, nurture hotel politics, relish work conflict, communicate through the grapevine, exhibit no care & concern for employees and doing extra is not the norm

In some instances culture at the organisational level was different to that at industry level. For example, the OC dimensions which were indicated as significant predictors of personal outcome were role ambiguity, group membership, promotional opportunities,

team spirit, hotel politics, heroes, job variety, social club, planning & decision-making and stories. Not all of these are noted above as being significant at the industry level. These results suggest that the organisational hospitality culture may not always be exemplary of the occupational hospitality culture observed at the industry level and that the two may be distinct. This was supported by findings in Chapter 8 that showed variation in the importance of specific SPI dimensions between industry, organisational and departmental levels It seems that the differences between the two are variable and dependent on a number of factors.

Assessment of the impact of OC on service predispositions using multiple regressions showed that service predispositions accounted for 54.5% of the variance recorded for personal outcome and OC accounted for 9.8% of the variance. This left 35.7% of the variance unexplained. In chapter 10, it was proposed that this unexplained percentage could be accounted for by other elements such as individual demographics, hotel demographics, and national culture. Exploration of unexplained variance is beyond the scope of this thesis but certainly something to consider in future research. However, these findings led to the development of a model of hospitality culture that integrated all the possible factors and attempted to describe their relationships. The model is presented below in Figure 12.1.

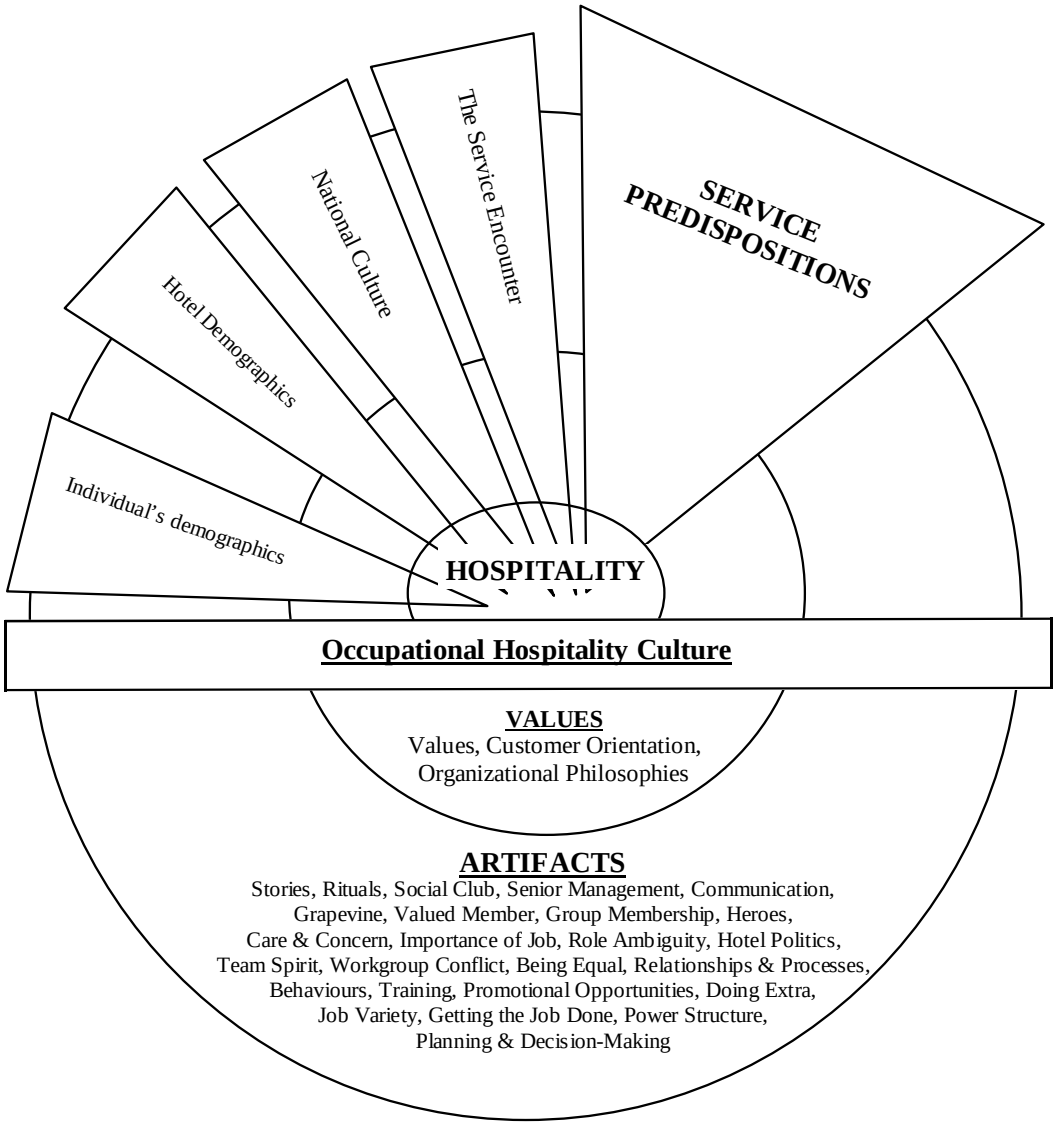

Figure 12.1: A Model of Hospitality Culture

Figure 12.1 displays the taxonomy of elements used to describe the organisational hospitality culture found in this study. The model is characterized by three concentric circles. The outermost circle features artifacts, which represent behaviours and actions, which are visible and audible, e.g. stories, rituals, and management. Artifacts are subsumed by values, which embody three components of OC - values, customer orientation and organisational philosophies. In the model, the innermost layer of basic assumptions features hospitality, which represents the driving force of hospitality culture.

Further, the model acknowledges a two-way relationship between the layers, where culture shapes and frames the behaviours of individuals but also, culture is developed and sustained by the behaviours and actions of members of the organisation. Hence, in the model various factors are sent to emanate from the central core of hospitality and are thought to illustrate this reciprocal relationship. These elements include service predispositions, individual's demographics, hotel demographics, national culture, and occupational hospitality culture.

Findings from both the quantitative and qualitative research suggest that a specific culture exists within the hotel industry that may be characteristic of the region of Cairns. This culture exists at the industry level and is described as an overarching occupational hospitality culture. This culture is summarized in the next section.

12.5.2 An Occupational Hospitality Culture

The qualitative ethnographic research supported findings that OC influences service predispositions. More importantly, it confirmed the nature of hospitality culture and existence of a pan occupational hospitality culture. This research showed that the core of this culture was hospitality. That is, the glue which holds the hospitality culture together is an appreciation and understanding of hospitality as the deepest and basic assumption. Moreover, it is a desire and passion to be hospitable. This genuine enthusiasm to provide hospitality is the bond which characterizes the relationship between hospitality workers and the hospitality industry.

