

CUSTOMER SERVICE ORIENTATION AND SERVICE BEHAVIOR

A Dissertation

Presented to

The Faculty of the Department

of Psychology

University of Houston

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

By

Laura C. Joiner

December, 2016

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ABSTRACT

Organizations that demonstrate concern for customers and are effective in meeting their needs promote greater loyalty from both internal and external constituents. I proposed and tested a psychological process in which perceptions of organizational support (POS) affects employee extra-role behavior through perceptions of the organization's customer centricity. I also assessed goal alignment (i.e., goal priority congruence) as a boundary condition of this model, where the proposed effects were expected to mostly hold among employees experiencing low goal congruence with members of their work units (i.e., peers and supervisors). Testing a conditional mediation model, my hypotheses were mostly supported. POS predicted perceived customer service orientation, which in turn predicted extra-role behavior. While the effect of POS on extra-role behavior was expected to be both direct and indirect, study results indicated that the relationship only occurred through perceived customer service orientation. Goal congruence moderated all of the significant direct and indirect effects, such that they were stronger and in some cases only significant when employee goals were less aligned with the goals of work unit colleagues and supervisors. These results highlight how an organization's position regarding internal and external customers can play a significant role in promoting employee effectiveness, particularly for employees experiencing low goal congruence with their work units.

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Chapter I

For contemporary organizations, providing high quality customer service is a source of competitive advantage. As customer satisfaction has been linked to customer loyalty and firm performance, businesses invest significant resources into customer service initiatives. Even across industries that do not provide service to consumers in the traditional sense (e.g., hospitality and tourism), a competitive and global economy requires organizations to consider the needs and expectations of multiple stakeholders (e.g., customers, employees, shareholders, etc.). Organizations that take a customer-centric approach in their business practices are well-positioned to deliver the quality of service that relevant constituents might expect.

Customer service orientation, described as “the degree to which an organization emphasizes in multiple ways meeting customer needs and expectations for service quality” (Schneider, White, & Paul, 1998, p. 153), has received considerable attention in the literature. Research suggests a positive link between customer service orientation and customer attitudes regarding their service experiences (e.g., Susskind, Kacmar, & Borchgrevink, 2003). Employees are largely responsible for delivering high quality customer service; however, the organization reinforces such service behavior through its policies and practices. Organizations that build a climate around service signal to employees that customer service is valued and rewarded. As advocates of social learning theory would suggest (Bandura, 1977), believing the organization holds a favorable orientation towards customers encourages employees to demonstrate attitudes and behavior consistent with these beliefs.

Whereas most research on customer service considers outcomes relevant to external customers, some research indicates a positive association between customer service orientation and employee service behavior directed towards the organization (e.g., organizational citizenship behavior, prosocial behavior, or extra-role performance; Gonzalez & Garazo, 2005; Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010). These findings highlight that the organization's position regarding its customers can generalize to constituencies both internal and external to the organization. As customer service orientation drives positive outcomes, including customer perceptions and employee efforts on the organization's behalf, investigating the factors that contribute to customer service orientation and its outcomes is likely of utility.

Social information processing theory holds that individual perceptions and attitudes develop based on the processing of social information in the environment (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). When forming beliefs regarding the organization's orientation towards customers, employees likely draw information from their social interactions in the workplace. As employees can form social exchange relationships with the organization itself (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986), I argue that the employee-organization exchange relationship may provide indication of the organization's position regarding its customers. Particularly, employees would generalize from their exchange relationships with the organization to the organization's relationship with customers. Believing the organization holds a positive valuation of themselves (perceived organization support, or POS; Eisenberger et al., 1986), employees form beliefs concerning the organization's customer service orientation (perceived customer service orientation).

Drawing from social learning and social identity theories, I expect that perceiving the organization as having a customer service orientation encourages service behavior in the work environment. Seeing others engaging in service-oriented behavior, employees likely model their peers and express actions aimed to benefit others (i.e., the organization). Further, working for an organization that holds a positive valuation of customers and is effective in meeting their expectations may promote employee identification with the organization, leading to increased efforts on its behalf. I also suspect that POS plays a role in driving employees to enhance their efforts towards the organization, directly and indirectly via perceived customer service orientation.

Although employees may draw from their exchange relationships with the organization when forming beliefs concerning the organization's regard for customers, I suggest that such generalizations mostly occur when goal congruence between employees and their work units is low. Social information processing theory holds that individuals rely on social cues when making sense of their environments, particularly when the environment is complex or ambiguous (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). When employee goals differ from the goals of members of the work unit (i.e., peers and supervisors), employees may tend to rely relatively more heavily on social cues to guide their attitudes and beliefs. That is, working with unit members on a day-to-day basis, employees may turn to them for help interpreting events that occur in the work environment. However, if members of the work unit cannot be trusted to provide reliable information, employees may turn to other sources (e.g., the organization) for insight into the social environment. Goal congruence may signal the extent to which peers and supervisors are trustworthy sources of such information, as goal congruence relates to enhanced communication and unit cohesion (Adkins, Ravlin, &

Meglino, 1996; Edwards & Cable, 2009). Consistent with social information processing theory, I argue that POS plays a more (less) significant role informing employees on the organization's customer service orientation as the discrepancy (similarity) between employee and unit member goals becomes greater.

Employees experiencing goal incongruence with unit members may also experience more difficulty developing high quality relationships with them. Struggling to receive supportive resources from coworkers or supervisors, employees likely depend on the organization to fulfill their socioemotional needs. Further, working for an organization that is effective at meeting customer expectations would also help to fulfill the socioemotional needs of employees experiencing goal incongruence with the work unit. In order to repay the organization for providing supportive resources, these employees are most likely to increase their efforts on the organization's behalf. Accordingly, I predict that the influence of POS and perceived customer service orientation on extra-role behavior is strongest (weakest) among employees whose goal congruence with members of the work unit is low (high).

Taken together, I propose that perceptions that the organization holds a favorable orientation towards themselves (POS) lead employees to express greater service behavior directly and indirectly via perceptions of the organization's customer service orientation. I also expect these hypothesized relationships are likely to be enhanced under low (vs. high) levels of goal congruence. Testing a conditional mediation model, my goals were to: (1) assess the role that customer service orientation plays in driving extra-role behavior, (2) investigate POS as a predictor of customer service orientation and, in turn, extra-role behavior, and (3) identify the circumstances under which these relationships are most likely to hold (i.e., among employees with low goal congruence). I present in Figure 1 the

conceptual model.

Customer Service Orientation

Customer service has received attention in the marketing, organizational behavior, and industrial-organizational psychology literatures. Scholars working within these areas have tended to agree that customer service is an important indicator of firm performance, as customer perceptions of service quality can have implications for the bottom line (e.g., Deshpande, Farley, & Webster, 1993). They have also agreed that the customer service orientation of organizations and their employees aids in the delivery of high quality service to consumers.

