

https://dspace.org/

Predictors and behavioural outcome of personal loyalty dimensions in Johannesburg haircare service providers

Pamacheche, Rukudzo

2020
https://hdl.handle.net/10539/30410

Downloaded from a DSpace repository. https://dspace.org/

PREDICTORS AND BEHAVIOURAL OUTCOME OF PERSONAL LOYALTY DIMENSIONS IN JOHANNESBURG HAIRCARE SERVICE PROVIDERS

A thesis submitted by

Rukudzo Pamacheche
Student number: 698247

in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (PhD) in MARKETING

at the Commerce, Law and Management Faculty

at the

UNIVERSITY OF THE WITWATERSRAND

under the supervision of

Professor Helen Duh.

Johannesburg,

March, 2020

DECLARATION

I, Rukudzo Pamacheche, conscientiously declare the following regarding this manuscript:

- that this thesis, entitled *Predictors and behavioural outcome of personal loyalty dimensions in Johannesburg haircare service providers,* submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree Doctor of Philosophy in Marketing at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, is my own original work;
- that I have indicated and acknowledged the sources used and quoted herein by means of referencing using the Emerald – Harvard referencing style and
- that this thesis has not been submitted before for any other degree in any other institution.

Rukudzo Pamacheche
March 5th, 2020

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my mother, Dibora (affectionately *Amainini Dibo),* who was my first barber and hairdresser; my senior aunt, Angelina Murwisi, who anticipated me doing a PhD before I even considered it, and my father, Fudzai, who is the first true gentleman in my life. Your words and actions were sources of encouragement from the beginning of this project.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank and acknowledge everyone who made a unique contribution during this journey:

Above all, God Almighty – for the wisdom, strength and courage throughout this journey;

My parents, Fudzai and Dibora Pamacheche – for the continuous support and understanding;

My supervisor, Prof Helen Duh – for the guidance, patience and sense of humour;

The Wits Financial Aid and Scholarship Office – for financial support;

The Wits Graduate Support Division – for organising workshops, training sessions and much-needed writing retreats;

Sibongile Dhladhla, Tshepo Mohlakoane and Irma Watson – for the impeccable administrative support;

Mr Oluwayemisi Okunubi – for connecting me to the world of professional hairstyling and beyond;

Dr Archibold Buah-Kwofie – for the encouragement and advice at many stages of the journey;

Dr Oluwafemi Joshua Dele-Ijagbulu – for being a pillar of hope, especially in the final days;

My dear friend, Chipo Kowo – for emotional support and encouragement, and

My brothers and sisters, Rutendo, Rufaro, Togara, Tariro, Rumbidzai, Berth-scerri, Nyasha and Takashinga – for the comic relief during the doldrums of this journey and the faithful prayers.

ABSTRACT

The hairstyling service industry is attractive, fast growing and competitive. With its competition, hairstylists strive to secure personal loyal from their clients for their commission security and business sustainability. Some of the ways to develop personal loyalty are through good service quality, customer value provision and relationship building, in terms of customer satisfaction and personal-commercial friendship establishment. The mechanism by which these lead to reported dimensions of personal loyalty and other outcomes needed an integration of models for a comprehensive explanation. This study first determined the types of personal loyalties clients form with hairstylists. It then integrated elements of Bove and Johnson's (2002) model, Han, Kwortnik and Wang's (2008) model and the SERVQUAL model to examine a chain of service quality, customer value and relationship factors, which drive four dimensions of personal loyalty. It also examined how the dimensions of personal loyalty impact a client's willingness to pay a premium price because the extent to which customer loyalty leads to this outcome is rarely investigated. While Bove and Johnson's (2002) model suggests that trust and commitment are the service customer value drivers of personal loyalty, the SERVQUAL model provided other important service quality constructs which can drive personal loyalty. Han, Kwortnik and Wang's (2008) model suggests four dimensions of loyalty and provides their predictors, which include commercial friendship and customer satisfaction.

An integrated conceptual model proposing fourteen hypotheses was developed. To test it, a survey was conducted on 562 respondents who had maintained the same hairstylist for ten months in Johannesburg metropolis. The hypotheses were tested using partial least squares (PLS) structural equation modelling in SmartPLS3® software. The empirical results revealed that hairstylists' service quality attributes of service customisation, reliability and trustworthiness positively and significantly affected client satisfaction and attributed to 53% of its variance. Additionally, client satisfaction positively related to commercial friendship, which was explained by 49% variance. Commercial friendship positively impacted affective, intentional and behavioural personal loyalty dimensions and explained 40%, 36% and 35% of the variances respectively. Of the four dimensions of personal loyalty, only behavioural loyalty positively influenced the willingness to pay a premium price and explained 27.5% of the variance. Surprisingly, affective personal loyalty had a negative relationship with the willingness to pay a premium price. The effects of hairstylist mobility and relative advantage attributes, as well as cognitive personal loyalty, were inconclusive due to lack of reliability.

The study contributes to the loyalty theories by not only revealing the dimensions of personal loyalty applicable in the hairstyling service sector, but by also suggesting that the consequences of the dimensions are delimited to their respective domains. The findings also show the predictive power of commercial friendships and, therefore, the need for building such interpersonal relationships in personal services. Although the focus of this research was on personal loyalty, the findings can be useful to service firm managers. The findings show marketers and managers of haircare service firms how much and for what reasons clients value their service employees. The marketers can use these findings in their human resource management programs as well as for employee retention programs. Theoretically, this study contributes in the areas of customer relationship management, consumer behaviour and service marketing by exposing the drivers and outcomes of customer-to-employee relationship building and loyalty development. Unlike customer–to-business and business-to-business relationships that are commonly researched on, the customer-to-employee relationship building and loyalty is rarely studied.

It is recommended that mangers use this study's findings to enrich their internal marketing, customer-to-employee and, ultimately, customer-to-business relationship building strategies. Theoretically, the predictability of this study's model can be improved by further exploring other customer value and relationship building factors that boost clients' personal loyalty as well as its outcomes. This study examined only the willingness to pay a price premium as an outcome of the loyalty dimensions. Other outcomes, such as word-of-mouth, resistance to competitive pressure, increased profitability and lower marketing costs in relation to personal loyalty, should be also explored with further research.

Keywords: personal loyalty, hairstylist, commercial friendship, personal services

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page No.

CHAPTER 1: OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY 1

1.1. Introduction.....1

1.2. The Nature of the Haircare Services.....1

1.3. Research Problem 3

1.4. Research Objectives and Questions.....5

1.5. Preliminary Literature Review.....6

1.5.1. Relationship marketing: the Nordic school of thought and Commitment-trust theory ...7

1.5.2. Dimensions of personal loyalty in haircare services.....7

1.5.2.1. Cognitive loyalty.....8

1.5.2.2. Affective loyalty 8

1.5.2.3. Intention loyalty.....8

1.5.2.4. Behavioural loyalty.....9

1.6. Models Providing Predictors and Outcomes of Personal Loyalty.....9

1.6.1. Bove and Johnson's (2002) personal loyalty model.....9

1.6.2. The SERVQUAL model.....10

1.6.3. Han et al.'s (2008) model of service loyalty determinants 11

1.7. Development of Conceptual Model.....11

1.8. Research Methodology Adopted.....12

1.8.1. Philosophy – positivist and deductive.....12

1.8.2. Tactical design – survey and sampling strategies.....12

1.8.3. Data collection and analysis.....13

1.9. Contributions of the Study.....14

1.9.1. Theoretical 14

1.9.2. Practical.....14

1.10. Limitations of the Study....15
1.11. Structure of the Thesis....15
1.11.1. Chapter 1: Overview of the Study....15
1.11.2. Chapter 2: Players in the Global and South African Haircare Markets....15
1.11.3. Chapter 3: Drivers and Outcomes of Satisfaction....16
1.11.4. Chapter 4: Drivers, Dimensions and Outcome of Personal Loyalty....16
1.11.5. Chapter 5: Hypotheses and Conceptual Model Development....16
1.11.6. Chapter 6: Research Methodology and Design....16
1.11.7. Chapter 7: Data Analysis and Results....16
1.11.8. Chapter 8: Discussions, Conclusions and Recommendations....17
CHAPTER 2: PLAYERS IN THE GLOBAL AND SOUTH AFRICAN HAIRCARE INDUSTRY....18
2.1. Chapter Overview....18
2.2. Hairstyling and the Nature of Services in the Haircare Industry....18
2.3. The Prominence of Scientific Research About Hair....19
2.4. The Global Haircare Market....21
2.4.1. Europe: France – the capital of haute fashion....22
2.4.1.1. France's declining haircare market....23
2.4.2. North America: the USA – competitions and celebrity hairstyles....23
2.4.2.1. Value of the USA market....24
2.4.3. South America: Brazil – beauty, vibrancy and colour....25
2.4.3.1. Value of the Brazilian haircare market....25
2.5. Africa's Market of Haircare Products and Services....26
2.5.1. Nigeria – Africa's fastest growing haircare market....26
2.6. South Africa – Africa's Largest Haircare Market....27
2.7. Players in the South African Haircare Industry....28

2.7.1. Training and education 28
2.7.1.1. Professionalism through training 29
2.7.2. Labour relations 29
2.7.3. Manufacturers and service providers of haircare products and services 30
2.7.3.1. Haircare product companies and brands 31
2.7.3.2. Companies and brands catering for haircare services 32
2.7.4. Hairstylists as major players in the haircare services industry 33
2.7.4.1. Marketing challenges that hairstylists face 34
2.7.4.2. Competition between hairstylists 34
2.7.4.3. Female vs male hairstylist gender preferences 35
2.7.5. Haircare consumers 36
2.7.5.1. Children as consumers 36
2.7.5.2. Teenage consumers 36
2.7.5.3. Young adults and working professionals 37
2.7.5.4. Generations X and Y 37
2.8. Factors Likely to Influence Haircare Consumption and Choice of Hairstylists 38
2.8.1. Social expressions and cultures 38
2.8.2. Emotional needs 39
2.8.3. Frequency of visits to a hairstylist 39
2.8.4. Loyalty or retention programmes in South Africa 39
2.8.5. Loyalty programmes in the haircare industry 40
2.9. Conclusion 41
CHAPTER 3: THE DRIVERS AND OUTCOMES OF SATISFACTION 43
3.1. Introduction 43
3.2. Various Conceptualisations of Customer Satisfaction 43
3.2.1. Customer satisfaction defined from customer effort and expectation fulfilment 43

3.2.2. Defining customer satisfaction from pre-exposure, post-exposure and post-consumption evaluations 44

3.2.3. The American Customer Satisfaction Index (ACSI) conceptualisation of customer satisfaction 45

3.3. Theories and Models Explaining Drivers and Outcomes of Customer Satisfaction 46

3.3.1. Expectancy-disconfirmation model (EDM) 46

3.3.2. The value-percept disparity model 48

3.3.3. Understanding customer satisfaction from the two-factor (motivation-hygiene) theory 49

3.4. Service Quality Theories Explaining Customer Satisfaction With Services 50

3.4.1. Measuring customer satisfaction with services using the Nordic model 51

3.4.2. Service quality dimensions using the SERVQUAL model 52

3.4.2.1. Reliability 52

3.4.2.2. Assurance 53

3.4.2.3. Tangibles 53

3.4.2.4. Empathy 54

3.4.2.5. Responsiveness 54

3.4.2.6. Criticisms of the SERVQUAL model in explaining customer satisfaction 55

3.5. The Study of Customer Satisfaction in Various Fields 56

3.5.1. Assessment of customer satisfaction in the retail sector 56

3.5.2. Customer satisfaction in the hospitality sector 57

3.5.3. Characteristics and customer satisfaction in personal services 58

3.5.3.1. Differences in types and levels of client-employee contact 59

3.5.3.2. Differences in terms of people and process management 61

3.5.3.3. Prevalence of co-creation in personal services 62

3.6. Client Satisfaction in the Haircare Sector 63

3.6.1. Definition of haircare services 63

3.6.2. Understanding satisfaction via the three-stage model of service consumption 64

3.6.2.1. Pre-purchase stage 64
3.6.2.2. Service encounter stage 65
3.6.2.3. Post-encounter stage 66
3.6.3. Is commercial friendship one of the outcomes of customer satisfaction? 66
3.6.3.1. Benefits of commercial friendship 68
3.6.3.2. Detriments of commercial friendship 69
3.7. Conclusion 69
CHAPTER 4: DRIVERS, DIMENSIONS AND OUTCOME OF PERSONAL LOYALTY 71
4.1. Introduction 71
4.2. Various Conceptualisations of Loyalty 71
4.2.1. A conceptualisation of loyalty – an expression of devotion (repurchase behaviour) 71
4.2.1.1. Criticisms of the conceptualisation of loyalty in terms of repurchase behaviour 72
4.2.2. The conceptualisation of loyalty according to types 73
4.2.2.1. Behavioural loyalty 73
4.2.2.2. Attitudinal loyalty 75
4.2.3. Phases in the development of loyalty 75
4.2.3.1. The cognitive phase of loyalty development 76
4.2.3.2. The affective phase of loyalty development 77
4.2.3.3. Conative loyalty phase of loyalty development 78
4.2.3.4. Action loyalty phase of loyalty development 79
4.2.4. Loyalty and retention programmes 79
4.3. Conceptualisation of Loyalty in Terms of Devotion to Objects 83
4.3.1. Loyalty to a country of origin and religious affiliation 83
4.3.2. Loyalty to price range and quantity 84
4.3.3. Loyalty to service employees 85

4.4. What is Personal Loyalty? 86
4.4.1. Propensity of personal loyalty to hairstylists 87
4.4.2. Dimensions of personal loyalty in haircare services 88
4.4.2.1. Cognitive personal loyalty to a hairstylist 89
4.4.2.2. Affective personal loyalty to a hairstylist 90
4.4.2.3. Intention personal loyalty to a hairstylist 91
4.4.2.4. Behavioural personal loyalty to a hairstylist 91
4.4.3. Drivers and consequences of personal loyalty 92
4.4.3.1. Client satisfaction as a driver of personal loyalty 92
4.4.3.2. Employee characteristics that can influence personal loyalty 92
4.4.3.3. Negative consequences of personal loyalty to a hairstylist 93
4.4.3.4. Positive consequences of personal loyalty 94
4.5. Conclusion 96
CHAPTER 5: DEVELOPMENT OF HYPOTHESES AND CONCEPTUAL MODEL 97
5.1. Introduction 97
5.2. Bove and Johnson's (2002) Model of Drivers and Outcome of Personal Loyalty 97
5.3. Han et al.'s (2008) Integrative Model of Service Loyalty Determinants 98
5.4. Operationalisation of the Studied Constructs and Development of Hypotheses 99
5.4.1. Operational definitions of constructs 99
5.4.2. Development of Hypotheses 100
5.4.2.1. Reliability and client satisfaction 100
5.4.2.2. Trustworthiness and client satisfaction 101
5.4.2.3. Mobility of hairstylist and client satisfaction 102
5.4.2.4. Service customisation and client satisfaction 103
5.4.2.5. Relative advantage and client satisfaction 103
5.4.2.6. Client satisfaction and commercial friendship 104

5.4.2.7. Commercial friendship and personal loyalty dimensions 105
5.4.2.8. Personal loyalty dimensions and willingness to pay premium price 106
5.5. Conceptual Model Developed From Hypotheses 107
5.6. Conclusion 108
CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN 110
6.1. Introduction: The "Research Onion" Process 110
6.2. Research Philosophy 111
6.2.1. Axiology – ethical, legal and practical values 111
6.2.2. Ontology – validating new knowledge 112
6.2.3. Epistemology – determining acceptable knowledge 112
6.2.4. Interpretivist paradigm – subjective interpretation 113
6.2.5. Positivism – the preferred philosophy 113
6.3. Research Approaches for Developing New Knowledge 114
6.3.1. Inductive approach – generating theory 115
6.3.2. Deductive approach – testing theories 115
6.4. Research Strategy – Practical Design Considerations 116
6.4.1. Experimental versus non-experimental designs 117
6.4.2. Survey strategy 118
6.4.2.1. Sampling design – sampling process 118
6.5. Mono-method Choice and Cross-sectional Time Horizon 123
6.6. Primary Data Collection Techniques and Procedures 124
6.6.1. Data collection instrument – designing the self-administered questionnaire 124
6.6.1.1. Layout of the questionnaire 125
6.6.1.2. Synopsis of the Likert scale 125
6.6.1.3. Measurement scales used for research constructs 126
6.7. Data Analysis Procedures Followed 131

6.7.1. Descriptive statistics 131
6.7.2. Inferential statistics – an overview of SEM 131
6.7.2.1. Two approaches to SEM – CB vs PLS 132
6.7.2.2. Options of statistical software for SEM 133
6.7.3. Measurement model assessment 133
6.7.3.1. CFA procedure for SEM 133
6.7.3.2. Test of reliability using Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (CR) 134
6.7.3.3. Test of validity using convergent and discriminant validities 135
6.7.3.4. Model-fit tests – SRMR, NFI and Chi^2 137
6.7.4. SEM – Structural model assessment 138
6.7.4.1. Path analysis 139
6.7.4.2. Hypothesis testing 139
6.7.4.3. Model fit 140
6.8. Conclusion 140
CHAPTER 7: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS 142
7.1. Introduction 142
7.2. Descriptive Statistics 142
7.2.1. Respondent profile 142
7.2.2. Response distributions per construct 144
7.2.2.1. Reliability construct 144
7.2.2.2. Trustworthiness 144
7.2.2.3. Hairstylist's mobility 145
7.2.2.4. Service customisation 146
7.2.2.5. Relative advantage 146
7.2.2.6. Client satisfaction 147
7.2.2.7. Commercial friendship 148

7.2.2.8. Personal loyalty dimensions 148
7.3. Inferential Statistics from PLS-SEM Analyses 152
7.3.1. Measurement model assessment 152
7.3.1.1. Reliability and convergent validity 155
7.3.1.2. Discriminant validity: Fornell-Larcker and the HTMT criteria 157
7.3.2. Structural model assessment 159
7.3.2.1. Hypotheses testing 159
7.3.2.2. Model predictability accuracy 160
7.4. Summary of empirical findings 161
7.5. Conclusion 163
CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 165
8.1. Introduction 165
8.2. Attainment of Theoretical Objectives From the Preceding Chapters 165
8.3. Relationships That Were Excluded From Data Analysis 166
8.3.1. Relationship between mobility and client satisfaction (H3) 166
8.3.2. Relationship between relative advantage and client satisfaction (H5) 167
8.3.3. Relationships involving cognitive personal loyalty (H7 and H11) 167
8.4. Tested Relationships Between Reliable and Valid Constructs 167
8.4.1. Relationship between hairstylists' reliability and client satisfaction (H1) 168
8.4.2. Relationship between trustworthiness and client satisfaction (H2) 168
8.4.3. Relationship between service customisation and client satisfaction (H4) 169
8.4.4. Relationship between client satisfaction and commercial friendship (H6) 170
8.4.5. Relationship between commercial friendship and affective personal loyalty (H8) 170
8.4.6. Relationship between commercial friendship and intention personal loyalty (H9) 171
8.4.7. The relationship between commercial friendship and behavioural personal loyalty (H10) 172
8.4.8. The relationship between intention personal loyalty and willingness to pay a premium

price (H13) 173

8.4.9. The relationship between behavioural personal loyalty and willingness to pay a premium price (H14) 173

8.4.10. Conclusions on the extent to which the empirical questions were answered 174

8.5. Contributions of the Study 175

8.5.1. Theoretical contributions 175

8.5.2. Practical contributions 177

8.5.2.1. Service customisation enhances client satisfaction 177

8.5.2.2. Commercial friendships are the link to personal loyalty 178

8.5.2.3. Behavioural loyalty is vital for financial gain 178

8.6. Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Future Research 179

8.6.1. Limitations of the study 179

8.6.2. Recommendations for future research 180

8.6.2.1. Theoretical implications 180

8.6.2.2. Practical implications 180

REFERENCES 183

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1: Conceptualisations of loyalty as an expression of devotion (the 1950s – 2000s) ..81

Table 5.1: Operational definitions of constructs 100

Table 5.2: Summary of hypotheses 108

Table 6.1: Determining sample size 123

Table 6.2: Reliability construct items 126

Table 6.3: Mobility construct items 127

Table 6.4: Service customisation construct items 127

Table 6.5: Relative advantage construct items 128

Table 6.6: Client satisfaction construct items 128

Table 6.7: Commercial friendship construct items 129

Table 6.8: Personal loyalty construct items 129

Table 6.9: Willingness to pay premium price construct items 130

Table 6.10: Summary of measurement model assessment criteria 138

Table 6.11: Statistical significance tests criteria 139

Table 6.12: Summary of research process followed 140

Table 7.1: Respondent profile 143

Table 7.2: Recap of hypotheses 153

Table 7.3: Recap of measurement model assessment criteria 153

Table 7.4: Reliability and convergent validity results 155

Table 7.5: Fornell-Larcker criterion (√AVE > correlations) 158

Table 7.6: HTMT ratios of correlations (HTMT < 1).....158

Table 7.7: Statistical significance tests criteria.....159

Table 7.8: Hypotheses testing path analysis results.....159

Table 7.9: Variance explained of the dependent constructs: R^2 and Adjusted R^2.....160

Table 7.10: Summary of the empirical research objectives and results.....162

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Hair texture groups 20

Figure 2.2: Cross-sections of hair types 20

Figure 2.3: Images of hairstyles named after celebrities 24

Figure 2.4: Company shares of the retail haircare market (2013 - 2016) 31

Figure 2.5: Company shares in haircare services (2013 – 2016) 32

Figure 2.6: Images of street hairstylists in Johannesburg market spaces 35

Figure 3.1: Five-dimensional RSQS model from which customer satisfaction is judged 56

Figure 3.2: Integrating levels and types of client contact with service providers 60

Figure 5.1: Bove and Johnson's (2002) personal loyalty model 97

Figure 5.2: Han et al. (2008) model of service loyalty determinants 98

Figure 6.1: The research onion 110

Figure 6.2: The deduction process 116

Figure 6.3: The sampling process 119

Figure 6.4: Map of Johannesburg Metropolitan City and its Suburbs 120

Table 6.5: Trustworthiness construct items 126

Figure 6.6: Path diagram representing a reflective theoretical model 134

Figure 6.7: Composite reliability formula 135

Figure 6.8: Average variance extracted 136

Figure 7.1: Reliability response distribution and the mean 144

Figure 7.2: Trustworthiness response distribution and mean 145

Figure 7.3: Mobility response distribution and mean 145

Figure 7.4: Service customisation responses distribution and mean 146

Figure 7.5: Relative advantage response distribution and mean..... 147

Figure 7.6: Client satisfaction response distribution and mean 147

Figure 7.7: Commercial friendship response distribution and mean 148

Figure 7.8: Cognitive personal loyalty response distribution and mean..... 149

Figure 7.9: Affective personal loyalty response distribution and mean 149

Figure 7.10: Intention personal loyalty response distribution and mean 150

Figure 7.11: Behavioural personal loyalty response distribution and mean 151

Figure 7.12: Willingness to pay premium price response distribution 151

Figure 7.13: CFA model with R^2 values 154

CHAPTER 1: OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1. Introduction

This thesis presents a study on a topic that embodies customer value provision and relationship building in the personal haircare services industry, all with the aim of achieving personal loyalty to individual hairstylists. In particular, it examines the extent to which certain customer value and relationship factors drive various dimensions of personal loyalty and how the dimensions of personal loyalty, in turn, impact clients' willingness to pay higher prices. This chapter provides an overview of the study in terms of the research context, research problem, objectives, preliminary literature review and methodology adopted for the study. Research contributions and limitations are also briefly discussed, followed by an outline of the structure of the thesis.

1.2. The Nature of the Haircare Services

Globally, the haircare services industry boasts of annual revenues of almost US$160 billion, with key brands like L'Oreal and Garnier Nutrisse being the dominant professional haircare service providers in South Africa (Euromonitor International, 2016a; Research First, 2016). Haircare services in South African account for almost 14% of the market and demand is expected to increase as researchers forecast a 1.36% compound annual growth rate (CAGR) and the value to reach US$496.64 million by the year 2024 (Euromonitor International, 2016a; Mordor Intelligence, 2019). This makes the market one of the largest in Africa and has attracted global attention from industry participants (Diagonal Reports, 2011), even though South African studies lack academic literature on the factors that drive high demand and growth in the haircare service industry. It also presents an opportunity for academic research to provide insights and fill the knowledge gap pertaining to literature on the subject.

Haircare services are highly personalised, require creativity, appeal to personal grooming, play an important role in shaping physical image and affect identity, amongst other personal aspects (Lowe, 2016). Close and personal interactions between hairstylists and their clients help to achieve these and they result in both individuals developing intimate employee-client commercial relationships with each other (Bove and Johnson, 2002; Brown III and Beale, 2008; Fernbach, 2016; Laeti, 2015; Price and Arnould, 1999). Although customer relationship management (CRM) approaches are strategically designed to monitor customer experience

from transactions and interfaces, they still cannot capture the social element or intimacy between employees and clients working closely together in real time (Buttle and Maklan, 2019; Kumar and Reinartz, 2018). Since clients visit the same hairstylists for consistent results, one-to-one relationships are prevalent in this industry.

Australian and American haircare researchers developed an interest in the study of the relationships between hairstylists and clients (Barrie, 2015; Bove and Johnson, 2002; Brown III and Beale, 2008; Cohen, 2008; Harrison-Walker, 2000). The findings show that, in this industry, a good rapport between a client and a hairstylist is critical for the profitability and continuation of the haircare service business. Furthermore, nurturing the unique personal relationships between hairstylists and clients points to the relevance and significance of one-to-one relationships that Gronroos (2011, 2019) considers as necessary to understand the context of personal services. Although one-to-one relationships are often overlooked in marketing literature as the focus tends to be on one-to-many relationships between a business and many customers or business-to-business relationships, Kumar and Reinartz (2018) suggest that future CRM approaches will incorporate social elements of business relationships to enhance customer experience.

Some hairstylist-client relationships develop to the extent that the stylist knows the client's personal details, hair texture, haircare regimens, favourite hairstyle and even what the client does for a living (Barrie, 2015; Brown III and Beale, 2008; Lowe, 2016). While the hairstylist attends to a client's hair, the client's experience is enhanced as they both engage in informal conversation and share social opinions such that they form a personal-commercial friendship (Fernbach, 2016; Laeti, 2015; Lowe, 2016). Bove and Johnson (2002), Brown III and Beale (2008) and Fernbach (2016) suggest that this intimate relationship may result in customer loyalty to a specific hairstylist and not the service firm. This suggests that a client's loyalty to a hair salon may differ conceptually and practically to loyalty developed towards a hairstylist. The intensity of a client-hairstylist relationship is usually stronger and results in personal loyalty, which Salegna and Fazel (2011, p. 44) define as "a customer's commitment and desire to do business with an employee of a service organisation." Bearing in mind the organisational implications of one-to-one business relationships and the resultant personal loyalty, for example, residual loyalty due to a hairstylist's association with a firm or non-solicitation clauses against hairstylists (Alberino, 2016; Fijman, 2017; MacLeman, 2017; Ward et al., 2016), this research was motivated to investigate the drivers and benefits of personal loyalty.

While Salegna and Fazel (2011) view satisfaction and emotional commitment as important determinants of personal service loyalty, Han, Kwortnik and Wang (2008) contend that different types of personal service loyalty should first be examined. With knowledge of the types of personal loyalty that clients develop, Han et al. (2008) make further recommendations for an integrative conceptual model that can determine the various drivers of loyalty. Han et al. (2008) propose that the integrative model should have a system of three paths of service loyalty determinants and outcomes. Path 1 is recommended to be quality/value/satisfaction constructs, path 2 to be relationship quality constructs and path 3 to be relational benefits constructs. This study adopts Han et al.'s (2008) approach to develop an integrative conceptual model, which delineates the system of relationships of constructs driving four dimensions of personal loyalty in a haircare service context. The four dimensions of personal loyalty that were initially conceptualised by Oliver (1999) are cognitive, affective, intention and behavioural dimensions.

1.3. Research Problem

Customer loyalty has often been studied as a behavioural outcome mediated by customer satisfaction (Andaleeb, 1996; Casidy and Wymer, 2016; Niraj and Jaiswal, 2011). However, specific drivers and dimensions of customer loyalty in various types of industries remain debatable. This is evidenced by views that loyalty is driven by lack of alternatives and demand for convenience (Melnyk, 2014; Wan, 2018), favourable prices (Blut et al., 2015), retention programmes (Jiang, Nevskaya, et al., 2016; Reinartz and Eisenbeiss, 2015) or religious affiliation (Banan, 2013). There is also a modest appreciation of the outcomes of loyalty, with researchers treating customer loyalty as the final outcome of marketing activities, consumer behaviour and customer relationship marketing (Bove and Johnson, 2009; Gremler and Brown, 1998; Hegner-Kakar et al., 2018; Salegna and Fazel, 2011). Furthermore, the acknowledgement of personal loyalty to a hairstylist rather than a salon is rarely observed in academic research, despite its prevalence in practice (Alberino, 2016; Bove and Johnson, 2009; Cohen, 2010a; Fijman, 2017; Harrison-Walker, 2000). There is, therefore, a need for research to update the literature in services marketing to reflect personal loyalty as a construct in personal service contexts.

Even though monitoring customer satisfaction and retention during employee-customer interactions is crucial for maintaining marketing relationships, the focus of the relationships has largely been assessed in terms of business-to-customer and business-to-business

relationships (Buttle and Maklan, 2019; Chow and Holden, 1997; Friman et al., 2002; Gronroos, 2011; Kumar and Reinartz, 2018; Morgan and Hunt, 1994). There has been limited consideration of the relationships where an employee and customer interact closely, such as in high-contact interactions between a hairstylist and a client. The perspective of the Nordic school of thought asserts that it is important for research in services marketing to innovate its concepts in order to remain relevant and portray the true contexts of services (Gronroos, 2011, 2019; Gronroos and Gummesson, 2012; Kowalkowski, 2015). Hence, a one-to-one business relationship between a client and employee is the type of relationship that is likely to lead to personal loyalty (Bove and Johnson, 2002; Harrison-Walker, 2000; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016).

Bove and Johnson (2002, 2009) appreciate that personal loyalty differs from service provider loyalty in haircare services and examine how trust and commitment lead to personal loyalty. However, they overlooked client satisfaction as a predictor of personal loyalty while Selegna and Fazel (2011) and the commitment-trust theory of relationship marketing consider satisfaction as one of the key determinants of loyalty. While Bove and Johnson (2002) examine two important drivers of personal loyalty (trust and commitment), there are other customer value factors which were not examined and, as suggested by the Nordic school of thought (Gronroos, 2019, 2019; Gronroos and Gummesson, 2012; Kowalkowski, 2015), may be necessary for providing more truth about drivers of personal loyalty in haircare service contexts.

The SERVQUAL model developed by Parasuraman, Zeithalm and Berry (1988) provides a number of customer value factors that have been applied vastly across different service contexts to assess the satisfaction of service quality (Galeeva, 2016; Kasiri et al., 2017; Meesala and Paul, 2018; Ogba and Izogo, 2015; Stefano et al., 2015). Examining service quality constructs such as reliability, assurance, tangibles, empathy and responsiveness (RATER dimensions of SERVQUAL), the SERVQUAL model determines the level of satisfaction by analysing the perception gaps between clients' expectations and experiences of service quality. However, the use of gap analysis restricts the measurement of customer satisfaction to a disconfirmation method. More so, there are other variables beyond the RATER dimensions with more relevance in haircare service contexts that determine customer satisfaction (Chen, 2015; Cohen, 2010a; Han et al., 2008). It is necessary to consider more relevant variables so that theoretical contributions of the study reflect the true context of haircare services and the sources of customer equity (Gronroos, 2019; Gronroos and Gummesson, 2012; Kowalkowski, 2015;

Reinartz and Eisenbeiss, 2015). Some of these constructs are relative advantage (Chen, 2015), hairstylist mobility (Cohen, 2008, 2010a; Sweet, 2011) and customised service (Coelho and Henseler, 2012). The constructs do not only impact different states of loyalty but can also drive customer satisfaction through commercial friendships (Han et al., 2008; Laeti, 2015; Meyers, 2012; Price and Arnould, 1999). This is also important for academic literature in services and relationship marketing to incorporate ideas of constructs from practical sources (Barrie, 2015; Laeti, 2015; Lowe, 2016; Meyers, 2012; Milady, 2016).

Wirtz and Lovelock (2016, p. 66) state that consumers go through three phases when they consume services: pre-encounter, encounter and post-encounter phases. While studies have considered loyalty, limited research has examined the outcomes of loyalty, more so, personal loyalty (Bove and Johnson, 2009; Casidy and Wymer, 2016). Wirtz and Lovelock (2016) assert that a haircare client's post-encounter and future intentions can influence and be influenced by loyalty. Since hairstylists may be predisposed to financial, social and other benefits of personal loyalty, this study also investigates willingness to pay a premium price as an outcome of personal loyalty.

Having gone through the nature of haircare services and research problem, it is necessary to point out, once again, the knowledge gap and justification of this study. Although one-to-one relationships and personal loyalty are the most prevalent types of business relationships and loyalty between clients and hairstylists in practice (Barrie, 2015; Bove and Johnson, 2000; Cohen, 2010a; Laeti, 2015; Meyers, 2012), they are often overshadowed by business-to-business or business-to-customer relationships in services marketing research (Buttle and Maklan, 2019; Kumar and Reinartz, 2018; Nyadzayo and Khajehzadeh, 2016). In support of the perspective of the Nordic school of thought, researchers highlight the importance of continuously developing literature to reflect the true context of marketing (Gronroos, 2011, 2019; Gronroos and Gummesson, 2012; Kowalkowski, 2015). There is, therefore, a need for research to incorporate relevant constructs pertaining to haircare services and examine personal loyalty as a result of one-to-one relationships between clients and hairstylists, hairstylists' attributes and client satisfaction, as well as willingness to pay a premium price as an outcome of that loyalty. The objectives of the research are provided in the next section.

1.4. Research Objectives and Questions

The primary objective of this research was to determine the dimensions of personal loyalty that

clients form in client-hairstylist relationships due to a chain of customer value and relationship factors which are considered as predictors of personal loyalty to a hairstylist. The study also examined a post-loyalty outcome: the willingness to pay a premium price. To achieve the primary objective, the following theoretical and empirical secondary objectives had to be achieved.

The theoretical objectives were to:

- evaluate the scope and contributions of the haircare market in South Africa, Africa and globally;
- explore literature, theories and models suggesting the predictors and important outcomes of four dimensions of personal loyalty to hairstylists;
- develop a conceptual model, which delineates the relationships between customer value factors of the hairstylist (reliability, trustworthiness, mobility, relative advantage and customised service), client satisfaction, commercial friendship (relational factors), four personal loyalty dimensions (cognitive, affective, intention and behavioural) and a willingness to pay a premium price (a post-loyalty outcome);
- describe a suitable methodology for carrying out the research, analysing, interpreting and reporting results of the research, to fulfil empirical objectives, and
- discuss results, draw conclusions, describe contributions and make recommendations, based on the research findings.

The empirical objectives were to test and estimate the relationships between the following groups of constructs:

- customer value factors and client satisfaction;
- client satisfaction and commercial friendship;
- commercial friendship and four personal loyalty dimensions;
- four personal loyalty dimensions and client willingness to pay a premium price.

1.5. Preliminary Literature Review

The preliminary literature review provides an overview of the theoretical grounding of the research, constructs and hypotheses developed from the theories and models that underpin the research.

1.5.1. Relationship marketing: the Nordic school of thought and Commitment-trust theory

Relationship marketing involves marketing activities centred on developing and maintaining communication and relations with customers beyond sales transactions, intrusive advertising and promotional messages (Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Tonder and Petzer, 2018; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). Morgan and Hunt (1994) conceptualised relationship marketing into the commitment-trust theory and established that commitment and trust between the firm's employees and customers are both critical for maintaining marketing relationships. Although the theory has been applied largely to business-to-customer and business-to-business relationships, the theory's relevance points to the importance of managing relationships by monitoring customer satisfaction in customer-employee relationships as well (Goo and Huang, 2008; Hashim and Tan, 2015).

Interactions between employees and customers constitute the essence of a service encounter, therefore relationships between employees and clients are critical (Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). In some services, such as haircare, intimacy affects the relationship between an individual employee and individual client, which may lead to personal loyalty if the client is repeatedly satisfied (Bove and Johnson, 2009; Salegna and Fazel, 2011). This personal loyalty derived from individual employee-client relationships can take the form of four dimensions.

1.5.2. Dimensions of personal loyalty in haircare services

In haircare services, a hairstylist is responsible for attending to a client's haircare needs and this creates most of the value delivered to the client (Bove and Johnson, 2002; Lowe, 2016). The client's satisfaction with the hairstylist's services, therefore, becomes a key determinant of the client's decision to develop and continue a commercial relationship with the hairstylist. For this reason, loyalty is attributed directly to the hairstylist, who is performing the services, and indirectly to the hair salon, which employs the hairstylist (Bove and Johnson, 2002; Salegna and Fazel, 2011).

Bove and Johnson (2002, p. 24) and Salegna & Fazel (2011, p. 44) define personal loyalty as a customer's favourable attitude and commitment towards a service employee relative to their attitude and commitment towards other service employees, or even the service provider. Research is steadily appreciating the differences between loyalty to service firms and loyalty to service employees (Chai et al., 2015; Chen, 2015; Kasiri et al., 2017; Newell et al., 2011),

and that personal loyalty is more prominent in the haircare services industry (Bove and Johnson, 2009; Harrison-Walker, 2000; Salegna and Fazel, 2011). The personal loyalty that clients develop towards their preferred hairstylists may be more influential than loyalty developed towards service firms. Oliver (1999) and Han et al. (2008) suggest four dimensions of loyalty which can be developed towards a person or brand and these are described in the next subsection.

1.5.2.1. Cognitive loyalty

Definitions of loyalty acknowledge the psychological and process or behavioural components of loyalty (Cossio-Silva et al., 2016; Dick and Basu, 1994; Melnyk, 2014). However, Oliver (1999, p. 35) distinguishes sequential phases of loyalty that customers experience. The first is cognitive loyalty, which is the thought or belief that a customer is committed to a brand or person, even without experiencing the brand (Yuksel et al., 2010, p. 277). The customer's beliefs or cognitive loyalty may be weakened by strong verbalised competitive threats. Continual satisfaction from a person or brand may, however, lead to the next tier of loyalty, which is affective loyalty.

1.5.2.2. Affective loyalty

A customer shows affective loyalty through favourable emotions and attitudes towards a person or brand, based on the customer's satisfaction with the brand or person (Han et al., 2011, p. 4; Melnyk et al., 2009; Oliver, 1999, p. 35). In order to achieve affective loyalty, intimacy and commitment to continue a cohesive relationship are required from both the client and employee (Melnyk et al., 2009). In this case, once the emotional attachment has developed, the client may be more inclined to perceive and appreciate the benefit of committing to the relationship, as well as the potential risks of discontinuing or beginning a similar relationship with another hairstylist (Han et al., 2008). However, satisfaction from the relationship has a high potential of leading to the client's desire to commit, otherwise known as intention loyalty.

1.5.2.3. Intention loyalty

The customer's motivation to repurchase or revisit a firm and communicate to others about their support and preference for the firm constitutes intention loyalty (Han et al., 2008, p. 3; Oliver, 1999, p. 35). In haircare services, a client's continual satisfaction, as well as strengthened perceptions and emotions about the relationship, motivate the client to show their

commitment to the hairstylist (Bove and Johnson, 2009). Through intention loyalty, a client registers their intention to revisit their preferred hairstylist; however, the act of actually revisiting depends on their satisfaction within the client-hairstylist relationship. A client's desire to remain committed leads them to physically display their loyalty and translate it into behavioural loyalty (Han et al., 2011; Salegna and Fazel, 2011).

1.5.2.4. Behavioural loyalty

Behavioural loyalty, also known as inertia or action loyalty, is expressed when customers activate their intention to revisit or repurchase a brand (Han et al., 2011, p. 3; Oliver, 1999, p. 36). This suggests that, while clients have numerous options of hairstylists, their experience with one hairstylist in the commercial relationship greatly determines whether or not they act on their intentions to revisit the same hairstylist (Bove and Johnson, 2002). The decision to repurchase and commit to the hairstylist is, therefore, a result of the strength of the relationship that is underpinned by continual satisfaction.

Salons gain cognitive, affective, intention and behavioural loyalty indirectly through their clients' personal loyalty to hairstylists. Although each loyalty dimension has its advantages, behavioural loyalty is the most preferred because it is easier for firms to measure and anticipate, and it represents a positive visible outcome for the service providers. This was observed by Bove and Johnson (2002), who found that a client's intention to follow a hairstylist if they relocate from the salon was determined by personal loyalty. What drives personal loyalty, especially in the haircare service industry, is an ongoing question, hence the purpose of this study. Different models were studied to determine the predictors and outcome of personal loyalty.

1.6. Models Providing Predictors and Outcomes of Personal Loyalty

The study referred to three models that helped to explain various predictors and outcome of loyalty. Brief discussions are provided in the next paragraphs.

