EXAMINATION OF DEEP ACTING IN RETAIL DISABILITY SERVICE TRAINING

by

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B.Comm. Ryerson University, Toronto, Ontario, 2017

A thesis

presented to Ryerson University

in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree of

Master of Science in Management (MScM)

in the Program of

Master of Science in Management

Toronto, Ontario, Canada, 2017

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Author's Declaration

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Abstract

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Ryerson University

2017

The quality of retail service delivered to disabled customers is affected by employees' behaviour and attitudes. These behaviours are related to employees' ability to manage their emotional reactions (referred to as emotional labour) to disabled customers' varied and personalized needs. Although retailers provide disability training, employees utilize varied levels of emotional labour skills (referred to as deep acting) in interactions with disabled customers. Studies call on employers to improve disability training for employees, so that they can manage their emotional labour and disabled customers can receive higher quality service. This study addresses the question of whether training activities influence retail employees' deep acting skills at various levels when providing services to disabled customers. By adapting Brotheridge & Lee's (2003) Emotional Labor Scale and Saks and Belcourt's (2006) Training Activities Scale, 150 participants filled a questionnaire and were grouped into three categorical levels based on their deep acting skills prior to training. The results show a positive influence exists between activities during and after training and deep acting skill levels. This study calls on retail organizations to identify employees with positive refocus and basic levels of deep acting and invest more in during and after training stages to facilitate the transfer of deep acting skills.

Acknowledgements

“In the name of God, the Most Gracious, the Most Merciful”

First and foremost, I am forever grateful for my family and friends, Hasnain, Tazeen, Labina, Wahiba, Raihan, Kianoush and Jamil for their support, encouragement, and helping me succeed when times felt bleak and making me the person that I am today.

I am indebted to my supervisor, Dr. Frances Gunn, for her incredible patience, guidance, and support through my graduate studies. I would like to acknowledge Dr. Hong Yu for her generosity, immense measure of support, recognizing the potential in me as a fourth year undergrad and pushing me to do my masters. I am also forever grateful for Dr. S.H. Mark Lee for those 9 am meetings on Fridays, the countless times I dropped in unannounced and for telling me like it is.

I would like to thank the professors, mentors, staff and colleagues at Ryerson University who provided me with direction, supported me, instilled confidence in my work, took a gamble on me and also saved me from unemployment for the past two years, Dr. Deborah Fels, Dr. Norman Shaw, Dr. Dale Carl, Dr. Omid Jadidi,, Dr. Franklin Ramsoomair, Dr. Daniel Guttentag, Dr. Hossein Zolfagharinia, Professor Janice Rudkowski and Dr. Jia Xie. I would like to thank Gloria Fernandes and Maria Anjari for providing support and being patient with me as I bombarded them with numerous questions. I would like to also thank Dr. Ken Wong for opening an email with the subject line HELP!! and agreeing to be my reference for the MScM program.

Finally I would like to thank my peers in the MScM/MBA program and faculty, the Retail Management faculty at Ted Rogers School of Management, Saqib, Ray and Steve for sticking in my corner, asking the hard questions and helping me improve as an individual.

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1.0 Introduction

Disabled persons constitute a significant consumer segment, however a majority of disabled consumers have experienced barriers when shopping in brick and mortar retail settings (Kaufman-Scarborough & Lindquist, 2002; Kim & Lehto, 2012). Poor attitudes and disaffected behaviours displayed by retail employees result in disabled customers having poor perceptions about the quality of the service they experience (Goderich & Ramsey, 2012). These attitudes can lead to disenfranchised customers, decreased sales, and legal actions against retailers (Jones & Schmidt, 2004). Interactions between employees and disabled customers affect the perceptions of quality of service while shopping (Baker, Holland, & Kaufman-Scarborough, 2007). It is therefore important to understand how organizational activities, like training, affect retail employees' attitudes and behaviours when dealing with disabled consumers.

Researchers have examined the interactions between disabled clients and service providers (Kim & Lehto, 2012; Baker et al., 2007), and have focused on the retail experience of disabled consumers, resulting in very little research conducted on the experiences of employees. Furthermore, knowledge about the employee experience in servicing disabled customers and the organizational processes that affect employees' service behaviours is not very known (Bitner, 1992; Jayawardhena & Farrell, 2015).

Studies have found employees who serve customers with disabilities are reluctant to help. Yu, Tulio-Pow, and Akhtar (2015) believe this is due to employees being inadequately trained. Most studies have called on organizations to improve the perception of service held by disabled consumers through updated training for employees, but have not researched the training process thoroughly (Baker et al., 2007). The result according to Baker, Stephens, and Hill (2002) is that disabled consumers face being over or under-served by retail employees, a condition also noted

by Yu et al. (2015) in their study. It is, therefore, important to examine the role that training has in forming positive service attitudes and behaviours.

When employees need to portray positive service attitudes, they often need to draw upon true inner feelings to match the emotion required in a situation, a process known as deep acting (Gross, 1998). Notably, customers have reactions that are more positive when employees use these deep level acting skills (Grandey, 2003). Hulsheger and Schewe (2011) found deep level acting is positively related to customer satisfaction, while surface level acting (i.e. behaviour that does not reflect true inner feelings) relates to poor customer satisfaction. Despite research showing that employees' ability to utilize deep acting skills is an important concern for retail managers (Tang, Seal, Naumann & Miguel, 2013), there is little literature available about how deep acting skills are developed in the training process and transferred to retail employees. Research on the transmission of training has focused on an individual level for specific training programs (Saks & Belcourt, 2006). Although research about disability training was trialed in the public service, medical, and hospitality sector, there have been no studies directed at the retail industry. Therefore, the question this study aims to answer is:

Does a positive influence exist between pre, during and post- disability training activities and retail employees' levels of deep acting skills?

This study is divided into five sections. The first section presents an introduction to the research and outlines the questions this study aims to answer. The second section provides an overview of the literature on the transfer of training and emotional labour to outline the research framework in use. The third section discusses the methodology addressing the sample and data collection, the measures involved, and the statistical analysis used. The fourth section outlines the results from the data collected. The fifth section concludes with a discussion of the findings

from this study, theoretical and practical implications, and a discussion on the limitations of and potential future research related to this study.

2.0 Literature Review

This section includes a literature review and discussions on the existing constructs and concepts to form the framework of this study to examine deep acting in disability service training. The literature presented aims to show that positive influences exist between the constructs to answer the research questions presented. This section is broken down into three parts: disability legislation in Canada and disability training, emotional labour, and training.

2.1 Disability Legislation in Canada

Disability training is vital in the retail landscape of Canada due to imminent changes in regulations. Canada has no disability legislation at a national level, leaving the development of disability awareness and related programs to the provinces to enact. Provinces in Canada are now beginning to shape disability and accessibility legislations. The definition of disability in Canada is interpreted in the broadest terms. There is no complete list of disabilities defined in Canada by the legal system. As a result, courts attempt to take into account the socio-political factors for individuals in order to accommodate people whose disabilities are not evident or recognizable for others (Moran, 2014).

Ontario was the first province to enact disability legislation in 2001 with the Ontarians with Disabilities Act. However, the scope of the legislation only included the provincial government. In 2005, Ontario passed the Accessibility for Ontarians with Disabilities Act, 2005 (AODA) to improve accessibility standards in public establishments in Ontario for those with disabilities by 2025.

As part of the AODA, the Customer Service Standard was enacted in 2008 so disabled individuals can obtain, use, and benefit from goods and services (Moran, 2014). The Customer Service Standard maintains that businesses must allow access and support people in a publically accessible area, and provide accessible customer service. With the current regulations in place in Ontario, it is mandatory for retailers to provide training for employees in serving disabled customers. Key points retailers need to include in their training are:

- How to interact and communicate with people with various disabilities
- How to interact with individuals with disabilities who use a device for assistance or require a support person
- What to do if a person with a disability is having difficulties accessing goods or services
- Training must be provided to employees immediately after assigned a role
- Training must be provided on an ongoing basis to keep in line with policies, regulations, and practices

In 2013, the province of Manitoba introduced the Accessibility for All Manitobans Act that came into effect in November 2015. As part of the legislation, the Accessibility Advisory Council is responsible for developing standards that would become regulations under the act. The first key area of focus for the council is accessible customer service and addressing practices and training that is needed to provide better service to people with disabilities (Manitoba, n.d).

The province of British Columbia launched Accessibility 2024, a ten-year road map to reduce barriers and make the province accessible for persons with disabilities. The roadmap focuses around 12 blocks or themes containing goals and commitments. One of the blocks is

consumer experience where the province hopes to provide a welcoming environment for persons with disabilities to access goods or services (British Columbia, 2016).

The government of Nova Scotia appointed a 22-person committee in 2013 to develop a report on accessibility legislation for the province. Drawing on experience from the AODA, the report called for laws to ensure persons with disabilities can participate in society fully. Following the report, the province created a team to draft the legislative process and create timelines to ensure progress is on schedule (Nova Scotia, n.d.).

Given that multiple provinces require or are developing requirements for disability service training, and previous research has focused on disability training, this study examines the impact training activities can have in aiding the transfer of deep acting skills.

2.1.1 Disability Training

There are numerous studies involving the training of retail employees, however there is little to no literature on providing employees disability training. Retailers in Ontario and other provinces in Canada must provide training to their employees in serving persons with disabilities (Ontario, 2005). Jones and Schmidt (2004) researched the implications of the UK's Disability Discrimination Act that was passed in 1995. The authors believed training is necessary to shape employees' attitudes and behaviours, and disability equality training must be a priority for retailers.

Charles (2005) examined disability training for front line staff, which aimed to raise awareness and practical advice about providing the best possible service. The training involved staff trying to create positive first impressions for disabled users so that they would feel comfortable in returning. The author suggests implementing practical activities during training

utilizing visual aids such as posters or videos and incorporating lessons plans and worksheets. Suggestions about practical activities (Charles, 2005) are similar to activities suggested by Burke and Hutchins (2008) that aid in the transfer of training.