The spirit of hospitality provides the genesis for occupational hospitality culture. As the latter grows a symbiotic relationship develops between occupational hospitality culture (OCH) and hospitality. Eventually, the OCH can assume a substantial role as the underlying basic assumptions of the organisational hospitality culture. In this case, the boundaries between OC and OCH are obscured and the OC takes on the characteristics of the OCH. The OCH is also influenced by other factors of the hospitality model, e.g. service predispositions and hotel demographics. In addition, differences between OC of hotels show that it is possible for the organisational hospitality culture to be a greater force at times than OCH. In this latter case, the OC of a particular organisation can strongly influence individuals' service predispositions and delivery of service.

In Chapter 3 it was mentioned that Johnson and Scholes (1999) acknowledge, “It is important to recognise the way in which organisations operating in similar environments or industries come to resemble each other in terms of cultural norms” (p. 58). Hofstede (1997) identifies ‘business’ or ‘industry’ cultures as components of OC. He rationalises that “because a given industry employs specific occupations and it also maintains specific organisational practices, for logical or traditional reasons”, it gives rise to particular occupational-organisational or industry cultures (p. 192). Hence, industry cultures (e.g. occupational hospitality cultures) exist because a particular industry (e.g. hospitality industry) will employ specific occupations (e.g. waiters, chefs, telephonists) and fosters specific organisational practices that are maintained because of logical or traditional reasons (e.g. split shifts, high casualisation of labour force, and working unsociable hours).

Other authors, like Hofstede (1997), recognise industry cultures as being related to OC. For example, Wiberg (2002) notes that occupational communities:

> Generate cultures that cut across organizations … the shared assumptions derive from a common educational background, their requirements of a given occupation … and the share contact with others in the occupation … Salespeople the world over, accountants, assembly line workers, and engineers share some tacit assumptions about the nature of their work regardless of who their particular employer is at any given time. (p. 5)

Salaman (1974, p. 14) defines an occupational community as: “People who are members of the same occupation, or who work together, have some sort of common life together, and are, to some extent, separate from the rest of society”. These definitions partly apply to hotel workers. For example, they work in the same industry (i.e. hospitality) and their jobs are interrelated (i.e. restaurant and kitchen staff are involved in production and service of food; front office and housekeeping staff are involved in preparation and allocation of accommodation). Hence, hospitality workers can be said to be “engaged in the same sort of work” and “work together”. Through sharing their work tasks and relying on each other to meet the needs of customers, hospitality workers share similar “values, norms and perspectives. Their focus on being hospitable to customers guides their behaviour and articulates “proper and improper behaviour”. For example, a

receptionist knows to be polite and friendly to customers checking-in, a waiter knows to provide prompt and efficient service, and a porter knows to assist customers with their baggage.

Further, hospitality workers may feel that they have a "common life together" because of the nature of hospitality work. Hospitality work usually involves long hours worked during the 'leisure' time of others. It is also physically and emotionally labour intensive. Split shifts, varying skills levels and high staff mobility are also part of hospitality work. These factors can make hospitality workers feel that they are disconnected from the rest of society. Riley, Lockwood, Powell-Perry and Baker (1998, p. 161) summarise the work of hospitality employees as follows: "The combination of unique skills … and social isolation through working unsociable hours, can produce the right conditions for the formation of an occupational identity and an occupational community"

Hence, it is proposed that employees of the hotel industry as a supposed occupational community, or more appropriately, an occupational identity, generate an occupational hospitality culture where hospitality workers share some commonalities about the nature of being hospitable and service delivery, regardless of the hotel or firm they work for. This culture is a powerful, ubiquitous influence, which may override organisational hospitality culture and drives the behaviour and performance of hospitality workers. This study found the existence of an occupational hospitality culture was revealed through a number of factors, which included the following:

- Universal nature of hotel jobs mitigates similar rituals and practices in tasks performed
- Collective socialization due to individuals working in the same hotel or industry and sharing the same characteristic and interests
- High task interdependencies between individuals within the same work area. For example, chefs and waiters need to work together to present a meal
- Physical proximity between individuals within the same work area or within the same hotel or region.
- Group longevity sustained by people moving from one hotel to another as a group or individually and sharing a history of having worked together in one or more places

- Clear physical boundaries and isolation determined by the fact that hospitality workers work in the same industry and experience long, irregular and unconventional working hours
- Consistent hotel structure and hierarchy within hotels provides similarities between promotional opportunities offered between different hotels and allows hospitality workers to transfer from one hotel to another in order to progress up the hierarchical ladder.
- Tradition of on-the-job training for frontline employees practiced by many hotels.
- Traditional autocratic management practices with little opportunities for empowerment
- Collegiality and camaraderie fostered because of common work environment.
- Hotel workers are gregarious individuals who enjoy talking and being around people, masters of emotional labour (able to disguise their true feelings), and forthcoming in caring for and helping others.

The naturalistic, ethnographic enquiry into service predispositions and OC provided an explanation for the characteristics of the occupational hospitality culture in Cairns. It presented an insight into the working lives of hospitality workers and their working environment, and provided knowledge and understanding for managers to consider in their roles as hospitality mangers. Some implications of the findings are discussed in the following sections.

12.6 Implications for the Occupation, the Industry, & Hotels

Chapter 1 highlighted the uniqueness of working in hospitality. It described hospitality work as characterized by irregular and long working hours, split shifts, and labour intensiveness, compounded by high casualisation rates, high labour turnover and varying skills levels. Further, hospitality work was emphasized as a customer contact or front-line service job that deals with all sorts of customers and interactions, some pleasant and rewarding and others not so. It was noted that these factors place enormous pressures on hospitality workers to perform their job efficiently and effectively. These characteristics were explicated in Chapter 11 where the dimensions of “to serve is not to be servile” and “emotional labour” were discussed. Chapter 1 also highlighted that while jobs in hospitality are may be considered as demeaning and unrewarding, hotel work can be

exotic and adventurous. With large, composite organisations such as the global chains, entering the hospitality sector, there has been a shift toward quality jobs and that work in the contemporary hospitality industry can actually lead to a rewarding career choice (Guerrier & Adib, 2000). Some have described the hospitality profession as one of the "oldest of the humane professions" concerned with the care of a customer or client (Powers, 1995, p. 10). Further, hospitality graduates in today's industry have opportunities for expedient advancement to becoming a successful manager.

There is no doubt that there still exists a great range of jobs in a variety of organisations that may support the paradoxes of work in hospitality as described above. However, the prospect for the future is of a dynamic industry that can provide an exciting and gratifying career, whether individuals want to remain at the frontline or progress up the managerial ladder. The WTTC (2002) is set on attracting and retaining staff in the Travel and Tourism industry. Its badge of "'Careers' instead of 'jobs' enforces this mission. Further, with organisations such as the Ritz-Carlton leading the way in selection and training processes and techniques that result in delivery of exceptional customer service, hospitality workers can look forward to an occupation that is truly professional.

The researcher recognizes that there are two groups of employees that the industry needs to cater for. First, there are those individuals who are happy to work at the frontline and have no desire to become managers. Within this group, there are those who work in hospitality because the industry affords low entry, low skilled jobs that provide a steady and ready source of income. These individuals may be people who work in hospitality as a main basis of employment and those who work in hospitality to earn some income while pursuing other careers. Chapter 6 extrapolated these differences.