As an individual difference variable, service orientation consists of the tendency to be helpful, considerate, and cooperative across situations (Hogan, Hogan, & Busch, 1984). Using facets from various personality inventories (e.g., the Hogan Personality Inventory), Hogan and colleagues (1984) found that individuals demonstrating service-oriented behaviors tended to be more emotionally stable, conscientious, socially-skilled, and rule-abiding. More specific to customer service, Kelley (1992) defined customer orientation as the value individuals place on customers, including their expressed commitment to meeting customer needs and expectations. At the organizational level, Schneider and colleagues (1998) identified customer service orientation as a climate variable, describing a climate for service as the shared perceptions employees hold concerning “the practices, procedures, and behaviors that get rewarded, supported, and expected with regard to customer service and customer service quality” (p. 151). Relatedly, Brady and Cronin (2001) assessed customer service orientation from an organizational culture perspective, suggesting that customer

service-oriented organizations use customers as the primary focus of their strategy development and implementation initiatives.

With the present study, I define customer service orientation as: (1) an organization's commitment to delivering high quality customer service, and (2) its ability to meet customer needs and expectations. The first part of this definition reflects the organization's attitudes and beliefs regarding its customers and is most similar to the prior conceptualizations listed above. The second part of the definition describes the organization's effectiveness in providing customers with the support they expect and require.

Extra-Role Behavior: An Outcome of Customer Service Orientation

However defined or conceptualized, research suggests that the organization's orientation towards customers predicts a variety of important outcomes relevant to employees, customers, and the organization at large. Kelley (1992), for instance, found that an organization's climate for service predicted employee customer orientation. Building on these findings, Susskind et al. (2003) found that the customer orientation of service providers contributed to greater customer satisfaction. Further, research by Salanova, Agut, and Peiro (2005) as well as Schneider and his colleagues (1998) found that an organization's climate for service enhanced customer perceptions of service quality. These results highlight how an organization's position regarding customer service impacts employee service behavior and customer perceptions concerning their service experiences.

In addition to driving employee service behavior towards customers, an organization's customer service orientation may also lead employees to engage in greater service behavior towards the organization (e.g., Gonzalez & Garazo, 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2010). Such organization-directed service behavior or extra-role performance (Williams &

Anderson, 1991) has been labeled organizational citizenship behavior (OCB; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983) and prosocial organizational behavior (POB; Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). Generally, service behavior or extra-role performance consists of discretionary behaviors which may not be part of an employee's formal role requirements but contribute to the organization's effectiveness (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998). Examples of these types of behaviors include volunteering for tasks that are not required and making suggestions to improve the organization. They may also consist of behaviors aimed to help coworkers or the work unit. As coworkers and supervisors are agents of the organization who carry out their roles on the organization's behalf, supportive behavior directed towards them can be considered supportive behavior towards the organization itself (i.e., organization-directed service behavior or extra-role performance).

Some argue that as contemporary organizations become more complex, team-based, and service-oriented, performing beyond one's prescribed responsibilities will be essential for individual and organizational effectiveness (Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). In fact, meta-analytic findings suggest that extra-role behaviors are related to bottom line indicators, such as organizational productivity, efficiency, and turnover (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). As a result, research continues to investigate the drivers of such extra-role performance.

Several factors can motivate employees to extend their performance efforts and engage in extra-role behavior. Advocates of social exchange theory suggest that high quality social exchange relationships develop over time through the mutual exchanging of valued resources between two parties (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). When employees receive supportive treatment from the organization or its members, they reciprocate with behavior

aimed to help their social exchange partners (e.g., extra-role behavior or OCB; Chiaburu & Harrison, 2008; Lynch, Eisenberger & Armeli, 1999; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). Other research indicates that individual differences play a role in driving employees to enhance their efforts on behalf of others (Bettencourt, Gwinner & Meuter, 2001; Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Employees scoring high in conscientiousness and service orientation, for example, tend to express greater helping behavior towards the organization and its stakeholders (Bettencourt et al., 2001; Organ & Ryan, 1995).

Aspects of the work environment can also contribute to the expression of extra-role behavior. Organizations that reward employees for going above and beyond their formal role responsibilities foster a climate for OCB (Schneider, Gunnarson, & Niles-Jolly, 1994). Further, work units can develop social norms that informally encourage unit members to engage in citizenship behavior (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004). Research also suggests that an organization's service orientation may lead employees to enhance their service behavior (e.g., Gonzalez & Garazo, 2005; Walumbwa et al., 2010). Gonzalez and Garazo (2005), for instance, found that an organization's service orientation predicted employee OCB via job satisfaction. Drawing from existing research (e.g., Bowen & Schneider, 1988; Schneider, Wheeler, & Cox, 1992; Johnson, 1996; Lytle, Hom, & Mokwa, 1998), the authors defined organizational service orientation (OSO) as "the organizational activities designed to create and deliver an excellent service" (Gonzalez & Garazo, 2005, p. 27). They argue that managers, through their own actions and the implementation of organizational practices, play an important role in promoting OSO and, in turn, employee service attitudes and behaviors. In a similar vein, Walumbwa and colleagues (2010) found that service climate mediated the relationship between servant leadership and employee OCB. Their findings suggest that

servant leaders emphasize service-oriented values in the work environment, leading employees to engage in service behavior.

Building on the existing research regarding organizational service climate/orientation and OCB, I argue that an organization's customer service orientation can also promote employee extra-role behavior. According to social learning theory, learning occurs within the social context (Bandura, 1977). When determining behavioral display rules, individuals learn from cues in the social environment and model the behavior of others (Bandura, 1977). Although witnessing particular behaviors being rewarded motivates individuals to engage in the behavior themselves, individuals can mimic the behavior of others without being conscious of any benefits (Bandura, 1977). Social learning theory also holds that when modeling others' behavior, individuals need not express behavior towards an identical target in the exact setting where the observed behavior originally occurred (Bandura, 1977). The modeled behavior may be directed at different targets across a variety of situations.

Organizations that place an emphasis on customer service likely foster an environment where customer service behavior is the norm (Schneider et al., 1998). Having a customer service-focused business strategy, the organization's policies and practices may require employees to demonstrate high quality service to all constituents. Such organizations may also provide more rewards for service behavior. Seeing others engaging in and being rewarded for their customer-directed efforts, employees would feel motivated to engage in service behavior themselves. As social learning theory would suggest, these service behaviors could be directed towards customers or other entities, such as supervisors, coworkers, or even the organization itself. Thus, through social learning processes, a

customer service-oriented organization may drive employees to extend their efforts on the organization's behalf.

Working for an organization that is committed to customers and is effective in meeting customer needs might also promote employee identification with the organization. That is, employees are more likely to incorporate organizational membership into their self-concepts when employed by an effective organization that customers regard highly (e.g., Mael & Ashforth, 1992). Through organizational identification, employees likely see the organization's successes as their own successes, leading them to engage in behavior that helps the organization be more effective (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Consistent with past research as well as social learning and social identity theories, I predict that believing the organization holds a positive orientation towards customers encourages employees to demonstrate greater extra-role behavior (Path *b* in Figure 1).

Hypothesis 1. Perceived customer service orientation is positively related to extra-role behavior.

Perceived Organizational Support: An Antecedent of Customer Service Orientation

As service orientation can drive valued outcomes, it's important to consider the factors that promote perceptions of an organization's customer service orientation. Schneider and Bowen (1993) proposed that "a climate for employee well-being serves as a foundation for a climate for service" (p. 43). Evidence in the literature supports this notion that the organization's regard for employees could signal and promote the organization's position concerning customers. Salanova and colleagues (2005), for instance, found that organizational resources (training, technology, and autonomy) contributed to employee perceptions of service climate through work engagement. Schneider and Bowen (1985) found

that employee perceptions of the organization's HR practices were positively related to customer attitudes regarding service. These findings highlight how the organization's position concerning employees may provide indication of the organization's orientation towards all customers.