1.6.1. Bove and Johnson's (2002) personal loyalty model

Bove and Johnson (2002) derived the concept of personal loyalty from the commitment-trust theory (Morgan and Hunt, 1994) and establish that personal loyalty in haircare services is attributed to a client's trust and commitment to a hairstylist. Although they found that trust and commitment interact positively with personal loyalty, research suggests that commitment is

often regarded as a substitute for loyalty (Chen, 2015). Furthermore, in Bove and Johnson's (2002) model, the mediating role of client satisfaction, which Salegna and Fazel (2011) suggest is an important driver of true loyalty, was not considered. Of the many functional attributes that clients seek in a hairstylist, Bove and Johnson's (2002) model examined only two factors (trust and commitment).

Although Bove and Johnson (2002, 2009) understand that personal loyalty results in operational inflexibility in hair salons because clients prefer certain hairstylists, there is more to learn by examining the effects of client-hairstylist relationships as this is potentially the source of loyalty. Nonetheless, the model considers one outcome of personal loyalty, which is a client's intention to follow a hairstylist if the hairstylist relocates to a different hair salon. Bove and Johnson (2002). In doing so, they, therefore, acknowledge that loyalty is not necessarily always a final outcome of marketing activities, thereby motivating this research to consider other outcomes, such as client willingness to pay premium prices (Anselmsson et al., 2014).

1.6.2. The SERVQUAL model

Parasuraman et al.'s (1988) SERVQUAL model measures client satisfaction by comparing clients' service quality expectations to actual experiences using the RATER dimensions. Despite criticism for using a disconfirmation approach, the use of multidimensional constructs has been helpful for developing scales in different service contexts (Hong et al., 2008; Cronin and Taylor, 1994; Stefano et al., 2015). After using the RATER scale to assess client satisfaction, Harrison-Walker's (2000, p. 38) findings suggest that, in haircare, reliability, assurance, empathy and responsiveness are inherently different from tangibility. Moreover, while tangibility is attributed to the physical environment of a hair salon, the other four dimensions are attributed to hairstylists, and therefore measure satisfaction with hairstylists. Although Harrison-Walker (2000) successfully examined commonalities between the RATER dimensions in haircare, value factors peculiar in haircare services were neglected. A hairstylist's ability to customise services, work in different locations and compete against other hairstylists are relevant in haircare (Chen, 2015; Cohen, 2010a; Gwinner et al., 2005; Lowe, 2016; Milady, 2016). For a more inclusive study, it was, therefore, necessary to include service customisation, mobility and relative advantage as dimensions of haircare service quality that affect satisfaction.

1.6.3. Han et al.'s (2008) model of service loyalty determinants

Han et al. (2008) advocate for a comprehensive framework for determining consumer loyalty in different service settings and developed a conceptual model that incorporates customer value, service quality, client satisfaction, quality of client-service provider relationships and Oliver's (1999) four loyalty dimensions. This model does not only consider the importance of customer satisfaction as one of many mediators for determining loyalty but also recommends other drivers of satisfaction such as trust, service quality and commercial friendship. Although it is integrative, the model reflects the sequence of variables leading to loyalty for many service contexts, many of which do not emphasise individual employee-client relationships. Despite this, Han et al. (2008) provide an inclusive examination of determinants of loyalty, as well as the sequential achievement of Oliver's (1999) loyalty dimensions. It was, therefore, necessary to choose some of Han's (2008) loyalty determinants that are peculiar to haircare services for more relevance (Cohen, 2008; Lowe, 2016; Milady, 2016). After exploring the literature and the selected models and justifying the potential relationships between different constructs, a conceptual model was developed.

1.7. Development of Conceptual Model

Following the various predictors and outcomes of personal loyalty, a comprehensive model anchored by Bove and Johnson's (2002) predictive model for personal loyalty, Parasuraman et al.'s (1988) SERVQUAL dimensions of service quality and Han et al.'s (2008) service loyalty determinants, an integrative conceptual model was developed. The aim was to incorporate variables relevant to haircare services to study how customer values and employee-client relationships impact personal loyalty dimensions. Customer value factors assessed by clients to achieve satisfaction comprised of reliability, trustworthiness, hairstylist mobility, service customisation and relative advantage. The relationship factors were customer satisfaction, commercial friendship, four dimensions of loyalty and the willingness to pay a premium price, as suggested by relationship marketing and loyalty theories (Han et al., 2011; Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Oliver, 1999; Price and Arnould, 1999).

The conceptual model posited that hairstylists' reliability, trustworthiness, mobility, service customisation and relative advantage would positively impact client satisfaction, a positive driver of commercial friendship. The commercial friendship was hypothesised to positively influence the cognitive, affective, intention and behavioural personal loyalty dimensions,

which in turn were postulated to be drivers of clients' willingness to pay a premium prices. The conceptual model was tested by employing the research methods discussed in the next section

1.8. Research Methodology Adopted

The study was carried out in Johannesburg metropolis - South Africa to capture the clients' views pertaining to factors driving their personal loyalty to their hairstylists. The methodology was structured according to the research onion process developed by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012). The research onion organises research methodology into philosophical, tactical and practical components and provides alternative designs in each component.

1.8.1. Philosophy – positivist and deductive

Research philosophy comprises of the beliefs on the nature of reality or the phenomenon being studied (Bryman and Bell, 2015; Saunders et al., 2012). The positivist paradigm helps to understand the world from the empiricist viewpoint that humans learn by observing how variables in the world relate with one another and by testing them objectively. Therefore, knowledge is deduced from observations (Miller et al., 2008). On the other hand, the interpretivist paradigm relies on inducing knowledge into theories about the world through the perspectives of different social actors (Creswell and Creswell, 2018).

In order to empirically examine relationships between theoretical constructs, a positivist philosophy is appropriate (Creswell and Poth, 2018). Since relationships were to be tested between constructs, this study was underpinned by the positivist and deductive philosophy using quantitative approaches (Bryman and Bell, 2015; Burns et al., 2016; Saunders et al., 2012). Owing to the empirical nature of the research objectives, it was necessary to deduce relationships from literature and test them objectively (Bryman and Bell, 2015; Creswell and Poth, 2018).

1.8.2. Tactical design – survey and sampling strategies

The study was designed to collect cross-sectional quantitative data on a 5-point Likert-scale questionnaire that captured information pertaining to the research constructs. This meant that the data reflected respondents' views at the time of the survey, rather than over a prolonged period of time (Burns et al., 2016; Creswell and Poth, 2018). Johannesburg Metropolitan City provided the target population from which cluster sampling based on the 12 main suburbs in the city and convenience sampling based on random selection of participants were used to

determine the research sample.

Although it is geographically the smallest city, it is the most populous in the Gauteng Province of South Africa. As an alpha global city, Johannesburg hosts a large and diverse population and, therefore, a wide variety of haircare service providers for clients to choose from (GaWC Research Network, 2018). For a target population of approximately 3,559,170 people of working age (Statistics South Africa, 2011; World Population Review, 2016), a minimum sample size of 385 was adequate. However, in order to ensure at least 95% confidence in the sample data and adequate representation of the population, the actual sample size was 562 (Hair et al., 2010; Krommenhoek and Galpin, 2013).

The survey instrument was a questionnaire containing the following sections:

- **Section A**: Screening question (maintained the same hairstylist for the past 10 months)
- **Section B**: Respondent Biographical Information
- **Sections C to K**: Construct specific questions about reliability, trustworthiness, mobility, relative advantage, client satisfaction, commercial friendship, cognitive personal loyalty, affective personal loyalty, intention personal loyalty, behavioural personal loyalty and willingness to pay a premium price.

The questionnaire was pre-tested with 30 respondents in a pilot study to verify its feasibility. An ethical clearance certificate to conduct the study was obtained and ethical considerations prescribed by the University of the Witwatersrand's ethical codes of research were adhered to (see Appendix A).

1.8.3. Data collection and analysis

Data was collected from 562 respondents with a response rate of 93%. The respondents were approached inside different hair and beauty salons, barbers and commercial centres in each of the 12 main suburbs of Johannesburg. These were Diepsloot, Midrand, Randburg, Sandton, Roodepoort, Johannesburg, Johannesburg South, Soweto, Lenasia, Ennerdale and Orange Farm. They were introduced to the research and requested to voluntarily participate in the study. Incentives were not offered for participation.

The collected data was analysed using structural equation modeling (SEM) because of the multivariate nature of the study. SEM is a recognised multivariate analysis technique in

academic disciplines and business contexts. It can quantify relationships amongst complex conceptual structures with multiple latent variables using factor analysis and multiple regressions simultaneously (Hair, Hult, et al., 2017; Hair et al., 2019; Kline, 2011). There are many statistical software packages that run SEM, however, SmartPLS3® (partial least squares) was preferred because of its robust capability to estimate relationships between constructs as well as its accessibility, user-friendliness and compatibility (Hair, Hollingsworth, et al., 2017). SmartPLS3® was used for both the measurement and structural model assessment phases of SEM and successfully confirmed a model with acceptable predictive capabilities. While inferential statistics were obtained via SEM, descriptive statistics were computed in SPSS24® (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). Discussions and conclusions pertaining to the achievement of empirical objectives, as well as contributions of the study, were based on the results of the study.

1.9. Contributions of the Study

Theoretical and practical contributions of the study are briefly outlined in the next paragraphs.

1.9.1. Theoretical

The study provides an integrative conceptual model to predict personal loyalty derived from employee-client relationships. The integrative model builds on from models by Han et al. (2008), Bove and Johnson (2002) and Parasuraman et al. (1988) and it is not only suitable for personal haircare services but can also be applied in other service relationships in marketing and human resources. By studying several customer value factors and incorporating relationship factors, such as commercial friendship, service marketing theorists can use this study's conceptual model to expand and enrich the explanatory power of seminal frameworks like Parasuraman et al.'s (1988) SERVQUAL and the commitment-trust theory.

1.9.2. Practical

It is crucial for personal care service providers to determine specific customer value factors that are peculiar to their service setting. Although they vary across service contexts, they play an important role in determining the levels of client satisfaction and the strength of commercial friendships in client-employee relationships, which can predict various dimensions of personal loyalty. In addition to hairstylists, who can from this study identify important customer value factors driving clients satisfaction, service managers can also gather important insights from

this study for effective client-relationship management.

The fact that behavioural loyalty predicted clients' willingness to pay a price premium as this study found, salon managers and hairstylists alike can earn more money and increase profitability. Therefore, they should find ways to build behavioural loyalty, which according to Han et al. (2011), is an activation of customers' intention to revisit or repurchase a brand or service. One way to build behavioural loyalty, according to the finding of this study, is to create an atmosphere for commercial friendship to grow. The commercial friendship can also guarantee affective and intention loyalty, as this study found.

1.10. Limitations of the Study

As with all research, the study was not immune to limitations. The study was restricted geographically to Johannesburg, which is an alpha global city that may have unique cultures and practices pertaining to haircare services that other cities in South Africa do not. Therefore, findings may differ slightly in areas where clients have different haircare practices or employee ethics discriminate between personal and business relationships. Since the study is cross-sectional, it requires replication to maintain its time-relevance. As a quantitative study, it confines participants' views about hairstylists where participants may wish to express other aspects peculiar to them. A future qualitative study can give respondents the chance to more deeply express their views.

1.11. Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is arranged in eight chapters and brief descriptions of each are provided in the following paragraphs.

1.11.1. Chapter 1: Overview of the Study

This chapter introduces the study and describes its purpose and research problem in detail. It also states the objectives and briefly outlines the preliminary literature review and research methodology. It then concludes with theoretical contributions and limitations of the study, as well as the structure of the thesis.

1.11.2. Chapter 2: Players in the Global and South African Haircare Markets

This chapter provides an overview of the global haircare market and highlights the contexts in the following countries: France, the USA, Brazil and Nigeria. It then focuses on the South

African haircare market, discusses the relevance of numerous market players in the haircare industry, as well as the importance of hairstyling services as a personal service to consumers.

1.11.3. Chapter 3: Drivers and Outcomes of Satisfaction

Chapter 3 provides a detailed literature review on the importance of client satisfaction based on various conceptualisations of customer satisfaction. It discusses models that explain some drivers and outcomes of satisfaction and establishes a connection between client satisfaction and commercial friendships in the context of haircare services.

1.11.4. Chapter 4: Drivers, Dimensions and Outcome of Personal Loyalty

Chapter 4 builds on Chapter 3 by describing loyalty in haircare services as personal loyalty that results from commercial friendships. It describes personal loyalty through the use of Oliver's (1999) attitudinal development phases or dimensions. The chapter also explores several outcomes of loyalty and describes a willingness to pay premium prices as a notable outcome for the study.

1.11.5. Chapter 5: Hypotheses and Conceptual Model Development

This chapter draws from the discussions presented in previous chapters and conceptualises empirical relationships between the constructs extracted from the literature reviewed. It develops hypotheses and specifies an integrative conceptual model anchored on conceptual models tested by Bove and Johnson (2002) and Han et al (2008).

1.11.6. Chapter 6: Research Methodology and Design

Chapter 6 outlines the philosophical and practical methods used to conduct the research and is organised according to the research onion framework prescribed by Saunders et al (2012). It describes how the primary quantitative study is conducted via a questionnaire survey on a sample of residents in the Johannesburg metropolis. It also describes the data analysis procedure via SEM in detail.

1.11.7. Chapter 7: Data Analysis and Results

Chapter 7 carries on from Chapter 6 by reporting the data analysis results. It addresses the empirical research objectives and hypotheses using descriptive and inferential statistics of the sample data.

1.11.8. Chapter 8: Discussions, Conclusions and Recommendations

This chapter builds on from Chapter 7 by discussing the findings and reaching conclusions of the research. It also offers practical and theoretical recommendations as well as contributions of the study.

CHAPTER 2: PLAYERS IN THE GLOBAL AND SOUTH AFRICAN HAIRCARE INDUSTRY

2.1. Chapter Overview

Having introduced the topic of personal loyalty in haircare services in Chapter 1, the purpose of this chapter is to describe the context of haircare services through interactions between hairstylists, other market players and consumers. It introduces the context of the study, describes contributions to the haircare market from European and American countries, the players of the haircare industry in Africa and highlights the context in South Africa. It also emphasises the importance of consumers in the interactions and potential loyalty to hairstylists.

2.2. Hairstyling and the Nature of Services in the Haircare Industry

Hairstyling is the processing of hair with physical or chemical procedures to achieve a desired hair texture, shape or colour. It also includes the removal of hair through cutting and shaving, commonly known as barbering (Bailey, 2014; Gavazzoni Dias, 2015; Lowe, 2016). It is categorised as a people processing service because it involves hairstylists performing activities on people, rather than on inanimate objects like cars or food, as done in car repair or catering services (Cohen, 2010a; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). Hairstylists are also referred to as hairdressers, coiffeurs or barbers, and this research uses the term hairstylist generally to refer to all categories of haircare service employees that work directly with clients' hair.

Hairstylists are important to consumers because they care for their hair, which is one aspect of the human body that affects a consumer's physical, social, psychological and personal image. To consumers, hair is more than the keratin strands growing out of the scalp (Donahoo, 2019; Gavazzoni Dias, 2015; Lowe, 2016). Historically, hair has played a pivotal role in how humans interact with one another. For example, hair can be used to attract potential romantic partners, falsely justify inhumane treatment of ethnic groups, like the case in South Africa during apartheid, express consciousness of identity among different races and create popular sub-cultures that liberate supporters and aggravate others (Chawane, 2014; Donahoo, 2019; Lowe, 2016). Consumers invest physically, emotionally and financially in their hairstyles. The personal interactions that they have with hairstylists who create the hairstyles motivate and help clients to express themselves (Haddon, 2013; Hanson, 2019; Meyers, 2012). The roles played by hairstylists form the basis for the formation of attachment between clients and

hairstylists, as well as engagements between other industry participants.

Economically, hairstylists bring together different market players, promote business for basic personal services that are demanded by individuals internationally and have the potential of developing an economic index in western countries (Haddon, 2011; Holodny, 2014; Jones, 2011; Mungai, 2015). However, as a category of services, haircare services differ from other services primarily because they require hairstylists to engage physically and socially with their clients: they perform tangible activities towards clients' physical bodies, exercise their own judgment to customise services and have informal conversations with them (Harrison-Walker, 2002; Lowe, 2016). Although highly personalised relationships between service providers and consumers are common in the healthcare sector, their occurrence and degree of personalisation are rare compared to haircare services. Through the potential for interpersonal relationships and strong loyalty from clients in the haircare industry, haircare services create stronger employee-client bonds compared to other services, such as postal, banking, cellular network or airline services (Lowe, 2016). The demand and market for haircare services are growing globally and more so in South Africa.

2.3. The Prominence of Scientific Research About Hair

Although hairstyling is viewed as an extension of fashion and artistic expression, hairstylists tend to dress and style hair in its natural way (Van Cleave, 2015; Van Paris, 2017). More emphasis is, therefore, placed on understanding how to treat diverse natural hair textures from different ethnic backgrounds. In order to achieve the best health and styling results, it is important to understand the biological structure of hair and how it responds differently to physical elements like heat, wind, water, friction and chemicals elements like relaxers and colourants (Bailey, 2014; Milady, 2016). Consumers with different ethnic origins have different hair textures and can be grouped into eight types based on the biological structure (Baque et al., 2012; De la Mettrie et al., 2007; L'Oreal Groupe, 2016a; Loussouarn et al., 2016). The eight types of hair textures are presented in shown in Figure 2.1.

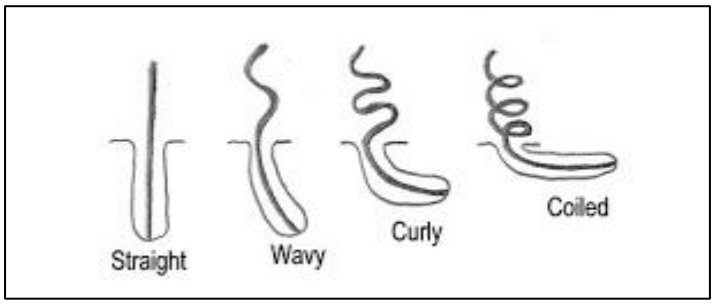
Figure 2.1: Hair texture groups



Source: L'Oreal Group (2016b).

Each type of hair in Figure 2.1 responds uniquely to the same treatment and has its own manageability, versatility and malleability. The types can be categorised into four broad sub-groups, namely the straight (type 1), wavy (types 2 and 3), curly (types 4 and 5) and coiled or kinky (types 6 to 8) based on the shape and curl pattern of the hair strand. Straight and wavy hair is generally associated with Asian and Caucasian (European) ethnic groups and they tend to have cylindrical and oval hair strands, respectively (Loussouarn et al., 2016; Lowe, 2016). Cross-sectional diagrams of the hair follicles and corresponding wave patterns are illustrated in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2: Cross-sections of hair types



Source: Dorcas (2008, l. 8)

As shown in Figure 2.2, the shape of a hair follicle determines the wave pattern of the hair. The more vertical or cylindrical the hair follicle is, the straighter the hair strand grows and more manageable it is. The flatter the follicle is, the curlier the hair strand grows and the more

malleable it is.

Due to its cylindrical hair follicle, straight hair tends to be more resistant to damage from heating and curling and more durable compared to other hair types (Lowe, 2016; Milady, 2016). As a result, Asian hair extensions are popular among consumers who wear them as weaves and wigs (Bailey, 2014; Evans-Anfom, 2014). Curly and kinky hair is associated with mixed and African ethnic origins, and strands have a ribbon-like to flat-oval cross section (Baque et al., 2012; De la Mettrie et al., 2007). This makes the hair comparatively stronger, more rigid and malleable to lock strands into locks, attach extensions or stretch to its length (Bailey, 2014). Unfortunately, it takes time to notice measurable new growth, it knots easily and is prone to damage from robust combing, heat and chemical treatments (Baque et al., 2012; L'Oreal Groupe, 2016a; Milady, 2016).

Hairstylists are, therefore, needed to care for both the aesthetical and health aspects of clients' hair. The contributions that scientific research has made about hair have helped both stylists and consumers to understand and prioritise the health of hair and to do so by customising treatments to suit hair type.

2.4. The Global Haircare Market

The haircare market is characterised by the demand and supply of haircare products, equipment as well as services performed by hairstylists. By the end of 2017, the global haircare market was estimated at US$ 91.95 billion and expected to increase at a compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of 3.35% and reach US$ 112.57 billion by 2023 (Mordor Intelligence, 2018). Therefore, market players can expect a steady annual growth rate of 3.35% for the period. This includes the value of different components, such as products (for example: shampoos, conditioners, relaxers and colourants), hairpieces (hair fibre, weaves and wigs), equipment (sheers, combs, dryers, straighteners and curlers) and the services (shampooing, cutting, treating, braiding, relaxing and colouring) (D & B Hoovers, 2017; Persistence Market Research, 2014). According to Statistica (2019), the value of the haircare products market increased by 5% between 2016 and 2018, from US$ 83.36 billion to US$ 87.73. Unfortunately, the value of services remains undermined, even though annual revenues of services reached US$ 160 billion in 2017 (Research and Markets, 2018).

Growth in the global market is attributed to the increased self-awareness and beauty

consciousness of the consumers, the increased desire for the population to maintain age-less appearances and reverse hair thinning, the growth of the middle-class and their desire to emulate professional images (Donahoo, 2019; Mordor Intelligence, 2018). New entrants in the market are attracted to the development of niche and customised haircare segments in different countries as well as the increased awareness and demand in emerging economies. The European, North and South American markets for haircare products and services are of particular interest.

2.4.1. Europe: France – the capital of haute fashion

France is well known as one of the leaders in high fashion culture in Europe and draws international attention for setting some of the world's fashion standards (Van Cleave, 2015; Van Paris, 2017). As a major part of the fashion industry, the haircare market is regarded as a professional field that plays a major role in runway fashion exhibitions, setting hairstyles trends and conducting scientific research for cosmetology and health studies (Milady, 2016; Trefis, 2016). Hairstyling compliments fashion designs and contributes to artistic expressions at fashion shows and tours, such as the Paris Haute Couture and Coco Chanel Tour. Hairstylists also launch and test hairstyles at fashion shows, thereby contributing to creative and innovative hairstyles that are later adopted internationally by advertising and media firms, celebrities, other hairstylists and the general public (Bailey, 2014; Lowe, 2016). France has a history of dominant control over haircare practices, including laws that dictated which hairstyles were appropriate for each gender, societal class and profession (Milady, 2016; Van Cleave, 2015). It is regarded as a trendsetter for hairstyles, alongside other cities identified as fashion capitals, like Milan (Italy) and London (UK).

France also enjoys the presence of many multinational companies that manufacture and distribute haircare brands, including French-based companies like L'Oreal Groupe, Iles Formula, Kerastase and PHYTO (Euromonitor International, 2018a; Gentina et al., 2014). Some of the companies also contribute to knowledge through scientific research that is beneficial for hair health (for example, trichology), hair creativity (cosmetology), product development and service training. The haircare market, therefore, incorporates different kinds of market players and professions, thereby providing means employment, productivity and self-actualisation.

2.4.1.1. France's declining haircare market

France's haircare market reached a value of € 1.21 billion (US$ 1.37 billion) in 2017 and an annual earning potential of US$ 196.2 million in revenue (Allen, 2017; Statistica, 2018). Despite the high value, the market declined by 4.6% in 2017 due to reduced consumption of haircare products and services and is expected to continue on a similar trajectory. For the year ending May 2017, sales for conditioners and shampoos fell by 6.3% while styling products fell by 9.4% from the previous year (Allen, 2017). While Europe experiences a flat growth rate in the haircare market, unfortunately, a negative CAGR of -0.1% is forecasted for France for the period 2019 to 2023 (Allen, 2017; Research and Markets, 2018; Statistica, 2018).

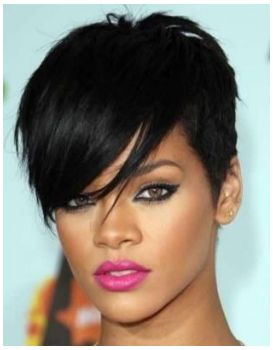
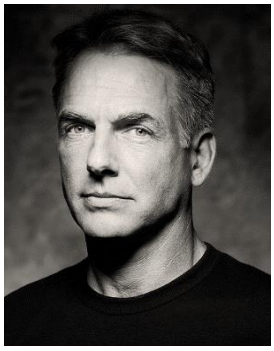
Recently, consumers have become increasingly concerned about the harmful effects of chemicals in haircare products and salon processes, therefore, many have reduced their use of products and salon visits (Allen, 2017; Euromonitor International, 2018a). This recent trend reflects more consumer preference for natural and organic alternatives that do not contain dyes, silicone or parabens. Companies like L'Oreale Groupe and Johnson and Johnson have responded to the trend by manufacturing and promoting haircare products with natural plant oils and vegetable by-products, including argan oil, olive oil, avocado, beetroot and cucumber (Euromonitor International, 2018a; Industry ARC, 2018). In order to remain competitive and relevant in the long-term, hairstylists and other market players are shifting their focus towards finding solutions for hair problems rather than generalising treatments for different hair types.

2.4.2. North America: the USA – competitions and celebrity hairstyles

Many multinational, multicultural and international players influence the haircare market in the USA, including business conventions and conferences that focus on haircare trends. Hairstylists initiate trends in social and media spaces by creating iconic hairstyles for celebrities and use their artistic flair to win accolades at competitions. The annual Bronner Brothers International Beauty show held in Atlanta, USA is one of many conventions that attract entertainers, exhibitors, brand manufacturers and spectators to watch highly profiled hairstylists competing for accolades for innovative and elaborate hairstyle productions (Bronner Brothers, 2017; TenTimes, 2017). Hairstylists use these and similar platforms to initiate and strengthen business relations with industry players, which is important for income generation. They also take advantage of the opportunity to promote themselves as expert designers of hair, including coining names for impressive hairstyles.

Fans also name hairstyles after celebrities and other hairstylists have to learn how to replicate them. Through their admiration of celebrities, fans drive the demand for named hairstyles and stylists benefit because clients are willing to pay more to associate with their favourite celebrities, even if they never meet them in person (Elsesser, 2013; Rojek, 2012). The following examples of famous styles named after celebrities are presented in Figure 2.3. They are known as: the "*Poetic Justice box braids"* worn by the actress Janet Jackson in the movie *Poetic Justice;* "*The Rachel"* shag worn by the actress Jenifer Aniston's character, *Rachel,* in the comedy sitcom *Friends*; the "*Rihanna razor cut*" pixie worn by the music artist Robyn Rihanna Fenty and *"The Gibbs"* marine corps haircut worn by the actor Mark Harmon's character, *agent Gibbs,* in the crime series *NCIS.*

Figure 2.3: Images of hairstyles named after celebrities

			
Poetic Justice box braids	The Rachel	Rihanna razor cut	The Gibbs

Sources: (Hairstyle on Point, 2017; Style Blazer, 2013)

Hairstylists, therefore, play an important role by connecting consumers with their favourite celebrities and fostering business engagements between other market players in the USA haircare industry.

2.4.2.1. Value of the USA market

The USA holds the largest share of the haircare market in North America and one of the largest in the world. The size of the market was estimated at US$ 58.7 billion in 2019 and expected to grow at an average annual rate of 3.2% between 2018 and 2023 (Mordor Intelligence, 2018; Small Business Development Centre, 2014). Growth will likely be driven by increased disposable incomes, awareness of social hair trends and a high propensity to spend on innovative haircare products and services (Mordor Intelligence, 2018). Data USA (2017)

expects the industry's profitability to encourage more businesses and service providers to enter the market. Despite being the largest and most lucrative haircare market, Turner and Green (2018) suggest that haircare consumption values are undervalued because the majority of products demanded by black consumers is imported from Asian countries rather than sourced from within the USA. Nielsen (2018) confirms that the black consumer segment is responsible for more than 85% of haircare product sales, suggesting that consumption is driven majorly by the demand for haircare products specified by this segment.

2.4.3. South America: Brazil – beauty, vibrancy and colour

Beauty in Brazil is expressed through flamboyancy, colourfulness, and an appreciation of diversity, which are often evidently displayed at its annual carnival (Gordon, 2016; Weinswig, 2016). It has a high level of ethnic diversity in its population, including consumers with curly and kinky hair. This diversity is partially attributed to the country's history of immigration from Africa, Asia, Europe and the Middle East, (Evans-Anfom, 2014; Fausto and Fausto, 2014). As a result, consumers have diverse hair types and seek different services and products to maintain their hair. This is because haircare products and services are central to Brazil's strong perceptions of beauty, creativity and heritage, especially during festivals (Gordon, 2016).

Flamboyant hairstyling also contributes to the country's tourism as it attracts tourists to its annual carnival that features participants with extravagantly designed and colourful hairstyles (Gordon, 2016; Weinswig, 2016). However, a major recent change in the market has been from African-Brazilian consumers. Historically, African-Brazilian consumers highly demanded relaxer services and treatments to maintain straightened hair because straight hair was considered more socially desirable than tightly curled or kinky hair (Gordon, 2016; Mordor Intelligence, 2016). However, due to increased interactions with hairstylists and beauticians through blogs and other social media platforms, African-Brazilian consumers are encouraged to seek more services and products that suit their natural hair. Since 2016, the introduction of consultations with professional beauty and hair advisors, as well as product reviews from hairstylists, have risen (Euromonitor International, 2016b; Weinswig, 2016).

2.4.3.1. Value of the Brazilian haircare market

Brazil has one of the most vibrant beauty markets in South America. It contributed to 1.8% of the country's GDP, which exceeded US$ 205.5 billion in 2017 (Weinswig, 2016, p. 1; World

Bank Group, 2018). Although the market was projected to grow at 3% CAGR at 2016 prices (Euromonitor International, 2016b), the value of total sales in the market fell by 0.3% to US$ 5.92 billion due to the economic recession in the country (Armstrong, 2017). Austerity measures imposed by the government resulted in ever-increasing costs, which resulted in price increases and lower consumption (Armstrong, 2017; Euromonitor International, 2017). Despite this, Brazil remains one of the top ten countries in the world to export human hair for weaves and extensions to developed and emerging economies, especially the USA and Africa (Workman, 2019). Furthermore, the appreciation of natural hair, especially by Brazilian women from different ethnicities, has created demand for research and development of new haircare products and for hairstylists to provide services that feed the growing demand for natural hair maintenance and complementary services.

2.5. Africa's Market of Haircare Products and Services

The haircare market in Africa contributes to formal and informal employment for its population, as well as domestic and international trade for its developing economies (Ekwujuru, 2018). Africa has the fastest growing population and urban middle-class in the world (UN DESA, 2017, 2018). Its emerging middle-class has contributed to growth in the haircare market as consumers increasingly spend on customised products and services that maintain the health of their natural hair. In 2015, sub-Saharan Africa held 3% of the market share in global personal care product sales and market potential of more than 7% CAGR is anticipated for the period 2016 to 2020 (Beauty West Africa, 2019; Technavio, 2016).

The rapidly growing middle-class population contributes to a lucrative consumer base and positive market potential. Similar to trends in the USA and Brazil, African consumers are increasingly adopting natural haircare remedies using products with indigenous African ingredients. Technavio (2016) attributes further growth to three emerging trends: partnerships between product manufacturer brands and salons, the increased usage of online channels and the prominence of social media platforms for marketing. Although the competitive landscape encompasses countries across the continent, the largest markets in Africa are in Nigeria and South Africa.

2.5.1. Nigeria – Africa's fastest growing haircare market

Nigeria is the most populous and largest economy with the fastest growing haircare market in Africa (Emekalam, 2017; UN DESA, 2017; World Bank Group, 2018). As a major part of its

beauty market, its market was valued at USS$ 3 billion in 2018 and average annual growth between 8% and 10% is expected (Beauty West Africa, 2019; Euromonitor International, 2018b). The market's annual turnover in the market was estimated at NGN 12 billion (US$ 33 million) and approximately US$ 6 billion is spent on importing human hair and hair extensions from North America and Asia (Emekalam, 2017; Lolade, 2015). The market's success is partially attributed to three factors: the growing proportion of young women with higher disposable incomes in the urban middle-class population, the popularity of social and online marketing and the increased interest in indigenous African ingredients in haircare products.

Haircare services are a major part of the informal economy as most hairstylists rely on the trade for self-employment (Emekalam, 2017). However, the competitive landscape comprises of many strong local and multinational companies that manufacture and distribute products. NN Fems Industries, Soulmate Industries Limited, Unilever Nigeria and L'Oreal Nigeria are four major players that contribute significantly to haircare product manufacturing, brand extensions and research in Nigeria (Ekwujuru, 2018; Euromonitor International, 2018b). Products are highly segmented and competitively priced as manufacturers compete for brand supremacy (Ekwujuru, 2018; Lolade, 2015).

Despite the popularity of hair extensions, the natural haircare trend has positively influenced the demand for products and salon services with natural and indigenous ingredients, such as treatments with coconut oil, shea butter and local herbs (Emekalam, 2017; Euromonitor International, 2018b). Social media, online advertising and other marketing platforms are responsible for promoting the trend, especially among young women in Nigeria. As the natural haircare trend continues, there is great potential for scientific research to explore the benefits of indigenous plants and traditional practices for healthy hair (Emekalam, 2017). Although the market is growing at a fast pace, South Africa still holds the largest share of the market in Africa.

2.6. South Africa – Africa's Largest Haircare Market

South Africa's haircare market resonates very closely with that of Brazil as both countries share similar histories of immigration from other continents and the new awakening of pride in African-textured hair. South Africa prides in being a "rainbow nation" in its post-apartheid era; that is, a nation of diverse races, cultures, religions and identities, which also include diversity in hair textures across its population (Bornman, 2010; Expat Cape Town, 2016). Although they

are not as flamboyant as their Brazilian counterparts, South African consumer spending on modest and stylish haircare tends to be extravagant, especially among African consumers (Euromonitor International, 2016a).

On one hand, there is a tendency to replicate hairstyles from celebrities, television role models or trending hairstyles that resonate with consumers' career paths (Austin, 2016; Haddon, 2013). This often involves purchasing Indian, Brazilian or Peruvian hair for weaving, which can cost from R1500 (US$110), excluding shipping costs. While hair extensions are expensive, the service aspect of weaving is more crucial as it requires an experienced hairstylist who knows how to attach and blend the extensions to a client's hair, create the desired contours to suit the client, and manage the volume and flow of the hair by cutting and shaping it accurately. On the other hand, African consumers are demanding more customised haircare that meets their specific needs (Trefis Team, 2017). As a result, the development of brands like Head and Shoulders African Scalp care products by Proctor and Gamble, or Mizani and Elvive for curly hair by L'Oreal Groupe, has helped stylists and consumers to healthily treat African-textured hair (Euromonitor International, 2016a).

The South African market has been the largest in Africa. The demand for haircare services, especially by its growing middle-class, attracts global attention from marketers and entrepreneurs alike (Diagonal Reports, 2011). The market has grown from ZAR 4,779.3 billion to ZAR 6,557.9 billion (US$ 348 billion to US$ 478 billion) between 2011 and 2016, and haircare services accounted for at least 14.1% of the market (Euromonitor International, 2016a). Furthermore, forecasters predict a 1.36% CAGR for the period 2019 – 2024 (Mordor Intelligence, 2019). The current boom of salons in South African townships has also contributed to the expansion of the service market as many manufacturers partner with hairstylists to increase their visibility (Austin, 2016; Technavio, 2016).

2.7. Players in the South African Haircare Industry

The haircare services industry has a number of players that contribute to economic growth and integration in the form of training, labour relations, manufacturers of haircare products and service providers.

2.7.1. Training and education

The Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) indirectly affects the quality of

services offered to clients through the certification of hairstylists on the basis of vocational and scientific knowledge and skills. It oversees and accredits educational and vocational training programmes in South Africa, including communicating through Sector Education and Training Authorities (SETAs) to supervise specific sectors of education. Haircare services are classified as personal services and the certifications are recognised by the Services SETA (SSETA) (SAQA, 2015). Programmes at higher National Qualifications Framework (NQF) levels require a deeper understanding of the science, art and business of haircare and examples of such programmes include the National Certificate in Hairdressing at NQF levels 2 and 3 as well as the Further Education and Training Certificate in Hairdressing at NQF level 4 (Crankshaw, 2013).

Cosmetology institutions and corporate firms that offer training consider scientific knowledge of hair and standards of professionalism as valuable elements for serving clients (Reynolds, 2016; Frangie, et al., 2012). This approach is recognised by many institutions, including the Central Johannesburg Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) College, L'Oreal Professional African Salon Institute, Carlton Hair, the Professional Salon Academy, the Hair Academy of South Africa, and the Complete School of Hairdressing, among others in Gauteng (Central Johannesburg College, 2016).

2.7.1.1. Professionalism through training

Due to the formalisation of the haircare services occupation, hairstylists can be regarded as professional service providers who prioritise their clients by complying with professional standards of service orientation, and health and safety. This affects the way that hairstylists treat their consumers and manage relationships professionally. For instance, they are required to advise clients against procedures, treatments or styles that are potentially harmful, irrespective of clients' demands (Coleman, 2013; Haddon, 2013; Milady, 2016; SA Health, 2017). Although there are benefits to holding qualifications, not all hairstylists obtain formal training, including some in Johannesburg. However, they maintain their clientele and operate successfully. The DHET therefore contributes to the value chain of haircare by formalising the education and training of hairstylists, allowing them to be recognised as a trained workforce.

2.7.2. Labour relations

The certification of hairstylists helps them to benefit from labour organisations, such as the Employers Association Hairdressing and Cosmetology of South Africa (EAHCSA) and the

Hairdressing, Cosmetology Beauty and Skin Care bargaining counsel (HCSBC), which are registered under the South African Labour Relations Act (Act 66 of 1995). The HCSBC protects hairstylists by encouraging collective legal agreements about contracts, sick leave and pension funds between salon owners and their employees (HCSBC, 2016). It also prevents and resolves disputes, among other labour relations issues In the absence of a professional body governing service practices of haircare in South Africa, the EAHCSA, aspires to improve the occupation by requiring its members to ascribe to professional codes of conduct, as well as participate in skills and professional development programmes (Free State Goldfields Chamber of Business, 2016; SA Health, 2017). By upholding professional standards, hairstylists maintain high levels of service and relationship quality with clients (Haddon, 2013).

Due to the professional status of some hairstylists, clients pay comparatively higher prices because they appreciate the value incorporated in the entire service. This justifies why some South African clients are loyal to their hairstylists in the long-term (Willaims, 2014). Labour relations organisations, therefore, play an important role in supporting formally trained and qualified hairstylists by improving their work lives and images of hairstylists through professional standards and skills development. Hairstylists who are not formally qualified are not necessarily inferior in terms of their technical skills. On the contrary, they are highly skilled in their specialised areas of service (Maseko and Motloung, 2016). For example, they tend to have a narrower range of expertise and specialised knowledge about different hair textures and their segment of consumers tends to prefer to pay as low as reasonably possible for services.

2.7.3. Manufacturers and service providers of haircare products and services

Corporate brands are responsible for supplying hairstylists and consumers with products that nourish hair, alter or protect hair from damage and used when performing services. Products include a wide range of shampoos, conditioners, chemical relaxers, moisturisers, heat protectants, colourants and many others (Bailey, 2014; Lowe, 2016). They also conduct research, manufacture haircare products for distribution to retailers and salons, offer training to hairstylists on their products and provide marketing material for promoting their products (Milady, 2016).

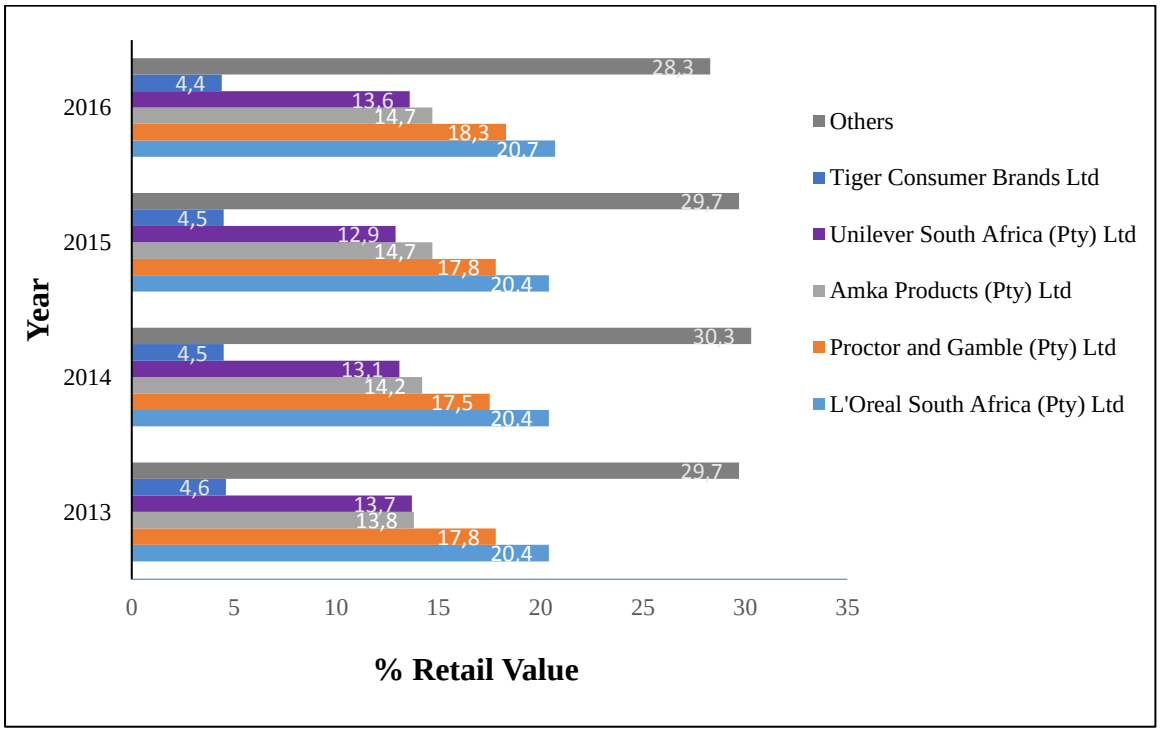
The marketing concept of most hair salons internationally and in South Africa centres on advertising and displaying completed hairstyles and branded products so that clients recognise branded products that they prefer and associate them with a salon and its hairstylists (Milady,

2016). This helps consumers to initially trust hairstylists to use the branded products correctly to achieve the promised results. The ability of a hairstylist to correctly use and deliver the promises of the product is vital to a client. Companies, therefore, rely on hairstylists to appreciate, endorse, use and recommend their products.