Second, there are those individuals who aspire to climb the managerial ladder. Currently, in the industry there are many opportunities for individuals in the latter category. Courses at TAFE and universities provide individuals with foundations and often networking, for expedient ascension through the ranks. Also, many hotel companies, such as ACCOR, provide opportunities through their internal training and academies to accelerate employees' careers. The gap in training lies at the frontline level for individuals in the former category. The researcher refers to this gap as "occupational socialization".

Occupational socialization, otherwise known as professional socialization, is defined as:

> An interactive process used to gain knowledge, skills, and behaviours needed to participate as a member of a profession. It is a dynamic developmental process through which values and norms of the profession are internalized and a professional identity is gained. (Normore, 2003, p. 7)

Weindling and Earley (1995) add that professional socialization consists of formal and informal certification, first-hand experience of job-related tasks, modeling and social learning, and mentoring. Similarly, Perna and Hudgins (1996) suggest the following definition:

> Acquiring a professional identity involves learning not only the knowledge and skills required to perform a particular job task, but also the attitudes, values, norms, language and perspectives necessary to interpret experience, interact with others, prioritise activities and determine appropriate behaviour. (p. 3)

Hence, the consistent themes that emerge from the literature are that occupational socialization is about learning the skills, knowledge, and attitudes relating to the occupation and acquiring the values, norms and philosophies of the occupational culture. In Chapter 1 and throughout this thesis it has been recognised that within hospitality, as within other industries, there is a distinctive way of doing things and that occupational socialisation is a process that managers need to be mindful of.

Again, institutions such as TAFE provide certificate courses for individuals to learn the fundamental skills of the industry, whether these are in front office, food and beverage, housekeeping, kitchen or other areas of hospitality. This study showed that much of the training in the industry was on-the-job training. On-the-job training can serve an important role in providing occupational socialization for the individual. However, implications for the industry in terms of inadequate transmission of knowledge and skills, inconsistencies in standards, and communication of bad habits have been noted earlier. Also, through on-the-job-training, staff is often not provided with the competence and confidence to solve problems and issues relating to customers. Hence, the true essence of hospitality and delivery of quality service can be lost in on-the-job training. Already the

WTTC (2002) promotes the need for an increase in broad-based training to develop a diversity of skills.

The researcher recommends that the industry fosters positive and collaborative partnerships between hotels, within hotel companies, or with institutions such as TAFE to set quality standards to be completed by individuals at all levels of the hospitality workforce, not just those seeking certification for promotion. For example, the industry can devise workbooks for the different jobs, i.e. front office, and food & beverage. These workbooks can address various aspects of the job and, in particular, customer service. Individuals are provided with work time to complete these workbooks, and are given opportunities to demonstrate and be assessed on their competencies. On completion, individuals are provided with certification to acknowledge their achievements. Most organisations conduct performance appraisals on an annual or biannual basis. The certification programmes can form part of the appraisal process. For individuals such a programme would provide them with portable recognition of their accomplishments while working in the industry.

The certification programmes can be adopted or developed and refined by individual hotel companies to meet their organisational philosophies, especially those organisations like the Ritz-Carlton who are seeking delivery of exceptional service. In either case, such an approach will enable all hospitality workers to become and be recognized as professionals in the hospitality industry, a factor that is currently lacking. In an interview, Leornardo Inghilleri, the Ritz-Carlton Hotel Senior Vice President, was noted as saying:

> In this industry, you're either professional or you're a servant. Making beds and cleaning toilets and service meals are professions if they're done with pride. We don't create servants. We create professional employees who have the desire to provide exceptional customer service, and who want to be part of our company. (Hays, 1999, p. 100)

Hospitality workers provide a valuable service to a large sector of the economy, especially with the emerging experience economy (Pine & Gilmore, 1999) as noted in Chapter 1. Often their efforts go unrecognized. Granted it is up to the industry to provide greater recognition for those who are at the frontline. Also, hotel companies can do much to improve the professional standing for employees working at all levels

in the industry. Managers, however, are in positions to ensure that recognition is awarded to their employees. The following section discusses some of the implications for managers.

12.7 Implications for Hotel Managers

In service industries, frontline employees play a critical role in the delivery of service. Customers also play a central role because of their access and involvement in the service encounter. For hospitality managers, this customer/staff interaction can present significant challenges. Frontline employees invariably have a margin of independence in dealing with customers. Supervisors and managers cannot monitor every service encounter. This margin of independence can result in differing levels of service delivery and is dependent on contact employees' ability to 'read' customers, i.e. identify customer needs, so they can better serve customers by meeting their unique needs and expectations. This study has argued that innate service predispositions of frontline employees can have a profound influence on their behaviour in the workplace, especially at the customer/service provider interface. Service predispositions are indicators or predictors of individuals' attitudes in the workplace and more importantly, of the actions, mannerisms and responses of frontline personnel in the service encounter. However, the occupational behaviour of service personnel may be shaped and constrained by more powerful factors than even service predispositions. That is, although there is a coherent and consistent relationship between service predispositions and workplace behaviour, factors such as customers' characteristics, actions and reactions can have a marked impact on the responses generated from frontline personnel. Also, variables such as occupational hospitality culture can alter or customize workplace behaviour. Hence, while service predispositions are predictors of employees' potential for delivery of quality service, their potency depends on the presence of a wide range of other elements. For service managers, these factors have a number of implications regarding managers' understanding and coordinating practices and strategies of human resources and operations. Managers can use a number of tools to regulate service standards and enhance service delivery, such as recruitment policies, training, and incentive schemes.

In the Human Resources Task Force Report, the WTTC (2002) identified six priority areas for this labour-intensive industry:

- Attraction and retention of staff
- Education and training
- Leadership and management development
- The future role of HR and the impact of e-HR
- Gender and racial prejudice
- Raising awareness of the importance of Travel & Tourism as a creator of employment

The first three of these are seen as being highly pertinent to this study. These and other issues and possibilities are discussed in the next section.

12.7.1 Recruitment & Selection

In an industry with predominantly low barriers to entry, this means that service predispositions of hospitality workers can be markedly variable and not always of a standard that is suitable to the industry or organisation. Some applicants will simply have service predispositions better suited for delivery of quality hospitality service. A focus on employee service predispositions implies a greater emphasis on recruiting techniques. Personal interviews, especially if they include scenarios or role-playing, can allow managers to observe the applicants' ability to handle various situations. Psychometric tests and attitudinal questionnaires, such as the SPI, enable managers to gain a deeper insight into the attitudes and abilities of employees to deliver hospitality service in the absence of supervision. It is recommended that managers use the SPI as part of their selection process to identify individuals with the most suitable attitudes for the position they are filling. Mangers can also develop a historical database of appropriate benchmarks for respective positions and use these benchmarks to match prospective employees with positions.

