Exploring the Effect of Web Based Communications on Organizations Service Quality

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Abstract: *The paper aims to study the effect of web based communications on the service quality of organizations. Web based communications is used for a variety of reasons.The quality of a Web-based customer support system involves the information it supplies, the service it provides, andcharacteristics of the system itself; its effectiveness is reflected by the satisfaction of its users. This paper presents the results of astudy of quality and effectiveness in Web-based customer support systems. Data from a survey of 726 Internet users were used to test theoretically expected relationships. The results of this study indicate that information and system quality determine effectiveness while service quality has no impact. Practical implications for managers and designers are offered.The Internet is the latest in a long succession of communication technologies. The goal of this work is to draw lessons from the evolution of all these services. Little attention is paid to technology as such, since that has changed radically many times. Instead, the stress is on the steady growth in volume of communication, the evolution in the type of traffic sent, the qualitative change this growth produces in how people treat communication, and the evolution of pricing. The focus is on the user, and in particular on how quality and price differentiation have been used by service providers to influenceconsumer behavior, and how consumers have reacted.*

I. Introduction

Nowadays, libraries, archives, museums, cultural institutions and temporary exhibitions are moving into the digital era. Cultural heritage digital objects (e.g. Artifacts, manuscripts, books, newspapers, archival papers, sounds, maps, photos, paintings, film material) can be represented using various media types such as video, audio, images, graphics, animation and text (MINERVA Working Group 5, 2003). Such resources comprise both digital substitutes of original objects and born-digital objects existing only in digital format. Cultural institutions take into consideration alternative forms of spreading culture using multimedia systems (Scali et al., 2002). They make their works available in a digitized way, organize them and provide effective access by appropriate technologies. Cultural institutions, museums exhibitions and libraries began to move their collections to the Web and share them with users of other institutions via the Metadata Harvesting Protocol of the Open Archives Initiative (OAI-PMH, 2006; Shreeves et al., 2003) and the OpenURL standard. Therefore, information sources owned by cultural institutions can be retrieved and used by more people using search engines such as Google. According to Tonta (2008) such initiatives as OCLC's Open World Cat Libraries, Google Scholar, Google Book Search and Yahoo! Subscriptions are increasingly transforming libraries into "virtual destinations".

The dissemination of cultural heritage data (e.g. video presentations of archaeological artifacts) requires the use of networking techniques to handle and distribute the cultural heritage multimedia information produced. Networked multimedia applications involve digital video and audio services and impose quality of service (QoS) requirements on the internet (Lu, 2000; Angelopoulos et al., 2009). The International Telecommunication Union (ITU) defines QoS in Recommendation E.800as the "collective effect of service performances that determine the degree of satisfaction by a user of the service" (ITU, 1995). The need to distribute cultural heritage multimedia data requires the research community to consider QoS issues in the internet or in internet protocol (IP)-based networks. The IP is the most used network protocol in telecommunication networks, but it does not represent the best protocol to support all multimedia applications (Lu, 2000). A multimedia communication system providing cultural heritage functionalities enables multimedia data's generation (digitization), storage, and management, distribution, receiving, consuming, editing, and sharing, and so on. Diverse multimedia applications impose different QoSrequirements. For example, continuous media types such as audio and video require hard or soft "bounds" on the end-to-end delay; while discrete media such as text and images do not have any strict delay constraints.

II.   Models Of Communication

Communication is Central to what we teach at the Haven. Our Communication Model is a tool that people can use to be in relationship with one another and to learn about themselves and each other. The Haven's focus on self-responsibility, curiosity, embodiment and relationship is exemplified in this model. Before The Haven itself existed, its founders, Bennet Wong and Jock McKeen, embarked on what they described as a 'relationship project', in which they set out to know one another and themselves as best and as honestly as they possibly could. The communication model they developed out of ideas they encountered at that time became the principal means through which they did this. Thirty years later they describe it as their 'spiritual practice' and continue to experience it as thoroughly practical and deeply meaningful. On one level, The Haven Communication Model is simply a description of what goes on when people try to communicate. The idea we emphasize in our courses is that by understanding this process, we can move through it more consciously, more self-responsibly, and with more awareness of our choices. In so doing we can immeasurably deepen and enrich our relationships.