2.7.3.1. Haircare product companies and brands

There are many companies in South Africa that compete for consumers and hairstylists. They generate varied product retail sales. Figure 2.4 displays the percentages of product retail value shares in the haircare market of companies in South Africa from 2013 to 2016.

Figure 2.4: Company shares of the retail haircare market (2013 - 2016)



Source: Adapted from Euromonitor International (2016a)

The graph shows that the top five individual key players in haircare products in South Africa are L'Oreal, Proctor and Gamble, Amka Products, Unilever and Tiger Consumer Brands. With the exception of "Others" that held approximately one third of the shares in the South African haircare market between 2013 and 2016, L'Oreal has dominated by holding at least 20% over the period. They were followed by Proctor and Gamble with 17.5%. L'Oreal is popular for brands like Dark and Lovely, Elvive and Garnier Nutrisse, while Proctor and Gamble is known for its Head and Shoulders anti-dandruff shampoos, Pantene and Clairol Nice n' Easy.

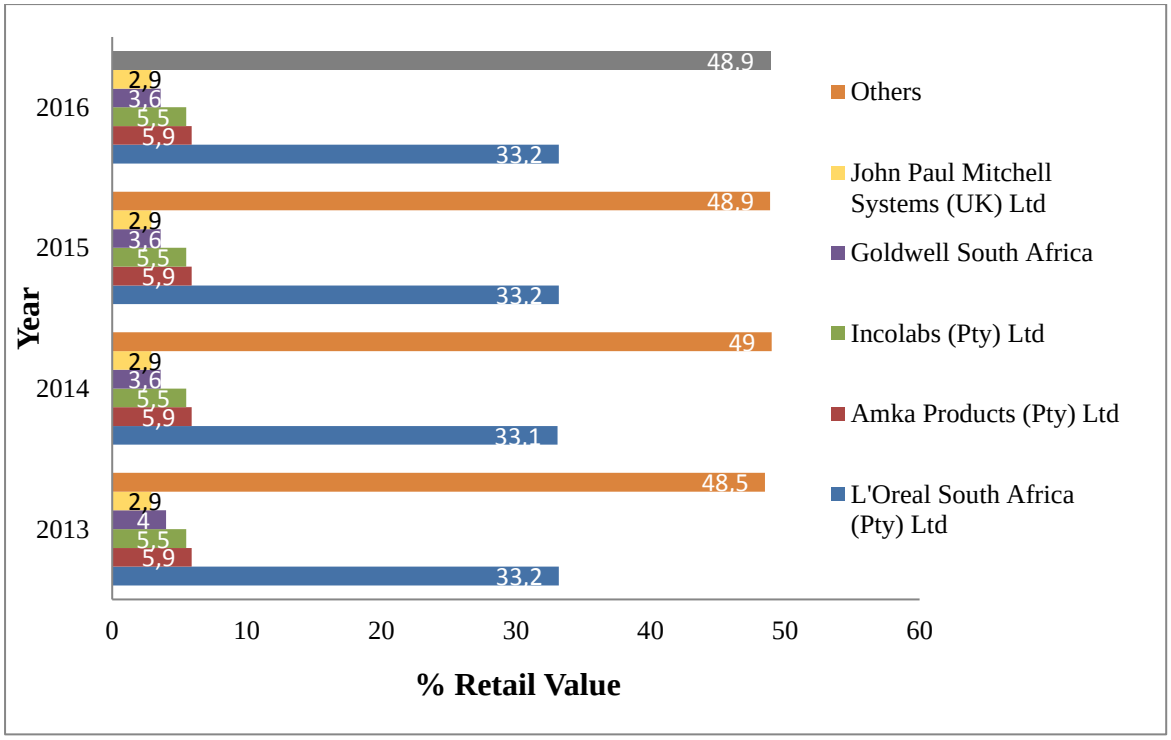
Amka Products experienced the largest growth in shares from 13.8% to 14.7% over the period,

showing strength in the competitiveness of their brands. The company is responsible for brands like Sof 'n' Free, Easy Waves and Sta-Sof-Fro, while Unilever, holding at least 13% over the period, hosts TRESemme, Sunsilk and haircare products under the Dove brand. Tiger Consumer Brands, which is responsible for the Perfect Touch, Protein Feed and Fiesta brands, has seen a slight decline in its shares from 4.6% to 4.4% over the period

2.7.3.2. Companies and brands catering for haircare services

Although the aforementioned companies manufacture brands for consumers and hairstylists, hairstylists seem to endorse some brands more than others for their services. The market shares based on retail sales of the most influential brands used by hairstylists for services in South Africa between 2013 and 2016 are presented in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.5: Company shares in haircare services (2013 – 2016)



Source: Adapted from Euromonitor International (2016a)

The graph in Figure 2.5 shows that L'Oreal has the largest footprint, holding one third of the market share for services. Also shown in Figure 2.5 is the fact that "Others" have aggregately held nearly 50% of the market share since 2013, however, they individually held less than 4%. Amka Products, Incolabs, and Goldwell South Africa have individually held market shares below 6%, while L'Oreal has held at least 33.1%. This suggests that L'Oreal brands are more influential than others are, concerning product promotions, endorsement, usage and

recommendations. Its dominance in the market space may also be attributed to its role in product development and service evaluation, especially for African-textured hair. It has shown commitment to the industry through the launch of its Research and Innovation centre in Johannesburg in July 2016 to focus on African hair and skin (Department of Trade and Industry, 2016; Trefis, 2016). Forecasts suggest a continuation of the upward trajectory, especially with contributions to service training for hairstylists at its Professional African Hair Institute in Johannesburg.

Overall, many manufacturers of haircare products contribute to the industry through their products, with some adding value by offering product-specific and professional service training for hairstylists to maximise the usage and benefits from the products. They rely on consumers' brand recognition and satisfaction from product usage by hairstylists to maintain their market shares.

2.7.4. Hairstylists as major players in the haircare services industry

As defined previously, hairstylists curl, colour, dress, cut and creatively arrange people's hair in their occupation (Bailey, 2014; Gavazzoni Dias, 2015; Milady, 2016). Hairstylists play an important role in the haircare industry because they are the only players that directly interact with consumers on functional, personal, and social levels simultaneously, making it easy for consumers to feel attached to them as individuals.

Functionally, each hairdresser embodies the expertise to perform physically diverse services on clients, including delivering the promises advertised by branded haircare products (Bove and Johnson, 2002; Crouch, 2017; Gimlin, 1996). In addition to their labour, they personally relate with clients to understand and interpret their needs and help them to create, transform them to resemble their desired images (Johnson, 2016; Ward et al., 2016). They engage in informal conversations about social issues, helping clients to express themselves alongside defining their identities through their hair (Hanson, 2019). In terms of business, they attract consumer investment to beauty salons and brand manufacturers to their services. They provide interaction between consumers and corporate haircare brands, because they endorse and recommend products, thereby contributing to the increase of product use and sales. Furthermore, hairstylists are reliable sources of feedback on product performances, deficiencies and improvements (Milady, 2016). Their roles in the industry are, therefore, pivotal and invaluable, although they face some challenges.

2.7.4.1. Marketing challenges that hairstylists face

Hairstylists working in salons rarely have the opportunity to promote themselves as reputable hairstylists on salon displays because marketing programmes are often anchored by images of branded products that consumers easily recognise. South African salon displays commonly feature brands of relaxers, conditioners, hair extensions, and others. However, Milady (2016) suggests that hairstylists can promote themselves with their independently constructed portfolios of images of clients' hairstyles. This push strategy is adopted by mobile and street hairstylists in central Johannesburg, who use them to attract clients (Bischof, 2014).

The growing trend among hairstylists is the use of online visual social media platforms, particularly Instagram, Facebook, video blogs (vlogs) and YouTube videos. A typical example is the *All Things Hair South Africa* YouTube channel that features stylists and consumers who share advice, product opinions and styling techniques (All Things Hair, 2017). Hairstylists use such online platforms as alternative and independent marketing programmes that allow them to monitor on a continual basis the followership, viewership and appreciation of new hairstyles by clients and potential consumers (Pine, 2017). Hairstylists, therefore, remain relevant through online engagements with clients.

2.7.4.2. Competition between hairstylists

Competition between hairstylists can become intense, especially for those working in the same establishment, because competition reflects consumer's opinions of a hairstylist's expertise and relational capabilities. Clients observe and openly compare hairstylists, and there is a tendency for competing hairstylists to internalise the opinions and develop tension or jealousy over clients (MacLeman, 2017). In particular, the availability of numerous hairstylists in Johannesburg is attributed to the low barriers of entry into the market and the emergence of hairdressing as a viable source of income (Kekana, 2015; PMCA Economic Consulting, 2011). The South African Yellow Pages lists more than 1000 registered hair and beauty salons in the Johannesburg area alone. Many are not listed for various reasons, however, they contribute to the pool of individual competitors. For instance, the Johannesburg central business district is vastly populated with street hairstylists who aggressively promote their services to shoppers and passers-by with pictures on cardboard boxes, calling out phrases like "*Woza, sisi"* (meaning "come here sister") (Bischof, 2014) to invite clients, as shown in Figure 2.6.

Figure 2.6: Images of street hairstylists in Johannesburg market spaces



Sources: Photographs by Dahlia Maubane (Bischof, 2014) and Fihlani (2013)

2.7.4.3. Female vs male hairstylist gender preferences

The ongoing social debate about whether female hairstylists are better than male hairstylists is largely based on consumers' arguments about each gender's technical ability to style and ability to relate well with clients (Agbonkhese and Aganbi, 2016; Carr, 2013; Hmar, 2011; MacInnes, 2001; Robinson et al., 2011). Although there are more female than male hairstylists, Robinson et al, (2011, p. 39) assert that "*...men become the top hairdressers because of women's' lack of ambition [with regards to their] career and status in the profession.*" Even though numerous national South African hairdresser accolades are awarded to men, an increasing number of female hairstylists are also becoming finalists for such awards (Fernandes, 2017; Torenzo Hairdressing International, 2016; Pascale, 2017).

According to Hmar (2011), Agbonkhese and Aganbi (2016) and Osongo and Muturi (2015), some women in parts of India, Nigeria and Kenya prefer male hairstylists because they exercise more professionalism, creativity, empathy and motivation during styling sessions and in their conduct. Some consumers cite lack of compassion from female hairstylists as one of many reasons why some women prefer male hairstylists over their female counterparts (Agbonkhese and Aganbi, 2016; Carr, 2013; Hmar, 2011). Male hairstylists have risen above preconceived notions that disassociated masculinity with styling women's hair or being knowledgeable, interested, gentle, caring and empathetic with regards to hair. Their emergence as both competent and relational artists has also resulted in more positive relationships between women and male hairstylists (MacInnes, 2001; Onsongo and Muturi, 2015; Robinson et al., 2011).

Conversely, relationships with female hairstylists are easily strained as clients find them

overbearing because, among other things, they exert more power in deciding on a hairstyle instead of paying attention to what clients desire (Hmar, 2011). Although women generally begin experimenting with hairstyles from childhood, their experiences have not shielded them from competing with male hairstylists (Elsesser, 2013; Lewis, 1999). Consumers observe that male hairstylists relate and perform better and are more innovative with changing trends compared to their female counterparts (Barber, 2016; Robinson et al., 2011). Despite the competition, there is still appreciation for female hairstylists as some acknowledge the importance of relationship management with their clientele for the profitability of their businesses (Milady, 2016).

2.7.5. Haircare consumers

People generally consider hair as a part of their physical image, whether they adorn, display or cover it for cultural, religious or other reasons. Consumers of all ages, genders, cultures, education backgrounds and income levels have their hair done, either at home or at a salon or barber shop. Although no particular generation consumes haircare services uniquely, it is more important to distinguish haircare consumers demographically.

2.7.5.1. Children as consumers

As consumers, children have limited decision-making power over high involvement purchases because their parents/guardians make decisions on their behalf (Pourali et al., 2016). Although parents/guardians are gatekeepers when it comes to choosing hairstyles, selecting, retaining and paying hairstylists, children can influence their decisions, especially through negative feedback on certain hairdressers. Simple activities, such as hair combing, affect the way children socialise and form attachment relationships with whomever is doing their hair (Lewis, 1999). Additionally, affirmations of beauty and identity begin to form during early childhood interactions with hairstylists.

2.7.5.2. Teenage consumers

Officially, the working population in South Africa is aged from 15 to 65 years because the Basic Conditions of Employment Act considers people within that age range legally employable before they reach the retirement age (65) (Department of Labour, 1997, chap. 10; Statistics South Africa, 2018). Therefore, some teenagers between the ages of 15 and 19 study who and work can afford to pay for their own hairstyling. Teenagers have unique haircare

preferences which are destined to change as they grow older and begin to perceive the long-term effects of their hairstyle choices (Durrani et al., 2015; Gentina et al., 2014). They inherently desire to distinguish themselves from their childhood, which results in changes in their interpersonal relations with other individuals, including a family hairstylist (Lewis, 1999; Webb, 2015). Due to their low uncertainty avoidance (Gentina et al., 2014), they are prone to easily experiment with different hairstyles and hairdressers to conform to prevailing hairstyle trends. Their motivations for loyalty are ever-evolving, thereby making them complex to understand.

2.7.5.3. Young adults and working professionals

Young adults considered to be between 18 and 25 years old are likely recent college or university graduates who have started making independent decisions about their lives and careers (Demir et al., 2015; Lusardi and Mitchell, 2017). They are more prone to experiment with different hairdressers before deciding to commit to one that they are satisfied with. Due to their propensity to deviate from workplace norms concerning hair adornment and presentation, it is likely that they are attracted to hairdressers with alternative styling solutions that allow them to express their uniqueness (Johnson, 2016; Lusardi and Mitchell, 2017). They benefit from their hairstylists' peripheral roles of providing other forms of care, such as reassurance about their looks, motivation to improve self-esteem, contextualisation of beauty and social engagement (Bove and Johnson, 2002; Johnson, 2016; Milady, 2016; Ward et al., 2016). As a result, they are easily motivated to repeat their patronage and maintain the same hairstylist.

Similarly, working professionals are most likely to retain the same hairstylist because they desire consistency in order to maintain an image that is appropriate for their work, career and lifestyle (Bailey, 2014; Milady, 2016). Young and mature working professionals are two segments that demonstrate stability and consistency in their consumption behaviour and are aware of the long-term effects of their consumption choices, including interpersonal relationships in personal care services that affect their physical and emotional images (Ward et al., 2016). The working professionals have been classified as Generation X and Y as described in the next subsection.

2.7.5.4. Generations X and Y

According to Markerts' (2004, p. 21) analogy to determine the appropriate cohort for typical

young and mature working professionals in South Africa, Generation X and Y are consumers born between 1965 and 1995 (Bevan-Dye, 2016; Statistics South Africa, 2018). Categorically, these consumers can be classified under Generation X (born 1966 - 1985) and early Generation Y (born 1986 – 1995). The two consumer segments represent a large proportion of the country's middle-class, which is the fastest growing segment in South Africa (Kane, 2017; Mafika, 2007). The middle-class has seen black South Africans, in particular, emerge into a class of formal higher education, highly skilled occupations, salaried jobs and consumer spending on choice products (Burger et al., 2015; Leibbrandt and Zizzamia, 2017; Mafika, 2007). As a result, in their pursuit for individual fulfilment and expression, they are motivated to maintain purchases that elevate them as individuals. It is expected in this research that these goals will influence their interpersonal relationships with, and loyalty to, individual hairstylists.

2.8. Factors Likely to Influence Haircare Consumption and Choice of Hairstylists

2.8.1. Social expressions and cultures

Consumers ascribe to social influences such as cultural, religious or corporate standards, and uphold standards of beauty and appropriateness of hair presentation (Borgerson, 2013; Nyamnjoh and Fuh, 2014; Thompson, 2009). Consumers use their hair to express themselves socially and conform to social norms and this affects how they select a hairdresser. A common belief in traditional African cultures is that a strand of hair that falls from the head can be used to harm its owner, therefore, consumers select their hairstylists carefully, preferring those who are close relatives or members of the same clan (Matshego, 2017).

Similarly, South African consumers who follow the Rastafarian and Sikh religions believe that hair has identification attributes and spiritual strengths and should, therefore, not be cut but allowed to grow naturally (Lowe, 2016; Savishinsky, 1994). The Rastafarian religion originated from Jamaica and attributes spiritual strength in locked hair by making reference to Samson's hair locks in the Holy Bible (Chawane, 2014; Lowe, 2016; Savishinsky, 1994; Tolsi, 2011). On the other hand, in Sikhism, which originated from northern India, growing natural hair is an act of respect to God's perfect creation and should, therefore, be maintained with the same respect (Jacobsen, 2017). As a result, there is a tendency for religious followers to allow only those who either share or understand and appreciate their beliefs to style their hair.

2.8.2. Emotional needs

Although young working professionals seek relationships that allow them to express their uniqueness and independence, they may often feel inferior due to social comparisons between themselves and the images of glamourous celebrities, media stars and role models with perfect hair (Motseki and Oyedemi, 2017; Rojek, 2012; Thompson, 2009). They also harbour feelings of insecurity because of undesirable conditions that they are embarrassed about, such as receding hairlines, balding spots, weak and thinning hair, or grey hair (Bailey, 2014; Milady, 2016). They, therefore, seek empathy from the client-hairstylist relationship, and expect positive approaches to solutions for solving the physical and emotional problems associated with their ailments (Baden and Prasad, 2016; Hanson, 2019; Sattler and Deane, 2016). Over and above the reassurance they receive in the relationship, the confidence and emotional support help to create deeper attachment between the two individuals and this, in turn, fosters more interactions and a more cohesive relationship.

2.8.3. Frequency of visits to a hairstylist

The number of times a client visits a hairstylist depends on how often they want their hair done and the longevity of the hairstyle. More visits give a hairstylist and client more opportunities to interact and build a relationship (Gutek et al., 1999; Jiang, Nevskaya, et al., 2016; Rosenbaum et al., 2015). Depending on a client's career, young and mature working professionals generally desire to maintain their own standards of beauty and presentation and therefore seek regular appointments with their hairdresser (Algharabali, 2014; Milady, 2016; World Skills International, 2016). For example, actors, entertainers and visual media personnel experience daily interactions with their stylists because visual appeal is a priority for their work. Although other clients have less frequent interactions with their hairdressers, they still experience a level of attachment during their visits and it is important to uncover the extent to which those interactions affect personal loyalty.

2.8.4. Loyalty or retention programmes in South Africa

Loyalty programs in South Africa resemble retention programmes that reward consumers for behaving favourably towards a firm (Eighty20 and Tritech Media, 2018; Truth, 2016a). Businesses often show their appreciation to loyal customers who increase their purchases or re-patronise their stores by rewarding them with preferential treatment, discounts, credit, points or cash-back opportunities, among others (Business Tech, 2018; Truth, 2016a). There are over

100 loyalty programmes in South Africa's retail sector alone and customers subscribe to more than one loyalty programme to benefit from the rewards (Truth and BrandMapp, 2018). Although they subscribe to many loyalty programmes, customers only have the capacity to remain loyal to a few. Therefore, loyalty programmes with attractive benefits have become increasingly relevant for businesses to compete successfully.

Consumers understand the value and benefits of being loyal and increasingly expect businesses to show them appreciation of their loyalty. According to Truth (2016a), consumers viewed loyalty programmes as an avenue for alleviating pressure from a depreciated South African Rand and resulted in a 6% increase in consumers' subscriptions to loyalty programmes between 2015 and 2016. South Africa's most popular loyalty programmes belong to the pharmacy and beauty retail sector, in which 72% of consumers use the Clicks ClubCard reward programme and 65% use the Dis-Chem Benefit reward programme (Truth and BrandMapp, 2018, p. 7). Both offer points and cash-back rewards that allow customers to purchase more or pay less in the future. Furthermore, Truth and BrandMapp (2018, p. 13) find that strong loyalty in the specialist health and beauty sector contributes significantly to company turnover because of the high proportion of sales generated through loyalty programmes.

Loyalty, monitored through loyalty programmes, is important for future business survival because it is expensive to acquire new customers and loyal customers offer more stability and longer customer life-time value to businesses (Beneke et al., 2016). Furthermore, businesses benefit from the resultant customer retention through, market share growth from increased customer subscriptions to the loyalty programmes as well as higher profits from the additional sales generated. Due to these advantages, the adoption of loyalty programmes in South Africa has spread across many sectors including the beauty and hair industry (Eighty20 and Tritech Media, 2018; Truth, 2016a; Truth and BrandMapp, 2018; Wentzel, 2017).

2.8.5. Loyalty programmes in the haircare industry

Loyalty programmes in the haircare industry are also based on rewarding loyal clients by offering VIP treatment, coupons, free haircare merchandise and new products before they are officially launched (Beauty South Africa, 2016a; Carlton Hair, 2019; L'Oreal Paris, 2019). As previously mentioned, clients subscribe to the programmes to benefit from the additional value that they receive in exchange for their loyalty. The programmes also aim to gather and maintain accurate information about clients' haircare treatments over time and personalise

communication with clients either instore or online (Truth, 2016b). Although salons have similar loyalty programmes to those offered in other sectors, hairstylists experience a different kind of customer loyalty that is not captured by these programmes.

Salons provide loyalty programmes based on the number of visits to the salon, client referrals or spending on services in the salon (Beauty South Africa, 2016b; Milady, 2016). However, they fail to recognise a client's revisits to the same hairstylist in the same salon as an indicator of loyalty. As employees, hairstylists are directly responsible for performing haircare services and building and maintaining clientele (Fernbach, 2016; Milady, 2016). Therefore, they directly contribute to increasing sales and turnover for the business as a whole. Even though they actively initiate and build their clientele by persistently promoting themselves to individual clients, loyalty programmes undermine the value of other benefits that clients receive directly from their preferred hairstylists. Over and above the rewards offered by salons, clients also enjoy the personal attention, favours and advice on social matters that result from direct interaction with the same hairstylist (Barrie, 2015; Bove and Johnson, 2009; Cohen, 2010b; Fernbach, 2016).

Unfortunately, current loyalty programmes overlook personal loyalty to a hairstylist and ignore the value that clients receive from their preferred hairstylists. As a result, contentious debates over who is rightfully entitled to a client database and future spending persist between hairstylists and salon managers, especially when hairstylists change salons (Alberino, 2016; Cohen, 2010b; Venter, 2007). Since loyalty is attributed more to an individual hairstylist than to the salon where the hairstylist works, non-solicitation clauses that disallow hairstylists from approaching clients after changing salons present a disadvantage to clients who are personally loyal to one hairstylist (Alberino, 2016; Bove and Johnson, 2002). It is, therefore, important to consider the benefits of personalised relationships that form and result in personal loyalty to hairstylists. The next chapter discusses the relevance of client satisfaction in haircare services, including the resultant commercial friendship that leads to personal loyalty to a hairstylist.

2.9. Conclusion

From the review of the important players in the global and South African haircare industry, it was found that hairstylists play an important role of providing skilled care services for satisfying personal, physical, emotional and social needs. They also integrate industry players to participate in business conventions and research. The haircare industry is not only attractive

in France, the USA and Brazil, but it is also a profitable industry in Nigeria and South Africa.

Key players in the South African industry all contribute to providing satisfactory services for clients, including the Department of Higher Education and Training, labour relations bodies and manufacturers of branded haircare products. Even though haircare companies and brands play important roles in supplying haircare products and training, hairstylists, however, emerge as the most prominent of the players because of their creative and relational abilities, as well as their ability to help clients to express themselves personally and socially. It is therefore important to nurture the relationship between a client and a hairstylist for future economic benefits. Furthermore, the extent of personal loyalty to hairdressers, especially from working professionals, is worth understanding in order to determine potential financial benefits that can emerge from the relationship in the future. However, this depends on a consumer's continuous satisfaction with an individual hairstylist. The next chapter, therefore, discusses the importance of client satisfaction based on several theoretical views.

CHAPTER 3: THE DRIVERS AND OUTCOMES OF SATISFACTION

3.1. Introduction

This chapter reviews theories and models on customer satisfaction in order to identify the drivers and benefits of customer satisfaction. It cites differences in the contexts of services and personal services and highlights customer satisfaction in haircare services. The chapter also discusses how customer satisfaction has been measured in the service industry with particular reference to personal services. It examines customer satisfaction as a predictor of commercial relationships between clients and service employees, as well as a driver of personal loyalty to individual service employees. The chapter begins by discussing various conceptualisations of customer satisfaction.

As a notable theme in consumer behaviour and consumer psychology fields, satisfaction is important in marketing because of its high relevance in consumer motivation and human survival (Freitas and Leonard, 2011; Maslow, 1970; Taormina and Gao, 2013). Above all, it is the central concept of the prevailing consumer orientation philosophy, which suggests that the social and economic justification of firms is to satisfy the needs of consumers responsibly to sustain business in the long-term (Cant et al., 2017, p. 12; Lamb et al., 2015, p. 12; Tadajewski and Jones, 2012). Therefore, understanding customer satisfaction is very important for this study.

3.2. Various Conceptualisations of Customer Satisfaction

Consumer satisfaction is regarded as a dynamic construct because of its varied definition, conceptualisation and interpretation (Hill and Brierley, 2017; Yi, 2011). The definition of customer satisfaction has continuously been debatable and viewed from various perspectives. Some of the perspectives are discussed in the next subsections.

3.2.1. Customer satisfaction defined from customer effort and expectation fulfilment

Cardozo's (1965, p. 245) experimental research suggests that satisfaction is the fulfilment of expectations that results from two successful events: a customer's effort in seeking a product and the product meeting the customer's expectations. This implies that consumers derive satisfaction from their success of finding the product that they want and their favourable assessment of the product's ability to match their needs from the pre-purchase to the post-

purchase phases. Cardozo's (1965) conceptualisation assumes that the rewards of anticipation and matching of needs constitute satisfaction and the higher the anticipation or greater the effort, the more favourable their evaluation of the product. This suggests that satisfaction is not only determined but is also calibrated by the consumer. This attribute relates to the social psychological principle of commitment which suggests that when an individual commits to acquiring a product, their desire for it increases as it becomes more difficult to obtain (Ferreira et al., 2015). Conversely, it also means that the attribute that precedes satisfaction is the result of determination: customers invest more effort in products that they believe will meet their expectations and compensate for their effort with the rewarding feeling that the product has met their expectations.

The theory of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1962) supports the logic that customers assess whether or not a product meets their pre-conceived expectations while the contrast theory supports the logic that customers exaggerate their lack of fulfilment when products fail to meet their expectations (Cardozo, 1965, p. 244). The contrast theory is most applicable for investigating the depth of dissatisfaction while the dissonance theory is more useful in determining whether or not satisfaction has occurred. As most social science research generally aims to measure satisfaction rather than dissatisfaction, the adoption of the dissonance theory is more prominent in social and commercial research, despite differences in the conceptualisations of satisfaction.

3.2.2. Defining customer satisfaction from pre-exposure, post-exposure and post-consumption evaluations

Customer satisfaction has also been defined as the aggregate of a consumer's evaluative responses to a product at different time-frames and intensities (Giese and Cote, 2002, p. 14). Each phase that a consumer goes through (pre-exposure, post-exposure and post-consumption) represents a customer's experience with a product and the intensity of satisfaction increases with more direct experiences with a product. Pre-exposure evaluations occur when customers know about a product from external sources but have not experienced or encountered it. Therefore, they form internal expectations or ideas about the product and compare them to the marketing claims made about the product (Giese and Cote, 2002; Hill and Brierley, 2017). The first level of satisfaction is recognised when product claims exceed internal expectations. This cognitive response motivates customers to experience the product with more intensity.

While pre-exposure evaluations are motivated by cognitive cues, the post-exposure evaluations are motivated by visual cues from live demonstrations of the product (Halstead et al., 1994, p. 122). Once pre-exposure satisfaction is achieved, customers can either experience the product directly by purchasing and consuming it or indirectly by observing others using it. After indirect experiences with the product, customers engage in post-exposure evaluations by comparing the product performance claims against the observed performance (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001; Hill and Brierley, 2017). A positive evaluation increases the intensity of satisfaction and can induce an affective or conative response to purchase the product and experience it directly (Giese and Cote, 2002).

Direct experiences from consumption result in post-consumption evaluations in which customers compare their actual experiences to their internal expectations and observations. Together, the cognitive, affective and conative responses to evaluations constitute satisfaction at different intensities. Oliver (1980, 2014), supported by Anderson and Sullivan (1993) and Bentz et al. (2016) therefore, conceptualise customer satisfaction in terms of a cognitive model in which a customer experiences attitudinal responses (cognitive, affective and conative) from an internal reference point. This differs from Cardozo's (1965) conceptualisation that suggests that customer satisfaction is founded on a customer's implicit effort as well as cognitive response. Rather, Giese and Cote (2002) and Anderson and Sullivan (1993) suggest that, although satisfaction is processed by consumers from their evaluations, the definition and recognition of satisfaction are derived explicitly from those experiences.

3.2.3. The American Customer Satisfaction Index (ACSI) conceptualisation of customer satisfaction

While some conceptualisations of customer satisfaction focus on individual consumers' attitudinal responses at different intensities, the American Customer Satisfaction Index (ACSI) focuses on an overall measure of the quality of goods and services experienced by consumers (Fornell et al., 1996, p. 7). The ACSI conceptualises customer satisfaction as an overall affective response to a cognitive evaluation of expectations, perceived quality and perceived value (Fornell et al., 1996; Morgeson III et al., 2015). The evaluations of expectations and quality are common in most conceptualisations and are well accepted by researchers. However, the ACSI's inclusion of price is received differently.

While perceived quality relates to product performance, perceived value represents the actual

product performance relative to the price paid for the product (Sun and Kim, 2013). Quality is important because it is an internal attribute of a product that helps to evaluate product performance against expectations (Oliver, 2014). However, by including value, Fornell et al. (1996) suggest that price evaluations are implicit in satisfaction even though price is an external attribute of a product. If a consumer's quality and value assessments for the same product differ, satisfaction will then be defined as the net emotional effect of the evaluations rather than the aggregate of the evaluations. This potentially causes confusion because a high quality product that performs beyond expectations may be deemed unsatisfactory because the negative value score overshadows the positive quality score. There is, therefore, a need for the ACSI to distinguish between satisfaction defined from product quality and satisfaction defined from product value.

Despite the confusion often caused by defining satisfaction using the ACSI, its use is widespread due to its ability to measure satisfaction across different firms and industries at a national level (Rajendran and Suresh, 2017). As a derivative of the Swedish Customer Satisfaction Barometer (SCSB), the ACSI suggests that the overall measure of customer satisfaction should not only reflect customers' historical views about products, services and experiences, but also provide futuristic information to determine the future performance of a firm (Anderson et al., 1994; Anderson and Sullivan, 1993). On the subject of future performance, it is also important to consider the potential outcomes of customer satisfaction. The next section delves into some theories and models that help to explain the drivers and outcomes of customer satisfaction.

3.3. Theories and Models Explaining Drivers and Outcomes of Customer Satisfaction

Literature is abundant with theories and models about the drivers and outcomes of customer satisfaction. Three of them are described under this section.

3.3.1. Expectancy-disconfirmation model (EDM)

The EDM, also known as the disconfirmation of expectations model, is an important and commonly used model to explain consumer satisfaction ((Evangelidis and Van Osselaer, 2018; Kotler et al., 2018). The model is based on Festinger's (1962) theory of cognitive dissonance and explains satisfaction as the result of a comparison between preconceived expectations and actual experiences (Evangelidis and Van Osselaer, 2018; Oliver, 1980). It has been used

widely in many conceptualisations of customer satisfaction, including the ones mentioned in the previous section.

Fundamentally, the cognitive evaluation process (disconfirmation of beliefs) is initiated after a customer internally forms their beliefs about possible experiences with a product before purchasing it (Evangelidis and Van Osselaer, 2018). Once they purchase and consume the product, they form new beliefs based on their product-related experience (Rust and Oliver, 1993; Westbrook and Reilly, 1983). The cognitive comparison between pre-experience and post-experience beliefs results in three cognitive states: positive confirmation, positive disconfirmation and negative disconfirmation (Hill and Alexander, 2017, p. 174; Yi, 2011, p. 69). Customer satisfaction is recognised when actual experiences either match or surpass the preconceived expectations which result from positive confirmation and positive disconfirmation (Evangelidis and Van Osselaer, 2018; Yi, 2011). In the same light, dissatisfaction occurs when prior expectations exceed the actual experience and result from negative disconfirmation.

Despite its dominance in satisfaction theory, the EDM is criticised for restricting the determination of satisfaction to a subjective and cognitive outcome, as well as for ignoring affective and attitudinal elements (Oliver, 1981; Westbrook and Reilly, 1983; Yi, 2011). On one hand, the subjective nature of determining satisfaction is justified because customers evaluate their own perceptions of product experiences. On the other hand, from a firm's perspective, the objective evaluation of a product is equally important to ensure that their product promises match their actual performance (Evangelidis and Van Osselaer, 2018; Szymanski and Henard, 2001). The EDM overlooks the relevance of the objective view in favour of the consumer's subjective view.

As noted by Bhattacherjee (2001), Oliver (1996), Rust and Oliver (1993) and Yi (2011), the EDM also presents a static view of satisfaction by not taking into account a customer's subsequent comparisons of newly formed beliefs, emotions and attitude over time due to re-purchase behaviour. The nature of satisfaction is more expansive and longitudinal than one static cognitive comparison. This is because humans generally engage their emotions and form attitudes about products over many cycles of disconfirmation processes rather than from a single instance (Westbrook and Reilly, 1983). This suggests that a more holistic determination of satisfaction should take into account the fluctuations of cognitive and affective comparisons

over time.

However, in spite of its short-falls, researchers recognise the fundamental importance of comparison emphasised by the EDM as well as the benefits of repurchase intention that can result from satisfaction. Researchers have also incorporated this element when they operationalise and model customer satisfaction to suit research contexts, some of which include the SERVQUAL model (Parasuraman et al., 1985, 1988), many derivatives of the SERVQUAL model (Dabholkar et al., 1996; Knutson et al., 1990; Stevens et al., 1995) and the value-percept disparity model (Locke, 1967).

3.3.2. The value-percept disparity model

The value-percept disparity model recognises customer satisfaction as an emotional response that is initiated by a cognitive evaluation process in which a customer compares their perceptions about an object with their values pertaining to the object (Locke, 1967). Objects comprise of products, services, institutions, behaviours and conditions, while a consumer's values include needs, wants and desires (Westbrook and Reilly, 1983). The underlying assumption is that consumers aim to attain their values and, therefore, rely on their perceptions about objects to judge the extent to which the objects assist them in attaining their values (Morgeson III et al., 2015; Westbrook and Reilly, 1983; Yi, 2011). Consequently, narrower disparities between values and perceptions imply greater customer satisfaction because they generate positive emotions from value attainment (Oliver, 2014). Following the same analogy, wider disparities between values and perceptions generate negative emotions due to a customer's failure to attain those values, which is recognised as dissatisfaction.

Similar to the EDM, the value-percept disparity model examines a consumer's comparison to establish satisfaction. However, the main difference between the two models is the end goal of the consumer. In the case of the disparity model, the goal is to achieve a customer's values, rather than to match a customer's expectations about a product to its performance (Westbrook and Reilly, 1983). Additionally, the inclusion of non-tangible values makes the value-percept disparity model more applicable to a wide range of offerings and environmental factors, such as actions of employees or institutions, that can lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Yi, 2011). Researchers, therefore, model satisfaction as a measure of the extent to which objects provide features that consumers desire based on a semantic differential scale anchored by the phrases: "provides less than my needs" and "provides exactly what I need" (Amoako et al., 2016;

Morgeson III et al., 2015; Yi, 2011).

Although some researchers prefer the value-percept disparity model over the EDM, Yi (2011, p. 92) suggests that the disparity model alone is also limited in adequately determining satisfaction. While it provides firms with information about the ability of their objects to meet consumers' values, the validations of the items used to measure satisfaction are not conclusive. Consumer values may represent ideal consumer wants that have no bearing on a manufacturer's product intentions. In this case, even though a product meets its claimed expectations, evaluations based on idealistic consumer values may suggest that the product is not satisfactory. Therefore, due to the use of idealistic consumer values rather than the manufacturer's expectations, there is a higher possibility that the estimation of satisfaction via the value-percept disparity is distorted (Westbrook and Reilly, 1983). This may explain why the use of the model is not as dominant as other models. Nonetheless, Yi (2011) recommends the development of multiple measures of satisfaction to be prioritised in satisfaction theories. Although theories concentrate on different aspects involved in the satisfaction process, they complement, rather than compete against, each another as researchers continue to develop consensus on the conceptualisation and measurement of satisfaction (Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016).

3.3.3. Understanding customer satisfaction from the two-factor (motivation-hygiene) theory

Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) suggest a theory for motivating employees, stating that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are determined by two sets of intrinsic conditions in the workplace: hygiene factors and motivators. Although the theory refers to employee satisfaction, it has been adapted and operationalised as a two-factor theory of customer satisfaction because its underlying principles are relevant and applicable to customer satisfaction in many service settings, including education, banking, health and hospitality (Alshmemri et al., 2017; Back, 2012; DeShields et al., 2005; Douglas et al., 2015; Herington and Weaven, 2009; Zhang et al., 2015).

The theory prescribes that hygiene factors are the minimal and necessary conditions that make it conducive for motivation to occur. Even though the factors themselves do not motivate, their absence can lead to dissatisfaction (Alshmemri et al., 2017; DeShields et al., 2005; Herzberg et al., 1959). In organisations, employees consider salaries, good physical working conditions

and job security as some of the minimum requirements for them to provide services. Typical hygiene factors in hospitality settings comprise of tangible elements such as the presence of staff, availability of furniture and instruments, the taste of food and cleanliness (Back, 2012; Collins et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2015). Similarly, clients have minimal expectations from electronic-banking services, including user-friendliness of the website, site organisation, and efficiency (Herington and Weaven, 2009).

On the other hand, motivator factors (or satisfiers) encourage superior performance or higher appreciation due to the perception of added benefits. Herzberg et al. (1959) prescribe that the recognition of accomplishments, opportunities for promotion and added responsibility contribute to job satisfaction for employees due to the psychological effect of motivation. The concepts of hygiene and motivator factors for employee satisfaction are also applied in the customer arena, in that, although customers enjoy the core benefits offered and also anticipate added benefits above the core benefits for full satisfaction. Therefore, as a result of the motivators, they are likely to seek more satisfaction from the products. Back (2012) and Zhang et al. (2015) observe that the relative importance of satisfiers and hygiene factors results in hybrid factors that alter the construction of satisfaction. As a result, they propose an extension of the two-factor model to a three-factor model to explain customer satisfaction as a construct of hygiene, motivator and hybrid factors. By extension of the theory, researchers, therefore, acknowledge that not all customer expectations result in satisfaction and, rather, some prevent customer dissatisfaction.

In view of the three theories discussed, the EDM is the most common among researchers in consumer behaviour fields. It has been used vastly to measure customer satisfaction and forms the basis of two customer satisfaction models in services marketing. These are discussed in the next section.