This current study aims to examine the effects different stages and activities involved in disability training have on employees' emotional reactions to disabled customers. Disability training should therefore focus on retail workers' emotional reactions through training design and activities that address the attitudes and beliefs related to these reactions, including workers' prejudices, biases, and stereotyping inclinations (King, Dawson, Kravitz & Gulick, 2010).

Chubon (1992) found that attitudes towards disabled individuals in the medical sector are grouped into four units: behavioural, information integration, consistency, and function. Behavioural attitudes stem from how an employee responds to situations due to the environment they encounter. Information integrations relate to how employees' attitudes reflect the knowledge they possess about a topic or idea. Consistency involves the need for employees to maintain consistency in their interactions with disabled and non-disabled customers through their attitudes and behaviours. Function refers to how employees' knowledge frames their attitudes with their interactions with disabled customers that will consequently allow them to identify and build consensus with these customers.

Researchers have examined disability training for employees in the service sector, including in medical settings like care homes, and found that staff are trained to deal with certain disabilities. The training focuses on how to adopt values such as the principle of normalization which aims to make conditions and activities of everyday life available to persons with disabilities as close as possible to normal circumstances (Wolfensberger, 1972). Organizations that adopt such values do so in order to exert influence on employees' attitudes and values and

improve the quality of service provided by the organization (Emerson, McGill & Mansell, 1994). Henry et al. (2004) argue that the idea of inclusion for persons with disabilities begins with the changing of employees' attitudes and beliefs. These attitudes and beliefs held by employees fall under emotional labour.

2.2 Emotional Labour

When employees are required to display emotions when serving customers, the process is called emotional labour (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Emotional labour involves adapting one's emotional expressions to align with an organization's norms about showing expression, which is referred to as the organization's display rules (Grandey, 2000). Emotions displayed by employees can affect customers and can have a positive impact on them (Pugh, 2001). The topic of emotions shown by employees is widely studied in the emotional labour literature (Mattila and Enz, 2002; Tan et al, 2004). For this study, emotional labour will be viewed through an organizational behaviour lens (Grandey, Diefendorff & Rupp, 2013).

When serving consumers that are disabled, employees may employ deep or surface level acting depending on their comfort and skill level. Deep acting involves summoning true inner feelings to match the required emotion needed in a situation (Gross, 1998). Surface acting refers to managing attitudes or feelings that are already developed and requires no adjustment of one's true feeling; it is as if an employee is wearing a mask (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011). A welcoming attitude and behaviour displayed by employees towards consumers stems from deep acting and improves the customer shopping experience (Hulsheger & Schewe, 2011). Employees who engage in surface acting suppress negative emotions or attitudes to stimulate positive emotions. Such suppression of negative reactions leads employees to feel inauthentic and bring out negative attitudes, thus decreasing the shopping experience of customers (Brotheridge & Lee,

2002). Surface acting may also lead customers to setting expectations for service that cannot be met by the employees (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). It is therefore important for retail organizations to train employees in deep acting strategies to connect with customers.

2.2.1 Emotional Labour Training

Baker et al. (2007) recommend behavioural training for employees to diffuse unwelcoming interactions. Behavioural training is vital to adjust attitudes and perceptions of retail employees towards disabled consumers. Tan, Foo, and Kwek (2004) believe employees should have their roles defined during training, and be trained in different scripts to match their behaviours to the different type of customers that will be exposed to employees. In this case, employees will be interacting with clients with a variety of disabilities and will need to adjust as disabled consumers want customized service that fills their needs without being overbearing, and they attribute the quality of service with appropriate training (Baker et al., 2007).

However, retailers provide training that is generic where the central message to employees is to be helpful to all customers and provide training in product knowledge, organizational policies, and sales tactics (Tang et al., 2013). This training results in zero transfer of any new skills in servicing consumers with disabilities and falls short of meeting their needs. This short fall is the failure of transfer in organizations and affects the performance of retailers (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). To address this issue Tang et al. (2013) argue managers need to assess employees on their emotional labour inclinations to bring out positive outcomes for retailers. Managers can then begin to shape employee attitudes and behaviours to suit the diverse needs of disabled customers.

2.2.2 Attitudes and Behaviours

One of the main challenges faced by customers with disabilities is navigating the myriad of attitudes and behaviours they face with retail employees. Attitudes can be broken down into two levels, personal and societal. Personal attitudes are the beliefs an individual holds on a topic, whereas societal attitudes are beliefs held and influenced by the government, cultural norms, and prior history (Daruwalla & Darcy, 2005). Retail employees may bring in preconceived notions that may stem from personal or societal attitudes. Daruwalla and Darcy (2005) found attitudes and perceptions held by people towards those with disabilities can be changed or influenced by training, however, personal interaction between both parties was more effective in bringing change in attitudes. This study is important to keep in mind, as training is only effective if retail employees learn new skills during the training process and apply what they have learned on the job through interacting with disabled consumers. Employee's attitudes towards customers fall under the affective learning domain where their strength of attitude towards a customer or their attitude displayed in a situation is indicated by the frequency they demonstrate the attitude in a given circumstance (Gagne, Briggs & Wager, 1988).

Attitudes and behaviour affect how disabled consumers in a retail environment are to be viewed. Baker et al., (2007) found the primary factor influencing how disabled consumers experience a positive experience in retail stores is how employees perceive them. Once an employee has discovered that a customer has a disability, their attitude and behaviour towards the client can change leading to either a welcoming (positive) or unwelcoming (negative) experience. Kaufman-Scarborough (2001) found disabled consumers face a psychological barrier when they face stereotyping and negative emotions by employees. This results in customers having an unsatisfactory shopping experience and decreases the quality of service.

2.2.3 Service Quality

Brotheridge and Grandey (2002) maintain that a high degree of emotional labour and control is fundamental to service work and is required to maintain positive rapport with customers. Service quality is the judgment of customers who have compared their expectations with the service they perceive to have received (Gronroos, 1984, p. 38). Employees at retail stores are customer service providers and their interactions with customers are mostly scripted and provide rare opportunities for personal expression (Grandey, Dickter & Sin, 2004). Employees are expected to be warm and friendly with customers (Putnam and Mumby, 1993) and are required to be calm and polite when faced with abuse by clients (Glomb and Tews, 2004). If employees can manage their emotional states, it promotes customer spending and repeat business (Tsai & Huang, 2002).

Acceptable emotions and desires depend upon societal, occupational, and organizational norms, and these norms guide employees on what emotions to display during a service interaction (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989). As employees are the front line faces customers see and interact with, they are perceived to represent and embody the ideals of the retail company, thus an employees' emotions can affect customers' perceptions of the quality of service (Berry, 1995). During encounters with employees, customers can discern positive or negative emotions (Taylor, 1998) and reflect those attitudes and behaviours as traits the company and employee stand for (Seymour and Sandiford, 2005). These encounters will further affect customers' perceptions of the quality of service (Bowen, Siehl & Schneider, 1989). Chu, Baker and Murrman (2011) termed the perception of quality between what is felt and what is displayed as emotional dissonance, and this dissonance is recognized and absorbed by customers (Pugh, 2001).

If customers feel employees make an effort to understand their needs, they will form their opinions and cues based on this experience and rate the customer service interaction positively (Berry, Wall and Carbone, 2006). This perception on the quality of service leads to employee affective delivery. Employee affective delivery is when an employee is servicing a customer and expresses emotions that are acceptable and desired (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993).

Customers' perceptions of good service include employees who are responsive, courteous, accessible, and understand their needs (Zeithaml, Parasuraman & Barry, 1990). These traits are universal and applicable to all consumers, disabled or non-disabled. Research into employee affective delivery by Pugh (2001) has shown that when employees express positive or negative emotions, customers consider these emotions when evaluating the quality of service received. A study by Tsai and Huang (2002) showed similar results and found employees were able to indirectly influence and grow a relationship with customers who perceived employees to have a 'positive' mood and friendly attitude.

Customer service is a shared experience by the employee and customer, which is reciprocal in nature. However, the majority of the literature on customer service focuses on the consumer end (Chung-Herrera, Goldschmidt & Hoffman, 2004). The work by Tan et al. (2004) switches the focus onto employees and finds that customers' attitudes and behaviour impact employees. Customers who are more agreeable by nature experience positive emotions by employees, and clients who are considered to have a dominant negative trait, experience fewer positive emotions (Tan et al., 2004). Another study that focuses on employees' services to customers is by Liao and Chuang (2004) who examined how individual and environmental factors influence an employees' service to clients and the related outcomes from the interaction. The authors found from an individual level, conscientiousness and extraversion are significant

factors in service performance by employees. Service climate and employee involvement are considered environmental factors in the study.

2.2.4 Burnout

This study examines how training activities affect the development of deep acting skills within emotional labour, it is crucial to consider employees' reactions to situations requiring emotional labour. It is difficult for an employee to assess a situation and suppress or redirect negative feelings without alerting a customer (Berry et al, 2006). Research has shown that employee job satisfaction is higher for those who employ emotional labour strategies on a regular basis than for those who suppress their feelings (Lui et al, 2010). The constant deployment of surface acting can lead to burnout, and the resulting job dissatisfaction can be a cause of chronic stress (Brotheridge & Lee, 1998; Grandey, 2000; Lewig & Dollard, 2003). When serving disabled customers, retail employees undergo concentrated, customized interpersonal contacts that increase this stress (Yagil, 2006).

When faced with disabled customers, employees may feel that servicing those customers involves additional workload and ambiguous service expectations (Kaufman-Scarborough, 2001). These feelings may further burnout employees (Witt, Andrews & Carlson, 2004) which can be manifested in three dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment (Maslach & Jackson, 1981). Hulshegar and Schewe (2011) found that surface acting increases emotional exhaustion while employees depersonalizing services to customers. Maslach, Jackson and Leiter (1996) describe how this depersonalization results in employees offering detached services to clients, an aspect that goes against what disabled customers want as they search for service that is customized to their needs (Baker et al., 2007; Maslach, Jackson & Leiter, 1996).

Other than depersonalizing services, burnt-out workers can also create unpleasant service encounters for customers. Employees begin to develop negative attitudes, decrease concern, reduce commitment, and lose sympathy and respect for their customers (Hock, 1988; Schaufeli, Wilmar & Maslach, 2009).