- *Shannon's Model of the Communication Process*

Shannon's (1948) model of the communication process is, in important ways, the beginning of the modern field. It provided, for the first time, a general model of the communication process that could be treated as the common ground of such diverse disciplines as journalism, rhetoric, linguistics, and speech and hearing sciences. Part of its success is due to its structuralism reduction of communication to a set of basic constituents that not only explain how communication happens, but why communication sometimes fails. Good timing played a role as well. The world was barely thirty years into the age of mass radio, had arguably fought a world war in its wake, and an even more powerful, television, was about to assert itself. It was time to create the field of communication as a unified discipline, and Shannon's model was as good an excuse as any. The model's enduring value is readily evident in introductory textbooks. It remains one of the first things most students learn about communication when they take an introductory communication class. Indeed, it is one of only a handful of theoretical statements about the communication process that can be found in introductory textbooks in both mass communication and interpersonal communication.
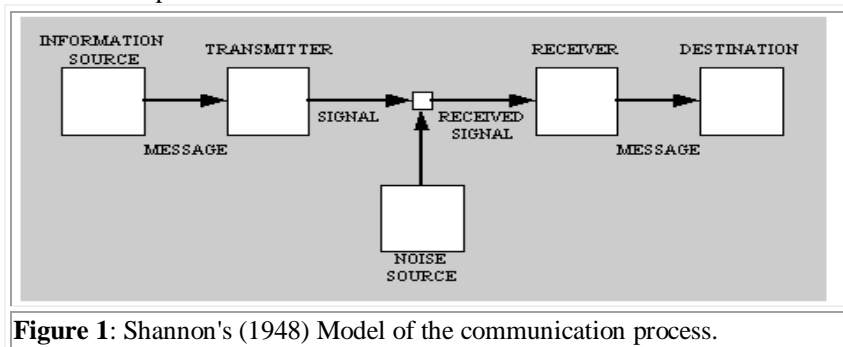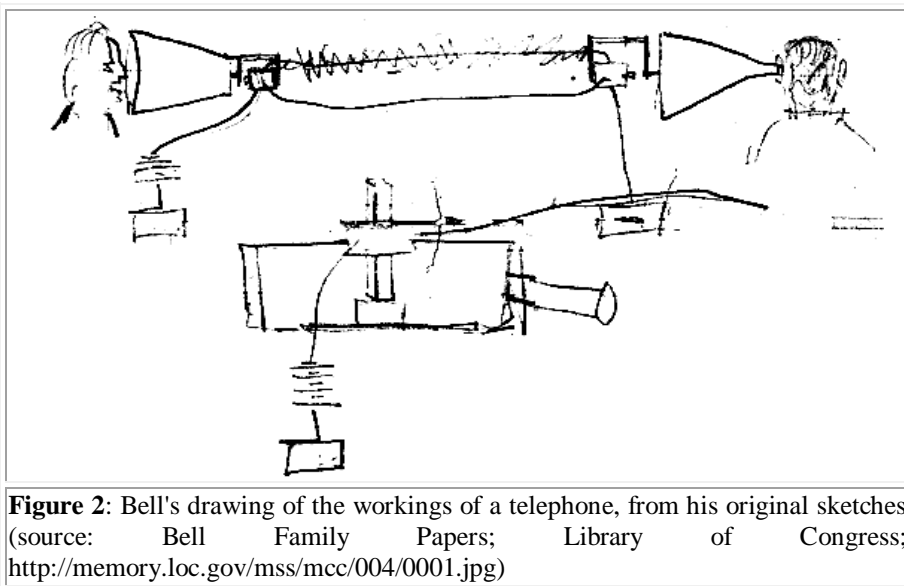

Figure 1: Shannon's (1948) Model of the communication process.