Further, this study showed that deference was a critical dimension for the industry as a whole. It was concluded that deference indicated individuals' tendency to be hospitable and as hospitality is the core of hospitality culture, deference is an important factor.

Managers in their particular environments would decide which SPM dimensions are most significant for their organisation and select prospective employees accordingly.

12.7.2 Recognition & Rewards

Hotel work is not easy. Further, frontline roles place a heavy burden on contact employees to tailor services the organisation offers and the way in which those service are delivered in real-time and in front of the customer. In addition, the emotional labour of hospitality work is often overlooked. Therefore, managers' recognition of quality performance by frontline employees is important. There needs to be a greater emphasis on nurturing, recognizing and rewarding employees' attitudes and behaviours consistent with the delivery of quality service. Managers must provide appropriate rewards in terms of compensation and benefits and/or in terms of praise and recognition. As comments in the ethnographic study showed, this could be as simple as recognition of a job well done or as involved as providing promotional opportunities.

12.7.3 Training

Training, as with recognition and rewards, is essential for enhancing employee proficiency at service delivery. A culture that promotes effective staff management through such factors as training, rewards, and recognition is the backbone of quality service delivery. Such a culture, which permeates the organisation and its structure and communicates such values to every role and function, has clear implications for everyone within the organisation. Training and staff development which builds employee abilities, aptitudes and attitudes can give workers added confidence in delivery of quality service, improve morale, and foster camaraderie. Additionally, training staff to the same guiding principles and shared values provides consistency in standards of service delivery. Training is one aspect of creating an environment that supports a hospitality philosophy amongst all staff.

Investing in staff through training and skills development is an ongoing process where staff continually learns new skills. Staff development is critical for any business wanting to remain competitive. Staff can add value to an organisation and training opportunities can act as a powerful force in attracting and retaining employees, especially those who are looking for a challenge at work and the potential to improve themselves. This means

that organisations need to provide an environment where staff feel inspired, stay interested and are productive.

In the hospitality industry, training includes developing and inculcating the hospitality values, giving employees' autonomy, and encouraging employees to develop service strategies in dealing with all sorts of customers, e.g. those from different backgrounds, and inebriated customers, without confrontation or argument.

In chapter 1 it was noted that much of the training in hospitality is on-the-job training (Cullen, 1997; Powers, 1995). One of the advantages of this approach is that employees learn in real life situations. Also, this approach works well if a more experienced employee is involved in training a new employee. One of the dangers with this method, however, is that bad habits may be conveyed, quality not articulated, and appropriate skills not learnt. Cullen (1997) notes that the most skilled and experienced person in a particular job is not necessarily the most suitable person to train others. He notes that "To have knowledge is one thing, to be able to impart it is quite another" (p. 199). Nonetheless, if the new employee's training is planned and purposeful, there is no reason why it cannot be delegated to more experienced staff. The diligent supervisor then regularly checks on the new employee to monitor and record progress.

Training is necessary to ensure an adequate supply of staff that is technically and socially competent. Gray and Liguori (1994, p. 52) state, "Training, (is) a must for all hotel employees". Further, they make a special note of the fact that for frontline employees training is not only about learning the functions, duties and responsibilities of one's position, it also incorporates knowing how to interact with customers. Through training it is possible to enhance staff knowledge and skills and develop attitudes. Training provides staff with the understanding and know-how in practicing empowerment, problem solving, decision-making, teamwork, and responsibility in delivery of quality service. The literature resonates with the many potential benefits of training, both to the individual and the organisation. Mullins (1995, p. 197) highlights its importance to "morale, job satisfaction and commitment to staff, and in improved delivery of service and customer relationships". For the organisation these benefits are translated into greater economic performance. It is said that in hospitality, "Training, then, is a constant, never-ending function, that shows the employees not only what to do and how to do it, but also what to say and how to say it" (Gray & Liguori, 1994, p. 66). Employees should be

trained in how to 'read' customers and recognize important cues from customers that allow employees to identify customers' needs and wants and how best to satisfy customers. Training sessions should explore various behavioural strategies that employees can use in dealing with different customers and situations.

Many tasks within the hospitality industry are repetitive and boring but training can be used as an incentive to motivate staff. There is little job satisfaction in polishing cutlery or setting tables for the umpteenth time this week but if the food and beverage attendant is given the opportunity to make cocktails, learn cashiering or cross-train in front office, s/he will be encouraged to do their job well. Further incentives exist in the many opportunities for challenging work, careers development, and travel. Through the right training and experience the result could be a professional, highly skilled individual with a wide range of knowledge and talents. As mentioned in Chapter 1, there appears to be a perception that hotel work is "dull and low-skilled" (Ogbonna & Harris, 2002, p. 38). Cullen (1997, p. 197) points out that "The breakfast cook may not know that executive chefs are among the highest-paid professionals in the country" or that "The school leaver who takes a job as a kitchen porter could, one day, become a top-flight restaurant manager".

This study has shown that in industry there is minimal attention paid to the relevance and rewards of training. Managers can benefit from realizing that staff is an expensive and valuable resource and training can optimize the contribution staff makes to improve organisational effectiveness and its economic and competitive performance. Also managers should heed recommendations from the WTTC (2002, p. 8) on how to attract and retain staff, "Career paths should be clearly defined at all levels … so that potential recruits know in advance how far they can progress through training and education". Further, managers can utilize the occupational hospitality culture, a distinctive and firmly established culture that is based on well developed group norms and values, to build and instill hospitality values. A cultural reform may be necessary with the development, adoption and promotion of organisational values and practices to match service quality principles and philosophies. Promotion of a service culture that fosters service quality values and objectives becomes a paramount exercise for organisations wanting to remain competitive. Hence it is suggested that hospitality organisations promote an OC that fosters life-long training.

12.7.4 A Hospitality Service Culture

This study echoes the importance of employees in the delivery of quality service. In the hospitality industry, in particular, there is a great emphasis on the interaction between people involved in the service encounter. While employees' attitudes and behaviour are important, the influence of OC cannot go unnoticed. More importantly, this study has found that the presence of a pan occupational hospitality culture needs to be acknowledged by hospitality managers. Some commentators note that the development of strong cultures can increase productivity and efficiency by internalizing employees to become attached to corporate values (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Legge (1995) comments that strong cultures act as the 'moral glue', which holds the different functional areas of the organisation together. Hence, hospitality managers need to align the rhetoric of a service quality culture with the workplace realities experienced by employees.

It is argued that if hospitality organisations are to use delivery of quality service to their advantage, they need to promote a service strategy. The service strategy is the formal organisational link that defines requirements for delivery of quality service. It delineates service management. Albrecht (1988, p. 20) defines service management as "a total organisational approach that makes quality of service, as perceived by the customer, the number one driving force for the operation of the business". This reverberates the core ideas of total quality management (TQM) philosophies. Kandampully (2003) points out that TQM in service industries is characterized by a focus on quality, teamwork, empowerment, shared vision, leadership, and education and training. It is now widely recognized that effectively managing service and delivering high quality services is the most successful way by which an organisation can provide a distinctive product and gain competitive advantage (e.g. Parasuraman *et al.*, 1991; Kandampully, 2003; Mullins, 1995). Many researchers have shown that superior quality contributes to a strategic advantage in the market place (e.g. Gronroos, 1984; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Hence, developing and promoting strong service strategies that reflect this new era of service management are a priority in any hospitality organisation.