Burnout has a significant impact on employees that can lead to emotional exhaustion, a decrease in motivation, and an increase in stress levels (Yagil, 2006). Carrasco et al. (2011) aimed to see how an employee's perception of practices, procedures, and behaviours regarding customer service impacted well-being at work, and how this influenced positive behaviour towards consumers. The authors looked towards service climate and emotional labour to understand the impact upon employees. The authors were able to create a model that showed how well-being at work, measured as burnout and engagement, facilitated service climate and positive emotions towards consumers on an individual level and on a team level, with engagement being a primary indicator in the process.

This service climate is also linked to employees' perceptions of the organizational culture and the related significance of training. For employees to engage with customers, they need to understand the roles they play to enhance the customer service interaction and the importance of developing the deep acting skills which affect these interactions so they will not burn out.

2.2.5 Behavioural Scripts and Roles

There are similarities and differences in how customers and employees perceive service interactions, given that both parties share the same expectations in roles (Bitner, Booms & Mohr, 1994). Role theory is based on how an individual's behaviours are governed by a defined job (Solomon et al., 1985). In this case, the employee is to sell a product or service, where the customer, disabled or abled, buys the product or service. However, differences in the role may

occur when an employee is unfamiliar with the required attitudes or behaviours when serving a disabled customer (Chung-Herrera et al., 2004).

Script theory refers to how behaviour is governed by patterns, and the more often an action or experience is repeated, the more likely the action will become second nature. If a difference exists in the client service experience, it may be due to a difference in how the script is defined (Mohr & Bitner, 1991). In the case of an employee servicing a disabled customer, errors may occur because there is no clear script regarding the interaction with a disabled client, given that it may be a new experience, especially without training (Schank, Roger & Abelson, 1977; Chung-Herrera et al., 2004).

Similarities and differences in how customers and employees perceive service interactions can also occur with their attribution of the successes or failures of the interactions. Attribution theory revolves around how individuals attach meaning to the behaviours of others in an outcome of an event. For employees, attribution may place an internal source of responsibility where it may be within the employee's control. The internal source of responsibility may include effort or degree of patience whereas an external source is outside the employee's control (i.e. lack of training, difficulty in task or customer behaviour) (Chung-Herrera et al., 2004). The study by Chung-Herrera et al. (2004) examined the level of service from the view of both employees and consumers regarding role, script and attribution theory. The research found that staff and customers' perceptions of low service depended on the outcome of the interaction and on how the employee conducted themselves.

In the case of a poor service interaction between an employee and a disabled customer, the customer will blame the retail company for inadequate training or blame the employee for a lack of empathy, whereas employees will blame the customer for requiring more time and effort

to service (Kaufman-Scarborough, 2001). The employee may also place responsibility for the poor service interaction on sources outside their control such as a lack of training (Chung-Herrera, Goldschmidt & Hoffman, 2004). The difference between a positive or negative shopping experience is the amount and quality of training employees have received (Sussman, 2006). To limit these situations Wong and Sohal (2006) recommend training activities such as commitment building activities, employee exercises to improve service delivery standards, and training employees to solve customer problems on their own.

2.3 Training

For new employees in an organization, their training can begin through organizational socialization, where people adapt to new roles by learning the ways of the company's culture (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Gardner, 1994; Rice, 1995). Organizational socialization ensures employees learn the correct way of responding to situations and how to perform tasks effectively, as new employees need information that will enable them to do their job and understand the behaviours of the people they will encounter (Comer, 1989). Organizational socialization may be formalized through training sessions, orientation, meetings, or through observation of supervisors. Through formal socialization, employees are informed about how to display behaviours and behaviours expected of them (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989).

Organizations are concerned with the effectiveness of training according to its effects on employee behaviour, customer satisfaction and return on investment (Russell, Terborg, & Powers, 1985). The majority of research on the effectiveness of training programs has been conducted at an individual level given that training is intended to improve individual behaviours and performance (Russell et al., 1985; Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, & Weick, 1970; Goldstein, 1980; Wexley, 1984). Likewise, this study focuses on how different training activities affect

individual employees' application of training resulting in the improvement of these behaviours, which is referred to as transfer of training.

2.3.1 Transfer of Training

The transfer of training refers to the use of knowledge or skills gained through training and the application of said skills or knowledge on the job (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). For the transfer of training to occur, the learned behaviour must be applied to a specific position and maintained over a period of time (Baldwin & Ford, 1988).

The transfer of training depends on these training inputs: trainee characteristics, training design, and work environment. In Baldwin and Ford's (1988) Transfer of Training Model, as seen in figure one, trainee characteristics and work environment impact the outcome of training directly, whereas the effect of training design is dependent on learning and retention as training outputs. Several studies have looked at work environment and organizational factors that influence the outcomes of training programs. Velada et al. (2007) explored the relationships between trainee characteristics, training design, and work environment and found that these relationships enhance the transfer of training.

Figure 1: Baldwin and Ford (1988) Transfer of Training Model

Designing a training regimen for employees is a key input in the Baldwin and Ford (1998) model of the transfer process that falls under training design. The training design input in Baldwin and Ford's model is important for this study in order to analyze the training processes that retail employees go through and to see if the training activities affect the development of deep acting skills.

The activities apart of training designs are based on three factors: principles of learning, sequencing, and training content. The principles of learning revolve on four values: identical elements, teaching general principles, stimulus variability and various conditions of practice. Identical elements involve training employees in conditions similar to the actual work environment. Teaching the general principles requires employers to lay the foundation of the rules and principles that underlie the operations of the business. Stimulus variability places trainees in various situational examples and experiences that they may encounter while working.

Conditions of practice refers to design activities such as including a feedback process or dealing with over learning.

The second training design factor is sequencing, which refers to arranging training activities that are related and maintain a purpose for trainees to understand and grasp new skills. The third training factor, training content, ensures trainees are in a positive learning environment, and that the training material is meaningful and challenging for trainees. If retail organizations follow these training design factors, employees will be able to learn, retain and apply the training material.

Training design also includes pre-training activities that aid in the transfer of training. These activities include trainers and trainees setting goals, and trainers providing advice and organizing the training program in advance (Tannenbaum and Yukl, 1992). Researchers identified supervisor support as an important variable when conducting pre-training activities. This support includes actions such as managers or supervisors meeting with employees to discuss the training regimen, or allowing employees release time to prepare for training (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Cromwell & Kolb, 2004; Brinkerhoff & Montesino, 1995). Researchers have also found that the perception of organizational culture, in particular of retail organizations, can influence supervisors' and employees' perception of learning activities (Harris & Ogbonna, 1998). Organizational culture may dictate the training regimen supervisors provide for their employees and prioritize training goals, while employees may have their own inputs in the decisions of their training content (Sussman, 2006; Brinkerhoff & Montesino, 1995).

As for the training design for activities during training, Burke and Hutchins (2008) found that a training design that includes high involvement of supervisors and trainers increases the transfer of training. They found the best practices include supervisor support activities, goal

setting, coaching, and interactive training activities. Ford et al. (1992) also found the attitudes and support from supervisors created a difference in opportunities for employees to perform tasks during and after training.

While researching post-training activities, Richman-Hirsch (2001) found that two activities which improved the transfer of training were goal setting and self-management. These activities positively affected the extent trainees applied the skills learned, and moderated the effects of the work environment. Cromwell and Kolb (2004) examined work environmental factors of organizational support, supervisor support, peer support, and participation in a support network work at one month, six months, and one-year intervals. They found that trainees who had high levels of support in these four environmental factors also experienced higher levels of training being transferred.

In their study to assess how long employees continued to apply their training, Saks and Belcourt (2006) found 62% of employees used their skills or knowledge immediately after training. They also found 44% of employees applied their skills after six months of training, and 34% of employees applied what they have learned after one year of training. Saks and Belcourt highlighted that training should be done on a continual basis, with the right environmental factors such as organizational and supervisor support.

Notably, Harris and Ogbonna (1998) have found retail store managers often have a differentiated view of the cultural and organizational priorities of their organization and front line employees, and therefore they have a fragmented perspective of these priorities (in comparison to the organizational culture held by those in the head office). Subedi (2006) found that the culture and beliefs held by managers or supervisors about training and development are likely to influence the training process and the outcome. The implementation of a retail training

regimens falls on store managers (Sussman, 2006) who are an important factor in the learning process for the transfer of skills to occur (Tannenbaum and Yukl, 1992). It is therefore important to examine past studies that have been conducted on retail training.

2.3.2 Retail Training

Researchers have stressed the importance of training in retail organizations (Davies et al., 1984; Mason & Mayer, 1984). Since training can increase revenues, contribute to higher productivity, motivate employees and improve a company's reputation, retail organizations have focused their training regimen on changing the behaviours of their employees to meet their objectives (Frenkel, 2000; Sussman, 2006; Tan & Newman, 2013).

The implementation of training is typically left to the discretion of managers (Russell et al., 1985; Sussman, 2006). The training of front line retail employees falls into three categories: operational training where employees are given the essentials to succeed at work, customer service training where employees learn to develop relationship skills, and leadership training where employees are selected for managerial roles (Sussman, 2006). This study examines training events, without focusing on the effects it has on employee behaviours.

Russell et al. (1985) studied a retail organization with 62 storefronts and found the training program was developed by head office and was available to be used for all store managers. The training program touched on topics such as customer relations, customer service, customer satisfaction, sales techniques and stocking and transactions procedures. The study found that this training regimen was typical of other retail organizations at the time and recommends managers use the training materials and methods recommended. The authors support training employees at the store level. However, the authors note that the implementation of training is always left to the discretion of store managers in the retail industry (Russell et al.,

1985). This finding still has not changed as Sussman (2006) saw the implementation of training programs continues to fall on managers.

Gremler and Gwinner (2008) recommended training programs to build retail employees rapport-building behaviours to increase repeat customers. The authors provided examples of activities that can help employees during training. Such activities included role-playing, scenarios, and technology. A study by Vadi and Suuroja (2006) found retail workers benefited from the use of visual aids and role-playing activities as it enabled them to understand the behaviour expected of them. Worsfold and Griffith (2003) reported managers in the retail and catering industry claim visual aids reinforced training. However, these managers viewed training as a one-off activity and pre and post training activities was neither planned nor implemented.