Shannon's model, as shown in Figure 1, breaks the process of communication down into eight discrete components:
1.   An information source. Presumably a person who creates a message.
2.   The message, which is both sent by the information source and received by the destination.
3.   A transmitter. For Shannon's immediate purpose a telephone instrument that captures an audio signal, converts it into an electronic signal, and amplifies it for transmission through the telephone network. Transmission is readily generalized within Shannon's information theory to encompass a wide range of transmitters. The simplest transmission system that associated with face-to-face communication has at least two layers of transmission. The first, the mouth (sound) and body (gesture), create and modulate a signal. The second layer, which might also be described as a channel, is built of the air (sound) and light (gesture) that enable the transmission of those signals from one person to another. A television broadcast would obviously include many more layers, with the addition of cameras and microphones, editing and filtering systems, a national signal distribution network (often satellite), and a local radio wave broadcast antenna.
4.   The signal, which flows through a channel. There may be multiple parallel signals, as is the case in face-to-face interaction where sound and gesture involve different signal systems that depend on different channels and modes of transmission. There may be multiple serial signals, with sound and/or gesture turned into electronic signals, radio waves, or words and pictures in a book.
5.   A carrier or channel, which is represented by the small unlabeled box in the middle of the model. The most commonly used channels include air, light, electricity, radio waves, paper, and postal systems. Note that there may be multiple channels associated with the multiple layers of transmission, as described above.

6. Noise, in the form of secondary signals that obscure or confuse the signal carried. Given Shannon's focus on telephone transmission, carriers, and reception, it should not be surprising that noise is restricted to noise that obscures or obliterates some portion of the signal within the channel. This is a fairly restrictive notion of noise, by current standards, and a somewhat misleading one. Today we have at least some media which are so noise free that compressed signals are constructed with an absolutely minimal amount information and little likelihood of signal loss. In the process, Shannon's solution to noise, redundancy, has been largely replaced by a minimally redundant solution: error detection and correction. Today we use noise more as a metaphor for problems associated with effective listening.

7. A receiver. In Shannon's conception, the receiving telephone instrument. In face to face communication a set of ears (sound) and eyes (gesture). In television, several layers of receiver, including an antenna and a television set.

8. A destination. Presumably a person who consumes and processes the message.

Like all models, this is a minimalist abstraction of the reality it attempts to reproduce. The reality of most communication systems is more complex. Most information sources (and destinations) act as both sources and destinations. Transmitters, receivers, channels, signals, and even messages are often layered both serially and in parallel such that there are multiple signals transmitted and received, even when they are converted into a common signal stream and a common channel. Many other elaborations can be readily described... It remains, however, that Shannon's model is a useful abstraction that identifies the most important components of communication and their general relationship to one another. That value is evident in its similarity to real world pictures of the designs of new communication systems, including Bell's original sketches of the telephone, as seen in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Bell's drawing of the workings of a telephone, from his original sketches (source: Bell Family Papers; Library of Congress; http://memory.loc.gov/mss/mcc/004/0001.jpg)

Bell's sketch visibly contains an information source and destination, transmitters and receivers, a channel, a signal, and an implied message (the information source is talking). What is new, in Shannon's model (aside from the concept of noise, which is only partially reproduced by Bell's batteries), is a formal vocabulary that is now generally used in describing such designs, a vocabulary that sets up both Shannon's mathematical theory of information and a large amount of subsequent communication theory. This correspondence between Bell's sketch and Shannon's model is rarely remarked (see Hopper, 1992 for one instance).

Shannon's model isn't really a model of communication, however. It is, instead, a model of the flow of information through a medium, and an incomplete and biased model that is far more applicable to the system it maps, a telephone or telegraph, than it is to most other media. It suggests, for instance, a "push" model in which sources of information can inflict it on destinations. In the real world of media, destinations are more typically self-selecting "consumers" of information who have the ability to select the messages they are most interested in, turn off messages that don't interest them, focus on one message in preference to other in message rich environments, and can choose to simply not pay attention. Shannon's model depicts transmission from a transmitter to a receiver as the primary activity of a medium. In the real world of media, messages are frequently stored for elongated periods of time and/or modified in some way before they are accessed by the "destination". The model suggests that communication within a medium is frequently direct and unidirectional, but in the real world of media, communication is almost never unidirectional and is often indirect.