3.4. Service Quality Theories Explaining Customer Satisfaction With Services

There are many models that explain how customer satisfaction is assessed, however, the growing tendency in the services marketing discipline is to approximate customer satisfaction with service quality evaluations (Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016, p. 403). However, similar to satisfaction, consumers and firms have different perspectives of service quality due to the intangible and multifaceted nature of services. Internationally, industries often refer to summarised definitions prescribed by the International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO)

9000, which describes service quality generally as the ability of a service to comply with requirements specified by a client (Hoyle, 2001, p. 21). A transcendent view likens service quality to the innate excellence of service performance that is supported by well-founded standards and high achievement (Gronroos, 1984; Nyamnjoh and Fuh, 2014; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). In spite of the numerous interpretations, researchers generally refer to different dimensions of a service when determining service quality and, thereafter, to determine customer satisfaction. The most common seminal theories of service quality from which customer satisfaction can be assessed are the Nordic model provided by Gronroos (1984, 1988) and the SERVQUAL model developed by Parasuraman, Zeithalm and Berry (1985, 1988). Both are discussed briefly in the next subsection.

3.4.1. Measuring customer satisfaction with services using the Nordic model

Based on the EDM, the Nordic model measures customer satisfaction from services by comparing expected and perceived service quality in terms of two dimensions: functional and technical service quality (Gronroos, 1984; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). The functional dimension entails the processes of service delivery that a service provider follows to produce an outcome while the technical dimension is the actual outcome of a service process (Gronroos, 1988, p. 11; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016, p. 404). For example, airline passengers go through numerous procedures from the time they purchase a ticket until they disembark from the airplane at their destination. All the interactions that the passengers experience with the airline staff during that time are part of the functional quality dimension. Among others, the interactions may include communication about the flight details, checking-in procedures, baggage allowance, the cabin crews' hospitality and the comfort of the flight (Hussain et al., 2015; Leong et al., 2015). The interactions are part of the travelling service production processes and passengers can, therefore, assess the airline's functional service quality based on their expectations and perceptions of the service production processes.

The technical dimension of service quality captures the final moment of truth when a service provider delivers the outcome for a customer to judge whether or not their expectations were met (Gronroos, 1988; Kasiri et al., 2017). Continuing with the example of passenger flight services, the technical dimension represents what passengers are left with once the flight and interactions with the airline are completed at the destination. The technical dimension, therefore, encapsulates the end goal of the service provider: in this case, the goal to carry

passengers from the departure point to the arrival point.

The Nordic model allows service firms to distinguish between service process management and outcome achievement. It is important for service providers to consider both dimensions of quality because, unlike products, services, comprise of activities that are performed over time and yield intangible outcomes (Gronroos and Gummesson, 2012; Kowalkowski, 2015). Since consumer perceptions of service production processes and outcomes often differ, service providers can recommend changes to either dimension to improve customer satisfaction (West et al., 2015). Although the model has its merits, its use is not widespread. The SERVQUAL model has received more attention in research due to its rigorous and validated service quality scales

3.4.2. Service quality dimensions using the SERVQUAL model

The SERVQUAL model is based on a multi-item scale that was developed to measure customer satisfaction as a function of generic service quality dimensions (Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry 1985, 1988). Similar to the Nordic model, it also follows a disconfirmation paradigm, however, the SERVQUAL scale was initially designed to measure customer satisfaction from services in terms of ten dimensions: tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, credibility, security, competence, courtesy, easy access, good communication and customer understanding (Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016, p. 405). Subsequent research revealed high correlations between some of the dimensions and resulted in a reduction to five dimensions of service quality, commonly known as the RATER dimensions: reliability, assurance, tangibles, empathy and responsiveness (Gronroos, 1988; Parasuraman et al., 1988, 1991). The service quality scale was then developed to measure client satisfaction from clients' perceptions of service quality offered by service providers in terms of these five dimensions (Ali and Raza, 2017; Eboli and Mazzulla, 2009; Parasuraman et al., 1988) as described in the next subsection.

3.4.2.1. Reliability

The reliability of a service that an employee offers refers to their ability to perform a promised service dependably and accurately at all times (Collier and Bienstock, 2015; Jiang, Jun, et al., 2016; Parasuraman et al., 1988; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). Consumers expect effective and efficient performance, which in turn relies highly on a service employee's knowledge, internal expertise and skills necessary to deliver the service. While some services rely on machinery and technology to perform the majority of the activities (for example, office solutions,

communication networks and automated teller services), others rely more on the intellectual or physical attributes of a service employee (for example, legal, education, medical, spa and haircare services). Various service sectors, including transport, hospitality and online retail services, regard reliability as the most important dimension because poor service performance easily results in customer dissatisfaction (Ali and Raza, 2017; Basfirinci and Mitra, 2015; Collier and Bienstock, 2015; Collins et al., 2015; Eboli and Mazzulla, 2009; Hussain et al., 2015; Jiang, Jun, et al., 2016; Pizam et al., 2016).

3.4.2.2. Assurance

Assurance describes a service employee's ability to convey trust and confidence in a consumer in terms of four sub-dimensions: credibility, security, competence and courtesy (Parasuraman et al., 1991). Competence is functionally important because it determines the actual performance of a service and credibility relates to trustworthiness and the conveyance of honesty (Souca, 2011). A client's positive judgement of credibility and courtesy affect the service provider's image and reputation for conducting business ethically and clients who have not encountered a service provider often rely on this reputation (Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). The same applies with security because consumers generally prefer to be free from danger or disbelief in service encounters. Although these sub-dimensions are highly prioritised in financial service settings such as banking, accountancy and insurance services, clients generally expect service providers to be credible and secure in safeguarding their assets and business relationships (Ali and Raza, 2017; Herington and Weaven, 2009; Mohammad, 2015; Rajendran and Suresh, 2017).

3.4.2.3. Tangibles

So far, the dimensions described are attributed directly to the characteristics or performance of service employees. However, service firms do not perform services in isolation of a physical environment, but rather make extensive use of physical elements to deliver satisfactory performances (Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016, p. 405). The tangible dimension is the only dimension of service quality that refers to visible aspects such as the appearance of physical facilities, fixtures and fittings, tools, employees and communication materials (Lee et al., 2016; Panda and Das, 2014; Parasuraman et al., 1988). Different service providers use different tangible elements, as appropriate to their service sectors. For example, tangibles such as beds, medical scanners and medication are relevant to health care services, while food, tables, chairs,

crockery and cutlery may be more relevant to culinary services (Lee et al., 2016).

Service providers typically portray to prospective consumers an image of high quality through their use of technology, service enhancement systems, interior store designs and other appealing elements (Beneke et al., 2016; Panda and Das, 2014). Consequently, consumers can readily assess tangibles without actually purchasing or experiencing the service. This does not imply that tangibles are inferior to other dimensions. Rather, tangibles are considered equally important because they trigger client expectations before service experience and enable service employees to carry out service processes to meet consumer needs (Panda and Das, 2014).

3.4.2.4. Empathy

The empathy dimension describes the ability of a service employee to have compassion and identify with a client (Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016, p. 405). Similar to the assurance dimension, empathy is based on three sub-dimensions: access, communication and understanding the client. An accessible service employee is one that a client finds easy to speak to when they have a problem, and that is located in an area that is convenient for the client. Empathy also easily translates to demonstrations of personal care and willingness to understand a client's needs (Harrison-Walker, 2000; Mittal and Lassar, 1996). This follows the general rule of the prevailing philosophies of customer orientation and relationship marketing to understand consumers in order to accommodate them (Tadajewski and Jones, 2012). Understanding the needs of a client is facilitated by effective communication and helps service providers to plan and justify the activities they perform for their clients. The compounding effect of a service employee's good communication skills contributes to the welfare and motivation of a client. Communication is a relational element that helps employees to understand their clients' objectives and, therefore, necessary to inform them of activities that will help to achieve the objectives (Arnold et al., 2011; De Silva, 2015).

3.4.2.5. Responsiveness

The manner in which service employees respond to clients' needs ascribes to the responsiveness dimension of service quality (Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016, p. 405). This reflects their readiness to help clients and provide a timely service, especially when a problem occurs (Harrison-Walker, 2000; Parasuraman et al., 1991). A service employee's responsiveness is most obvious in health care and maintenance or repair settings because the urgency for service employees to respond quickly is most prominent. As consumers seek healthcare services in

cases of emergency, ill-health or consultation, the willingness of paramedics, doctors and nurses to attend to them promptly is highly regarded (Cyril de Run and Muhammad Butt, 2010; Kalkowski and Paul, 2017; Roshnee Ramsaran-Fowdar, 2008; Varki and Wong, 2003). Similarly, residents of public housing and owners of motor vehicles value prompt assistance from their service providers as this eases their discomfort and prepares them to anticipate solutions for their problems (Ogba and Izogo, 2015; Parasuraman et al., 1991; Wisniewski, 2001).

Despite its widespread use for measuring customer satisfaction with services, the SERVQUAL model has been criticised for having limitations when explaining customer satisfaction. A few criticisms are discussed in the next subsection.

3.4.2.6. Criticisms of the SERVQUAL model in explaining customer satisfaction

Despite its popularity, there are some limitations of the SERVQUAL theory in explaining customer satisfaction. Since it is fundamentally based on the EDM, it is inherently biased towards measuring consumer-based disconfirmation and overlooks a service provider's ability to actually performance services (Jain and Gupta, 2004; Leong et al., 2015). It is also criticised for highlighting service quality shortfalls rather than merits or overall service quality (Cronin and Taylor, 1994; Rasyida et al., 2016; Souca, 2011).

These limitations have led to extensions, variations and modifications of the SERVQUAL scale. Cronin and Taylor (1992), reinforced by other researchers (Jain and Gupta, 2004; Leong et al., 2015; Rasyida et al., 2016), argue that performance-based measures are more adequate for assessing overall service quality as a proxy to customer satisfaction than the perception-expectation method used by SERVQUAL. As a result, its performance-based modification, the service performance scale (SERVPERF) is regarded as more psychometrically sound for assessing the overall service quality of a firm, as well as making comparisons across service industries (Jain and Gupta, 2004; Rasyida et al., 2016).

Although SERVQUAL is criticised for focussing on the service quality inadequacies of service providers, it has its merits as a diagnostic tool for identifying areas that require management intervention (Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). Critiques of the SERVQUAL scale or any of its adaptations do not depreciate its value as a measurement scale. Rather, they acknowledge the challenges that researchers face in measuring consumer perceptions of quality and highlight

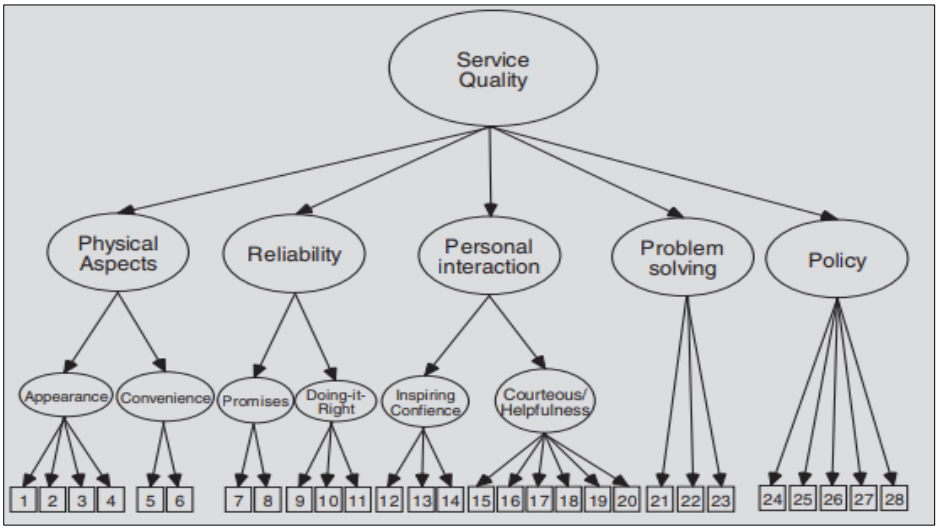
the need to customise the dimensions or items to suit different service settings. It is, therefore, necessary to examine how customer satisfaction is viewed in various fields.

3.5. The Study of Customer Satisfaction in Various Fields

3.5.1. Assessment of customer satisfaction in the retail sector

Retailing entails business activities centred on selling tangible and intangible products to end consumers through online and brick-and-mortar platforms (Beneke et al., 2016, p. 6). In brick-and-mortar formats, customers visit retail stores and directly interact with the physical environment of the store, the tangible products on sale and the front-of-house employees (Mukhtar et al., 2018; Simmers and Keith, 2015). Although retailers offer tangible products, they perform primary services by offering customers access to tangible products, variations in merchandise, convenience, customer service, store design and layout, location and engagement with their customers interpersonally (Beneke et al., 2016; Ivanauskien, 2014). Therefore, customer satisfaction in retailing is determined by interactions with several aspects as well as the availability of tangible products. Researchers refer to the five-dimensional retail service quality scale (RSQS) developed by Dabholkat, Thorpe and Rentz (1996) to measure customer satisfaction in retail settings. Figure 3.1 displays an illustration of the five-dimensional structural model of the RSQS.

Figure 3.1: Five-dimensional RSQS model from which customer satisfaction is judged



Source: Kaul (2007, p. 17)

The RSQS is a modification of Parasuraman et al.'s (1988) SERVQUAL scale that captures the perceptions of customers' satisfaction on a survey. Based on the scale, customer satisfaction

is determined by service quality assessments of physical aspects of the retail store, reliability of the retailer and its employees, personal interactions with employees, the problem-solving abilities of the employees and the policies of operation instilled by the retailer and its employees (Beneke et al., 2016; Dabholkar et al., 1996). Its wide-spread usage suggests that retailers approximate customer satisfaction to customers' assessments of overall service quality (Beneke et al., 2016; Jin and Kim, 2002; Mukhtar et al., 2018; Simmers and Keith, 2015). Compared to the SERVPERF scale, retailers that have a higher ratio of tangible to intangible offerings find the RSQS more practical because it incorporates customers' interactions with the retailer (Simmers and Keith, 2015). This, therefore, justifies its preferential application for measuring customer satisfaction in supermarkets, convenience stores, pharmacies, clothing stores and speciality retailers, among others.

When applying service quality scales to satisfaction, the convention followed by most researchers is to validate the scale for specific contexts and prioritise the dimensions that emerge. Jin and Kim's (2002) comparative study reveals the importance of physical aspects, the reliability of employees and giving customers personal attention in discount retail stores with minor cultural differences between customers in South Korea and the United States of America. Foster and McLelland (2015) confirm this, suggesting that the visual merchandising or atmospherics created by displays, layouts, colour schemes and arrangements immediately communicate the level of effort and, hence, the quality that a retailer invests to accommodate customers. Siu and Cheung (2001) credit the RSQS for its ability to diagnose weak areas of service quality that potentially lower customer satisfaction as well as the need for researchers to modify the scale to suit the retail context and allow dimensions to emerge from the data. To this end, researchers do not view the RSQS as generic scale and, rather, recommend users to adjust the dimensions to suit specific retail contexts (Foster and McLelland, 2015; Simmers and Keith, 2015; Siu and Cheung, 2001).

3.5.2. Customer satisfaction in the hospitality sector

Hospitality encompasses a broad range of services that focus on welcoming and accommodating visitors and guests over short periods of time (Thorpe et al., 2014, p. 7). It transcends many sectors and services, such as tourism and travel, and includes service providers such as hotels, lodges, resorts, casinos, theme parks, cruise ships, restaurants and bars. Customers in hospitality firms are typically referred to as visitors or guests and their

satisfaction is based on the ability of service providers to meet their expectations with regards to accommodation, food, entertainment and customer services (Kasiri et al., 2017; Panda and Das, 2014; Pizam et al., 2016).

As hospitality encompasses different sectors and services, firms either develop their own customised scales or rely on travel agencies to capture information from visitors using their surveys (for example, *TripAdvisor*). Kasiri et al. (2017) note that customisation is very prevalent in the hospitality sector because of the diversity of functional and technical attributes of the different services offered. Therefore, researchers have developed several adaptations from generally used scales to better measure customer satisfaction through service quality. Three of these include the lodge service quality scale (LODGSERV), the dining service quality scale (DINESERV) and the hotel customer satisfaction index (H-CSI). The LODGSERV (Knutson et al., 1990) and DINESERV (Stevens et al., 1995) scales are adaptations of the SERVQUAL scale that were modified to measure customer satisfaction in hotels and restaurants respectively. The H-CSI (Deng et al., 2013) is a modification of Fornell et al.'s (1996) ACSI, which in turn, was adapted from the SCSB, as previously mentioned.

Although each of the scales are unique to their service format, they all have a measure for interpersonal interaction between visitors and service employees. Guests in hotels typically experience high levels of interpersonal interactions with front-of-house staff, interactions with the physical environment, especially for the provision of furniture, fittings, facilities and food, as well as the maintenance of the physical environment, which includes house-keeping (Collins et al., 2015; Deng et al., 2013; Loo and Leung, 2018). Deng et al. (2013) note that, although the ASCI accounts for a broad spectrum of interactions that customers have with service providers, the scale needs to capture their emotional interactions as well. This is because emotions provide deeper customer insights. Similar to recommendations for the RSQS, researchers echo the importance of adjusting hospitality service quality dimensions and customising scales to suit service settings, including personal services.

3.5.3. Characteristics and customer satisfaction in personal services

As mentioned previously, a service is a performance of a particular task or series of tasks, therefore, satisfaction is assessed based on the outcome of the performance (Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016, p. 36). A personal service is one that is performed directly on a person, rather than an inanimate object, usually by another person. Personal services differ from other

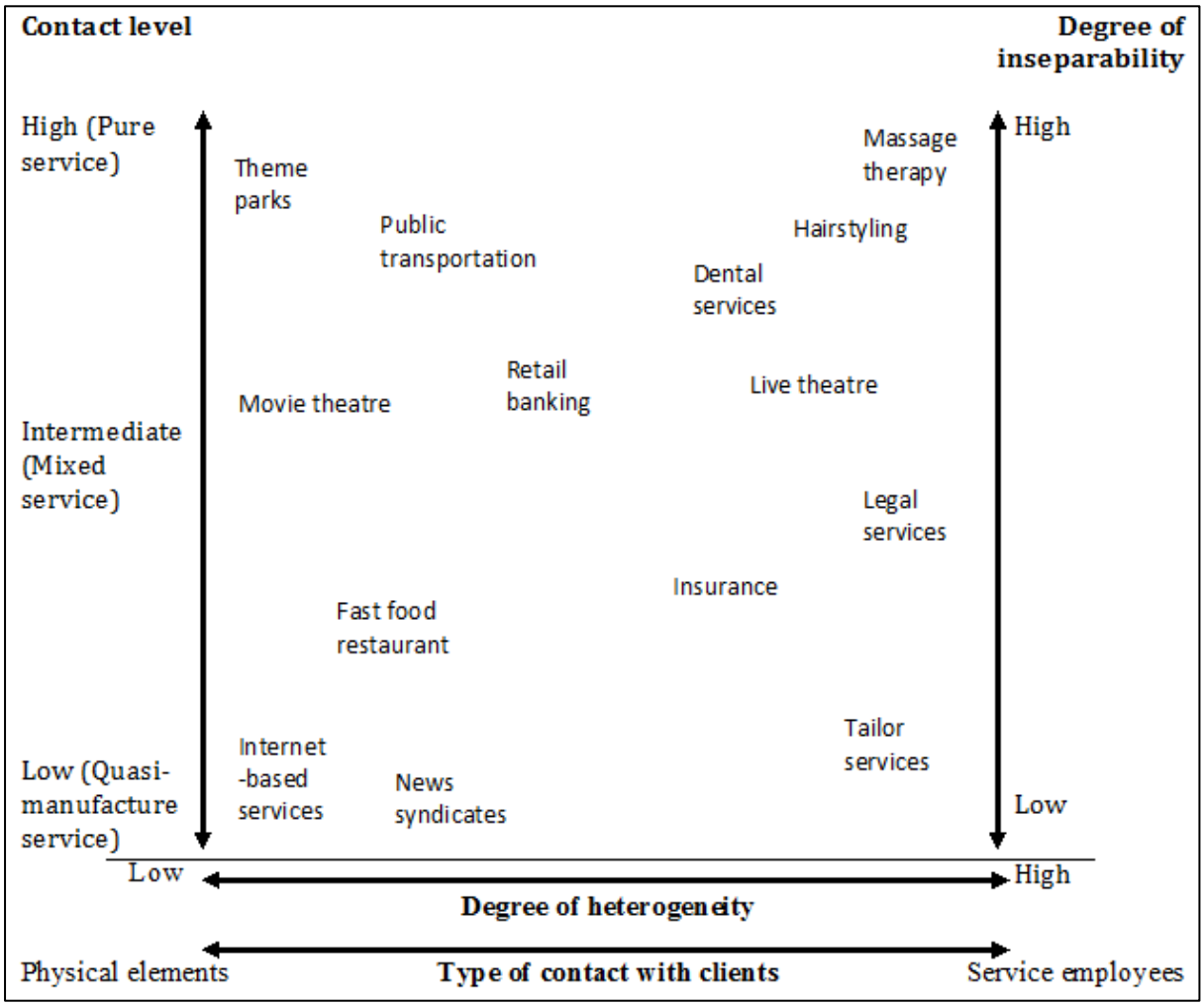
services because they require more interpersonal interaction between service employees and clients (Bove and Johnson, 2000; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). Although all services commonly exhibit distinct characteristics of variability, intangibility, inseparability and perishability, they do not exhibit them uniformly due to their diverse natures (Kotler et al., 2018; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). As a result, this affects the way some services are performed, delivered and consumed by clients, thereby highlighting the importance of distinguishing personal services from other services. Personal services are different from other services in the following ways: types and levels of client-employee contact, how people and processes are managed and the prevalence of co-creation between employees and clients. These are discussed in the following subsections.

3.5.3.1. Differences in types and levels of client-employee contact

In services marketing, "people" is one of the seven Ps of the marketing mix and it refers to the combination of a service firm's recruitment and training of employees, business culture, control, involvement, assessment and support of employees in service production (Kotler et al., 2018, p. 177; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016, p. 45). Service employees are, therefore, a priority and more so in personal services. The types of contact with client that can occur are contact with employees, contact with the firm's physical environment or contact with both (Chase, 2010; Patterson and Mechinda, 2011).

The levels of contact are either high, intermediate or low. At high-contact levels, services are classified as pure services because they involve long and intense physical interactions that require clients to be present for service production to occur (Chase, 2010, p. 13; Chase and Tansik, 1983, p. 1041; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016, p. 66). At intermediate-contact levels, shorter and less intense physical interactions are required and some aspects of the service can be performed without the client's physical presence, hence the term mixed services (Chase, 2010). Finally, low-contact levels typically involve less time and peripheral interactions. They are referred to a quasi-manufacturing services because employees perform them by producing tangible outputs for clients (for example, news syndicates broadcast content on current affairs or tailor sew clothing) (Chase, 2010; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). Examples of services by type and level of contact are presented in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2: Integrating levels and types of client contact with service providers



Source: Compiled by researcher using Chase (2010, p. 13) and Wirtz and Lovelock (2016, p. 67)

Figure 3.2 integrates the frameworks on client contact from Chase (2010, p. 13) and Wirtz and Lovelock (2016, p. 67) which assert that the nature of a service can be observed on continuums of high-contact to low-contact encounters for interactions with physical elements and facilities or service employees. Degrees of service heterogeneity and inseparability were added to the frameworks because of their relevance as characteristics of services that have implications on contact classifications.

As a characteristic of a service, inseparability refers to the degree to which both the client and service provider (physical element or service employee) need to be present for service production to take place (Lamb et al., 2015, p. 412). As shown in Figure 3.2, the higher the contact level, the higher the degree of inseparability and the lower the contact level, the lower the degree of inseparability. Since clients' interactions with a service providers are more

significant in services with higher contact and inseparability levels, consumers evaluate these interactions to determine their satisfaction during service production. This means that customer satisfaction in high-contact and inseparable service settings (for example, massage therapy, dentistry services and hairstyling) depends on a clients' evaluation of the interaction with the service employees (massage therapist, dentist or hairstylist). Therefore, satisfaction is determined by the service employee.

Heterogeneity is the degree to which a service varies or is performed in a non-standardised manner such that the processes and outputs are different each time the service is performed (Lamb et al., 2015, p. 413). From Figure 3.2, it is clear that services with more client-employee contact tend to have higher degrees of heterogeneity while those with more client-physical element contact tend to have lower degrees of heterogeneity. Services with low contact and heterogeneity levels tend to be quasi-manufacturing services, therefore, clients may not experience the service production processes and only evaluate their satisfaction from the tangible or standardised outputs (Chase, 2010). On the other hand, high-contact and high-heterogeneity services inherently offer more opportunities for service customisation and when assessing client satisfaction, clients evaluate how well service production processes were adjusted to suit them. Therefore, service customisation is a requirement of heterogeneity and should be expected in services that have high degrees of heterogeneity (for example, massage therapy, hairstyling, legal and tailoring service).

By analysing the vertical and horizontal continuums in Figure 3.2, it is evident that services with high client-employee contact, high inseparability and high heterogeneity resemble personal services. Therefore, marketers understand that value creation in personal services depends on client-employee interactions because both clients and employees are highly inseparable from service production and delivery and, due to high heterogeneity, employees can judge and customise services to better satisfy clients (Vargo and Akaka, 2015; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). The framework is helpful for researchers and marketers to understand and prioritise the service touchpoints that have more client involvement. Due to high inseparability and heterogeneity, personal services also differ from other services in how they manage their clients and the service production processes to achieve client satisfaction.

3.5.3.2. Differences in terms of people and process management

Another characteristic difference between personal services and other services is the need for

service employees to customise processes and outputs owing to high heterogeneity. This is important because, rather than dealing with inanimate objects that respond uniformly to standardised service processes, employees have to interact with people who respond differently to employees and processes (Harrison-Walker, 2000; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). Using hairstyling as an example, hairdressers have to interact with clients with unique features and characteristics and, therefore, have to customise their processes to suit different needs (Gwinner et al., 2005; Marinkovic and Kalinic, 2017). Typically, hairstylists adjust the chemical processing times for clients based on their hair texture, undertone or desired output as well as customise styles to complement a client's facial features (Bailey, 2014; Lowe, 2016).

Since there are potential risks associated with customising processes, the trustworthiness of a service employee is necessary to engender confidence in clients (Beatty et al., 2016; Rasyida et al., 2016). Therefore, appropriate people management qualities, such as empathy and understanding of clients' unique differences, are important for a service employee to have (Coelho and Henseler, 2012; Fornell et al., 1996; Kasiri et al., 2017). People and process management also entail relationship management with clients. Personal relationships with consumers matter in highly personalised services because high-contact personal interactions are central to service performance (Beatty et al., 2016; Gronroos, 2011; Harrison-Walker, 2000). Service employees have to manage the service production processes by incorporating feedback mechanisms between them and clients as well as respond to feedback appropriately (Miles, 2014). Hairstylists often ask their clients if they are comfortable with the tension, heat or products used during their encounters (Milady, 2016; Pottell, 2016; Sattler and Deane, 2016). Apart from providing feedback to their hairstylists, clients can also contribute to the service production process and this leads to the co-creation of services (Hmar, 2011; Vega-Vazquez et al., 2013).

3.5.3.3. Prevalence of co-creation in personal services

In most services, employees provide services independent of any significant input from clients. However, in highly personalised services like hairstyling, clients co-create services physically by participating in the production process or contributing verbally (Algharabali, 2014; Bailey, 2014; Kalkowski and Paul, 2017; Vega-Vazquez et al., 2013). Clients typically contribute to hairstyles by communicating what they want, providing an image of the desired hairstyle or assisting the hairdresser to separate hair fibre for planting extension. Such high client

involvement in service processes helps to contribute to and monitor satisfaction levels throughout the production process (Bailey, 2014; Lewis, 1999).

Owing to the high involvement of clients in some service processes, personal service providers can be more successful at achieving client satisfaction through co-creation with consumers than from employees alone. Some researchers suggest that long-term commitment and personal loyalty are potential benefits of co-creation, especially in high-contact services (Revilla-Camacho et al., 2014; Rosenbaum et al., 2015; Vega-Vazquez et al., 2013). However, client-employee interactions cannot be overlooked because they play a pivotal role in determining commitment and, in particular, personal loyalty to a service employee. This is peculiar to haircare services and it is important to first understand client satisfaction in the haircare services sector.

3.6. Client Satisfaction in the Haircare Sector

It is important to define haircare services before discussing satisfaction because the definition guides how client satisfaction is derived.

3.6.1. Definition of haircare services

As a personal service, hairstyling is a high-contact service that involves significantly physical employee-client interactions throughout service production (Cohen, 2010a; Fernbach, 2016; Harrison-Walker, 2000; World Skills International, 2016). Hairstylists embody the skills and qualities needed to perform services and are, therefore, highly inseparable from their clients during service production (Harrison-Walker, 2000; Lowe, 2016). Even if a hairdresser performs the same hairstyle on numerous clients, each outcome is different due to the unique client features and hairstylist abilities. This explains the high degree of heterogeneity of the service.

Although hairstyling has been identified as a personal service, it is necessary to define it in terms of its properties. The definition operationalised in this study is an adaptation of Harrison-Walker's (2000, p. 38) conceptualised definition of haircare services in terms of five properties:

- tangible hairstyling actions,
- that are directed at a client's head or face,
- that require the hairstylist to exercise judgment to meet the client's unique needs,

- that are high in experience qualities and
- that require continuous feedback to ensure the client's satisfaction.

Hairstyling involves all activities concerned with processing hair using physical and chemical procedures, such as combing, cutting, shaving, braiding and perming (Bailey, 2014, p. 7; Milady, 2016, p. 217). A hairstylist's services may include maintaining facial hair as well as hair on the scalp (Lowe, 2016, p. 52). Since clients have unique features and needs, hairstylists exercise judgement to customise services and styles for clients (Cohen, 2010a; Elsesser, 2013; Harrison-Walker, 2000). They rely on their experience and skills to perform services and ensure ongoing communication with their clients to safeguard the client's satisfaction (Algharabali, 2014; Bailey, 2014; Milady, 2016; Ritchie, 2016).

Since hairstyling is a personal service, client satisfaction is derived from interactions between hairdressers and clients. The subject of client satisfaction in haircare services is generally under-researched, despite some attempts by Harrison-Walker (2000), Bove and Johnson (2000) and Evans-Anform (2014) to focus on haircare research specifically. However, this study attempts to understand it using Wirtz and Lovelock's (2016, p. 52) Three-Stage Model of Service Consumption.

3.6.2. Understanding satisfaction via the three-stage model of service consumption

The three-stage model of service consumption outlines the phases of interaction between service providers and clients: pre-purchase stage, service encounter stage and the post-encounter stage (Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016, p. 52). Client satisfaction with haircare services is based on experiences with hairstylists based on high-contact inseparable interactions with clients, service customisations and process management throughout the consumption stages.

3.6.2.1. Pre-purchase stage

In the first stage, which is the pre-purchase phase, a client goes through a decision-making process where they consult a hairdresser for ideas or support for a hairstyle (Miles, 2014). Hairstylists then design hairstyles by planning and envisioning the desired result before beginning the process of styling hair (Lowe, 2016; Milady, 2016). Although they are usually inspired by creative styles from celebrities, role models or previous and current fashionable trends, they also anticipate the risks of certain services, especially with regards to the braiding, cutting, treating and colouring of hair (Bailey, 2014). They often develop a visual

understanding of the most suitable hairstyles for a client's face and body shape when assessing design decisions and advising clients. This includes designing creative styles to conceal balding spots, areas of hair loss such as receding hair lines, or grey hair (Laeti, 2015). After engaging verbally with a hairstylist, a client proceeds to the second stage only if their pre-purchase expectations are met (Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016).

3.6.2.2. Service encounter stage

The second stage is the encounter stage and it involves physical and social interactions between a client and a hairstylist that make up the majority of the service (Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). It usually occurs after a client and hairstylist agree on a hairstyle preferred by the client (Milady, 2016; Miles, 2014). The hairstylist physically performs services on the client while maintaining friendly conversation and constant feedback (Lin and Lin, 2011; Milady, 2016; Miles, 2014).

This stage also represents the "moments of truth" where hairstylists prove their capabilities by actually performing tangible activities as well as managing the service production process by relating appropriately with the client (Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016, p. 66). Consumers generally expect service delivery processes to be performed correctly and without any mistakes the first time around (Collier and Bienstock, 2015; Jiang, Jun, et al., 2016; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). For example, clients presume that a hairdresser will follow the correct procedures to achieve the desired hairstyle as well as perform and complete the hairstyle within a promised time. Any deviations from what is promised, such as leaving reactive chemicals in the hair for too long or applying unconventional techniques, are likely to offend or irritate clients and render the hairstylist unreliable (Bailey, 2014; Milady, 2016). Such ineffective service performance increases the likelihood of negative word of mouth from clients, poor client ratings and reduces the likelihood of peer–to-peer referrals to hairstylists (Zhijun et al., 2015).

The ability to exercise judgement is crucial for hairstyle customisation because clients have unique features that hairstylists need to factor in when customising hairstyles to complement the client (Harrison-Walker, 2000). For example, while performing a haircut, the hairstylist needs to predict the outcome of a new hairstyle based on the client's unique face and head shape and length, colour, undertones and texture of hair, among other things (Bailey, 2014; Lowe, 2016; Milady, 2016; World Skills International, 2016). In addition to technical capabilities, social interactions about style preferences, celebrity hairstyle trends, social issues,

and encouragement allow for a personal relationship between the hairstylist and client (Laeti, 2015; Miles, 2014). The social encounters have often been likened to social therapy sessions and they enable clients to begin forming perceptions about the hairstylist (Laeti, 2015; Meyers, 2012). Once the encounter ends, clients move into the third stage, which is the post-encounter stage.

3.6.2.3. Post-encounter stage

In the post-encounter stage, a client assesses a hairstylist's performance throughout the service production time including the final outcome of the hairstyle and whether or not they would consider being served by the same hairstylist for their next appointment (Milady, 2016). This evaluation stage is important because it addresses the client's potential future intentions with a service employee (Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). The basis of client satisfaction is majorly attributed to the interactions they have with a hairstylist during the service encounter rather than their interaction with the salon as a whole (Bove and Johnson, 2002; Milady, 2016). This raises the important point about business relationships in haircare services that one-to-one business relationships are prevalent between clients and employees (Gronroos and Gummesson, 2012). South African and Australian studies suggest that one-to-one relationships have justified a client following a hairstylist who relocates from one salon to another and shows their intentions to seek out the services of the hairstylist (Bove and Johnson, 2002; Williams, 2014). In light of potential benefits of client satisfaction with hairstylists, commercial friendships that result from close personal interactions can also ensue. This prospect is addressed in the next subsection

3.6.3. Is commercial friendship one of the outcomes of customer satisfaction?

Numerous researches delve into the outcomes of customer satisfaction, some of which include re-purchase intentions, word of mouth, brand reputation, customer defection or retention, customer commitment and customer complaints (Busser and Shulgar, 2019; Jung and Yoo, 2019; Luo and Homburg, 2007; Ritchie, 2016; Rosenbaum et al., 2015). While Busser and Shulgar (2019) observe that commercial friendship leads to satisfaction, the relationship was based on business-to-customer relationships. In the personal services sector, Arnold et al. (2011) and Chen (2015) view commercial friendship as one of the outcomes of satisfaction while A commercial friendship is a one-to-one marketing relationship that constitutes bonds formed between a client and service employee and allow clients to benefit from commercial

and non-commercial value from the relationship (Arnold et al., 2011; Gronroos and Gummesson, 2012; Jung and Yoo, 2019; Price and Arnould, 1999). Similar to a non-commercial friendship, it is initiated by a client's and service employee's first impressions when they encounter one another. As they continue to interact, they share common interests and exchange business, social and personal details in order to assess their intention to commit to a relationship beyond the first interaction.

Although commercial and non-commercial marketing relationships are initiated similarly, commercial friendships differ primarily because they are anchored by commercial activities and are more instrumental for improving repeat business relations through social and emotional means (Rosenbaum, 2006; Rosenbaum et al., 2015). Due to the nature of haircare services, a commercial friendship between a client and hairstylist is defined by a relationship in which the client receives additional value from the hairstylist in the form of instrumental motivation (Bove and Johnson, 2000; Button et al., 2018; Meyers, 2012; Price and Arnould, 1999), social supportive resources (Nyamnjoh and Fuh, 2014; Rosenbaum, 2006, 2009; Rosenbaum et al., 2015) as well as emotional security (Kazdin, 2017; Laeti, 2015; Mendelson and Aboud, 1999; Sattler and Deane, 2016). The core and additional value offered by the hairstylist are, therefore, important for strengthening the bonds in the relationship over continuous encounters.

Although the core value offered by a hairstylist is apparent, clients often realise and appreciate the additional value secondary to the core value. Initial interactions only present opportunities for engagement between clients and service employees and regular contact allows for more social exchanges that eventually culminate into a friendship (Rosenbaum et al., 2015). Since the commercial friendship is anchored by the core value offering, a client's assessment of a hairstylist's core performance is crucial for the initial interaction to progress into a relationship over time. This implies that client satisfaction is a pre-requisite for the relationship to culminate into a friendship.

Hennig-Thurau et al. (2002) and Gronroos (2011, 2019) suggest that, among other concepts, client satisfaction plays a significant role that contributes positively to the marketing relationship between clients and service providers. This is justified by a fundamental concept of relationship marketing, which is to improve interactions between customers and service providers by satisfying their needs and improving interactions with them (Berry, 1995; Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Rosenbaum et al., 2015). The reverse also applies when social interaction

between clients and employees are unpleasant. Rosenbaum et al. (2018) find that social incompatibility between a client and employee of ten contributes to discomfort for the clients. Since a friendship implies that both individuals are socially compatible, it also relies on a series of satisfactory interactions. Furthermore, the relationship between customer satisfaction and the marketing relationship in service context is due to the high incidences of interactions between employees and clients (Berry, 2002; Garzaniti et al., 2011; Gronroos, 2019; Varki and Wong, 2003).

3.6.3.1. Benefits of commercial friendship

Commercial friendships are beneficial to both clients and service employees. The most apparent advantages for clients are the non-commercial benefits received as a result of the relationship, over and above the core benefits. Garzatini et al. (2011) and Sattler and Deane (2016) suggest that clients benefit from social security as they confide in their hairstylists, relying on them for reassurance about their personal problems over and above insecurities about their appearance and attitudes about their hair. Applying suggestions by Rosenbaum (2006 & 2009) and Rosenbaum et al. (2017), clients benefit from extending the role of a social therapist onto their hairstylists. These and other social supportive resources represent free customer service for clients, as well as they strengthen the bond of the relationship with emotional engagement cues that clients genuinely seek.

Brady et al. (2012) refer to one extreme and contentious benefit of a strong commercial friendship as service "sweethearting". The term describes deviant actions by service employees which involve giving unauthorised discounts or gifts to their friends or close acquaintances (Brady et al., 2012, p. 81). This is most common in services that involve personal selling and the purpose is to maintain and secure good business relations with clients in the future (Jung and Yoo, 2019; Rosenbaum et al., 2015). Clients, therefore, benefit financially as well as non-financially from the friendship.

The reciprocal behaviour of clients to their satisfactory hairstylists leads to other advantages for the hairstylist. As a result of the strong emotional attachment in the friendship, employees are better able to improve their service performance by responding positively to feedback from clients (Anti, 2012; Arnold et al., 2011; Lloyd and Luk, 2011; Rosenbaum et al., 2015). Furthermore, the friendship results in personal attachment and preference formation in clients. Lewis (1999) highlights the significance of attachment formation even in relationships between

mothers and daughters during early childhood hairstyling sessions. Clients also benefit from commercial friendships with hairstylists of a preferred gender. Interestingly, Agbonkhese and Aganbi (2016), Carr (2013) and Hmar (2011) note that women prefer male hairstylists to their female counterparts because they build more compassionate friendships to complement their core value offerings.

3.6.3.2. Detriments of commercial friendship

As much as strong commercial friendships benefit service employees and their clients, the same relationships can easily result in conflicts and losses for the firm and employees. Butt and Ahmed (2019) assert that conflict can arise due to personal relationships infringing on normal business practices. Therefore, there is a risk that hairstylists, as skilled employees, face ego conflict against their salon managers and clients (Lowe, 2016). Due to their personal relationships with clients, hairstylists risk becoming complacent when they begin to view regular clients as friends rather than business associates that require a high standard of service. Furthermore, employees may perform unauthorised special requests for clients to impress them or secure their services (Brady et al., 2012; Jung and Yoo, 2019). Although such behaviour is difficult to detect, the value that clients receive in terms of favours and free or discounted services is at the detriment of service firms because they result in unplanned losses (Beatty et al., 2016).

In the same vein, Butt and Ahmed (2019) suggest that clients face selection conflict when they want to choose new service providers and still want to retain the personal relationship with the current service provider. In the event that a client wants to change their hairstylist, they risk losing or ruining their personal relationship with their current hairstylist. These conflicts are consequences of the informal nature of commercial relationships in which clients and hairstylists share non-business interests during service encounters (Beatty et al., 2016; Butt and Ahmad, 2019). Despite the detriments of commercial friendships, clients still benefit financially and non-financially from commercial friendships. Over time, they build their preference for a particular hairstylist, thereby improving the client retention rate of an individual hairstylist. This may lead to the client's personal loyalty to the individual hairstylist.