Pratten (2005) studied 27 retail pubs in the UK and found many operators limited their training to show staff how to sell and handle the product to customers and employers did not see benefits in continuing the development of their employees through additional training. Retail organizations in the UK have sought to use lower skilled and low-cost labour to compete in the industry rather than make investments in employee development. Consequently, if training is done, it is often implemented to meet statutory regulations and requirements (Pinnington and Edwards, 2000). Given that retail organizations often provide training to employees just to meet legislated requirements, it is important to understand disability legislation and the effect it has in the retail landscape in Canada.

2.4 Hypothesis Formulation

2.4.1 Deep Acting Levels

Studies have called on employers to improve behavioural and emotional training for employees, workers may be entering retail customer service roles with different levels of deep acting skills. There are three reasons why it is possible to align participants into groupings based on their deep acting skills.

The first reason stems from Seymour and Sandiford's (2005) finding that employees in customer service or retail roles receive minimal training and informally learn how to manage or display their emotions. Emotions that are acceptable depend on societal, occupational, and organizational norms, and these norms guide employees about what emotions to display during a service interaction (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989). Therefore employees may have various past experiences in managing their emotions from socializing through social institutions such as school or work and thus will have varying levels of deep acting (Seymour & Sandiford, 2005).

The second reason is related to Brotheridge and Grandey's (2002) finding that various occupational service sectors have different emotional labour demands and, accordingly, workers have a low or high deep acting skills. Employees must deploy deep acting strategies as different emotional labour demands are established by customer expectations (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989), who require good service and responsive, courteous, accessible employees who understand their needs (Zeithaml, Parasuraman & Barry, 1990). Providing quality customer service by retail employees is labour intensive emotionally, as customers can discern positive or negative emotions displayed by workers (Taylor, 1998). Kruml and Geddes (2000) also argue there are two types of deep acting: passive deep acting (low) where employees genuinely feel the

emotions they are required to feel and active deep acting (high) which involves an employee working to change their feelings to match the situation.

The third reason is Blau et al. (2010) finding three types of deep acting that could be identified in their participants, basic deep acting (low), perspective taking deep acting (medium) and positive refocus deep acting (high). Basic deep acting is defined as an employee changing one's display of emotions but not changing the emotion felt (Grandey, 2003). Perspective deep acting is when an employee changes their display of emotion and the emotion felt by taking into view the perspective of a customer (Blau et al., 2010). The argument for the existence of perspective taking deep acting (i.e. a medium level of deep acting) can be attributed to the affective domain. The affective domain is when an employee's strength of attitude towards a customer, or their attitude displayed in a situation is indicated by the frequency they designate in a given circumstance (Gagne, Briggs & Wager, 1988). This relates back to Seymour and Sandiford (2005) argument that employees have varying levels of deep acting based on their past experiences as employees can change their attitudes towards customers based on certain circumstances. Positive refocus deep acting is when an employee changes their display of emotion and the emotion felt to find something positive when faced with a difficult customer (Blau et al., 2010).

Due to these three reasons, this study breaks deep acting into three distinct groupings. From Blau et al. (2010) and Grandey's (2003) work on emotional labour and deep acting, this study uses their definitions on the different levels of deep acting in order to group participants into basic deep acting, perspective taking deep acting, and positive refocus deep acting categories prior to trainees receiving disability training.

2.4.2 Training Activities

Studies have described emotional labour as a fundamental facet of service work and strategies like deep acting encourages consumer spending and leaving a positive impact on customers, retailers need to provide training to build deep acting skills (Brotheridge and Grandey, 2002; Tsai and Huang, 2002; Pugh, 2001). To pass on these skills, the transfer of training needs to occur where the use of knowledge gained through training is applied on the job (Burke & Hutchins, 2007). The transfer of training depends on training inputs, specifically the training design input and this study examines how particular training design activities (i.e. pre, during and post training activities) affect the development of deep acting skills. Given that Saks and Belcourt (2006) argue particular training activities (i.e. pre, during and post training) aid in the transfer of learning and Short and Yorks' (2002) research has shown that emotions are frequently displayed during training and influence the training process and effectiveness of learning, an influence should exist between the transfer of training and the development of the deep acting skills involved with emotional labour. If employees are grouped based on their deep acting levels before disability training, then training activities conducted before, during and after training should have a positive influence with employees' deep acting levels after they have gone through disability training.

Based on the work of Cromwell and Kolb (2004) and Baldwin and Magjuka (1991) a positive influence should then exist between pre-training activities and employees with varying levels of deep acting. Cromwell and Kolb (2004) and Baldwin and Magjuka (1991) argue that different activities conducted before training, including supervisor support, trainee preparation and trainee involvement, aid in the transfer of training. Supervisor support can include discussing the training content ahead of time (Saks & Belcourt, 2006). Baldwin and Magjuka (1991) argue

trainee preparation can include providing workers with release time for training or providing homework for trainees to complete before training begins. Trainee involvement includes having supervisors taking workers' input in the training process and providing trainees with the opportunity to choose the content presented to them (Baldwin, Magjuka & Loher, 1991). These pre-training activities rely on human modeling which is a training technique oriented to establishing and changing trainee attitudes (Bandura, 1977). Human modeling involves supervisors or managers serving as role models for individual trainees to observe and learn attitudes from (Gagne, Briggs & Wager, 1988). From these studies it is possible to link particular pre-training activities, such as setting goals or distributing reading material, to trainees' development of deep acting skills, whether the employees have a basic deep acting level, a perspective taking deep acting level, or positive refocus deep acting level.

This study makes the argument that a positive influence should exist between activities conducted during training and employees who have different levels of deep acting (Richman-Hirsch, 2001). Activities during training may take a number of forms. Baldwin and Ford (1988) have written activities during training that provide employees with an experience that resembles the workplace, or incorporate supervisors' involvement with goal setting to motivate employees, will facilitate the transfer of training. In addition, activities during training can give trainees opportunities to learn about appropriate attitudinal behaviours. Given that attitudinal learning is a primary objective of disability training, this form of training is referred to as behavioural modeling (Kraiger, Ford & Salas, 1993). Behavioural modeling utilizes observation, practice and reinforcement activities to develop behaviours. These behaviours can then provide the basis for trainees to reflect on and internalize matching attitudes (Kraiger, Ford & Salas, 1993).

Under Baldwin and Ford's (1988) training design model, providing a variety of stimuli during training helps trainees to experience situations that can occur during the job and such activities may shape an employee's attitudinal behaviour. Stimuli can also include behaviour simulation opportunities during training – i.e. role-playing, games and simulations. These training stimuli helps employees shape their attitudes and emotions as they will recall the simulations they participated in and make a personal decision in the matter (Gagne, Briggs & Wager, 1988). Training stimuli also allow trainees to develop skills and find behavioural patterns that are effective in solving problems while on the job. (Kraiger, Ford & Salas, 1993). These studies on activities during training, such as role playing or utilizing visual aids, have established that it is possible to link particular activities during training to trainees' development of deep acting skills, whether the employees have a basic deep acting level, a perspective taking deep acting level, or positive refocus deep acting level.

This study also makes the argument that a positive influence exists between particular activities conducted after training and employees who have different levels of deep acting. Authors such as Tannenbaum and Yukl (1992), Haccoun (1997) and Cromwell and Kolb (2004) have found post training activities such as organizational support with regards to policies, procedures, evaluating goals that were set, and creating peer networks aid in the transfer process. When such activities occur, trainees believe the organization supports them and they have faith that the training they receive has value in their development and therefore buy into the process. This is referred to as sequencing (Ford & Weissbein, 1997; Baldwin & Magjuka, 1991). These post training activities are directed for the sequencing of experiences leading to emotional and attitudinal changes affecting deep acting (Gagne, Briggs & Wager, 1988). However the prerequisite steps for sequencing brings us back to human modeling, as the consistent message

being delivered at all levels of training is coming from the manager. Hence organizational support in post training aids in the transfer of learning and human modeling aims to establish and change attitudes for trainees (Gagne, Briggs & Wager, 1988; Bandura, 1977).

Saks and Belcourt (2006) categorize post-training activities into four factors: supervisor support, organization support, accountability, and evaluation and feedback. These activities can include providing additional practice opportunities, praising employees, implementing a reward system, deploying policies and resources to maintain skills, conducting appraisals and evaluations, and developing a peer support network. Tannenbaum and Yukl (1992), Haccoun (1997) and Cromwell and Kolb (2004) have also found post training activities such as organizational support with regards to policies, procedures, evaluating goals and creating peer networks, aid in the transfer process. These post training activities also aid employees to promote positivity and enhance deep acting as supervisors and colleagues maintain support for workers to ensure emotions are not suppressed, resulting in improved interpersonal outcomes and better rapport with customers (Butler et al., 2003).

The post-training activity of evaluating goals that were set for trainees is an important factor in influencing transfer of learned behaviours and deep acting to be applied on the job, but goal setting also motivates the behaviour of employees as it sets direction and the determination to succeed (Baldwin & Ford, 1988; Locke & Latham, 1990). Therefore, due to these studies on activities after training, it is possible to link particular activities after training, such as timely assessment and feedback, to trainees' development of deep acting skills, whether trainees have a basic deep acting level, a perspective taking deep acting level, or positive refocus deep acting level.

Based on the arguments made in past studies, deep acting can be divided into three distinct groupings: basic deep acting, perspective taking deep acting, and positive refocus deep acting. Based on the arguments made in past studies that link the particular training activities trainees undergo before, during, and after training that aid in the transfer and development of deep acting, these three hypotheses are proposed:

- Hypothesis 1: For retail employees in a basic deep acting grouping, training activities (before, during and after) positively influence deep acting.
- Hypothesis 2: For retail employees in a perspective taking deep acting grouping, training activities (before, during and after) positively influence deep acting.
- Hypothesis 3: For retail employees in a positive refocus deep acting grouping, training activities (before, during and after) positively influence deep acting.