One of the earliest models of service quality was that presented by Sasser, Olsen and Wycoff (1978) who proposed three dimensions of service quality: materials, facilities and personnel. Other authors have proposed that service quality is multifactorial (e.g. Cronin, 2001; Gronroos, 1982; Parasuraman *et al.*, 1982, 1988; Rust and Oliver, 1994). The focus of a hospitality organisation that uses service management is different to traditional hospitality organisations. This modern organisation is structured such that it supports front-line employees and provides the necessary resources for them to effectively deliver quality service. Also, decision-making is decentralized such that employees are empowered to take action necessary to satisfy customers. For example, if a waiter has a disgruntled customer in the restaurant, they have the authority to do what is necessary to solve the problem. This could include discounting the meal or offering a free meal.

In the new approach to service management, supervisors and managers encourage and support employees. The nature of services impedes standardization of service processes and procedures because the human element in the delivery of service makes it difficult to maintain consistency in service delivery, for supervisors and managers to monitor the quality of service, and to control and measure the performance of employees. Further, each customer is different and requires flexibility for employees to be able to meet the particular needs of each customer. Hence, supervisors and managers need to be flexible, to be facilitators rather than controllers, and leaders rather than managers. Employees, on the other hand, need to be greater participants in the creation of the customers' experiences. They need to take ownership for their actions and involvement in the delivery of quality service. An organisation with strong service strategies can facilitate the new approach to service management and such strategies are derived and promoted through the OC. The existence of a service culture enhances service management and can go a long way in nurturing the ability of employees to deliver quality service and provide customer satisfaction. A hospitality service culture goes one step further and utilizes the core assumption of hospitality as its guiding philosophy.

The conclusion reached in this study that OC can influence individuals' predispositions in providing quality service indicates to management that they can achieve a strong alignment between individual employees and a service quality strategy. They can achieve this by emphasizing shared norms, values and objectives that nurture service quality and hospitality, and distilling these through the occupational hospitality culture. The results

indicate that greater use can be made of the internal culture found in hotels. With little significant difference found in the overall cultures of individual hotels, the results suggest that internal cultures are weak and managers need to work on developing these. For the hospitality industry as a whole it would be beneficial if managers can align their internal cultures with the occupational hospitality culture to develop consistent quality standards across the board.

Alternatively, hospitality managers can use the occupational hospitality culture to their advantage in promoting a service quality strategy. The literature accentuates changing the corporate culture in a top down manner (Robbins, 2001; Smircich, 1983). The researcher suggests that managers need to take a more serious approach to quality in service delivery and to internalizing a service quality culture. As the ethnographic study showed the nature of the hospitality industry in Cairns is such that workers move from one organisation to another. It is envisaged that managers can play a vital role in proliferation of a quality hospitality service culture. Managers can plant the seeds of the service quality culture in one organisation by creating environments that are caring, supportive and nurturing of the desire to provide exceptional service. As workers move from that organisation to another, the service quality culture will move with the occupational hospitality culture and begin to take root, be cultivated and proliferate. In this way if hospitality managers become less tolerant of such service attitudes as “near enough is way too much”, greater quality of service will be achieved. The service quality culture can be communicated to workers through performance appraisal systems, briefing sessions, training and, induction programs. It can also be linked to recruitment and selection strategies. For example, the use of an instrument such as the SPI provides managers with an efficient, effective and affordable means of assessing prospective employees’ predispositions to delivery of quality service. Creating an environment where staff shares similar philosophies and principles of delivery of hospitality services would make it easier for employees to realize quality service.

Also, managers should not overlook the fact that the core assumption of most hospitality workers is the hospitality culture, i.e. the notion of being hospitable, the core of hospitality values. For managers this suggests that if occupational hospitality culture is service quality oriented, the Level 3 components from Figure 12.1 (values, customer orientation and organisational philosophies) will engender this approach to service

deliver. Such values and basic assumptions will then permeate Level 2 and finally filter to Level 1 where it is apparent in the artifacts. This lends support for the idea that managers should nurture a service culture and employee individuals who envelope hospitality in the processes of their work.

In Chapter 3 it was noted that Schneider, Gunnarson and Niles-Jolly (1994) recognise that service industries are different and management of the service process can be elusive, "... in the absence of direct control of the service encounter, it is the climate and culture that determine high quality service" (p. 23). It has been said that, in some ways culture becomes a substitute for management and leadership in the hospitality industry (Kerr and Jermier, 1978). Schneider and Bowen (1993) point out that those organisations, like Four Seasons Hotels and the like, which have implemented employee-centred human resource management practices recognise the uniqueness of the hospitality industry and that such a move provides them with a competitive advantage over other less successful competitors.

However, Schneider and Bowen (1993) emphasise that a generic set of human resource management practices will not automatically lead to positive customer perceptions of service quality. The set of practices need to be designed to match the organisational setting and the customers' expectations of service quality. For example, the degree of empowerment may be varied according to the organisation. This variation could be in line with the resources available, skill of the staff, availability of training and other such factors. Similarly, selection of employees who lack the necessary skills and attitudes may be considered on the proviso that training and skills development is provided.

Traditionally, hospitality organisations have not effectively managed service (Anderson *et al.*, 2001; Mullins, 1995). With the increased emphasis on quality within service industries, including hospitality organisations, there has been an increased focus on the need to affectively manage service and the delivery of high quality products. As this refocusing occurs and service management strategies are being developed and implemented, it is being realised that for these strategies to be effective and successful, they need to be accompanied by an OC that engenders delivery of quality service (e.g. Mullins, 1995; Schneider & Bowen, 1993). This would incorporate practices such as:

- Selecting individuals who are willing and able to deliver excellent service, i.e. those who have appropriate service predispositions;
- Training employees on aspects of service provision,
- Rewarding employees for providing quality service, and
- Providing equipment, technology and procedures to facilitate service delivery
- Designing customer-friendly service systems;
- Understanding customers' wants, needs and expectations;
- Developing and communicating a service strategy that defines excellent service and the process of delivery

Such a holistic approach would lead ultimately to an organisation which has well-trained, service-oriented personnel who have the resources and management support to delivery quality hospitality service.