III. Current Web Based Communication

Several authors (Smith, 2003; Hamilton, 2004) have pointed out that digitization outcomes may not be sustainable when solely reliant on government grants. One of the answers to this problem has been the development of business models aimed at establishing Return of Investment (ROI) policies or, at least achieving self-sufficiency for maintenance (Geser and Mulrenin, 2002).However, experience has come to show that self-sustainability of digitization projects cannot be attained in most cases. A 2008 report published by Online Computer Library Center (OCLC) Programs and Research offers insights into and results of the Research Libraries Group's Cultural Materials and Trove.net project, which we reinitiated in 1999 and launched in 2002 with the specific goal of studying the possibilities for collaborative large-scale digitization projects to sustain themselves (Erway, 2008). The outcomes of the project were negative due to the lack of interesting content for the corporate world. Big cultural heritage institutions may possess a small number of very attractive and iconic images that can be licensed at competitive rates, but the bulk of historical images are not of sufficient interest to build a viable business plan based on image licensing.

Furthermore, cultural heritage institutions around the world are commonly encouraged to pro-actively search for external funding possibilities, particularly in harsh economic times. In Europe, given that programs of the European Commission offer the most important grants available in this region, middle-sized to large libraries with an international network should consider participating, or at least become aware of the funding criteria and application procedures. Past decade was the decade of dotcom boom and burst. Many authors argued on efficiency of web usage for business purposes (Ahlert et al., 2000; Frost and Strauss, 1998). Numerous advantages of web as distribution channel were stressed out. But, practice showed that web was not so powerful channel as it was claimed to be. After the explosion of dotcoms, the process of sobering-up followed and a large number of pure e-companies were shut-down. On the other hand, in the same period of time traditional companies in different industries discovered that web could be used as an additional communication and distribution channel.

The role and impact of web is defined by positioning of web within overall business strategy of a company. Ahlertet al. (2000) argue that there are five strategic positions of web within business strategy, those are:
(1) Web presence.
(2) Picture intensive web site.
(3) Marketing web site.
(4) Shopping web site; and.
(5) Virtual shopping world.

In the first strategic position, web is used passively and web site includes basic information on company and eventually, the picture of a company. In second and third strategic position, web site is being actively used as a communication and marketing channel of a company. There are various accurate contents on the web site and besides information on the company it includes fresh information on products and services. In those strategic positions, web also can be used for market research purposes. In fourth and fifth strategic position, commercial activities are conducted via web, i.e. web site is used as the commercial channel of the company. In fourth strategic position, e-shop is developed and it includes narrow and shallow assortment, but at fifth position virtual shopping area includes all product and services offered by accompany. In fifth strategic position, web site is personalized and suited to individual customer.

According to Srica et al. (2003), there are two basic reasons of web development:
(1) The presentation of company, products and services to customers and wide audience, and
(2) The revenue generation or sales.
Therefore, we distinguish:
Presentation web sites, and
Commercial web sites.

Presentation web sites are used to inform different types of audiences on company and its product and services. On those sites, information is usually divided into information on company, description on business activity and textual or multimedia information on products offered. Presentation web sites have indirect impact on revenue generation because they increase customer's awareness on company and products. On the other hand, commercial web sites are those at which products are offered to the customer with full information on price, terms and conditions of transaction. On those sites, companies are collecting orders for product and services, and customers pay for ordered products and services.

IV. Growth Of Web Based Communication

Web development is a broad term for the work involved in developing a web site for the Internet (World Wide Web) or an intranet (a private network). This can include web design, web content development, client liaison, client-side/side scripting, web server and network security configuration, and e-commerce development. However, among web professionals, "web development" usually refers to the main non-design

aspects of building web sites: writing markup and coding. Web development can range from developing the simplest static single page of plain text to the most complex web-based internet applications, electronic businesses, or social network services.