Thus in this study, the positive influence of activities conducted before, during, and after training are examined on employees' levels of deep acting skill. Figure two, three, and four presents the frameworks upon which this study will focus.

Figure 2: Basic Deep Acting Grouping

Figure 3: Perspective Taking Deep Acting Grouping

Figure 4: Positive Refocus Deep Acting Grouping

3.0 Methodology

This section describes the research methodology utilized in this study. This section provides an overview of the sample and data collected, the measures used in the survey and the statistical analysis that was deployed.

3.1 Sample & Data Collection

To maximize the number of responses from participants meeting a specific criteria in a short period of time, an online self-report questionnaire with 45 items was devised and administered to a randomly selected national sample purchased from an independent online research company, Qualtrics (Popper, 2002). Qualtrics partners with online panel providers to supply a network of respondents from actively managed market research panels.

Questionnaire items were adapted from a review of previous research and constituent survey instruments conducted by Brotheridge and Lee (2003), and Saks and Belcourt (2006). The questionnaire was distributed to participants through email and respondents who completed the survey were awarded points that could be used towards gift certificates. Participants were told that the purpose of the study was to understand disability-training employees undergo. Participants were informed that their responses would be confidential and anonymous, and can only be seen by the researchers. 280 participants attempted the survey and 175 surveys were received, with 150 responses being complete and analyzed. The moderate sample size is consistent with research in human resource studies (Datta, Guthrie, and Wright, 2005; Saks and Belcourt, 2006; Jaidev and Chirayath, 2012).

3.1.1 Participant Screening

Participants in this study were screened to ensure that high quality respondents participated in the survey. There were four questions in the survey that screened participants. The first question was on age to ensure participants were eighteen years old or over due to the requirement of Ryerson University's Research Ethics Board. Participants below the age of eighteen were excluded from the study. The second question asked participants if they interact with customers on a regular basis in a retail environment to ensure participants work in the retail

industry and have regular contact with customer. If participants responded with a No, they were excluded from the study. The third question asked participants to describe the degree of customer contact required in their position. Participants were asked to rate the degree of customer contact on a Likert scale from 1 to 5, with a score of 1 coded as very high and a score of 5 coded as very low. Participant who scored a score of 4 or 5 were excluded from the survey. This was done to ensure that participants are front line workers that have regular contact with consumers. Finally the fourth question asked participants if they have undergone disability training in their current position to ensure participants have undergone disability training. Those that answered No were excluded from the study.

3.2 Measures

The first measure participants completed in the survey was an eight-item jobs questionnaire. The jobs questionnaire is necessary to screen participants as described in the previous section since participants needed to be current retail employees working in jobs that demanded regular interactions with consumers. The questionnaire assessed whether the participants had undergone disability training, how long they had worked in their current position, and their current job title. Having participants complete the jobs questionnaire allowed the survey to exclude participants that did not work in retail, had not gone through disability training and worked in a role that required moderate to very high levels of customer contact. 105 participants who did not meet the criteria established by the jobs questionnaire had their data excluded from the study.

The second measure participants completed in the survey was a three item Emotional Labour Scale adapted from Brotheridge and Lee (2003). The scale measured one dimension of emotional labour: deep level acting. Deep level acting measures how often participants try to feel

the required emotions their positions demands. The Emotional Labour Scale assessed participants' deep level acting before and after they had gone through disability training. The Emotional Labour Scale used a five-point Likert scale with a score of 1 coded as always and a score of 5 coded as never.

The third measure participants completed in the survey was a 36-item Saks and Belcourt's (2006) Training Activities Scale to assess how retailers implement activities before, during, and after disability training. This was done to gauge if these activities facilitate the transfer of training to help employees retain and apply the training they have received. The Training Activities Scale used a five-point Likert scale with a score of 1 coded as always and a score of 5 coded as never. In their study Saks and Belcourt (2006) identified 13 items for pre-training activities consisting of four subscales: trainee input and involvement, supervisor involvement, training attendance policy, and trainee preparation. The trainee input and involvement subscale consisted of four items to measure the extent respondents had in the input and involvement in the training process and content. The supervisor involvement subscale consisted of four items to measure the extent supervisors had supported the respondents in pre-training activities. The training attendance policy subscale consisted of three items to measure the extent of retail organizations policies towards employee attendance for disability training. The trainee preparation subscale consisted of two items measuring the extent respondents are given supplementary readings, work, or activities prior to training.

Saks and Belcourt (2006) identified seven items for activities during training, the scale refers to training design and learning principles. Such principles included variable training stimuli, trainee feedback and knowledge or results that stemmed from tasks or examination, positive reinforcement, and goal setting. Saks and Belcourt (2006) further identified 16 items for

post training activities containing four factors: supervisor support, organization support, accountability, and evaluation and feedback. Supervisor support is the extent supervisors or trainers provide trainees with support from providing additional practice opportunities, praising employees or implementing a reward system. Organizational support determines if there are policies in place to support the transfer of skills after training, if additional resources are deployed to maintain skills over time, and if appraisals on trainees are conducted. Accountability refers to the extent employees must evaluate or discuss their training in the form of reports or interviews. Feedback and evaluation assesses if supervisors evaluate employees on new skills or knowledge applied on the job after training and if there is a peer support network to provide feedback or assist in maintaining the skills learned during training. Table one summarizes the measures used for the survey:

Table 1: Summary of Measures

Measures	Items	Source
Jobs Questionnaire	8	Brotheridge and Lee (2003)
Emotional Labour Scale		
Deep Acting	3	Saks and Belcourt (2006)
Training Activities Scale		
Pre-Training	13	
During Training	7	
Post Training	16	

3.3 Statistical Analysis

The data obtained through the surveys were exported to SPSS where a Cronbach Alpha reliability analysis was conducted to measure the internal consistency of the job questionnaire, Emotional Labour Scale, and Training Activities Scale.

Based on the deep acting scores of participants before undergoing disability training, respondents were grouped into three categories. The categories are based on Blau et al. (2010)

and Grandey's (2003) types of deep acting: basic deep acting (low), perspective taking deep acting (medium) and positive refocus deep acting (high), as they define the different levels of deep acting. Basic deep acting is defined as an employee changing one's display of emotions but not changing the emotion felt (Grandey, 2003). Perspective deep acting is when an employee changes their display of emotion and the emotion felt by taking into view the perspective of a customer (Blau et al., 2010). Positive refocus deep acting is when an employee changes their display of emotion and the emotion felt to find something positive when faced with a difficult customer (Blau et al., 2010).

Participant's deep acting scores from the Emotional Labour Scale (Brotheridge & Lee, 2003) were aggregated and from within the sample, 50 of the lowest scores of deep acting were assigned to the basic deep acting grouping. 50 participants with the highest deep acting scores were assigned to the positive refocus deep acting grouping. The 50 participants in between the basic deep acting and positive refocus deep acting grouping were placed in the perspective deep acting group. This type of grouping is similar to other studies where participants are divided into low, medium and high categories based on their responses to emotionally loaded questions (Gudjonsson, 1981). Such a method is further justified when examining three distinct groupings (high, medium and low) in testing emotions and asking participants to recall past emotional levels and comparing it to a level after a certain amount of time (Davis & Schwartz, 1987).

With each categorization of basic deep acting, perspective deep acting, and positive refocus deep acting, a hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to examine the influences that take place on the three groupings (Davis & Schwartz, 1987). This method aids in analyzing participants in distinct groupings in which interventions, or in this study, training activities is likely to have the largest influence (VanderWeele & Knol, 2014). Due to various factors that

affect retail employees, this method is suitable as resources to implement training activities may be limited due to managerial or supervisory constraints (VanderWeele & Knol, 2014; Sussman, 2006). Furthermore, this analysis is suitable in this study as it tests the influence among three independent continuous variables, in this case, training activities (Cox, 1984).

4.0 Results

This section presents the evidence obtained from the survey to address the theoretical framework that was developed. The findings presented are based on a quantitative analysis describing the demographic characteristics of survey participants, the internal reliability of the scales utilized, and the data testing each hypothesis.

4.1 Participants

Participants were 150 individuals across Canada, where 48 respondents came from the province of Ontario. The average age of participants was 30.85 years old ($SD = 10.52$) and 36.7% of the population were males ($N = 55$) whereas 62% were females ($N = 93$). Examples of jobs that participants held were cashier ($N = 19$), or sales associate/customer service representative ($N = 49$) and 66.7% of the participants have worked one year or more in their current position ($N = 100$), while 68.7% of participants described to have a very high degree of customer contact in their respective roles ($N = 103$). The majority of participants worked in the grocery/food ($N = 41$) and clothing and accessories ($N = 36$) retail category. Table two presents the demographics of the participants.

Table 2: Demographic Profile (N = 150)

Category	%	N	M	SD
Gender				.50
Male	36.7	55		
Female	62	93		
Other	1.3	2		
Age			30.8	10.5
18-25	36.7	55		
26-33	25.3	46		
34-41	16	27		
42-49	6.7	13		
50-72	5.3	9		
Degree of Customer Contact				.59
Very High	68.7	103		
High	25.3	38		
Moderate	6.0	9		
Length of Time in Current Position				.80
1 to 6 months	20	30		
7 to 1 year	13.3	20		
1 year or more	66.7	100		
Retail Category				2.3
Furniture & Home Furnishing	4	6		
Electronics & Appliances	8	12		
Home Improvement	4.0	6		
Grocery/Food	27.3	41		
Health & Personal Care	5.3	8		
Clothing & Accessory	24	36		
Sporting Goods, Hobby, Book & Music Stores	6.0	9		
Department Stores	12	18		
Variety & Dollar Stores	4.7	7		
Office Supplies	2.7	4		
Warehouse Clubs	2.0	3		

4.2 Scale Reliability

The internal consistency for each construct and its sub-scale was fairly consistent. An alpha value of 0.70 maybe an acceptable level for a scale (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1978). Lance, Butts and Michels (2006) state research should rely on scales that yield a reliability of a minimum of 0.80, where scores of 0.90 are to be expected. In this study the pre training deep

acting levels was consistent at $\alpha = .74$. The consistency of the training activities scale at each sub-scale was fairly consistent as well. The consistency of pre-training activities was $\alpha = .89$, the consistency for activities during training was $\alpha = .84$, and the consistency for post training activities was $\alpha = .91$. The participants' internal consistency for post training deep acting levels increased to $\alpha = .82$. The reliability estimates of the constructs in this study is presented in table three.