3.7. Conclusion

This chapter reviewed literature on various conceptualisations of customer satisfaction as well as literature on customer satisfaction studies in numerous industries and sectors. Theories

which have been used to understand customer satisfaction were also reviewed with considerations of the benefits that may arise from satisfied customers. It was found that the dimensions with which customer satisfaction is assessed do not only differ between product and service industries but also between personal services other services. By integrating the levels and types of client contact with service providers, it is apparent that haircare services are characterised by high-contact between clients and employees, are highly inseparable and highly heterogeneous. As such, satisfaction in the haircare services depends on interactions with individual hairstylists and their ability to co-create and customise services. This chapter helped to explain customer satisfaction within haircare service contexts as it is important to the context of this study. Furthermore, this lead to an appreciation of commercial friendships as the result of continuous satisfaction in marketing relationships, since they provide benefits to both clients and service employees. The prospect of commercial friendships leading to personal loyalty is discussed in the next chapter, Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4: DRIVERS, DIMENSIONS AND OUTCOME OF PERSONAL LOYALTY

4.1. Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the drivers and outcomes of customer satisfaction. In the haircare services sector, commercial friendship was one of the important outcomes of client satisfaction. Commercial friendship is, in turn, an important driver of customer loyalty from which a business gains a number of benefits. For example, loyalty is important to marketers because of its ability to stimulate preferential attitudes and buying from consumers and to sustain business sales, profits and market share (Jiang, Nevskaya, et al., 2016; Yee et al., 2010). Considering its multifaceted nature, this chapter examines various conceptualisations of customer loyalty over time and discusses various phases of loyalty development. It then describes the essence of personal loyalty to individual service employees and its relevance in client loyalty to hairstylists.

4.2. Various Conceptualisations of Loyalty

Historical conceptualisations of customer loyalty point towards two crucial aspects of the definition of loyalty: the object of devotion and the expression or measurement of that devotion (Brown, 1953; Tate, 1961). From the 1950s, the progression of its conceptualisation has, therefore, focused majorly on clarifying the expression and measurement of loyalty (Farley, 1964; Jacoby and Kyner, 1973) and only recently advanced in clarifying the importance of the object of loyalty (Krystallis and Chrysochou, 2014). The clarification of both aspects of the definition is essential for theorists to recognise and measure customer loyalty accurately.

4.2.1. A conceptualisation of loyalty – an expression of devotion (repurchase behaviour)

Early conceptualisations of loyalty in marketing identified it as a customer's devotion to a store or brand and also based it entirely on their repurchase behaviour or expression of devotion (Brown, 1953; Farley, 1964; Tate, 1961). Customers were considered to be loyal when they either repurchased from the same retailer or spent proportionally more in one store than others. A number of studies have conceptualised and measured customer loyalty with reference to repurchase behaviour. For example, Brown (1953) prioritised it for brand loyalty in supermarkets, Tate (1961) focussed on higher consumer spending in stores that were patronised repeatedly, McConnell (1968) was interested in prediction models for repurchase rates in

supermarket retail settings and Akamavi et al. (2015) focussed on passenger loyalty for low-cost airlines. Although repurchase behaviour or repeat patronage are both indicators of loyalty, these may be secondary reactions influenced by factors other than the marketing attributes of the brand or store. Moreover, the underlying reasons why consumers purchase the same brands or patronise the same stores continuously are not apparent. This prompted further research in the 1970s that subsequently lead to the argument that approximating repeat purchasing to loyalty presented a distorted concept of loyalty that needed profound exploration to improve its identification and measurement (Day, 1976; Farley, 1964; Jacoby and Chestnut, 1978; Jacoby and Kyner, 1973).

4.2.1.1. Criticisms of the conceptualisation of loyalty in terms of repurchase behaviour

Defining customer loyalty solely in terms of repeat purchasing behaviour neglected instances of consumers' unexpected random purchases as well as repurchase or re-patronage decisions that are motivated by convenience or access (Day, 1976). Furthermore, the conceptualisation minimally accounts for the involvement of social and marketing factors in purchase behaviour or consumer preferences (Dawes, 2018; Dube et al., 2009). Farley (1964) stresses that consumers are not immune to market forces, including pull strategies from competitors, therefore, competitive pricing together with brand choice can motivate a change in their repurchase decision. Empirical evidence from Jacoby and Kyner (1973, p. 7) suggests that, although repeat purchasing is an indicator of loyalty, there are underlying dimensions and processes that lead to repeat purchase behaviour and that socio-psychological factors play a role in a consumer's commitment behaviour.

When approximating loyalty to repeat purchase behaviour, it is important to do so in view of the context of the marketing environment to determine the motive of the behaviour (Han et al., 2011; Klemperer, 1995). The absence of close substitute brands or retail stores results in consumers repurchasing the same brand because there are no alternatives rather than repurchasing because of their interaction with the brand's marketing attributes. The lack of alternatives also potentially creates conditions of scarcity or impressions of generic branding, both of which result in customers repurchasing the brand by default rather than out of choice or preference (Jacoby and Kyner, 1973; Wan, 2018). In reality, multiple brands in the market have equal opportunities to offer value to consumers. Therefore, to identify loyalty in the presence of alternatives, it is necessary to understand the process of satisfaction and the motives

that are responsible for the formation of loyalty.

Melnyk (2014) highlights the importance of competition in allowing consumers the choice of alternatives and freedom to express their preferences. However, when exposed to alternative brands, consumers compare and rationalise about the cost of switching to other brands (Blut et al., 2015; Dube et al., 2009; Klemperer, 1995). In a meta-analysis about switching costs and repurchase intentions and behaviour, Blut et al. (2015) note that relational switching costs have stronger influences on a consumer's repurchase intention and behaviour compared to financial or procedural costs. This confirms the presence of underlying processes of rationalisation that consumers go through when faced with the decision to maintain their commitment by repurchasing or to considering attractive alternatives (Blut et al., 2015; Melnyk, 2014; Picon et al., 2014).

Furthermore, this also implies that there is a distinction between the state of a consumer when they process their intention to (re)purchase and when they actually make the purchase. Blut et al. (2015) and Dube et al. (2009) display the distinctions of intention and behavioural (repurchase) states, and their thoughts are consistent with the attitudinal phase development prescribed by Oliver (1999) and earlier distinctions noted by Jacoby and Kyner (1973). Therefore, customer loyalty research in the 1960s uncovered the need for further research to focus on conditions under which loyalty could be determined, taking into account the rational decision-making capabilities of consumers, their propensity to sometimes make random purchases, and their exposure to social and marketing forces.

4.2.2. The conceptualisation of loyalty according to types

Customer loyalty has been conceptualised according to two main types: behavioural (Jacoby and Kyner, 1973) and attitudinal, comprising of cognitive, affective, conative and action dimensions (Oliver, 1999). These two types are discussed in the next subsections.

4.2.2.1. Behavioural loyalty

By the 1970s, it was evident that consumers experience different psychological states that culminate into behavioural loyalty, which was most recognisable and measured in the form of repeat purchasing. Jacoby and Kyner (1973, p. 2) noted and incorporated the underlying rationalisation processes of consumers and suggested the following six conditions for conceptualising customer loyalty; they define customer loyalty as an:

> "(1) unbiased (2) behavioural response (3) that is carried out by a decision-making unit (an individual, family or firm) (4) about one or more alternative brands in the presence of alternative brands (5) over a period of time, (6) as a function of psychological processes."

The conditions have since formed the basis of the prevailing definitions and ongoing developments of the concept, as endorsed by numerous researchers (Chaudhuri and Holbrook, 2001; Day, 1976; Dick and Basu, 1994; Jacoby and Chestnut, 1978; Manzuma-Ndaaba et al., 2016; Oliver, 1999). According to Jacoby and Kyner (1973), loyalty is justified by a consumer's unbiased behaviour because a consumer makes a deliberate, objective and conscious decision to repurchase, as opposed to repurchasing habitually due to lack of choice or by chance or at random. This conceptualisation, therefore, views consumers as rational decision-makers with cognitive functions and who go through a series of psychological processes and evaluations of alternatives using relevant criteria before deciding on a preferred brand.

Although Jacoby and Kyner (1973) acknowledge cognitive processes, their conceptualisation does not indicate a consumer's belief or their resultant disposition as states of loyalty but, rather, as a medium through which consumers express their behavioural devotion. Rational comparisons allow consumers to develop dispositions and overtime, as their brand experiences confirm their beliefs, their relational attachments and predispositions strengthen and increase the likelihood of a consumer displaying their intentions through certain behaviours (Blut et al., 2015; Han et al., 2011; Meyer-Waarden and Benavent, 2006). Behaviour is not limited to repurchasing but includes increased purchasing, spreading positive word-of-mouth, referring the brand to friends and participating in brand communities, among other behaviours (Bennet and Rundle-Thiele, 2002; Dick and Basu, 1994; Johnston, 2018; McAlexander et al., 2003; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016).

While the six conditions provide a broader conceptualisation of loyalty, they view loyalty as a unidimensional construct that is observed as a behavioural response. Additionally, this view neglects to consider a consumer's attitudinal commitment toward a brand. Consumers are dynamic beings who process devotion at different levels and in different states, engaging their thoughts, affections, intentions and actions (Ahrholdt et al., 2017; Ansari and Riasi, 2016; Chen, 2015; Krystallis and Chrysochou, 2014; Picon et al., 2014). Therefore, an expansion of the definition beyond the six conditions was necessary to anchor the concept of loyalty with a

more reflective and inclusive orientation of multiple dimensions. As a result, the direction of research in customer loyalty in the 1990s and early 2000s was to emphasise the importance of consumers' cognitive, attitudinal and behavioural states, also known as the attitudinal development phases of loyalty (Alan et al., 2016; Han et al., 2011; Oliver, 1999) with respect to loyalty.

4.2.2.2. Attitudinal loyalty

The conceptualisation of loyalty as an action is widely accepted, however, the inclusion of deeper consumer involvement allows researchers to understand customer loyalty more holistically (Alan et al., 2016; Gustafsson et al., 2005; Han et al., 2011; Hartel and Russell-Bennett, 2010; Manzuma-Ndaaba et al., 2016). As a result, it is necessary to account for consumers' rationality and attitude development. Researchers commonly refer to Oliver's (1999) multi-dimensional conceptualisation of loyalty that describes loyalty as a progressive development of attitudinal phases that also culminate to a behavioural phase. Oliver (1999, p. 34) defines customer loyalty as:

> "a deeply held commitment to rebuy or re-patronise a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behaviour."

The definition builds on from Jacoby and Kyner's (1973) conditions by asserting that consumers express devotion by feelings, dispositions and beliefs that are deeply held. This suggests that the behavioural outcome is preceded by an attitudinal state that is favourable towards the behaviour. Progressively, researchers concur with this view from the cognitive school of thought, suggesting that consumers experience different developmental phases of loyalty and recognise the behavioural component as separate from the attitudinal components (Alan et al., 2016; Manzuma-Ndaaba et al., 2016; McMullan and Gilmore, 2003; Picon et al., 2014).

4.2.3. Phases in the development of loyalty

Oliver (1999) and McMullan and Gilmore (2003) assert that consumers progress through three attitudinal phases at increasing levels of object knowledge, information and responsive involvement with the loyalty object. Furthermore, Oliver (1999) and Han et al. (2011) state

that consumers develop attitudinal loyalty in the following progression: cognitive (belief), emotional (affective or feeling), and conative (intention) loyalty. The final phase is behavioural (action inertia) loyalty, which represents the culmination of the preceding phases where intentions are converted to actions that display devotion or commitment to the loyalty object (Oliver, 1999).

4.2.3.1. The cognitive phase of loyalty development

In the initial phase, a consumer is exposed to information of the object's attributes from marketing and other sources of information (Alan et al., 2016; Bennet and Rundle-Thiele, 2002; Manzuma-Ndaaba et al., 2016). Their devotion to the object is derived from their psychological and functional assessment of the perceived utility in the object (Han et al., 2011). Consumers obtain vicarious knowledge from prior personal experiences with the object, its marketing attributes and comparisons with its alternatives, from which they generate internal perceptions about the object. Favourable beliefs are dependent on numerous cycles of psychological assessments of the object's performance. When a consumer's negative or unsatisfactory experiences are contrasted against positive cognitions about an object, it results in a superficial level of loyalty at which negative experiences repeatedly fail to match favourable beliefs over time (Hartel and Russell-Bennett, 2010; Oliver, 1999).

Cognitive loyalty that is not deeply held due to limited consumer experiences or inflated opinions about an object is regarded as superficial loyalty because information can be disputed by simple arguments (Oliver, 1999). Positive and satisfactory experiences are highly important for testing and confirming a consumer's beliefs about an object such that they form deeply held cognitive commitments that are not easily disputed by counter beliefs about alternative objects that are not tested. The depth of cognitive loyalty is also contingent on a consumer's involvement with the object as higher involvement objects warrant deeper commitment than those that are of low involvement. This is obvious in services such as refuse collection or electricity provision where a consumer experiences little interaction, choice, interference or internal expectations about the outcome, other than the basic performance of the service (Johnson et al., 2001).

On the contrary, a consumer's expectations about hospitality and entertainment services warrant internal satisfaction and potential commitment because service performance has higher involvement of the consumer's physiological, psychological and emotional states. Therefore,

the higher the level of involvement, the likely it is for a consumer to internally process their cumulative satisfaction and generate deeply held cognitions that transcend positive feelings about the object.

4.2.3.2. The affective phase of loyalty development

As the second phase of the attitudinal development of loyalty, the affective phase demonstrates a consumer's liking or favourable disposition to an object due to cumulatively satisfactory experiences (Alan et al., 2016; Hartel and Russell-Bennett, 2010; Oliver, 1999). Similar to a hierarchy of effects, consumers enter the affective state at a higher level of involvement that engages their feelings and emotions from pleasurable experiences. As it represents a deeper commitment than cognitive loyalty, it is more difficult to refute with an argument and is, rather, increasingly dependent on incremental levels of satisfaction (Oliver, 1999; Yuksel et al., 2010). As consumers become familiar with stabilised levels of satisfaction, they cease to derive pleasure from interactions with an object and the diminishing effect can result in dislike or indifference over time. Consumers defect from objects that were previously satisfactory due to deteriorating standards of service, diminished pleasure over time, objects failing to evolve with consumers' needs, weak barriers of switching or stagnant relationships with service providers (Alan et al., 2016; Bove and Johnson, 2002; Dube et al., 2009; Jones, 1996; Liu et al., 2011).

As consumers grow older and mature, their needs change and the relevance and satisfaction expected from certain products diminishes (Dixit, 2017; Oliver, 1999). Throughout childhood development, consumers may associate deep and positive thoughts and emotions towards certain toy brands, however, their attitudinal loyalty diminishes over time as they replace previous brands with new ones that satisfy new needs. Lui et al. (2011) suggest that mobile communications firms utilise playfulness to appeal to consumers' hedonic values, thus adding value to the core service offering and the relationship with a consumer. Playfulness is, therefore, an affective barrier of switching because consumers derive additional pleasure from the entertainment, thereby strengthening their bond and preference for the object and service encounter in general. Similarly, Alan et al. (2016, p. 730) also suggest that consumers in retail stores experience positive emotions that are derived from the retailer's provision of entertainment and escape as both relate to sensory and affective elements. Similar to cognitive loyalty, numerous cycles of positive affective interactions promote a consumer to a state in which they continuously anticipate further interactions with an object. This leads to conative

loyalty.

4.2.3.3. Conative loyalty phase of loyalty development

The conative or intention phase is the stage at which a consumer identifies their deeply held commitment to behave in one or many ways as a result of consistently positive affective relations with an object (Oliver, 1999). As each phase is succeeded by more consumer involvement and satisfaction, a consumer primarily anticipates fulfilling their desire to experience satisfaction from an object (Manzuma-Ndaaba et al., 2016; Yuksel et al., 2010). This is regarded as the penultimate phase that leads to action inertia because a consumer's desire is more deeply rooted than their cognitions and affections and, therefore, more likely to motivate a consumer to act to fulfil that desire.

Although deeply held consumer desires are responsible for making intention loyalty the strongest of the attitudinal development phase of loyalty, consumers can still choose to ignore their desires in favour of other deeper and latent desires (Oliver, 1999). Marketers are capable of disrupting the progression from cognitive, affective and intention loyalty, even for low involvement brand categories, by focussing on competitive marketing aspects that consumers desire the most. Dube et al. (2009) examine discounted pricing as an influential switching cost for household brands and confirm the rationale of the intention of consumers to pay the lowest price possible. As a result, a consumer's intention to purchase a brand to which they are cognitively and affectively loyal can be overridden by a stronger desire to pay less. Similarly, marketers induce desire with point-of-purchase promotions that influence consumers to suddenly switch immediately before purchasing to fulfil the stronger and more imminent desire (Blut et al., 2015; Klemperer, 1995; Lamb et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2011).

Oliver (1999) argues that, although the anticipation in conative loyalty highly motivates behaviour, intention does not necessarily translate into action as there are factors that prevent consumers from fulfilling their desires. As an example of this, consumer idiosyncrasies are responsible for consumers failing to reach action inertia from conative loyalty (Han et al., 2011). Consumers who constantly seek variety may develop attitudinal loyalty for a variety of brands in the same product category but only transpose their intentions to action inertia when there is no more variety to offer new experiences. Intention loyalty may be the penultimate phase of the attitudinal development of loyalty, however, conversion into action inertia or behavioural loyalty is contingent on the consumer's ability to overcome obstacles that may

prevent the conversion, including stronger desires. Nonetheless, action inertia occurs as a result of strong intentions.

4.2.3.4. Action loyalty phase of loyalty development

The final phase of Oliver's (1999) progressive stage-development of loyalty is action loyalty, also referred to as behavioural loyalty. As mentioned previously, it is the most visible of the four phases and comprises of many actions including increasing the number of purchases, repeat purchasing, spreading positive word-of-mouth and referring the object to friends (Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). The eventual achievement of active loyalty is the fulfilment of Oliver's (1999) definition of loyalty. A consumer prepares to satisfy their deeply held commitment or desire by first forming intentions to fulfil them and then acts on the intentions. The fulfilment eventually occurs when a consumer overcomes obstacles in the form of situational influences and marketing efforts that can prevent a consumer from satisfying the desire (Ahrholdt et al., 2017; Leckie et al., 2016; Oliver, 1999). The result of the achievement is loyalty to action inertia, which means that a consumer will continue to repeat the action to fulfil their desire (Dube et al., 2009; Han et al., 2011). To sustain action loyalty, businesses devise loyalty programmes, however, these are more rightly viewed as retention reward schemes (Lewis, 2004; Oliver, 1981; Reinartz and Eisenbeiss, 2015).

4.2.4. Loyalty and retention programmes

Pursuant to securing future business from loyal customers in the long-term, marketers devise dynamic incentive programmes to encourage loyalty behaviour from customers and facilitate relationship management at the individual level (Lewis, 2004). According to Gustafsson et al. (2005) and Lewis (2004), loyalty (retention) programmes are structural mechanisms used by marketers to reward customers for certain behaviour that alludes to their loyalty. This includes awarding customers with credit or points for cumulative purchasing, high volume purchasing, frequent visits, and membership subscriptions, among others. Examples of well-known loyalty (retention) programmes in pure services include the *Frequent Flyer Programme* and *The Points Guy* used by airlines and hotels respectively. Their purpose is to maintain their clientele through marketing at an individual level.

Reinartz and Eisenbeiss (2015) suggest that the contemporary use of retention programmes to maintain customers has resulted in some researchers and practitioners using retention as a proxy for loyalty. Although they are referred to as loyalty programmes, there are some

discrepancies with the conceptualisations discussed so far. An important distinction between previous conceptualisations and the philosophy behind retention programmes is the active influence of organisations. Brown (1953), Farley (1964), Jacoby and Kyner (1973), Day (1976) and Oliver (1999) use their observations of customers to describe loyalty, thereby conceptualising it based on consumer or demand-side behaviour. On the contrary, retention programmes prescribe to customers what loyalty represents and induce certain behaviour using incentive schemes. Hallowell (1996) incorporates reports on customer retention in the measurement of loyalty, highlighting the relevance of continuous business with clients. However, according to Reinartz and Eisenbeiss (2015), this approach is highly activity-based and focusses on repurchase behaviour, neglects the attitudinal elements and takes researchers back to the early conceptualisations of customer loyalty (Brown, 1953; McConnell, 1968; Tate, 1961).

Although retention programmes can monitor customer behaviour, a firm's active interference by providing incentives for prescribed loyalty behaviour distorts the identification of true loyalty (Lewis, 2004; Reinartz and Eisenbeiss, 2015). Some researchers distinguish between the two terms, separately identifying loyalty to a retention programme and loyalty to a marketing object (Bove and Johnson, 2006; Eid, 2015; Gustafsson et al., 2005; Jiang, Nevskaya, et al., 2016; Ranaweera and Prabhu, 2003). While Jiang et al. (2016) test the profitability of loyalty (retention) programmes that have flat-rated reward schemes, the objective of determining customer lifetime value that the company would benefit from emphasises the value to the firm rather than value perceived by customers or the attainment of true loyalty. Similarly, Ranaweera and Prabhu (2003) examine the effect of customer satisfaction on customer retention but limit the relational element that is responsible for retention to trust. There is a need to acknowledge consumers as dynamic beings capable of genuinely reciprocating in business relationships as well as contributing to generating relationship equity to support their true loyalty.

In addition to acknowledging the difference between loyalty and retention, distortions of loyalty also arise when customers view separately the core service and the added value of promised future benefits from the programmes (Reinartz and Eisenbeiss, 2015). Retention programmes can, therefore, be interpreted as products attached to core services as they also require their own management and marketing strategies. As a result, clients' evaluations of desired services have to consider competitive loyalty programmes attached to service offerings

(Eid, 2015; Jiang, Nevskaya, et al., 2016). This detracts attention from the core benefits and creates devotion to the programmes. To this end, it is unclear what the object of true loyalty is. In as much as clients expect satisfactory services and mutually beneficial commercial relationships, it is important for service providers to determine the true source(s) of customer loyalty that clients are less likely to detract from.

Table 4.1 summarises how customer loyalty has been conceptualised between the 1950s and 2000s and in terms of different expressions of devotion.

Table 4.1: Conceptualisations of loyalty as an expression of devotion (the 1950s – 2000s)

Loyalty conceptualisations	Orientation of loyalty	Researchers
The 1950s: Many forms of loyalty		
Brand loyalty is consistent repurchasing motivated by a real or imaginary superiority attributed to the object. Brand loyalty is just one of many types of loyalty that exists in the market.	Behavioural: repurchase	Brown (1953)
The 1960s: Loyalty = Repetitive behaviour		
Customer loyalty to stores constitutes visits to the same store or relatively higher spending in one store than other stores.	Behavioural: store re-patronage and high spending.	Tate (1961)
Customer loyalty to brands is synonymous with repurchase behaviour.	Behavioural: repurchase.	Tucker (1964)
Customer loyalty is synonymous with brand preference; however, it is easily dislodged by psychological, social and marketing efforts (for example, competitive prices for a variety of same-category brands).	Behavioural: brand preference and repurchase.	Farley (1964); McConnel (1968)
The 1970s: Six conditions that define loyalty		
It is an: - unbiased (not at random) - behaviour (action by the customer with respect to the brand)	Psychological and behavioural.	Jacoby and Kyner (1973). Endorsed by Day (1976), Jacoby and Chestnut (1978), Dick and Basu

Loyalty conceptualisations	Orientation of loyalty	Researchers
- expressed over time (rather than instantaneously) - by a decision-making unit (individual, family, corporation) - concerning one or more of the brands, in the presence of alternative brands - based on a function of psychological processes (decision-making processes and brand evaluations).		(1994), Oliver (1999) and others.
The 1990s: Attitudinal phases of loyalty development		
Loyalty is determined by the strength of the relationship between a consumer's relative attitude and repeat visits and is mediated by social and situational factors. Attitudinal phases can constitute a type of loyalty.	Attitudinal and behavioural.	Dick and Basu (1994), Oliver (1999), Chaudhuri and Holbrook (2001), McMullan and Gilmore (2003) and others.
Action inertia develops from the succession of three attitudinal phases: cognitive, affective and conative. Action inertia is behavioural loyalty.	Cognitive, affective, conative and behavioural.	Oliver (1999), Punnyiamoorthy and Raj (2007), Pan, Sheng and Xie (2012), Manzuma-Ndaaba *et al* (2016) and others.
2000s: Retention programmes		
Track and reward customers for repeat purchases and revisits.	Incentivised behaviour.	Gustaffson, Johnson and Roos (2005), Lewis (2004), Meyer-Waarden and Benavent. (2006) and others.

Source: Compiled by researcher from the sources indicated.

As summarised in Table 4.1, conceptualisations of loyalty have evolved from focussing on how organisations view loyalty to incorporating how consumers experience loyalty. While marketers in the 1950s viewed loyalty solely as repurchase behaviour in response to brand attributes, contemporary views have since acknowledged the internal psychological and

attitudinal processes that consumers go through before they display loyalty behaviours. Modern conceptualisations of loyalty appreciate that consumers are highly involved in rationalising about external marketing forces, identifying their motives, processing their intentions and acting on them. In identifying their motives, it is also important to understand devotions to different objects.

4.3. Conceptualisation of Loyalty in Terms of Devotion to Objects

So far, the operational definitions of customer loyalty discussed refer to a consumer's expression of devotion generally. Consumers are loyal to objects too, be it inanimate objects (such as products, brands, prices, firms or ideas) and animate object as well (such as animals or people) (Bove and Johnson, 2002; Walsh et al., 2016). Furthermore, consumers may behave as if they are loyal to one object but are actually loyal to another (Epstein and Posner, 2016; Mittal, 2017). Brown (1953) strongly emphasises the importance of recognising the object of loyalty and understanding its parameters in order to determine a consumer's true loyalty.

4.3.1. Loyalty to a country of origin and religious affiliation

Brown (1953) acknowledges that the diversity of objects of loyalty contribute to different types of loyalty and can also cause confusion if they are generalised and not specified. Determining the source of true brand loyalty is complicated because there are secondary objects of loyalty that attribute devotion to a brand where, in fact, consumers are loyal to other marketing elements associated with the brand. This is evident in products that have the country-of-origin labelling or branding and promote buying based on ethnocentrism or patriotism (Carter et al., 2006; Mittal, 2017).

Consumers that are influenced by country-of-origin labelling display their true loyalty to the country-of-origin and are more likely to purchase other products with the same label. In the USA, geographical origin labelling of goods in general (Mittal, 2017) and meat products in particular (Carter et al., 2006) has resulted in consumers distancing themselves from unlabelled products and showing higher preference and willingness to pay premiums for USA-branded products. Due to positive dispositions about the country of origin, consumers repurchase a brand before considering its marketing factors. In this context, consumers transfer their strong beliefs and attitudes about the country onto the brand, resulting in a display of behavioural loyalty through continuous purchase (Mittal, 2017). As a demonstration of loyalty to a nation, patriotism can definitely influence consumers to continue repurchasing a brand as an act of

allegiance, national pride, identity and support (Kalicharan, 2014). The true object of loyalty is therefore not the product but its country of origin that indirectly results in repurchasing behaviour of a labelled brand.

The same can be observed for products that are labelled to reflect religious standards or affiliations. As an example, consumers are aware of the intrinsic meaning of the *halaal* label on food and non-food items, as well as its religious affiliation to the Muslim faith (Banan, 2013). For consumers who are devout believers, the label provides assurance of standards and facilitates easy identification of acceptable new offerings. The proliferation of similar labelling in the banking and tourism service sectors and software development has resulted in consumers displaying more preference to service and software production standards underpinned by religious labelling than those that do not have the label (Ali and Raza, 2017; Banan, 2013; Eid, 2015). From this, it is clear that consumers practice loyalty to the production and quality standards subsumed by the labels and are likely not to consider products or services that are not certified by the label.

4.3.2. Loyalty to price range and quantity

Loyalty to brands can also be misconstrued when consumers desire specific marketing elements of a product and are likely to switch when the elements are altered. Dawes (2018) and Dube et al. (2009) suggest that consumers that are loyal to household brands that are initially sold at discounted prices are prone to switching to alternative brands when the prices change. As a result, a consumer's previous repurchasing behaviour incorrectly implies loyalty to a brand when the loyalty object was actually the price range. Similarly, families and households may continuously repurchase a brand because it offers large quantities or units (Brown, 1953; Dube et al., 2009). Grocery items such as breakfast cereal and tomato sauce are sold in different quantities and family units that engage in collective buying tend to prefer to purchase these in larger quantities. As the quantity of product offered is the key determinant of their future repurchasing behaviour, the behavioural loyalty of the family is likely to correlate more with the quantity than the brand.

In both examples, it is important to note that the merits of the brands purchased are still important to consumers, however, as discussed earlier, a consumer engages action inertia for their most important or urgent desires. Even in the determination of true loyalty from latent loyalty, attitudinal loyalty still plays a critical role in reaching behavioural loyalty.

4.3.3. Loyalty to service employees

It is necessary to focus on loyalty to an employee rather than loyalty to an organisation because it is relevant in personal services contexts. While the commitment-trust theory of relationship marketing (Morgan and Hunt, 1994) focuses on the importance of maintaining communication and interactions with customers beyond transactions, the Nordic School of thought advocates for services marketing research to reflect marketing contexts more specifically rather than follow conventional approaches that are applied broadly to different contexts (Aijo, 1996; Gronroos, 2019; Gronroos and Gummesson, 2012). By studying services within their specific marketing contexts, researchers can develop relevant marketing concepts and models to edify knowledge (Gronroos, 2011; Gronroos and Gummesson, 2012). The service context of hairstyling described in Chapter 3 of this manuscript recognises hairstyling as a pure service with high employee-client contact and high degrees of physical inseparability and heterogeneity. It is, therefore, necessary to view the business relationship between a client and hairstylist as one-to-one relationship. Furthermore, as an important concept in relationship marketing, customer loyalty in terms of one-to-one relationships is identified as personal loyalty and is described in more detail in the next section.

Although it is not widely discussed in the literature on customer loyalty, it is possible for employees to be objects of customer loyalty, especially in high-contact pure service contexts. Gremler and Brown (1998) purport that consumers perceive interpersonal bonds with service employees in the form of friendships that allow for feelings of familiarity, comfort and trust and are essential for the development of customer loyalty to service firms. Interpersonal bonds are characteristic to pure services that require both the service employee and customer to be present for the production of a service (Patterson and Mechinda, 2011; Rosenbaum et al., 2015; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016; Yee et al., 2010). As a result, employees become central to the management of the relationship between a client and the service organisation, as well as service performance outcomes.

Yee et al. (2010) argue that long contact time as a result of interpersonal interaction between service employees has a significant bearing on a client's loyalty to a service firm. Additionally, Yee et al. (2010) also acknowledge that employees prioritise high-contact interactions because they have more time to influence the quality of service performance, including customising the service, compared to low-contact encounters. This further implies that a client's loyalty to a

firm is directed at the service employee. Due to high degrees of inseparability and heterogeneity of high-contact pure services, consumers notice the variability of service performance from different employees, allowing them to differentiate employees in the same firm or industry. This presents an opportunity for loyalty formation to be directed at the preferred service employee who also prioritises the interpersonal interactions and resultant relationship.

In health care services, Meesala and Paul (2018) confirm that the reliability and responsiveness of doctors result in the satisfaction and loyalty on patients. As noted by Chen and Gupta (1995), reliability and responsiveness are functional service attributes of service employees that consumers regard highly and attribute specifically to employees. Therefore, due to the high degree of physical inseparability between an employee and customer, service employees in pure high-contact services can be the objects of loyalty (Patterson and Mechinda, 2011). A similar pattern is evident in professional service contexts, wherein clients interact closely with individual employees from a firm, such as accountants, dentists, general practitioners, management consultants and legal officers (Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). This has led to the concept of personal loyalty.

4.4. What is Personal Loyalty?

Thus far, most operational definitions of customer loyalty have referred to a consumer's devotion to inanimate objects (products, brands, prices, firms or ideas). However, consumers can also be loyal to animate objects that enable them to experience continuous satisfaction in a mutual relationship (Harrison-Walker, 2000; Melnyk et al., 2009; Thomson, 2013). For example, Thomson (2013) finds that consumers have strong attachments to their favourite celebrities, viewing them as entertaining human brands to whom they project deep feelings of adoration, autonomy and self-determination. Although fans rarely share close physical experiences with celebrities, their initial personal devotion to a celebrity is based on their knowledge, beliefs and internal conceptions of that person. This can easily translate to feelings of high esteem and connectedness with the celebrity and motivate behaviours such as purchasing albums, posters or subscribing to the celebrity's social networks and fan community. In the political sphere, Epstein and Posner (2016) note that the supreme court justices in the USA show more loyalty to the presidents that appointed them than to the ideological parties they belong to.

Personal loyalty to an employee initially goes unnoticed and eventually becomes apparent after

further investigation or when conditions change, as evidenced by different objects of customer loyalty (Brown, 1953; Carter et al., 2006; Dawes, 2018; Dube et al., 2009; Mittal, 2017). The latency of personal loyalty is also evident in customer loyalty research in pure services that use functional service quality dimensions to measure customer satisfaction but attribute the subsequent loyalty to the service organisations. This is evident in many researches, including, but not limited to, services marketing research in motor vehicle repairs (Ogba and Izogo, 2015), hospitality (Collins et al., 2015; Kasiri et al., 2017; Pizam et al., 2016) and higher education (Douglas et al., 2015), among others. Caruana (2002) recognises that, for repurchase intentions to occur, customers use functional SERVQUAL dimensions to assess their satisfaction in terms of the behavioural aspects of employees. Similarly, Douglas et al. (2015) report that student loyalty to course programmes in universities is contingent on the accessibility, attentiveness, availability and communication of the present staff members. It, therefore, follows that, although customer loyalty is extrapolated to service organisations, it originates from loyalty to an employee.

4.4.1. Propensity of personal loyalty to hairstylists

Loyalty is formed within the confines of a mutually beneficial relationship (Chai et al., 2015; Herhausen et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2011). The commitment that clients have towards service providers is the result of multiple positive experiences over numerous satisfactory interactions and relationships with the service employees (Gronroos, 2019). Although it is true that clients can be loyal to brands of inanimate products that they can purchase physically, loyalty in haircare service contexts is unique because clients visit salons in order for a hairstylist to perform services for them rather than to purchase retail products. While clients may be loyal to certain brands of products (for example, Elvive shampoos and conditioners) or salon franchises (for example, Carlton Hair), they are motivated to relate with hairstylists because of their unique set of technical and social skills, including their ability to use preferred brands correctly.

As described in Chapter 3, the service encounter stage of consumption is responsible for enabling the development of the relationship between a client and hairstylist (Laeti, 2015; Liu et al., 2011; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). The relationship is confined to one-to-one interactions between a hairstylist and client; therefore, client loyalty is directed mostly at the individual hairstylist rather than a number of hairstylists or salon. The personal nature of haircare services

makes one-to-one relationships and loyalty to individual hairstylist the most prevalent type of loyalty in haircare service contexts. Clients prefer to maintain the same hairstylist because they make the effort to learn about the client's needs, personal attributes, preferences and insecurities (Kalkowski and Paul, 2017; Laeti, 2015; Meyers, 2012; Pottell, 2016). Hairstylist also invest by providing social therapy and motivation through informal conversations with clients during service encounters. This is the same reason that some clients follow hairstylists when they relocate to different salons (Alberino, 2016; Bove and Johnson, 2006; MacLeman, 2017). Since they both contribute to creating equity to the one to-one relationship, clients are more likely to commit to the same hairstylist. Therefore, it follows that clients in haircare services have a higher propensity to commit to individual hairstylists to get the most out of their one-to-one relationship.

As a type of loyalty, the definition of personal loyalty is anchored from Bove and Johnson's (Bove and Johnson, 2009, p. 188) (2000; 2002; 2006) conceptualisations that point to relative attitudinal dispositions. For a deeper understanding of the attitudinal dispositions, this research also applies Oliver's (1999) attitudinal development phases of loyalty (cognitive, affective, conative and action inertia) to describe different dimensions of personal loyalty. Personal loyalty is customer loyalty to an individual service employee, based on interpersonal bonds of attachment that develop from personal interactions with the same employee (Bove and Johnson, 2002, p. 24). Following Bove and Johnson (2000, 2009), the next section describes personal loyalty majorly as it applies to the haircare services context. In this research, client loyalty to individual hairstylists results from the high level of interpersonal bonds characterised by customisation and social and structural relations that are difficult for competitors to replicate (Bove and Johnson, 2000, pp. 494–495, 2009, p. 188). Customer satisfaction remains a prerequisite for initiating and sustaining commercial relationships and personal loyalty.

4.4.2. Dimensions of personal loyalty in haircare services

Since clients maintain one-to-one relationships with the same hairstylists over a long period of time, they may have gone through different phases of devotion during the progression of the commercial relationship. For this reason, loyalty dimensions can be applied to understand their states of loyalty. The definitions of personal loyalty dimensions are operationalised from Oliver's (1999) attitudinal development phases of loyalty as well as guidance from Bove and Johnson (2000, 2002, 2009), Han et al. (2011), Ahrholdt et al. (2017) and Frangie et al. (2016).

Consistent with Oliver's (1999) attitudinal development, personal loyalty refers to a multidimensional construct comprising of cognitive, affective, conative and behavioural sub-constructs. However, each sub-construct is viewed as a dimension rather than a sequential phase. Although there is immense support for the sequential framework (Han et al., 2011, 2008), each sub-construct can be viewed statically to reflect a consumer's overall state of devotion, having experienced services from the same hairstylist over a long period of time. Sequential phases are most likely to occur during loyalty formation while incremental levels of satisfaction progress into loyalty (Han et al., 2011). However, after a long period of action inertia, it is likely that clients can give cross-sectional reflections of each stage. This research is based on a cross-sectional study, therefore, it is necessary to view dimensions of loyalty at a point in time, rather than longitudinally.

4.4.2.1. Cognitive personal loyalty to a hairstylist

Following the separate descriptions of cognitive and personal loyalty (Bove and Johnson, 2002, p. 24; Han et al., 2011, p. 1009; Oliver, 1999, p. 35), the operational definition of cognitive personal loyalty is loyalty that a client projects onto an individual service employee, based on information and initial interactions with the hairstylist. Han et al. (2008) suggest that service consumers display cognitive personal loyalty through affirmations that a service employee is the best choice for them and beliefs that they identify with the service employee. Although Bove and Johnson (2000, 2002, 2009) do not categorise personal loyalty into dimensions, they find that a client's attitudinal personal loyalty perceptions of an employee translate to more than 70% of the variability of attitudinal loyalty to the service organisation. This is justified by the logic that a client becomes attached to an individual employee with whom they have interacted over time and transpose that attachment to the firm.

As previously noted, cognitions are easily refuted by counterargument during loyalty formation (Han et al., 2011; Oliver, 1999). However, a client that has had multiple encounters with the same hairstylist has also had the opportunity to test and confirm their beliefs about the hairstylist through practical and relational interactions (Bove and Johnson, 2009). Although both types of loyalty are represented by cognitive states, in haircare, beliefs are motivated by relatively higher levels of involvement because hair is an important part of a client's identity, self-image and presentation (Harrison-Walker, 2000; Nyamnjoh and Fuh, 2014). Therefore, this research suggests that cognitive personal loyalty to a hairstylist may be stronger than

cognitive loyalty to an inanimate object as a result of a well-maintained commercial friendship that is supported by a client's convictions about a hairstylist. The same can be implied about affective personal loyalty.

4.4.2.2. Affective personal loyalty to a hairstylist

The involvement of feelings and emotions between a client and hairstylist is due to cumulatively satisfactory experiences and a well-maintained commercial friendship. A client's affective personal loyalty towards a hairstylist is represented by strong positive feelings, a favourable disposition and deep commitment as a result of strong interpersonal bonds. Laeti (2015) and Meyers (2012) agree that hairstylists have a functional and social role in their commercial relationships with a client and these have been incorporated into the service structure. Informal conversations between a client and hairstylist that occur during hairstyling encounters are common, acceptable and inevitable due to the high levels of physical contact, information sharing required and duration of the encounters (Bailey, 2014; Milady, 2016). Information shared is not limited to hair-related subjects, but includes informal conversations about social issues, personal problems, and common interests, among others. Hairstylists and clients liken this to social therapy which results in clients bonding with their hairstylists and liking them for their functional services and social support.

Lewis's (1999, pp. 506–507) realisations that the emotional intensity of hairstyling encounters can influence how African daughters perceive their mothers can be applied to the haircare services context. Hairstylists can be regarded as caregivers over and above functional service employees because they incorporate warmth, acceptance and sensitivity in the service. This includes understanding a client's need to look good and feel confident and work carefully especially when a client's hair is difficult to manage, or when treating the client's hair with heated appliances or chemicals (Hmar, 2011; Milady, 2016; Robinson et al., 2011). Hairstylists anticipate that, in addition to being pleased with the outcome of a hairstyle, clients expect to enjoy the encounter and social interaction with the hairstylist (Harrison-Walker, 2000; Milady, 2016; Varki and Wong, 2003). Han et al. (2008, p. 24) suggest that affective loyalty is characterised by a client's sense of belonging, happiness to be served, and gladness to commit to the service provider. Therefore, affective personal loyalty is operationally defined as a client's emotional devotion to one hairstylist. As a result, the affective dimension of loyalty enables and helps to maintain the intention dimension.