For larger organizations and businesses, web development teams can consist of hundreds of people (web developers). Smaller organizations may only require a single permanent or contracting webmaster, or secondary assignment to related job positions such as a graphic designer and/or information systems technician. Web development may be a collaborative effort between departments rather than the domain of a designated department.

V. Evolution Of Web Based Communication

Hardly any empirical studies have analyzed hospital web sites and they are generally focused on the contents, readability, and accessibility of the web sites (Mira et al., 2006; Gruca and Wakefield, 2004; Norum and Moen, 2004; Dı́az and Chain, 2008; Llinas et al., 2008). These studies have not analyzed the factors that influence the implementation of hospital web sites or the evolution of their contents and quality over time. In this section we review the existing literature on hospital web sites.Gruca and Wakefield (2004) analyzed the contents of 111 private hospital web sites in the US. They focused on the web sites of larger academic medical centersand record, for each web site, the presence of around 100 items to control for categories such as general information, web site navigation, contacting the organization, health information, services offered and links to other web sites. Their results show that most of the hospitals have mastered the basics of establishing a web presence, which involves posting and updating an electronic brochure for patients. However, hospital web sites failed in the interactive aspects and in some usability aspects, such as the inclusion of search tools.

Norum and Moen (2004) analyzed the web sites of Norwegian general hospitals. In their study, from a total of 66 hospitals, 54 (82 per cent) had web sites. The study rates web sites in two ways. Rating 1 is based on 16 basic quality criteria for web sites, including general information (general description, address, information on treatments available, leisure facilities, information on waiting times and so on) and usability aspects. Rating 2 looks for information on the aspects that cancer patients ranked as the most important for them. They found that the bigger the hospital the better the website. University hospitals had the best quality web sites, as they are larger and have more resources. The quality of the web sites varied significantly and some had room for significant improvement because they provided misleading or confusing information.

Llinas et al. (2008) analyzed the web sites of 32 Spanish, American and British hospitals taking into account the information provided, content readability and website accessibility. They found a great variability in the scores within each country and no significant differences in the mean score of the three countries. Spanish hospitals performed better in contact aspects (e.g. hospital address, telephone and e-mail) than their Anglo-Saxon counterparts, but worse in media aspects (e.g. news about the hospital in the press or information about job opportunities). American hospitals were the worst rated in general information aspects (welcome message, hospital history, hospital location or how to get to the hospital). However, due to the limited number of web sites analyzed in each country, their results have to be considered with caution.Mukhopadhyay et al. (2008) analyzed the web sites of 20 UK children's hospitals based on ten benchmark questions about, for example, facilities to stay with the patient, how to reach the hospital, whether a nursery school is available in case the parents have other children, other facilities, diseases treated, information about doctors and teachers and dietary regulations. They found that the amount of information related to the benchmark questions varied considerably (from 20 per cent to 95 percent). Most of the web sites provided details of the hospitals' management structure, personal details and photographs of senior officials, and a list of the objectives of the hospital. However, according to these authors, this type of information is unlikely to be of primary importance to patients and their families.

In the EU accessibility of web sites is considered a critical requirement to ensure that the benefits of service delivery are translated into reality for all (EPAN, 2005).Roberts and Copeland (2001) highlight how important it is for health-related web sites to address accessibility and usability criteria, due to the wide spectrum of audiences who may access these web sites. Accessibility and design have been recognizedas important aspects of any health-related web site (Kim and Chang, 2007). The importance of complying with basic quality criteria led the European Union to issue an official document (COM, 2002) developing a core set of quality criteria for health-related web sites. A joint project of the Health Improvement Institute and ConsumerWeb Watch (HII-CWW, 2003) and the Health on the Net Foundation Code of Conduct (HON code, www.hon.ch) also address key aspects of the contents, reliability and credibility of the information on health-related web sites. Some studies have specifically focused on the accessibility and usability of hospital web sites as these are key elements to promote their use. The study conducted by Miraet al. (2006) on the readability and accessibility of Spanish hospital web sites concludes that they need to be more citizen/patient oriented because the web sites visited did not fulfill even half of the readability and accessibility attributes required by widely used standards. This study was limited to a small number of hospitals enrolled in a voluntary quality program