Advocates of social information processing theory argue that individuals make meaning of their environments based on the processing of social information in the workplace (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Particularly, individuals extract information from the social environment and use this information to shape their perceptions and beliefs. Day-to-day interactions with organizational members provide insight into how events that occur in the environment can be interpreted.

As employees can form social exchange relationships with their organizations (Eisenberger et al., 1986), they likely form perceptions of the work environment based on their interactions with the organization. Organizational support research suggests that in order to fulfill their socioemotional needs and determine the organization's readiness to reward increased efforts on their behalf, employees develop perceptions of the organization's positive or negative orientation towards themselves (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Employees holding favorable exchange relationships with the organization develop positive beliefs regarding the organization's valuation of their contributions and care for their well-being (i.e., POS). Just as POS informs employees of the organization's ability to fulfill their socioemotional needs and intentions to reward their efforts, I suggest that POS may also provide indication regarding the organization's ability and readiness to meet the needs of external customers. When employees believe the organization holds a positive orientation towards themselves (i.e., POS), I predict they also believe that the organization holds a

positive orientation towards customers (i.e., perceived customer service orientation; Path *a* in Figure 1).

Hypothesis 2. POS is positively related to perceived customer service orientation.

POS, Customer Service Orientation, and Extra-Role Behavior

The effect of POS on extra-role behavior can be both direct and indirect. POS operates through social exchange processes, where supportive treatment from the organization promotes employees' felt obligation to invest greater personal resources (e.g., extra-role behavior) into the organization (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011). Indeed, research suggests a positive link between POS and employee added efforts on the organization's behalf (Kurtessis et al., 2015). Operating through social exchange processes, I suggest that POS contributes directly to employee discretionary efforts in helping the organization be effective (Path *c* in Figure 1). Employees experiencing high levels of POS are likely to "pay back" the organization with extra-role behavior.

Walumbwa and colleagues (2010) reported that service climate mediated the relationship between servant leadership and employee organizational citizenship behavior. These findings perhaps indicate that servant leaders establish norms in the work environment that promote service attitudes and, in turn, service-oriented behavior, or OCB. Hence, I suggest that supportive organizations establish norms that foster perceptions of customer service and promote service behavior. As advocates of social learning theory might argue, treating employees with courtesy and respect likely creates an environment in which supportive behavior is valued and rewarded. As POS may signal the organization's positive valuation of all of its customers (employees and consumers), POS likely leads employees to engage in extra-role behavior. Operating through social learning processes, I argue that POS

also promotes employee extra-role behavior indirectly through perceived customer service orientation.

Hypothesis 3a. POS has a direct effect on extra-role behavior.

Hypothesis 3b. POS has an indirect effect on extra-role behavior through perceived customer service orientation.

Goal Congruence

Although information from the social environment can shape individuals' attitudes and influence their behavior, the weight this information holds likely depends on the context (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). According to social information processing theory, ambiguous or complex situations give rise to the processing of information from the social environment. In order to make sense of the unknown and reduce uncertainty, individuals likely rely heavily on social cues to guide their attitudes and beliefs. Lau and Liden (2008) found support for this in their research examining the antecedents of coworker trust. When group performance was low (high ambiguity), employees reported trusting a coworker more so when their leaders also demonstrated trust towards the focal coworker. These findings suggest that employees place more emphasis on social information when forming their perceptions and beliefs as aspects of the work environment (i.e., group functioning) become more ambiguous.

The extent to which individuals make meaning of their environments based on the processing of social information may also depend on the quality of their relationships with different entities. As favorable relationships held between employees and their supervisors (leader-member exchange), coworkers, and the organization itself (i.e., POS) contribute to employee perceptions of trust (e.g., Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000; Kurtessis et al., 2015), relationship quality may suggest the degree to which sources of information can be

relied on to provide accurate information. Employees holding more favorable relationships with members of the work unit may believe they are the most trustworthy sources of information regarding the environment. Employees that hold higher quality relationships with the organization may primarily depend on the information it provides when forming their attitudes and beliefs. Whereas individuals can hold favorable relationships with multiple entities, it is likely that a particular relationship holds greater weight and provides better insight into the social environment.

Research suggests that goal congruence might relate to perceptions of uncertainty as well as the quality of relationships that develop in the workplace (e.g., Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012; Edwards & Cable, 2009; Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005; Kurtessis et al., 2015). When individuals share the goals of their work unit, they likely experience greater trust, communication, and cohesion (Edwards & Cable, 2009; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991). From a person-organization fit perspective, goal congruence allows for shared interpretations of the work environment by fostering communication and enhancing organizational members' interactions with each other (Adkins et al., 1996; Edwards & Cable, 2009). Goal congruence between members of a work unit might also signal that peers and supervisors can be trusted to provide reliable information regarding workplace norms or rules for appropriate attitudes and behavior (Edwards & Cable, 2009). Conversely, when individual and work unit goals fail to align, employees may find it more difficult to build high quality relationships with unit members due to reduced communication and cohesion. Employees then depend on alternative, more trusted sources (e.g., the organization) to help them make meaning of their work environments.

Goal Congruence as a Moderator

As individuals are expected to draw information from their relationships with the organization when forming perceptions of the work environment (i.e., Hypothesis 2), I expect that this mostly occurs when employee goals differ from those of members in the work unit. In terms of customer service, employees experiencing a lack of work unit fit (goal incongruence) may be most likely to form perceptions of the organization's orientation towards customers based on their personal relationships with the organization. Thus, a favorable employee-organization exchange relationship is likely to be most salient as a signal of the organization's positive regard for customers among workers experiencing low levels of goal congruence with their work units. Accordingly, I predict that the relationship between POS and perceived customer service orientation is stronger (weaker) among individuals whose goals differ from (are similar to) the goals of unit colleagues and supervisors (i.e., stage one of the mediation).

Hypothesis 4a. Goal congruence moderates the relationship between POS and perceived customer service orientation, such that the relationship is stronger among workers with low rather than high goal congruence with their work unit colleagues and supervisors.

The extent to which customer service orientation is related to employee service behavior may also depend on goal congruence. Through social exchange processes, the organization's customer service orientation likely drives service behavior, mostly among employees experiencing low goal congruence with members in their work units. Working for an organization that demonstrates concern for customers and is effective in meeting their expectations may help to fulfill employee socioemotional needs for approval and esteem. For

employees experiencing a lack of fit with their work units (goal incongruence), the organization may be the primary source of socioemotional need fulfilment. Wanting to repay the organization for meeting their needs, these employees likely express greater effort on the organization's behalf. Thus, I predict that believing the organization demonstrates a high service orientation towards customers contributes to greater extra-role behavior, mainly among employees whose goals are dissimilar to those of their unit colleagues and supervisors (i.e., stage two of the mediation).

Hypothesis 4b. Goal congruence moderates the relationship between perceived customer service orientation and extra-role behavior, such that the relationship is stronger among workers with low rather than high goal congruence with their work unit colleagues and supervisors.

POS is a valuable resource that can result in favorable outcomes for both employees and their organizations. However, Erdogan, Kraimer, and Liden (2004) found that whereas employees reported lower levels of job satisfaction when their values differed from the values of their peers, POS mitigated these effects. When POS was high, employees reported similar levels of job satisfaction, regardless of value congruence. POS may facilitate communication, enhance identification, and help employees deal with the challenges presented by low value congruence (Erdogan et al., 2004).