Organisations, like the Ritz Carlton, who pursue a high level of service quality, seem to have an in depth understanding of the influence of OC on the provision of service. The Ritz Carlton, in particular, details to its staff the routines they are to follow while simultaneously making every employee feel as though they are a valued member of the organisation (Partlow, 1993). In this study, role ambiguity was one of the OC dimensions and it was found that it was one of the higher scoring OC dimensions (5.38 in Figure 9.1) indicating that there were some serious concerns amongst hospitality workers about their roles. This was confirmed in the ethnographic study where employees expressed ambivalence about the level of authority their positions carried. These results suggest that a service quality culture needs to provide employees with clear roles and responsibilities and acceptable standards of performance. It should delineate unambiguous instructions and provide suitable information for employees to effectively complete tasks. Training can further clarify and emphasise staff roles by providing employees with appropriate ways of dealing with their situations in their workplaces. In this way, practices then become grained into the culture and culture can be used to dictate acceptable behaviour, establish how work is done and ways to address problems.

In summary, it can be seen that there are profound and serious implications for the hospitality industry in relation to the influence of OC on the provision of services. For managers and supervisors, this means that an understanding of the OC of their

organisation is vital to the improved and satisfactory delivery of quality service. It highlights problem areas and provides insight into the implementation of appropriate strategies that enhance employee attitudes and satisfaction.

Developing a hospitality service culture is not just about procedures, systems and functions. It is contingent on the employees who implement that culture. For front-line employees this is especially the case as they are the principal connection between the organisation and customers. Managers, hence, need to be mindful of the role employees play in the delivery of service and focus on gaining the support of front-line employees in successfully promoting a service culture. A practical implication of this would be to make greater use of incentives and rewards, open communication, empowerment to increase employees' sense of ownership, involvement and being a valued member of the organisation. Further, management can use those employees who are likely to support the service culture as advocates. Creating a hospitality service culture is concerned with the long-term generation of values, attitudes and behaviour that reflect a genuine concern for providing hospitality service. However, the creation of a service quality culture will require the building of a flexible workplace in which quality performance is recognized and rewarded. In this more flexible workplace employees will be empowered to increase efficiency of service delivery and improve customer satisfaction. The use of such approaches signals the determination and leadership of hospitality managers to create and promote a new service quality culture.

12.7.5 Leadership

This study has shown that the role of supervisors and managers has enormous impacts on individuals' attitudes and behaviour in the workplace. This study found that care and concern as shown by managers toward employees was one of the lowest rating OC dimensions (Figure 9.1). These results were confirmed in the ethnographic study and individuals expressed that they like their supervisors and managers to be supportive, approachable, and considerate; consult them as frontline workers in work-related matters; and, recognize their contributions. Employees valued being given greater autonomy and responsibility in decision-making.

This suggests that supervisors and managers can contribute to the delivery of quality service in a number of ways: provide supervisory support; be reliable and caring about

their staff; encourage staff to participate in the planning & decision-making; provide opportunities for employees to improve their skills (training); and, incorporate jobs that have variety & security. Front-line managers are primarily concerned with achieving day-to-day operational objectives, such as labour productivity. They are interested in how employees facilitate or hinder these objectives.

Mars *et al.* (1979) state that characteristics of the unique nature of hospitality work collectively determine organisational structure and design influence managerial policies, procedures and behaviour, and impact on behaviour of staff and employee relations. However, while the underlying purpose of hospitality organisations is to provide service and hospitality, there is consensus that they have not always effectively managed the delivery of service (e.g. Anderson *et al.*, 2001; Mulllins, 1995). Lashley (1996) comments, that traditional structures and management principles foster feelings of disempowerment among employees in many hospitality organisations.

For managers the results from this study suggest that a more skilled workforce includes more skilled leadership. Managers can encourage employees to work smarter, especially middle managers who are in direct daily involvement in practices and processes. These managers play a key role in disseminating and maintaining the organisations' principles, values and standards. Managers must trust and empower staff so that staff can respond quickly and effectively to customers' needs. Additionally, managers must foster a positive working relationship with their staff and be fair and just in their treatment of employees. Activities relating to rewards and promotions should be transparent and equitable, recognizing team-member interactions and individual contributions. Here communication also becomes a matter of concern and managers need ensure that communication is two-way. Discussions foster commitment and alignment with shared cultural valued. By giving employees a voice and listening to them, employees will become engaged in ways that matter to them and if they can be made to feel that they are making valuable contributions, not only will there be increased support employees give to one another but also to management and the organisation. Skilled leadership, which is aware of relationships, their mechanisms and their effect on day-to-day job performance, can develop these to the benefit of the organisation. The hospitality industry is about people and management can play a critical role in getting work done effectively through people. As the WTTC (2002, pp. 9-10) noted, "managers … have to be flexible, highly

skilled, innovative and self-motivated. Most importantly … leadership is more about leading other people than about managing business process".

12.7.6 Empowerment

By trusting in their people, employers need to be prepared to empower them. It is good to set standards and procedures that detail service expectations and if an organisation has them they should be using them. Nonetheless, such standards and procedures should allow for employee flexibility and empowerment. Much has been written about empowerment in recent years. The literature is littered with examples such as the Ritz-Carlton who place considerable effort in empowering their staff. According to Cannon (in Kandampully, 2002) states that every employee at the Ritz-Carlton is allowed US$2000 to boost guest service. Often empowerment is associated with employees making customers a peace offering when customers complain, e.g. receptionist upgrading dissatisfied guests to another room or a food and beverage attendant not charging disgruntled customers for drinks. Cannon (in Kandampully, 2002) says that empowerment is much more than these modifications to appease unhappy customers. It is about "building customer loyalty and employee commitment to the organisation, empowerment should be proactive and should embrace countless other employee actions" Cannon (in Kandampully, 2002, p. 255). That is, empowerment means that a food and beverage attendant can give a handful of mint chocolates to a table of customers with whom he or she has experienced a wonderful service encounter without attracting a reprimand from the supervisor.

Empowerment has been described as "the process of gaining influence over events and outcomes of importance to an individual or group" (Fawcett *et al.*, 1994). Similarly, it can be said that empowerment is a means of augmenting individuals' control over the service encounter. The literature suggests that for empowerment initiatives to be successful, attention needs to be paid to ecological or contextual elements (e.g. Maton & Salem, 1995; Rich, Edelstein, Hallman & Wandersman, 1995). This means that individual characteristics can play an important role in the empowerment process. This study showed that the nature of hospitality was at the core of hospitality culture and through deference drove the delivery of quality service. Through this innate sense of providing hospitality it would seem that hospitality workers are ideally aligned to be

empowered. That is, hospitality workers know what is required to provide service experiences that build customer loyalty.

Foster-Fishman and Keys (1997) stress that individual capacity and desire for empowerment and the interaction of this ecological dimension with the environment are critical factors in promoting empowerment. Maton and Salem argue that successful empowerment depends on individual desires' matching organisational supports and opportunities for control. Rich *et al.* (1995) add that the person-environment interaction needs to be considered if empowerment is to be a positive experience for employees. Foster-Fishman and Keys (1997) support this view and examined the critical preconditions required for employee empowerment and concluded that factors relating to control/power and trust/inclusion. For example, if power differences are great and fostered by the OC through such elements as role prescriptions, individuals or groups will remain disempowered. In this study, especially in the ethnographic part, a strong element that recurred in the recounts was that employees felt that their role prescriptions accentuated the power and control given to supervisors and managers. Employees had little say in the day-to-day activities of the firm.

