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DETERMINANTS OF SERVICES EXPECTATIONS: AN APPLICATION TO THE AIRLINE INDUSTRY

Adélaïde Cezard

A Thesis
In
The Faculty
of
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ABSTRACT

DETERMINANTS OF SERVICES EXPECTATIONS: AN APPLICATION TO THE AIRLINE INDUSTRY

by

Adélaïde Cezard

Understanding consumer expectations is a key to deliver superior services. The role of expectations has received attention in both satisfaction and perceived quality literature domains but no agreement has been reached concerning the nature and formation of expectations. The present study reviewed the antecedents of consumer expectations discussed in the literature and incorporated some of them into a model. Then it looked at the impact of individualism/collectivism on the formation of expectations. Regressions were conducted to see which antecedents influenced expectations. Two different types of expectations were found and results revealed that many antecedents related to external and internal sources of information, values, number of perceived alternatives and other personal characteristics influence one or the two types of expectations. Interesting theoretical and managerial implications were found concerning the proposed model. The study also revealed that differences exist between individualists and collectivists with regard to the formation of expectations; however, the differences were not as expected.

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INTRODUCTION

The service sector is experiencing an exponential growth because of the deregulation of many services (banking, telecommunications), the transfer of manufacturing operations from developed countries to developing countries, and the technological evolution (Rust, Zahorik and Keiningham 1996). Service marketing is boosted by this trend. Services generated 74% of gross domestic product in 1994 and represented 79% of all jobs in the United States (Henkoff 1994). It is estimated that by the end of the century, up to 90 percent of employees currently working in the manufacturing sector will be working in the service sector (Chen, Gupta and Rom 1994). This growing sector calls for much research. Research on services is not only interesting for the service sector alone because, in essence, "every organization is a service which may or may not include a physical product" (Rust, Zahorik, and Keiningham 1996).

The importance of expectations contrasts with the small amount of research devoted to this concept in the service quality and consumer satisfaction literatures. Tannen (1979, p. 137) shows the relevance of studying expectations: "The only way we can make sense of the world is to see the connections between things, and between present things and things that we have experienced before and heard about. These vital connections are learned as we grow up and live in a given culture. As soon as we measure a new perception against what we know of the world from prior experience, we are dealing with expectations". Boulding et al. (1993) and Clow and Beisel (1995) state that it is crucial for service firms to realize the importance of meeting customer expectations and to learn to manage these expectations properly in order to achieve both an increase in

patronage behavior and a high level of customer satisfaction.

The key to successful positioning of customer service is not to create expectations greater than the service your company can deliver. People who buy discount suits don't necessarily get worse service. They do get less of it, but whether they perceive that the service is of low quality depends on their expectations. Good service results when the provider meets or exceeds the customer's expectations. But if it does less than what the customer expects then the service is considered bad (Davidow, and Uttal 1989).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Understanding customer expectations is a key to delivering superior services (Parasuraman, Berry and Zeithaml 1991b). The concept of expectation pertains to both the satisfaction and the perceived quality literature domains. Expectations can be seen as an antecedent of those two constructs. The role of expectations has received attention in the satisfaction literature (e.g., Miller 1977; Oliver 1980, 1997; Prakash 1984a,b; Tse and Wilton 1988; Cadotte, Woodruff and Jenkins 1987; Yi 1990; Babin and Griffin 1998) and in the service quality literature (e.g., Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry 1988, 1991, 1993, 1994, 1996; Teas 1993,1994; Boulding et al. 1993; Cronin and Taylor 1992; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman 1993; Oliver 1993, 1997), but little research has been done on the nature and formation of expectations. No agreement has been reached on those two topics (Zeithaml et al. 1993). We can distinguish two types of expectations

(should and will) which, according to Oliver (1993,1997) and Spreng et al. (1997), are complementary to obtain a clear understanding of their meaning. Limited research has been done incorporating both types of expectations and their antecedents (e.g., Zeithaml et al. 1993).

Furthermore little research has been conducted in the demand side of services compared to the high number of supply side investigations (Crozier and McLean 1997). The consumer behavior literature concentrates on manufactured goods, whereas most of the service marketing literature focuses on the differences between marketing goods and marketing services.

Expectations have been studied in the service quality and consumer satisfaction domains. Both literatures state that expectations play a role in the formation of perceived quality and satisfaction through the disconfirmation paradigm: satisfaction and perceived quality result of the difference between the level of performance perceived and the level of performance expected by the consumer. But the effective role of expectations is challenged by many authors (e.g. Churchill and Surprenant 1982; Tse and Wilton 1988; Bolton and Drew 1991).

Many authors have proposed different types of antecedents for service expectations. For example Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1993) used focus groups. Miller (1977) combined different theories applied to service expectations to elaborate propositions. Prakash (1984b) used different types of expectations formed by different

antecedents without pre-test. Cadotte, Woodruff and Jenkins (1987) did an empirical study showing the importance of other brands in the formation of expectation. Boulding et al. (1993) manipulated some antecedents in an experiment.

Schaninger, Bourgois and Buss (1985) demonstrated how cultural differences among cultural groups were likely to yield different consumption and media behaviors. Their work concluded that culture was a strong determinant of attitudes, and that consumption differences were mostly due to cultural differences. Cross-cultural research in the service sector is needed (Winsted 1997). Services represent an important growing sector and with the national competition, more and more service providers are expanding abroad. Few cross-cultural studies exist on services (e.g. Malhotra et al. 1994; Winsted 1997). For example, Winsted (1997) examined how consumers in the US and Japan evaluate service encounter. She found significant differences in the service evaluation according to the culture. There is a lack of cross-cultural studies especially on service expectations. According to Winsted (1997) comparing cultures "can enhance our understanding of our own culture and how it influences our perceptions and expectations".

The large majority of research in the satisfaction and perceived quality domains has been specific to the United States. The impact of different cultures on the formation of expectations has not been addressed (Overby 1998). Triandis (1994a) distinguishes two aspects of culture: objective (e.g., tools, radio stations) and subjective (categorization, norms, roles). Subjective culture can also be broken down into different patterns or cultural syndromes (a pattern of belief, attitudes, norms, role, and values

organized around some themes that can be seen in a society. According to Triandis (1994a), collectivism and individualism are two such syndromes. "These syndromes have been shown to moderate societal behaviors, and, therefore, expected to also moderate the formation of expectations" (Overby 1998, p. 2). The author proposes to test if the way expectations are formed depends on culture and more specifically to see the impact of collectivism and individualism on this model.

The purpose of this study is first to review the antecedents of consumer expectations discussed in the service literature and incorporate them into a single model. After the formulation of the model, we will test it in the context of the airline industry and then we will examine the model in a multi-cultural environment to see if we can make a differentiation between collectivists' and individualists' expectations formation.

We will first review the specific characteristics of services and all the elements that distinguish them from products. We will then try to define the highly controversial concept of expectation and then introduce variables that can affect these expectations. The last part of the study is dedicated to the impact of culture on the formation of these expectations.

I. LITERATURE REVIEW

SPECIFIC CHARACTERISTICS OF SERVICES

Shostack (1977) argued that the distinction between goods and services is continuous rather than discrete. There are very few pure goods or services, in fact, most products can be placed within the two extremes of intangible or tangible dominance, it depends on the extent to which the good or service is integrated with the product as a whole.

Zeithaml (1981) proposed a framework for isolating differences in evaluation processes between goods and services. He distinguished three types of quality involved in the assessment of services: search, experience, and credence qualities. Attributes used to evaluate tangible goods (e.g., clothing) are search qualities, they can be determined by the consumer before purchase. For more intangible services (e.g., restaurant meals) consumers use experience qualities that can be evaluated only after purchase. Credence qualities are attributes that the buyer cannot evaluate even after purchase (e.g., attributes of medical diagnostics), the consumer must believe that the attribute is present on faith based on the word of others.

Services by nature are difficult to evaluate because it is difficult for customers to build an idea of what the service will be. Indeed services present specific characteristics: intangibility, heterogeneity, inseparability and perishability. Services are intangible, as they can not be measured, touched, smelled or seen, it is an abstract idea (Shostack

1977). Services are also heterogeneous, their performance often varies according to the service provider, the consumer and the day (Zeithaml 1988). Furthermore, the production and consumption of a service are inseparable: quality occurs during service delivery (Zeithaml et al. 1985). There is little margin for error, the consumer perception and expectations of the service provider can change over the consumption period (Crozier and McLean 1997). Furthermore, service is an activity or a process because it stops after consumption (Gronroos, 1983). Since services are perishable, there is no storage possibility. Hence, because of the nature of services, firms may have difficulties in understanding how consumers form their expectations.

DEFINITION OF EXPECTATIONS

What are Expectations?

Tolman (1932) used first the word "expectation" in the context of behavior and argued that individuals learn of potential consequences based on their prior experience and behave to realize or avoid these consequences in the future. There is no agreement on the definition of expectation but a well accepted definition of expectation is given by Olson and Dover (1979, p. 313): expectations are "pretrial beliefs about a product that serve as standards or reference points against which product performance is judged".

Davidow and Uttal (1989, p. 84) proposed a more practical definition of expectations: "Levels of expectation are why two organizations in the same business can

offer far different levels of service and still keep customers happy".

Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1991b) did a qualitative study to understand customer expectations for six types of service (automobile repair, automobile insurance, hospitality, property and causality insurance, equipment repair, and tractor rental). The major conclusions were that consumers expect service companies to do what they are supposed to do. Typical consumer expectations are neither extreme nor extravagant.

According to Oliver (1997, p. 68), we have to look at expectations in terms of their function. We have to ask such questions as "Why it is engaged by the consumer, what it does or what it is intended to do?" By focusing on functions we broaden the concept of expectations including other concepts performing the same function. One function of expectations is the standard of comparison (or comparative referent). It is widely accepted that expectations serve as "standards with which subsequent experiences are compared, resulting in evaluations of satisfaction or quality" (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry 1993, p. 1).

Dimensions of Service Expectations

We can distinguish four main dimensions of expectations emanating from the dimensions of services: process, outcome (Shostack 1977), situation (Belk 1975; Bitner 1990), and affect (Wilson et al. 1989; Oliver 1997).

First, Shostack (1977) suggested that services can be divided into a core element

surrounded by peripheral elements. Consumers make service evaluation on the outcome or technical dimension (what is delivered) and on the process or functional dimension (how the service is delivered) of service delivery (Gronroos 1983; Richard and Allaway 1993). For example, a hotel guest will be provided with a room and a bed to sleep (outcome) and he/she will interact in a certain way with the hotel employee (process). We find these two dimensions (technical and process) in the SERVQUAL instrument developed by Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1985, 1988, 1991a).

The SERVQUAL instrument developed by Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman, (1985, 1988) is made up of five service dimensions that determine common dimensions of service delivery. The authors elaborated a multi-item scale (SERVQUAL) to measure service quality by comparing consumer's expectations from a service with his/her performance perceptions. They began with focus group interviews of consumers' experiences with four service sectors (retail banking, credit cards, security brokerage, and product repair and maintenance). They discovered initially ten dimensions called: tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, competence, courtesy, credibility, security, access, communication, and understanding. After further investigations they found that some of the 10 dimensions were correlated. After refinement, the instrument included 22 items loading on five dimensions: tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy. The sum of the aggregates formed by difference-scores (perception versus expectations) for each of the five dimensions, forms the global perceived quality. Reliability is the most important dimension in "meeting" customer expectations according to the authors' scale. Tangibles, assurance, responsiveness and empathy are the

most important in "exceeding" expectations.

But these five service dimensions have been widely criticized (e.g., Carman 1990; Babakus and Boller 1992; Cronin and Taylor 1992; Teas 1994; Thorpe and Rentz 1996; Van Dyke, Kappelman and Prybutok 1997). "The unstable nature of the factor structure of the SERVQUAL instrument may be related to the atheoretical process by which the original dimensions were defined" (Van Dyke, Kappelman and Prybutok 1997, p. 201). Cronin and Taylor (1992) showed empirically that some dimensions overlap. Babakus and Boller (1992) used the 22 original items in their study. Their factor analysis did not support the five factors model and their confirmatory analysis resulted in only two dimensions. Parasuraman et al. (1991) found that the 22 original items loaded on five factors but they were different from the original dimensions: the tangibles dimension split into two factors and responsiveness and assurances loaded on the same factor. In sum, the unstable number and pattern of the factor structure proposed by Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry call for further research to determine the dimensions of services.

The SERVQUAL and its five controversial dimensions focus on the process qualities of services. Except for the reliability dimension, which can be seen as a technical component, all others are functional-process elements. So, the SERVQUAL puts a strong emphasis on process at the expense of the other dimensions (Richard and Allaway 1993).

In addition to these two main dimensions, outcome (technical) and process

(functional), Belk (1975) and Bitner (1990) pointed out another service dimension: consumer situations. Consumer situations are, according to Belk (1975), all the factors that are particular to a specific time and place where the consumer is, which are independent of the consumer and product characteristics. They include physical and social surroundings (e.g., other consumers around), task (e.g., personal use or gift), antecedent states (temporary mood or conditions, time perspective (e.g., time of the day).

A last dimension has been pointed out by Oliver (1997), affect. Expectations can focus on attribute performance or on higher order outcome like value. We must not constraint expectations to attributes but broaden the concept to higher levels of abstraction (e.g. joy). The literature has not paid much attention to the recognition of nonperformance and noncognitive expectations. Only a few people dealt with affective expectations (e.g. Wilson et al. 1989), as it is a fairly new phenomenon.

Affective expectations can occur in three situations: first, target-based expectancies (Jones and McGillis 1976) are expectations based on one's own previous reactions to a stimulus. A person may like a new Woody Allen film because she or he has liked previous ones. Second, category-based expectancies (Jones and McGillis 1976) are based on people's knowledge of how others reacted to a stimulus. A person expects to like the new Woody Allen film just because a friend said he liked it. Third, cultural feeling rules (Hochschild 1979) are cultural norms dictating how people expect to feel in a different social situation. In a funeral, a person is expected to be sad because of cultural

feeling rules about funerals.

It may never be the case that people evaluate a stimulus without a prior affective expectation or postcomputed affective norms (Wilson et al. 1989). A person who encounters a stimulus that violated her or his affective expectation cannot notice the discrepancy. People form evaluation quicker when they have an expectation that is consistent with a stimulus value. If a consumer expects, for example to enjoy a movie, she or he can make a joyous assessment without consciously processing the film production.

In summary, the concept of expectations is quite complex, and it implies different types of expectations.

DIFFERENT TYPES OF EXPECTATIONS

Customers' expectations have been investigated in a number of studies (Zeithaml et al. 1993). They have received a lot of attention in the customer satisfaction and service quality literature domains. But "the specific nature of the expectation standard, the number of standards used, and the sources or antecedents of expectations has not yet been reached" (Zeithaml et al. 1993, p. 1).

Should and Will Expectations

Two types of expectations have received more attention in the literature: "will-be" and "should-be" expectations. These expressions have been interpreted differently.

Predictions or Will Expectations

In the customer satisfaction literature, expectations are viewed as predictions made by customers about what is likely to happen during a service, it corresponds to what the service "would" or "will" be (Prakash 1984; Zeithaml et al. 1993; Oliver 1997). Oliver (1997, p. 28) defines expectation as a "prediction, sometimes stated as a probability or likelihood, of attribute or product performance at a specific performance level". This type of expectation borrows from the expectancy theory of Tolman (1932), who argues that individuals learn of potential consequences of their actions and behave to realize or avoid these consequences. Miller (1977) called this standard the expected standard, which reflects no affective dimension, and is the result of an indifferent calculation of probability. He differentiates it from other types of expectations (that we will see later).

Oliver (1993, 1997) goes one step further and distinguishes predictive expectations influencing satisfaction called "predictive -not ideal- quality expectations" and predictive expectations influencing both satisfaction and service quality named "predictive nonquality expectations or performance". Nonquality performance dimensions are defined as "any dimension that is not critical for functional performance but does have the capacity to cause disagreement among consumers" (Oliver 1993, p.

78). It can be the style of the chairs in a restaurant or the gender of a service provider.

Normative Standards or Should Expectations

Another type of expectations corresponds to the desired level of service performance. This standard is typically used in the service quality literature. It includes ideal, excellent, desired, deserved, needed, adequate and minimum tolerable. Prakash (1984a) uses the term normative expectations to define how the service should perform in order to satisfy the consumer.

This normative standard is often called the "should expectation" (Miller 1977). The meaning of "should" is ambiguous. This type of expectation can be operationalized either as a desired or an ideal expectation (Boulding et al. 1993). In their early version of the SERVQUAL, Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985, 1988) defined expectations as what consumers want, or desire, in other words, what the service "should" be; because of the ambiguity of the term "should", Parasuraman et al. (1991, 1994) gave a more precise definition of the concept: should expectations correspond to an ideal standard or the desired service, the essential attribute for an excellent company. Even after these refinements, the multiple definitions and operationalizations of expectations in the SERVQUAL literature result in a concept loosely defined and subject to multiple interpretations (Teas 1994; Van Dyke et al. 1997).

In the context of the SERVQUAL we can interpret the concept of expectation as a "vector attribute", that is "one on which a customer's ideal point is an infinite level"

(Parasuraman et al. 1994b, p.14). "The ideal point represents the optimal product performance a consumer ideally would hope for" (Tse and Wilton 1988, p. 205). The problem with this interpretation of expectations as a vector attribute is that consumers' responses will be extreme (9 on a 9-point scale) because it is always better for service providers to increase performance (Oliver 1997; Van Dyke et al. 1997). So these expectations will not be very variable. Teas (1993) proposed to interpret the ideal point no longer as an infinite vector but as a "classic ideal point" which is finite. A level of performance beyond this ideal point will lead to a decrease of perceived quality. In this case, expectations are the ideal point (classic ideal point) or are close to it (feasible ideal point).

Boulding et al. (1993) consider another interpretation of should expectations in addition to the ideal standard that we just developed. Should expectations can be interpreted as the level of desired service. Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1991b, 1993, 1996) differentiated two levels of expectations" the *desired service* is what consumers want, it represents the level of service performance the consumer believes an excellent service provider can and should deliver. The *adequate service* is the minimum level of service performance that customers are willing to accept. Between those two types of expectations is a zone of tolerance. This zone can vary from consumer to consumer and from situation to situation for one consumer. It will be thinner and higher for outcome than for the process dimension of expectations since the outcome dimension, namely reliability, is seen as the "service core". So, it is easier for managers to exceed process dimension expectations (tangibles, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy) than

outcome ones (reliability).

The adequate level of service performance can be compared to the *minimum* tolerable expectation defined by Miller (1977) as the lower level of performance acceptable to the customer. Another level of desired service derived from the equity theory (Adams 1963), was proposed by Miller (1977): deserved expectations, that is the consumer's subjective evaluation of his/her own product investment. A consumer who, for example, has invested long shopping efforts feels that he/she deserves a high level of performance.

The Use of Will and Should Expectations Simultaneously

Many studies have shown the importance of distinguishing should from will expectations and have acknowledged the use of the normative and the predictive standards simultaneously (e.g., Tse and Wilton 1988; Boulding et al. 1993; Oliver 1993, 1997). Several findings support this idea.

First, Oliver (1981) incorporated the notions of prediction and desire in the same concept called "evaluative expectations". According to Oliver (1981, p. 33), "expectations have two components: a probability of occurrence (e.g., the likelihood that a clerk will be available to wait on a customer) and an evaluation of the occurrence (e.g., the degree to which the clerk's attention is desirable or undesirable, good or bad, etc...)". Both are necessary because it is not clear that some attributes (clerks, in our example) are desired by all shoppers. But Spreng, Mackenzie and Olshavsky (1997) pointed out that

this broader definition of expectations confounds customers' judgement of some event with their expectations of the likelihood of its occurrence. Indeed, two people may have the same estimate of the likelihood that a clerk will be available to wait on them. But one person may want a clerk to wait on her or him whereas the other might not want a clerk to wait on her or him but rather think that clerks should not approach customers until they are asked for help. Therefore Spreng et al. (1997) believe that the only way to gain a clear understanding of the meaning of expectations is to avoid confounding predictive will expectations with normative should expectations. So we should treat them separately.

Second, according to Tse and Wilton (1988) and Oliver (1993, 1997), should and will expectations may operate in tandem. A service performance may meet or exceed the level of service predicted by the consumer, but be inferior to the level of service desired. Consumers can be satisfied with the service but dissatisfied with the lack of fulfillment of their wants.

Third, Boulding et al. (1993) showed that an increase in customer will expectations leads to higher perception of quality after the consumer is exposed to the service. Whereas an increase in customer should expectations decreases the level of quality perceived after consumption. Since the objective of managers is to increase the level of quality perceived, they should simultaneously try to increase will expectations and decrease should expectations. Boulding et al. (1993) empirical study showed that providing the best possible service each and every time can increase will expectations but might also increase should expectations. Fortunately, results of this study showed that

will expectations increase faster than should expectations, so that the net impact on perception is positive.

Finally Zeithaml et al. (1993) found that some antecedents of expectations affect will expectations and others affect should expectations as we will see later.

Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1994, 1996) called for more research to resolve the issue on the standards used to fully encompass the concept of expectations.

Expectations Linked with Experience

Woodruff, Cadotte and Jenkins (1987) proposed the standard of experience-based-norms that reflects what the focal brand should provide to meet needs and wants. It is constrained by the performance consumers believe is possible based on experiences of known brands. Woodruff, Cadotte and Jenkins (1987) give two types of antecedents of experience-based norms: the performance of a particular brand namely the "best brand norm" (e.g. most preferred, most popular, last purchased brand) and the average performance of a group of similar brands namely the "product based norm". Prakash (1984) proposes a standard comparing similar brands. It is called comparative expectations.

We just described three main types of expectations, and the literature proposes several variables that influence them.

DETERMINANTS OF CUSTOMERS EXPECTATIONS

Several authors have proposed different types of expectation antecedents (e.g., Miller 1977; Prakash 1984; Cadotte, Woodruff and Jenkins 1987; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman 1993; and Clow and Beisel 1995). Literature review findings show that gathering information plays a critical role in the formation of customers' expectations. We tried in the following section to summarize the views of these different authors. We distinguish several categories of antecedents: internal and external sources of information, consumers' needs and values, effort involved in buying a service, transitory situations and other antecedents.

Sources of Information

"In the absence of any information, prior expectations of service will be completely diffuse. In reality, however, customers have many sources of information that lead to expectations about upcoming service encounters with a particular company." (Boulding et al. 1993, p. 9)

Information Search

To evaluate a product or a service a consumer has the choice of retrieving from memory information from past experience or searching for information through external sources such as advertising or friends' experience (Murray 1991). Two types of information sources are available to the consumer: external and internal. External information search represents a motivated and conscious decision by the consumer to

seek new information from the environment (Murray 1991). Internal search is linked to memory scan (Bettman 1979).

Usually, in his/her information seeking process, the consumer first examines information in memory about past experience with the service and previous learning about the environment (Murray 1991). Much of the information stored in memory is passively acquired as part of the person's daily routine. Because it is easier to acquire information from memory than to engage in active search, consumers are likely to first check their stock of internal information. They will engage in active search only if the perceived benefit of additional information outweighs the cost of acquiring it (Beales et al. 1981).

As we have seen in the section covering the specific characteristics of services, the process of evaluating a product is different from the process of evaluating a service. According to Zeithaml (1981) and Deighton (1984), consumers typically rely more on experience properties than on search quality when evaluating a service. Past experience with the service becomes a determinant element in the formation of expectations (Oliver 1980; Gronroos 1983) at the expense of external sources of information (e.g., advertising, price, or word-of-mouth).

Internal Source of Information or Consumer's Past Experience with the Service

Past experience includes prior experience, brand connotations and symbolic elements. It implies that the consumer has experience with various brands or at least a perception of what the other brands might deliver (Oliver 1997).

Comparison with other similar brands

According to Prakash (1984), the comparison with other similar brands determines the level of comparative expectations. Woodruff, Cadotte and Jenkins (1987) proposed the standard of experience-based-norms that reflects what the focal brand should provide to meet needs and wants. It is constrained by the performance consumers believe is possible, based on experiences of known brands. Woodruff, Cadotte and Jenkins (1987) proposed two types of antecedents of experience-based norms: the performance of a particular brand, namely, the "best brand norm" (e.g., most preferred, most popular, last purchased brand) and the average performance of a group of similar brands namely the "product based norm". Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1993, p. 9) included this concept of past experience in their model of antecedents of expectations, defining it as the "customer's previous exposure to service that is relevant to the focal service".

Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1993) added to the experience with similar services the experience of consumers working or having worked in the same sector. Prior working experience will intensify the expectations of these consumers. They have a strong philosophy of what should be done because they already did it before. They expect to be treated as they treat(ed) other people.