4.4.2.3. Intention personal loyalty to a hairstylist

The dimension of intention or conative personal loyalty represents a client's reaction to a strong commercial friendship and anticipation to behave in a particular manner. As previously indicated, it is similar to cognitive loyalty due to the rational processing required (Han et al., 2011, p. 1010; Oliver, 1999, p. 36). However, it occurs at a higher level of involvement such that beliefs escalate to become convictions that motivate a client to desire and prepare for further encounters with a hairstylist. Consistent with Oliver's (1999), intention personal loyalty initially relies on stronger desires than affective personal loyalty during the phase development. However, in addition to fulfilling desires, the fringe benefits that result from the well-established friendship over multiple encounters are likely to motivate future commitment (Bove and Johnson, 2000, 2009). Hence, the operational definition of intention personal loyalty is a client's devotion to one hairstylist based on conviction to commit the same hairstylist. Clients typically display this by confirming their intention to revisit the same hairstylist, scheduling appointments with the same hairstylist in advance, as well as not compromising the relationship by changing hairstylists in the foreseeable future (Han et al., 2008).

4.4.2.4. Behavioural personal loyalty to a hairstylist

The definition of behavioural personal loyalty follows that of action inertia or behavioural loyalty (Bove and Johnson, 2000, p. 492; Han et al., 2011, p. 1010; Mittal, 2016, p. 570): the active loyalty that results from a client translating their intentions into actions and overcoming obstacles that may prevent them from doing so. Apart from physically displaying their preference for a hairstylist, the repetitive cycle of repeat visits results in a client dismissing alternative hairstylists, even in the same beauty salon, in favour of one hairstylist. The need for a client to overcome obstacles is very apparent and proves the extent of their actual loyalty (Ahrholdt et al., 2017; Oliver, 1999). Bove and Johnson (2000, 2009) suggest that as a hairstylist has exclusive access to a client, the service organisation risks losing a loyal client should the hairstylist leave the establishment.

Behavioural personal loyalty towards a hairstylist also implies that a client will make an effort to secure the services of the hairstylist, including driving long distances and forgoing other beauty salons, waiting in a queue for the hairstylist to become available, or recommending the hairstylist to others (Bove and Johnson, 2002, 2009; Melnyk, 2014). The culmination to action inertia demonstrates the importance of employee-client relations because they determine the

behaviour that a client performs primarily towards an individual service employee, thereby prioritising the role of employees in recruiting and retaining loyal customers. While employees play a major role in personal loyalty, other drivers of personal loyalty have to be considered.

4.4.3. Drivers and consequences of personal loyalty

Personal loyalty is important to service employees because it increases their ability to influence a relationship with a client, gives them the freedom to further customise and improve the quality of their services, and highlights their importance and potential independence in the service context. Bove and Johnson (2009) describe it as true loyalty in pure services, justified by high degrees and frequencies of interpersonal interactions that are high involvement and pertain to a client's personal motives. The key driver of personal loyalty is, therefore, the resultant commercial relationship that ensues between a service employee and a client, which is dependent on multiple satisfactory encounters with the employee as well as functional characteristics of the employee.

4.4.3.1. Client satisfaction as a driver of personal loyalty

Client satisfaction is fundamental to personal loyalty because it motivates a client to revisit the same employee with expectations of further satisfaction (Meesala and Paul, 2018; Yee et al., 2010). As satisfaction measurement instruments in pure services actually assess the quality of employees' services, client satisfaction with hairstylists refers to satisfaction with the quality of service of an individual hairstylist. When services are repeatedly performed by the same hairstylist, it follows that a client assesses the ability to meet and surpass their needs, given the hairstylist's characteristics. Furthermore, due to the heterogeneity of haircare services, each hairstylist possesses unique degrees of the same characteristics (Milady, 2016; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). This research considers a unidimensional view of client satisfaction that is overall dependent on important employee characteristics that are evaluated by clients (Chen, 2015).

4.4.3.2. Employee characteristics that can influence personal loyalty

Functional characteristics of an employee refer to their ability to practically perform and deliver a service (Caruana, 2002; Milady, 2016). During initial encounters, a client expects a hairstylist to possess the necessary skills and experience to perform a variety of haircare services, as well as advise the client on suitable procedures. With reference to the refined SERVQUAL

dimensions (Harrison-Walker, 2000, p. 38; Parasuraman et al., 1991, p. 23), reliability reflects a functional characteristic of a hairstylist's ability to perform services as promised and on time. In an attempt to predict personal loyalty to a hairstylist, Bove and Johnson (2002), find that trust and commitment to a service employee plays a significant role. Accordingly, a client's perception of a hairstylist as being honest, predictable, credible and dependable to show genuine care for a client account for trustworthiness (Thaichon and Quach, 2015, p. 299). Trustworthiness, therefore, refers to a hairstylist's empathetic benevolence toward a client. In addition to being trustworthy, the ability to understand a client's uniqueness and tailor services to meet a client's needs is equally important (Kasiri et al., 2017; Marinkovic and Kalinic, 2017). The ability to customise hairstyles cannot be underestimated in haircare because all clients have unique features and esteem to reflect their best features through their hair.

Pursuant to customisation, this research tests the extent of a hairstylist's mobility to satisfy the client. Ordinarily, clients visit beauty salons, however, the incidence of service employees visiting their clients is a possibility that is rarely explored in research. Applying rationalisations of service employee mobility and customisation of services by Cohen (2010a, p. 70) and Marinkovic and Kalinic (2017, p. 141), a hairstylist's mobility is operationally defined as the ability of a hairstylist to attend to a client in locations other than the salon. The flexibility to work in environments other than the salon store results in satisfaction because it becomes more convenient for a client to access a hairstylist beyond the salon's official trading hours, in the client's location of choice and with less effort required from the client.

Another employee characteristic which leads to client satisfaction and ultimately personal loyalty is the superiority of a preferred hairstylist over others. As clients aim to obtain the best value possible, they rationally compare alternatives before settling with the greatest potential to meet their needs for reasonable compensation (Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). Chen (2015, p. 109), Riquelme and Rios (2010, p. 332) and Carter and Belanger (2005, p. 8) understand that clients evaluate competitors to determine where they can obtain the best value, asserting that they become increasingly more aware of their desired customer value. Relative advantage, therefore, refers to a hairstylist's competitive advantage or superior value over other hairstylists.

4.4.3.3. Negative consequences of personal loyalty to a hairstylist

The benefits of personal loyalty in each dimension discussed focus on advantages to the

relational component. However, beyond the relational element, personal loyalty can result in negative financial and operational consequences for hairstylists and service organisations. When clients insist on being served by a certain hairstylist but the hairstylist is not available, the display of intention and behavioural loyalty disrupt the operational flow of business in the salon as it results in queues for the individual hairstylist (Bove and Johnson, 2006). On one hand, long queues reflect negatively on a firm's operational efficiency and indirectly give the impression that the salon cannot cope with the number of clients. On the other hand, it reflects the popularity of the salon (Bailey, 2014).

A client generally expects the hairstylist to dedicate enough attention to them and maintain service quality, however, this ultimately results in longer waiting periods for those waiting to be served. Management may respond by putting pressure on hairstylists to work faster or by encouraging clients to either be served by other hairstylists in the salon or reschedule their appointments. Although such efforts actually test the extent of clients' personal loyalty, managers risk losing the clients' loyalty to other salons with more efficient operational management or due to compromised quality from rushed services (Bove and Johnson, 2000; Milady, 2016).

Gross displays of personal loyalty in a salon can diminish the perceived value of other hairstylists that are available but not desired (Bove and Johnson, 2000; Zhijun et al., 2015). Potential clients who observe long queues and waiting times at their first visit can easily conclude that other hairstylists are inferior and cognitively engage their preference to the superior one before trying alternatives. It is also possible for hairstylists to expect clients to be loyal to them and become hostile towards one another when clients prefer their counterparts over them (Agbonkhese and Aganbi, 2016; Barber, 2008; Hmar, 2011). This makes it difficult for clients to experience more than one hairstylist in the same salon as doing so potentially causes conflict amongst them. To avoid potential conflict, some clients may opt to distance themselves from the hairstylists and seek alternatives elsewhere. Despite its negative consequences, personal loyalty persists and hairstylists benefit from its positive consequences as well.

4.4.3.4. Positive consequences of personal loyalty

Carrying on from the previous scenario in which clients insist on certain hairstylists attending to them, Bove and Johnson (2002) find high correlations between personal loyalty and the

intentions of clients to follow their preferred hairstylists if they leave the current salon for another. This confirms true loyalty and tests the extent of a client's loyalty to a service employee. While a client's action inertia represents a client's consistent behaviour towards a hairstylist, a client's willingness to follow the employee when they relocate demonstrates their firm intention to overcome more obstacles (distance, travelling time and inconvenience) to maintain a commercial relationship with a service employee. Furthermore, Bove and Johnson's (2002) research clarifies how service organisations can dispel their fears of client defection, albeit from an employee.

Popular hairstylists can also use the basic economic principle of demand and supply to their advantage of high demand for one service employee. As clients demand to be served by a particular hairstylist, the value of the hairstylist increases, alluding to impressions of more superior service than other hairstylists, thereby justifying charging higher prices (Anselmsson et al., 2014; Casidy and Wymer, 2016). In their examination of customer loyalty and price sensitivity, Wieseke et al. (2014, p.18) confirm that loyal customers are not sensitive to price, suggesting that loyal clients have a willingness to pay more. However, despite this willingness, Wieseke et al. (2014) and Brady et al. (2012) agree that loyal clients also aim to gain from the equity in a commercial relationship and therefore expect to benefit by paying less. Although Casidy and Wymer (2016) find high correlations between loyalty and willingness to pay a premium price, they also provide caution on the diminishing impact that consumers' financial and social risks have on their willingness to pay.

Netemeyer et al. (2004) indicate that a customer's willingness to pay a premium price for a preferred service strongly reflects their loyalty as it is a facet of customer-based brand equity. As a result, this research investigates the extent to which clients are willing to pay premium prices to secure the services of their preferred hairstylist, applying descriptions from Netemeyer et al. (2004), Ligas and Chaudhuri (2012) and Casidy and Wymer (2016). Furthermore, willingness to pay premium prices may also reflect the ability of a hairstylist to manage other aspects of their service and relationship to the satisfaction of the client. Applying the definitions used by Netemeyer et al. (2004, p. 212) and Wieseke et al. (2014, p. 18), willingness to pay premium prices refers to a client's inclination to pay more for one hairstylist's services, given alternatives. Over and above personal loyalty, a client's willingness to pay a premium price is characterised by their intention to pay more than the price charged by other hairstylists, moreover, because they believe that the service is more superior to others and want to

contribute to the relationship equity.

4.5. Conclusion

Customer loyalty is important to marketers because it reflects the rewards of continuously satisfactory services offered to clients, secures future business and sustains profits and market share in the future. From the 1960s, theoretical conceptualisations evolved from defining customer loyalty in terms of repurchase behaviour of brands to recognising other actions as behavioural loyalty and six conditions underlying consumers' cognitive processes in the 1970s. In the late 1990s, further conceptual developments theorised that loyalty formation is the progression of three attitudinal phases (cognitive, affective and intention) that culminate into action inertia. Although researchers widely refer to it, current loyalty/retention programs reward customers for distinct behaviours. This results in inaccuracies of measuring loyalty due to consumers displaying loyalty to retention programs and many other objects.

Although consumers purport to be loyal to certain objects, they are actually loyal to others. Among many objects, they show true devotion to country of origin, religious affiliations, price ranges, the number of products, components and ingredients, and individual service employees. This brings the research to the importance of personal loyalty. Personal loyalty is loyalty directed at an individual service employee, rather than inanimate objects (services, products, brands, organisations, ideas, etc.), justified by the nature of pure and personal services. It is driven by well-established commercial relationships between clients and individual employees and hairstylists can benefit from the resultant relationship equity by securing followership from clients and charging higher prices for their services. Unfortunately, the advantages of personal loyalty to individual service employees can be regarded as negative consequences for service organisations. The high demand for particular hairstylists disrupts operational efficiency due to long queues, diminishes the value of other hairstylists and results in hostility between hairstylists. This reflects the importance of employee equity in pure service firms with similar service descriptions to haircare services in securing loyal clients over the long-term. The next chapter, Chapter 5, outlines how the hypotheses and conceptual model were developed from the inferences made about relationships between important constructs that emerged from the literature reviews conducted thus far.

CHAPTER 5: DEVELOPMENT OF HYPOTHESES AND CONCEPTUAL MODEL

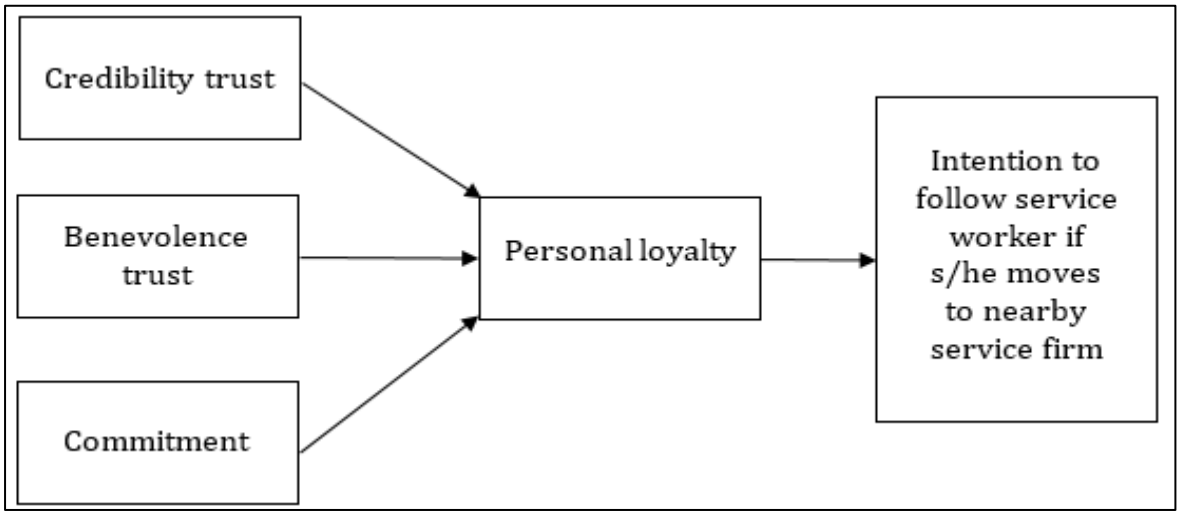
5.1. Introduction

The previous chapter reported on literature concerning customer loyalty, commercial relationships, service quality and customer satisfaction in haircare services. This chapter uses relevant models and deduces from literature's testable propositions regarding the possible relationships between the studied constructs to develop a conceptual model and hypotheses of this study. The chapter begins by discussing Bove and Johnson's (2002) personal loyalty model and Han et al.'s (2008) integrative model of service loyalty determinants which were found to be useful for the explanation of this study's dependent constructs and for ultimate development of the conceptual model. Thereafter, hypotheses are developed and supported by previously tested empirical models and literature. Finally, the resultant conceptual model that visually depicts the interrelationships between the constructs is presented.

5.2. Bove and Johnson's (2002) Model of Drivers and Outcome of Personal Loyalty

Bove and Johnson (2002) derived and successfully confirmed a conceptual model of personal loyalty from Morgan and Hunt's (Morgan and Hunt, 1994) commitment-trust theory. This is presented in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1: Bove and Johnson's (2002) personal loyalty model



Source: Bove and Johnson (2002, p. 25)

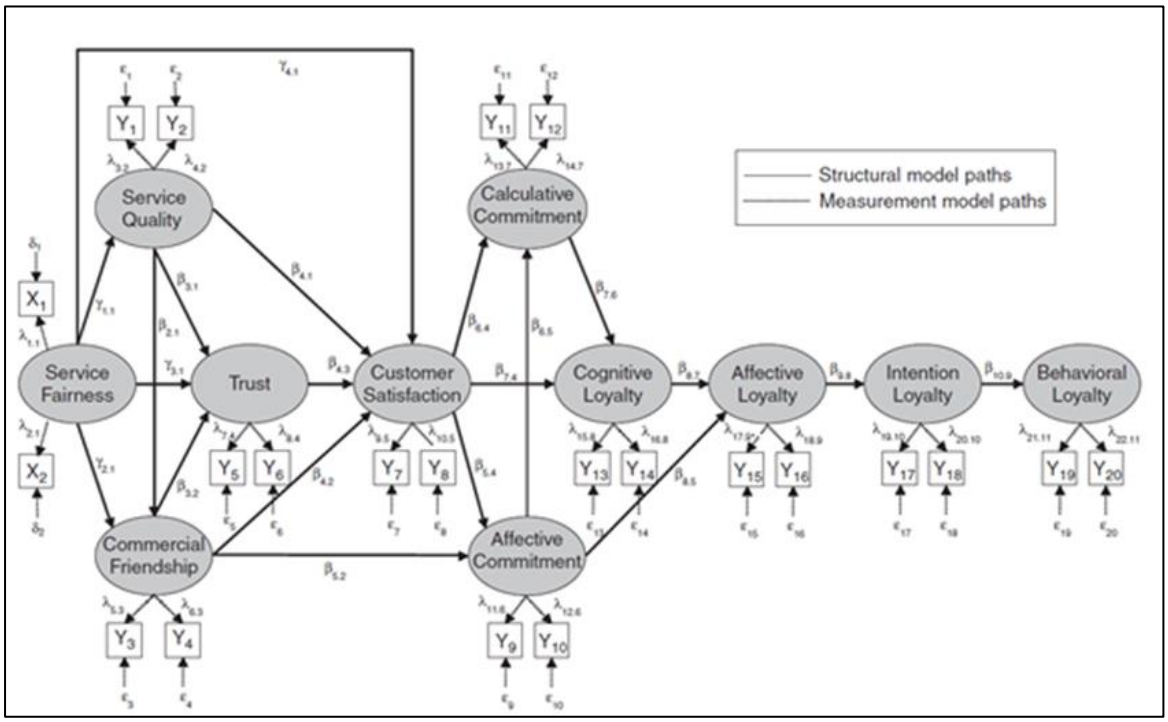
Bove and Johnson (2002) attribute a client's attachment and exclusive patronage to one hairstylist to a client's trust and commitment. They establish that personal loyalty in the

haircare services is attributed to a client's trust and commitment to the hairstylist. While Bove and Johnson's (2002) model can be a good starting point in understanding personality loyalty, their commitment driver of personal loyalty is however often regarded as a proxy for loyalty (Chen, 2012). Furthermore, in Bove and Johnson's (2002) model, the mediating role of client satisfaction, which Salegna and Fazel (2011) contend is an important driver of true service provider loyalty, was not considered. Of the many value factors clients seek in a hairstylist, Bove and Johnson's (2002) model examined only two factors (trust and commitment). The model nonetheless considered an outcome of personal loyalty in terms of the client's intention to follow the hairstylist if the hairstylist relocates from the hair salon. Since a client's intention to follow a hairstylist is viewed by Han et al. (2008) as a behavioural form of personal loyalty, this study considers and proposes a client's willingness to pay a premium price as a good outcome of personal loyalty.

5.3. Han et al.'s (2008) Integrative Model of Service Loyalty Determinants

Han et al. (2008) developed an integrated conceptual model that determines customer loyalty in service contexts from an integration of relational and service quality constructs. Their model is presented in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2: Han et al. (2008) model of service loyalty determinants



Source: Han et al. (2008, p. 24)

Han et al. (2008) integrate three key principles of three theoretical models: 1) quality, value and satisfaction (QVS) models (satisfaction, service fairness and loyalty); 2) relationship-quality models (trust and commitment); and 3) relational-benefits models (commercial friendship and loyalty). They recognise the importance of an integrative model that incorporates constructs from all three models that intersect with each other but are seldom tested to determine the effect on loyalty. They confirm that relational constructs such as trust, commercial friendship, and commitment emerge in social exchanges between service providers and clients for an array of high-contact and low-contact services. The results are therefore applied to services in general rather than a specific category.

Han et al. (2008) also refer to the cascading effect of loyalty dimensions, suggesting a sequential arrangement of customer loyalty from cognitive to behavioural loyalty. Although this was sufficient for their study, it is also important to investigate the outcome of loyalty. This study therefore adapts and extends Han et al.'s (2008) integrative model by considering willingness to pay a premium price as an outcome of each of their suggested dimensions of loyalty. This was in addition to their QVS and relationship quality constructs that were applicable to personal haircare services. From the adaption of Han et al.'s (2008) and Bove and Johnson's (2002) models, hypotheses for this study were developed.

5.4. Operationalisation of the Studied Constructs and Development of Hypotheses

Before developing hypotheses, it was necessary to familiarise with the definitions of constructs that have been operationalised to suit the context of the study. The constructs have been grouped under functional value factors and relational constructs. Functional value factors are the service attributes of hairstylists, viewed and assessed from clients' perspectives. They include reliability, trustworthiness, mobility, service customisation and relative advantage. The relational constructs comprise of client satisfaction, commercial friendship and personal loyalty dimensions. Willingness to pay a premium price will be tested as an outcome of the personal loyalty dimensions in this research. The operational definitions of the constructs are presented in Table 5.1 and the relationships between the constructs are hypothesised next.

5.4.1. Operational definitions of constructs

The definitions and operationalisation of this study's constructs have been gotten form a number of sources and they are presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Operational definitions of constructs

Construct from the client's perspective	Key references
Reliability: a hairstylist's service excellence or ability to perform haircare services accurately and dependably.	Parasuraman et al. (1991); Harrison-Walker (2000)
Trustworthiness: hairstylist's empathetic benevolence toward a client.	Bove and Johnson (2002); Thaichon and Qach (2015); Han et al. (2008).
Mobility: ability of a hairstylist to attend to a client in locations other than the salon.	Cohen (2008, 2010a); Marinkovic and Kalinic (2017)
Service customisation: a hairstylist's ability to tailor or perform variations of haircare services to suit a client's specific and individual needs.	Coelho and Henseller (2012); Karisi et al. (2017)
Relative advantage: a hairstylist's competitive advantage or superior value over other hairstylists.	Chen (2015)Riquelme and Rios (2010, p. 332); Carter and Belanger (2005)
Client satisfaction: the overall or cumulative pleasure that a client feels about the services of one hairstylist	Han et al. (2008); Yuksel et al. (2010)
Commercial friendship: interpersonal business relationship between a client and one hairstylist due to repeated high-contact interactions.	Price and Arnould (1999); Arnold et al. (2011)
Cognitive personal loyalty: a client's devotion to one hairstylist based on the client's thoughts and beliefs.	Bove and Johnson (2002), Oliver (1999); Han et al. (2011)
Affective personal loyalty: a client's emotional devotion to one hairstylist.	Bove and Johnson (2002); Oliver (1999); Han et al. (2008); Lewis (1999).
Intention personal loyalty: a client's devotion to one hairstylist based on conviction to commit the same hairstylist.	Bove and Johnson (2002); Oliver (1999); Han et al. (2011)
Behavioural personal loyalty: a client's active display of devotion to one hairstylist.	Bove and Johnson (2000, 2002); Oliver (1999); Han et al. (2011); Mittal (2016).
Willingness to pay premium price: inclination to pay more for one hairstylist's services, given alternatives.	Netermeyer et al. (2004); Wieseke et al. (2014); Casidy and Wymer (2016)

5.4.2. Development of Hypotheses

5.4.2.1. Reliability and client satisfaction

Reliability is a SERVQUAL dimension that is operationally defined as service excellence or the ability of a hairstylist to perform haircare services accurately and dependably. It has been

adapted from Parasuraman et al. (1991) and Harrison-Walker (2000) so that it refers to reliability as an individual service attribute of a hairstylist rather than service organisation. Under the consumer orientation philosophy of marketing, a consumer's view of service excellence is a central and strong determinant of customer satisfaction (Lamb et al., 2015). Consumers expect services to be delivered as promised and service employees secure repeat visits when they perform to meet expectations (Collier and Bienstock, 2015; Jiang, Jun, et al., 2016). Harrison-Walker (2000), Deng et al. (2013) and Meesala et al. (2018) find substantial correlations between reliability as a service quality dimension and customer satisfaction and highlight its importance in many service contexts, including haircare. Although Han et al. (2008) also confirm this, Harrison-Walker (2000) and Bove and Johnson (2000) emphasise the need to attribute service excellence to the relationship between service employees and consumers. As a result, this research proposed that client satisfaction is dependent on the ability of a hairstylist to perform services accurately and be dependable, hence it can be hypothesised that,

H1: Hairstylist's reliability positively relates to client satisfaction.

5.4.2.2. Trustworthiness and client satisfaction

Trustworthiness is defined as a hairstylist's empathetic benevolence towards a client. Similar to reliability, it is also a soft service quality dimension that has been modified from Parasuraman et al. (1991) and Bove and Johnson (2002) and operationalised to describe a hairstylist's individual characteristic. Although it can be argued that trustworthiness initially depends on satisfaction, Morgan and Hunt's (1994) commitment trust theory asserts that a customer's confidence in a service provider's integrity leads to satisfaction due to higher certainty and lower perceived risk after numerous encounters. As clients confide in their hairstylists to take care of their physical, psychological and social image over time, they experience less risk of disappointment and more certainty of their expectations being met (Bailey, 2014; Harrison-Walker, 2000; Milady, 2016). Therefore, in high-contact contexts where customers decide to engage in high involvement repeat purchases over time, a customer's trust in a service provider can lead to satisfaction (Guenzi and Georges, 2010).

The result of high physical, psychological and emotional involvement encounters over time is the establishment of trust between a hairstylist and client such that they know what to expect from each other (Harrison-Walker, 2000; Laeti, 2015; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). Haircare

services affect a client's physical image and personal esteem, therefore a client's repeated encounters are likely to increase their certainty and lower their perceived risk regarding a particular hairstylist. The suggestion is consistent with Han et al. (2008), who estimate with more than 90% confidence the relationship between trust and cumulative satisfaction in a high contact service in hotels, hospitals and hair salon contexts. Similarly, Henning-Thurau et al. (2002), who describe trust as a form of confidence in another party, also confirm that trust is significantly and positively related to customer satisfaction. The second hypothesis is stated below:

H2: Hairstylist's trustworthiness positively relates to client satisfaction.

5.4.2.3. Mobility of hairstylist and client satisfaction

According to Cohen's (2008, 2010a) typological description of mobility for work, mobility refers to the ability of a hairstylist to attend to a client in locations other than the salon. Hairstylists typically render services in a hair or beauty salon, however, they are not restricted to one physical location because they physically embody the skills necessary for performing services. As a result, the inseparability of their skills allows them to work anywhere (Harrison-Walker, 2000; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). A hairstylist's mobility also demonstrates flexibility and willingness to serve clients in their preferred locations beyond salon working hours. This additional value to service delivery can intensify client satisfaction (Cohen, 2008, 2010a; Cronin et al., 2000; Sweet, 2011).

Clients with busy work timetables often wish to schedule appointments beyond salon operation times when it is most convenient for them. In other instances, clients who have difficulty with physical mobility due to restrictive or health circumstances also rely on a hairstylist's mobility to meet their additional need for convenience (Bailey, 2014; Milady, 2016). Although there is limited sufficient empirical evidence to support a relationship between a hairstylist's mobility and client satisfaction, reasoning from relevant literature suggests that the possibility is worth investigating to expand current knowledge on the subject area. As a result, the third hypothesis was postulated:

H3: Hairstylist's mobility positively relates to client satisfaction.

5.4.2.4. Service customisation and client satisfaction

Service customisation is a hairstylist's ability to tailor or perform variations of haircare services to suit a client's specific and individual needs. This operational definition was adapted from Coelho and Henseller (2012) and Karisi et al. (2017). Empirical findings from Coelho and Henseler's (2012) path model analysis of two service contexts infer that customisation significantly increases customer satisfaction. Although service providers are capable of meeting consumers' needs, viewing their needs as uniform is impractical, especially with personal services. Service customisation is more consistent with heterogenic characteristic of personal services, and service employees recognise that consumers are unique and therefore require adjusted or new services to best match their unique needs (Coelho and Henseler, 2012; Gwinner et al., 2005; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016).

Due to the personal nature of hairstyling, hairstylists have a higher tendency to customise rather than standardise their services as each client has unique physical features and characteristics (Beatty et al., 2016; Harrison-Walker, 2000; Milady, 2016). Furthermore, personalised haircare services are more inclined to reduce a client's uncertainty and vulnerability about the outcome of a hairstyle because the service is performed specifically to complement their characteristics and needs, thereby resulting in satisfaction (Coelho & Henseler, 2012; Sweet, 2011). There is therefore reason to propose that a hairstylist's service customisation leads to client satisfaction, as postulated by the following hypothesis:

H4: Hairstylist's service customisation positively relates to client satisfaction.

5.4.2.5. Relative advantage and client satisfaction

A hairstylist's relative advantage is their competitive advantage over other hairstylists, which allows clients to view them as superior to their competitors (Lamb et al., 2015; Riquelme and Rios, 2010, p. 332). Hairstylists have unique characteristics that differentiate them from each other, and clients perceive some differences as more valuable than others. Clients typically consider the ability to perform a wide variety of services, keep abreast with trending hairstyles or invent new hairstyles for clients as competitive advantages that increase the value equity of a hairstylist (Bailey, 2014; Milady, 2016). Clients therefore derive more benefits and pleasure from hairstylist that they perceive to have greater competitive advantage as they offer them more value (Carter and Belanger, 2005; Chen, 2015).

Chen (2015) suggests that consumer's considerations of alternatives are highly correlated with service quality and loyalty. Although the relationship with satisfaction is not tested, Oliver (1999) and other researchers argue that loyalty is preceded by satisfaction over time. Furthermore, the context of haircare services relies on sustained commercial relationships, which are dependent on continuous satisfaction (Laeti, 2015; Meyers, 2012; Price and Arnould, 1999). Elsesser (2013) also suggests that the presence of competition motivates hairstylists to perform more efficiently and offer more value, thereby increasing the likelihood of satisfying clients. It can be therefore hypothesised that,

H5: Hairstylist's relative advantage positively relates to client satisfaction.

5.4.2.6. Client satisfaction and commercial friendship

The concept of client satisfaction was discussed extensively in Chapter 3 and refers to the overall pleasure that a client feels about the services of one hairstylist. As a central element of consumer orientation, client satisfaction in this context represents an overall evaluation of experiences with one hairstylist. Han et al. (2008) and Oliver (1999) assert that cumulative satisfaction relies on numerous positive experiences in which a client's personal expectations are met. When determining overall satisfaction, a client considers their selection of the hairstylist, the pleasure derived from previous encounters with the hairstylist, as well as the resultant anticipation of more pleasurable encounters in the future (Bailey, 2014; Barry and Roper, 2016; Rosenbaum, 2006). The repeated high-contact encounters motivate more interactions in the long-term and culminate into a relationship with the hairstylist (Arnold et al., 2011; Hennig-Thurau et al., 2002; Rosenbaum et al., 2015).

As satisfaction is a cognitive and emotional evaluation, Guenzi and Georges (2010) and Han et al. (2008) suggest that commercial relationships are the outcome of client's cumulative satisfaction. Due to the personal nature of haircare services, intimacy and continuous social interactions inevitably lead to a relationship whose parameters are beyond the functional services (Guenzi and Georges, 2010; Han et al., 2008; Harrison-Walker, 2000). Consequently, clients expect and derive more pleasure from functional and social interactions with their hairstylists, thereby motivating commercial friendships. The research postulated the following hypothesis regarding client satisfaction and commercial friendship:

H6: Client satisfaction positively relates to commercial friendship.

5.4.2.7. Commercial friendship and personal loyalty dimensions

The interpersonal business relationship between a client and a hairstylist due to repeated high-contact encounters relies on good functional, social and intimate interactions that are satisfactory to the client (Arnold et al., 2011; Price and Arnould, 1999). Similar to most types of friendships, the commercial friendship relationships do not only comprise of physical and emotional exchanges, but also engage cognitive, attitudinal and behavioural cues (Anti, 2012; Barrie, 2015; Mendelson and Aboud, 1999). Clients share personal and often confidential information with their hairstylists, as well as seek advice and favours from them (Laeti, 2015; Meyers, 2012). Although the relationship is fundamentally commercial and functional, both parties invest socially and psychologically into the friendship which incline them to commit to one another.

As stated in Chapter 4, four dimensions of loyalty differ based on the state of the client that is affected by the high involvement relationship. Due to limited studies on personal loyalty, justifications of relationships between personal loyalty dimensions and other constructs were transposed from studies involving customer loyalty. Behavioural personal loyalty is the easiest to observe as it is based on a client's actions of commitment to one hairstylist and allows a client to continue benefiting from the relationship (Han et al., 2011; Oliver, 1999). However, clients also engage their beliefs, emotions and intentions, representing cognitive, affective and intention loyalty dimensions. Although Han et al. (2008) proves that a positive relationship between commercial friendship and cognitive loyalty is mediated by satisfaction, they also find a positive and significant relationship between commercial friendship and affective commitment. Furthermore, Han et al.'s (2008) results show an appreciation of all four dimensions of loyalty, which Oliver (1981, 1999) suggests are the culmination of satisfactory interactions between customers and service providers. Anti (2012), Fullerton (2014) and Guenzi and Georges (2010) also confirm significant relationships between commercial relationships and long-term commitment or loyalty. Based on this rationale, the study postulated the following hypotheses between commercial friendship and the four dimensions of personal loyalty:

H7: Commercial friendship positively relates to cognitive personal loyalty.

H8: Commercial friendship positively relates to affective personal loyalty.

H9: Commercial friendship positively relates to intention personal loyalty.

H10: Commercial friendship positively relates to behavioural personal loyalty.

5.4.2.8. Personal loyalty dimensions and willingness to pay premium price

As described in Chapter 4, willingness to pay a premium price is a positive consequence of personal loyalty that reflects a client's devotion to a hairstylist by paying more for their services (Casidy and Wymer, 2016; Netemeyer et al., 2004). Bove and Johnson (2002) successfully defend a client's willingness to follow a hairstylist as an extent of behavioural loyalty, however, this study aimed to test another outcome of personal loyalty. Marketers and economists view consumers' insensitivity to price changes as a positive test for loyalty, and this study assumes the same regarding personal loyalty to a hairstylist (Brady et al., 2012; Wieseke et al., 2014). Once personal loyalty is established, a client is guaranteed to benefit from the equity of the relationship over the long-term, as noted by Palmatier (2007). The benefits include higher certainty and lower risks physically, financially, socially and psychologically. For example, a client becomes more certain that the hairstylist will recommend and perform a new hairstyle well, without the risk of damaging the hair, physical image or esteem of the client. This cannot be guaranteed with a new hairstylist.

Having safeguarded the benefits by remaining loyal, a client's willingness to invest more in the relationship by paying more depends on the strength of their commitment in terms of beliefs, feelings, intentions and action inertia. Despite the alternative hairstylists available to a client, it is possible for their devotion to one hairstylist to result in the client becoming indifferent to the price or attributing a higher monetary value to the cumulative interactions. Ligas and Chaudhuri (2012) assert that uniqueness positively affects willingness to pay a higher price, and this is possible given the relationship equity and benefits of personal loyalty. Anselmsson et al. (2014) support the same view. From these discussions, the following hypotheses regarding personal loyalty dimensions and willingness to pay premium price were postulated:

H11: Cognitive personal loyalty positively relates to client's willingness to pay premium price.

H12: Affective personal loyalty positively relates to client's willingness to pay premium price.

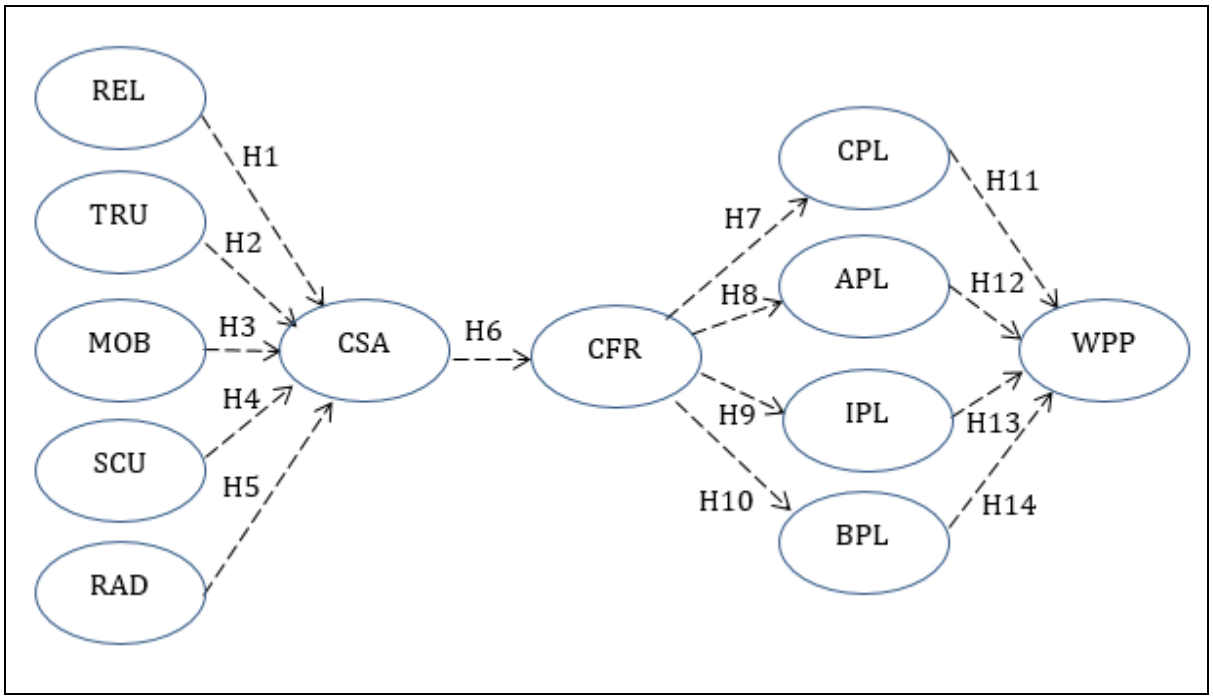
H13: Intention personal loyalty positively relates to client's willingness to pay premium price.

H14: Behavioural personal loyalty positively relates to client's willingness to pay premium price.

5.5. Conceptual Model Developed From Hypotheses

Figure 5.3 presents an illustration of the conceptual model that depicts the hypotheses developed. Each construct is considered a reflective construct represented by ovals with abbreviations of the constructs. Each dashed arrow represents the proposed direction of the relationship between two constructs. The functional value factors (reliability, trustworthiness, mobility, service customisation and relative advantage) are service attributes of a hairstylist viewed as the dependent variables. The relational constructs (client satisfaction, commercial relationship and personal loyalty dimensions) are intermediary variables, and the behavioural outcome (willingness to pay premium price) is the outcome variable.