As goal incongruence may contribute to greater cognitive dissonance and increased levels of strain, employees with incongruent goals may find it more difficult to be engaged in their work and effective in their roles. Driven by the motivation to protect, retain, and acquire resources (Hobfoll, 1989), those who experience goal incongruence may be more receptive to the supportive resources POS offers. In meeting employee socioemotional needs, POS may

lead employees to enhance their efforts on the organization's behalf, particularly when greater discrepancies exist between employee and work unit goals (i.e., the direct effect of POS on extra-role behavior).

Hypothesis 4c. Goal congruence moderates the relationship between POS and extra-role behavior, such that the relationship is stronger among workers with low rather than high goal congruence with their work unit colleagues and supervisors.

Chapter II

Method

Participants and Procedure

Data were collected from 397 of 897 (44%) employees of a large public sector organization. Their job roles consisted of technical, low-level professional, mid-level professional, and upper-level management responsibilities. The sample consisted of 51% men, 49% women, 19% minorities, and 81% non-minorities. Nineteen percent of participants indicated that they were below the age of 30, 22% indicated that they were between the ages of 30 and 39, 41% indicated that they were between the ages of 40 and 49, 25% indicated that they were between the ages of 50 and 59, and 3% indicated that they were 60 years of age or older. Nine percent of the sample were employed by the organization for less than a year, 26% for 1-3 years, 23% for 4-10 years, 16% for 11-15 years, and 26% for 16 or more years. Of the 397 employees, 331 (83%) were non-supervisors, 33 (8%) were supervisors, and 33 (8%) were managers. Due to missing data, the final sample consisted of 385 employees.

Measures

Perceived Customer Service Orientation. Three items were created to assess employee perceptions of the organization's customer service orientation (see Appendix A). These items reflect the organization's commitment to its customers (e.g., "Responding quickly and thoroughly to requests for assistance from our customers is considered to be very important here") as well as its ability to meet their needs and expectations (e.g., "People respond quickly and thoroughly to requests for assistance from our customers"). Participants responded to the items using a 5-point scale ranging from 1, "Strongly Disagree" to 5, "Strongly Agree." High scores indicate favorable perceptions regarding the organization's orientation towards customers.

Perceived Organizational Support. Employee POS was assessed using 16 items from Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) POS scale (see Appendix B). The scale items capture the degree to which employees believe the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (e.g., "Help is available from the organization when I have a problem"). Participants responded to the items using a 5-point scale ranging from 1, "Strongly Disagree" to 5, "Strongly Agree." High scores indicate employees' favorable beliefs concerning the organization's valuation of themselves.

Extra-Role Behavior. Four items were taken from O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) to measure employee extra-role behavior (see Appendix C). These items describe discretionary actions that are not formally required but contribute to the organization's effectiveness (e.g., "I often attend functions that are not required but that help the organization"). Participants rated their extra-role performance using a 5-point scale ranging from 1, "Strongly Disagree" to 5, "Strongly Agree." High scores indicate high levels of extra-role behavior.

Goal Congruence. Participants rated the importance of five organizational goals that were selected based on input from organizational members. These goals reflect issues that the organization tends to see as important and strives to achieve in its business practices. A list of these goals is provided in Appendix D. Participants indicated the importance of each goal using a 5-point scale ranging from 1, “Of Little Importance” to 5, “Of Primary Importance.” A high score for a particular goal suggests a high level of perceived importance.

In order to assess goal congruence between a focal employee and his or her work unit, I used the *D* statistic profile score (Cronbach & Gleser, 1953) per the recommendations of Vancouver and Schmitt (1991). The *D* statistic is calculated using the square root of the summed-squared differences between a focal employee’s goal scores and the average goal scores of the work unit. For each goal, I calculated the work unit averages and subtracted unit members’ scores on each goal from the group averages. After squaring and summing each unit member’s difference scores, I then took the square root. This value was then standardized and multiplied by a factor of -1 to reflect goal *congruence* rather than *incongruence*. While the *D* statistic reflects the level of agreement between an employee’s goals and those of the work unit, it does not take into account the direction of goal discrepancies. However, as Vancouver and Schmitt (1991) suggested, this is not an issue because goal congruence reflects disagreement in the issues perceived to matter rather than the level of goal importance.

Control Variables. Age, gender, minority status, and tenure have been linked to employee work attitudes and performance (e.g., Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990; Ng & Feldman, 2010; Rhodes, 1983; Riordan & Shore, 1997). Further, supervisory status can affect individual perceptions and experiences at work (e.g., Beehr & Gupta, 1987). In order

to determine the unique contributions of the variables, I controlled for age, gender, minority status, tenure, and supervisory status.

Chapter III

Results

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics and inter-correlation matrix. Reported on the diagonal of the correlation matrix are the reliability coefficients for the POS, perceived customer service orientation, and extra-role behavior scales. As shown in Table 1, all of the scale reliabilities fell above .75, indicating acceptable levels of internal consistency among scale items.

Prior to testing the hypotheses, I conducted a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) using MPLUS 6 to assess the validity of the self-reported variables as distinct constructs. The first CFA examined the fit of a three-factor model, which treated POS, perceived customer service orientation, and extra-role behavior as unique variables. As demonstrated in Table 2, the three-factor model fit the data reasonably well ($\chi^2 (227) = 639.72$, RMSEA = .07, CFI = .93, TLI = .92, SRMR = .06). I also tested a two-factor model, where the indicators of POS and perceived customer service orientation were loaded onto one latent factor. As shown in Table 2, treating POS and perceived customer service orientation as one variable did not improve the model fit ($\chi^2 (229) = 834.89$, RMSEA = .08, CFI = .89, TLI = .88, SRMR = .06). Finally, I performed a CFA that considered POS, perceived customer service orientation, and extra-role behavior as one latent construct. As the results of Table 2 suggest, loading the indicators of the self-reported variables onto one latent factor did not result in improved model fit ($\chi^2 (230) = 1202.88$, RMSEA = .11, CFI = .82, TLI = .81, SRMR = .08). Based on the results of the confirmatory factor analysis, POS,

perceived customer service orientation, and extra-role behavior were treated as distinct variables for subsequent analyses.

Test of Hypotheses

Hypotheses were tested using Hayes' (2013) PROCESS macro for SPSS. PROCESS uses bootstrapping to calculate confidence intervals for direct, indirect, and conditional effects. Effects are deemed significant when their respective confidence intervals do not include zero. Prior to assessing the hypotheses, the study variables were standardized to facilitate interpretation of the results. For all analyses, age, gender, minority status, tenure, and supervisory status were included as covariates.

To test Hypotheses 1, 2, 3a, and 3b, I used Model 4 of the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2013) for SPSS. Model 4 of the PROCESS macro calculates the direct effect of a predictor on an outcome variable as well as the indirect effect through an intervening variable.