(Dis)satisfaction experienced in the past

Satisfaction/dissatisfaction is an episodic transaction specific measure (Zeithaml

et al. 1988; Bitner 1990). Oliver (1981, p. 27) defined satisfaction as a "summary psychological state resulting when the emotion surrounding disconfirmed expectations is coupled with the consumer's prior feelings about the consumption experience". Many authors have stated that satisfaction with past service experience enhances the level of expectation for later similar service expectations (e.g., Howard and Sheth 1969; Clow and Beisel 1995; Oliver 1997). Early Howard and Sheth (1969) stated that expectations involve anticipated satisfaction. Clow and Beisel (1995, p. 35) formulated in other words the same idea: "A client satisfaction with his/her last experience with a firm should have a positive effect on his/her expectations for the next service experience". If consumers perceived satisfactory performance of the service in the past, the level of their expectations will be high. If consumers experienced a problem with a service, they may decrease their level of expectations for the next service. The empirical study of Clow and Beisel (1995) showed that satisfaction is the most important antecedent of customer expectations.

Affect

Affect has been defined by Russel and Pratt (1980, p. 311) as "emotion expressed in language, and affective quality of a molar, physical environment (or, more simply expressed, a place), as the emotion-inducing quality that persons verbally attribute to that place". Affect encompasses four dimensions: arousing, exciting, pleasant, relaxing qualities. Pleasure and arousal explain most of the variance of the construct. According to Crozier and McLean (1997), since services are difficult to evaluate, consumers base their expectations more on emotions (and particularly trust) than on reasoning. According to

Chebat (1998), affect may be either part of the cognitive process or bias it. In the first case, emotions can be used as information pieces. We can infer that positive feelings about a past experience may enhance the level of expectations. In the second case, emotions may be less meaningful but still influence the way information is processed.

Attribution theory

Attribution theory (Weiner 1985; Folkes 1984, 1988) helps to understand the role of consumer perception of a past experience in the formation of expectations. Attributions are what people perceive to be the cause behind their own behavior, the behavior of others or the event they observe (Hui and Hui 1985). Consumers experiencing a problem with a service are more likely to search for an explanation (Folkes 1994). When consumers are disappointed with purchases, they may attribute their dissatisfaction to different sources, among them the producers, retailers, or themselves (Zeithaml 1981). Causal inferences influence affective and behavioral responses (Folkes 1984, 1988; Weiner 1985) and the level of service expected. Weiner (1982, 1985) identified three dimensions of causes: the locus (who is responsible), the stability (probability of recurrence) and controllability (did the responsible party have control over the cause). According to the author, these three dimensions are linked with expectations changes.

Causes of service successes and failures can be permanent, unchanging or temporary and fluctuating (Folkes 1994). For example, in the airline sector, a flight delay can be perceived as due to stable causes (e.g., constant understaffing) or unstable causes

(e.g., temporary shortage of staff). When a consumer attributes stable causes for a service, he/she will be more confident that the same outcome will recur than if he/she attributes unstable causes. *Stability* influences expectations for service performance (Folkes 1994).

The *locus of causality* (or control) states that the cause of the performance of a service can be internal (the person) or external (the environment). This summarizes Heider's (1958) idea of a one dimension causality: cause is either within (internal to) or outside (external to) the person. According to Weiner (1982), the impact of the locus of causality on expectation changes is not clear. Studies show contradictory results. On the one hand, the author reports that the social learning conception states that it is the locus of control that influences expectations rather than the stability dimension. But on the other hand, subsequent research has demonstrated that it is the stability and not the locus that accounts for the expectancy shifts. The confusion is due to the strong linkage between internal versus external and stable versus unstable causes. For example, for an event due to skills, the cause is internal and stable and for an event due to luck, the cause is external and unstable. It is hard to separate both dimensions (Weiner 1982)

The third dimension is *controllability*. A cause can be controllable or intended by the person or others or not. Someone can be responsible or not for the event (Russell 1982). Situational factors are "the service-performance contingencies that customers perceive are beyond the control of the service provider", for example, bad weather, catastrophes, random over-demand (Parasuraman et al. 1993, p. 8). It is, according to the

authors, an antecedent of expectations. If the cause of the problem is beyond the control of the service provider, the level of consumer expectations will increase, consumers seem to recognize that the contingencies are not the fault of the company and, therefore, accept a lower level of service quality. For example, the focus group in the research of Zeitahml et al. (1993) revealed that a catastrophe that affects a large number of people at one time would likely lower service expectations.

Kelley and Davis (1994) studied attribution in the context of service recovery.

One negative service encounter can undermine an extraordinary record of superior service lowering evaluation of the service. These expectations are customers' predictions of how effectively the service provider will resolve service failures when they arise. According to the authors, service failure experiences should have an impact on the subsequent expectations associated with the service recovery.

To sum up, people usually search more for causes when the event is negative than when it is positive. Furthermore, the less stable and uncontrollable the cause of a negative experience is perceived, the higher the level of expectations. The impact of the locus of causality (internal versus external source) on expectations is unclear.

Personal role

Customer participation is what the customer does during the service delivery to facilitate the process. The role of the consumer is important because the production and consumption of the service are simultaneous (Gronroos 1987). To some degree customers

always take part in the production of the service (by reading a manual, filling out forms, expressing desires) (Davidow and Uttal, 1989). Automated teller machines, for example, increase the role of customers in producing banking service. The consumer perceived influence on the level of service received plays a role in the formation of expectations (Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman 1993). The knowledgeability, ability and willingness to cooperate in getting service influence the service evaluation (Davidow and Uttal 1989).

The quality of many services depends on consumers' definition of what they desire (Zeithaml 1981). For example, a doctor's accurate diagnosis requires a conscientious report of case history and symptoms. If consumers estimate that they fulfilled their role in the delivery of the service, they will expect a higher service quality (Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman 1993), if not, they will have lower expectations.

External Sources of Information

Information gathered by the consumer about the service constitutes another set of antecedents of expectations. Miller (1977) proposed three types of information sources leading to the formation of expectations: advertising, word of mouth and sales promises. Oliver (1980) uses the concept of context to include the different sources of information: the content of communications from salespeople and social referents. Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1993) distinguish three types of information sources: explicit service promises, implicit service promises and word of mouth. Beales et al. (1981) and Oliver (1997) added the influence of third parties.

Explicit service promises

First, explicit service promises are information that the company gives to the consumer, for example, advertising, personal selling, contracts, and other communications from the service provider (Zeithaml et al. 1993). Because of the obvious commercial nature of these statements, we could say that consumers pay more attention to such claims than to other sources. However, Deighton (1984) showed that only if the consumer has no other information sources or experience on which to draw, advertising may be particularly important.

According to Deighton (1984), Hoch and Ha (1986) and Stafford (1996) the effect of the communication depends on the ambiguity of the message delivered concerning the attributes of the service. According to George and Berry (1981), an advertising campaign that gives the impression that the technical and functional quality of the services is better than it is will result in an increased expected service level. Because the intangible nature of services makes them difficult to evaluate before consumption, advertising has the specific mission to make the benefits of the service clear and real to tangibilize the service (Shostack 1977; Davidow and Uttal 1989; Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry 1985).

Berry and Clark (1986) proposed a typology of four communication strategies for enhancing tangibility: first, visualization (a vivid mental picture of a service benefits or qualities); second, association (links an extrinsic good, person or event, place or object to the actual service); third,, physical representation (tangibles that are directly or peripherally part of a service); and fourth, documentation (information such as facts or figures explaining the value or quality of the service).

Royne Stafford (1996) found that the use of verbal tangible cues has a positive effect on attitude toward the service provider. A consumer exposed to a lot of positive explicit promises will have higher levels of expectations than a consumer exposed to less positive explicit promises.

Implicit promises

Clow and Beisel (1995) conducted a research on the formation of expectations in the video rental industry and found that implicit promises or tangibles were the second most critical antecedent of customer expectations. Implicit service promises are not explicit cues leading the consumer to make inferences about the service quality (Zeithaml et al. 1993). Implicit service promises are one of the salient criteria in the formation of expectations (Oliver 1981; Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry 1985; Davidow and Uttal 1989; Crozier and McLean 1997). Since the service is intangible by nature and the production and the consumption of the service are congruent, the roles of the physical environment and salespeople are very important in the formation of expectations. Any physical evidence or tangible cue (colour, brightness of the surroundings, sounds, salespeople's clothing, etc.) helps the consumer in his evaluation of the service (Crozier and McLean 1997). Belk (1975) talked about physical and social surroundings influencing the evaluation of a service.

Many studies reveal that service encounters such as employees and physical surroundings (Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry 1985; Bitner 1990; Suleck, Lind and Marucheck 1995; Crozier and McLean 1997) and in particular the salesperson's selling behavior (Goff, Boles, Bellenger and Stojack 1997), and the sex of the service provider (Fisher, Gainer and Bristor 1997) have an influence on the evaluation of the service and in the consumers' expectations formation. In their qualitative study Parasuraman, Berry and Zeithaml (1991) insisted on the necessity of continuous personalized close relationships between the service provider and the consumer.

A useful framework for analyzing the formation of expectations is offered in the sociological literature called "dramaturgy" (Grove and Fisk 1981, 1997). The dramaturgy is a "subtheory" of the Symbolic Interactionist School of Thought stating that humans are symbol users and interact with each other based upon interpretations assigned to different features present in the behavioral setting. Any action or object including gestures, expressions or language has the potential to influence one's assessment of the interactional situation. In the dramaturgy context, the decor, furnishings and physical layout form the setting front. The actor's personal appearance and manner (dress, facial expressions, demographic profile, etc.) form the personal front.

Bitner (1990) proposed an expanded mix for services including in addition to the four traditional elements (product, price, place and promotion) three new p's: physical evidence (physical surroundings and all tangible cues), participants (all human actors)

and process (procedures and activities). A service provider can manipulate three elements in the service environment: the ambient conditions, the spatial layout, and the signs and symbols.

According to Zeithaml (1981) and Parasuraman, Berry and Zeithaml (1991) the major influence on expectations is the price. Price helps to make a service more tangible. A high price should be synonymous of high service quality (but low price does not legitimate low service quality). However the study of Crozier and McLean (1997) on estate agencies shows that price does not play a major role in the evaluation of an agency.

Dawar and Parker (1994) found that brand image has also a big influence on expectations. Brand name can transfer meaning to new services for which no information is yet available. In a similar way than for brand name, store image plays a role in the formation of expectations (Clow and Beisel 1995).

As a summary, all these different types of implicit promises influence the consumers' evaluation of the service. The more positive these promises appear to the consumer, the higher his/her expectations.

Word-of-mouth

Third, positive word of mouth is the positive statements made by people (not the organization) giving consumers an idea of what they can expect from the service (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry 1993). In the literature, authors (Bessom and Jackson

1975; Davis, Guiltinan and Johns 1979; Fisk, 1981; George and Berry 1981; Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry 1985; Davidow and Uttal 1989) have suggested that word-of-mouth communications are critical because services are intangible and heterogeneous, so they are difficult to evaluate. Some researchers have argued that the experience of others carry much greater weight than other information sources because of the similarity between the recipient and the communicator and because of the lack of financial motive on the part of the other person (Oliver 1997).

Zeithaml (1981) proposed three reasons why consumers may rely more on this personal source of information. First, media can convey information about search qualities of the services but little about experience qualities contrarily to word-of-mouth. Second, non personal sources may not be available because many service providers are local independent merchants with neither the experience nor the funds for advertising; advertising funded jointly by the retailer and the manufacturer is rarely used with services since local providers are both producers and retailers of the service. Furthermore, since professional associations banned advertising for many years, many professionals still tend to resist. Finally, because of the risk due to the lack of information prior to purchase, consumers may rely more on personal sources of information such as word-of-mouth.

Firms make specific efforts to encourage word-of-mouth (Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry 1985). Word-of-mouth about service performance carries particular weight as an information source because it is perceived by the consumer as unbiased. The importance of others' opinion depends on how closely the person is related to the

referent, but a simple evaluation of others, even unknown by the consumer, can generate expectations (Pinkus and Waters 1977).

In summary, positive word-of-mouth has a positive influence on expectations.

Third parties

Finally, third parties can influence expectations. Information experts are often available for complex commodities such as attorneys or medical services (Beales et al. 1981). Some consumers may rely on independent reports on products or services. It can be specialized newspapers such as consumer reports, TV programs (Oliver 1997) or consultants. Generally, a third party consultant acts in the interest of the buyer and he/she is able to develop a body of knowledge more efficiently than individual consumers (Beales et al. 1981). To sum up, positive information coming from third parties have a positive impact on expectations.

According to Zeithaml et al. (1993), external sources of information (explicit promises, implicit promises and word-of-mouth) and past experience (satisfaction and vividness of recall) influence both should and will expectations.

Ease and Vividness of Recall

As we have seen, customers' past experience and stored information from communications play an important role in the formation of expectations. The retrieval of this information gathered through past experience and communication cues is influenced

by the ease and vividness of recall. According to Oliver (1997), ease of recall and vividness of recall influence also the way information is processed. According to the author, information used by the consumer (especially in case of low-involvement) will generally be that which is most easily retrieved, in other words, the most immediate information in memory. Consumers will focus on memorable or distinctive moments from the past or update a summary of past experience with their most recent exposure (Fredrickson and Kahneman 1993). Recency, surprising and negative events (e.g., past experience with the service, store image or word of mouth) are more available in memory than older, common or positive events (Kanouse and Hanson 1972; Wong and Weiner 1981; Oliver 1997). People tend to attend to and encode negative information more rapidly because it enables them to prevent harm through avoidance of negative stimuli from people or products. "When the greater vigilance to negative information is paired with the willingness of consumer to overweigh more recent information, one can see the danger in permitting a dissatisfying service experience to go unresolved" (Oliver 1997, p. 83). In a word, when an information is negative, surprising or recent, it is easily retrieved by the consumer and plays a greater role in the formation of expectations.

Perception of Alternatives

Perceived service alternatives is the perception of the availability of better services provided by others firms (Zeithaml et al. 1993). When a consumer considers making a purchase, the number of alternatives that comes to mind is probably lesser than the number that is objectively available (Howard and Sheth 1969). The evoked set of brands or alternatives is defined as "the subset of brands that the consumer considers

buying out of the brands that s/he is aware of in a given product" (Howard 1977, p. 306). According to Howard, an evoked set exists because individuals possess limited cognitive capacities requiring thus that the brand decision process be simplified.

For a product category with a large number of alternatives, consumers follow a phased strategy: first, they select brands to be included in the evoked set, then they make a choice among the brands within the evoked set (Laroche and Sadokierski 1991). The consumer's level of expectations will be higher if the consumer perceives that he/she can find a better service elsewhere than if he/she thinks there are no other alternatives (Zeithaml et al. 1993). According to the authors, the perception of alternatives influence only should expectations.

In the service sector, alternatives are usually perceived by the consumer as very similar. Crozier and McLean (1997) found that in the real estate agency sector a large proportion of respondents do not differentiate among firms. Zeithaml (1981) proposed that the evoked set of alternatives is likely to be smaller for services than for goods. She gave three reasons. First, to purchase services the consumer visits retail establishments, which offer only a single brand for sale contrary to shops, which generally offer different alternatives of goods. Second, consumers are unlikely to find more than one or two stores providing the same service in a given geographic area. Third, because of the scarcity of information available the consumer will have difficulties being aware of the other existing alternatives.

To sum up, when a consumer decides to patronize a service provider he/she takes into account part of the available alternatives. The evoked set of the buyer of services tends to be small because of the nature of services. Furthermore, the bigger the perceived number of alternatives, the higher the level of expectations.

Consumer Needs and Values

Some antecedents of expectations are uncontrollable by the firm because they are inherent to the consumer himself (Davidow and Uttal 1989). Miller (1977) talked about consumers past history. Personal needs and values are two important individual characteristics influencing the level of expectations (Prakash 1984; Zeithaml et al. 1993; Oliver 1997). Oliver distinguished needs from values: needs are elements missing from one's life and values are worthy goals or representations of what is moral or right. Consumers buy products and services to satisfy their needs and to achieve valued end states of consumption such as achievement and well being (Oliver 1997). Values and needs are preexistant to expectations, they create a desire (temporal wants which may or may not have biological basis). Needs, values and the following desire influence expectations. According to Zeitahml et al. (1993), values influence only should expectations.

A consumer patronizes a service provider to fulfill a need (Oliver 1997). It can be for the purpose of restoration or enhancement. In the first case, restoration, a deficit existed in the consumer's life and the consumer wished the deficit removed. In the second case, enhancement, the consumer has built a life with the purchase added to the

bundle of things, which comprise existence for this person (Oliver 1997). Zeithaml et al. (1993) also acknowledged the importance of personal needs in the formation of expectations: according to them (p. 7), personal needs are "states or conditions essential to the physical or psychological well-being of the customer", e.g., physical, social and psychological needs. For example, a customer with high social and dependency needs may have relatively high expectations for a hotel's ancillary services (e.g., wants a bar with live music and dancing) (Zeithaml et al. 1993).

Often, consumers purchase products or services not only for their functional aspects but also to attain greater benefits and fulfill certain values (Kahle and Kennedy 1988). Values are enduring prescriptive or proscriptive belief that a specific end state of existence or specific mode of conduct is preferred to an opposite end state or mode of conduct for living one's life (Rokeach 1973).

Rokeach (1973) distinguished two types of values: instrumental and terminal values. Terminal values (e.g., equality, salvation) are desired modes of existence and represent enduring sets of values. Instrumental values (e.g., ambitious, honest) are desired modes of behavior helpful in the achievement of terminal values. Terminal values are more stable because they are acquired early in life, whereas instrumental values are more susceptible to change in the socialization process (Prakash 1984a).

Later, Kahle (1983) distinguished between external and internal values and acknowledged the importance of interpersonal relations, personal factors (e.g., self-

respect), and apersonal factors (e.g., fun, security) in value fulfillment. She drew a list of nine values (LOV) measuring the values central to people in living their lives. This list was developed from the list of eighteen terminal values (from the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) 1973) and other contemporaries in value research (Kahle and Kennedy 1988).

According to Prakash (1984a), ethnic, culture, age, gender, sex and income, education and sex are all variables influencing values. He compared values of black and white Americans and demonstrated that personal values influence expectations on clothing and TV set attributes.

Effort Involved in Buying a Service

According to Miller (1977) consumers take into account all the effort invested in order to obtain a service when they form their expectations. Effort includes time and money invested as well as cognitive effort. Depending on the effort invested, consumers think they deserve a certain level of expectation. Time and customers' participation can paradoxically be seen as a positive element of the service performance (Kelley, Donnelly and Skinner 1990). Chebat (1998) stated that the amount of time spent by corporate customers with service providers can be interpreted as care on the part of the service providers about specific needs. The literature states that the higher the level of effort invested, the higher the level of expectations.

Transitory Situations

Many research studies acknowledge the impact of situational variables on service expectations (e.g., Miller 1977; Zeithaml et al. 1993). Belk (1975) defined situational factors as all the factors that are particular to a specific time and place where the consumer is, which are independent of the consumer and product characteristics. Situational factors encompass many different aspects. They may be service-performance contingencies that customers perceive are beyond the control of the service provider (e.g. bad weather, catastrophes, random over-demand) (Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman 1993), temporary individual factors that make the consumer more sensitive and more dependent of the service (e.g., emergencies, service problems), social surroundings (other consumers around), task (e.g., personal use or gift), or temporary conditions (e.g., mood or time of the day) (Belk, 1975).

Clow and Beisel (1995) examined two particular aspects of situational factors: level of crowding and noise, while Davidow and Uttal (1989) looked at the customer psychological state at the time of service delivery. Clow and Beisel (1995) showed that neither the level of crowding nor the noise has an impact on expectations. According to Davidow and Uttal (1989), the transitory customer psychological states have an influence on the formation of expectations. Chebat et al. (1995) considered that consumer's mood has a positive influence on the level of service quality perceived but nobody knows if it is due to an increase in expectations or a decrease in performance perception. This position was challenged by Clow et al. (1998) arguing that expectations are stable over time and

not the result of mood or timing.

As we have seen, there is no agreement on the effect of situational factors on expectations.

Other Antecedents

Zeithaml et al. (1993) discovered other expectations' antecedents from the focus groups conducted. First, "enduring service intensifiers" are individual, stable factors that lead the consumer to a heightened sensitivity to service. They encompass the personal service philosophy (that we discussed in the past experience antecedent) and derived expectations. They also include situations where service employees depend on others to serve their own customers. These employees may feel pressure from their managers or supervisors. Second, Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman (1993) also considered predictive service expectations as antecedents of normative service expectations. Predictive expectations have a direct influence on satisfaction but an indirect one on perceived quality.

Moderating Variables

Oliver (1997) proposed to examine the retrieval mechanisms used by the consumer when formulating expectations from memory. "Researchers have shown that the retrieval process is subject to subtle distortions and to specific strategies to conserve mental effort" (Oliver 1997, p. 82). In this study we will focus on two variables potentially influencing the information process and the formation of expectations: degree

of involvement and need for cognition.

Degree of Involvement

Consumers' attention and comprehension processes are strongly influenced by their motivations, abilities and opportunities to process information in their environments (Batra and Ray 1986). Consumer's level of involvement with an object, situation or action is determined by the degree to which s/he perceives that the concept is personally relevant (Celsi and Olson 1988). The concept of personal relevance relates to the extent that the service characteristics are associated with personal needs and values. The degree of involvement has a positive impact on behaviors such as search and shopping and attention and comprehension processes. According to Rosenblatt (1985), individuals will seek more information in high involvement situations as compared to low involvement situations. "In sum, motivation to process information is a function of the personally relevant knowledge that is activated in memory in a particular situation" (Celsi and Olson 1988 p. 211).

According to Laurent and Kapferer (1985) involvement includes four dimensions: pleasure value, sign (or product value), risk importance, and probability of purchase error. The pleasure dimension corresponds to "the hedonic value of the product, its emotional appeal, its ability to provide pleasure and affect." (Laurent and Kapferer 1985, p. 42). The sign dimension is the symbolic value that the consumer attributes to the product, its purchase or its consumption.

Laurent and Kapferer (1985) grouped the perceived importance of a product, that is, its personal meaning with the perceived importance of negative consequences in the case of a poor choice in a single dimension. If a service is unimportant to the consumer (low involvement), the customer will lack attention. Chebat (1998, p. 9) illustrates this point: "travelers who are used to take the same flight on a regular basis are a sort of "blasé"; while on the plane they focus their attention on their own business files and magazines and not on the service quality cues such as the meal, the steward courteousness, the décor for which the airline has invested so much in vain: they take them as granted". A low-involved customer will not exert a great amount of cognitive effort in thinking about it. S/he will use the most easily retrievable information. This strategy refers to availability (Tversky and Kahneman 1973). Use of availability will cause the consumer to access the most immediate information in memory. It is referred to as recency phenomenon (Oliver 1997).

Another important dimension of involvement is the perception of risk or degree of uncertainty (Laurent and Kapferer 1985). Perceived risk represents consumer uncertainty about loss or gain in a particular transaction. While some degree of perceived risk probably accompanies all purchase transactions, more risk would appear to be involved in the purchase of services than in the purchase of goods because services are intangible, nonstandardized and usually sold without guaranties (Zeithaml 1981). First, because of their intangible nature and their high level of experience qualities, services must be selected on the basis of less pre-purchase information than a product. But a decrease of information is usually linked with an increase of perceived risk. Second, since services

are nonstandardized, even though a consumer purchases the same service (e.g. haircut) many times, s/he will be uncertain about the outcome. Third, services cannot usually be returned in case of dissatisfaction because they are already consumed. The risk is perceived as higher if no guaranty is proposed. Finally, some services are too specialized (e.g., medical diagnosis) and consumers have neither the knowledge nor the experience to evaluate if they are satisfied with the service. Guseman (1981) empirically tested the high degree of perceived risk involved in purchasing a service and compared it with the degree of perceived risk related to the purchase of a good. Capon and Burke (1980) showed that the greater the level of perceived risk (which characterizes high involvement situations), the greater the depth of search.

Oliver (1997) goes one step further and states that the degree of uncertainty, probability, ambiguity and ignorance of the outcome influences expectations. A consumer can be certain of the outcome thanks to the price, for example. Some outcomes are uncertain such as a game of chance or a weather prediction. Some outcomes can be known but the probability of occurrence not. In dining out, even if the consumer knows the probability of all the following individual distributions (heavy traffic, hard parking, courteous service), the joint distribution is unknown. Ignorance about the outcome can also exists because there is no historical antecedent of the outcome or the outcome is subject to random process (e.g. innovations, pharmaceutical).

To sum up, the degree of involvement for the service will influence the way information is processed (explicit, implicit communications, word-of-mouth and third

parties) and the degree of effort invested to get the service.

Need for Cognition

The need for cognition refers to "an individual's tendency to engage in and enjoy effortful cognitive endeavor" (Cacioppo, Petty and Kao 1984, p. 306). It is predictive of the manner in which people deal with task and social information. People high and low in need for cognition will not process the information received in the same way. Haugtvedt et al. (1988) showed how need for cognition helps to understand how individual differences can systematically influence the formation of product attitude. "The need for cognition influences the attitude formation process in a manner similar to the situational variables affecting motivation to think" (Haugtverdt et al. 1988, p. 211). For example, the authors showed that individuals scoring high in need for cognition are more influenced by the quality of arguments contained in an ad than people scoring low in need for cognition.

We just described some variables potentially influencing expectations. In the next section we will see how culture may have an impact on these variables.