me. Llinas et al. (2008), in their comparison of the readability and accessibility of Spanish, American and British hospital web sites, found that hospital web sites do not usually meet basic readability and accessibility criteria, but Spanish web sites tended to be better in readability aspects than their Anglo-Saxon counterparts. Mancini et al. (2005) found that, despite the legislation enforced in Italy, less than 25 per cent of the healthcare web sites analyzed satisfied the most basic World Wide Web Consortium (W3C) requirements. Nonetheless, the enforcement of accessibility regulations has helped to significantly improve hospital web site accessibility in Italy. The Socialcouncil report (National Board of Health and Welfare, 2002) also indicated that few Swedish healthcare web sites met basic usability and accessibilitycriteria. As can be seen in the above literature review, previous research on hospital websites has revealed important shortfalls in content and usability criteria, which indicates that the full potential of the internet has yet to be realized.

VI.   Effect Of Web Based Communication On Organization's Service Quality

The literature regarding services management and quality in the fitness industry is relatively scanty, but some studies of interest can be identified. In an attempt to define the dimensions of fitness-service attributes, Chelladurai et al. (1987) collected questionnaire data from Canadian fitness-club members. Five dimensions were defined: "professional services", "consumer services", "peripheral services", "facilities and equipment", and "secondary services". Of these, "facilities and equipment" was the most influential dimension, whereas "secondary services" (such as bars and restaurants) had the least influence. In a study of leisure centers in the Grampian region of Scotland, Tawse and Keogh (1998) found that the key quality issues for customers included: "value for money", "health and safety", "service guidelines" (forth education of customers and instructors), "class objectives", and "shorter modules". Papadimitriou and Karteroliotis (2000) used exploratory factor analysis and theQUESC instrument (Kim and Kim, 1995) to examine service-quality expectations of customers in private sports and fitness centers. The study resulted in a four-factor model of: "instructor quality", "facility attraction and operation", "program availability", and "delivery and other services". Afthinos et al. (2005) also used theQUESC instrument to examine whether different groups of fitness-Centremembers have different desires with respect to service delivery. Their survey showed that "cleanliness" was the most important general consideration, and that "professional knowledge", "responsibility", and "courtesy" of employees were the highest-ranked aspects of the core service. In addition, they identified several differences in preferences related to gender and age. Differences related to age were also identified by Westerbeek(2000) in a study of Australian sports spectators. Chang and Chelladurai (2003) used confirmatory factor analysis and a survey of American fitness club members to develop a nine-dimensional scale of fitness-service quality:
(1)   Service climate.
(2)   Management commitment to service quality.
(3)   Programming.
(4)   Personal interaction.
(5)   Task interaction.
(6)   Other clients.
(7)   Service failure.
(8)   Service recovery.
(9)   Perceived service quality.

In a survey of Greek sport participants, Alexandris et al. (2002) found that intrapersonal constraints (factors related to individual psychological states and attributes) were related to the propensity to participate, whereas no such relationship existed for interpersonal constraints (resulting from interpersonal interaction) or for structuralconstraints. It is apparent that there is no consensus in the literature regarding the dimensions or factors that are of greatest importance. This was also observed by Lam and Ocker(2004) in their review of research in the area.

VII.   Web Based Communications And E-Negotiations
7.1 Towards a definition of negotiating

A vast body of principles, approaches and models of negotiating behaviorexists (Li et al., 2007). Broadly, such research can be categorized as "normative", defined as research that provides advice and models for conducting the perfect negotiation (e.g. Fisher and Ury, 1981); or "behavioral" which describes what actually happens during the negotiation process (e.g. Walton and McKersie, 1965).Colloquially speaking, there are said to be two central "goals" of negotiating: "slicing the pie" and "expanding the pie" (Thompson, 2001). These can be linked toWalton and McKersie's (1965) framework of "distributive" (or fixed-sum) versus "integrative" (non-fixed sum) negotiations. Walton and McKersie's (1965) framework is based on the assumed interdependent interests of two negotiating parties (i.e. they both need or want a piece of the pie) and consequently to their definition of negotiation as: ". . . the deliberate interaction of two or more complex social units which are attempting to define or redefine the terms of their interdependence" (p. 3). Optimally, the goal of