Foster-Fishman and Keys (1997) also found that individual desire played a critical role in the empowerment process. For example, they reported that individuals "desired more influence and control within their own job domain" and were content with their larger role in the organisational context (p. 353). This was not always the case in the ethnographic part of this research. Some employees stated that they were happy with the level of authority they had. These factors suggest that employee desire should be considered when assessing empowerment initiatives and that managers should be cautious in their empowerment of staff. Principally, managers should empower those that want to be empowered, and progressively train those that are not comfortable with empowerment to a level where they are comfortable. Managers should design service systems that provide opportunities for flexibility and create an environment that offers employees more autonomy and is conducive to employees being able to customize service delivery at the frontline. Managers ought to promote flexibility and self-management through empowerment of employees to a level and in a way that best suits their individual skills and abilities.

Undoubtedly, “the path to empowerment is one which requires significant commitment and investment” (Chernish, 2001, p. 235) but managers need to be more proactive in their endorsement and practice of employee empowerment. Empowerment of frontline hospitality workers can motivate employees, increase quality of customer service and provide organisations with a competitive advantage. It enables staff to respond more quickly to customers’ requests, queries or problems. Empowerment has been known to improve employee morale and decrease turnover (Chernish, 2001); to increase productivity (Kandampully, 2002); and, to increase employee self-esteem, confidence and job satisfaction (Kandampully, 2002). It concerns customization of service and as such, is one of the keys to the service quality culture. As can be seen there are many benefits to be had from empowering employees and managers should use empowerment practices to capture and utilize individuals’ talents and creativity.

12.8 Limitations of this study

The research design adopted in this study was dictated largely by resource constraints, and so a convenient sample from a discrete population was chosen. Unfortunately there are difficulties faced by researchers intruding into the daily operations of hospitality organisations and imposing on respondents. In hotels, respondents lead busy working lives and have limited interest in filling in questionnaires or answering questions, even when pushed by management. Hence, the sample of respondents chosen was based on a convenient sample. First, the sample was restricted by the hotels that agreed to participate and second, by those employees within those hotels who were interested in cooperating and willing to part with information. For the ethnographic study, in particular, this meant making use of the situations as they arose to allow employees to verbalise their perceptions. Furthermore, the researcher was limited by the place of residence and availability of participants. Hence, while the data derived from the triangulation of methods has added richness and depth to the findings, it is desirable to extend the study to other hotels and other regions. Use of skilled and trained interviewers to collect the data would make this possible. Further this would allow comparative studies to be undertaken and provide information on how representative the data gained is of the hotel industry at large, i.e. outside of Cairns.

Another limitation of this study is that the data is subjective. While triangulation of measures was used to reduce subjectivity, respondent bias is of concern, especially for

questions concerning behaviour of other individuals, e.g. supervisors or managers, which may be tainted with unsubstantiated pejorative connotations. If the OC is fostering such feelings and groupthink is active it is possible that responses are skewed. A longitudinal study providing a cross-section of perspectives over time could identify such issues.

Further, a longitudinal study could be of benefit in other ways. This survey used a convenient sample. Consequently, while causal relationships can be inferred, they cannot be strictly established and as being indicative of the larger population. A longitudinal research design with before and after measurements and with controls would be necessary to test causality.

While the particular methodological approaches taken in this study adequately demonstrate their usefulness in achieving the research goals, there were some limitations. For example, researcher and rater effects could bias some results. As much as the researcher remained objective throughout data collection and interviews, the researcher's interpretation of what individuals were saying in the ethnographic part of this study and the researcher's perception of how they fitted into the OC dimensions defined in this study was a subjective process. However, the researcher remains confident that by having a thorough understanding of the various OC dimensions and what they were explicating the researcher was in an appropriate position to best judge which OC dimensions particular responses could be attached to.

A further limitation can be noted in relation to the OC instrument used in this study. The factor analyses of the quantitative data revealed that the OC variables developed and measured in this study might need some further investigation. Although each factor generally maintained its original character, some constructs demonstrated low factor loadings suggesting that these dimensions may not be stable. The tenuous nature of these findings indicates that careful reevaluation of the OC questionnaire as presented here is required if the applicability of the OC questionnaire to hotel workers is to be validated and additional confidence is to be placed upon its utility in other service industries.

Another limitation concerns the OC instrument used in this study. This was a fairly lengthy questionnaire and it is possible that in some respondents its could have created a boredom syndrome where they go through the questionnaire marking whatever answer they feel like without giving much thought to the answer they are providing.

Hopefully, encouraging respondents to write the response numbers rather than tick or circle alternatives would have minimized such behaviour.
While the results from this study cannot be generalized and further research is needed, the results are nonetheless important as they present opportunities for future research. This is discussed in the next section.

12.9 Recommendations for Future Research

While the link between the service predispositions and the variables of OC under the conditions of the present study was supported, it is unwise to draw conclusions about causality. Further case studies and longitudinal tracking would be some of the complimentary approaches to be considered in future research. Future research could also look at examining the influence of OC on employees' service predispositions in other work settings, such as tourism companies (e.g. Quicksilver, Wild World, etc), hospitals, retail, and police forces or in other regions, such as Sydney, Melbourne or overseas.

While the results reported here provide some validation of the conceptualization of service predispositions and OC, it would not be prudent to consider them as conclusive. More research is needed to broaden the sample before generalizations can be made. It would be informative to replicate the conceptual Model of Hospitality Culture proposed here in hotels from different regions and in other service domains (e.g. retail, community services, health). Such research could lead to a contingency framework by validating the relationship between service predispositions and OC and provide further guidelines for managers.

The outcomes of this study strongly indicate that future studies, which incorporate measures of service predispositions and OC, can provide further evidence of the presence, strength and nature of the occupational hospitality culture. In particular, such research may identify the elements of a healthy work environment in which a quality service culture predominates.

This project revealed a number of characteristics of the organisational hospitality culture, which are positive with regard to promotion of a quality service culture. One aspect of OC that should be examined more fully is training and empowerment. Changes within hospitality that serve to increase the focus of organisations on standard formal training

can serve to increase consistency in service delivery across hospitality organisations and, more importantly, the nurturing of hospitality as a fundamental value in delivery of quality service. Empowerment can play a critical role in capturing and utilizing individuals' talents and creativity in providing a quality experience for both customers and employees. Hence a focused study which examines the levels and type of training and empowerment within an organisation and individuals' satisfaction with service delivery could prove quite useful for managers in developing service strategies that guide and facilitate delivery of quality hospitality service.

As noted in Chapter 10 and the Model of Hospitality Culture, other factors aside of service predispositions and OC influenced service predispositions. In particular, it was suggested that demographic variables might be impacting on individuals' satisfaction with service delivered. Future endeavours should concentrate on the relationship between OC and other 'demographic' variables such as enjoyment hospitality, training, tenure, intentions to stay in hospitality and educational level.