CULTURAL DIMENSION

Need for Cross-Cultural Studies

An important area of research is the integration of cross-cultural dimensions. "The impact of culture on attitude and behaviors of individuals is pervasive" (Laroche, Kim and Zhou 1994, p. 52). Schaninger, Bourgois and Buss (1985) demonstrated how cultural differences among cultural groups were likely to yield different consumption and media behaviors. Their work concluded that culture was a strong determinant of attitudes, and that consumption differences were mostly due to cultural differences. Cross-cultural research in the service sector is needed (Winsted 1997). Services represent an important growing sector and with the national competition, more and more service providers are expanding abroad. Few cross-cultural studies exist on services (e.g., Malhotra et al. 1994; Winsted 1997). For example, Winsted (1997) examined how consumers in the US and Japan evaluate service encounter. She found significant differences in the service evaluation according to the culture. There is a lack of cross-cultural studies especially on service expectations. According to Winsted (1997) comparing cultures "can enhance our understanding of our own culture and how it influences our perceptions and expectations".

A particular important component of culture is the dimension of collectivism/individualism.

Individualism versus Collectivism

Cultural Level

Hofstede (1980, 1991) distinguished four dimensions in culture: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism and masculinity/femininity. Power distance is the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations accept that power is distributed unequally. Uncertainty avoidance refers to the extent to which people feel threatened by ambiguous situations and have created beliefs and institutions that try to avoid these. Masculinity is a situation in which the dominant values in society are success, money and objects. Femininity is a situation in which the dominant values in society are caring for others and the quality of life. Individualism/collectivism refers to a position of the culture on a bipolar continuum. In our study we will focus on this particular dimension and its impact on the formation of expectations.

In the cross-cultural psychology literature, many researchers have been interested in the collectivist versus individualist nature of culture (e.g., Hofstede 1980, 1991; Hofstede and Bond 1984; Hui and Triandis 1986; Triandis 1988, 1989; Markus and Kitayama 1991; Triandis et al. 1993). Hofstede (1991) defined individualism and collectivism as follows: "Individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family. Collectivism as its opposite pertains to societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive ingroups, which throughout people's

lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty."

Individualism is defined as a situation in which people are supposed to look after themselves and their immediate family only. Individualist cultures view the individual as an independent, self-contained autonomous entity whereas in collectivist cultures the self is viewed as interdependent with the surroundings context, it is the "other" or the "self in relation to other" that is important in individual experience (Markus and Kitayama 1991).

Collectivism is defined as a situation in which people belong to in-groups or collectivities which are supposed to look after them in exchange for loyalty. Miller (1984) stated that individuals in eastern cultures (more collectivist) are closely integrated with their surroundings, individuals in Western cultures (more individualist) are separate and independent from the context. Beckman (1975) summarizes the dimensions of Arnold et al (1972) underlying the concept of collectivism: independence, self confidence, leadership, competitiveness, willingness to volunteer personal services or money for community causes and willingness for government societal control.

One important concept shaped in the individualism/collectivism cultural dimension is the self-concept (Hofstede 1980; Triandis 1989; Markus and Kitayama 1991).

Concept of the Self

Individualism and collectivism can be seen at the cultural level. At a more

psychological level we can use the concept of self. Markus and Kitayama (1991) resumed the definition of Cooley (1902): the self consists of all statements made by a person, overtly or covertly, that include the word "T", "me", "mine" and "myself". This shows that all aspects of social motivation are linked to the self (Triandis 1989). The self has many aspects, for example attitudes (I like X), beliefs (I think that X results in Y) or intentions (I plan to do X).

Authors have looked at the influence of the self on the individuals' experiences including cognition, emotion and motivation (Markus et Katayama 1991), the way people sample, process and assess information, social behavior (Triandis 1989), the management of customer relationships and complaining behavior (Watkins and Liu 1996). The self can be seen as a constellation of beliefs, feelings and knowledge that is used to evaluate, organize and regulate one's intellectual, emotional and behavioral reaction to the physical and social environment (Bailey, Chen and Dou 1997).

Baumeister (1987) and Greenwald and Pratkanis (1984) made a distinction between three components of the self: the private, public, and collective self. The private self refers to cognitions involving traits, states or behavior of the person (e.g., I am honest). The public self represents cognitions concerning "the generalized others' view" of the self (e.g., people think I am honest). The collective self corresponds to cognitions relative to a view of the self found in some collectivities such as family, coworkers, scientific society (e.g., my coworkers believe I am honest). Triandis (1989) stated that the three selves are sampled with different probability according to the culture and this leads

to different consequences for social behaviors.

Some aspects of the self may be specific to one culture, others may be universal (Markus and Kitayama 1991). People in different cultures may hold very divergent views about the self. In particular, these differences are linked with the perception of the relationship between the self and others.

Markus and Kitayaman (1991) differentiated an independent self from an interdependent self. We find the independent self more often in individualist cultures (for example, in western countries). Individuals who uphold the independent view of the self are "egocentric, separate, autonomous, idiocentric and self contained" (Markus and Kitayaman 1991, p. 226). It is important for an independent individual to build oneself according to her/his thoughts, to become independent from others and to express one's unique attributes. "Inner attributes are more significant in regulating behavior" (Markus and Kitayama 1991).

Interdependent individuals tend to live more in non-western cultures (e.g., Chinese, Hispanics). An interdependent individual tries to maintain interdependence among individuals and see her/himself as part of a group. Triandis (1994, p. 43) call ingroups "the sets of individuals with whom a person feels similar". An interdependent person perceives that her/his behaviors are determined by thoughts, feelings and actions of others. Since others are so important for interdependent individuals, the in-group-out-group distinction is vital and the subjective boundary of one's in-group may tend to be

narrower for them compared to independent individuals (Triandis 1989). "In sum, the degree to which an individual feels connected to others will have an impact on the formation of the individual's self which in turn, will regulate his/her behavior" (Toffoli 1997, p. 174). The way the self is construed should impact the way one thinks about the self or any cognition relevant to the self, others or social relationships.

According to Triandis (1989), people will sample self-relevant information more frequently and they will process it more quickly than non-self-relevant information; furthermore, they will assess information that supports their current self-structure more positively than information which challenges this self-structure.

We can look at the impact of culture at different levels.

Idiocentrism/Allocentrism

The individualism/collectivism construct is not only useful for comparing cultures, but it is also useful for comparing differences among individuals and populations within a specific culture (Triandis 1989). Hofstede (1980) provides bipolar factors suggesting that individualism and collectivism are opposite poles of one dimension. But the individual-level factor analyses suggest that the two can coexist and are simply emphasized more or less in each culture (Triandis 1989). According to Triandis et al. (1993) we should use different terminologies for within than for between culture variation. The authors use the personality attribute allocentrism instead of collectivism and idiocentrism instead of individualism. Idiocentrics are people selecting

mostly individualist solutions. Allocentrics are people selecting mostly collectivist solutions. In all culture there are both allocentrics and idiocentrics. "All of us carry both individualist and collectivist tendencies; the difference is that in some cultures the probability that individualists' selves, attitudes, norms, values and behaviors will be sampled or used is higher than in others." (Triandis 1994b, p. 42).

A particularly interesting country to study subcultural differences is Canada, as we can see in the next section.

Application to Canada

Canadians

In this study we will focus on the Canadian consumer. This context has been chosen because of its multicultural nature. Many subcultures are living together and we can notice an acceleration in the immigration. Canada's population has been compared to a salad bowl by Duhaime, Kindra, Laroche and Muller (1991) to integrate the dynamic character of the term "mosaic" used by Porter (1965).

The two principal cultural groups in Canada are the English Canadians (10 millions) and the French Canadians (6.5 millions) (Duhaime et al. 1991). Laroche et al. (1996) state that attempts in the area of marketing to incorporate and apply notions from the field of cross-cultural adaptation were preceded by the realization that the presence of ethnic subcultures had significant implications for many aspects of marketing in the North-American context.

Many studies have compared consumption and lifestyle patterns between French and English Canadians (Mallen 1977; Tigert 1973; Shaninger, Bourgeois and Buss 1985; Hui et al. 1993; Laroche and Lee 1990; Laroche et al. 1996). Almost all the studies agreed on the fact that differences exist between English and French Canadians. Hénault (1971) was one of the first authors to develop a French Canadian cultural profile for marketing. He identified eight major characteristics that distinguish French from English Canadians. Some of them are: ethnic origin, religion, language, intellectual attitude, and family. Mallen (1971) states that French Canadians have a more hedonistic consumption, attitude and behavior than their English counterparts. They are also more conservative and less willing to take risks. They are more brand loyal too (Laroche and Toffoli 1996)

Collectivism and Individualism in Canada

Many authors have tried to characterize French and English Canadians as either collectivists or individualists but results are not consistent. Many studies dealt with the individualist characteristic of Francophones (e.g, Hénault 1971; Bouchard 1978; Ahmed et al. 1981; and Duhaime et al. 1991). Hénault (1971), for example, states that regarding the individual and its environment, French Canadians are more individualist. One of the 36 responsive chords of the Québécois elaborated by Bouchard (1978) is the individualism belonging to the French root of French Canadians. According to Ahmed et al. (1981) and Duhaime et al. (1991) French Canadians are more individualist regarding the environment, they see their interest before the interest of the community.

Another trend in the French-English Canadian literature showed on the contrary that French Canadians are more collectivist than their English counterpart. Richer and Laporte (1973) stated that French Canadians are more collectivist and English Canadians more individualist. Punnett (1991) comparing Anglophone and Francophone managers in government on the cultural dimensions of Hofstede, revealed that the only significant difference between the groups was on the dimension of individualism/collectivism. Anglophones were found more individualist than Francophones. So, it appears that the literature does not agree on the degree of collectivism and individualism of English and French Canadians.

The individualist/collectivist dimension of culture can be expected to have considerable implications for the management of customer relationships, complaining behavior (Watkins and Liu 1996) and even expectations (Overby 1998).

Impact of Collectivism and Individualism on the Formation of Expectations

The first objective of this study is to elaborate a model of expectations formation. The second objective is to explore the potential influence of subculture on the formation of expectations. It is expected that differences will exist between individualist and collectivist subcultures. In an unpublished paper, Overby (1998) proposed that the individualism/collectivism dimension of culture has an impact on some aspects of consumers' expectations (implicit communication, word of mouth, explicit communication, and personal experience).

Impact of Culture on the Retrieval of Information

One important issue in the literature on the self is whether the private and collective element of the self are in one or two cognitive structures. Triandis (1989) assumed that one structure, with different numbers of private and collective elements are involved. Trafimow et al. (1991) found that private and collective self-cognitions are stored in separate locations in memory. Priming a particular aspect of the self increases the retrieval of the self-cognitions pertaining to that aspect of the self. Furthermore the probability of retrieving a self-cognition was greater if the same type of self-cognition had been previously retrieved than if a different type had been previously retrieved.

Impact of Culture on Attributional Process

Many researchers have shown the effect of ethnicity on the attributional process (Miller 1984; Detweiller 1978). Detweiller (1978, p. 160) stated that "culture can have an important impact on the attribution process, at least in certain contexts". Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey (1988) distinguished two ways in which culture can have an impact on the attribution process: culture can influence the factor that people use to explain events and other's behaviors, and culture can moderate the degree to which individuals engage in active, conscious information processing. Three variables influence the attribution process: individualism/collectivism, control subjugation (Kluckholm and Strodtbeck 1961) and uncertainty avoidance (Hofstede 1991). The first two variables have an impact on the degree to which a consumer will infer dispositional or situational attributions. Situational and dispositional attributions imply external and internal causal explanations

(Toffoli 1997). The degree of effort invested in the attributional process is influenced by control-subjugation and uncertainty avoidance. We will focus on the first variable (individualism/collectivism) effect, which has been widely discussed in the literature.

If we look at the individual-level, according to Markus and Kitayama (1991), more independent-self people see their inner attributes are more significant in regulating their behavior, these attributes are seen by the actor and the observer as the diagnostic of the actor. On the contrary, people with a more interdependent self will emphasize the public component of the self. Morris (1993) conducted a study comparing Chinese people and Americans. He hypothesized that the formation of attribution for individualists (Americans) is biased toward dispositional (internal) explanations of the behavior of an actor, whereas the formation of attribution for collectivists (Chinese people) is biased toward situational (external) explanations. This cultural difference could fundamentally influence all manner of causal cognition (verbal explanations, social perceptions, and counterfactual thinking). Results of Morris' study showed that an attributor coming from an individualist culture will have a social theory centered on the person, whereas in a collectivist culture the attributor will have a social theory centered on the situation.

The degree to which a culture is high or low in context may be an explanation of the effect of culture on the attribution process (Ehrenhaus, 1983). Low and high contexts are intimately related to individualism and collectivism respectively (Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey 1988). According to Hall (1976), in high-context (collectivist) cultures much of the information to focus expectations and guide the attribution of meaning is

contained in the physical context or internationalized in the person. In low-context (individualist) cultures information is presumed to be shared by the interacting individuals (Ehrenhaus, 1983). Ehrenhaus (1983) proposed that people in high-context cultures are "attributionally sensitive and predisposed toward situational features and situationally based explanations". "People in low-context cultures are "attributionally sensitive and predisposed toward dispositional characteristics and dispositionally based explanations."

In sum, the literature shows that individualists (low-context) tend to attribute the cause of events experienced in the past to the actors of the event (the service provider for example or themselves), whereas collectivists (high-context) tend to attribute the cause of events to situational variables.

Impact of Culture on the Use of External Information Sources

Information gathered by the consumer about the service constitutes an antecedent of expectations. As we saw earlier Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey (1988) state that the dimensions of low- and high-context communication and individualism/collectivism are isomorphic. They argue that low-context cultures are individualist and high-context cultures are collectivist given Hofstede's score. Furthermore, they state that low- and high-context communications are the most common form of communication found in individualist and collectivist cultures respectively. Hofstede (1991) and Toffoli and Laroche (1996) asserted that high-context communication is more important in collectivist cultures. In low-context cultures messages must be high in information value

(Toffoli 1997). Explicit promises can be seen as low-context communication because what is said in the message is more important than how it is said (Overby 1998).

High-context communication is similar to implicit promises in that the way something is communicated is more important than what is communicated (Overby 1998). This proposition is challenged by Dawar and Parker (1994) who demonstrated that price and physical surroundings are not influenced by the culture but rather by the individuals in the evaluation of service quality.

Watkins and Liu (1996) hypothesized that the greater the degree of collectivism in a culture, the stronger will be the social ties among consumers in that culture. Richins (1987) found that information exchange about products occurs more freely among similar groups of people sharing strong ties. Furthermore he stated that strong social ties increase the likelihood of negative word-of-mouth. So we can posit that explicit promises will have a greater influence on the formation of expectations in individualist cultures than in collectivist cultures, whereas implicit promises and word-of-mouth will have a greater influence in the formation of expectations in collectivist cultures than in individualist cultures.

Impact of Culture on the Perception of Efforts

The antecedents of the deserved service expectation (Miller 1977) are the balance between rewards and costs of the effort invested. In individualist cultures, we expect that consumers will be more sensitive to the reward of their efforts than in collectivist

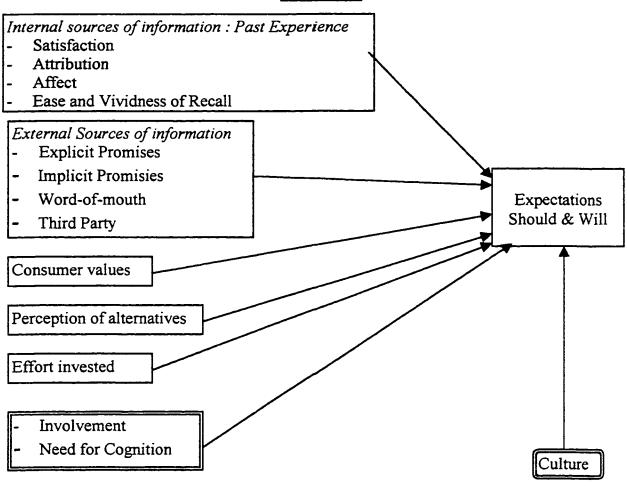
cultures. Individualism includes behaviors regulated by cost/benefit computations (Triandis et al. 1993). Collectivist behaviors are regulated by in-group norms. Since the in-group well-being is more important than the self, less emphasis is put on the individual reward of effort. So, we expect that the impact of effort invested will be greater on the formation of individualist expectations than on the formation of collectivist expectations.

II. THE MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

THE MODEL

Based on our literature review, figure 1 presents the model proposed for this research.

Figure 1 The Model



Moderator variables

HYPOTHESES

The Model

- H 1 The higher the level of satisfaction with past experience a) with the general type of service, b) with a particular company, the higher the level of service expectations for that particular company's services.
- H2 The higher the level of positive affect for a service, the higher the level of service expectations.
- H3 a) The lower the stability and uncontrollability of a cause perceived by a consumer for a negative past event, the higher the service expectations.
 - b) The locus of causality (internal versus external) of a cause perceived by a consumer for a negative past event will influence service expectations.
- H4 The higher the positive information received by the consumer through a) explicit promises, b) implicit promises, c) word-of-mouth, d) third party, the higher the level of service expectations.
- H5 The more positive a salient experience (the last or the most unexpected experience), the higher the level of service expectations.
- H 6 The higher the number of alternatives perceived by the consumer, the higher the level of service expectations
- H 7 Consumers' values influence the level of service expectations.
- H 8 The higher the amount of effort invested to get the service, the higher the level of expectations.
- H 9 The higher the level of consumer involvement, the higher the level of effort invested by the consumer to get the service.
- H 10 The higher the level of need for cognition, the higher the level of effort invested by the consumer to get the service.
- H 11 Need for cognition influences the way external information (explicit promises, implicit promises, word-of-mouth, and third party) is processed.

Impact of Culture:

- H 12: Explicit promises will have a lesser impact upon expectations for Collectivists than for Individualists.
- H 13: Implicit promises will have a greater impact upon expectations for Collectivists than for Individualists.
- H 14: Word-of-mouth will have a greater impact upon expectations for Collectivists than for Individualists.
- H 15: Individualists tend to attribute the cause of events experienced in the past to the actors of the event, whereas Collectivists tend to attribute the cause of events to situational variables.
- H 16: Effort invested will have a lesser impact upon expectations for Collectivists than for Individualists.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

THE SAMPLE

A total of 1580 questionnaires (682 in English and 482 in French) were distributed either door-to-door or in shopping centres to English-Canadians and French-Canadians residing in the Greater Montreal area.

1164 questionnaires were distributed door-to-door. In order to ensure a representative sample for each of the two ethnic groups, given the bicultural and multicultural character of the population in the city of Montreal, the data collection was confined to a selected number of census tracts in municipalities located in Montreal and its surrounding area which, according to the 1996 Census of Canada, exhibited a large percentage of residents whose mother tongue was either French or English. The geographic areas chosen were residential districts with detached or semi-detached dwellings, which are easily accessible to interviewers.

416 questionnaires were distributed in shopping centres also in the Greater Montreal area. This allowed to contact some residents of apartment dwellings that are not accessible with the door-to-door distribution.

With a return rate of 25,12%, the sample comprised 325 usable questionnaires. A gross total of 397 questionnaires were received but 72 of them were from non qualified

respondents or were incomplete. This sample size was considered appropriate for this research to give it a respectable measure of validity and reliability.

THE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

The Questionnaire

A structured non-disguised questionnaire was designed to gather the data required for this research. The questionnaire was written in English and translated into French and back. Prior to printing the questionnaire, a pretest was done and minor changes were made. See a sample of the questionnaire in English and in French in Appendix II. The questionnaire contained 10 pages for both the English and French versions. A cover letter was also included. Two conditions applied to this questionnaire: respondents had to have traveled with Air Canada and they should not consider charters in their answers. The questionnaire was divided into four parts: Part A dealt with the consumers' past experiences with airline companies in general; part B dealt with the consumers' past experiences with Air Canada; part C captured consumers' expectations concerning Air Canada; and part D tapped some consumers' interests and opinions (i.e., degree of involvement, need for cognition, collectivism/individualism and values). Part E measured the degree to which an individual belonged to either the French or English culture; and included some questions on demographic characteristics.

Measure of Expectations

Very few studies have measured expectations per se (e.g., Prakash 1984; Clow et al. 1997). Prakash used the normative (ideal) standard and a five-point scale with 16

attributes to measure expectations. Attributes were derived from focus groups interviews. Clow et al. (1997) studied expectations related to restaurants and used the predictive standard to measure six constructs (price, tangibles, products, image, time and staff) drawn from the literature. In many studies, expectations have been researched in the context of service quality or consumer satisfaction and measured by the disconfirmation paradigm: (perception – expectation) (e.g., Oliver 1980; Parasuraman et al. 1985, 1988, 1991, 1993; Teas 1993, 1994; Boulding et al. 1993).

One way to measure expectations is to use as a basis part of the SERVQUAL scale. But two main categories of difficulties have been encountered with the SERVQUAL scale: conceptual and empirical. Although the boundary between the two is blurred because they are closely inter-related (Van Dycke, Kappelman and Prybutok 1997).

Three of the problems with the SERVQUAL scale are related to expectations. One difficulty refers to the instability of the expectation dimensions as discussed before in the section on expectation dimensions, and the ambiguity of the expectations construct as we saw in the section where the different types of expectations were discussed. A third conceptual problem is linked to the suitability of using a single instrument to measure service quality across different industries (content validity). Carman (1990) did a study of the SERVQUAL scale across four different industries. He found that it was necessary to add 13 additional items to capture service quality in the different settings and to drop 14 of the original items of the instrument as a result of a factor analysis. Considerable

customization is needed to use the scale in a particular setting. Boulding et al. (1993) concluded from their study on service quality in the banking sector that it takes more than simple adaptations of the SERVQUAL instrument to effectively measure service quality across diverse service sectors. Thorpe and Rentz (1996) who adapted the scale to retail stores, and Dabholkar et al. (1996) found that it was impossible to use a single measure of service quality for different service industries.

In summary, the use of the SERVQUAL scale to measure service expectations faces many difficulties: the ambiguous definition of expectations, the impossibility to use the same scale across industries, and the dimension instability. However, Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1991a, 1994b) do not find these criticisms strong enough to abandon the scale. According to Oliver (1993), the SERVQUAL is still the only measure of service quality to date. So, it is plausible to use the SERVQUAL instrument as a framework to be adapted. Some ways to overcome the above problems linked with the use of the SERVQUAL is to define precisely what expectations are, make it clear to the respondent in the questionnaire, and to adapt the 22 items to the specific industry (namely, airline industry in this research).

In the literature, the measurement of expectations essentially asks consumers to place likelihood estimates on specific occurrences of service performance in the future (Oliver 1997). Predictive expectations have often been used as a proxy for the concept of expectations arguing that predicted levels incorporate other standards such as desire and provide the most consistent meaning across consumers (Oliver 1997). It has been shown

that will expectations express more variability than should expectations because as we ask respondents what they want, they tend to use the extreme positive pole of the scale. However the use of the prediction standard has some limitations. Typically, expectations questions ask only for the uncertainty dimension of an expectation.

As Bouling et al (1993) did, we postulated two different classes of expectations. We explained why we use the two types of expectations: will and should expectations. We used the expectations-as-predictions standard often used in the satisfaction literature and we posited that customers form expectations about what will happen in their next service encounter. This standard is referred to as will expectations. We also used the normative standard used in the service quality literature, i.e., the should expectations. We postulated that customers form also their expectations about what should happen in their next service encounter, that is which level of service customers feel they deserve. Boulding et al. (1993) differentiated should expectations from the ideal standard frequently used in the service quality literature (e.g., Zeithaml et al. 1991). The level of should expectations can vary according to past experience, information gathered on the service, etc. It is related to what the customer thinks is reasonable and feasible. The ideal standard, on the other hand, is much more stable over time.

Parasuraman et al. (1996) tested a two column format using "should-be" and "will-be" questions. There was a risk of halo effect since the two scales were written side by side but authors found that reliabilities and validities appeared not to be compromised. Oliver (1997) proposed further research to test a sequential format in which the should

questions would be asked in one section and the will questions in another section. In our questionnaire we clearly stated the meaning of will and should expectations used and included the should expectations first in one section and the will expectations in the next section.

As stated earlier, since the SERVQUAL cannot be used across different industries, the scale must be adapted to the service under study and pre-tested before implementation. We therefore adapted the 22 original items of the SERVQUAL instrument related to expectations to the airline industry. For this purpose, we used the study of Brunning, Kovacic and Oberdick (1985) on the segmentation of domestic airline passenger markets, the study of Pritchard and Howard (1997) about the brand loyalty in the airline industry and the business research project of Leblanc (1997) on customer retention for Air Canada vacations. Pritchard and Howard (1997) adapted the SERVQUAL to the airline industry. Leblanc distributed a questionnaire among Air Canada customers and reported a set of airline attributes important to them. Brunning et al. (1985) asked airline passengers about factors associated with the flight. From these sources we thus obtained a list of items which, according to airline customers, appropriately described the airline service provider. However, the measurement of both types of expectations led to an exceeding long questionnaire. So, we fixed the number of items to 20 for each type of expectations.

To overcome the problem of instability of the SERVQUAL dimensions and the fact that this instrument focuses more on process dimension than on other dimensions, we

decided to add to the scale items that could be linked with the other dimensions of service expectations discussed in the literature, namely outcome and situation (e.g. Belk 1975; Bitner 1990) and affect (Oliver 1997). The items corresponding to the outcome dimension were derived from the Leblanc (1997) and Brunning et al. (1985) studies. Two items corresponding to affect were also added. This way, so we try to encompass the dimensions of customers' expectations mentioned in the literature.