Hypothesis 1 suggested that the relationship between perceived customer service orientation and extra-role behavior would be positive. The results shown in Table 1 and Table 3 provide support for Hypothesis 1, as the relationship between perceived customer service orientation and extra role behavior was positive and significant ($r = .24, p < .01; b = .14, t = 2.47, p < .01$). Hypothesis 2 predicted that the relationship between POS and perceived customer service orientation would also be positive. The results demonstrated in Table 1 and Table 3 suggest that POS was positively and significantly related to perceived customer service orientation ($r = .53, p < .01; b = .52, t = 11.33, p < .001$), providing support for Hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3a indicated that POS would have a direct effect on extra-role behavior. Although POS was positively related to extra-role behavior ($r = .22, p < .01$), the direct effect of POS on extra-role behavior was not significant ($b = .07, t = 1.20, p = ns$) after controlling

for the effects of age, gender, minority status, tenure, supervisory status, and perceived customer service orientation. Thus, Hypothesis 3a was not supported. POS was also expected to influence extra-role behavior indirectly through perceived customer service orientation (Hypothesis 3b). In support of Hypothesis 3b, Table 4 demonstrates that POS did have an indirect effect on extra-role behavior via perceived customer service orientation, as zero did not fall within the confidence interval ($b = .07$, 95% CI: .01, .14). These results suggest that POS operates through perceived customer service orientation in predicting employee extra-role behavior.

To test Hypotheses 4a-4c, I employed Model 59 of the PROCESS macro. Model 59 assesses moderation effects at all paths ($a-c$) of a mediation model. Similar to Model 4, Model 59 also provides confidence intervals for the model effects. For indirect effects, it provides confidence intervals at low, average, and high levels of the moderator. Confidence intervals that do not include zero suggest significant mediation effects at those particular levels of the moderator.

Hypothesis 4a predicted that the relationship between POS and perceived customer service orientation would be stronger (weaker) when goal congruence was low (high). Table 5 demonstrates support for Hypothesis 4a, as the POS-goal congruence interaction term was negative and significant when perceived customer service orientation was the outcome variable ($b = -.09$, $t = -2.41$, $p < .05$). I plotted the effects at high and low levels of the moderator (goal congruence) and performed a test of the simple slopes (see Figure 2 and Table 6). While the positive effect of POS on perceived customer service orientation was significant at both high ($b = .32$, $t = 5.84$, $p < .001$) and low levels ($b = .48$, $t = 8.76$, $p <$

.001) of goal congruence, the effect was strongest when goal congruence was low. These results provide further support for Hypothesis 4a.

Hypothesis 4b proposed that the relationship between perceived customer service orientation and extra-role behavior would be stronger (weaker) when employees experienced less (greater) goal congruence with their work unit colleagues and supervisors. As shown in Table 5, the perceived customer service orientation-goal congruence cross-product was negative and approached significance ($b = -.10, t = -1.91, p < .10$). I plotted the effects at high and low levels of goal congruence. As shown in Figure 3 and Table 7, the relationship between perceived customer service orientation and extra-role behavior was only significant at low levels of goal congruence ($b = .16, t = 2.92, p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 4b was supported.

Finally, Hypothesis 4c predicted that the relationship between POS and extra-role behavior would be stronger (weaker) among workers having low (high) levels of goal congruence. The results presented in Table 5 and Table 8 fail to provide support for Hypothesis 4c, as the POS-goal congruence interaction term was not significant when extra-role behavior was the outcome ($b = .03, t = .47, p = ns$). While the POS x goal congruence cross-product was not directly related to extra-role behavior, results indicate that the indirect relationship between POS and extra-role behavior through perceived customer service orientation was conditional on goal congruence (see Table 9). As shown in Table 9, the indirect effect of POS on extra-role behavior via perceived customer service orientation was only significant among workers with low levels of goal congruence ($ab = .12, 95\% \text{ CI: } .04, .22$).

Chapter IV

Discussion

Applying social learning, information processing, and identity theories, I investigated a process through which the organization's regard for employees (POS) contributed to beliefs concerning the organization's regard for customers (perceived customer service orientation) and, in turn, increased performance efforts on the organization's behalf (extra-role behavior). Results indicated that POS was positively related to perceptions of the organization's customer service orientation, and these perceptions were positively related to employee reports of their extra-role behavior. Perceived customer service orientation fully mediated the relationship between POS and employee extra-role behavior, as the direct relationship was not significant. Further, when employee goals were less (more) consistent with the goals of work unit colleagues and supervisors, the POS-customer service orientation and customer service orientation-extra-role behavior relationships were stronger (weaker). Goal congruence also influenced the positive relationship between POS and extra-role behavior via perceived customer service orientation, such that the indirect effect was only significant at low levels of goal congruence.

Existing research on customer service suggests that customer orientation and a climate for service drives customer-directed behavior (e.g., Salanova et al., 2005; Susskind et al., 2003). The study contributes to this literature in showing that an organization's positive orientation towards customers can also promote employee service behavior towards the organization. As expected, employees' perceptions of the organization's customer service orientation were positively related to their reports of extra-role behavior. These findings highlight how customer-centric organizations foster a sense of service throughout the

workplace. The positive relationship found between perceived customer service orientation and extra-role behavior also suggests that behavioral norms regarding service can become highly integrated into the larger organizational system. Specifically, service-oriented behavior that is expected or consistently expressed in one setting (i.e., during employee-customer interactions) is also likely to occur in another (i.e., during interactions with the organization and its members). In line with social learning theory, the findings offer support for the notion that service-oriented behaviors occurring in the work environment (i.e., customer service behaviors) are likely to be modeled and can manifest in extra-role behaviors.

While POS has mainly been investigated through a social exchange lens, I considered POS from social learning and social information processing perspectives. Social information processing theory holds that individuals draw information from the social environment when interpreting events and forming their beliefs (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). The positive relationship found between POS and perceived customer service orientation suggests that the employee-organization exchange relationship (POS) can be a source of information regarding the work environment. As POS signals to employees that the organization holds a positive orientation towards them, it can also provide indication of the organization's regard for all organizational stakeholders.

Contrary to my expectation and evidence in the literature, POS did not play a direct role in promoting extra-role behavior. Rather, POS contributed to employee extra-role behavior only through perceptions of the organization's orientation towards customers. Some researchers suggest that social exchange and self-enhancement processes are the main forces linking POS to performance (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011); however, the findings of

the present study suggest that social learning processes may also be at play. These results inform theory by identifying another mechanism through which POS operates. Ultimately, POS can help to enhance employee performance efforts by creating a work environment where service attitudes and behaviors are the norm.

As the positive relationships between POS, perceived customer service orientation, and extra-role behavior were stronger (and in some cases only significant) among workers with low goal congruence, these findings have implications for fit research and resource theories. It appears from the current investigation that a lack of person-group (P-G) fit may not always be detrimental to employee and organizational outcomes. Employees whose goals are less in alignment with the goals of work unit colleagues and supervisors can still be considerably effective in their roles when employed by a customer-centric organization. From a resource theory perspective, employees experiencing goal incongruence with work unit members may express greater motivation to protect and build their resource pools. Working for an organization that is supportive and effective in its relationships with customers may provide greater resources to employees that fit less with their work units. For employees whose goals match the goals of unit members, POS and the organization's customer service orientation may be less important to their success. This could potentially explain why the indirect effect of POS on extra-role behavior through perceived customer service orientation was only significant among workers with low levels of goal congruence.