negotiation is integrative (i.e. "expand the pie" or even create a new one) which typically requires creativity, brainstorming, developing options, learning, sharing information, and open communications (Metcalf et al., 2007; Thompson, 2001; Kersten,2001; Kozicki, 1993). An example of expanding the pie could be that rather than the typical dichotomy of "hired/not hired" in an employment negotiation, a graduate may suggest a non-paying short-term internship to a company in order to gain experience and exposure to the potential employer. The idea of interdependence [2] is critical as negotiation is only worthwhile when the parties have both common and conflicting interests (Mills, 1990; Kozicki, 1993; Carnevale and Pruitt, 1992). As noted in the Melian dialogue, this notion of negotiating is timeless, "For here again if you debar us from talking about justice and invite us Tobey your interest, we also must explain ours, and try to persuade you, if the two happen to coincide" (see Appendix 1).

This mixed-motive reality of negotiation differentiates it from other broader tasks such as decision making and problem solving (Thompson et al., 1996).This interdependence in negotiations is often linked to the availability of resources. For example, Thompson (2001, p. 2) defined negotiations as "an interpersonal decision-making process by which two or more people agree how to allocate resources. "However, this article takes a broader view and includes underlying interests, rights, and responsibilities, as well as courses of action in understanding negotiation, while also acknowledging that negotiation need not be interpersonal but can be inter-state orinter-organizational (Walton and McKersie, 1965; Kozicki, 1993; Fisher and Ury, 1981).This article draws heavily on the "issue (or interests) based approach" to negotiation. Such an approach conceptualizes negotiation as an integrative process and has its foundation in Fisher and Ury's, 1981) distinction between "positions" and "issues". The distinction is explained by Fisher and Ury's (1981, p. 41) observation that: "Your position is something you have decided on. Your interests are what caused you to so decide". Thus, for the purposes of this paper we define negotiating as "a process by which two or more interdependent parties who do not have identical preferences across decision alternatives making joint decisions" (Bazerman and Carroll, 1987, p. 1). This integrative definition is descriptive, and allows the exploration of the inherent uncertainty of the negotiating process and multiple potential outcomes.

7.2 Role of negotiations in commerce
In neoclassical economics, negotiations are said to exist in an environment of perfect competition (Marshall, 1890; Varian, 1984). Such an environment consists of a large number of rational small firms with perfect information and no transactions costs, all selling homogeneous goods to a large number of consumers. Further, externalities (e.g. Government intervention and differential initial resource endowments) are not considered. In such contexts the discipline of the market effectively reduces the strategic aspect of economic interaction, including negotiation, to negligible proportions (Roth, 1985). Thus, perfect competition implies ". . . no presumption of psychological competition, emulation or rivalry, and . . . bargaining is also excluded" (Knight, 1946, p. 102).

7.3 The role of power in negotiating
Fisher (1983) critiqued early normative approaches to negotiation by discounting the fact that negotiating results are likely to be determined in the context of asymmetric power. A definition of power that is commonly used in the negotiation literature (Fisher, 1983; Christen, 2004) is the ability to influence others. One approach to managing negotiating power is Best Alternative to a Negotiated Agreement (BATNA) which posits that, relatively speaking, the power of negotiating parties hinges on the attractiveness of the alternative to negotiating an agreement (Fisher and Ury, 1981; Thompson, 2001).However, research empirically analyzing relative power by varying the BATNAamong negotiators (Neale and North craft, 1991; Pinkley, 1990; Wolfe and McGinn, 2005) has produced inconsistent results. Recent research has therefore extended the concept of negotiating power to the notion of perceived contribution such as proprietary information, status, social networks, and appearance (Li et al., 2007; Thompson, 2001; Kim and Fragale, 2005). For example, Kim and Fragale's (2005)research suggests a two-stage model, whereby BATNAs form a "baseline" concerning the benefits a negotiator can obtain, and contribution determines the allocation of the remaining benefits. Further, the complexity brought by strategic competition potentially makes these aspects of power (e.g. size and relationships) more important as BATNA's become less stable and harder to determine.