In the measurement of expectations another problem arises: hindsight bias (Zwick, Peters and Baumgartner 1995). It refers to people's tendency to consistently exaggerate in hindsight what could have been expected in foresight. In other words, expectations measured before consumption are different from expectations measured after consumption. The perception of the service quality observed during consumption introduces a bias in the recall of expectations. By introducing past experience as an antecedent of expectations we tried to factor in this hindsight bias.

Measures of Independent Variables

Effort Invested was measured by a 3-item, 9-point Likert scale consisting of three dimensions of effort: effort in general, money, and time, (1 = disagree strongly and 9 = agree strongly). Statements began with "In general, I spend a lot of effort, time, money, etc.".

Satisfaction with past experience was measured with 2 x 2 items. It captured respondent's past experiences with airlines in general (in part A) and past experiences

with Air Canada in particular (in part B). For example: "In general, I have been very satisfied with my past experiences with airline companies". Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed with the statement on a 9-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = disagree strongly to 9 = agree strongly.

Vividness and ease of recall were measured using a 2-item scale. Statements included last and most unexpected experiences with airline companies in general (in part A) and last and most unexpected experiences with Air Canada in particular (in part B). Consumers had to rate these experiences on a 9-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = very negative to 9 = very positive. Thus, three elements of vividness and ease of recall (last, most unexpected, negative experience) were recorded.

Perception of Alternatives was measured with two questions. The first one asked the respondent to choose a destination. The second one asked for the number of airline companies taken into account to go to this destination. The first question prompted the respondent to have in mind a particular destination to better respond to the second question.

Attribution was measured using the 9-item causal dimension scale of Russell (1982). This scale measures how the attributor perceives the causes he or she has stated for an event. It encompasses the three dimensions of attributions: locus of causality, stability and controllability. All these three subscales were found to be reliable and valid by the authors. Respondents who had a negative experience with Air Canada were asked

to write the cause of this bad event and to circle the number corresponding the best to their opinion about the cause of this event on a 9-point scale. For example: "was the cause something that: reflected an aspect of the situation (1) or reflected an aspect of yourself (9). A total score for each of the three subscales is arrived at by summing the responses to the individual items as follows: locus of causality: items 4, 6, 9; stability: items 2, 5, 7; controllability items 1, 3, 8. High scores on these subscales indicate that the cause is perceived as internal, stable and controllable.

Affect was measured by a 3-item scale asking respondents to give their opinion about Air Canada. Respondents had to circle a number on a 9-point scale for three items measuring affect: awful/excellent, extremely negative/extremely positive and extremely bad/extremely good.

External Sources of Information were measured with a 12-item scale divided into four subscales corresponding to explicit promises (advertising on TV, radio, contacts with personnel and advertising in newspapers, and magazines), word-of-mouth (from friends, family members and co-workers), third parties (information in newspapers, in specialized magazines, in TV reports) and implicit promises (aircraft physical aspect, personnel and counters). People were asked if they found the information gathered through those different sources more or less positive (on a 9-point scale ranging from 1 = very negative to 9 = very positive).

Values were measured using the List of Values (LOV) of Kahle (1983). The LOV is composed of 9 values which are evaluated on a 9-point scale ranging from 1 = very unimportant to 9 = very important). Respondents were also asked to choose the most important value from the list. This list has been developed from Rokeach's (1973) eighteen terminal values (from the RVS) and other contemporaries in values research. Evidence of the validity of the LOV scale exists. Among the different existing measures of values, LOV was chosen because according to Kahle and Kennedy (1988), it relates more closely to people's daily lives than RVS, and it is easier to administer since it is shorter. Furthermore, according to Kahle, Beatty and Homer (1986) LOV has been found to be a better predictor of consumer behavior than RVS and there is some evidence that LOV can be used in different cultural settings (Kahle 1991).

Needs are usually measured at the attribute level. Attributes important to the customer are already present in the measure of expectations. So we decided not to measure needs separately.

Measures of the Degree of Involvement and Need for Cognition

The degree of involvement was measured using the 10-item scale as shown in the exhibit of the article written by Pritchard and Howard (1997). This scale is an adaptation of the 16-item scale of Laurent and Kapferer (1985) to evaluate consumer involvement relative to the airline industry. The five dimensions of the original scale were measured with 2 items for each dimension (importance, risk probability, risk consequence, pleasure, and sign) and respondents were asked to circle a number corresponding to their level of

agreement (1=disagree strongly, 9=agree strongly).

Need for cognition was measured using the short version (18 items instead of 34) of Cacioppo and Petty (1982) scale that they elaborated in 1984. The reliability of this short version of the scale was .90 and the validity has been demonstrated using a number of techniques in a variety of studies (Haugtvedt et al. 1988). Respondents were asked to rate the degree to which they considered statements to be characteristic or uncharacteristic of themselves. They had to circle the number corresponding to their level of agreement on a 9-point scale (from 1 = disagree strongly to 9 = agree strongly).

Measure of Individualism/Collectivism

The constructs of individualism and collectivism enable to assess between-culture variation. In our study we will look at the impact of the self to assess variations within-culture, that is, at the individual (or psychological) level. The counterpart terminologies of individualism and collectivism variation within-culture are idiocentrism and allocentrism (Triandis et al. 1993). Conceptually the constructs appear to be the same. Triandis et al. (1993) found that the allocentric-idiocentric variation within-culture refers to different factors than the between-culture variation. We used the 29-item idiocentrism scale proposed by Triandis et al. (1988) which measures specifically subcultural differences within a country.

Measure of Francophones and Anglophones and Demographics.

Ethnic membership was assessed by an individual's self-identification as being either an English Canadian or French Canadian. Acculturation and ethnic identity, which represent both dimensions of ethnicity, were measured as the percentage of an individual's usage of English or French media such as radio, television, movies and video and newspapers. Respondents were asked to distribute 100 scores between English and French for each medium. This procedure allows presenting a picture of the relative use of the languages for each medium. Ethnic identity was measured by multiple-items that included self-identification, ethnic affiliation of friends, spouse, neighbours, participation in anglophone activities and francophone activities and attachment to either culture. These items were measured using a 9-point Likert scale anchored at 1 = disagree strongly and 9 = strongly agree.

This section of the questionnaire measured also demographic characteristics of the sample. The questionnaire asked about respondents' gender, status, age, family income, employment, education, and occupation.

In addition, two measures related to consumers' habits with airline companies were added to the questionnaire. First, the purpose of the flights was measured on a 9-point scale: Do you usually travel with an airline company for leisure (1) or for business (9). Second, the frequency of travel with an airline was measured with a 13-point scale ranging from Never (0) to Once a day (12).

IV. ANALYSES AND RESULTS

In this chapter, we will present descriptive statistics for the sample as a whole, as well as for subsets of the sample, followed by means and standard deviations for each variable, factor analyses conducted for some sections of the questionnaire and results of the multiple linear regressions run to test the hypotheses.

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The statistics defining the sample were examined for two purposes. First, to create a demographic profile of the sample for this study. Second, to identify any significant differences between Francophones and Anglophones as well as between individualists and collectivists. The crosstabulation technique enabled to see if differences existed between the French and English respondents based on various demographic variables. Two one-way ANOVAs were conducted to examine potential differences between French and English (as well as for individualist/collectivist) respondents concerning frequency and purpose of travel because these variables were measured on an 9-point scale. See tables land 2 below.

<u>Table 1</u>
<u>Crosstab Results of Demographic Characteristics of the Sample</u>

Variable	Range	English	French	Total (%)	Pearson (sig.)
		(%)	(%)		
Sample Size		155	169	324	
Gender	Male	45.2	50.0	47.7	0.3830
	Female	54.8	50.0	52.3	
Age	Under 30	9.2	4.1	6.5	0.1999
	30-39	15.0	21.2	18.3	
	40-49	32.0	30.6	31.3	
	50-59	24.2	28.2	26.3	
	60+	19.6	15.9	17.6	
Marital	Single	13.0	12.9	13.0	0.2935
Status	Married	79.9	74.7	77.2	
	Sep/divorced	3.2	8.2	5.9	
	Widowed	3.9	4.1	4.0	
Household	Under \$30,000	6.0	6.7	6.4	0.9549
Income	\$30,000-\$49,999	11.4	10.4	10.9	
	\$50,000-\$69,999	19.5	20.1	19.8	
	\$70,000-\$89,999	19.5	16.5	17.9	
	\$90,000+	43.6	46.3	45.0	
Education	High school	9.2	9.5	9.3	0.8760
	Cegep/Com	22.9	20.1	21.4	
	Undergraduate	38.6	42.6	40.7	
	Graduate	29.4	27.8	28.6	
Employment	Full time	53.9	69.2	61.9	0.0041
	Part time	18.2	8.9	13.3	
	Retired/Pensioned	13.6	15.4	14.6	
	Stud/unemp/home	14.3	6.5	10.2	

Table 2

ANOVA Results of Frequency and Purpose of Travel for the Sample

Variable	English mean	French mean	Total mean	Significance (F)
	(std dev.)	(std dev.)	(std dev)	
Travel	5.0710	4.6970	4.8781	0.1065
Frequency	(2.0485)	(2.0819)	(2.0710)	
Purpose	3.6732	4.2395	3.9688	0.0860
	(2.8604)	(3.0084)	(2.9477)	

Gender: No significant difference exists in the distribution of French and English respondents regarding gender. For the whole sample, half of the respondents is male and half is female. The sample is quite representative of the Montreal population according to the Statistics Canada 1996 Census (Male = 51.5%, Female = 48.5% of the Montreal population).

Age: No significant difference exists either between French and English respondents concerning age. Both English and French respondents are concentrated in the mid-range categories, between 40 and 59 years old (57.6%). According to the 1996 Census of Statistics Canada, the sample underestimates the 20-29 range (6.5% of the sample but 18.9% of the Montreal population), the 30-39 range (18.3% of the sample but 23.5% of the Montreal population) and the 60 and more range (17.6 of the sample but 22% of the population). It overestimates the 40-49 range (31.3% of the sample but 20.8% of the population) and the 50-59 range (26.3% of the sample but 14.7% of the population). These differences are understandable because of the type of service used, Air Canada flights. Respondents in the 40-59 age group are probably more prone to use regular airline flights.

Marital Status: There are no significant differences for both groups. Most of the respondents (English and French) are married or equivalent (77.7%). According to the 1996 Census, the sample overestimates the percentage of the married (or equivalent) Montreal population (45%).

Family Income: In terms of income, no significant difference exists either. Almost half of the sample has a family income over \$90,000. According to the 1996 Census, only 13.2 % of the Montreal population earns more than \$90,000, but this again is understandable because of the service used in the study, i.e., flights from a regular airline company, which tend to be more expensive than charter flights.

Education: No significant difference exists for the education variable. 69.3% of the total sample has a university degree (undergraduate or graduate).

Employment: Concerning the type of employment, the analysis revealed significant differences (p = .004). 69.2% of French respondents work full time whereas only 53.9% of English respondents work full time. 18.2% of Anglophones work part time whereas only 8.9% of Francophones work part time. Finally, 14.3% of English respondents are students, unemployed or homemakers versus 6.5% for French respondents. For the sample as a whole, almost two thirds work full time (61.9%).

<u>Travel frequency</u>: Here, there are no significant differences either. A large proportion of respondents travels between once and twice a year.

<u>Purpose of travel</u>: Regarding the purpose of travel, a significant difference exists. Anglophones travel slightly more for leisure than Francophones. But in both cases, respondents tend to travel more for leisure than for business.

To conclude, the typical respondent in this survey tends to be between 40 and 59 years

old, married, works full time, earns more than \$90,000, has an university degree, and travels once to twice a year and more for leisure than for business.

In order to differentiate collectivists from individualists a cluster analysis was conducted with each of the 3 individualism/collectivism dimensions. In the first approach we tried to create three clusters in order to identify two clusters containing the most individualist respondents on the one hand and the most collectivist respondents on the other hand. Three ANOVAs were run to check if the three clusters were significantly different on each dimension and to identify each one of the clusters. As Table 3 below shows, some inconsistencies were found. While on the first two dimensions the third cluster appears to be the most collectivist, on the third dimension, the mean of the third group is greater than the mean of the second group, revealing that the second group is more collectivist than the third one, on this particular dimension.

Table 3

ANOVA On Individualist/Collectivist Measures (3 Groups)

Variable	Group1	Group2	Group3	Total	Sig. (F value)
	mean, (std dev.)	mean, (std dev.)	mean, (std dev.)	mean, (std dev.)	(I value)
Self-reliance with comp.	4.8953	4.0533	2.8629	4.0402	134.9457a
- cog recounse man comp	(1.0528)	(.9968)	(.7770)	(1.2966)	
Concern for ingroup	2.9880	2.8571	2.3462	2.7505	22.5379a
	(.8415)	(.6236)	(.7281)	(.8069)	
Distance from ingroups	7.1081	4.4615	6.3591	6.2305	203.3382a
	(.8217)	(1.0203)	(1.0096)	(1.4027)	

a = p < .01, b = p < .05, c = p < .10

Thus, a second approach was to divide the sample into two groups with a cluster

analysis. The ANOVAs comparing the means and variances of the two groups revealed the first group as individualist and the second group as collectivist on the 3 dimensions. The two groups were found to be significantly different for the three dimensions of individualism.

Table 4

ANOVA on Individualist/Collectivist Measures (2 Groups)

Variable	Group1	Group2	Total	Sig. (F value)
	mean,	Mean,	mean,	
	(std dev.)	(std dev.)	(std dev.)	
Self-reliance with comp.	4.8953	3.3731	4.0402	166.1931a
	(1.0528)	(1.0560)	(1.2966)	ļ
Concern for ingroup	2.9880	2.5652	2.7505	23.4212a
	(.8415)	(.7290)	(.8069)	
Distance from ingroups	7.1081	5.5459	6.2305	142.6648a
	(.8217)	(1.3819)	(1.4027)	

a = p < .01, b = p < .05, c = p < .10

The sample is very homogeneous regarding individualism and collectivism too. No significant difference exists regarding gender, age, marital status, income, education, employment, purpose of travel and language. The only significant difference (p = .0211) concerns the frequency of travel. Collectivists tend to travel more often (between once and twice a year) than Individualists (once a year). See tables 5 and 6.

<u>Table 5</u>

<u>Demographic Characteristics of Collectivists and Individualists</u>

Variable	Range	Individ.	Collect.	Total	Pearson (sig.)
		(%)	(%)	(%)	
Sample Size		142	182	324	
Gender	Male	46.5	51.6	47.5	0.73768
	Female	53.5	48.4	52.5	
Age	20-29	6.4	6.6	6.5	0.44964
	30-39	22.0	15.5	18.3	
	40-49	32.6	30.4	31.4	
	50-59	24.8	27.6	26.4	
	60+	14.2	19.9	17.4	
Marital	Single	20.4	24.3	22.6	0.40711
Status	Married	79.6	75.7	77.4	
Household	Under \$30,000	7.3	5.1	6.1	0.47338
Income	\$30,000-\$49,999	12.4	9.7	10.9	
	\$50,000-\$69,999	21.2	18.9	19.9	
	\$70,000-\$89,999	19.7	16.6	17.9	
	\$90,000+	39.4	49.7	45.2	
Education	High school	11.4	7.7	9.3	0.32024
	Cegep/Com	24.3	18.8	21.2	
	Undergraduate	36.4	44.2	40.8	
	Graduate	27.9	29.3	28.7	
Employ	stud/unemp/ret/ho	23.9	25.6	24.8	0.41719
	Part time	10.6	15.0	13.0	
	Full time	65.5	59.4	62.1	
Language	English	43.7	51.1	47.8	0.18363
	French	56.3	48.9	52.2	

Table 6

ANOVA Results of Frequency and Purpose of Travel for Individualists/Collectivists

Variable	Individ. Mean, (std dev.)	Collect. Mean, (std dev.)	Total mean, (std dev.)	Significance (F)
Travel	4.5857	5.1229	4.8871	0.0211
Frequency	(2.0810)	(2.0325)	(2.0680)	
Purpose	3.8345	4.0778	3.9718	0.4664
	(3.8245)	(4.0778)	(3.9518)	

FACTOR ANALYSES

Factor analyses were conducted for all constructs in the questionnaire. The purpose of factor analysis is to summarize the information contained in the original variables into a smaller set of new composite dimensions or factors that attempt to define fundamental constructs assumed to underlie the original variables. This analysis enables also to improve the reliability of the emerging factors. These factors are then used as indices measuring the different constructs described in the model. For each factor analysis, we used the principal component method to extract the factors and an oblimin rotation to enable a better interpretation of the factors. For certain constructs, some items were recoded when necessary. Then, Cronbach alpha coefficients were calculated to assess the reliability of the emerging factors. In all analyses, the mean of each factor was used as the construct measure.

Past Experience

The first factor analysis was conducted for the questions contained in part A and the beginning of part B of the questionnaire. These questions related to consumers' past experience with airline companies in general and with Air Canada in particular. As expected, four factors were identified: effort, satisfaction in general, satisfaction with Air Canada and vividness/ease of recall. For the final solution, the item measuring last experience with airlines was rejected and vividness/ease of recall was measured by two items including unexpected experiences. Table 7 summarizes the factors with their respective Cronbach alpha coefficients and factor loadings. Cronbach's alphas were found satisfactory ranging from .60 to .92 and likewise for factor loadings which ranged from .66 to .91 (most of them were above .85).

The "effort" factor corresponds to the effort antecedent defined by Miller (1977), and it represents the amount of time, money and cognitive effort invested by the consumer in order to get the service. The satisfaction in general and satisfaction with Air Canada relate to the concept of satisfaction with past experience with other brands or the focal brand (Woodruff, Cadotte and Jenkins 1987; Zeithaml, Berry and Parasuraman 1993; Howard and Sheth 1969; Clow and Beisel 1995 and Oliver 1997). Vividness and ease of recall relates to the idea of Oliver (1997) that some events are more prominent, more easily retrievable in our memory and consequently they influence more expectations than other events.

<u>Table 7</u>
Factors for Past Experience

Description	Item	Cronbach	Factor
T.CC4	To several I mand a lat of offert to get a tighet to my	Alpha .6003	Loading .75839
Effort	- In general, I spend a lot of effort to get a ticket to my	.0003	./3039
	destination before making a trip.		.83670
	- In general, I spend a lot of time gathering information		.05070
	about airline companies before making a trip.		.66177
	- In general, I spend a lot of money in my search for an		.001
	airline company.		
General	- In general, I have been very satisfied with my past	.9229	.91523
	experiences with airline companies.		
Satisfaction	- In general, my experiences with airline companies have		.89331
	been favorable.	•	
Satisfaction	- In general, I have been satisfied with my past	.9132	.90467
	experiences with Air Canada.		
With Air	- In general, my experiences with Air Canada have been		.86969
	favorable.		
Canada	- My last experience with Air Canada was positive/		.90618
	negative		
Ease and	- My most unexpected experience with an airline	.6510	.91971
Last and	company (if I had one) was:	.0010	., ., .
Vividness of	- My most unexpected experience with Air Canada (if I		.73792
	1 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		
Recall	had one) was, positive/negative		
	<u> </u>		

Attribution

A factor analysis was conducted for the items measuring attribution. As expected, the analysis identified three factors corresponding to the three dimensions of attribution according to Weiner (1982) and Russell's scale (1982). The three dimensions or factors are controllability (is the cause controllable by someone?), the locus of causality (is the cause external or internal?) and stability (is the cause stable over time?). Only one item did not load on the appropriate factor. Reliabilities were satisfactory (Cronbach alpha coefficients hovered around .60) and factor loadings as well. See Table 8 below.

<u>Table 8</u>
Factors for Attribution

Description	Item	Cronbach Alpha	Factor Loading
Controllability	- was the cause(s) Uncontrollable by you or other	.6607	.753
	people/ Controllable by you or other people - was the cause(s) something that was Not intended by		.660
	you or other people/ Intended by you or other people - was the cause something for which No one was		.731
	responsible/ Someone was responsible - was the cause(s) something that was Changeable/ Unchangeable		.710
Locus of	- was the cause(s) something that was Outside of you/	.6059	.797
Causality	Inside of you - was the cause(s) something About others/ About you		.617
	- was the cause(s) something that Reflected an aspect of the situation/ Reflected an aspect of yourself		.825
Stability	- was the cause(s) something that was Temporary/	.6043	.832
	Permanent - was the cause(s) something that was Variable over time/ Stable over time		.790

External Sources of Information

A factor analysis was conducted for the construct underlying external sources of information. As it was expected, four factors emerged: word-of-mouth, personnel contact (implicit promises), explicit promises and third parties. The reliability was very good (Cronbach's alphas ranged from .87 to .89) and factor loadings as well, ranging from .69 to .94. One item (aircraft physical aspect) was deleted after the analysis. See Table 9. These four factors reflect the four types of external sources of information reviewed in the literature (Zeitahml et al. 1993; Beales et al. 1981; Oliver 1997), namely, explicit promises (e.g., advertising), implicit promises (e.g., physical aspect of personnel, store), word-of-mouth (e.g., information gathered from family members or friends) and third parties (e.g., independent sources).

<u>Table 9</u> <u>Factors for Information</u>

Description	Item	Cronbach Alpha	Factor Loading
Word-of -	- All information about Air Canada that I have heard	.8900	.93425
Mouth	from my friends is: - All information about Air Canada that I have heard		.88895
	from my co-workers is: - All information about Air Canada that I have heard from family members is:		.74723
Implicit	- My opinion on Air Canada counters (in agencies, at airport) is:	.8701	.90835
Promises	- All my contacts with the sales personnel of Air		.85072
	Canada have been: - My opinion about Air Canada's personnel is:		.84678
Explicit	- All advertising concerning Air Canada that I have seen (on TV, radio, e tc) is:	.8873	.94015
Promises	- All advertising concerning Air Canada that I have read (in posters, newspapers, magazines, etc) is:		.87727
Third Party	- All information about Air Canada that I have read in newspaper articles is:	.8708	.90794
	- All information about Air Canada that I have read in		.88816
	specialized magazines is: - All information about Air Canada that I have seen on TV reports is:		.69391

Should and Will Expectations

The third construct to be analyzed was should and will expectations. Two common factors were found for should and will expectations after deleting 8 of the original 20 items. Cronbach's alphas were satisfactory ranging from .70 to .94. Except for 5 items that ranged from .50 to .58, all the other items exhibited very good factor loadings. See Tables 10 and 11.

The two factors extracted reflected the two expectations defined by Shostak (1977): technical (or outcome), and process that is, expectations can be seen as a core

element surrounded by peripheral elements. According to Gronroos (1983) and Richard and Allaway (1993) consumers make service evaluations on the outcome or technical dimension (what is delivered) and on the process or functional dimension (how the service is delivered). Modern equipment, seating space in the aircraft, physical facilities and schedule can be considered as what is delivered, in other words, what consumers can see. The other items (e.g., dependable company, safety, trust) represent the way the service should or will be delivered.

<u>Table 10</u>
<u>Factors for Should Expectations</u>

Description	Item	Cronbach Alpha	Factor Loading
Process	 I should be able to trust employees of Air Canada. Air Canada should be very dependable. I should be able to feel very safe when I fly with Air Canada. 	.9307	.91058 .86403 .81483
	- Employees of Air Canada should offer a very prompt service.		.79808
	- When I have problems, Air Canada employees should		.79570
	be understanding and reassuring.		.78948
	- Air Canada employees should be very polite I should really enjoy my flight with Air Canada.		.75600
	- I should find my flight with Air Canada very pleasing.		.69231
Technical	- Air Canada should have very modern equipment.	.6992	.90767
	- Air Canada flight schedules should be very convenient for my needs.		.67357
	- Physical facilities and aircrafts should be very		.53898
	appealing. - There should be ample seating space in the aircraft.		.49533

<u>Table 11</u>
<u>Factors for Will Expectations</u>

Description	Item	Cronbach Alpha	Factor Loading
Process	 I will be able to trust employees of Air Canada. I will find my flight with Air Canada very pleasing. Air Canada employees will be very polite. Air Canada will be very dependable. I will really enjoy my flight with Air Canada. When I have problems, Air Canada employees will be understanding and reassuring. Employees of Air Canada will offer a very prompt service. I will be able to feel very safe when I fly with Air Canada. 	.9406	.92386 .89409 .88463 .87805 .84454 .81194 .80143
Technical	 Air Canada will have very modern equipment. Physical facilities and aircrafts will be very appealing. Air Canada flight schedules will be very convenient for my needs. There will be ample seating space in the aircraft 	.7256	.85993 .85519 .58637 .57726

Involvement

The construct Involvement was also analyzed and three dimensions instead of the four dimensions of the original scale of Laurent and Kapferer (1985) were found. The reason could be that the scale was not complete, but was adapted. The first factor underlies the dimension of importance and risk consequences, the second one, risk probability and the last one pleasure and sign. The first factor, according to Laurent and Kapferer (1985), represents the perceived importance of the service and the perceived importance of the consequences of a mispurchase. The second factor is the probability attributed by the consumer to an error in the purchase. The third factor represents the hedonic and symbolic value of the type of service. Reliability was quite good (Cronbach's alphas ranging from .71 to .84) as well as the factor loadings (See Table

<u>Table 12</u> <u>Factors for Involvement</u>

Description	Item	Cronbach Alpha	Factor Loading
Importance/	- I attach great importance to flying with the right airline.	.7131	.97562
Risk	- Flying with an airline is something that leaves me totally indifferent.		.97306
Consequences	- If after I had flown somewhere, my choice of airline proved to be poor, I would be really upset.		.52857
	- When you choose an airline it is not a big deal if you make a mistake.		.39774
Risk	It is rather complicated to choose an airline.When faced with choosing among airlines, I always	.8250	.89373
Probability	feel a bit at a loss to make the right choice.		.76009
Pleasure/ Sign	- For me, flying with an airline is somewhat of a pleasure.	.8407	.79528
	- When one travels with an airline, it is a bit like giving a gift to oneself.		.71872
	- Which airline I fly with gives a glimpse of the type of person I am.		.41148
	- The airline you fly with when traveling tells something about you.		.39878

The three constructs underlying affect, need for cognition and individualism/collectivism were treated as indexes. Affect and need for cognition respective reliabilities were .957 and .8204. Some items of the individualism (or idiocentrism) scale of Triandis et al. (1988) were recoded in order to correspond a high score on the scale to a high degree of individualism. Reliabilities for the three dimensions of the Triandis scale were: .8299 for the dimension self-reliance with competition, .5996 for concern for ingroup, and .7406 for distance from ingroups.