Further, as P-G fit relates to work unit communication and cohesion (Erdogan et al., 2004; Kristof-Brown et al., 2005), low goal congruence likely threatens an employee's ability to obtain resources from unit colleagues and supervisors. The results of the current study indicate that in such cases (i.e., low goal congruence or P-G fit), the organization may

serve as the primary source of informational and socioemotional resources for employees. Wanting to repay the organization, employees then engage in behavior aimed to help the organization be successful. Taken together, a lack of employee-work unit goal congruence may only be concerning when the organization fails to support its internal and external constituents.

Practical Implications

The findings of this study potentially offer several implications. A main takeaway from the present research concerns the importance of customer centricity for individual and organizational outcomes. Organizations that demonstrate a positive orientation towards all constituents can promote service-oriented behavior in the workplace. While having an orientation towards customers can lead employees to enhance their efforts on the organization's behalf, this may only hold for some employees (e.g., those experiencing low goal congruence with unit colleagues and supervisors). Consideration of the perspectives of all relevant stakeholders is likely to be of utility.

As POS was positively related to perceived customer service orientation, managers aiming to build a climate around service can likely do so by showing a high regard for employees (POS). To create a service-oriented work climate, it would be important to identify the needs and expectations of external customers; however, the needs of internal customers must also be addressed. Before determining how to enhance the customer service experience for those external to the organization, managers are likely to find utility by looking internally and considering how they're being effective with employees. As this study's findings suggest, taking care of employees can promote greater customer service in the work environment.

For managers concerned with how individuals fit with their respective work units and perhaps the organization at large, the results of the current study might offer some insight. Evidence in the literature suggests that when making employment decisions, managers use fit as a deciding factor (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1997). While fit can be important in some cases, the present findings suggest that low person-group (P-G) fit (i.e., low work unit goal congruence) may not always be an indicator of unfavorable outcomes. Managers hiring or promoting individuals based on their fit with the organization and its members may be missing out on some high potential employees. Hence, further research is needed to identify how selection and promotion protocol might optimally be based across various aspects of fit. Indeed, the findings of this study suggest that people can cope with their circumstances (e.g., a lack of fit) and acquire the resources needed in order to be effective in their roles.

Limitations and Future Directions

Although this study potentially offers theoretical and practical contributions, I emphasize its weaknesses. As POS, perceived customer service orientation, and extra-role behavior were all measured from the employee's perspective, common method variance is a potential issue. However, as the results indicated, the three-factor model which treated the self-reported variables as distinct constructs fit the data better than the one-factor model which considered the variables as one latent construct. I encourage future researchers, to collect data from supervisors, coworkers, and customers. Measuring extra-role behavior from multiple perspectives, in particular, would provide greater insight into the degree to which POS and customer service orientation contribute to employee effectiveness. Because the data were collected at a single point in time, the significant relationships that were demonstrated should be interpreted with caution. In order to establish causality between the variables,

future research could measure the proposed relationships using longitudinal data. Finally, I tested my model using archival data obtained from one organization, which could threaten the external validity of my findings. Replication in additional organizations would be of utility. Further, since the main construct of interest in the study pertained to customer service, it would be of utility to assess the validity of the model across different industries.

Conclusion

Demonstrating strong consideration for customers internal and external to the organization promotes employee effectiveness. Organizations can portray their favorable orientation towards customers by being supportive towards all stakeholders of the organization. When employees believe that the organization holds them in a high regard (POS), this encourages beliefs regarding the organization's orientation towards customers external to the organization (perceived customer service orientation). Organizations that show commitment to all stakeholders, as expressed through POS and customer service orientation, foster a sense of service in the work environment and encourage service behavior from employees on the organization's behalf. While POS and perceptions regarding the organization's orientation towards customers can contribute to employee effectiveness, their effects can be particularly substantial for employees experiencing low goal congruence with work unit colleagues and supervisors. Thus, having a favorable orientation towards all constituents can promote performance efforts and mitigate the negative consequences that might be associated with low work unit fit.

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Table 1.
Descriptive Statistics, Correlation Matrix, and Reliability Estimates

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. POS	3.43	.87	(.95)							
2. Customer Service Orientation	4.09	.81	.53**	(.79)						
3. Extra Role Behavior	3.60	.76	.22**	.24**	(.78)					
4. Goal Congruence	1.81	.88	.31**	.22**	.03					
5. Age	2.91	.97	-.04	.00	.05	-.07				
6. Gender	.49	.50	.01	.09	.11*	.13*	-.23**			
7. Minority Status	.19	.39	-.05	.06	.03	-.06	-.03	.08		
8. Tenure	3.24	1.33	-.09	.01	.03	-.09	.52**	-.18**	.06	
9. Supervisor Status	1.25	.60	.31**	.19**	.28**	.05	.16**	-.18**	.03	.16**

Note. N = 385. POS = perceived organizational support. Age coded as 1 = < 30 years, 2 = 30-39 years, 3 = 40-49 years, 4 = 50-59 years, 5 = 60 or over. Gender coded as 0 = male, 1 = female. Minority Status coded as 0 = non-minority, 1 = minority. Tenure coded as 1 = < 1 year, 2 = 1-3 years, 3 = 4-10 years, 4 = 11-15 years, 5 = 16 or over. Supervisor Status coded as 1 = non-supervisor, 2 = supervisor, 3 = manager. Reliabilities (Cronbach's α) are reported on the diagonal. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 2.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses Results for Self-Reported Main Study Variables

Model	<i>df</i>	χ^2	χ^2 diff	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR
Three-Factor	227	639.72		.07	.93	.92	.06
Two-Factor	229	834.89	195.17***	.08	.89	.88	.06
One-Factor	230	1202.88	367.99***	.11	.82	.81	.08

Note. N = 385. *df* = degrees of freedom; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index. Two-factor model = perceived organizational support and perceived customer service orientation are combined.

*** $p < .001$.

Table 3.

Direct and Indirect Effects of Perceived Organizational Support on Extra-Role Behavior through Perceived Customer Service Orientation (Hypotheses 1, 2, 3a, and 3b).

Variables	Dependent Variables								
	Customer Service Orientation			Extra-Role Behavior					
	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
Intercept	.004	.040	.10	.02	.05	.38	.02	.05	.37
<i>Controls</i>									
Age	.01	.05	.27	.05	.06	.94	.05	.06	.91
Gender	.10*	.05	2.23	.17***	.05	3.35	.15**	.05	3.07
Minority Status	.07†	.04	1.66	.01	.05	.30	.004	.05	.09
Tenure	.05	.05	1.01	.005	.06	.09	-.002	.06	-.04
Supervisory Status	.04	.05	.84	.26***	.05	4.91	.25***	.05	4.83
<i>Predictor</i>									
POS	.52***	.05	11.33	.14**	.05	2.81	.07	.06	1.20
<i>Mediator</i>									
Customer Service Orientation							.14**	.06	2.47
<i>R</i> ²		.30			.13			.14	

Note. N = 385. POS = perceived organizational support. Age coded as 1 = < 30 years, 2 = 30-39 years, 3 = 40-49 years, 4 = 50-59 years, 5 = 60 or over. Gender coded as 0 = male, 1 = female. Minority Status coded as 0 = non-minority, 1 = minority. Tenure coded as 1 = < 1 year, 2 = 1-3 years, 3 = 4-10 years, 4 = 11-15 years, 5 = 16 or over. Supervisor Status coded as 1 = non-supervisor, 2 = supervisor, 3 = manager. † $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 4.