Table 3: Cronbach Alpha Score

Construct	Items	Cronbach Alpha Score
Pre-Training Deep Level Acting Level	On the average day at work, how frequently do you make an effort to actually feel the emotions that you need to display to others? On the average day at work, how frequently do you really try to feel the emotions you have to show as part of your job? On the average day at work, how frequently do you try to actually experience the emotions that you must show?	.74
Pre-Training Activities	You are given advanced notification about training content prior to attending a disability training program. Your training needs are identified prior to a disability training program. You have a precourse discussion with your supervisors prior to attending a disability training program. You have input in decisions about the disability training program content and/or methods. You are given release time to prepare for a disability training program. Your supervisor discusses the content and benefits of a disability training program with you prior to a disability training program. Your supervisor participates in advance orientation or training sessions regarding the disability training program. Your supervisor set goals with you that focus on improving specific skills before you attend a disability training program.	.89

Construct	Items	Cronbach Alpha Score
	<p>You have a choice as to whether or not you will attend any particular disability training program.</p> <p>Your attendance at a disability training program is mandatory.</p> <p>Employee from the same department or functional group as you are trained together on disability training.</p> <p>You are given preparatory reading prior to attending a disability training program.</p> <p>Disability training programs include activities or assignments that you are required to do before you arrive for the actual disability training program.</p>	
Activities During Training	<p>Disability training programs provides you with training experiences and conditions (surroundings, tasks, equipment) that closely resemble those in the actual work environment.</p> <p>Disability training programs provides you with a variety of training stimuli and experiences, such as several examples of a concept, or practice experiences in a variety of situations.</p> <p>Disability training programs teach you the general rules and theoretical principles that underlie the training content and the use and application of the trained skills.</p> <p>You are given feedback and information about your performance of the training tasks and material during the disability training program.</p> <p>You are rewarded during training for learning and performing training material and tasks.</p> <p>You leave a disability training program with a written performance contract with goals to be achieved.</p> <p>Disability training programs prepare you to cope with obstacles or difficulties that might prevent them from successfully applying the training material when they return to the work environment.</p>	.84
Post Training	Your supervisor provides you with support to	.91

Construct	Items	Cronbach Alpha Score
Activities	<p>help you use newly acquired skills after attending a disability training program.</p> <p>Your supervisor ensures that you have the opportunities to practice and apply newly acquired knowledge and skills after attending a disability training program.</p> <p>Your supervisor praises or rewards you for using newly acquired skills developed in a disability training program.</p> <p>Some form of booster session is conducted as an extension of a disability training program in which the trainer meets with you.</p> <p>Efforts are made to ensure that you have the resources (tools, equipment, materials, supplies, etc.) that are necessary in order to apply the knowledge, skills, and/or abilities developed in disability training program.</p> <p>The performance appraisal system considers your use of knowledge, skills, and/or abilities acquired in disability training program.</p> <p>You are required to submit a post-training report after attending a disability training program.</p> <p>You are required to participate in an interview or discussion as part of a follow-up to a disability training program that you attended.</p> <p>You are paired with other co-workers following completion of a disability training program in order to assist each other by providing feedback and reinforcement to ensure you both use the skills developed in a disability training program.</p> <p>You are evaluated on your use of new skills or knowledge following completion of a disability training program.</p> <p>You are required to undergo assessment following completion of a training program in order to evaluate your learning.</p>	
Post Training Deep Acting Level	On the average day at work, how frequently do you make an effort to actually feel the emotions that you need to display to others?	.82

Construct	Items	Cronbach Alpha Score
	On the average day at work, how frequently do you really try to feel the emotions you have to show as part of your job?	
	On the average day at work, how frequently do you try to actually experience the emotions that you must show?	

4.3 Data Analysis

The data revealed no positive influences between pre-training activities and deep acting skills for employees in the basic deep acting grouping, $\beta = .72$, $t = .08$, $p > .05$, $f^2 = 0.64$, or in the perspective taking deep acting grouping, $\beta = .76$, $t = .07$, $p > .05$, $f^2 = 0.16$, or in the positive refocus deep acting grouping, $\beta = .84$, $t = .09$, $p > .05$, $f^2 = 0.44$.

A positive influence exists between activities conducted during training and deep acting skills for employees in the basic deep acting grouping, $\beta = .65$, $t = .15$, $p < .05$, $f^2 = 0.66$, in the perspective taking deep acting grouping, $\beta = .73$, $t = .11$, $p < .05$, $f^2 = 0.18$, and in the positive refocus deep acting grouping, $\beta = .87$, $t = .13$, $p < .05$, $f^2 = 0.47$.

For activities conducted after training, a positive influence exists between deep acting skills for employees in the basic deep acting grouping, $\beta = .64$, $t = .64$, $p < .05$, $f^2 = 0.66$, and with employees in the positive refocus deep acting grouping, $\beta = .86$, $t = .10$, $p < .05$, $f^2 = 0.45$. However, no positive influences exists between deep acting skills for employees in the perspective taking deep acting grouping, $\beta = .78$, $t = .08$, $p > .05$, $f^2 = 0.17$.

The results for the key variables for the basic deep acting grouping before training is reported in table four. The results for the key variables for in the perspective taking deep acting

grouping before training is reported in table five. The results for the key variables for the positive refocus deep acting grouping before training is reported in table six.

Table 4: Basic Deep Acting Grouping Before Training

Basic Deep Acting	M1	M2	M3	M4
Pre Deep Acting				
Score	0.835	0.725	0.659	0.641
Age	-0.044	-0.179	-0.188	-0.190
Gender	0.018	-0.056	-0.055	-0.060
Time	-0.053	-0.015	-0.004	-0.002
Pre-Training		0.089		
During Training			0.158*	
After Training				0.641*
Cohen's f^2		0.643	0.663	0.666
R ²	0.331	0.357	0.399	0.400
ΔR^2		0.026	0.068	0.069
F		13.058	15.595	15.676

* Positive influence at the 0.05 level

Table 5: Perspective Taking Deep Acting Before Training

Perspective	M1	M2	M3	M4
Taking Deep Acting				
Pre Deep Acting				
Score	0.744	0.762	0.731	0.780
Age	0.002	0.004	0.004	0.004
Gender	0.052	0.041	0.046	0.038
Time	-0.023	-0.002	-0.018	-0.006
Pre-Training		0.073		
During Training			0.117*	
After Training				0.082
Cohen's f^2		0.162	0.186	0.170
R ²	0.127	0.14	0.157	0.146
ΔR^2		0.013	0.029	0.019
F		3.835	4.362	4.011

* Positive influence at the 0.05 level

Table 6: Positive Refocus Deep Acting Before Training

Positive Refocus Deep Acting	M1	M2	M3	M4
Pre Deep Acting				
Score	0.913	0.840	0.878	0.863
Age	-0.004	0.007	0.008	0.007
Gender	0.036	-0.004	-0.018	0.020
Time	-0.046	0.084	0.080	0.070
Pre-Training		0.099		
During Training			0.137*	
After Training				0.107*
Cohen's f^2		0.44	0.477	0.453
R ²	0.292	0.306	0.323	0.312
ΔR^2		0.014	0.031	0.020
F		10.366	11.22	10.64

* Positive influence at the 0.05 level

5.0 Discussion

This section begins with a discourse on the research question and hypothesis being investigated in this study. This section covers the theoretical and practical implications of this thesis. This section concludes with a discussion on limitations found in this study and future research opportunities. Table seven provides a summary of the hypotheses in this study.

Table 7: Hypothesis Summary

Hypothesis	Outcome
Hypothesis 1: For retail employees in a basic deep acting grouping, training activities (before, during and after) positively influences deep acting.	Partially Supported
Hypothesis 2: For retail employees in a perspective taking deep acting grouping, training activities (before, during and after) positively influences deep acting.	Partially Supported
Hypothesis 3: For retail employees in a positive refocus deep acting grouping, training activities (before, during and after) positively influences deep acting.	Partially Supported

This study has implications for theory. This study found that disability training that incorporates pre-training activities has no influence on retail employee's use of deep acting skills regardless of their level of deep acting skills going into the training process. Despite giving trainees advanced notice, having supervisors go over goals and expectations, and making training mandatory, these activities did not influence deep acting skills. This study expands on Baldwin and Ford's (1988) model of the transfer of training process, where the third input for learning and retention is the work environment. One of the most important activities to take place before training to facilitate the transfer of skills is the pre-training environment (Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992). Part of this environment is supervisor support, where managers can set goals with trainees, provide release times for training and encourage attendance and participation (Brinkerhoff & Montesino, 1995). Despite such activities taking place that requires managerial support, employees feel disconnected between supervisors and pre-training activities.

The findings showed that pre-training activities did not have an influence on deep acting skill. This may have occurred due to participants having little input in the decisions of their

training content and trainees not having to do prior work assignments before training began, as 40.5% (N = 62) of participants reported they rarely or never had input in the decisions on the choice or method of their training content. This finding is contrary to Baldwin and Magjuka (1991) who believe trainee input in the training process is important as trainees can develop a regimen suited to their skills and abilities. Moreover, past studies have found pre-training activities improve the transfer of training to trainees, where this study did not find such a result (Saks & Belcourt, 2006; Tannenbaum & Yukl, 1992).

This study found a majority of respondents were not required to do activities or assignments before the disability training program as 25.2% (N = 38) stated rarely and 21.9% (N = 33) stated never. This finding highlights that retailers are not in line with the findings from Tannenbaum and Yukl (1992) who describe pre-training preparation, including homework to be done prior to the training session, beneficial as it increases trainee self-efficacy and prepares trainees for the training program.