Acculturation was measured with an index of the percentage of language used on

media (television, radio, newspapers, magazines and movies) in the other language (English for French Canadians and French for English Canadians). The reliability of the acculturation toward French and toward English were .8306 and .8699 respectively.

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS

Means and standard deviations were computed for each variable to give the profile of the respondent. See table 13 below.

<u>Table 13</u>

<u>Means and standard Deviations of All variables in the Model</u>

Variables	Means	Std
		Deviation
Explicit Promises	6.78	1.20
Implicit Promises	6.86	1.35
Word-of-mouth	6.47	1.27
Third Party	6.31	1.26
Satisfaction general	6.61	1.70
Satisfaction with Air Canada	7.01	1.56
Vividness of recall	4.98	1.72
Affect	7.13	1.50
Sense of Belonging	7.14	1.58
Excitement	5.47	2.21
Warm Relationships	7.77	1.37
Self-Fulfillment	8.02	1.12
Being Well Respected	7.70	1.37
Fun and Enjoyment of Life	7.41	1.54
Security	7.59	1.42
Self-Respect	8.32	1.23
Sense of Accomplishment	8.05	1.20
Effort	3.40	1.66
Negative Experience	33.5%	/
	6.23	1.68
Risk Probability	3.55	2.01
Pleasure/Sign	4.91	2.00
	4.04	1.30
Concern for Ingroup	2.75	.81
Distance from Ingroups	6.23	1.40
Acculturation	19.79	22.79
Need for cognition	6.56	1.19
Quantity	2.22	.88
	8.38	.80
Should (Technical)	7.94	.91
Will (Process)	7.16	1.15
Will (Technical)	6.66	1.06
	Explicit Promises Implicit Promises Word-of-mouth Third Party Satisfaction general Satisfaction with Air Canada Vividness of recall Affect Sense of Belonging Excitement Warm Relationships Self-Fulfillment Being Well Respected Fun and Enjoyment of Life Security Self-Respect Sense of Accomplishment Effort Negative Experience Importance of Negative Cons. Risk Probability Pleasure/Sign Self-Reliance with Compet. Concern for Ingroup Distance from Ingroups Acculturation Need for cognition Quantity Should (Process) Should (Process) Should (Process)	Explicit Promises Implicit Promises

Most of the internal and external sources of information are quite positive, means

ranging from 6.31 for third party to 7.13 for affect. Consumers appear to be satisfied with their past experiences. Unexpected experiences are neither positive nor negative (4.98). Most of the values appear important for the respondents except excitement which has a mean of 5.47 and a large standard deviation. Respondents seem to invest little effort to get their flight ticket (3.40). One third of the respondents had at least one negative experience with Air Canada. Respondents do not score high on the individualism scale, they do not appear very individualist according to the scale. The first dimension of involvement, namely the importance of the product and of negative experiences, scores high on the scale (6.23). The two other dimensions appear to be less important for respondents regarding the choice of an airline company (3.55 for risk probability and 4.91 for pleasure/sign). Need for cognition is relatively high (6.23). Standard deviations for the three dimensions of involvement are high ranging from 1.68 to 2.01. For the number of perceived alternatives most of the respondents take into account around 2 alternatives for their next travel and responses show low variability (standard deviation .88). This result corroborates Zeithaml (1981) findings stating that consumers tend to take into account less alternatives when patronizing a service than when purchasing a service. Expectations are quite high ranging from 6.66 to 8.38. Should expectations score higher than will expectations. Furthermore should expectations have a small variability (standard deviation .80 and .91) compared to will expectations (around 1.10).

MULTIPLE LINEAR REGRESSION

The multiple linear regression analysis appeared to be the most appropriate

technique to test the model in this exploratory study. According to Hair et al. (1992), regression is a recognized analytical tool used by researchers and practitioners to analyze the relationships between dependent and independent variables. Since the model contained a large number of variables which could be correlated, a stepwise procedure, which avoids multicollinearity was used to try to find the "best" regression model that included the fewest and most explanatory variables allowing an adequate interpretation of the dependent variables (namely, expectations) (Berenson and Levine 1992). The stepwise regression is a search procedure that develops a sequence of regression models, at each step of the model building process, independent variables can be added to or deleted from the last model. It stops when no more variables can be added. The criterion for adding or deleting a variable can be stated in terms of the F statistic. The last model is considered as the "best fitting" model (Berenson and Levine, 1992). Demographics were added as covariates.

The Model

Four multiple linear regressions were conducted for each type of expectations (should and will) and each expectation dimension (process and technical) using the stepwise procedure. For each regression, potential interactions were added to the model.

Should (Process)

The first regression was computed to see which independent variables influence the process dimension of should expectations. After 10 steps, 8 variables appeared to influence process-should expectations. The F-value was 10.60 (p = .0000) and adjusted R

square equaled .19, that is the 8 variables explained around 19% of the dependent variable variance. The variables were word-of mouth, two values (sense of belonging and sense of accomplishment), need for cognition, involvement (direct effect of the second dimension: risk probability and conjoint effect of the first dimension: importance of the service and of negative consequences with effort invested), the second dimension of individualism: concern for ingroup, and education. See Tables 14 and 16.

Will (Process)

Eleven steps were necessary to determine the 11 variables influencing the process-will expectations. The F-value was 32.60 (p = .0000) and the 11 variables explained 52% of the variation of these expectations. The variables were: two external sources of information (implicit promises and third party), three internal sources of information (satisfaction with the general past experience, vividness of recall and affect), the number of perceived alternatives (quantity), two values (sense of belonging and warm relationships), the third dimension of involvement (pleasure and sign) and two demographics (gender and status). See Tables 14 and 17.

Should (Technical)

After 8 steps, 8 variables entered the model: explicit promises, perceived alternatives (quantity), two values (sense of belonging and accomplishment), the interaction of the first dimension of involvement (importance of the service and of negative consequences) with effort invested, the second dimension of individualism (concern for in-group), acculturation and education. The F-value was 10.07 (p = .0000)

and 18% of the variance was explained by the model. See Tables 15 and 16.

Will (Technical)

After 10 steps, 10 variables entered the model and explained 22% of its variance. These variables were: word-of-mouth, two internal sources of information (satisfaction with past experience in general and affect), the perceived number of alternatives, self-fulfillment, the third dimension of involvement (pleasure/sign), the third dimension of individualism (distance from in-groups) and demographics (gender, income and employment). The F-value was 9.96 (p = .0000). See Tables 15 and 17.

<u>Table 14</u>
<u>Regressions on Process dimension of Expectations</u>

	Should		Will		
Variables	Coefficient	t-Value	Coefficient	t-Value	
External Info					
- Implicit (pers)			.273503	6.321a	
- Word-of-Mouth	.057066	1.768c			
- Third Parties			.088420	2.196b	
Internal Info					
- Satisfaction general			.058908	2.005b	
- Vividness			.036067	1.305*c	
- Affect			.202479	5.154a	
Need for Cognition	086918	-2.430b			
Quantity			100871	-1.928c	
Values					
- Sense of belonging	.049724	1.746c	.057405	1.706c	
- Warm relationships			.089118	2.278b	
- Accomplishment	.09118	2.500ь			
Involvement					
- Involvement2	041093	-1.903c			
- Involvement3			.079524	3.330a	
- Involv1 x effort	.014957	4.525a			
Individualism2	161020	-3.078c			
Demographics					
- Gender			.207649	2.196b	
- Status			387722	-3.501a	
- Education	161841	161841 -3.632a			
	F = 10.60208a, R2 = .21161		F = 32.60476a, I	R2 = .53399	

^{* =} one tail, a = p < .01, b = p < .05, c = p < .10

Table 15

Regressions on Technical Dimension of Expectations

	Should		Will		
Variables	Coefficient	t-Value	Coefficient	t-Value	
External Info					
- Explicit Promises	.107155	2.764a			
- Word-of-Mouth			.130695	2.466b	
Internal Info					
- Satisfaction general			.066231	1.921c	
- Affect			.103365	2.258b	
Quantity	.075220	1.373*c	085153	-1.387*c	
Values					
- Sense of belonging	.083345	2.497b			
- Self-fulfillment		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	.089243	1.863c	
- Accomplishment	.143115	3.314a			
Involvement					
- Involvement3			.078661	2.854a	
- Involv1 x effort	.006149	1.659c			
Individualism					
- Individualism2	173817	-2.924a			
- Individualism3			063898	-1.667c	
Acculturation	004132	-1.981b			
Demographics					
- Gender			.194556	1.782c	
- Education	115176	-2.269b			
- Income			122232	-2.751c	
- Employment			154684	-2.342b	
	F = 10.06874a, R2 = .20313		F = 9.95836a, R2 = .24078		

^{* =} one tail, a = p < .01, b = p < .05, c = p < .10

<u>Table 16</u>
<u>Regressions on Should Expectations</u>

	Process		Tex	chnical		
Variables	Coefficient	t-Value	Coefficient	t-Value		
External Info						
- Explicit Promises			.107155	2.764a		
- Word-of-Mouth	.057066	1.768c				
Quantity			.075220	1.373*c		
Values						
- Sense of belonging	.049724	1.746c	.083345	2.497b		
- Accomplishment	.09118	2.500Ъ	.143115	3.314a		
Need for Cognition	086918	-2.430b				
Involvement						
- Involvement2	041093	-1.903c				
- Involv1 x effort	.014957	4.525a	.006149	1.659c		
Individualism2	individualism2161020		173817	-2.924a		
Acculturation			004132	-1.981b		
Demographics						
- Education	161841	-3.632a	115176	-2.269b		
	F = 10.60208a, R2 = .21161		F = 10.06874a,	F = 10.06874a, R2 = .20313		

^{* =} one tail, a = p < .01, b = p < .05, c = p < .10

<u>Table 17</u>
<u>Regressions on Will Expectations</u>

	Pro	ocess	Technical		
Variables	Coefficient	t-Value	Coefficient	t-Value	
External Info					
- Implicit Promises	.273503	6.321a			
- Word-of-Mouth			.130695	2.466b	
- Third Parties	.088420	2.196 b			
Internal Info					
- Satisfaction general	.058908	2.005b	.066231	1.921c	
- Vividness	.036067	1.305*c			
- Affect	.202479	5.154a	.103365	2.258b	
Quantity	100871	-1.928c	085153	-1.387*c	
Values					
- Sense of belonging	.057405	1.706c			
- Warm relationships	.089118	2.278Ъ			
- Self fulfillment			.089243	1.863c	
Involvement					
- Involvement 3	.079524	3.330a	.078661	2.854a	
Individualism					
- Individualism3			063898	-1.667c	
Demographics					
- Gender	.207649	2.196b	.194556	1.782c	
- Income			122232	-2.751a	
- Employment			154684	-2.342b	
- Status	387722	-3.501a			
	F = 32.60476a, R2 = .53399			2 = .24078	

^{* =} one tail, a = p < .01, b = p < .05, c = p < .10

Correlations

In order to verify if some independent variables did not enter the model because of correlations with other variables, we computed correlations for each independent variable with the dependent variables, see Table 18. By looking at the bivariate correlations and the correlations matrix (Appendix I), we can determine if an independent variable was dropped out of the model because of multicollinearity.

<u>Table 18</u> <u>Correlations of independent variables with dependent variables</u>

Correlations of independent variables with dependent variables							
Нур.	Variables	Nb of	N	Should	Should	Will	Will
		items	<u> </u>	Process	Technical	Process	Technical
H1	Satisfaction ge	2	322	/	/	.3789*a	.2686*a
}	Satisfaction ac	3	325	/	.0773*c	.5373*a	.2790*a
H2	Affect	3	325	.1083*Ъ	.1293*Ъ	.5865*a	.3222*a
H3	Negative exp.	1	325	0875*c	/	2099*a	0745*c
H4	Explicit prom.	3	321	.1165*b	.1919*a	.3398*a	.1962*a
ĺ	Implicit prom.	3	324	/	.1262*b	.5854*a	.2390*a
	Word-of-Mouth		321	.1355*a	.1577*a	.4926*a	.3316*a
	Third Parties	3 2	320	.1520*a	.1593*a	.4027*a	.2684*a
H5	Vividness	2	325	/	/	.2779*a	.1305*a
H6	Quantity	1	325	/	/	1561*a	0851*c
H7	S. of belonging	1	324	.24121a	.2990a	.2215a	.1118b
	Excitement	1	320	/	.1505a	/	/
	Warm relation.	1	324	.2643a	.2031a	.2095a	/
	Self fulfillment	1	324	.2347a	.2627a	.2055a	.1570a
	Well respected	1	324	.2448a	.2739a	.2471a	.1693a
	Fun and enjoy.	1	323	.1785a	.1763a	.1019c	/
	Security	1	322	.2102a	.2200a	.2358aa	.1125b
	Self respect	1	324	.2583a	.2015a	.1934a	/
	Accomplish.	1	324	.2402a	.2800a	.2105a	.1136b
H8	Effort	3	321	.1988*a	.1009*b	/	/
H9	Involvement 1	4	325	.1644a	.1056c	.1054c	.1189b
	Involvement 2	2	324	/	/	/	/
	Involvement 3	4	325	.1729a	.1109Ъ	.2740a	.2642a
	Individualism 1	12	325	/	/	/	/
	Individualism 2	10	324	1577a	2124a	1203Ъ	0925c
	Individualism 3	7	324	/	/	/	/
	NFC	18	325	/	/	/	/
	Acculturation	5	325	/	0968c/	/	/

^{* =} one tail, a = p < .01, b = p < .05, c = p < .10

Hypotheses

When we look at the model as a whole, we can see that several hypotheses were supported.

H1 a) stating the positive relationship between satisfaction with past experience in general (for the particular type of service) and expectations was supported. This study shows that satisfaction in general positively influences the two dimensions of will expectations but not should expectations. However, the second part of the hypothesis, H1 b) was not supported, past satisfaction with the focal service had no significant influence on the level of expectations.

Hypothesis H2 was supported. Affect had a positive impact on expectations. More specifically affect seemed to influence only will expectations and not should expectations.

H3 related to attribution could not be verified. This hypothesis stated that the way consumers attribute causes to negative experiences has an impact on expectations. But the variable underlying negative experiences (nature) did not enter the model. Since negative experience appeared not to influence expectations, it is useless to look at the impact of attribution on expectations.

H4 a), b), c) and d) stated that the higher the level of positive external information, the higher the level of expectations. Regression results show that explicit

promises, implicit promises, word-of mouth and third party have a positive influence on expectations. Explicit promises influence the level of the technical dimension of should expectations, implicit promises influence the process dimension of will expectations, word-of-mouth influences the technical dimension of will expectations and the process dimension of should expectations and third party influences the process dimension of will expectations.

The hypothesis relative to ease and vividness of recall (H5) was also supported. The more positive the unexpected experience, the higher the level of expectations. This variable influences only will expectations.

We obtained unexpected results concerning the relationship between the number of perceived alternatives and expectations (H6). The number of perceived alternatives influences expectations but the relationship is positive for should expectations and negative for will expectations. Results show, as expected, that the higher the number of perceived alternatives, the higher the level of should expectations. On the other hand, results show the reverse for will expectations.

H7 was supported for four values: sense of belonging, warm relationships, self-fulfillment and sense of accomplishment. The more important these values are to the consumer, the higher their level of expectations. Sense of belonging influences should expectations and the process dimension of will expectations. The warm relationships value influenced the process dimension of will expectations. A high level of self-

fulfillment increased the level of the technical dimension of will expectations. Finally, the sense of accomplishment value influenced positively the process dimension of should expectations.

H8 stating that effort was a direct antecedent of expectations was partially supported. Effort did not directly influence expectations but it played a role in the formation of should expectations through its interaction with involvement (the first dimension: importance of negative consequences).

The influence of involvement on effort invested (H9) is shown through the interaction between the first dimension of involvement (importance of the service and of negative consequences) and effort. The joint variable "inveffl" influences should expectations. So H9 was supported. Furthermore the two other dimensions of involvement (risk probability and pleasure/sign) influenced directly expectations. The first dimension of involvement appeared to influence the level of expectations through its interaction with effort whereas the two other dimensions of involvement (risk probability and pleasure/sign) had a direct opposite effect on expectations.

Contrary to hypotheses 10 and 11, need for cognition appeared to be a direct antecedent of expectations and not a moderator affecting effort and the way external sources of information are processed. Need for cognition had a negative impact on the process dimension of should expectations. That is, a consumer who has a high need for cognition will have lower expectations about a service compared to a consumer with a

lower need for cognition.

Impact of Culture

With the two clusters as a basis, stepwise multiple linear regressions were conducted for individualists (group 1) and collectivists (group 2) on the two types of expectations (should and will). We wanted to compare the models of formation of expectations for the two types of respondents. Regression results appear on tables 19 and 20.

Table 19

Regressions on Process Expectations for Individualists/Collectivists

		Individualists	ualists			Colle	Collectivists	
	Should (process)	rocess)	Will (process)	ocess)	Should (Process)	Process)	() Will ()	Will (Process)
Variables	Coefficient	t-Value	Coefficient	t-Value	Coefficient	t-Value	Coefficient	t-Value
External Info			271745	4 5329			346443	6.3588
Word-of-Mouth	.138825	1.435*c)))	3
Third Parties	.128367	2.616a	.209682	3.287a				
Internal Info								
Satisfaction general			.081148	1.754c				
Satisfaction A Canada			.201426	3.381a				
Affect	.108978	1,358*c					.251245	5.072a
Quantity			083015	-1,355*c				
Values								
Sense of belonging					.108508	2.696a		
Excitement			078909	-2.500b				
Warm relationships			.117635	2.115b				
Self fulfillment			.112821	1.813c	.115480	2.083b		
Fun and Enjoyment							.101539	2.476b
Self respect	.209281	5.030a						
Accomplishment							.148114	2.563b
Need for Cognition	-							
NFCpers	008346	-1.858c				·		
Involvement								
Involvement 3			.087324	2,385b	,		.051299	1.673c
Inveff1					.014342	3.272a		
Acculturation	.004055	1.671c	009082	-2.848a	005422	-2.185b		•
Negative Experience							200350	1.440°C
Demographics	,	,				,		
Education	149454	-2.683а	00000		175565	-2.6568		
Gender			.303388	1.8130			,	
Age Status							.117224	2.187b -3.325a
	F=11 93424a, R2= 304996	R2= 304996	F = 17.23465a, R2= 59359	L R2= 59359	F = 8.79811a, $R2 = .19997$	R2 = 19997	F = 28.30525a, $R2 = .56690$, R2 = .56690

 $^{\bullet}$ = one tail, a = p<.01, b = p<.05, c = p<.10

Table 20

Regressions on Technical Expectations for Individualists/Collectivists

		Indivi	Individualists			Colle	Collectiviete		
	Should (Technical)	echnical)	Will (Technical)	chnical)	Should	Should (Technical)	Will CT	Will (Tocknice)	
Variables	Coefficient	t-Value	Coefficient	t-Value	Coefficient	+ Volue) III M	connicar)	
External Info					COCHICION	ı-valuc	Cocincient	r-value	
Word-of-Mouth	.139406	1.340°c					167505	2 202	
Third Parties	.195938	3.347a	.325002	3.986a			.10/293	3.2828	
Internal Info				3					
Satisfaction general	097817	-1.301*c					103403		
Satisfaction A Canada			.175230	2,600h			.10/492	7. /4 la	-
Vividness	107816	-2.575b							_
Affect	.166412	3.002a							_
Values									
Sense of belonging	078519	1.844c			132355	2 8815			
Well respected						7.001a	070001		
Fun and Enjoyment	.105160	2.297b					040//1.	3.001a	
Self respect			.138415	1.811c	- 149507	-2 08sh	003200	121-	
Accomplishment	.194488	3.586a			220458	2.8339	076102.	-5.1/18	
Negative Experience	282063	-1.802c				4.03.7g			
Need for Cognition									
NFCpers	012526	-2.194b							
NFCeff	-						014139	-2.424b	
Involvement					.012046	2.360b			
Involvement 3	.016472	3.214a					085273	7 5 1 5 6	
Acculturation					007267	-2.826a	626600.	7.5160	
Demographics									
Education	-				-,138999	-2.013b			
cinpioyment							190885	-2.596b	
	r = 12.17543a,	K2=.47939	F=11.58635, R2=.21757	2=,21757	F = 7.89730a, $R2 = .21307$	R2 = .21307	F = 11.02067a, R2 = .30717	R2 = .30717	

• = one tail, a = p < .01, b = p < .05, c = p < .10

As for the general model, correlations between individual independent variables and dependent variables were computed for the collectivist and individualist models. See Tables 21 and 22.

<u>Table 21</u>
<u>Correlations of independent variables with dependent variables for Individualists</u>

Variables	Nb of	N	Should	Should	Will Process	Will
	items		Process	Technical		Technical
Satisfaction ge	2	322	/	/	.4079*a	.2075*a
Satisfaction ac	3	325	.1789*b	.1440*b	.5158*a	.3059*a
Affect	3	325	.2091*a	.2301*a	.5633*a	.3375*a
Nature	1	325	/	/	1699*b	/
Explicit prom.	3	321	.1713*b	.1898*b	.2932*a	.1593*b
Implicit prom.	3	324	/	.1445*b	.5090*a	.2076*a
Word-of-Mouth	3	321	.2138*a	.2911*a	.4666*a	.2634*a
Third Parties	3	320	.2923*a	.3292*a	.4527*a	.3533*a
Vividness	2	325	/	/	.2497*a	/
Quantity	1	325	/	/	1476*b	1274*c
S. of belonging	1	324	.2812a	.1690b	.2812a	.1690b
Excitement	1	320	/	/	/	/
Warm relation.	1	324	.1826b	/	.1826b	1
Self fulfillment	1	324	.2650a	.2323a	.2650a	.2323a
Well respected	1	324	1988Ъ	.1586c	.1988Ъ	.1586c
Fun and enjoy.	1	323	/	/	1	1
Security	1	322	/	/	/	1
Self respect	1	324	.214 7 b	.1536c	.2147b	.1536c
Accomplisht	1	324	/	.1564c	/	.1564c
Effort	3	321	.1693*b	.1692*b	/	/
Involvement 1	4	325	.1517c	.1843Ъ	/	/
Involvement 2	2	324	/	/	/	/
Involvement 3	4	325	.1831b	.1718b	.3398a	.2830a
NFC	18	325	/	/	/	/
Acculturation	5	325	/	/	/	/

^{*=} one tail, a = p < .01, b = p < .05, c = p < .10

<u>Table 22</u>

<u>Correlations of independent variables with dependent variables for Collectivists</u>

Variables	Nb of	N	Should	Should	Will	Will
	items		Process	Technical	Process	Technical
Satisfaction ge	2	322	1	1	.3641*a	.3303*a
Satisfaction ac	3	325	/	/	.5572*a	.2764*a
Affect	3	325	/	/	.6058*a	.3303*a
Nature	1	325	1167*c	/	2363*a	1285*b
Explicit prom.	3	321	/	.1895*a	.3700*a	.2362*a
Implicit prom.	3	324	/	.1137*c	.6304*a	.2709*a
Word-of-Mouth	3	321	.1020*c	/	.5132*a	.3993*a
Third Parties	3	320	/	/	.3760*a	.2145*a
Vividness	2	325	.1644*b	.1060*c	.2965*a	.1550*b
Quantity	1	325	/	/	1631*b	/
s. of belonging	1	324	.2555a	.3006a	.1797b	/
Excitement	1	320	/	.1582b	/	/
Warm relation.	1	324	.2489a	.1720b	.2307a	/
Self fulfillment	1	324	.2148a	.2085a	.1637b	/
Well respected	1	324	.2026a	.2021a	.2844a	.1829Ъ
Fun and enjoy.	1	323	.1618b	/	.1884b	/
Security	1	322	.1704b	.1700b	.3080a	.1472b
Self respect	1	324	.1364c	/	.1791b	/
Accomplisht	1	324	.2002a	.2620a	.2732a	/
Effort	3	321	.2177*a	/	1	1139*c
Involvement 1	4	325	.1722b	/	1	1484b
Involvement 2	2	324	/	/	1	/
Involvement 3	4	325	.1673b	/	.2350a	.2515a
NFC	18	325	/	/	/	/
Acculturation	5	325	1512b	2063a	/	_/

^{*=} one tail, a = p < .01, b = p < .05, c = p < .1

Hypotheses

Unfortunately as Tables 19 and 20 show, no one of the four hypotheses corresponding to the impact of culture on the formation of expectations was supported. Regressions results for the two groups are different from the results for the total sample, and differences between the two groups are also evident.