Figure 5.3: Proposed conceptual model



REL=reliability; TRU=trustworthiness; MOB=mobility; SCU=service customisation; RAD=relative advantage; CSA=client satisfaction; CFR=commercial friendship; CPL=cognitive personal loyalty; APL=affective personal loyalty; IPL=intention personal loyalty; BPL=behavioural personal loyalty; WPP=willingness to pay premium price

Table 5.2: Summary of hypotheses

	Description	Relationship
H1	Hairstylist's reliability positively relates to client satisfaction.	REL → CSA
H2	Hairstylist's trustworthiness positively relates to client satisfaction.	TRU → CSA
H3	Hairstylist's mobility positively relates to client satisfaction.	MOB → CSA
H4	Hairstylist's service customisation positively relates to client satisfaction.	SCU → CSA
H5	Hairstylist's relative advantage positively relates to client satisfaction.	RAD → CSA
H6	Client satisfaction positively relates to commercial friendship.	CSA → CFR
H7	Commercial friendship positively relates to cognitive personal loyalty.	CFR → CPL
H8	Commercial friendship positively relates to affective personal loyalty.	CFR → APL
H9	Commercial friendship positively relates to intention personal loyalty.	CFR → IPL
H10	Commercial friendship positively relates to behavioural personal loyalty.	CFR → BPL
H11	Cognitive personal loyalty positively relates to client's willingness to pay premium price.	CPL → WPP
H12	Affective personal loyalty positively relates to client's willingness to pay premium price.	APL → WPP
H13	Intention personal loyalty positively relates to client's willingness to pay premium price.	IPL → WPP
H14	Behavioural personal loyalty positively relates to client's willingness to pay premium price.	BPL → WPP

5.6. Conclusion

This chapter found that there were 14 potential empirical relationships between constructs and, hence, formulated 14 hypotheses that are later tested in Chapter 7 using structural equation modeling to meet the objectives of the study. Each hypothesis has been supported by relevant

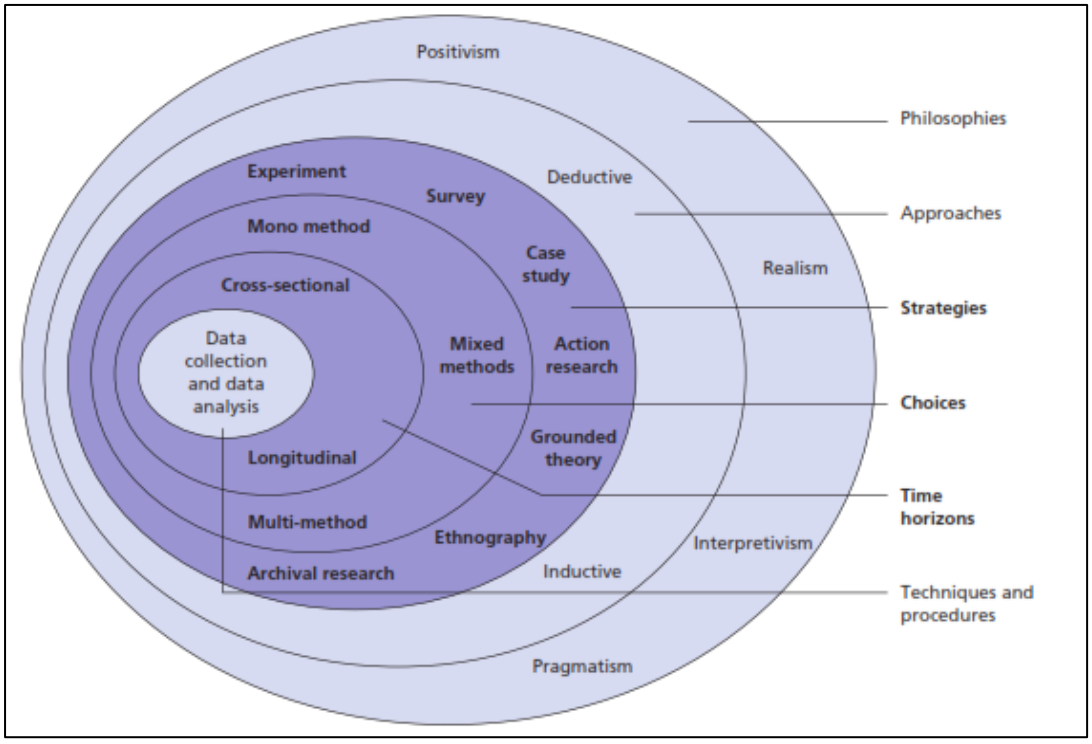
theoretical and empirical literature, including models previously tested by Bove and Johnson (2002) and Han et al. (2008). A summary of the operational definitions of the constructs was presented in Table 5.3 while a summary of the hypotheses was provided in Table 5.2. The next chapter describes the research methods used to test the proposed conceptual model.

CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

6.1. Introduction: The "Research Onion" Process

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the research methodology and design that were followed to test the research hypotheses postulated in the previous chapter. The sections in this chapter are aligned with the research onion process prescribed by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012), which provides an overview of the six stages of the research process necessary for obtaining data and developing knowledge with respect to the aim of the study (see Figure 6.1).

Figure 6.1: The research onion



Source: Saunders et al. (2012, p. 138)

The research onion summarises sequential research components in layers that guide the path from research formulation to data collection and analysis (Saunders et al., 2015). The outer-most layers describe the overall research design components (philosophies and approaches), followed by layers describing the research tactics (research strategies, methodical choices and time horizons) and the centre describes the practical component (data collection and analysis). The research onion is useful because it illustrates the stages of research progression, identifies an array of alternative research components and depicts data collection and analysis as the central component for the development and management of new knowledge (Saunders et al.,

2012).

6.2. Research Philosophy

Research philosophy refers to the overall development and nature of knowledge. As the outer-most layer of the research onion, it represents the overarching view of the research process that is responsible for providing a foundation of beliefs and assumptions about how knowledge of the phenomenon should be anticipated, collected, analysed and interpreted (Creswell and Poth, 2018, p. 53). Despite the alternative philosophies available to underpin research, the pragmatic view emphasises that research philosophy is dependent on the research objectives and is not necessarily confined to a specific discipline (Bryman and Bell, 2015, p. 134). As a result, the choice of research philosophy for this research was determined by the empirical nature of the research objectives. Research philosophy encompasses three qualities that help to make research valid, reliable and credible: ontology, epistemology and axiology.

6.2.1. Axiology – ethical, legal and practical values

Values play an important role in all phases of research and affect the credibility of results and newly developed knowledge. Researchers exercise their judgment when embarking on research and base decisions about research strategy choices on their values (Saunders et al., 2015). In marketing research, ethical and legal principles throughout the research process are equally important to ensure that respondents are protected, information is safeguarded and the research does not involve deception at any level (Baxter et al., 2010, pp. 163–164; Bryman and Bell, 2015, p. 134).

This research ascribed to ethical considerations prescribed by the independent Ethics Committee of the University of the Witwatersrand from the proposal stage to the conclusion of the research. The ethical clearance certificate is provided in Appendix A. The research was conducted in a business context that thrives on relationships between clients and hairstylists. Therefore, ethical considerations included ensuring that there were no conflicts of interest between the researcher, salon clients (respondents), hairstylists and salon managers. It was also crucial to secure respondents' anonymity, confidentiality, informed consent, respect of privacy and sincerity regarding the research. Academically, acknowledging secondary sources consulted during the research by way of referencing is required, as well as management and protection of primary data. The research was prepared and conducted in a coherent, practical, professional and logical manner, guided by numerous secondary sources and practical advice

from the research supervisor, hair salon managers and hairstylists.

6.2.2. Ontology – validating new knowledge

Ontology is necessary for validating new knowledge based on assumptions about the nature of reality and how the world operates (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 26). A researcher adopts an objective ontological view when they study a phenomenon that is believed to exist independent from any social actors (Baxter et al., 2010, p. 164). For example: a researcher in the manufacturing sector may consider the presence of natural raw materials required to produce a product as being independent of manufacturing employees because the raw materials and employees exist as two separate entities. On the other hand, a consumer researcher adopts a subjective ontological view when studying consumers' attitudes towards a branded product because consumers form attitudes as a result of their experiences with products (Bryman and Bell, 2015, p. 136). Therefore, it is necessary for a consumer researcher to understand that the phenomenon of consumer attitudes is continuously being constructed by consumers as social actors. Furthermore, the development of new knowledge about consumer attitudes needs to incorporate consumers' perceptions and the researcher's interpretation of those perceptions (Saunders et al., 2012).

6.2.3. Epistemology – determining acceptable knowledge

Epistemology is a branch of philosophy that describes the theory of knowledge or the determination of appropriate knowledge in a discipline (Repko and Szostak, 2017, pp. 44–45; Saunders et al., 2012, p. 27). Acceptable knowledge is determined through the use of data that is least susceptible to bias and therefore more likely to truly reflect reality. Reverting to the previous example of the manufacturer researcher and the consumer researcher, data collected from inventory counts of raw materials is less open to bias because it is based on physical observations that can be verified. This resembles the position of a natural scientist who generates knowledge from quantifiable objects and emphasises on obtaining data objectively (Baxter et al., 2010).

On the contrary, perceptions of consumer attitudes towards branded products rely on consumers' subjective opinions and feelings, which cannot be observed or verified independently by a researcher (Bryman and Bell, 2015). It is therefore more prone to bias. A focal epistemological issue in social science fields is whether or not the assumptions and theories of natural science are appropriate for studying social sciences (Bryman, 2012, p. 27).

There are numerous epistemological positions on this issue, however the interpretivist and positivist paradigms are two extremes identified by Saunders et al. (2015).

6.2.4. Interpretivist paradigm – subjective interpretation

The interpretivist paradigm typically adopts a subjective ontological stance, viewing people and their institutions as social actors who continuously construct reality (Bryman, 2012, p. 28; Bryman and Bell, 2015). It recognises that, as research subjects, people have different perspectives of the world. Therefore, researchers should be empathetic in order to understand people's perspectives. It also acknowledges the involvement of people as researchers who become the research instrument that gathers and interprets the views of human research subjects (Creswell and Poth, 2018, p. 53). This paradigm is suitable for research that aims to understand people's experiences, encourages them to provide individual perspectives of a phenomenon and, therefore, expects researchers to make subjective interpretations, qualitatively induce and quantitatively deduce meaning from the perspectives and develop theories from the meanings. As researchers seek different perspectives, they become internally involved in the research and use varied techniques, persuasive language or strategies to accommodate different people (Creswell and Poth, 2018). This is evident in in-depth and structured interviews that require researchers to probe their respondents depending on the information that they provide (Creswell and Poth, 2018, p. 54; Saunders et al., 2012).

This study intended to take an objective stance on examining the relationships between constructs that lead to personal loyalty to hairstylists and have the least amount of internal interference with the research. Although the interpretivist paradigm has its merits in valuing personal interactions between a researcher and respondents, it did not align with the intention of the research, which was to be as objective as possible.

6.2.5. Positivism – the preferred philosophy

The positivist paradigm supports the objective ontological view that social reality is observable, external to the researcher and credible data comes from a phenomenon that can be observed (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 29). The researcher and subject of research are separate entities and, as much as possible, it is necessary for the researcher to conduct research in a value-free manner to minimise interference in the research (Saunders et al., 2015, p. 131). Objectivity is achieved when the researcher is independent and neither affects nor is affected by the research subjects. While involvement such as probing during interviews is acceptable under the interpretivist

view, consistency and operating in a value-free manner are more important under the positivist paradigm (Creswell and Poth, 2018, p. 54). Therefore, researchers are required to approach all research subjects and interpret the information in a uniform manner. This implies that all research subjects are treated the same, including the questions asked and the interpretations of results pertaining to respondents. Following the philosophy of natural scientists, knowledge developed under the positivist paradigm is typically quantitative and involves testing existing theories using hypotheses (Saunders et al., 2015). The hypotheses are law-like generalisations that the researcher either confirms or refutes based on statistical analyses conducted on collected data, and the results contribute to further develop the theory (Krommenhoek and Galpin, 2013).

This study is underpinned by the positivist philosophy because of the need for the research to be as objective as possible, conducted in an unbiased and consistent manner, in order to achieve the empirical research objectives. Personal loyalty to hairstylists is a phenomenon that is socially constructed from interactions between clients and hairstylists over time (Salegna and Fazel, 2011). The objectives of the research are to determine the empirical relationships between service constructs that lead to personal loyalty and furthermore, to clients' willingness to pay premium prices. Although the data represents people's perceptions, the constructs used were measurable on Likert scales, all respondents had the same questions and all were interpreted in the same manner. As detailed in previous chapters, the research hypotheses collectively posited from literature and theories of customer satisfaction, service quality, relationship marketing and customer loyalty are employed to explain relationships between constructs.

6.3. Research Approaches for Developing New Knowledge

After describing the research philosophy, the researcher decides on the practical approach that the research should follow, as indicated by the second layer of the research onion (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 138). The choice of philosophy or philosophies for a research study determines whether new knowledge should be developed from testing hypotheses deduced from theory or by inducing theory from analysed data or both (Saunders et al., 2015, p. 138). The deductive approach resonates more with the positivist view, while the inductive approach ascribes more to the interpretivist view.

6.3.1. Inductive approach – generating theory

The inductive approach involves building a theory based on qualitative understanding of how people socially interpret and respond to the world (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 126). Its orientation is in social science and it is predominantly underpinned by the interpretivist's paradigm. The approach is based on the understating that people are different, and therefore do not always have the same experiences nor interpretations of the world (Burns et al., 2016; Malhotra, 2011). Therefore, it allows for theories about phenomena to be developed from alternative explanations that capture people's experiences in depth.

While a natural scientist's view regards subjective interpretation of information as inappropriate interference, social scientists consider multiple views as more realistic experiences of the world (Burns et al., 2016, p. 274; Creswell and Poth, 2018). This includes the involvement of a researcher as a research instrument because this represents the true nature of diversity in social contexts (Burns et al., 2016). As a result, methods of obtaining information and constructing theories are lenient and flexible rather than strict and rigid. The inductive approach to research, therefore, entails researchers developing broad generalisations and theories from different individual experiences (Creswell and Poth, 2018). This approach was not appropriate for the study because interference through probing respondents about their views of personal loyalty and subjective interpretations of their responses would have compromised the objectivity of the data.

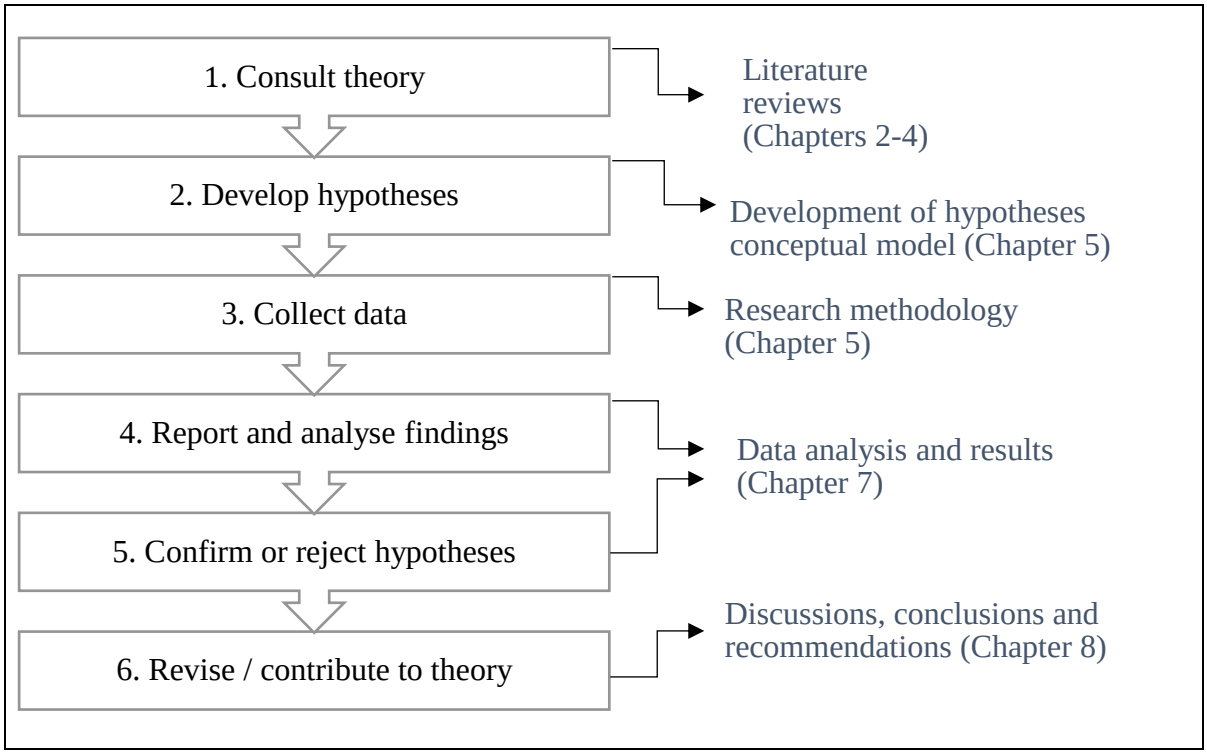
6.3.2. Deductive approach – testing theories

The process of deduction involves the researcher echoing scientific principles by presuming hypotheses about a phenomenon from theory. Further, testing is required in order to confirm or refute the theoretical presumptions and use the results to revise or contribute to the theory (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 124). This research followed the deductive process depicted in Figure 6.2. To start off, the researcher consulted various sources of literature and the fundamental theories concerned with customer loyalty, customer satisfaction, service quality and relationship marketing are detailed in chapters 2, 3 and 4. The research also presumed constructs from literature and developed testable hypotheses on the relationships between the constructs that eventually lead to clients' personal loyalty to hairstylists and willingness to pay premium prices, as detailed in chapter 5. The hypotheses were operationalised to presume relationships between the constructs and the constructs were measured on Likert scales that

were suitable for recording the responses as quantitative data.

The deductive approach was more suitable for this research because it allowed the research to validate empirical relationships based on presumptions in literature (Malhotra, 2011; Saunders et al., 2015). Information from structured responses of a large and representative sample of respondents was necessary for statistical procedures to process and provide results. In turn, the results were necessary for inferring generalisations about the relationships and contributed by adding new learning (Creswell and Poth, 2018). Stages of data collection, analysis of results, including hypothesis testing and discussions of results, were planned and performed, and are described in subsequent sections of this manuscript

Figure 6.2: The deduction process



Source: Adapted from: Bryman and Bell (2015, p. 23) and Saunders et al., (2012, pp. 124–125)

6.4. Research Strategy – Practical Design Considerations

The previous two layers of the research onion informed the study about the overall plan of the research and guided the next three layers to determine the tactics and parameters of the research design in more detail. As the third outer layer, research strategy refers to the scheme that a researcher follows in order to obtain data and it is aligned to the objectives of the research and supported by the overarching plan (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 141). Research objectives may be classified as being explorative, descriptive, or explanatory. Exploratory studies seek new

insights from unclear phenomena and resemble new discoveries about the phenomena (Bryman and Bell, 2015; Saunders et al., 2012). Exploratory studies can include literature searches, interviews and focus groups, and are akin to interpretivist views. Explanatory research uses secondary and primary data to explain why causal relationships between variables (Baxter et al., 2010). Descriptive research designs are used to delineate or give an account of a phenomenon without necessarily explaining why it occurs (Bryman and Bell, 2015, p. 51). The objectives of this research to examine relationships between constructs pertaining to personal loyalty resemble a descriptive design. There are various research strategies available; however, they can be classified broadly as being experimental or non-experimental.

6.4.1. Experimental versus non-experimental designs

In the experimental design, the researcher draws up a field or laboratory experiment in which they manipulate independent variables to determine causal links between independent and dependent variables of the research study (Bryman and Bell, 2015, p. 53). Laboratory experiments are conducted in controlled settings while field experiments are conducted in real-life settings that allow the context of the research to be observed (Burns et al., 2016). For example: a field researcher may wish to determine the effect of price on the rate of adoption of a new haircare regimen by observing clients' purchasing cues of the product at different prices. Within the setting of the salon, the price constitutes the independent variable and rate of adoption is the dependent variable.

On the other hand, a laboratory researcher may wish to determine the effect of a chemical on hair strength by recruiting a sample of people and applying the chemical at different levels of concentration on their hair. In this contrived setting, the level of concentration would be regarded as the independent variable and the measure of strength as the dependent variable. Experimental researchers therefore determine the changes in dependent variables as a result of experimental treatments over time (Malhotra, 2011; Saunders et al., 2012). Although it has its merits, this design was not suitable due to practical, time and financial cost implications associated with manipulating many independent variables. A non-experimental design was, therefore, more appropriate.

Non-experimental designs are those that do not involve experimental treatment and include surveys, action research, case studies, grounded theories, archival research and ethnography (Burns et al., 2016; Saunders et al., 2012, p. 144). These involve structuring data collection

from people or literature to observe a phenomenon in its natural setting and without the researcher manipulating variables. Each design has its advantages; however, this research preferred the survey strategy due to the reasons provided in the next subsection.

6.4.2. Survey strategy

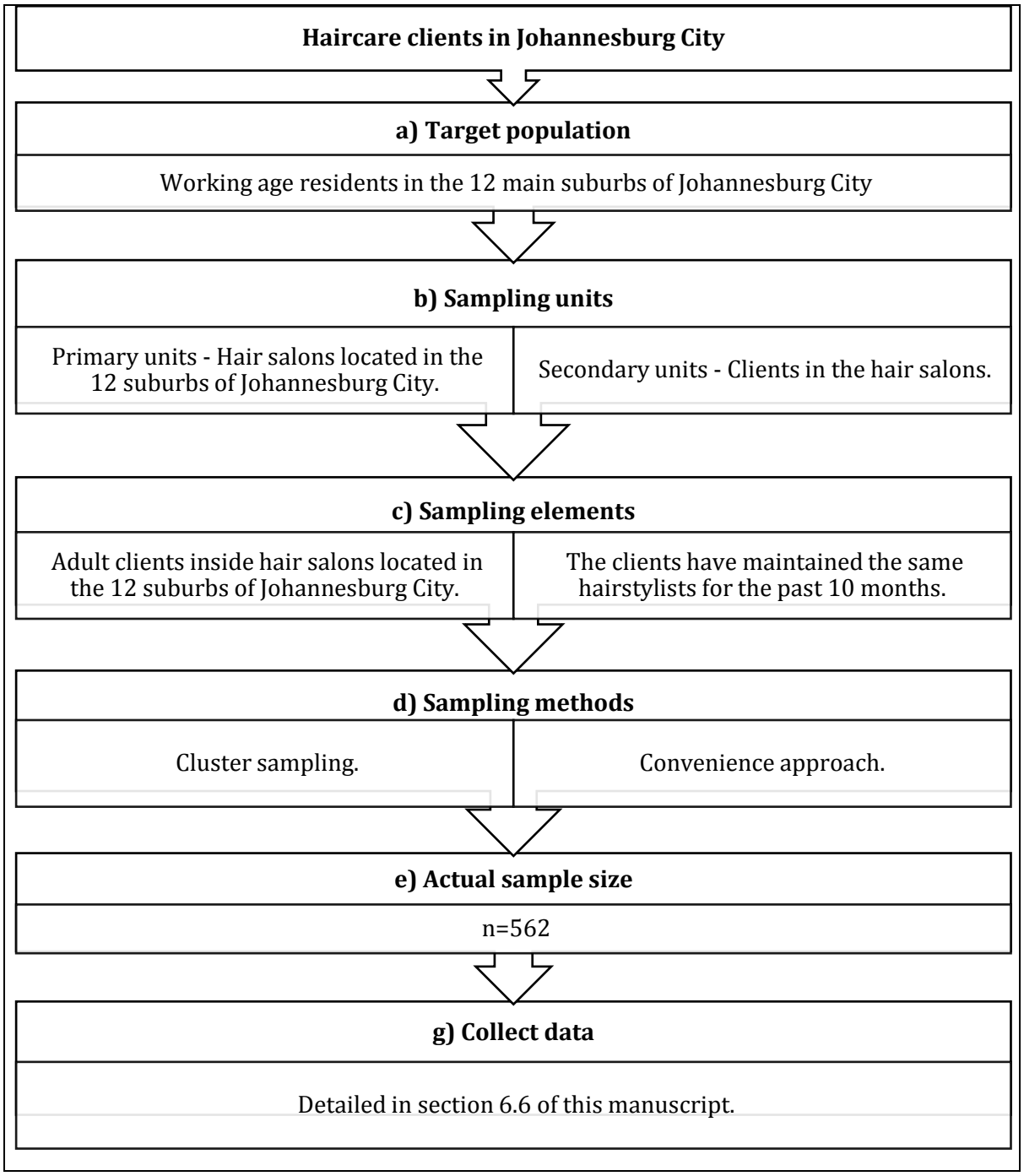
A survey strategy is a non-experimental strategy that involves collecting information to understand the overall nature of a phenomenon (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 157). It is versatile and useful in natural and social science research because of its ability to collect deductive and inductive information. A common example of a survey is a national population census from which authorities can deduce demographic information using descriptive and inferential statistics (Krommenhoek and Galpin, 2013, p. 62). Furthermore, survey data can be used to suggest relationships between variables and model those relationships (Malhotra, 2011). Survey research can be based on segments of a population that are representative of the population, therefore, the results can be extrapolated to the population.

This research was designed to collect data from a sample of the population in Johannesburg Metropolitan City (from now on referred to as Johannesburg) and, therefore, it was necessary to determine the appropriate sample specifications to ensure that it was as representative as possible. For the appropriate sample specification, a sampling process has to be followed as described in the next section.

6.4.2.1. Sampling design – sampling process

While a census involves collecting data from almost an entire population, surveys are based on samples of a population (Wiid and Diggines, 2015, p. 183). Surveys are, therefore, more feasible in terms of time, cost of administration, accessibility to participants and the management of the process and information (Malhotra, 2011; Saunders et al., 2012, p. 212). The sampling process followed a logical procedure prescribed by Wiid and Diggines (2015, p. 186) and is summarised in Figure 6.3. Each step of the process is described in detail thereafter.

Figure 6.3: The sampling process



Source: Adapted from Wiid and Diggines (2015, p. 185) and another source

a) Target population

The map in Figure 6.4 shows the 12 suburbs in Johannesburg that were used as mutually exclusive clusters from which to approach participants for the research. Although the target population of Johannesburg was unevenly distributed among its main suburbs, it was necessary to ensure that the suburbs were represented in the study and included in the sampling process.

Each of the 12 suburbs represents a cluster of the population with different socio-demographic characteristics, particularly income level and ethnic background.

Figure 6.4: Map of Johannesburg Metropolitan City and its Suburbs



Source: City of Johannesburg (2017, sec. 1)

Johannesburg is the capital city of the most densely populated province in South Africa (City of Johannesburg, 2017; UN DESA, 2018). Given the time limit for this research and the vastness of Johannesburg, it was appropriate and more practical to conduct the research on a sample of haircare clients in the city. Although Gauteng is geographically the smallest province in South Africa, its capital, Johannesburg, is the wealthiest city in the country and the only city in Africa that is classified as an alpha global city by the Globalisation and World Cities Research Network (GaWC Research Network, 2018; Hamilton, 2006).

As an alpha global city, it enjoys a high degree of international connectedness, participates significantly in the global economy and gives rise to a large and diverse population, which increase the likelihood of obtaining large amounts of data (GaWC Research Network, 2018). It is considered one of the best cities to conduct business in and, with a flourishing business and services sector, the supply of personal services, including haircare, is substantial. In

addition to local and international haircare service brands, Johannesburg hosts a prominent player in the global haircare industry, the LÓreal Professional African Salon Institute (Department of Trade and Industry, 2016; L'Oreal Groupe, 2016b). Johannesburg was, therefore, selected as the physical setting for the study because of its high potential to generate knowledge pertaining to haircare services from a diverse population that is exposed to a multitude of haircare service brands and hairstylists. Functionally, it was also necessary for the researcher to be familiar with the social protocols of haircare businesses as this made it easier to access respondents inside hair salons.

This research relied on population estimates from statistics provided by Statistics South Africa (2011) and the World Population Review (2017) because the last South African census was conducted in 2011. The estimated total population of Johannesburg was 4, 985,000 in 2015, and approximately 72.2% were within the working age range of 15 to 64 years old (Statistics South Africa, 2011; World Population Review, 2016). Therefore, the target population consisted of approximately 3,599,170 individuals in the 12 suburbs of Johannesburg who were of legal age to consent to participating without parental or guardian permission (ages 18 and above). Compared to consumers below the age of 18, those at or above the legal age were more likely to have independent relationships with service providers, including hairstylists. Furthermore, those aged 25 and above were likely to be more empowered to make independent decisions that affect their personal and social statuses as well as commercial relationships.

b) Sampling units

Sample units are the individuals selected for a sample based on qualifying characteristics that make up the sample frame (Malhotra, 2011, p. 127). A sample frame is a list of all the units of a population that are considered eligible to be part of the sample and commonly includes computerised registers, databases, organisation membership lists, directories and consumer lists (Wiid and Diggines, 2015, p. 188). It also provides an estimate of the population and is important for calculating a representative sample size. Nonetheless, sample units can still be identified in the absence of a comprehensive sample frame.

The primary sample units for this study were hair salons in the 12 suburbs of Johannesburg City. Due to the diversity of income levels and ethnicity across the suburbs, certain salons attracted clients with certain socio-demographic characteristics. In the absence of a sample frame that lists all the salons in each suburb, the salons were selected randomly and only those

that consented to allowing their clients to be approached to participate in the study provided the secondary sample units: the clients. Since client records in the haircare industry are neither regulated nor consolidated in nationwide lists or databases, clients were conveniently selected at participating hair salons in each suburb. As a result, the study employed both probability and non-probability sampling techniques. This is explained in the next subsection.

c) Cluster and convenient sampling

Probability sampling entails drawing a sample from a large population using a technique based on the probability theorem, which ensures that each unit of the population has a known chance of being selected for the sample (Krommenhoek and Galpin, 2013, p. 164; Wiid and Diggines, 2015, p. 118). Cluster sampling is an example of probability sampling that involves dividing a population into groups or clusters based on certain criteria and randomly selecting the sample units from each of the clusters (Wiid and Diggines, 2015, p. 197). The cluster sampling method helped to ensure that salons from the 12 suburbs with varying socio-demographic characteristics had a chance to be included as primary sample units and participants as secondary sample units. Furthermore, cluster sampling was appropriate for obtaining a representative sample because the absence of a sample frame made it impractical to use a simple random sampling probability technique.

While cluster sampling gave each suburb in Johannesburg City a probability of being included in the sample, the participants could only be approached at consenting salons and when the researcher was available. For this reason, it was necessary to use a non-probability sampling technique to select participants. Non-probability sampling involves using a researcher's subjective judgment rather than statistical knowledge to determine which sample units should be selected for a sample (Burns et al., 2016, p. 154; Saunders et al., 2012, p. 187). For this study, clients in hair salons were selected to participate using the convenience technique.

Cluster and convenience sampling were used together to ensure that that sample was as representative and practical as possible. Saunders et al. (2012, p. 187) assert that even probability samples alone encounter sampling errors due to differences between the sample and population, thus preventing the sample from being truly representative. However, the merits of probability and non-probability sampling techniques can make research more effective (Bryman and Bell, 2015). Without an official list of clients or hair salons, it was impractical for the sample to be based on probability only, therefore, a convenient approach

was necessary. Above that, cluster sampling helped to reduce the potential implications of non-probabilistic sampling by including participants from diverse ethnic and economic backgrounds in the 12 suburbs of Johannesburg City.

d) Sample size and sampling elements

Bryman and Bell (2015, p. 197) suggest that there is no one definitive way of determining an adequate sample size due to different methods used for different studies. While some researchers refer to statistical methods, others rely on the rules of thumb that are relevant to statistical analysis methods and software packages. Nonetheless, it is important for empirical research to determine an adequate sample size and decrease sampling error as practically as possible. The Raosoft® sample size calculator was used to determine the sample size based on the formula presented in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Determining sample size

Population (N):		3,599,170	
Margin of error (E):		5%	
Response distribution:		50%	
Confidence interval:	90%	95%	99%
Sample size (n):	271	385	664

Based on Raosoft® sample size calculator from the formula: Nx / [(N-1) E2+ x]

In order to obtain a level of confidence between 95% and 99% in the sample data and reduce sampling error with a large sample size, the targeted sample size was set between 385 and 664 respondents. A total of 600 participants were approached, however, after data screening, the actual sample size from usable responses was 562. These were used for data analysis. Before delving into the data collection techniques and analysis procedures, the next section specifies the research choice and time horizon of the study.

6.5. Mono-method Choice and Cross-sectional Time Horizon

Having outlined the research strategy, it was necessary to decide on the data collection techniques and analysis procedures in the next layer of the research process (Saunders et al., 2012). Although surveys are capable of collecting quantitative and qualitative information, the research objectives of this study prioritised quantitative data required to determine empirical

relationships. As the survey was designed to capture quantitative data, the mono-method choice was appropriate. The survey was also designed to capture the opinions of respondents at a particular point in time, thereby settling for a cross-sectional time horizon (Wiid and Diggines, 2015). This meant that each respondent was required to participate in the study only once and was not required to participate subsequently in the same study. The latter approach is practiced in longitudinal studies which are structured to develop trends from periodical respondent data over time (Krommenhoek and Galpin, 2013).

6.6. Primary Data Collection Techniques and Procedures

All the preceding layers of the research onion ultimately lead to the practical collection and analysis of data. The generation of knowledge is the pinnacle of research and the research onion reflects this by illustrating the research process in the form of stages that gravitate towards the centre where data is collected and analysed (Saunders et al., 2012). Although the use of secondary research is not explicitly described, researchers consult secondary sources for the literature review as well as methodology in preparation for the primary research.

Primary research entails designing a study to collect new data to fulfil specific objectives using various instruments (Wiid and Diggines, 2015, p. 60). The primary data collection starts by designing an instrument or questionnaire to collect the data. Participants were intercepted at random in public and at hair salons based on their accessibility and proximity to the hair salons and researcher, as well as their availability and willingness to participate in the survey. Only those who passed the screening criteria were eligible to continue participating, as well as those who were deemed to be of legal and ethical age of 18 and had maintained the same hairstylist for the past ten months.

6.6.1. Data collection instrument – designing the self-administered questionnaire

The research instrument used for this study was a self-administered questionnaire designed to collect primary data from respondents (see Appendix B). In keeping with the value-based axiology of the research, the instrument adhered to ethical, legal and practical value considerations by providing an ethical clearance certificate, a questionnaire information sheet and a consent form. In agreement with Bryman and Bell (2015, pp. 240–241), the self-administered questionnaire was preferred over other methods of quantitative data collection for the following reasons:

- It has higher consistency as all the questions are the same for all respondents;
- It was convenient for respondents to complete the questionnaire at their own time and pace; and
- It assures higher objectivity due to minimal involvement of the researcher in answering the questions.

6.6.1.1. Layout of the questionnaire

The questionnaire was divided into eleven sections labelled A to K and each section required different information from respondents. In section A, a screening question was asked to restrict participation to clients who had maintained the same hairstylist for the past ten months. This was based on the assumption that ten months was sufficient time for commercial friendships and personal loyalty to develop between clients and their hairstylists, thereby making the study relevant to the respondents. Section B captured respondents' biographical information to enable the research to describe the profile of respondents in terms of age, ethnic group, income bracket and spending on hairstyling services. Respondents' perceptions of their hairstylists in terms of the constructs were all captured on five-point Likert scales with various scale descriptors in sections C to K. These have been outlined further in subsection 6.6.1.3.

6.6.1.2. Synopsis of the Likert scale

The Likert scale, named after its psychologist inventor Rensis Likert, is a psychometric scale used to capture variations of people's attitudes by ranking response options to statements from one degree of expression to another (Norman, 2010). Depending on the degree of variation of responses required, researchers use Likert scales with five, seven or more points and assume equal distances between each point. Point descriptors reflect respondents' expressions of a construct and all statements in a construct are measured on the same scale in order to capture the full domain of the construct with internal consistency (Norman, 2010).

The Likert scale is beneficial because it allows previously qualitative information that is predominant in social science research, to be measurable, thereby enabling researchers to apply quantitative techniques to understand relationships between people's responses (Carifio and Perla, 2007). Although it is captured on an ordinal scale, Likert scale data is often approximated to interval data to measure a construct as a latent variable (Carifio and Perla, 2007; Norman, 2010). This allows researchers to treat the data according to the central limit theorem, which includes applying parametric statistical tests to analyse the data.

It was therefore appropriate for this research to use Likert scales to measure clients' perceptions of their hairstylists in terms of constructs that predict and is predicted by personal loyalty. All constructs in this research were measured with five items on a five-point Likert scale, which is generally acceptable for providing sufficient variation of responses. However, point descriptors varied for each construct depending on the general expressions of the constructs. For each statement or item pertaining to a construct, respondents were required to indicate the response that best expressed their perception. The items were adapted from those developed or used in literature to suit the haircare service context. Specific details of each construct are briefly described in the next section.

6.6.1.3. Measurement scales used for research constructs

Section C: Reliability

Clients' perceptions of their hairstylists as reliable employees capable of providing services accurately were captured on items adapted from Parasuraman et al.'s, (1991) SERVQUAL description and scored on the following scale: *1= strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neutral, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree.*

Table 6.2: Reliability construct items

The hairstylist uses good skills and techniques to style my hair.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she completes styling my hair within the promised time.	1	2	3	4	5
The hairstylist is able to produce my desired hairstyles.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she produces my desired style correctly the first time.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she communicates necessary and accurate information about the service with me.	1	2	3	4	5

Section D: Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness, operationalised in terms of clients' perceptions of their hairstylists' benevolent commitment and empathy, was captured on items adapted from Bove and Johnson's (2002) benevolence trust statements and scored on a five-point *strongly disagree - strongly agree* scale.

Table 6.5: Trustworthiness construct items

The hairstylist is committed about attending to my haircare needs.	1	2	3	4	5
I trust the expertise of the hairstylist to understand and address the	1	2	3	4	5

problems that I have with my hair.					
He/she is sensitive to the uniqueness of my hair.	1	2	3	4	5
I am always peaceful that the hairstylist will do my hair according to my taste.	1	2	3	4	5
I trust the advice the hairstylist gives me on the best way to make-up my hair.	1	2	3	4	5

Section E: Mobility of the hairstylist

Measured in terms of the extent to which a hairstylist is capable of serving clients in locations outside the salon, mobility of the hairstylist was captured on statements framed from Cohen's (2010a) time and space dependence descriptions and scored on a five-point *strongly disagree - strongly agree* scale.

Table 6.3: Mobility construct items

The hairstylist is willing to do my hair outside his/her salon environment.	1	2	3	4	5
The hairstylist can do my hair outside formal business hours.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she is willing to come to my home to do my hair.	1	2	3	4	5
The hairstylist makes time for me, even when I do not have an appointment.	1	2	3	4	5
If I request, the hairstylist can do my hair in a different location.	1	2	3	4	5

Section F: Service customisation

Service customisation was measured in terms of the ability of a hairstylist to personalise haircare services for clients. It was captured on statements adapted from Chen's (2015) customised service and Gwinner et al.'s (2005) interpersonal and service offering adaptive behaviour and scored on the following scale: *1= very poorly, 2= poorly, 3=average, 4= well, 5=very well.*

Table 6.4: Service customisation construct items

The hairstylist knows about the unique needs of my hair.	1	2	3	4	5
The hairstylist alters hairstyles so that they suit me.	1	2	3	4	5
He/she offers me hair products and services that satisfy my unique needs.	1	2	3	4	5
The hairstylist makes the service comfortable specifically for me.	1	2	3	4	5
The hairstylist uses a variety of strategies to satisfy my needs.	1	2	3	4	5

Section G: Relative advantage

Relative advantage had items to capture clients' perceptions of the competitive advantages of their hairstylists over other hairstylists. The items were adapted from Chen's (2015) competition and Carter and Belanger's (2005) relative advantage constructs and scored on a five-point *strongly disagree - strongly agree* scale.

Table 6.5: Relative advantage construct items

Compared to other hairstylists that I know, my hairstylist is better in the following ways:

Is more knowledgeable about hairstyles and products.	1	2	3	4	5
Is better at styling my hair type.	1	2	3	4	5
Is more up-to-date with trendy hairstyles.	1	2	3	4	5
Can perform a wider variety of haircare services.	1	2	3	4	5
Is more creative at inventing new hairstyles.	1	2	3	4	5

Section H: Client satisfaction

Client satisfaction was the extent to which a hairstylist meets a client's service expectations overall. It was measured on customer satisfaction items adapted from customer satisfaction constructs used by Han et al. (2008) and Yuksel et al. (2010) and was scored on a five-point *strongly disagree - strongly agree* scale.

Table 6.6: Client satisfaction construct items

My decision to choose to this hairstylist was a wise one.	1	2	3	4	5
The hairstylist meets my expectations of hairstyling.	1	2	3	4	5
The services of this hairstylist are mostly satisfying.	1	2	3	4	5
I am pleased to remain with this hairstylist.	1	2	3	4	5
My hairstylist mostly meets my expectations.	1	2	3	4	5

Section I: Commercial friendship

Respondents' views of their interpersonal relationships with their hairstylists were used to operationalise commercial friendship scale. The views were measured on items adapted from Han et al.'s (2008) commercial friendship construct and Rosenbaum's (2006) companionship and instrumental support scales. They were scored on a five-point *strongly disagree - strongly agree* scale.

Table 6.7: Commercial friendship construct items

I am comfortable sharing personal information about myself with the hairstylist.	1	2	3	4	5
The hairstylist and I discuss other issues besides hair.	1	2	3	4	5
Other than hair, the hairstylist and I share common interests and values.	1	2	3	4	5
Sometimes the hairstylist does favours for me.	1	2	3	4	5
The hairstylist reassures me about myself.	1	2	3	4	5

Section J - Personal loyalty

Personal loyalty, viewed in terms of cognitive, affective, intention and behavioural personal loyalty constructs, was measured on a five-point *strongly disagree* - *strongly agree* scale. Cognitive loyalty measured the respondents' beliefs of why they were committed to their hairstylists. Affective personal loyalty was measured in terms of their emotional commitment to their hairstylists, and intention loyalty expressed their desire to continue being served by the hairstylist in the future. Items for all three dimensions were adapted from Han et al. (2008) and Yuksel et al. (2010). Personal behavioural loyalty measured respondents' present views of how frequently they display certain behaviour that demonstrates commitment toward their hairstylists. This was measured in the following scale: *1=never, 2=rarely, 3=often, 4=most times, 5=always.*

Table 6.8: Personal loyalty construct items

Cognitive personal loyalty I am committed to my hairstylist because of the following reasons:					
I consider this hairstylist to be the best choice for me.	1	2	3	4	5
I believe he/she provides me with higher service quality than other hairstylists.	1	2	3	4	5
I identify more with this hairstylist than I do with other hairstylists.	1	2	3	4	5
I think committing to this hairstylist is good for me.	1	2	3	4	5
I think recommending the hairstylist to others is a good idea.	1	2	3	4	5
Affective personal loyalty I have regularly done my hair with my hairstylist because of the following reasons:					
I feel good when this hairstylist does my hair.	1	2	3	4	5
Compared to other hairstylists, I like being served by my hairstylist.	1	2	3	4	5
I feel a sense of belonging with the hairstylist.	1	2	3	4	5

I feel happy to commit to this hairstylist.	1	2	3	4	5
I am attached to this hairstylist and will be glad to refer other people to this hairstylist.	1	2	3	4	5
Intention personal loyalty					
I intend to continuously do my hair with my current hairstylist.	1	2	3	4	5
I would like to dedicate my future haircare services to my current hairstylist.	1	2	3	4	5
I would look for my current hairstylist in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
Changing my current hairstylist in the future is not an option	1	2	3	4	5
I would like to continue my interactions with my current hairstylist.	1	2	3	4	5
Behavioural personal loyalty					
I decline other good hairstylists for my current one.	1	2	3	4	5
*I allow other hairstylists to do my hair.	1	2	3	4	5
I would choose this hairstylist for my next hairstyle.	1	2	3	4	5
I leave my area of residence to travel to my hairstylist	1	2	3	4	5
I recommend this hairstylist to other people.	1	2	3	4	5

*=Negatively phrased

Section K: Willingness to pay a premium price

Willingness to pay a premium price was operationalised in terms of clients' readiness to pay higher prices for the services of their hairstylists. It was measured on a five-point *strongly disagree* - *strongly agree* scale. The items were adapted from Casidy and Wymer (2016) and Ligas and Chaudhuri (2012).