7.4 Negotiating in teams
Team negotiation is a critical aspect of business negotiating as dialogue, decision-making, and action most often occurs between organizations and teams. Many researchers have recognized that firms often lack internal consensus concerning negotiation objectives (Walton and McKersie, 1965). However, most research on negotiation has been focused on dyadic (one-on-one) negotiation versus the business context of actual observed team-based negotiations (O'Connor, 1997; Brodtand Thompson, 2001). Factors that have placed teams at the Centre of business negotiations include the expanding role of teams and work groups in organizations, increased

business relations with people from different cultures, and increased complexity. This means negotiations commonly involve multiple stakeholders, relationships, and cultures– and are typically beyond the scope of an individual's capacity, demanding instead the expanded knowledge of a negotiation team (Brodt and Thompson, 2001).Consequently, it is important for would-be negotiators (such as our student sample) to have a concept of negotiating in teams (O'Connor, 1997). Such a team is defined as a group of two or more people who form a single negotiation party for their related common interests and objectives (Thompson et al., 1996; Brodt and Thompson, 2001). Intra-group processes (Brodt and Thompson, 2001) associated with team negotiation are said to add the dimensions of role differentiation, intra-group conflict and intra-group relationships –all of which have to be navigated by those within the negotiating party. Whilenegotiating teams may not always be optimal, Thompson et al. (1996) found that using a negotiating team increases the probability of reaching integrative agreements because teams exchange more information and more accurately assess the other party's interests. Moving beyond the negotiation literature and into pedagogical research, teamwork exercises have been found to enhance students'' learning about real-world problems (Millis and Cottell, 1998).

Indeed, a pedagogy – such as team work – that engages students in actively learning new material, skills and knowledge is fast overtaking the traditional transmission-focused model of lecturing that dominated university teaching in the last century (Barr and Tagg, 1995; Tagg, 2003). Decades of research into active learning has shown that effective university teaching is focused on the following kinds of overarching principles: learning by doing (Dewey, 1938); making learning possible, rather than simply transmitting information or managing student activity (Ramsden,2003); what the student does, not what the teacher does (Biggs and Tang, 2007); active cycles of conceptualization, experimentation, experience and reflection (Kolb, 1984);activities and assessment that encourage students to move beyond factual recall to synthesis, evaluation, and creation of new knowledge (Anderson et al., 2001) and active learning (Prince, 2004).

VIII.   Findings

Achieving high quality of customer service has become increasingly critical in the service industry and been the focus of the study bythe practitioners. Managers are under tremendously increased pressure to enhance service quality by every means so that not only existing customers remain loyal but also new customers will become existing ones. From a practical perspective, how to suitably measure the service performance is important for afirm because it is the foundation to determine whether the desired target has been met. In this paper, we propose an index for measuring service performance. The index is straightforward to compute, and gives an insight into the practical interpretation of the performance. Based on the proposed index, we also develop a step-by-step procedure to deal with the hypothesis-testing problem. Several limitations should be mentioned in this paper, however. First, the index is simply based on the number of customers with complaints in ratio to the total number of customers encountered. The underlying assumption is that every dissatisfied customer will register a complaint. This may not be an accurate assumption given that many people do not always voice their displeasures with service, but merely choose not to return to the business for further service. Further, as we pointed out in Section 2, more efforts are required to develop a model that takes measuring the severity of the complaint into account. To do so, one way is to consider adding information when customers register complaints. For example, a complaint may be minor complaint, registered by one individual compared to several individuals complaining about a major service problem. From a manager's perspective, it is more important to know the seriousness and repetitiveness of the complaints rather than the mere number of complaints registered compared to the total number of customers.

IX.   Conclusion

An attempt is made in this paper to review various service quality models. Conventional personalized services to the internet-enabled services including the organizational and behavioral aspects. These models provide a useful framework for quality of service.

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