Hypothesis 12 stated that explicit promises will have a lesser impact on the

formation of collectivists' expectations. Results of regressions show that explicit promises influence expectations only through their interactions with need for cognition but in the collectivist model. This does not support the hypothesis.

According to hypotheses 13 and 14, implicit promises and word-of-mouth have a greater impact on collectivists' formation of expectations. Regression results show that implicit promises influence expectations in both collectivist and individualist models and word-of-mouth influences expectations only for the individualist model, which goes against the hypotheses.

Regression results show that negative experiences influence the way consumers form their expectations. As expected, the nature of the experiences influence negatively should expectations but contrary to what was expected it influences positively will expectations.

Since negative experience entered in the model, we were able to test hypothesis 15 stating that individualists tend to attribute the cause of events experienced in the past to the actors of the event, whereas collectivists tend to attribute the cause of events to situational variables. T-tests were conducted for each of the three dimensions of attribution, to see if significant differences existed between collectivists' and individualists' attributions. See Table 23.

Table 23

Results of T-tests for Collectivist/Individualist Attributions

Dimensions	Individualists	Collectivists	F value	Sig.
	mean (std dev.)	Mean (std dev.)		(p value)
Control	5.1047 (1.775)	4.4408 (1.637)	.828	.365
Locus of causality	2.1404 (.338)	2.2174 (.346)	.108	.743
Stability	3.7297 (1.679)	4.1288 (1.448)	2.950	.089

Hypothesis 15 dealt with the way collectivists and individualists attribute cause to negative experiences. Results of the T-tests reveal that there is no significant difference between collectivists' and individualists' attributions regarding the locus of causality and control. Thus, hypothesis 15 was not supported either. However, results show that collectivists see the cause of events significantly more stable than individualists which was not hypothesized.

Hypothesis 16 stated that effort will have a greater impact on individualists' formation of expectations than on collectivists' formation of expectations. Regression results show that effort influences expectations through its interaction with involvement and need for cognition and only in the collectivist model.

Other Results

Tables 19 and 20 summarizing regression results for collectivists and individualists show differences between the two groups.

If we go into detail, a number of differences appear. Explicit promises did not

enter the model. Implicit promises influence the process dimension of individualists' and collectivists' will expectations in the same way. Word-of-mouth influences should expectations for individualists and the technical dimension of will expectations with collectivists. Third parties influence should expectations and the process dimension of will expectations for individualists but not collectivists' expectations. Satisfaction for airlines has a negative impact on should (technical) expectations and a positive impact on will (process) expectations. Satisfaction with Air Canada influences will expectations for individualists. Vividness of recall has a negative impact on individualists' should (technical) expectations. Affect has an impact on should expectations for individualists and will (process) expectations for collectivists. Perception of alternatives influences only will (process) expectations for individualists. More values affect the process dimension of expectations than the technical dimension. Two values (sense of belonging and sense of accomplishment) influence should (technical) expectations for both individualists and collectivists. The other values have an impact on expectations but it differs for the two groups. Negative experience has a negative impact on should (technical) expectations for individualists and a positive impact on collectivists' will (process) expectations. The interaction need for cognition/implicit promises (NFCpers) influences should expectations for individualists, the interaction need for cognition/effort (NFCeff) influences will (technical) expectations for collectivists. The interaction NFC/explicit promises influences the technical dimension of will expectations for collectivists. Involvement influences both should and will expectations but not in the same way for collectivists and individualists. Acculturation has a positive impact on individualists should (process) expectations and a negative impact on individualists' will (process)

expectations and collectivists' should expectations. The effect of demographics on expectations depends on the group except for education which influences should (process) for the two groups.

Some general traits can be drawn from the preceding description:

First, more variables influence individualists' expectations than collectivists' expectations, more specifically, most of the independent variables appear to influence the technical dimension of should expectations and the process dimension of will expectations for individualists. It is true for external and internal sources of information as well as for certain values and involvement. Few variables influence the technical dimension of will expectations (e.g., third parties, satisfaction with Air Canada, self-respect) and the process dimension of should expectations (e.g., word-of-mouth, third parties, affect, self-respect, the interaction need for cognition/implicit promises (NFCpers), acculturation and education).

Second, the number of variables influencing collectivists' expectations appears much smaller. External and internal sources of information do not affect at all collectivists' should expectations. Among internal and external sources of information only implicit promises and affect influence the process dimension of collectivists' expectations; and only word-of-mouth and general satisfaction influence the technical dimension of collectivists' expectations.

Third, only four variables seem to influence individualists' and collectivists' expectations in the same way: sense of belonging, sense of accomplishment, implicit promises and education. Third parties, satisfaction with Air Canada, vividness of recall, excitement, warm relationships and the interaction need for cognition/implicit promises influence only individualists' expectations; whereas the interactions need for cognition/effort and need for cognition/explicit promises influence only collectivists' expectations.

T-tests

In our study, we wanted to explore any difference between individualists and collectivists. Several T-tests were conducted for each variable of the model to see if significant differences exist between individualists and collectivists. See Table 24.

<u>Table 24</u> Results of T-tests for Collectivists/Individualists

Variables	Individualists	Collectivists	T value	Sig.
	(means)	(means)		(p value)
Satisfaction Air Canada	7.2324	6.8407	4.248	.040
Effort	3.3071	3.4907	.257	.612
Vividness of Recall	4.9613	4.9973	.246	.621
Satisfaction General	6.7464	6.5166	.544	.461
Affect	7.3064	6.9761	4.982	.026
Word-of-Mouth	6.6381	6.3389	7.268	.007
Implicit Promises	6.8794	6.8425	2.192	.140
Explicit Promises	6.9043	6.6760	15.941	.000
Third Party	6.3933	6.2398	2.699	.101
Negative Experience	.2746	.3846	17.940	.000
Importance of Neg Cons.	6.2054	6.2619	.066	.798
Risk Probability	3.7730	3.3654	.000	.998
Pleasure/Sign	4.6989	5.0852	.276	.600
Need For Cognition	6.3320	6.7374	5.157	.024
Sense of belonging	6.9789	7.2637	.953	.330
Excitement	5.5000	5.4389	.056	.813
Warm relation	7.5845	7.9066	.597	.440
Self fulfillment	7.9718	8.0549	.005	.941
Well respected	7.7817	7.6319	.006	.937
Fun and enjoyment	7.4366	7.3923	1.089	.297
Security	7.6620	7.5389	.130	.719
Self respect	8.3099	8.3297	.328	.567
S. of Accomplishment	8.0211	8.0659	.277	.599
Acculturation	18.9113	20.5379	3.210	.074
Number of Alternatives	2.2634	3.1829	.182	.670
Should Expect. (Process)	8.3865	8.3810	.106	.745
Should Expect. (Outco.)	7.9789	7.9080	.119	.730
Will Expect. (Process)	7.1537	7.1552	.996	.316
Will Expect. (Outcome)	6.6408	6.6777	3.427	.065

Note: Significant differences are shown in italics

These T-Tests show several significant differences between individualists and collectivists.

Will (technical) expectations are significantly higher for collectivists (6.64) than for individualists (6.68), p = .065. Individualists are significantly more satisfied with their past experience with Air Canada (7.23) than collectivists (6.84), p = .040. Positive affect is significantly higher for individualists (7.31) than for collectivists (7.00), p = .026. Furthermore, collectivists had significantly more negative experiences with Air Canada (.38) than individualists (.28), p = .000. Results show that collectivists have a higher need for cognition (6.74) than individualists (6.33), p = .024. Collectivists appear to be significantly more acculturated toward the other culture (20.53) than individualists (18.91), p = .074. Individualists appear to have received more positive information than collectivists. But only differences regarding word-of-mouth and explicit promises are significant, respective p are .007 for word-of-mouth and .000 for explicit promises. The three most important values for collectivists and individualists are the same in the following order: sense of accomplishment, self respect and self fulfillment.

V. DISCUSSION

FINDINGS FOR THE MODEL

Results of the study show that the following variables have an impact on our general expectations' model:

- internal sources of information (general satisfaction, ease and vividness of recall and affect),
- external sources of information (explicit promises, implicit promises, word-of-mouth and third party),
- perceived number of alternatives,
- values (sense of belonging, warm relationship, self-fulfillment, and sense of accomplishment),
- the first dimension of involvement (risk of negative consequences),
- the second and third dimension of individualism (concern for ingroup and distance from ingroups),
- need for cognition,
- acculturation,
- some demographics (gender, income, employment, status and education), and
- the interaction of involvement and effort

Consistent with findings in the literature, the study shows that the consumer takes into account his/her past experience with the focal service (e.g., Air Canada) or the same

type of service (e.g., airlines) in his/her evaluation of the service. Most of the authors discussing expectations (e.g. Oliver 1997; Zeithaml et al. 1993; Murray 1991; Deighton 1984) agree on the importance of past experience in the formation of expectations. They argue that because of the intangible nature of services consumers can not touch, smell or see it. Consumers have to refer to the last time they used the same type of service to have an idea of what the service will be. If most of their past experiences were positive, consumers will have high expectations. Furthermore as Oliver (1997) proposed, unexpected experiences play also a role in the formation of expectations. An unexpected event is salient in the mind of the consumer, it is easily retrievable and if it was negative, it will have a negative impact on expectations for the next service experience. Results showed also the importance of satisfaction in the formation of expectations. Howard and Sheth (1969) and Clow and Beisel (1995) stated that a client satisfaction with past experience will have a positive influence on expectations for the next service experience. Oliver (1997) underlined the importance of incorporating the dimension of affect when dealing with expectations, our model suggests that this variable has a positive impact on the evaluation of the service.

Consumers remember also the (external) information received through advertisement, physical surroundings of the service providers, what they heard or read about the company (e.g., Miller 1977; Beales et al. 1981; Zeitahml et al. 1993; Oliver 1997). Results of the study on explicit promises corroborate George and Berry's (1981) proposition that an advertising campaign that gives the impression of technical and functional quality of the services will lead to an increase of expected service level. The

influence of implicit promises was acknowledged in the literature by Clow and Beisel (1995), Oliver (1981), Davidow and Uttal (1989) and Zeitahml et al. (1985). According to the literature, since a service is intangible by nature and the production and consumption of the service are simultaneous, the role of the physical environment and salespeople are very important in the formation of expectations. The present study acknowledges also the importance of word-of-mouth in the formation of expectations. Zeitahml (1981) and Oliver (1997) posited that because of the nature of services, experiences of others have a particular importance in the formation of expectations compared to other sources of information. We can see that word-of-mouth plays an important role because it influences positively both should and will expectations. Third party sources, that is the information given by independent, objective people or newspapers influence also expectations, confirming Oliver (1997) proposition. To sum up, results show that the four types of external sources of information influence the level of expectations. The higher the level of positive information received about the service, the higher the level of expectations for this service.

Prakash (1984), Zeitahml et al. (1993) and Oliver (1997) stated that values are preexistant to expectations and they create a desire to be fulfilled. Our study showed that four particular values influence expectations: sense of belonging, warm relationships, self-fulfillment and sense of accomplishment. The more important these values are to the consumer, the higher his/her expectations will be. All these values create desires and the service provider should offer a high level of service performance to meet high consumers' desires. As Zeithaml et al. (1993) stated, if a consumer has a high value (e.g.,

warm relationships), he/she will expect a high level of service performance to fulfill the desires created by this "need" of warm relationships. For example, the company personnel should be very kind with and close to the consumer with a high value such as warm relationships.

Demographics were added in the model as covariates. Results show that gender, income, employment, status and education influence expectations. An older, lesser educated, consumer with a low income will have higher expectations than a younger, highly educated consumer with a high income.

The other variables did not enter the model the way we expected as we will see in the next part.

UNEXPECTED RESULTS

Some variables did not influence expectations in our model. Satisfaction with Air Canada, negative experience, and effort did not enter our model. For our study, the antecedents that have been postulated in the literature review are not in the context of a multivariable model, and from the correlations in Table 16 we can see that most of the antecedents do have an influence. The analysis of correlations between independent variables and between dependent variables and independent variables may explain such results. Indeed, during the building process, the stepwise regression adds or deletes variables from the model at each step. Facing two correlated variables the stepwise

regression deletes the one with lesser explanatory power. So, maybe some variables not included in the model were highly correlated with other independent variables. Correlations between each independent variable separately and the dependent variables show that some variables not included in the model were however correlated with expectations on a bivariate basis and also highly correlated with independent variables that entered in the model.

On the one hand, satisfaction with Air Canada is significantly correlated with will expectations (.5373 for will (process)) and .2790 for will (technical) and the technical dimension of should expectations (.0773). On the other hand, the correlation matrix shows that satisfaction with Air Canada is highly correlated with vividness (.346), general satisfaction (.482), affect (.802), word-of-mouth (.554), implicit promises (.595 and negative experience (-.366).

For negative experiences too the high correlation between this variable and other independent variables, namely satisfaction with Air Canada (-.366), vividness (-.425), and affect (-.364) can explain why this variable, which is significantly correlated with should (process) (-. 0875*c) and will (-.2099*a for process and -.0745*c for technical) expectations on a bivariate basis, does not appear in the multivariate model.

The analysis of correlations shows that effort is significantly correlated with should (process) (.1988*a), and should (technical) (.1009*b). On the other hand the correlation matrix revealed that effort is highly correlated with the three dimensions of

involvement (.157, .286 and .249 respectively for each dimension). Table 13 shows that the average level of effort invested to get an airline ticket is low. Maybe airlines are not the type of service requiring enough effort to take it into account when forming expectations. In our model, effort plays a role in the formation of should expectations through its interaction with involvement (its first dimension: importance of negative consequences). Effort appears to be a moderating variable rather than an independent variable.

Some variables did not influence expectations the way we expected. The number of perceived alternatives has a positive impact on should expectations but a negative impact on will expectations. Involvement, need for cognition and individualism/collectivism seem to have a direct impact on expectations whereas we expected that they would influence the dependent variables through interaction with other variables, i.e., effort, external sources of information.

The number of perceived alternatives influences expectations but the relationship is positive for should expectations and negative for will expectations. Results show, as expected, that the higher the number of perceived alternatives, the higher the level of should expectations. That is, if consumers take into account many competing companies, they expect that competition will increase service quality. On the other hand, our results show the reverse for will expectations. Many reasons could explain this result. First, the perception of alternatives has been treated as an antecedent increasing expectations in the service quality literature (Zeitahml et al. 1993), where expectations are should

expectations, that is what the consumer desires and not will expectations. Second, consumers may think that an increase of competition should enhance the service quality, but an increase of the competition may also be seen as the result of, for example in our airline study, an increase in the demand and perhaps reduced service quality due to increasing number of clients. We must also notice that the number of perceived alternatives is quite stable, most of the respondents take into account 2 airline companies before making a trip. However, the impact of this variable is difficult to evaluate because a lot of values were missing and replaced by the mean of the sample.

Results show that the second dimension of involvement (risk probability) has a negative impact on should expectations. Whereas the third dimension (pleasure/sign) has a positive impact on the process dimension of will expectations but a negative impact on the technical dimension of will expectations. Laurent and Kapferer (1985) identified four dimensions in involvement. Two of them have a negative connotation: risk of negative consequences and risk probability and the other two have a positive connotation: pleasure and sign. It seems logical that the higher the level of risk probability, the lower the expectations. If a consumer perceives a service as risky, he/she will expect a lower level of service than if he/she finds it not risky. In the same way, the higher the pleasure linked to the service, the higher the level of expectations. A consumer thinking that a service is a pleasure, he/she will have high expectations. The negative impact of pleasure/sign on the technical dimension of will expectations calls for future research. In both cases the level of involvement is high (because of risk or pleasure) but consequences are opposite depending on the importance of the two dimensions.

Results show that need for cognition influences the level of process should expectations. That is, the higher the need for cognition, the lower the consumer's expectations regarding the way the service should be delivered to meet his/her desire. Cacioppo et al. (1984, p. 306) defined need for cognition as "an individual tendency to engage in and enjoy effortful cognitive endeavor". A person with a high need for cognition gathers a lot of information on the service and thinks deeply about past experience before patronizing the service. He/she is maybe more realistic about what a company can provide so he/she lowers the level of service performance a service should deliver compared to people with a low need for cognition.

The second and third dimensions of Individualism (concern for ingroup and distance from ingroups) have a direct impact on expectations. The more individualist people are, the lower their level of expectations.

We can differentiate two types of expectations: should and will. Some independent variables of our model affect both types or one of them as we will see in the next part.

SHOULD VERSUS WILL EXPECTATIONS

Results show a difference between the antecedents of should and will expectations, that is between the variables influencing the way consumers think the service should be to satisfy their desires and the way consumers think the service will be

in reality. Some variables influence either should or will expectations. Zeithaml et al. (1993) postulated that some antecedents of expectations affect will expectations and others affect should expectations. According to Zeithaml et al. (1993), external sources of information (explicit promises, implicit promises and word-of-mouth) and past experience (satisfaction and vividness of recall) influence both should and will expectations. Perception of alternatives and values influence only should expectations. Our study shows that explicit promises influence only will expectations, past experience influences only should expectations and the number of perceived alternatives influences both types of expectations.

It is interesting to note that no internal sources of information influence should expectations. Neither satisfaction with past experiences nor unexpected experience nor affect influence the consumer in his/her expectations about what the service should be (what he/she desires), but they influence what the service will be. So, it appears that what the consumer remembers from past experience influences only what consumers think will be provided. We can explain this result. The consumer see what he/she experienced as a reflection of what will happen in the future if he/she patronizes the same service or the same type of service. Other variables influence only will expectations, namely the third dimension of involvement (pleasure/sign), implicit promises and third party. For the first variable, it makes sense that the more a consumer sees the service as a pleasure, the higher his/her expectations regarding what the service will be. For the second variable, consumers seem to infer what the service will really be according to the physical environment and the look of the personnel. Regarding the third variable, the information

received from third parties, (independent reports, etc.) appears to be taken as an objective source, really reflecting what the service will be.

Some variables influence only should expectations: explicit promises, the second dimension of involvement (risk probability), involvement/effort interaction, and need for cognition.

Explicit service promises are information that the company gives to consumers (Zeitahml et al. 1993), and as consumers see the advertisements, they expect that the company should deliver what it promises explicitly.

For personal characteristics such as the involvement/effort interaction, the level of involvement (the risk probability dimension) and need for cognition appear to influence only what consumers think should be provided (to meet their desires). We can understand that personal characteristics influence the type of expectations related to desires and not to what the service will really be. Desires are linked to what the consumer is including personal characteristics such as involvement or need for cognition. It is also understandable that the more a consumer finds a service risky, the lower his/her expectations regarding what the service should be. Results show that need for cognition has a negative influence on should expectations. As we explained earlier, many people with high need for cognition take more things into account before evaluating a service and therefore may be more realistic about the service performance a company can deliver.

These differences between should and will expectations find support in the literature. As explained earlier, the literature does not agree on the "best" type of expectations (should or will) representing really consumer expectations. The satisfaction literature usually uses the concept of will expectations or "what the consumer thinks the service will be in reality". The Service Quality literature usually uses the concept of should expectations "what the consumer thinks the service should be to meet his/her desire". Several researchers have tried to reconcile both concepts. Oliver (1981) distinguished two components: a probability of occurrence (what we call will expectations) and an evaluation of the occurrence (what we call should expectations) Both are necessary. According to Tse and Wilton (1988), Oliver (1993,1997) and Spreng et al. (1997), the two types of expectations work in tandem and we should treat them separately to obtain a clear understanding of their meaning. Our study has shown that both types of expectations are different and complementary.

We can differentiate two dimensions for expectations: process and technical. Some variables of our model influence both dimensions or one of them, as we will see in the next part.

PROCESS VERSUS TECHNICAL DIMENSIONS

Most of the independent variables in the model influence both process and technical dimensions. But some of them have an impact only on the process dimension:

implicit promises, third party, vividness of recall, the second dimension of involvement (risk probability) and need for cognition.

The influence of implicit promises on the process dimension can be explained by the nature of the items measuring the variable. Indeed, after the factor analysis one the items measuring implicit promises dealing with the physical aspect of the planes was removed. Only items dealing with personnel contacts remained as a measure of implicit promises. So implicit promises reflected only the personnel aspect of the construct. The importance of personnel in the service delivery explains why implicit promises influence the way the service should be processed.

The impact of vividness of recall on the process dimension may be due to the fact that most of consumers' unexpected experiences were related to the way the service was delivered and not to the physical aspect of the flight (e.g., aircraft, personnel).

A consumer rating high on the risk importance scale may find the choice of an airline company difficult and complex, therefore, he/she will have low expectations concerning the way the service will be processed. We saw in the literature (e.g., Zeithaml 1985) that since the production and consumption of a service are inseparable, the quality occurs during service delivery. As Parasuraman et al. (1991) indicated, the most variable dimension in a service is the way the service is delivered or processed. The service quality depends on the conditions under which the service is processed (e.g., kindness of

the personnel). The technical dimension of expectations is more stable, the seating space, physical surroundings, etc. do not change according to the personnel mood, or time of the day, for example. With such a variability of the process in the service delivery, the risk perceived by the consumer increases. Therefore it makes sense that perceived risk has a negative influence on the process dimension of expectations.

Need for cognition influences only the process dimension of expectations. It could be construed that people with a high need for cognition will rate lower the way the service should be processed. Indeed the literature acknowledges the complexity of the process in a service (e.g., Shostack 1977; Oliver 1981). Contrary to the technical dimension which is more stable, the process dimension varies according to the day, the personnel mood, etc. It is more difficult for a consumer to apprehend the process than the technical dimension of services. Maybe that is why need for cognition influences only this dimension.

Acculturation has a negative influence on the process dimension of should expectations. A consumer highly acculturated toward the other language will have lower technical should expectations than a consumer less acculturated. A person acculturated through different media has access to information from another culture. In the same way as for people with a high need for cognition, having more information on hand enables to have a more objective idea of what a company can do. Since the process is more complex to apprehend than the technical dimension (e.g., we can see if aircraft equipment is up to date or if there is sufficient seating space), need for cognition and acculturation, both

enabling more information gathering, influence the process dimension of expectations.

One variable influences only the technical dimension of expectations: explicit promises. According to the literature (e.g., Shostack 1977; Davidow and Uttal, 1989; Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry, 1985), because the intangible nature of services makes them difficult to evaluate before consumption, advertising has the specific mission for services to make the benefits of the service clear and real to tangibilize the service. Therefore it makes sense that an advertising transmitting a tangible aspect of the service influences the tangible (or technical) dimension of expectations.

After examining the influence of the different variables on expectations we notice that most of the variables influence will expectations and few variables influence the technical dimension. First, more variables appear to influence will expectations than should expectations. We expected this result given the lack of variability of should expectations. (e.g., Oliver 1997; Van Dyke et al. 1997). When a consumer is asked about his/her level of desired service performance, his/her response will tend to be extreme (9 on a 9-point scale) because he/she will always prefer a higher level of performance. Means and standard deviations for expectations obtained in our research confirm the literature. Should expectations have a higher mean (8.38 for should (process) and 7.94 for should (technical)) than will expectations (7.16 for will (process) and 6.66 for will (technical)). Standard deviations for should expectations are smaller (.80 for should (process) and .91 for should (technical)) than for will expectations (1.15 for will (process) and 1.06 for will (technical).

We can note also that technical expectations seem to be influenced by less variables. Explicit promises is the variable influencing only the technical dimension. Most of the variables influence either both dimensions or the process dimension. We can understand this result too. The technical dimension is more "tangible", less risky than the process dimension or maybe less complex to evaluate. The performance of a service is more stable regarding the technical dimension (e.g., physical surroundings) than the process dimension (the smile of the personnel).

IMPACT OF CULTURE

First, it is important to notice that we studied individualists and collectivists inside one country, Canada. Triandis et al (1993) stated that it is better to use the notions of idiocentrists and allocentrists at the subcultural level, which we have done but for notation purposes we will use the individualist and collectivist terminologies.

Hypotheses

None of the five hypotheses relative to the impact of culture was supported. But individual correlations were computed to see if the variable taken alone would influence the dependent variables. For hypothesis 12 relative to explicit promises, bivariate correlations show that explicit promises are significantly correlated with all the four dependent variables in the individualist model and only with three of the dependent variables in the collectivist model, these results go in the hypothesized direction.