This study helps expand the literature on the transfer climate, which are characteristics or activities that facilitate or inhibit the application of skills while on the job (Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993). A strong transfer climate is one where cues exist to remind trainees to apply the material (Rouiller & Goldstein, 1993). By allowing input from employees on the training content and having trainees do some form of work before attending training, managers can improve pre-training activities for employees and influence deep acting levels, as these activities improve the transfer climate (Saks & Haccoun, 2004). However, as this study found, if retail managers are not providing the support necessary for employees to apply new skills through a lack of pre-training activities, in this case a lack of trainee input and no homework, the learning culture of the organization diminishes (Saks & Haccoun, 2004). Past studies describe that in an

organization with a strong learning culture, employees believe the skills they acquire are part of their job responsibilities which increases the transfer of training (Tracey, Scott & Kavanagh, 1995). However, as found in this study, the perception of organizational culture differs within retail organizations and levels of hierarchy (store managers to head office managers) and the related perception can have an impact on employee motivation and engagement with the service objectives of training (Harris & Ogbonna, 1998).

This study found that particular activities during training for a disability training regimen by retailers had a positive influence on employees' levels of deep acting skills which were grouped in basic deep acting, perspective taking deep acting, and positive refocus deep acting levels prior to receiving disability training. The positive influence found in this study supports practices retailers are implementing according to Baldwin and Ford's (1988) basic principles in training design. In particular, this study found a large number of participants felt disability training programs always (N = 40) or often (N = 55) provided a training experience that closely resembled the actual workplace. This finding is in line with the training design principle of identical elements from Baldwin and Ford's (1988) research that calls on trainers to provide experiences and working conditions resembling the actual environment trainees will be subjected to.

This study found that participants believed their disability training program always (N = 38) or often (N = 58) provided a variety of stimuli and experiments. Participants felt the disability training program always (N = 52) or often (N = 64) taught the general rules and principles underlining the training content and application of skills. These findings concur with the training design principle of stimulus variability that Baldwin and Ford (1988) recommend. Trainers need to provide multiple experiences of various situations and examples in order for

trainees to adapt to different circumstances (Baldwin & Ford, 1988). As this study has shown, if employers and managers continue to follow these factors in their disability training design, employees can look to increase the transfer of deep acting skills.

This study found particular activities conducted after training for a disability training regimen by retailers had a positive influence on employee's level of deep acting skills at a basic and positive refocus pre-deep acting levels. This may have occurred due to the support provided to trainees by the supervisor or organization through various practices and procedures. In this case, participants reported their supervisors always (N = 36) or often (N = 55) provided support to help use the newly acquired skill after the training program and always (N = 39) or often (N = 40) or sometimes (N = 41) ensured opportunities to practice and apply the newly acquired skills. Many participants reported that efforts were always (N = 52) or often (N = 40) or sometimes (N = 41) made for trainees to have the resources necessary to apply the knowledge and skills that were developed. This is in line with Cromwell & Kolb's (2004) findings which assert that such activities aid in the transfer of learning.

This study found that a positive influences exists between activities conducted after training and an employee's level of deep acting skills at a basic and positive refocus deep acting level, however, no positive influences exist at a perspective taking deep acting level. When the perspective taking pre-deep acting group is isolated (N = 50), this study found that the support from supervisors or organizations that are needed after training is not present. Participants in the perspective taking pre-deep acting level reported their supervisors never (N = 7) or rarely (N = 23) provided support after disability training to help use the skills that were newly acquired skill and never (N = 10) or rarely (N = 15) ensured opportunities existed to practice and apply the new skills acquired. Participants also reported that efforts were never (N = 15) or rarely (N = 16)

made for trainees to have the resources necessary to apply the knowledge and skills that were developed. A key factor to highlight for the perspective taking pre-deep acting group is participants were never ($N = 6$) or rarely ($N = 19$) required to undergo assessment following the completion of the disability training program to evaluate their learning. These findings show retailers are not ascribing to Tannenbaum and Yukl's (1992) findings that it is beneficial for supervisors or managers to provide an assessment after training has been completed to convey the importance of the transfer of training and hold trainees accountable for applying the newly acquired skill.

This study shows there is a difference between training activities conducted before, during and after training and its intended effects. The activities conducted during disability training had a positive influence at all levels of deep acting whereas activities before and after training did not have the same effect. This finding may stem from retail managers having more control over activities during training in comparison to their control of pre and post training activities. As a result, managers are more likely to focus on the process of disability training regimens during the implementation of the training as described by Saks and Belcourt (2006) which is also in line with the findings from Sussman (2006) who found retail managers having more success training employees under their direct control. This could also mean employers did not see benefits in continuing the development of their employees through additional training activities after the training regime (Pratten, 2005).

This finding provides implications to retail organizations as they should examine their disability training regimen to determine gaps, barriers, and shortfalls in the transfer of learning for activities conducted before and after training. Retail managers and organizations should also look into improving and increasing activities conducted before and after training by increasing

the involvement of trainees in the design process and creating a stronger support system for trainees to take advantage of. However, retail organizational culture factors affect employees' engagement with the training process as noted by Harris and Ogbonna (1998). Factors such as retailers' tendency to use part time employees to control labour costs, have an effect on part time workers' attitudes towards the work they perform and their jobs (Tilly, 1992; Miller & Terborg, 1979). Another factor is the division between head office's requirements to satisfy legislative requirements and store managers' perception and ability to carry out the requirements behind the backdrop of competing necessities (Sussman, 2006; Pinnington and Edwards, 2000).

This study has further practical implications for managers in retail organizations. Tang et al. (2013) called on employers to assess prospective employees on their emotional labour strategy. This study provides managers with a method to identify and break employees into groups with positive refocus, or perspective taking, or basic levels of deep acting skills. Depending on the deep acting levels of employees, managers can look to increase or decrease activities before, during or after disability training to transfer skills. This is vital as the process of training employees falls onto retail managers and therefore training priorities compete with other managerial responsibilities, organizational needs and customer demands for training time which is typically limited to seven to ten hours for employees (Sussman, 2006). By identifying an employee's deep acting level, a manager or supervisor can tailor appropriate training activities, thereby reducing the time required for training and increasing efficiency and, hopefully, efficacy.

However, as discussed, the implementation of retail training programs falls on store managers whose participation in activities during the training process is vital to transferring skills. These activities require providing immense support from supervisors and include coaching, setting goals, and modeling the right attitudes and behaviour (Sussman, 2006). It is

therefore vital that managers and supervisors undergo disability training themselves in order to transfer deep acting skills onto trainees and assist them through the training process. This is particularly relevant for larger retail organizations such as those in the grocery sub sector where there can be differences in perceptions of the need to undergo training for head office and store level managers (Harris & Ogbonna, 1998).

Past research has called on employers to improve training for front line retail workers in order to create positive relationships with consumers with disabilities (Kaufman-Scarborough, 2001). This study examines the influences that training activities can have on employee's deep acting levels, given that the activities conducted before, during and after training aid in the transfer of learning (Saks & Belcourt, 2006). In addition, retailers enjoy the benefits associated with deep acting such as improved customer satisfaction and positive customer service and interactions (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002).

5.1 Limitations

There are limitations to this study. The greatest limitation is the possibility of a recall bias where differences in the accuracy participants may have in remembering or recollecting events that have occurred in the past (Last, 2000). This study called on participant's recollection on their deep acting skills before and after attending disability training. However, similar studies have taken the same approach when asking participants to recall experiences regarding their past emotional levels and comparing it to a level after a certain amount of time or to their current level (Davis & Schwartz, 1987). In this study, before responding to the survey, participants read a summary outlining the aims of the research and in the summary participants were encouraged to be honest in their evaluation of the disability training program and their deep acting levels.

Another issue is the possibility of a social desirability bias to exist in this study. The order in which the emotional labour scale was deployed asked employees their deep acting levels before and after training. This could have allowed participants to under report their deep acting levels before training, and over report their deep acting levels after training so their answers could be viewed favourable. Had more time been available, a longitudinal study may have been appropriate as it would allow asking participants their post deep acting scores immediately after training is complete, after six months, and after one year, similar to Saks and Belcourt's (2006) study which asked participants their experiences with applying their training over time. This current survey did not ask participants as to when training had been completed, but it is safe to assume the gap may have been close to a year or more than 66.2% of participants stated that they have worked in their current position for more than a year. However, in this study, before responding to the survey, participants read a summary outlining the aims of the research and in the summary participants were encouraged to be honest in their evaluation of the disability training program and their deep acting levels.

Another limitation can be participant's motivation, which was not factored in the survey. Ford and Weissbein (1997) found training motivation positively affects the transfer of training. Baldwin and Ford (1988) also believed training activities after training such as feedback or goal setting increased motivation in the transfers of skills. As discussed, participants reported they rarely or never had input in the decisions which may have contributed to low motivations for undergoing disability training. Another view to take into consideration is if employees have a choice in the matter to undergo disability training. When asked if participants have the choice to attend disability training, 19.9% (N = 30) reported rarely while 37.7% (N = 57) of participants reported never. Close to 55% (N = 83) of participants indicated attending disability training is

always mandatory. Johnson (2008) argues if an organization wishes to have their employees retain basic competence, training should be required.

A limitation exists in the definitions of two questions in the survey regarding the jobs questionnaire items. The first question to be discussed is item four: how would you describe the degree of customer contact required in your position? Since the participants were not provided with a definition of what constitutes a high or low degree of customer contact, participants may make their own assumptions of what a high or low degree of customer contact is. However as discussed in the participation screening section, prior to the degree of contact question, the survey excluded participants who did not interact with customers on a regular basis in a retail environment.

The second question to be discussed is item five: have you undergone disability training in your current position? Since participants were not provided with a definition of what constitutes as disability training and how it can differentiate itself from other forms of training, participants may make assumptions they have undergone disability training, when they have not. However, according to the Accessibility for Ontarians Act (AODA) retail organizations must inform trainees about the type of training they are undergoing (in this case disability training) and train staff on how to interact with people with various forms of disability while informing trainees the purpose of the AODA (Ontario, 2005). Though the sample in this study involved participants from across Canada, 48 respondents live and work in Ontario. As discussed in the disability legislation section, other provinces across Canada are implementing accessibility legislation and are incorporating aspects of the AODA for their own province.