Similarly, other critical perspectives that could compliment this current study by providing additional views on employees' attitudes toward service delivery can include such alternative approaches as personality and motivational studies. Generally, parsimony is a desired characteristic of research investigations. The findings from the multiple regression analyses indicate that this study may have excluded some important antecedents and consequents of the variables measured in this study. Organisational culture is a complex construct that consists of many factors. To assess all aspects of OC is difficult given constraints such as length of survey, respondents' willingness to participate, and time available to conduct the research. Further, it is possible that some factors such as organisational commitment, motivation and personality should have been also considered as influential factors affecting workers' service predispositions. Such factors could illuminate other individual attributes and how they impact on workplace behaviour and individuals' delivery of hospitality services. Comparison with simultaneous attitudinal studies constitutes a very useful area of future research.

This study used an OC questionnaire, which was administered for the first time. While its reliability and validity were assessed in this study and found to be robust, it is

recommended that future research examine further the reliability and validity of this instrument.

By examining workers' attitudes and OC and specifically in a service context, this research has contributed to the fields of organisational behaviour and hospitality management. In particular, this study extends knowledge and research on employees' impact on service provision. To further increase our understanding and knowledge of service and service quality, future research should continue to examine the attitudinal and behavioural responses of service employees and the organisational environment within which they work. In conclusion, while this study has provided an interesting and valuable insight into employees' perceptions of hospitality culture, further research could clarify this scantily understood issue. This study has provided a starting point upon which continued research can build on.

12.10 A Final Note

The management of service quality is an issue that has emerged as a management function in recent years. This study has attempted to explore the phenomena of service provision from the perspective of the hotel workers' potential to deliver quality service and the relationship between employees' service predispositions and OC. An examination of the nature of hospitality work emphasized the difficulty providers may have in the delivery of quality service. The key role played by frontline service personnel was highlighted as a critical factor in the process. Also, the impact of OC on staff attitudes and, thus their willingness and capability to deliver service quality, cannot go unnoticed. Hence, it is argued that the impact of OC on individuals' service predispositions accentuates the need for the development of an OC that promotes hospitality in all aspects of its management practices.

This study has provided a conceptual framework for understanding the individual, the organisation and their significance in the service delivery process. This framework extends the analysis of the service delivery process beyond the issue of customer satisfaction (Parasuraman *et al.*, 1985) and employees' service orientation (Hogan *et al.*, 1985). It also broadens the singular emphasis on employees' attitudes (Larsen &

Bastiensen, 1991; Lee-Ross, 1999, 2000) and OC (e.g. Kemp & Dwyer, 2001; Vallen, 1993).

This study draws all these factors together and expands them by examining and assessing three useful questions:

- What are the service predispositions of employees within the hotel industry?
- What is the nature and characteristics of OC within hotels?
- What is the influence of OC on the service predispositions of hotel workers?

In addressing these questions it has been possible to gain some insight into the individual service predispositions required for delivery of quality service, the OC of hotels and the influence of OC on individuals' service predispositions.

The behaviour of people at work is dependent on a number of variables, for example, the nature of tasks, interactions among people, methods of carrying out the work, patterns of organisational structure, and the process of management (Mullins, 1995). The individual's skills, knowledge, attributes, personality, attitudes, values, needs and expectations can also influence work performance. This study has presented an insight into organisational behaviour within the hotel industry. It has provided information relating to employees' attitudes and OC that is of use to hotel managers. The study used a combination of research methods and has presented instruments useful for managers to assess individuals and the work environment.

The work environment can also influence work performance. Factors such as the structure and functioning of work groups, organisational structure and process, and management patterns can affect employee attitudes and behaviour. The OC instrument used in this study can be of value to managers wanting to gain an understanding of the culture in the workplace. Managers can use the results from such surveys to develop strategies to improve the workplace culture and the quality of hospitality services.

Further, this study broadened our understanding of service at various levels of conceptualization. The stories of life as a hotel worker portrayed and substantiated the

finding that individual and organisational characteristics and their dynamism create and sustain an ecology that either promotes or squelches delivery of quality service.

Early in the thesis, it was noted that OC refers to a shared system of meaning (Smircich, 1983) that directs individuals beliefs, thoughts, perceptions and feelings and so, influences their behaviour (Schein, 1985). It can be described as the traditions that 'live in' or brought to life by individuals and are guided by the organisational values and practices that sustain those traditions. Hence, OC provides an excellent framework for understanding and assessing the suitability of individuals to the delivery of quality service. It provides opportunities to consider individual attitudes and employee behaviour within the context of an organisational ecology. In conclusion, this study found that within the complexity of organisational life, it was not any of the organisational characteristics in isolation that influenced employees' predispositions to delivery of service quality. Rather, it was their interaction that impacted on employees' delivery of service. In concert, individuals' service predispositions and components of OC create an organisational ecology that determines the quality of the service delivery. This was apparent in the relationships described by the Model of Hospitality Culture. Hence, it is suggested that managers and organisations adopt an ecological view of service delivery and that consideration be given to individuals' service predispositions, elements of OC and the interaction of the two. The cultural framework has clearly demonstrated that favourable conditions for delivery of quality service require employee attitudes and behaviours and organisational values and practices consistent with a service quality philosophy. Through their interaction these factors create or fail to create an environment capable of promoting the delivery of quality service.

In conclusion, it can be said that OC in hospitality is an entity that can be measured and influenced by the application of good management practices. The hospitality industry as a whole and hotel companies more specifically are becoming more aware of the need to understand and value their employees and the culture generated by their organisations because of its influence on employees' attitudes and ultimately customer satisfaction. While there are obvious advantages in understanding the elements of employees' attitudes and of OC, it is the transposition of that understanding to management practices that is of significance. Management practices impact strongly on day-to-day activities and operations within hospitality organisations. The affect of managerial actions on

employees' performance and on OC is well documented in the literature. It is also established that employees' attitudes can have pronounced positive and negative affects on organisations and their performances. The ramifications for the hospitality industry are clear. Employees' attitudes and OC are fundamental factors in the provision of high quality services. Therefore, it is paramount that management continually monitors employees' attitudes and their perceptions of the culture of the organisation. More importantly, it is essential that management pursue high quality leadership practices and service strategies.

The principal conclusion of this study is that occupational hospitality culture should be perceived as a powerful force in any hospitality organisation. Hospitality is a unique way of thinking and it represents a paradigm shift in terms of traditional human resources and management practices. Hospitality requires employee autonomy and empowerment, supportive leadership, and collaborative team spirit. This calls for clear role descriptions, unambiguous instructions, sufficient resources and suitable information to effectively complete tasks. Two-way communication channels that encourage employee involvement and value frontline staff are also important. The challenge for hospitality managers is to select suitable employees, provide training and skills development, recognize and reward employee achievements and nurture a service culture that facilitates delivery of quality hospitality service. By understanding individuals' service predispositions, organisational hospitality culture and the overarching occupational hospitality culture, managers can create a workplace environment that reflects the very nature and spirit of hospitality.

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