But neither the regression results nor individual correlations corroborates hypotheses 13 and 14 regarding the impact of individualism on implicit promises and word-of-mouth. But results for implicit promises confirm Dawar and Parker (1994) findings that price and physical surroundings are not influenced by the culture but rather by the individuals in the evaluation of service quality.

Hypothesis 15 was not supported, collectivists do not attribute cause of events more to situational variables than individualists but the T-test for the third dimension of attribution revealed significant differences between collectivists and individualists regarding the stability of the cause. Collectivists seem to find the cause of events more stable than individualists. Maybe they are more fatalists and imagine changes with more difficulty than individualists. According to Hofstede (1991), collectivists have an unquestionning loyalty which emphasizes stability. We were able to test hypothesis 15 because negative experience entered the model. Results showed that it has a negative influence on technical-should expectations and a positive influence on process-will expectations for collectivists. Individual correlations show that negative experience influences both types of expectations negatively, which leads us to think that the incongruent positive impact of this variable on will expectations is due to interactions with other variables.

Hypothesis 16 concerning effort was not supported. Bivariate correlations of effort with dependent variables are surprising, they show that effort is correlated with

expectations for the individualists and collectivists but for collectivists, the effect of effort is positive on the should (process) and negative on the will (technical) expectations.

Therefore none of our hypotheses regarding collectivists/individualists was confirmed. One possible explanation could be the result of measurement problem. Maybe some of the items of the Triandis et al. (1988) scale used in the United States may not capture well the construct in the Quebec culture. Furthermore, a look at the means for the measures of individualism/collectivism shows that respondents were not very individualists. Maybe this measure did not reflect well the degree of individualism and collectivism of respondents.

Other Findings

Still our analyses enable us to make some inferences concerning individualists/collectivists differences.

Regressions for the general model reveal that the variable individualism/collectivism directly influences expectations. The more individualist the respondent, the lower the expectations. T-tests show also that individualists have significant lower will (technical) expectations than collectivists. Triandis et al. (1993) showed the importance of the reward for effort for individualists and Hofstede (1991) noticed the unquestionning loyalty of collectivists. Therefore we did not expect collectivists to have higher expectations than individualists. Maybe collectivists are more confident and have high expectations. This finding can be a basis for further research.

Globally, the regression results for collectivists and individualists show that individualists' expectations are influenced by more variables than collectivists' expectations. Hofstede (1991) argued that collectivists live in cohesive ingroups, which throughout their lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty, furthermore collectivists try to avoid conflicting situations. Maybe collectivists take less variables into account when forming expectations because they question less or because too many variables would create potential conflicts. We can infer that individualists have a more complex way of forming expectations. Or, maybe the model is more adapted to individualists than to collectivists.

Tables 19 and 20 show that for the individualist model most of the variables influence should (technical) expectations and will (process) expectations. It is interesting to note that should expectations and the technical dimension are not very variable as we saw earlier in the discussion about the general model. The reverse is true for will expectations and the process dimension. Should expectations tend to be more stable than will expectations because the consumer will always prefer a higher level of service performance. The technical dimension of expectations is more stable than the process dimension because it does not depends on the situation of the day or of the personnel, furthermore it is more easily evaluable than the process dimension.

External (implicit promises, word-of-mouth and third parties) and internal (satisfaction, affect, vividness of recall) sources of information seem to play a more important role for individualists than for collectivists in the formation of expectations. The literature (e.g. Triandis et al. 1993) shows agreement with these results that personal

well-being, the self, is less emphasized in collectivist cultures. So everything related to internal sources may play a less important role for collectivists than for individualists. We may find an explanation for results concerning external sources of information too. As stated earlier our study focuses on subcultural differences in one country, Canada, which is considered a rather individualist country (e.g., Miller 1984). External sources of information (e.g., advertising, physical surroundings) may be more adapted to individualists than collectivists. An example of this inadaptation is reflected by the Ttests results showing that individualists see explicit promises as significantly more positive than collectivists. According to Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey (1988), lowcontext communications are the most common form of communication found in individualist cultures. In Canada, explicit promises such as advertisements are directed toward the majority of Canadians: individualist people, that is more low-context cues are used in advertisements than high-context cues or in other words, more emphasis is put on the message than on the way it is delivered. The fact that explicit promises are more adapted to individualists may explain why individualists see them as more positive than collectivists. It is interesting for managers to note that neither external nor internal sources of information influence the level of should expectations for collectivists, that is the way the service should be to satisfy customers' desires as we will see in the managerial implications part. It seems to be more difficult to influence this type of expectations. We saw earlier that for the general model should expectations are less variable than will expectations. Here we see once again the lack of variability of should expectations.

Regression results reveal that the interaction between need for cognition and

effort on one side and explicit promise on the other side influences only collectivists' expectations. T-tests reveal collectivists have a higher need for cognition than individualists. Need for cognition was included in the model as an exploratory variable. Further research is needed to see the importance of this variable in the formation of expectations.

Some variables did not influence expectations the way we expected. General satisfaction and ease/vividness of recall have a negative impact on should (technical) expectations. Furthermore, effort has a negative impact on will (technical) expectations and negative experiences have a positive influence on should (technical) expectations. All these influences going in the opposite direction compared to what was expected deal with the technical dimension of expectations.

In addition to the regression results, T-tests computed for each variable revealed other significant differences between individualists and collectivists.

Individualists are more satisfied with Air Canada, have a more positive affect and less negative experiences. Maybe the service on board in also not adapted to collectivists needs, some experiences may be seen as negative by collectivists because they are not adapted. A collectivist will emphasize protection by the personnel whereas individualists will emphasize freedom.

Collectivists appear to be more acculturated toward the other language than individualists. One explanation could be that collectivists that are in a more individualist country are willing to be part of the general group, they want to be part of the society, or group, so they are more adapted.

Word-of-mouth appears to be more positive for individualists than for collectivists. This result corroborates the literature. According to Watkins and Liu (1996), the greater the degree of collectivism in a culture, the stronger the social ties among people in that culture and Richins (1987) stated that strong social ties increases the likelihood of negative word-of-mouth.

The three most important values for collectivists and individualists are the same, in the following order: sense of accomplishment, self respect and self fulfillment. These values are all characteristics of individualists which infers that the sample is as a whole more individualist than collectivist. This is understandable since all respondents are from Canada, a rather individualist country according to the literature.

In our study we wanted also to make a contribution to the literature regarding French and English Canadians and their degree of individualism/collectivism. Many authors have tried to characterize French and English Canadians as either collectivists or individualists but no agreement has been reached. A T-test was conducted to see if we could classify English and French Canadians as either collectivists or individualists.

Table 25

Results of ANOVAs for English/French Canadians

Dimensions of	English mean,	French mean,	F value	Sig.
Individualism	(std dev.)	(std dev.)		(p value)
Self-reliance with compet.	4.049 (1.2653)	4.037 (1.3254)	.0073	.9318
Concern for ingroup	2.633 (.8605)	2.858 (.7407)	6.3978	.0119
Distance from ingroups	6.160 (1.1555)	6.231 (1.4027)	.7459	.3884

Results revealed no significant difference between English and French regarding their degree of individualism except for the second dimension (concern for ingroup). French Canadians seem to be significantly more individualist than English Canadians. This result on this dimension of collectivism/individualism corroborates part of the literature (e.g, Hénault 1971; Bouchard 1978; Ahmed et al. 1981; and Duhaime et al. 1991) arguing that Francophones are more individualist than Anglophones.

VI. LIMITS AND FURTHER RESEARCH

The study was conducted with a particular service: airline flights. Results are not generalizable to other services. Future research could use other types of services such as the banking sector or garages for car repairs. Using other types of services may emphasize the role of different antecedents. For example, personal role, which does not play any important role in the airline industry, may have a particularly important impact on expectations in the case of a garage, as consumer's explanations are seen as a particularly important contribution to the service quality (Zeitahml et al 1993).

The study was restricted to English and French Canadians, no allophones were taken into account. Future research could enlarge the targeted population to increase the generalization of the results.

The model shows some antecedents of expectations that were not mentioned in the literature, namely, acculturation and some demographics (gender, education, status, income and employment). Further research is needed to understand why these variables influence the way expectations are formed. Furthermore, some variables had a direct influence on expectations but it was expected that they would influence expectations only through the interaction with other variables of the model. Further research is needed to understand why need for cognition, involvement and individualism are antecedents of expectations and not moderators. In addition, some of the antecedents of the literature were not measured in our study because we used questionnaires to collect data. Future research could measure these variables and see their impact on expectations. For

example, transitory situations could be measured with scenarios.

We included in the model some potential interactions between need for cognition and involvement and several independent variables in the model such as effort and external sources of information. Maybe further research could include other potential interactions such as need for cognition and involvement with attribution.

The literature did not agree on the best way to measure expectations. We tried in this study to use part of the SERVQUAL scale adapted to avoid certain shortcuts of this instrument. We ultimately found two common dimensions for should and will expectations. A confirmatory factor analysis could help to better understand the expectations dimensions. Further research is needed to build a scale taking into account all the dimensions of expectations and representing as close as possible the construct and verify that no contamination between should and will expectations measured one after the other appear.

None of the hypotheses regarding the impact of culture was supported. However we found some interesting differences in the formation of expectations between collectivists and individualists calling for further research. Why collectivists have higher expectations than individualists? We made some inferences concerning specific traits for individualists and collectivists. More variables enter the individualist model than the collectivist one. Maybe individualists have a more complex way of forming expectations than collectivists. Perhaps the model is more adapted to individualists than to

collectivists. Further research may verify these hypotheses. The next step would be to test the model in two different cultures and not subcultures.

Possibly there was a problem of measurement. We chose the Triandis measure of idiocentrism because it was adapted to subcultural research but maybe it was not adapted for our study. Further research could focus on measures for idiocentrism. Most of the measures in the collectivism/individualism literature deal with the cross-cultural level and not with the subcultural level. Very few measures of idiocentrism exist. It is possible that because of potentially measurement problems we may not have captured the impact of individualism on the formation of expectations. More cross-cultural research is needed not only on the individualism/collectivism dimension of culture but maybe on other Hofstede's (1980, 1991) dimensions such as masculinity/femininity. It could be interesting to test the model in other countries also.

VII. CONCLUSION AND MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

This exploratory study made a contribution to the expectations literature by putting together into one model many of the expectations' antecedents present in the literature. We elaborated a model showing some variables influencing expectations. We distinguished two types of expectations that are not influenced by the same variables and that do not have the same impact on the service evaluation. We found that more variables influence will expectations than should expectations and more variables influence the process dimension of expectations than the technical dimension. It appears that it is because should expectations and the technical dimension are more stable than will expectations and the process dimension.

None of hypotheses regarding the impact of individualism/collectivism on expectations was supported but findings revealed two different ways of forming expectations for these two groups. More variables are taken into account by individualists than by collectivists to form their expectations. The model appears more complex for individualists or perhaps more adapted (including more explanatory variables in the model) to individualists than to collectivists. Maybe collectivists take into account less variables when forming expectations because they are more conformist, they emphasize harmony and try to avoid conflicting situations. Interestingly collectivists have higher expectations than individualists. It is a good basis for further research related to the formation of expectations.

Some important managerial implications can be inferred from this study. Service

providers have no direct influence on some of the variables of the model. For example, they cannot act on antecedents such as values. But the study showed the role of explicit and implicit promises and past experience on which companies can act. To determine which action to take it is important to distinguish should from will expectations. Boulding et al. (1993) showed that an increase in customer will-expectations leads to higher perception of quality after the consumer is exposed to the service. Whereas an increase in customer should-expectations decreases the level of quality perceived after consumption. Since the objective of managers is to increase the level of quality perceived, they should simultaneously try to increase will expectations and decrease should expectations. The study revealed that explicit promises influence should expectations, so acting on explicit promises may be the easiest way to touch consumers but it will increase the level of should expectations which is not the objective. On the other hand, implicit promises influence will expectations only. Therefore, companies should focus on this source of information. By increasing the positive image of the physical aspect of the surroundings and personnel, they will increase consumers' expectations concerning what the service will be.

An obvious way for managers to influence expectations is through promises. Some researchers recommend deliberately underpromising the service to increase the likelihood of exceeding customer satisfaction. For example Davidow and Uttal (1989) advocate underpromising and overdelivering. But Parasuraman et al. (1991) do not recommend underpromising or overpromising. "Firms will have a better chance of meeting customer expectations when their promises reflect the service actually delivered

rather than an idealized version of the service" Parasuraman et al. (1991, p. 451). Firms should present a cohesive and honest portrayal of the service both explicitly (e.g., through advertising) and implicitly (e.g., through the appearance of the service facilities). Firms should solicit precampaign feedback from frontline operations personnel and customer about the perceived accuracy of the message. They should also avoid to mimic competitors that overpromise (Parasuraman et al. 1991).

Results of our study show that explicit promises influence only the technical dimension of expectations. We already stated that the literature (e.g. Shodtack 1977; Davidow and Uttal 1989; Zeithaml et al. 1985) shows that an effective advertisement should "tangibilize" the service. This explains why explicit promises influence the technical (more tangible) dimension of expectations. But Shostack (1977) and Parasuraman et al. (1991) acknowledge the importance of the process dimension. Shostack (1977) calls the process dimension the core element of the service. The way service is delivered is the more variable element. According to Parasuraman et al. (1991) it is important to leverage the process dimension. Maybe explicit promises should focus more on the process dimension to influence it.

Our study showed the importance of four values (sense of belonging, warm relationships, self-respect and sense of accomplishment) in the formation of expectations. Managers should incorporate these values in their promises. For example advertising could emphasize warm relationships by showing the way personnel behave.

Consistent with Zeithaml (1981), the study showed the importance for service providers to deliver a constant quality of service. Past experience influences will expectations. A service provider should avoid any negative past experience or consumers' expectations of future service will be low. One major challenge concerning services is the high perception of risk. In our model, the risk of negative consequences had a direct impact on consumers' expectations and the probability of risk influenced expectations through its interaction with effort. We see the importance of risk perception in the evaluation of services. Air Canada's major challenge according to their marketing department is to deliver a constant quality. The airline company states also that past experience is an important antecedent of expectations. Both researchers and practitioners acknowledge the role of risk and past experience in the service sector. Zeithaml (1981) and Parasuraman et al. (1991) recommend that companies develop employee training to enhance the willingness and ability of human being to be effective servers. Firms should measure employees' capacity for excellent service (e.g., with product knowledge tests) and the quality of service they actually deliver (e.g., with mystery shopper). They should also propose standardized services in order to offer a constant quality of service and in turn avoid negative experiences and diminish the perceived risk.

More variables enter the individualists' model than the collectivists' model.

Neither external nor internal sources of information influence the level of should expectations for collectivists, that is the way the service should be to satisfy customers' desires. It becomes difficult for managers to influence should expectations for collectivists through sources of information.

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IX. APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: THE CORRELATIONS MATRIX

APPENDIX II: THE CASE OF AIR CANADA

APPENDIX III: THE QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX I: THE CORRELATIONS MATRIX

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APPENDIX II: THE CASE OF AIR CANADA

Air Canada is a multinational firm with 43000 employees around the world. One specific department is dedicated to commercial activities. This department is composed of a section responsible for sales and distribution, marketing, and advertising and relations with agencies. The bigger challenge for such an airline company is to keep the service quality constant. As we saw in the literature, the importance of the consumer's and employee's participation in the service delivery make the stability of the service quality a real challenge for Air Canada.

The main task of the marketing section is to set up flight schedules but it is also responsible for the preparation of the product (on board services), prices, and negotiations dealing with international agreements. A particular team works full time on the research on consumers' needs and decisional process. Part of the research is subcontracted. Focus groups are organized by the company. The team has segmented consumers into business and leisure travelers and the business segment is divided according to the size of the company. It differentiates consumers on psychographics (for example Anglophones and Francophones). The most interesting market is the business population. Special programs are developed according to the characteristics of the segment, for example Aeroplan for heavy travelers.

Air Canada communicates an image of superior service quality through sponsorships. Traditional advertising is used for more specific characteristics of the service (e.g., price, quality). The main priority of the company is to convey a message of dependable schedules, tranquility and comfort.

Air Canada tries to overcome consumers' negative past experiences by communicating messages with its customers, offering special prices (for example after the employees' strike of September 1998). They had to face a negative image given by their lack of competence during the snow storm of Christmas 1998. Consumers knew that Air Canada could not control the storm, but they criticized the way the company handled the problem. We recognize the attribution theory playing a role in the consumer evaluation of a service. For Aeroplan customers, Air Canada is pro-active regarding complaints. If the company notices a problem, it sends a letter with apologies before reception of a complaint.

According to Air Canada, customers are influenced by the carrier's promises and their past experiences when building their expectations. This agrees with the literature.

APPENDIX III: THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Faculty of Commerce and Administration

Dear Sir/Madam,

As part of the requirement of my Master of Science in Administration Program at Concordia University, I am interested in studying the opinions of Canadian consumers from various backgrounds on airline companies.

I would very much appreciate your participation in this study by completing this questionnaire. This should take approximately 30 minutes of your time. Your participation is totally anonymous and voluntary. Your responses will be used only for statistical purpose, and not on an individual basis. You are free to discontinue your participation at any time.

Since this research is necessary for the successful completion of my MSc. Program, I sincerely hope that you will agree to participate in this survey. Please return the completed questionnaire in the enclosed pre-paid envelope addressed to my supervisor as soon as you can.

Thank you again for your kind participation.

Yours very truly,

Adélaïde Cezard MSc.A Student Dr. Michel Laroche Surpervising Professor Tel: (514) 848 2942

Questionnaire

Instructions

Thank you for your cooperation. We value the answers you express in the questionnaire. We have tried to make it as easy as possible for you. All that is required is to circle a code or to write numbers to indicate your answer. It is important that you answer <u>ALL</u> questions (if applicable). If at any point, you do not know the exact answer, please provide your best estimate. Please note that there are no good or bad answers.

FOR THIS QUESTIONNAIRE PLEASE DO NOT CONSIDER CHARTER FLIGHTS BUT ONLY REGULAR AIRLINE FLIGHTS

PART A

The following part concerns your experiences with airline companies (excluding charters). Please read through each statement and indicate how you personally agree or disagree with it. Circle one number from 1 to 9, the one that best reflects your opinions.

In general I mand a lot of effort to get a tisket to mu-		Disag Stron						Agi Stro	
In general, I spend a lot of effort to get a ticket to my destination before travelling.	1	i 2	2 3	4	5	6	7	8	9
In general, I spend a lot of time gathering information about airline companies before travelling.	:	. 2	2 3	4	5	6	7	8	9
In general, I spend a lot of money in my search for an airline company.	e 1	. 2	2 3	4	5	6	7	8	9
In general, I have been very satisfied with my past experience with airline companies.	ces 1	. 2	2 3	4	5	6	7	8	9
In general, my experiences with airline companies have been excellent.	n 1	. 2	2 3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	•	⁄егу г	1egati				V	ery Po	sitive
My last experience with an airline company was:	1	. 2	2 3	4	5	6	7	8	9
My most unexpected experience with an airline company (if I had one) was:	1	2	: 3	4	5	6	7	8	9
What is the next destination you plan to go to by plane? For this particular destination, how many airline companies	would	you t	ake in	to acc	ount ir	ı your	choic	e?	
Do you usually travel with an airline company for: Lei	sure						Bus	iness	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
How frequently do you travel with airline companies (exclude	ling ch	arters	s)? <i>(cii</i>	rcle oi	nly one	: numb	er)		
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PART B

The following part concerns your past experience with Air Canada (excluding charters).

	Disa Stro	-						Agree Stron	
In general, I have been very satisfied with my past experiences with Air Canada.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
In general, my experiences with Air Canada have been excellent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	Very	y neg	ative				Very	y Pos	itive
My last experience with Air Canada was:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
My most unexpected experience with Air Canada (if I had one) was:		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

If you have been satisfied with all your experiences with Air Canada go directly to question (1) on the next page. If you were dissatisfied with at least one of your experiences with Air Canada, please indicate the nature of your negative experience (choose one if there were many negative experiences) and answer the following questions about the cause of this negative experience:

What was the nature of your negative experience? Was the cause(s): Uncontrollable by Controllable by you or other people you or other people 5 6 2 4 7 8 9 Was the cause(s) something that was: Temporary Permanent 2 3 4 5 6 7 9 Was the cause(s) something that was: Not intended by Intended by you or other people you or other people 4 5 6 7 2 Was the cause(s) something that was: Outside of you Inside of you 3 5 2 4 6 7 Was the cause(s) something that was: Variable over time Stable over time 2 4 5 6 7 Was the cause(s) something: About others About you 3 4 5 6 7 Was the cause(s) something that was: Changeable Unchangeable 3 4 5 6 7 2 Was the cause (s) something for which: No one was responsible Someone was responsible 5 6 8 Was the cause(s) something that: Reflected an aspect Reflected an aspect of the situation of yourself 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

(1) My opinion about Air Can	ada as	an ai	rline (compa	my is	:				
Awful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Excellent
Extremely negative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Extremely positive
Extremely bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Extremely good

The following statements concern information acquired about Air Canada (excluding charters). Please indicate the degree to which this information was more or less positive.

•	Ve	ry Ne	gativ	e			Ver	y Pos	itive
All advertising concerning Air Canada that I have seen (on TV, radio, etc) is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
All my contacts with the sales personnel of Air Canada have been:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
All advertising concerning Air Canada that I have read (in posternewspapers, magazines, etc) is:	rs 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
All information about Air Canada that I have heard from my friends is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
All information about Air Canada that I have heard from my family members is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
All information about Air Canada that I have heard from co-workers is:	I	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
All information about Air Canada that I have read in newspaper articles is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
All information about Air Canada that I have read in articles in specialized magazines is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
All information about Air Canada that I have seen on TV reports is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
My opinion about Air Canada's aircraft physical aspect is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
My opinion about Air Canada's personnel is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
My opinion on Air Canada's counters (in agencies, at airports) is	: 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

PART C

In the following part we would like to know your expectations concerning Air Canada (excluding charters).

For the following statements consider your desired level of service: the level of performance you believe Air Canada can and should deliver and circle a number on the scale.

		agree ongly						Agi Stro	ree ngly
Air Canada should have very modern equipment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
The employees of Air Canada should be very neat and well dressed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Physical facilities and aircrafts should be very appealing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

		agree ongly						-	ree rongly
In-flight meals should be excellent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
There should be ample seating space in the aircraft.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Pre-flight services (e.g., baggage handling, ticket processing) should be done very efficiently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
An Air Canada flight should provide a very good deal (value for money).	or 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Air Canada flight schedules should be very convenient for my needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Air Canada flights should not have any departure delay.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Air Canada should not do any over-booking.	i	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
When I have problems, Air Canada employees should be very understanding and reassuring.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Employees of Air Canada should offer a very prompt service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I should really enjoy my flight with Air Canada.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Air Canada should be very dependable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I should be able to trust employees of Air Canada.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I should be able to feel very safe when I fly with Air Canada.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Air Canada's employees should be very polite.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Air Canada's employees should give me individual attention.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Air Canada's employees should understand my needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I should find my flight with Air Canada very pleasing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

For the following statements consider the level of service you think Air Canada will actually deliver during your next flight with them:

		sagr ec rongly							gree ongly
Air Canada will have very modern equipment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
The employees of Air Canada will be very neat and well dressed	1.1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Physical facilities and aircrafts will be very appealing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
In-flight meals will be excellent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
There will be ample seating space in the aircraft.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Pre-flight services (e.g., baggage handling, ticket processing) will be done very efficiently.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
An Air Canada flight will be a very good deal (value for money)).1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Air Canada flight schedules will be very convenient for my need	ls i	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Air Canada flights will not have any departure delays.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

		agree ongly						Ag Stro	gr ee ngly
Air Canada will not do any over-booking.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
When I have problems, Air Canada employees will be very understanding and reassuring.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Air Canada's employees will offer a very prompt service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I will really enjoy my flight with Air Canada.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Air Canada will be very dependable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I will be able to trust employees of Air Canada.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I will be able to feel very safe when I fly with Air Canada.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Air Canada employees will be very polite.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Air Canada employees will give me individual attention.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Air Canada's employees will understand my needs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I will find my flight with Air Canada very pleasing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

PART D

In this section we would like to know your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements regarding some of your interests and opinions:

	Disagree Strongly							•	gr ec ongly
I attach great importance to flying with the right airline.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Flying with an airline is something that leaves me totally indifferent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
It is rather complicated to choose an airline.		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
When faced with choosing among airlines, I always feel at a loss to make the right choice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
If after I had flown somewhere, my choice of airline proved to be poor, I would be really upset.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
When I choose an airline it is not a big deal if I make a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
For me, flying with an airline is somewhat of a pleasure.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
When I travel with an airline, it is a bit like giving a gift to myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Which airline I fly with gives a glimpse of the type of person I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
The airline I fly with when traveling tells something about me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

		agree ongly							gree ongly
I really enjoy a task that involves coming up with solutions to problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I prefer a task that is intellectual, difficult, and important to one that is somewhat important but does not require much thought.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Learning new ways of thinking doesn't excite me very much.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I usually end up deliberating about issues even when they do not affect me personally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
The idea of relying on thought to get my way to the top does not appeal to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
The notion of thinking abstractly is not appealing to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I only think as hard as I have to.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I like tasks that require little thought once I've learned them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I prefer to think about small daily projects to long-term ones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I would rather do something that requires little thought than something that is sure to challenge my thinking abilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I find little satisfaction in deliberating hard and for long hours.		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I don't like to have the responsibility of handling a situation that requires a lot of thinking.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I feel relief rather than satisfaction after completing a task that required a lot of mental effort.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Thinking is not my idea of fun.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I try to anticipate and avoid situations where there is a likely chance I'll have to think in depth about something.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I prefer my life to be filled with puzzles that I must solve.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I prefer complex to simple problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
It's enough for me that something gets the job done; I don't care how or why it works.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
If the group is slowing me down, it is better to leave it and work alone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
To be superior a person must stand alone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Winning is everything.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Only those who depend on themselves get ahead in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
If I want something done right, I've got to do it myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
What happens to me is my own doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I feel winning is important in both work and games.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Success is the most important thing in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

		agree ongly						•	gr ee ongly
It annoys me when other people perform better than I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Doing your best isn't enough: it is important to win.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
In most cases, to cooperate with someone whose ability is lower than oneself is not as desirable as doing the thing on one's own.		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
In the long run the only person you can count on is yourself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
It is foolish to try to preserve resources for future generations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
People should not be expected to do anything for the community unless they are paid.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Even if a child won the Nobel Price the parent should not feel honored in any way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I would not let my parents use my car (if I had one), no matter whether they are good drivers or not.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I would help within my means if a relative told me that s(he) is in financial difficulty.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I like to live close to my friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
The motto "sharing is both blessing and calamity" is still applicable even if one's friend is clumsy, dumb, and causing a lot of trouble.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
When my colleagues tell me personal things about themselves, we are drawn closer together.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I would not share my ideas and newly acquired knowledge with my parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Children should not feel honored even if the father were highly praised and given an award by a government official for his contributions and service to the community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I am not to blame if one of my family members fails.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
My happiness is unrelated to the well-being of many coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
My parents' opinions are not important in my choice of a spouse.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I am not to blame when one of my close friends fails.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
My coworker's opinions are not important in my choice of a spouse.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
When a close friend of mine is successful, it does not really make me look better.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
One need not worry about what the neighbours say about whom one should marry.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	88	9

PART E

The following is a list of values that some people look for or want out of life. Please study the list carefully and then rate each value on how important it is in your daily life where l = very unimportant and 9 = very important.