There are two issues of grouping participants into basic deep acting, perspective taking deep acting and positive refocus deep acting groupings based on retail employee's responses to

the Emotional Labour Scale by Brotheridge and Lee (2003). The first issue is defining three groupings based on deep acting levels as it was in this study. As discussed previously, Blau et al. (2010) and Grandey's (2003) research into deep acting show individuals can have varying levels of deep acting, whether it is low, medium or high and their research best describes these stages of deep acting as basic deep acting, perspective deep acting, and positive refocus deep acting.

The other issue is dividing 50 participants with the lowest deep acting scores to the basic deep acting grouping, 50 participants with the highest deep acting scores assigned to the positive refocus deep acting grouping, and 50 participants in between the basic deep acting and positive refocus deep acting grouping placed in the perspective deep acting group. It can be argued such a method is arbitrary because there are no cutoff points between placing an individual in a basic deep acting or perspective taking deep acting group in this study as participants were grouped based on scores. However, as discussed this type of grouping is similar to other studies where participants are divided into low, medium and high categories based on their responses to emotionally loaded questions (Gudjonsson, 1981). Such a method is further justified when examining three distinct groupings (high, medium and low) in testing emotions and asking participants to recall past emotional levels and comparing it to a level after a certain amount of time (Davis & Schwartz, 1987). This method is suitable in order to test for influences that may exist between pre, during and post- disability training activities and retail employees' levels of deep acting skills. It is important to also acknowledge the perspective deep acting grouping may have been a reflection of participants' engagement with this study or self-esteem rather than a clear assessment of skills.

5.2 Future Research

Further research should examine the behavioural effects of disability training in retail service environments. As discussed, there is a difference between activities conducted before, during and after training and their intended effects. Saks and Belcourt's (2006) Transfer of Training Scale measures the extent that training activities facilitate the transfer of training, and further research can be conducted by incorporating Kirkpatrick's Model (1996) for evaluating the effectiveness of disability training and the effect it has on deep acting skills. Kirkpatrick's Model (1996) can be applied after each level of training activities is completed. The model is based on four levels: reaction, learning, behaviour and results (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 1996). The first level measures how trainees react to the training taking into account of factors such as the materials presented or training instructors. The second level measures what trainees have learned and if it matches the learning objectives set out. The third level measures how the trainees have changed their behaviours and how they applied their knowledge. The final measure analyzes the results from the training, taking into account how disability training has benefitted the organization and the employees.

While evaluating training activities, future research can try to incorporate retail employee's utility reactions at each stage of training activities. Utility reaction scales measure and assess trainees perceptions about the usefulness of a training program (Saks and Haccoun, 2004). Utility reaction measures are useful as they are also related to other important training outcomes such as learning and behaviour (Alliger et al., 1997).

As this survey was administered to a randomly selected national sample, variations exist between retail organizations on how they conduct disability training, thereby affecting deep acting and training activities scores. Further research can be conducted to assess disability

training programs within retail organizations in different sub-sectors such as home improvement or electronics and appliances and compare the findings. In addition, further research should examine the effects of disability training with part and full-time employees. Part-time employees would have fewer opportunities to apply the skills transferred from disability training on disabled consumers and may equate the training they receive unnecessary (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 1996). A further gulf exists between full-time and part-time employees in terms of their job attitudes. Part-time employees are less satisfied with work and their jobs in general compared to their full-time counterparts (Miller & Terborg, 1979).

Job attitudes extend to motivation as well. As discussed, the province of Ontario legislates employers to provide disability training. This requirement removes employees' agency whether to undergo or forgo disability training, thus affecting motivation and this may further affect a worker's job involvement. Noe and Schmitt (1986) found employees who had a high level of job involvement were more motivated to learn, transfer and apply the necessary skills. If this is the case, motivation and its influences with the transfer of deep acting skills may be a matter to be further researched.

Further research should also be examined on the effects of disability training with large and small retailers. Small retailers, or retail locations in smaller communities, might be more familiar with their disabled consumers. Further research can therefore examine the relationship between familiarity with disabled customers' needs and utilization of deep acting skills.

If more access can be obtained from retailers, a qualitative study may also be conducted to assess the effectiveness of various training activities employees goes through during disability training and their impact on deep acting skills levels.

Conclusion

This study examines deep acting in retail disability service training and the extent training activities conducted before, during and after training influence employees' level of deep acting skills. By dividing participants into basic, perspective taking and positive refocus deep acting groupings based on their deep acting levels before undergoing training, the main findings of this study are:

- Disability training incorporating pre-training activities has no influence at any level of deep acting employed by retail workers.
- Disability training incorporating activities during training has a positive influence of deep acting employed by employees indicating retail organizations or managers are focusing their resources at this phase during training.
- A positive influence exists between training activities conducted after training and deep acting employed by employees whose deep acting levels fall under basic or positive refocus levels.

In summary, the findings from this study offer implications for retail managers and organizations to improve and provide effective disability training regimens for employees to develop their deep acting skills. In doing so, retailers can better serve disabled consumers and help increase their quality of life.

APPENDIX

Jobs Questionnaire

1) What is your gender?

- ☐ Male (1)
- ☐ Female (2)
- ☐ Other (3)

2) What is your age in years?

3) Do you currently work in a position in which you interact with customers on a regular basis in a retail environment?

- ☐ Yes (1)
- ☐ No (2)

4) How would you describe the degree of customer contact required in your position?

- ☐ Very High (1)
- ☐ High (2)
- ☐ Moderate (3)
- ☐ Low (4)
- ☐ Very Low (5)

5) Have you undergone disability training in your current position?

- ☐ Yes (1)
- ☐ No (2)

6) If you have answered yes to question three, how long have you worked at this position?

- ☐ 1-6 months (1)
- ☐ 7 months to 1 year (2)
- ☐ 1 year or more (3)

7) If you have answered yes to question three, please write your job title in the space below.

8) What retail category does the company you work for the majority of your customer contact experience fall under?

- ☐ Furniture & Home Furnishing (1)
- ☐ Electronics & Appliances (2)
- ☐ Home Improvement (3)
- ☐ Grocery/Food (4)
- ☐ Health & Personal Care (5)
- ☐ Clothing & Accessory (6)
- ☐ Sporting Goods, Hobby, Book & Music Stores (7)
- ☐ Department Stores (8)
- ☐ Variety & Dollar Stores (9)
- ☐ Office Supplies (10)
- ☐ Warehouse Clubs (11)

Pre-Training Deep Acting Questionnaire (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002)

9) On the average day at work, how frequently do you make an effort to actually feel the emotions that you need to display to others?

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

11) On the average day at work, how frequently do you really try to feel the emotions you have to show as part of your job?

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

14) On the average day at work, how frequently do you try to actually experience the emotions that you must show?

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

Training Activities Scale (Saks & Belcourt, 2006)

15) You are given advanced notification about training content prior to attending a disability training program.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

16) Your training needs are identified prior to a disability training program.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

17) You have a precourse discussion with your supervisors prior to attending a disability training program.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

18) You have input in decisions about the disability training program content and/or methods.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

19) You are given release time to prepare for a disability training program.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

20) Your supervisor discusses the content and benefits of a disability training program with you prior to a disability training program.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

21) Your supervisor participates in advance orientation or training sessions regarding the disability training program.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

22) Your supervisor set goals with you that focus on improving specific skills before you attend a disability training program.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

23) You have a choice as to whether or not you will attend any particular disability training program.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

24) Your attendance at a disability training program is mandatory.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

25) Employee from the same department or functional group as you are trained together on disability training.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

26) You are given preparatory reading prior to attending a disability training program.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

27) Disability training programs include activities or assignments that you are required to do before you arrive for the actual disability training program.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

28) Disability training programs provides you with training experiences and conditions (surroundings, tasks, equipment) that closely resemble those in the actual work environment.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

29) Disability training programs provides you with a variety of training stimuli and experiences, such as several examples of a concept, or practice experiences in a variety of situations.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

30) Disability training programs teach you the general rules and theoretical principles that underlie the training content and the use and application of the trained skills.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

31) You are given feedback and information about your performance of the training tasks and material during the disability training program.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

32) You are rewarded during training for learning and performing training material and tasks.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

33) You leave a disability training program with a written performance contract with goals to be achieved.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

34) Disability training programs prepare you to cope with obstacles or difficulties that might prevent them from successfully applying the training material when they return to the work environment.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

35) Your supervisor provides you with support to help you use newly acquired skills after attending a disability training program.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

36) Your supervisor ensures that you have the opportunities to practice and apply newly acquired knowledge and skills after attending a disability training program.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

37) Your supervisor praises or rewards you for using newly acquired skills developed in a disability training program.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

38) Some form of booster session is conducted as an extension of a disability training program in which the trainer meets with you.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

39) Efforts are made to ensure that you have the resources (tools, equipment, materials, supplies, etc.) that are necessary in order to apply the knowledge, skills, and/or abilities developed in disability training program.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

40) The performance appraisal system considers your use of knowledge, skills, and/or abilities acquired in disability training program.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

41) You are required to submit a post-training report after attending a disability training program.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

42) You are required to participate in an interview or discussion as part of a follow-up to a disability training program that you attended.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

43) You are paired with other co-workers following completion of a disability training program in order to assist each other by providing feedback and reinforcement to ensure you both use the skills developed in a disability training program.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

44) You are evaluated on your use of new skills or knowledge following completion of a disability training program.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

45) You are required to undergo assessment following completion of a training program in order to evaluate your learning.

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

Post-Training Deep Acting Questionnaire (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002)

46) On the average day at work, how frequently do you make an effort to actually feel the emotions that you need to display to others?

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

48) On the average day at work, how frequently do you really try to feel the emotions you have to show as part of your job?

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

51) On the average day at work, how frequently do you try to actually experience the emotions that you must show?

- ☐ Always (1)
- ☐ Often (2)
- ☐ Sometimes (3)
- ☐ Rarely (4)
- ☐ Never (5)

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