Indirect Effect of Perceived Organizational Support on Extra-Role Behavior via Perceived Customer Service Orientation (Hypothesis 3b)

Extra-Role Behavior	
95% CI for Indirect Effect ($ab = .07$)	
LL	UL
.01	.14

Note. CI = Confidence Interval, LL = Lower Limit, UL = Upper Limit. ab = effect of path a multiplied by the effect of path b controlling for path c .

Table 5.

Mediating Role of Perceived Customer Service Orientation with Total Effects Moderation (Hypotheses 4a-4c)

Variables	Dependent Variables					
	Customer Service Orientation			Extra-Role Behavior		
	Model 1			Model 2		
	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>
Intercept	.03	.04	.75	.03	.05	.63
<i>Controls</i>						
Age	.01	.05	.18	.04	.06	.76
Gender	.10*	.05	2.24	.17***	.05	3.40
Minority Status	.07†	.04	1.72	.00	.05	.00
Tenure	.05	.05	1.02	-.01	.06	-.09
Supervisory Status	.04	.05	.87	.25***	.05	4.91
<i>Predictors</i>						
POS	.49***	.05	10.15	.09	.06	1.47
Goal Congruence (GC)	.02	.05	.43	-.08	.05	-1.49
<i>Mediator</i>						
Customer Service Orientation (CSO)				.11*	.06	1.94
<i>Interactions</i>						
POS x GC	-.09*	.04	-2.41	.03	.06	.47
CSO x GC				-.10†	.05	-1.91
<i>R</i> ²		.31			.15	

Note. N = 385. POS = perceived organizational support. Age coded as 1 = < 30 years, 2 = 30-39 years, 3 = 40-49 years, 4 = 50-59 years, 5 = 60 or over. Gender coded as 0 = male, 1 = female. Minority Status coded as 0 = non-minority, 1 = minority. Tenure coded as 1 = < 1 year, 2 = 1-3 years, 3 = 4-10 years, 4 = 11-15 years, 5 = 16 or over. Supervisor Status coded as 1 = non-supervisor, 2 = supervisor, 3 = manager. † $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 6.

Effects of Perceived Organizational Support on Perceived Customer Service Orientation at High and Low Levels of Goal Congruence (Hypothesis 4a)

Level of Goal Congruence (GC)	Perceived Organizational Support		
	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>t</i>
-1 SD GC	0.48***	0.05	8.76***
+1 SD GC	0.32***	0.05	5.84***

Note. SD = standard deviation.

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

Table 7.

Effects of Perceived Customer Service Orientation on Extra-Role Behavior at High and Low Levels of Goal Congruence (Hypothesis 4b)

Level of Goal Congruence (GC)	Perceived Customer Service Orientation		
	<i>b</i>	SE	<i>t</i>
-1 SD GC	0.16**	0.05	2.92**
+1 SD GC	0.02	0.05	.37

Note. SD = standard deviation.

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

Table 8.

Conditional Direct Effect of Perceived Organizational Support on Extra-Role Behavior at Low, Average, and High Levels of Goal Congruence (Hypothesis 4c)

Goal Congruence	Effect	Boot SE	Boot LLCI	Boot ULCI
Low (-1 SD)	.06	.08	-.10	.22
Average	.09	.06	-.03	.21
High (+1 SD)	.12	.09	-.05	.28

Note. LLCI = lower limit confidence interval; ULCI = upper limit confidence interval; SE = standard error; SD = standard deviation.

Table 9.

Conditional Indirect Effect of Perceived Organizational Support on Extra-Role Behavior via Perceived Customer Service Orientation at Low, Average, and High Levels of Goal Congruence

Goal Congruence	Effect	Boot SE	Boot LLCI	Boot ULCI
Low (-1 SD)	.12	.05	.04	.22
Average	.06	.03	-.01	.12
High (+1 SD)	.01	.04	-.07	.08

Note. LLCI = lower limit confidence interval; ULCI = upper limit confidence interval; SE = standard error; SD = standard deviation.

Figure 1.
Proposed Conceptual Model

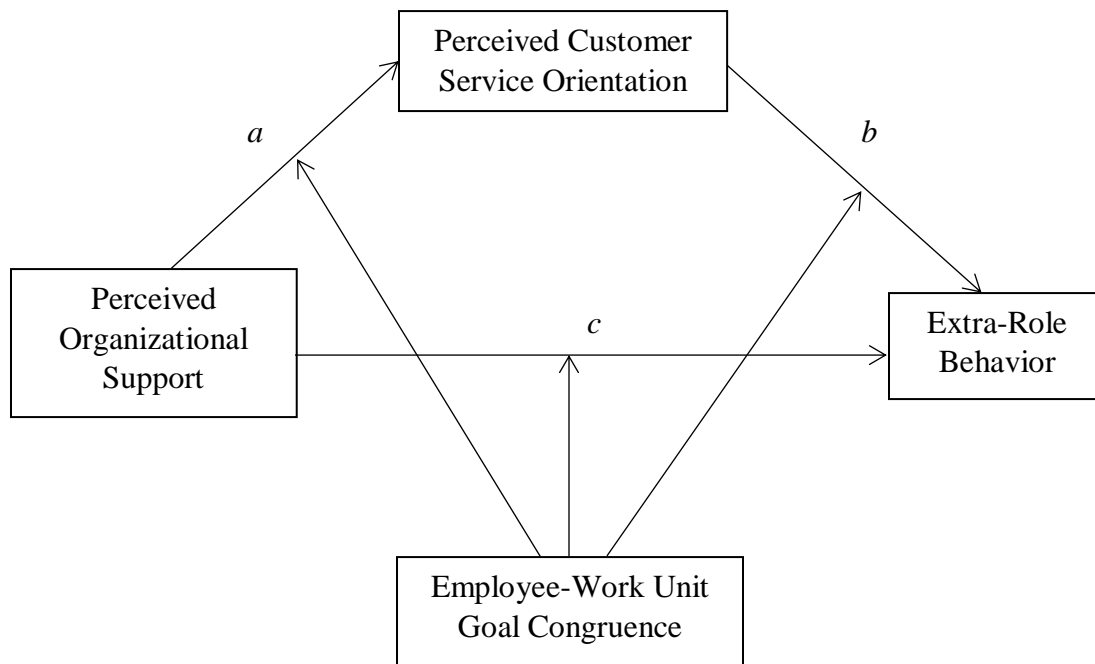
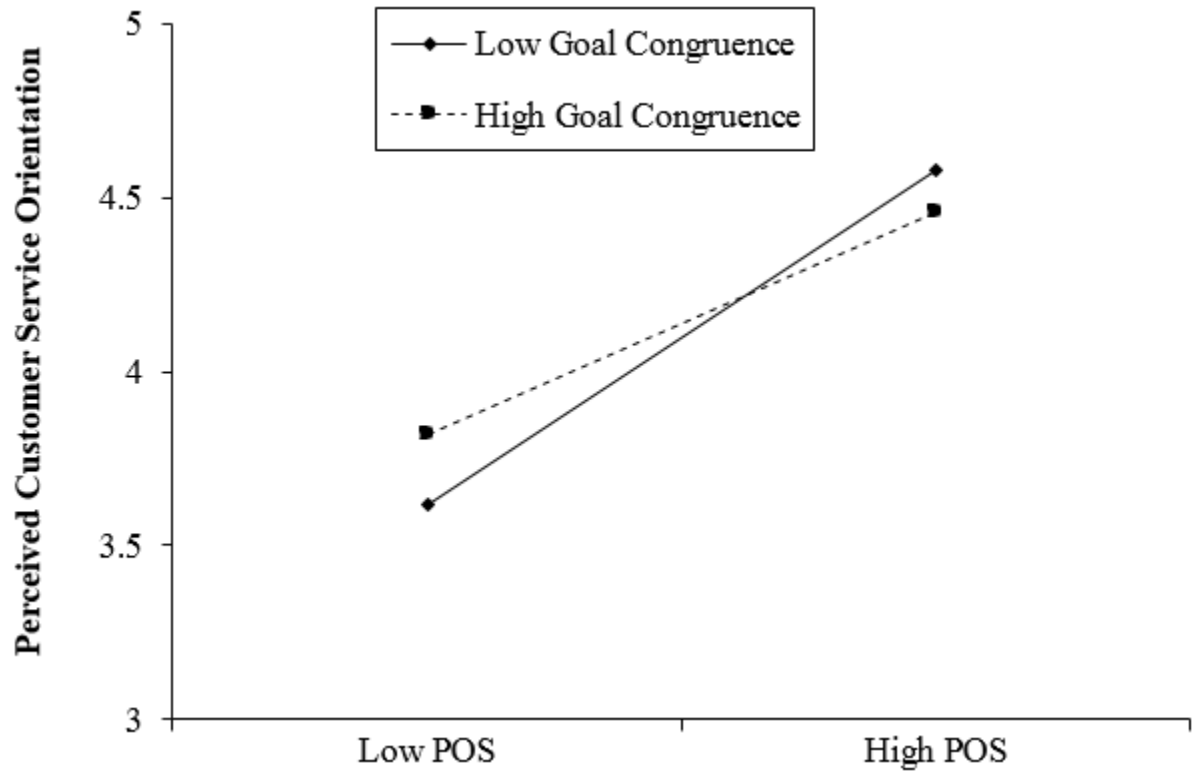