	Very Unimportant						Very Important			
Sense of belonging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Excitement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Warm relationship with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Self-fulfillment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Being well respected	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Fun and enjoyment of life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Security	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Self-respect	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
A sense of accomplishment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

Please read again the list of values above and indicate here the ONE value that is most important to you:

PART F

In this section, we would like to know the extent to which you use English, French, and other languages in your daily activities. Please give a distribution in percent of time from 0 (never) to 100 (all the time).

	English		French		Other (Specify)	Total
At home with my spouse (if applicable)	%	+	%	+	%	=	100%
At home with my children (if applicable)	%	+	%	+	 %	=	100%
With my relatives	%	+	%	+	 %	=	100%
At work	%	+	%	+	 %	=	100%
With my close friends	%	+	%	+	 %	=	100%
Watching television	%	+	%	+	— _%	=	100%
Listening to radio	%	+	%	+	—- _%	=	100%
Reading newspapers	%	+	%	+	 %	=	100%
Reading magazines /books	%	+	%	+	 %	=	100%
Going to movies or watching videos	%	+	%	+	<u></u> %	=	100%
Shopping	%	+	%	+	%	=	100%
When I went to school	%	+	%	+	<u></u> %	=	100%

Please indicate your degree of agreement or disagreement with the following statements:

	Disagree Strongly						Agr ee Strongly		
I consider myself to be Anglophone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I consider myself to be Francophone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I consider myself to be Allophone*. (please specify) * Other than Anglophone(s) or Francophone(s).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
All my closest friends are Anglophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
All my closest friends are Francophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
My spouse is Anglophone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
My spouse is Francophone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
All my neighbours are Anglophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
All my neighbours are Francophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I am very comfortable dealing with Anglophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I am very comfortable dealing with Francophones.		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I like to go to places where I can be with Anglophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I like to go to places where I can be with Francophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I grew up in mostly Anglophone neighbourhoods.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I grew up in mostly Francophone neighbourhoods.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I often participate in the activities of Anglophone community or political organizations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I often participate in the activities of Francophone community or political organizations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I am strongly attached to all aspects of the French culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	1	2	3	Δ	5	6	7	8	9

1 n (e jollowing questions	deal with demographics.		
1.	Are you:	Male	_F e male	
2.	Are you:	Single Married or living toget Separated or divorced Widowed	ıer	
3.	Please indicate your	age bracket:under 20 years20 to 29 years30 to 39 years		_ 40 to 49 years _ 50 to 59 years _ 60 years and over

4. Ple	ease indicate yo	ur total family gross incom	e bracket:	
		Less than \$ 30,000	\$70,000 to \$8	39,999
		\$30,000 to \$49,999	\$90,000 and	over.
		\$50,000 to \$69,999	<u></u>	
5. Ple	ase indicate the	highest level of education	you attained:	
		elementary school		
		high school		
		community college/CEG	EP/technical school/diplo	ma
		undergraduate university	degree	
		graduate university degre	e	
6. W	nat is your occu	pation?		
7. Wha	at is your emplo	ryment status? (circle one n	umber)	
Work i	full time (30 or	more hours per week)	1	
		han 30 hours per week)	2	
	l, Pensioned	• ,	3	
Studen	t		4	
Unemp	oloyed		5	
	naker only		6	

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

Département de Marketing

Faculté de Commerce et d'Administration

Chère Madame, cher Monsieur,

L'objectif de ma maîtrise ès science de l'administration à l'Université Concordia est d'étudier les opinions des consommateurs canadiens d'horizons variés sur les compagnies aériennes.

Je vous serais reconnaissante de bien vouloir compléter ce questionnaire. Cela devrait prendre approximativement 30 minutes de votre temps. Votre participation est totalement *anonyme et volontaire*. Vous êtes également libre d'interrompre votre participation à tout moment.

Comme cette recherche est nécessaire pour que je complète avec succès mon programme de maîtrise, j'espère sincèrement que vous accepterez de participer à cette étude. Veuillez retourner le questionnaire complété dans l'enveloppe pré-payée ci-jointe dès que possible.

Je vous remercie de votre participation, et vous prie de croire Madame, Monsieur, à l'expression de mes sentiments distingués.

Adélaïde Cezard Étudiante en MSc.A Dr Michel Laroche Directeur de Recherche Tel: (514) 848 2942

QUESTIONNAIRE

Directives

Merci de votre collaboration. Vos réponses à ce questionnaire nous seront extrêmement utiles. Nous avons essayé de rendre ce questionnaire aussi facile que possible à remplir. Vous devrez simplement encercler un code pour indiquer votre réponse, ou bien écrire un chiffre, un mot pour certaines questions. Il est très important que vous répondiez à TOUTES les questions (si applicable). Si à un moment donné, vous ignorez la réponse exacte, faites une estimation au mieux de vos connaissances.

TOUT AU LONG DU QUESTIONNAIRE VEUILLEZ NE PAS CONSIDERER LES VOLS NOLISES (CHARTERS) MAIS SEULEMENT LES VOLS REGULIERS.

PARTIE A

Les questions suivantes concernent votre expérience passée avec des compagnies aériennes (exceptés les vols charters). Veuillez SVP indiquer votre degré d'accord ou de désaccord avec les énoncés suivants (encerclez le chiffre qui correspond le mieux à votre sentiment).

chiffre qui (correspond le	mieux	à votre s	entim	ent).			du t			Entièrement d'accord				
	je fais beauco nt de voyager		fforts po	ur obt	enir un billet	t	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	je passe beau on sur les com					er.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	je dépense be mie aérienne.		o d'argen	t quar	nd je cherche	:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	j'ai été très sa mpagnies aéri		e) de mes	expé	riences passo	ées	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	mes expérien at été exceller		ssées ave	c des	compagnies		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
							Trè	s n ég	ative				T	rès po	sitive
Ma dernièr	e expérience :	avec u	ne compa	gnie a	aérienne a éte	á :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	e la plus inat aérienne (si j'				e avec une		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
	destination co					rendr	iez-v	ous e	n com	ipte d	ans vo	otre cl	hoix?		
Habituellen	ent vous voya	agez pa	ır avion p	our:			Le p	olaisir						Le tra	avail
	•	•	•				1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
A quelle fré chiffre).	quence voyag	gez-voi	ıs avec d	es coi	npagnies aér	rienn	es (ex	cepte	és les	vols	charte	ers) ?	(N'en	cercle	r qu'un
Jamais	1/5ans		1/an		1/6mois		1/m	ois		1/se	emain	ie	1	/jour	
0 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	3	9		10		11	12	

PART B

La partie suivante concerne votre expérience passée avec Air Canada (exceptés les vols charters).

		du to	Entièrement d'accord								
En général, j'ai été très satisfait(e) de mes expériences passées avec Air Canada.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
En général, mes expériences passées avec Air Canada ont été excellentes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
	Trè	s nég	ative				Très positive 7 8 9				
Ma dernière expérience avec Air Canada a été :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
L'expérience la plus inattendue que j'ai vécue avec Air Canada (si j'en ai eue une) a été:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		

Si vous n'avez pas eu de mauvaises expériences lors d'un vol avec Air Canada allez directement à la question (1) de la page suivante. Si vous avez eu une ou plusieurs mauvaises expériences lors d'un vol avec Air Canada, répondez à la question suivante concernant la cause de cette mauvaise expérience (choisissez en une si vous en avez eues plusieurs):

Qu'elle était la nature de cette expérience négative ?_____

C		-									
Est-ce que cette cause était:	Inco	ntrôlable	е раг					Contrôla	shle par		
<u>-</u>		s ou d'ai					vous ou d'autres				
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7				
	1	2	3	4	3	0	/	8	9		
Est-ce que cette cause était:	Tem	poraire						Perma	nente		
-	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
	•	~	5	7	J	O	,	0	9		
Est-ce que cette cause était:	Non	voulue p	oar					Voul	ue par		
	vous	ou d'au	tres				17	ous ou d			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8			
	1	2	3	4	3	0	,	8	9		
Est-ce que cette cause était:	Indé	pendante	de vou	s			Dér	endante	de vous		
-	1 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
	•	-	3	•	,	J	,	0	9		
Est-ce que cette cause était:	Vari	iable dan	s le tem	ps			Stat	ole dans i	le temps		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
Est-ce que cette cause:	Con	cernait d	'autres				7	Vous con	cernait		
1							•	v ous con	CCITIAIL		
	hera	onnes	•		_	_	_	_	_		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
Est-ce que cette cause était:	Char	ngeable						Inchar	ngeable		
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		-		
		2	3	4	3	0	/	8	9		
Est-ce que pour cette cause:	Perso	onne n'ét	tait					Quelqu'	un était		
- -	respo	nsable						-			
	1 1 1		3	4	5		_		onsable		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		
Est-ce que cette cause:	Refl	était un a	aspect				1	Reflétait	un aspect		
<u> </u>		situation					•		us même		
	1	2	3	4	•	_	_				
	1	4	3	4	5	6	7	8	9		

(1) Mon opinion sur Air Canada en tant que companie aérienne est:

Horrible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Excellente
Extrêmement négative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Extrêmement positive
Extrêmement mauvaise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Extrêmement bonne

Les énoncés suivants concernent l'information que vous avez acquise sur Air Canada (exceptés les vols charters). Veuillez SVP indiquer dans quelle mesure cette information était plutôt positive ou négative.

•	Tr	ès Né	gativ	C.	Très Positive					
Toutes les publicités que j'ai vues sur Air Canada (à la télé, à la radio, etc) sont :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Tous les contacts que j'ai eus avec le personnel de vente d'Air Canada sont :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Toutes les publicités que j'ai lues sur Air Canada (dans des magazines, des journaux, des affiches, etc) sont :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Toute l'information que j'ai entendue sur Air Canada de mes ami(e)s est :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Toute l'information que j'ai entendue sur Air Canada de ma famille est :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Toute l'information que j'ai entendue sur Air Canada de mes collègues est :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Toute l'information que j'ai lue sur Air Canada dans des articles de journaux est :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Tous l'information que j'ai lue sur Air Canada dans des articles de magazines spécialisés est :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Toute l'information que j'ai vue sur Air Canada dans des reportages à la télé est :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Mon opinion sur l'aspect des avions d'Air Canada est :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Mon opinion sur le personnel d'Air Canada est :	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Mon opinion sur les comptoirs Air Canada (dans les agences, la aéroports, etc) est :	es 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

PART C

Dans la partie suivante nous voudrions connaître vos attentes envers Air Canada (exceptés les vols charters).

Pour les énoncés suivants, considérez votre niveau de service désiré c'est-à-dire, le niveau de performance que d'après vous, Air Canada peut et devrait offrir.

A' C 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2		s du t sccord						Entièrement d'accord		
Air Canada devrait avoir des équipements très modernes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les employés d'Air Canada devraient être très nets et bien habillés.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	q	

		s du t					Entièrement d'accord			
L'environnement physique et les avions d'Air Canada devraient être très attrayants.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les repas offerts sur les vols d'Air Canada devraient être excellents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Air Canada devrait offrir des sièges amplement larges dans ses avions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Chez Air Canada, les services offerts avant le vol (i.e., manutent des bagages, délivrance des billets) devraient être très efficaces	tion s 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les vols d'Air Canada devraient fournir un très bon rapport qualité-prix.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les horaires des vols d'Air Canada devraient être très adaptés mes besoins.	à 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les vols d'Air Canada ne devraient pas être retardés.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Air Canada ne devrait pas faire d'« over-booking ».	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Si j'ai des problèmes, les employés d'Air Canada devraient être très compréhensifs et rassurants.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les employés d'Air Canada devraient offrir un service très rapide.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je devrais trouver mon vol avec Air Canada très agréable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je devrais pouvoir vraiment compter sur Air Canada.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je devrais pouvoir faire confiance aux employés d'Air Canada.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je devrais pouvoir me sentir très en sécurité avec Air Canada.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les employés d'Air Canada devraient être très polis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les employés d'Air Canada devraient me donner une attention individuelle.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les employés d'Air Canada devraient comprendre mes besoins	.1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Un vol avec Air Canada devrait être très plaisant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

Pour les énoncés suivants, considérez le niveau de service qu'Air Canada, selon vous, va vous offrir lors de votre prochain vol sur leurs lignes.

		du t					Entièrement d'accord			
Air Canada aura des équipements très modernes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les employés d'Air Canada seront très nets et bien habillés.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
L'environnement physique et les avions d'Air Canada seront très attrayants.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les repas offerts sur les vols d'Air Canada seront excellents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Air Canada offrira des sièges amplement larges dans ses avions.	. 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

		du to					Entièremen d'accord			
Sur Air Canada, les services offerts avant le vol (i.e., manutention des bagages, délivrance des billets) seront très efficaces.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les vols d'Air Canada auront un très bon rapport qualité-prix.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les horaires des vols d'Air Canada seront très adaptés à mes besoins.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les vols d'Air Canada ne seront pas retardés.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Air Canada ne fera pas d'« over-booking ».	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Si j'ai des problèmes, les employés d'Air Canada seront très compréhensifs et rassurants.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les employés d'Air Canada offriront un service très rapide.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je trouverai mon vol avec Air Canada très agréable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je pourrai vraiment compter sur Air Canada.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je pourrai faire confiance aux employés d'Air Canada.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Je pourrai me sentir très en sécurité avec Air Canada.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les employés d'Air Canada seront très polis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les employés d'Air Canada me donneront une attention individuelle.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les employés d'Air Canada comprendront mes besoins.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Un vol avec Air Canada sera très plaisant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

PARTIE D

Dans cette partie nous voudrions connaître votre degré d'accord ou de désaccord avec les énoncés suivants concernant certains de vos intérêts et opinions:

	Pas du tout d'accord						Entièrement d'accord			
C'est très important pour moi de voler avec la bonne compagnie	. 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Voler avec une compagnie aérienne me laisse complètement indifférent(e).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
C'est plutôt compliqué de choisir une compagnie aérienne.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Quand je dois choisir une compagnie aérienne, j'ai de la peine à faire le bon choix.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Si après avoir voyagé quelque part, mon choix d'une compagnie aérienne se révèle mauvais, je serais vraiment fâché(e).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Quand je choisis une compagnie aérienne, ce n'est pas grave si je me trompe.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Pour moi, c'est un plaisir de voler avec une compagnie aérienne	. 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

	Pas du tou d'accord						Ēı	ment ord	
Quand je voyage avec une compagnie aérienne, c'est un peu comme m'offrir un cadeau.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Mon choix d'une compagnie aérienne donne une idée de qui je suis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
La compagnie aérienne avec laquelle je voyage révèle quelque chose sur moi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'aime vraiment les tâches qui demandent de trouver des solutions à des problèmes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je préfère une tâche intellectuelle, difficile et importante à une tâche un peu importante mais qui ne demande pas beaucoup de réflexion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Apprendre de nouvelles façons de penser ne m'emballe pas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Habituellement je me retrouve en train de délibérer sur des sujets même quand ils ne m'affectent pas personnellement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
L'idée d'utiliser mon intellect pour avancer ne me dit rien.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
La notion de penser de façon abstraite ne m'attire pas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je ne réfléchis profondément que dans la mesure où je dois le faire.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'aime les tâches qui requièrent peu de réflexion une fois que je les ai apprises.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je présère penser à des petits projets au jour le jour qu'à des projets à long terme.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je présère faire quelque chose qui demande peu de réslexion que quelque chose qui va désier mes capacités intellectuelles.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je retire peu de satisfaction à délibérer intensément et longtemps	.1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je n'aime pas avoir la responsabilité de gérer des situations qui requièrent beaucoup de réflexion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'éprouve du soulagement plutôt que de la satisfaction après avoir fini une tâche qui a requis de gros efforts intellectuels.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Pour moi, penser n'est pas un divertissement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'essaye d'anticiper et d'éviter les situations où je risque de devoir réfléchir profondément sur quelque chose.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je préfère avoir une vie remplie de casse-têtes que je dois résoudre.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je préfère les problèmes complexes aux problèmes simples.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Ça me suffit de savoir que le travail se fait; ça m'est égal de savoir comment ou pourquoi ça marche.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Si le groupe me ralentit dans mon travail, il vaut mieux le quitter et travailler seul.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

		s du 1 accor					E	ntière d'acc	ement cord
Pour être supérieure, une personne doit être seule.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Gagner c'est tout.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Seuls ceux qui comptent sur eux-mêmes vont de l'avant dans la vie.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Si je veux qu'une chose soit bien faite, je dois la faire moi-même.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Ce qui m'arrive dépend de ce que je fais.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je pense qu'il est important de gagner au travail et au jeu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Le succès est la chose la plus importante dans la vie.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Cela m'ennuie quand les autres font mieux que moi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Faire de son mieux n'est pas assez: il est important de gagner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Dans la plupart des cas, coopérer avec quelqu'un dont les capacités sont inférieures aux nôtres est moins bien que de faire la chose soi-même.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
A long terme, la seule personne sur laquelle je peux compter est moi-même.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Il est insensé de vouloir préserver des ressources pour les générations futures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
On ne devrait pas espérer que les gens fassent quelque chose pour la communauté sauf s'ils sont payés.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Même si un enfant gagne le prix Nobel les parents ne devraient pas sentir que cela leur fait honneur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je ne laisserais pas mes parents utiliser ma voiture (si j'en ai une), qu'ils soient bons conducteurs ou non.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'aiderais un proche dans la mesure de mes moyens s'il (elle) me dit qu'il (elle) a des problèmes financiers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	 8	9
J'aime habiter près de mes amis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Le proverbe « partager est à la fois un bienfait et une calamité » reste applicable même si un ami est maladroit, nigaud et source à problèmes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Quand mes collègues me disent des choses personnelles sur eux, nous nous sentons plus proches.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je ne partagerais pas mes idées et mes nouvelles connaissances avec mes parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Les enfants ne devraient pas se sentir honorés même si leur père a reçu beaucoup d'éloges et un prix du gouvernement pour ses contributions et services à la communauté.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je ne suis pas à blâmer si un membre de ma famille échoue.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Man book and a second of the s	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

		Pas du tout d'accord						Entièrement d'accord				
L'opinion de mes parents n'est pas importante dans mon choix d'un(e) époux(se).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9			
Je ne suis pas à blâmer si un de mes amis intimes échoue.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9			
L'opinion de mes collègues n'est pas importante dans mon choi d'un(e) époux(se).	x 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9			
Quand un ami intime a du succès, cela ne se reflète pas vraimen sur moi.	t 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9			
On ne devrait pas se soucier de ce que les voisins disent sur la personne que l'on devrait épouser.	1	2_	3	4	5	6	7	8	9			

PARTIE E

Voici une liste de valeurs que certaines personnes recherchent ou désirent dans la vie. Veuillez lire la liste attentivement et indiquer l'importance que vous accordez à chaque valeur en encerclant un numéro de 1=pas du tout important à 9=très important.

	Pas du tout important					iı	Très mportant			
Le sens de l'appartenance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Les sensations fortes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Des relations chaleureuses avec les autres	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
La réalisation de soi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Etre bien respecté(e) par autrui	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
L'amusement et le plaisir de la vie	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
La sécurité	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Le respect de soi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Le sens de l'accomplissement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

Maintenant relisez la liste ci-dessus et écrivez LA valeur la plus importante pour vous:	
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PARTIE F

Dans cette section, nous aimerions connaître votre degré d'emploi du français et de l'anglais et d'autres langues dans vos activités courantes, en distribuant 100 points de 0% (jamais) à 100% (tout le temps).

		<u>Français</u>		<u>Anglais</u>		<u>Autre</u> (laquelle?	Total
À la maison: avec	mon époux/ épouse (si appl.)	%	+	%	+	<u>%</u>	= 100%
avec	mes enfants (si appl.)	%	+	%	+	%	= 100%
Avec les autres mem	bres de ma famille	%	+	%	+	%	= 100%
Au travail		%	+	%	+	%	= 100%
Avec mes amis intim	es	%	+	%	+	 %	= 100%
À regarder la télévisi	on	%	+	%	+	 %	= 100%
À écouter la radio		%	+	%	+	 %	= 100%
À lire les journaux		%	+	%	+	 %	= 100%
À lire des magazines	/des livres	%	+	 %	+	%	= 100%
À regarder des films	au cinéma ou des vidéos	%	+	%	+	 %	= 100%
À magasiner		%	+	%	+	%	= 100%
Quand j'étais à l'éco	le	<u></u> %	+	%	+	%	= 100%

Veuillez SVP indiquer votre degré d'accord ou de désaccord avec les énoncés suivants :

	Pas du tout d'accord						ièrement 'accord		
Je me considère Anglophone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je me considère Francophone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je me considère Allophone* (svp précicez). * Autre qu'Anglophone ou Francophone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Tous mes amis intimes sont Anglophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Tous mes amis intimes sont Francophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Mon (ma) conjoint(e) est Anglophone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Mon (ma) conjoint(e) est Francophone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Tous mes voisins sont Anglophones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Tous mes voisins sont Francophones.		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je me sens très à l'aise dans mes relations avec des Anglophones.1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Je me sens très à l'aise dans mes relations avec des Francophones 1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'aime aller aux endroits où je peux être avec des Anglophones. 1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'aime aller aux endroits où je peux être avec des Francophones. 1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'ai grandi dans un voisinage principalement Anglophone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
J'ai grandi dans un voisinage principalement Francophone.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

To maniain a account and	ining and a second	ď'a	ccord	l				
Je participe souvent aux act communautaires ou politiqu		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Je participe souvent aux act communautaires ou politique		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Je suis très attaché(e) à tous	les aspects de la culture Française.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Je suis très attaché(e) à tous	les aspects de la culture Anglaise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Données démographiques :								
1. Etes-vous	Homme F	emm	ıe					
2. Etes-vous	Célibataire Marié(e) ou vivant en uni Séparé(e) ou divorcé(e) Veuf (ve)	on lil	ore					
3. Veuillez indiquer votre	catégorie d'âge							
	Moins de 20 ans 20 à 29 ans 30 à 39 ans		-		10 à 49 50 à 59 50 ans		ıs	
4. Veuillez indiquer votre	niveau de revenu <u>familial</u> brut							
	Moins de 30 000\$ \$30 000 à \$49 999 \$50 000 à \$69 999		-			00 à \$8 00 et ₁)
5. Veuillez indiquer votre	plus haut niveau d'éducation:							
éco Dip Uni	le élémentaire le secondaire slôme du CEGEP/école technique/co iversitaire (1er cycle) iversitaire (Maîtrise ou Doctorat)	ollège						
6. Quelle est votre professi	on?							
7. Quel est votre statut au t	ravail? (veuillez n'encercler qu'une	seule	optic	n)				
Travail à temps plein (30 he Travail à temps partiel (moi À la retraite Etudiant(e) Sans emploi Femme/Homme au foyer	ures ou plus par semaine) ns de 30 heures par semaine)	1 2 3 4 5 6						

Pas du tout

Entièrement d'accord

MERCI POUR VOTRE COOPERATION