Figure 2.

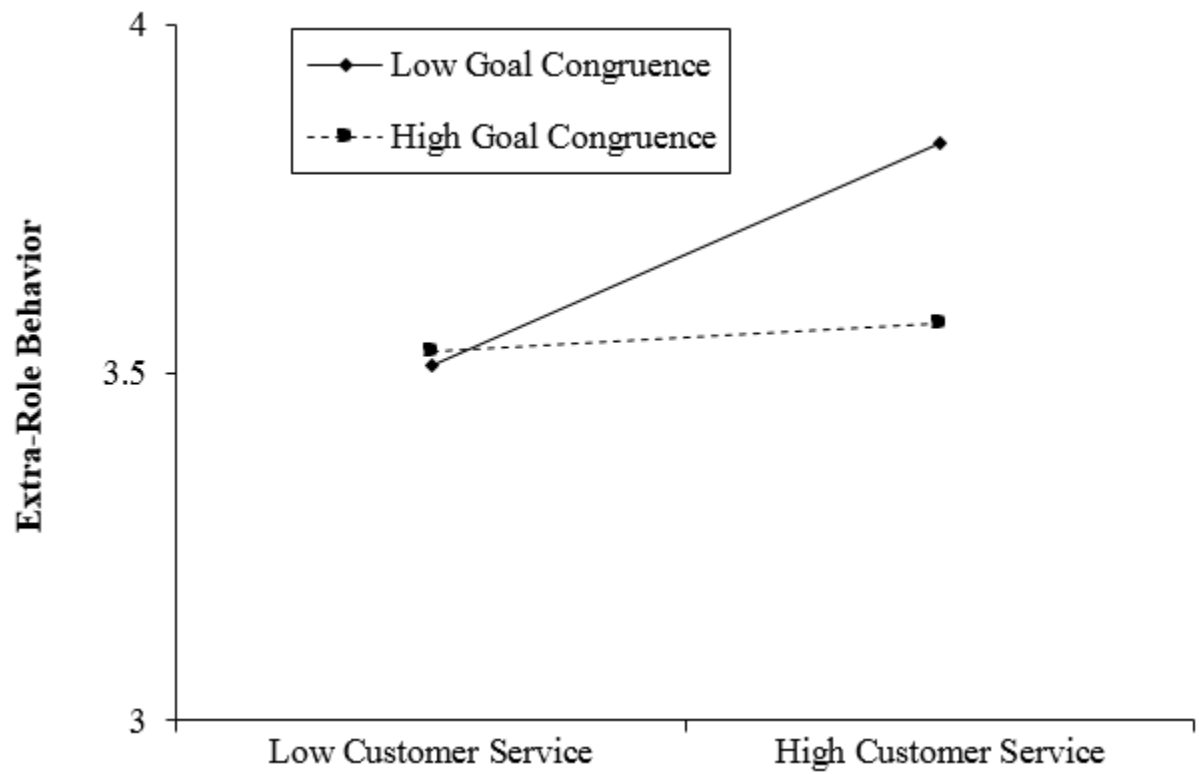
Interaction of POS and Goal Congruence Regressed on Perceived Customer Service Orientation



Note. POS = perceived organizational support.

Figure 3.

Interaction of Perceived Customer Service Orientation and Goal Congruence Regressed on Extra-Role Behavior



Appendix A

Perceived Customer Service Orientation

For the following items, please respond using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Inclined to Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor	Inclined to Agree	Strongly Agree
Agree				

1. Responding quickly and thoroughly to requests for assistance from our customers is considered to be very important here.
2. People respond quickly and thoroughly to requests for assistance from our customers.
3. Overall the organization is effective in accomplishing its objectives.

Appendix B

Perceived Organizational Support (POS)

For the following items, please respond using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Inclined to Disagree	Neither Disagree Nor	Inclined to Agree	Strongly Agree
		Agree		

1. The organization considers my goals and values.
2. The organization generally ignores complaints that I make. (R)
3. The organization disregards my best interests when it makes decisions that affect me.
(R)
4. Help is available from the organization when I have a problem.
5. The organization really cares about my well-being.
6. Even if I did the best job possible the organization would fail to notice. (R)
7. The organization is willing to help me when I need a favor.
8. The organization cares about my opinions.
9. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.
10. The organization values my contribution to its well-being.
11. If the organization could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary it would do so.
(R)
12. The organization fails to appreciate efforts that I put forth. (R)
13. The organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible.

14. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.
15. If given the opportunity the organization would take advantage of me. (R)
16. The organization shows very little concern for me. (R)

Appendix C

Extra-Role Behavior

For the following items, please respond using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly	Inclined to	Neither	Inclined to	Strongly Agree
Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Nor	Agree	
		Agree		

1. I participate in planning and organizing social events at work (e.g., staff gatherings).
2. I often make suggestions to improve the work unit.
3. I often attend functions that are not required but that help the organization.
4. I often volunteer for tasks which are not required.

Appendix D

Goal Congruence

Please indicate the importance of the following goals using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5
Of Little				Of Primary
Importance				Importance

1. Upgrade physical working conditions.
2. Achieve excellence in aviation-related training.
3. Increase efficiency and cost effectiveness.
4. Increase equal opportunity.
5. Achieve outstanding customer service to the agency and aviation community.