Table 6.9: Willingness to pay premium price construct items

For the service that I receive from this hairstylist, I am willing to pay more than the normal price.	1	2	3	4	5
Compared to what other hairstylists charge, I am willing to pay a higher price for this hairstylist to do my hair.	1	2	3	4	5
I will request this hairstylist, even if other hairstylists charge slightly less.	1	2	3	4	5
*If this hairstylist charges slightly higher than other hairstylists do, I will switch to another hairstylist.	1	2	3	4	5
*I will only pay the normal price for this hairstylist to do my hair, and not more.	1	2	3	4	5

*=Negatively phrased

6.7. Data Analysis Procedures Followed

Captured data that has gone through data cleaning and initial reliability analysis was used for subsequent analysis. It is worth noting that the terms constructs, factors, latent variables and unobserved variables are used interchangeably in this and subsequent chapters, and the same applies for the terms questions, items and observed variables. For this study, data went through three phases of data analysis: descriptive statistics, measurement model assessment and structural model assessment. The measurement and structural model assessments form the inferential statistics performed using structural equation modeling (SEM). The inferences drawn from the SEM processes were used for the discussions and conclusions in latter chapters of the research, while descriptive statistics were used at the initial stage of data analysis.

6.7.1. Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics summarised and described the data to make it useful and informative (Saunders et al., 2012, p. 140). As the basis of quantitative data analysis, the purpose of descriptive statistics is to summarise the large amounts of raw data collected and present them for easier interpretation. They typically involve determining the dispersion of data using measures of central tendency such as means and standard deviations, frequency distributions as well as presenting data in summary tables and graphical figures (Burns et al., 2016). The research summarised respondents' biographical data into a respondent profile to describe overall characteristics of the sample. Frequency distributions were also included to observe the variations in responses across the sample. The means and standard deviation of the constructs were also calculated and presented in tables.

6.7.2. Inferential statistics – an overview of SEM

As mentioned, the inferential statistics for this research were based on SEM, which is a family of multivariate quantitative analysis techniques that can estimate the interrelationships of a series of multiple regression equations simultaneously (Hair et al., 2010, p. 634). It is also referred to as covariance structure analysis or latent variable analysis. Compared to techniques like multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and canonical correlation, SEM can examine multiple relationships among specified constructs (represented as latent variables) in complex structures (Kline, 2011; Nusair and Hua, 2010).

The structural model is regarded as complex because an independent variable in one

relationship becomes a dependent variable in another relationship, although all variables are part of one conceptual model (Hair, Matthews, et al., 2017). Although there are unique relationships hypothesised for a study, they are interdependent and SEM is capable of estimating the multiple regressions simultaneously using factor analysis and multiple regression. As a result, SEM can estimate the strength of the relationships and verify the extent to which the data fits the model. Due to the complex nature of interrelationships hypothesised for this research, SEM was used for this study.

6.7.2.1. Two approaches to SEM – CB vs PLS

There are two broad approaches to SEM that determine how estimations of relationships and model fit are computed: covariance-based (CB) and partial least squares (PLS). According to Hair et al. (2010, p. 658), SEM was initially developed using covariance matrices where results were estimated by comparing two covariance matrices: the covariance matrix from the data and the ideal covariance matrix with the best fitting model. This also meant that the maximum likelihood function was incorporated to minimise the differences between the matrices, however, variances were not explained.

More recent adaptations of CB-SEM allow researchers to use correlation matrices instead of covariance matrices to allow for simpler analysis and interpretation (Hair et al., 2010, p. 658). CB-SEM is suitable and ideal for datasets that conform to a normal distribution and strict assumptions of statistical parametric tests. However, CB-SEM conditions may be restrictive, especially for some social science studies, including marketing and management, where data does not always reflect a normal distribution (Schumacker and Lomax, 2004). Additionally, researchers encounter problems when running large models with more than 50 items, among other disadvantages.

Contrary to CB-SEM, the PLS approach estimates relationships by comparing the covariance matrix of the dependent variables from the independent variables (Hair, Hollingsworth, et al., 2017). The goal is to maximise the differences between the covariance matrices and minimise the error terms and variance explained between them. Although it has been criticised for being less rigorous than CB-SEM due to non-parametric applications, PLS-SEM effects robust estimations in both small and large complex models (Hair, Matthews, et al., 2017). Its ability to accommodate data that does not meet strict assumptions of statistical parametric conditions is an advantage for researchers with such data. Despite the ongoing debate about the

alternatives, the optimistic approach is to view the two approaches as complementary approaches in the family of SEM as they both have the same objective of estimating complex interrelationships via factor analysis and multiple regression.

6.7.2.2. Options of statistical software for SEM

All specialised statistical software packages for SEM aim to estimate complex structural models, however, they devote to one approach and therefore differ in their underlying assumptions of SEM. Among others, examples of software packages that use the CB approach include Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS®), linear structure relations (LISREL®) and statistical analysis system (SAS®). Those devoted to PLS-SEM include SmartPLS®, WarpPLS® and PLS-Graph®. The SmartPLS3® statistical package was chosen for this study to take advantage of the merits of PLS-SEM already mentioned. Additionally, SmartPLS3® was more favourable due to its physical accessibility, compatibility and user-friendliness. It was used to effect SEM, starting with the measurement model phase and followed by the structural model assessment phase.

6.7.3. Measurement model assessment

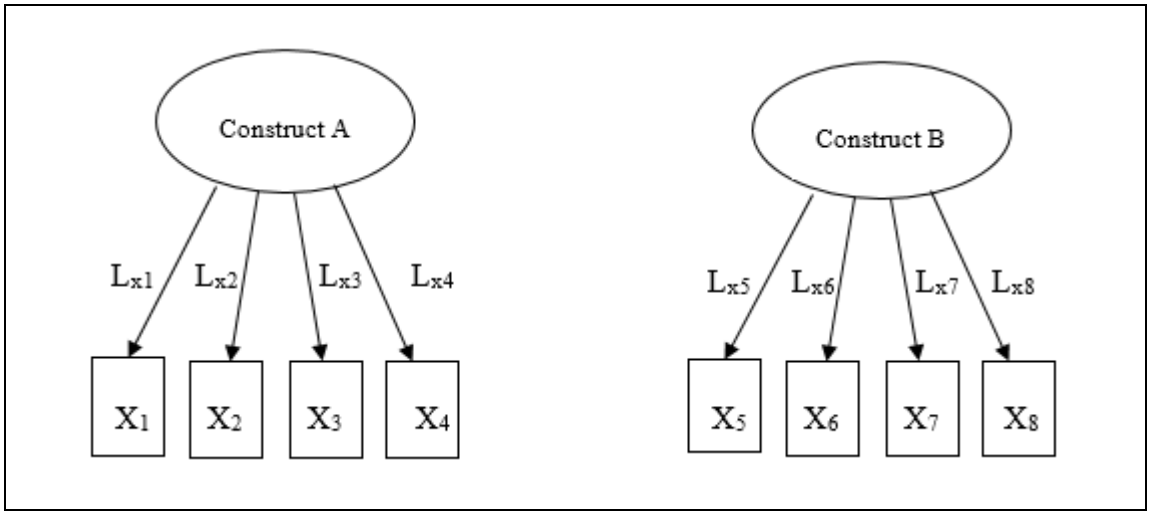
A measurement model is assumed by constructs and the items grouped in each construct, which are derived and operationalised from literature (Hair et al., 2010, p. 690). Following the positivist requirement for data to be reliable and valid, it is necessary to assess the measurement model to ensure that the data reflects the structure implied in the constructs consistently and validly. This was effected by a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

6.7.3.1. CFA procedure for SEM

CFA is an affirmative statistical procedure used to test if measured items specified by a theoretical model logically and systematically represent the latent variables (Hair et al., 2010, p. 693). CFA is run to calculate the correlational relationships between each latent variable and its corresponding observed variables and the result is known as a factor loading. Prior to running a CFA, it is important to note that the number of factors and items that load onto the factors are pre-determined by the theoretical model (Hair, Hollingsworth, et al., 2017; Schumacker and Lomax, 2004). As mentioned in the previous chapter, consultations with literature provided items that were hypothesised to collectively reflect their constructs, therefore CFA was run to test the reflective model (Hair et al., 2010). CFA procedures also

assign an error term to each observed variable to represent the degree to which the latent variable does not explain the observed variable (Hair, Hult, et al., 2017). Measurement errors are common in research and statistical procedure make provision for them. Figure 6.6 depicts a visual representation of a reflective theoretical model in the form of a path model for CFA.

Figure 6.6: Path diagram representing a reflective theoretical model



Source: Adapted from: Hair et al. (2016, p.695)

The illustration in Figure 6.6 shows two latent variables: Construct A and Construct B. The objects labelled $X_1 - X_8$ represent the measured observed variables and $L_{x1} - L_{x8}$ represent the factor loadings which estimate the relationships between the latent and observed variables.

6.7.3.2. Test of reliability using Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (CR)

Reliability refers to the ability of a variable to be consistent or stable over time, such that there is little variation in results when the variable is measured multiple times or on different respondents in a sample (Bryman and Bell, 2015, p. 169). Furthermore, for variables that have multiple indicators, such as constructs with many corresponding items, it is important for items to be internally consistent or have high commonality with other items (Krommenhoek and Galpin, 2013; Teo, 2011). This implies that the items are highly interrelated with one another and are measuring the same construct. Internal reliability indicates that there is little variation and higher correlation between multiple responses to an item in the same construct (Hair et al., 2010). This research considered two tests of reliability: Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (CR).

Cronbach's alpha, also known as coefficient alpha, is commonly used for estimating internal reliability for multi-item variables (Krommenhoek and Galpin, 2013; Spitzer et al., 1978). It

assumes that the items explain only one construct variable, thereby regarding them as unidimensional. It also assumes that all items representing a variable have an equal relationship to the variable, and therefore have the same factor loading (Hair et al., 2019). On the other hand, CR tests reliability using the variations in factor loadings and does not consider the items to equally relate to the construct. Therefore, differences in factor loadings between Cronbach's alpha and CR reveal discrepancies of reliability assessment between the two tests. Generally, researchers expect minor differences between Cronbach's alpha and CR. CR was computed using the formula below:

Figure 6.7: Composite reliability formula

$CR\eta = \frac{(\Sigma\lambda yi)^2}{(\Sigma\lambda yi)^2 + \Sigma\varepsilon i}$	Specification: $(\Sigma\lambda yi)^2$ = square of the summation of factor loadings generated by CFA; $\Sigma\varepsilon i$ = summation of error variances

Source: Hair et al. (2010, p. 710)

Reliability for a construct is measured on a scale from 0 to 1 and coefficients closer to 1 indicate more internal consistency. Krommenhoek and Galpin (2013) and Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) consider coefficients of 0.7 and 0.6 as recommended and marginally acceptable, respectively. Reliability was computed for each latent variable.

6.7.3.3. Test of validity using convergent and discriminant validities

While reliability deals with how consistently items represent a construct, validity refers to how well items correctly represent a construct and therefore measure what they purport to measure (Bryman and Bell, 2015, p. 170; Hair et al., 2010, p. 94). This research uses two tests of validity: convergent validity and discriminant validity.

a) Convergent validity: Factor loadings and average variance extracted (AVE)

Convergent validity is confirmed when the indicators in a construct share a high proportion of variance with each other, showing that the items converge commonly on the construct. This can be verified by high standardised factor loadings that are statistically significant. On a scale of 0 to 1, Hair et al. (2019; 2017) suggest that loadings equal to or greater than 0.5 are

acceptable while loadings greater than 0.7 are ideal. While factor loadings assess convergence at the item level, AVE offers a summary indication of convergent validity by computing the mean variance extracted from the items loading on a construct, including measurement error. The formula is presented in Figure 6.8.

Figure 6.8: Average variance extracted

$$V\eta = \frac{\Sigma\lambda yi^2}{\Sigma\lambda yi^2 + \Sigma\varepsilon i}$$

Specification:

$\Sigma\lambda yi^2$ = summation of the squared factor loadings;

$\Sigma\varepsilon i$ = summation of error variances.

Source: Hair et al. (2010, p. 709)

On a scale of 0 to 1, an AVE estimate greater than 0.5 confirms an acceptable degree of convergent validity. Although 0.5 is the recommended cut-off point, an AVE of 0.4 is acceptable provided that the reliability of the construct is above 0.6 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

b) Discriminant validity: Fornell-Larcker and the HTMT

Discriminant validity relies on the unidimensional quality of constructs, which emphasises how distinct the construct is from other constructs. This was assessed in two ways: applying the Fornell-Larcker criterion and heterotrait-monotrait (HTMT) ratio of correlations (Chin, 1998; Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Henseler et al., 2015). The Fornell-Larcker criterion assesses discriminant validity by comparing a construct's square-root of AVE with its correlations with other constructs (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Henseler et al., 2015). Discriminant validity is verified if the square root of the AVE is greater than the construct's correlations with other constructs. This indicates that the construct explains the variance in its own items than it does the variance in the items of other constructs. Secondly, the HTMT ratio of correlations assesses discriminant validity with more sensitivity and specificity (Henseler et al., 2015).

c) Nomological validity

Nomological validity is a general test of construct validity that examines whether the constructs fit lawfully in a nomological network (Cronbach and Meehl, 1955, p. 283; Hair et al., 2010, p. 712). A nomological network consists of the theoretical frameworks that define the constructs, the empirical frameworks used to measure them and the specifications of the linkages between

the two frameworks (Malo, 2016; Netemeyer et al., 2003). Essentially, it assess whether constructs behave as they should in relation to each other in the model (Malo, 2016). The theoretical underpinnings of all the constructs in this study were described in the literature review chapters (Chapters 3 and 4) and empirical propositions of the inter-construct relationships were described in Chapter 5, which dealt with the development of hypotheses and conceptual model. Although Hair et al. (2010) prescribe that an inter-construct correlation matrix can determine whether correlations among the constructs actually make sense, empirical nomological validity is more appropriate for frameworks that measure cause-and-effect (Marnburg and Luo, 2014) and is optional for research that uses formative PLS models (Andreev et al., 2009; Hair et al., 2019).

This research used reflective rather than formative PLS constructs and validity was tested discriminately (Fornell-Larcker and HTMT criteria) and for convergence (factor loadings and AVE), as advised by Hair et al. (2019). Furthermore, the research was designed as a cross-sectional study rather than an experimental one, therefore, the empirical results reflect the relationships among the constructs rather than cause-and-effect (Bryman and Bell, 2015). For these reasons, empirical nomological validity was not computed for this study. However, in keeping with the scientific approach underpinned by the positivist paradigm, the literature reviews and hypotheses developments helped to describe theoretically and posit empirical relationships between the construct. Furthermore, estimated validity indicators were useful at both describing sufficient inter-construct relations and excluding constructs that returned unsatisfactory results during the measurement model assessment phase of data analysis.

6.7.3.4. Model-fit tests – SRMR, NFI and Chi^2

Model fit tests assess how well the data fits the implicit model. Different model fit indicators describe model fit based on different perspectives (Kline, 2011). Although there are many tests for model fit for SEM, different statistical software packages prioritise some over others. As a result, this research refers to only those used by SmartPLS3®. The following model fit criteria were used: Standardised root mean square residual (SRMR), normed fit index (NFI) and chi-square (Chi^2).

SRMR is an absolute measure of model fit that compares the observed correlation and the predicted correlation (Kline, 2011, p. 208). On a scale from 0 to 1, SRMR values less than or equal to 0.08 indicate better model fit. NFI, also known as the Bentler-Bonette NFI, is an

incremental fit index that compares the chi-square values of the observed and predicted models and represents it as a proportion of the chi-square value of the predicted model (Schumacker and Lomax, 2004). Measured on a scale from 0 to 1, estimates closer to 1 and greater than 0.9 indicate better model fit. Chi^2, also denoted by the symbols χ^2/df, determines the extent to which the observed model is deliberate rather than due to chance and fits the postulated model (Hair, Hollingsworth, et al., 2017; Krommenhoek and Galpin, 2013). Chi^2 values less than 3 are considered acceptable to verify model fit.

This concludes the measurement model assessment procedures. Table 6.10 summarises all the measurement model assessment criteria and their thresholds.

Table 6.10: Summary of measurement model assessment criteria

	Tests	Cut-off	Source
Reliability	Cronbach's alpha (α)	α > 0.5 or 0.7	Spitzer et al. (1978)
	CR	CR > 0.5 or 0.7	Hair et al. (2010)
Convergent validity	Factor loadings	Loading > 0.5	Hair et al. (2010)
	AVE	AVE > 0.4 or 0.5	Fornell and Larcker (1981); Henseler et al. (2015)
Discriminant validity	Fornell-Larcker	√AVE > correlations	Ab Hamid et al. (2017); Fornell and Larcker (1981);
	HTMT	HTMT < 1	Ab Hamid et al. (2017); Henseler et al. (2015)
Model fit	SRMR	SRMR < 0.08 or 0.05	Kline (2011)
	NFI	NFI > 0.9	Schumacker and Lomax (2004)
	Chi^2 (χ^2/df)	(χ^2/df) > 3	Hair et al. (2017)

CR=composite reliability; AVE=average variance extracted; HTMT=heterotrait-monotrait ration of correlations; SRMR=standardised root mean square residual; *χ2/df=chi square/degrees of freedom.*

6.7.4. SEM – Structural model assessment

After the measurement model was verified against a series of criteria, the next phase of SEM was to test the structural model. The structural model depicts the conceptual representation of structural relationships between latent variables, usually presented in the form of a path diagram (Hair et al., 2010, p. 727). It is the same as the conceptual model developed in Chapter 5, indicating the hypothesised relationships that need to be empirically tested to provide an

estimates of the structural relationships. Structural model assessment can be divided into three stages: path analysis, hypothesis testing and model fit.

6.7.4.1. Path analysis

Path analysis comprises of running an analysis procedure to calculate the estimates on a path drawn between variables (Henseler et al., 2015; Kline, 2011). The path estimates or coefficients quantify each of the hypothesised relationships, including indicating the direction (negative or positive) and strength of each. On a scale of -1 to 1, stronger relationships are estimated by absolute path coefficients closer to 1 and weaker relationships closer to 0.

6.7.4.2. Hypothesis testing

During hypothesis testing, hypotheses are either confirmed or refuted based on the significance of the relationships (Krommenhoek and Galpin, 2013; Nusair and Hua, 2010). Significance establishes the probability that the path estimate is due to chance and denoted by a probability value (p-value) or a test statistic (t-value). This also implies the level of confidence in the results obtained. Although the p-value and t-statistic operate on different scales, either of them can be used to conclude whether results are due to chance and therefore not acceptable, or have an underlying logic and therefore acceptable. The scales and acceptable levels are provided in the Table 6.11.

Table 6.11: Statistical significance tests criteria

Significance tests	**p-values**	**t-statistics**
Scales	0 to 1	$-\infty$ to ∞
Confidence intervals	**Acceptable levels**	
99%	$p \leq 0.001$	$\|t\| \geq 2.57$
95%	$p \leq 0.05$	$\|t\| \geq 1.96$
90%	$p \leq 0.01$	$\|t\| \geq 1.65$

Source: Adapted from: Krommenhoek and Galpin (2013)

As shown in Table 6.11, p-values measure statistical significance on a scale from 0 to 1 and values closer to 0 indicate more significance and higher confidence in the result. T-statistics measure statistical significance on a scale from negative to positive infinity and absolute values greater than 1.65 indicate more significance and higher confidence in the result. This research, therefore, failed to reject hypotheses whose significance values fall within the acceptable levels and reject those that did not conform to the acceptable levels.

6.7.4.3. Model fit

The same principles of model fit applied during the measurement model assessment phase apply during the structural model assessment phase.

Table 6.12: Summary of research process followed

Research Layers	Application of research process
Research philosophy	Positivism
Axiology: researcher values and ethics	The researcher favoured objectivity, minimal interference with the research subjects, ethical, legal and practical value considerations. A University ethical clearance to conduct research was obtained.
Ontology: view of the nature of reality	The researcher was external, objective and independent of the loyalty phenomenon, salon managers, hairstylists and their clients. Self-administered questionnaires were used.
Epistemology: acceptable knowledge	The researcher observed clients' perceptions as structured constructs measured on Likert scales and adapted from tested scales. The focus was on the relationships between the constructs using hypotheses as generalisations.
Research approach	The study followed a deductive approach by testing hypotheses postulated from literature (see Chapter 5) and deduced new learning from results (see Chapters 7 and 8).
Research strategy	A survey conducted on a non-probabilistic convenient sample and usable data was collected from 562 hairstylists' clients in Johannesburg;
Research choice	Mono-method quantitative
Time-horizon	Cross-sectional: each respondent had one opportunity to participate.
Techniques and procedures	Data was collected on self-administered questionnaires. Data was analysed using descriptive statistics and inferential statistics via SEM in SmartPLS3® to test the hypotheses (see Chapters 6 and 7).

6.8. Conclusion

This chapter described the philosophical and practical processes followed by the study using

Saunders et al.'s (2012) research onion format. It provided descriptions of the methods considered for the study to collect and analyse data and referred extensively to literature for justifications of the methods. It was found that the positivism philosophy and deductive approach were most suitable for addressing the empirical objectives of the research. Furthermore, applying cluster and convenience sampling techniques enabled the research to determine a representative sample in the most practical approach, especially since a sample frame was not available. Since data was collected on questionnaires that measured participants' responses on five-point Likert scales, PLS-SEM was useful for analysing the data and determining the relationships between the constructs under study. While Table 6.12 summarised the key components of this chapter, the next chapter focuses on the presentation and interpretation of the results.

CHAPTER 7: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

7.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the data analyses from procedures described in the previous chapter. After data was collected, it was screened and analysed to provide useful information about the study. The chapter begins with the descriptive statistics that summarise sample data by way of a respondent profile and distributions of responses from the sample. The descriptive statistics also provide the characteristics of the constructs by way of frequencies of participants' responses, means and standard deviation. This is followed by inferential statistics that have results of the hypotheses tested using PLS-SEM path analysis.

7.2. Descriptive Statistics

7.2.1. Respondent profile

The respondent profile is summarised in Table 7.1. The profile was compiled from biographical information provided by participants in Section B of the questionnaire. Participation was restricted to respondents who indicated that they had committed to the same hairstylist for the ten months.

Although the target sample size was 600, only 562 questionnaires were usable after screening. Table 7.1 shows that the majority of respondents were aged between 31 and 45 years, and constituted 75% of the sample. This shows that most of the respondents are adults, of working age, can afford haircare services and capable of making independent decisions. It was therefore not surprising that up to 89% of the respondents earn between ZAR 14000 to more than ZAR 35000 per month. Regarding the gender distribution, 53% identified as female, 45% as male and 2% preferred not to say. This shows that a good percentage of males use haircare services. In terms of ethnicity, 42% identified as black and 58% were distributed among coloured (23%), Indian (16%) and white (20%) respondents. It was good to have all the South African races represented in the study and all the races consume haircare services.

Table 7.1: Respondent profile

	Frequency	%		Frequency	%
Age group (years)			**Monthly income (ZAR)**		
25 - 30	89	16	1 - 7000	35	6
31 - 35	130	23	7001 - 14000	27	5
36 - 40	153	27	14001 - 28000	39	7
41 - 45	140	25	28001 - 35000	182	32
over 45	50	9	More than 35000	279	50
	562	**100**		**562**	**100**
Gender category					
			Average monthly spending on haircare (ZAR)		
Female	299	53			
Male	251	45	Less than 1000	217	39
Prefer not to say	12	2	1001 - 2000	123	22
	562	**100**	2001 - 3000	124	22
Ethnic group			3001 - 4000	98	17
Black	235	42		**562**	**100**
Coloured	129	23			
Indian	88	16	**Frequency of visits**		
White	110	20	More than once a week	6	1
	562	**100**	Once a month	379	68
Visit a professional hairstylist			2 - 3 times a month	142	25
Yes	248	44	Other	35	6
No	299	53		**562**	**100**
Not sure	15	3			
	562	**100**			

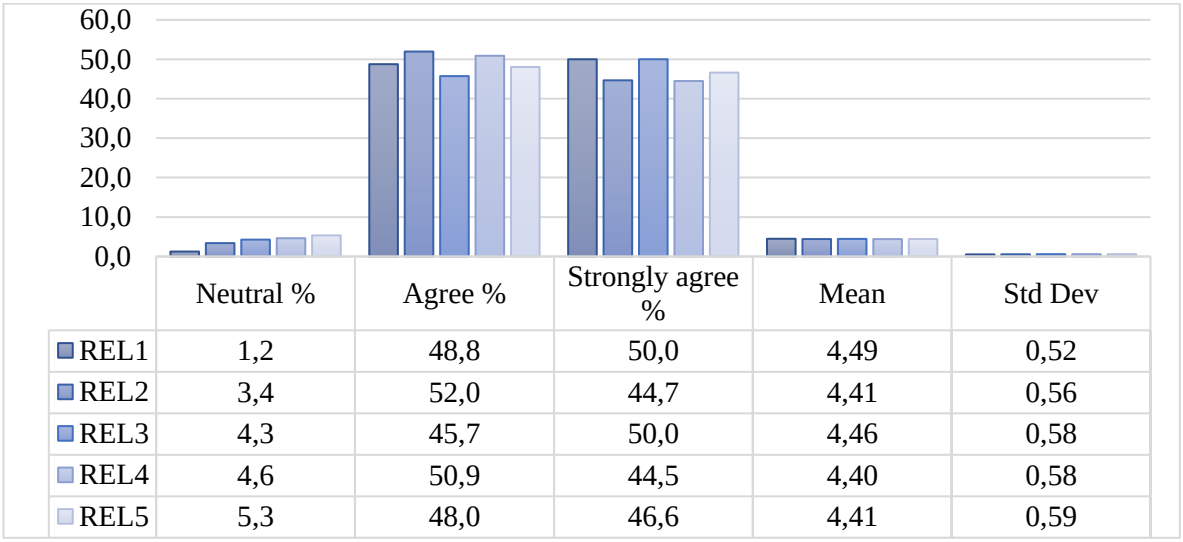
More than half (53%) of the respondents indicated that their hairstylists did not have professional qualifications in haircare while 44% indicated that they did and 3% were not sure. Therefore, the majority of hairstylists are not bound to codes of professional conduct which prescribe how hairstylists should perform functionally, socially and as health and beauty consultants when advising clients. Approximately two-thirds of respondents visit their hairstylists once a month and 25% visit two to three times a month. Furthermore, the results in Table 7.1 show that 61% of the respondents spend up to ZAR 1000 to 4000 on average each month on haircare. With this remarkable level of expenditure and the fact that up to 68% of the respondents visit the hairstylists at least ones a month, the haircare service business can be a profitable one.

7.2.2. Response distributions per construct

Respondents' agreements to statements about the constructs were measured on five-point Likert scales responses. Distributions of item responses, means and standard deviations are graphically presented for each construct.

7.2.2.1. Reliability construct

Figure 7.1: Reliability response distribution and the mean



	Neutral %	Agree %	Strongly agree %	Mean	Std Dev
REL1	1,2	48,8	50,0	4,49	0,52
REL2	3,4	52,0	44,7	4,41	0,56
REL3	4,3	45,7	50,0	4,46	0,58
REL4	4,6	50,9	44,5	4,40	0,58
REL5	5,3	48,0	46,6	4,41	0,59

Overall mean=4.43; Likert scale: 1=strongly disagree; 2=agree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree

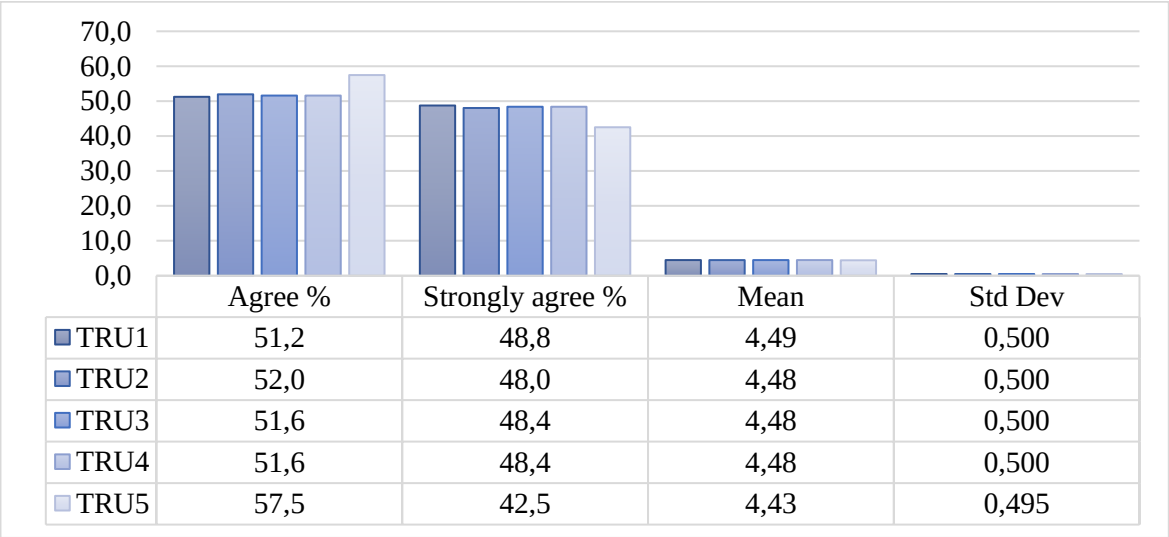
The reliability construct measured respondents' views of their hairstylist as dependable to deliver services as promised. Figure 7.1 shows that, on average, responses were between 4 (agree) and 5 (strongly agree), as indicated by the mean values from 4.41 to 4.49, and standard deviation less than 1. The majority of respondents tended to either agree or strongly agree, as shown by more than 45% of participants agreeing and more than 44% strongly agreeing with each statement. Although between 1.2% and 5.3% of responses about hairstylist reliability were neutral for all items, the overall impression of respondents reflects their agreement to hairstylists' reliability.

7.2.2.2. Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness measured participants' views of their hairstylists as empathetic and benevolent. Figure 7.2 shows that all the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed with the statements, as indicated by mean values from 4.43 to 4.49 and a standard deviation of 0.5. More than 51% of responses consistently agreed about the trustworthiness of participants'

hairstylists, while more than 42% strongly agreed. These results reflect respondents' positive perceptions of their hairstylists as being empathetic and benevolent toward their clients.

Figure 7.2: Trustworthiness response distribution and mean

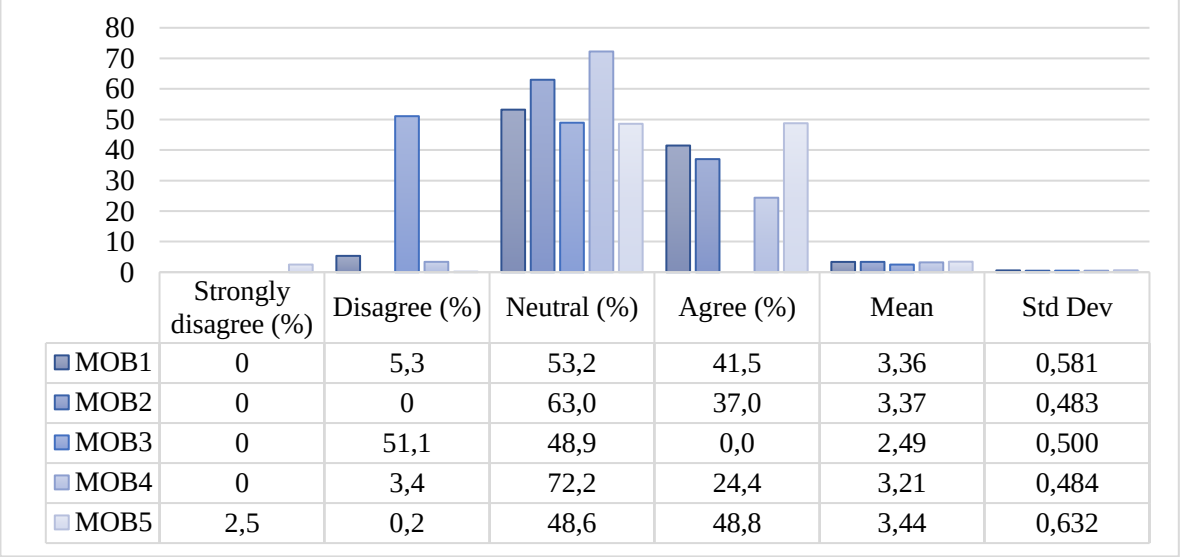


	Agree %	Strongly agree %	Mean	Std Dev
TRU1	51,2	48,8	4,49	0,500
TRU2	52,0	48,0	4,48	0,500
TRU3	51,6	48,4	4,48	0,500
TRU4	51,6	48,4	4,48	0,500
TRU5	57,5	42,5	4,43	0,495

Overall mean=4.47; Likert scale: 1=strongly disagree; 2=agree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree

7.2.2.3. Hairstylist's mobility

Figure 7.3: Mobility response distribution and mean



	Strongly disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Mean	Std Dev
MOB1	0	5,3	53,2	41,5	3,36	0,581
MOB2	0	0	63,0	37,0	3,37	0,483
MOB3	0	51,1	48,9	0,0	2,49	0,500
MOB4	0	3,4	72,2	24,4	3,21	0,484
MOB5	2,5	0,2	48,6	48,8	3,44	0,632

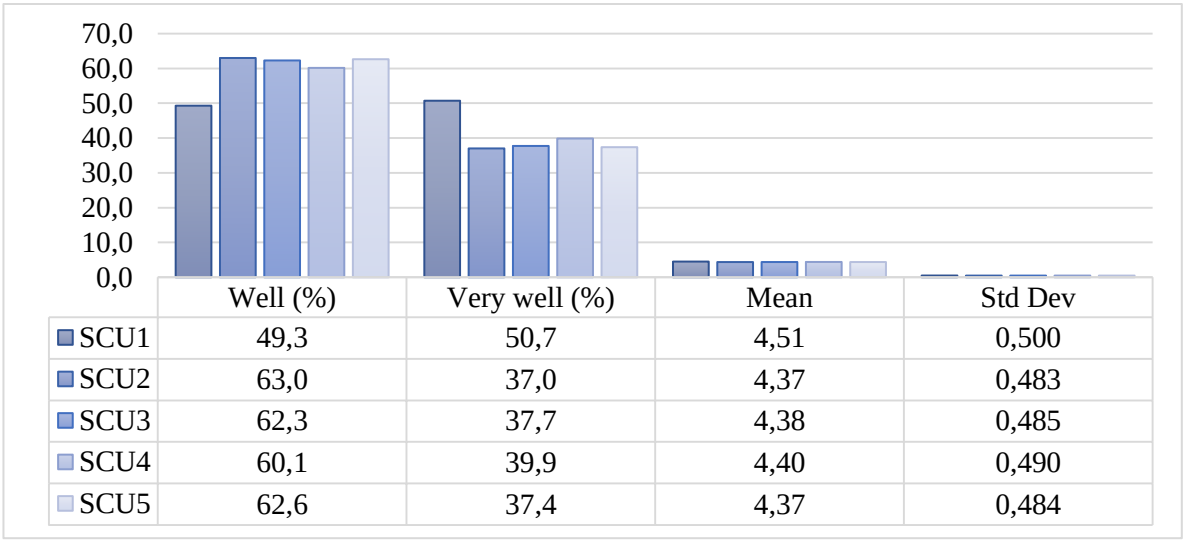
Overall mean=3.15; Likert scale: 1=strongly disagree; 2=agree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree

Figure 7.3 shows the distribution of responses for hairstylist's mobility as their ability to serve clients in locations other than the salon. The majority of responses were neutral, indicated by mean values between 2.49 and 3.36. In particular, 72.2% were neutral about their hairstylists

making time for them without an appointment (MOB4). This is compared to 51% who disagreed that their hairstylists were willing to serve their clients at their homes (MOB3). Although the majority felt neutral about hairstylist mobility, those who agreed ranged from 24% to 48% for certain items.

7.2.2.4. Service customisation

Figure 7.4: Service customisation responses distribution and mean



	Well (%)	Very well (%)	Mean	Std Dev
SCU1	49,3	50,7	4,51	0,500
SCU2	63,0	37,0	4,37	0,483
SCU3	62,3	37,7	4,38	0,485
SCU4	60,1	39,9	4,40	0,490
SCU5	62,6	37,4	4,37	0,484

Overall mean=4.41; Likert scale: 1= very poorly, 2 = poorly, 3 =average, 4 = well, 5 = very well

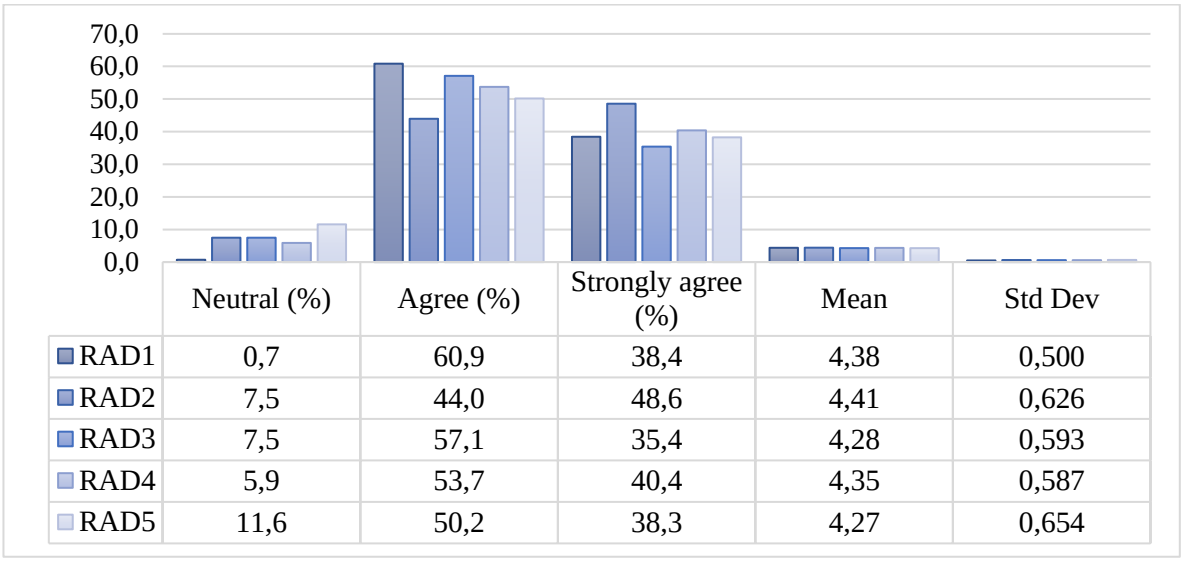
Figure 7.4 shows that participants generally agreed about their hairstylists' abilities to tailor hairstyles to suit them. Figure 7.4 also shows that at least 60% of respondents felt that their hairstylists customise services well for four items, while at least 37% felt that they did very well. Mean response values ranged from 4.37 to 4.51, with standard deviations less than 0.5 for most responses. The mean figures reflect a strong agreement to hairstylists' service customisation for their clients.

7.2.2.5. Relative advantage

Figure 7.5 shows that the majority of respondents agreed that their hairstylists had a competitive advantage over other hairstylists. Mean values for responses about relative advantage ranged from 4.27 to 4.41 with less than 1 degree of deviation from the mean. For each item, at least 44% agreed and 35% strongly agreed. Although the responses are centred between agreement and strong agreement, 11.6% indicate that respondents were neutral about their hairstylists being more creative at inventing new hairstyles compared to other hairstylists (RAD5). Despite this, respondents generally are in agreement with their hairstylists' relative

advantages.

Figure 7.5: Relative advantage response distribution and mean

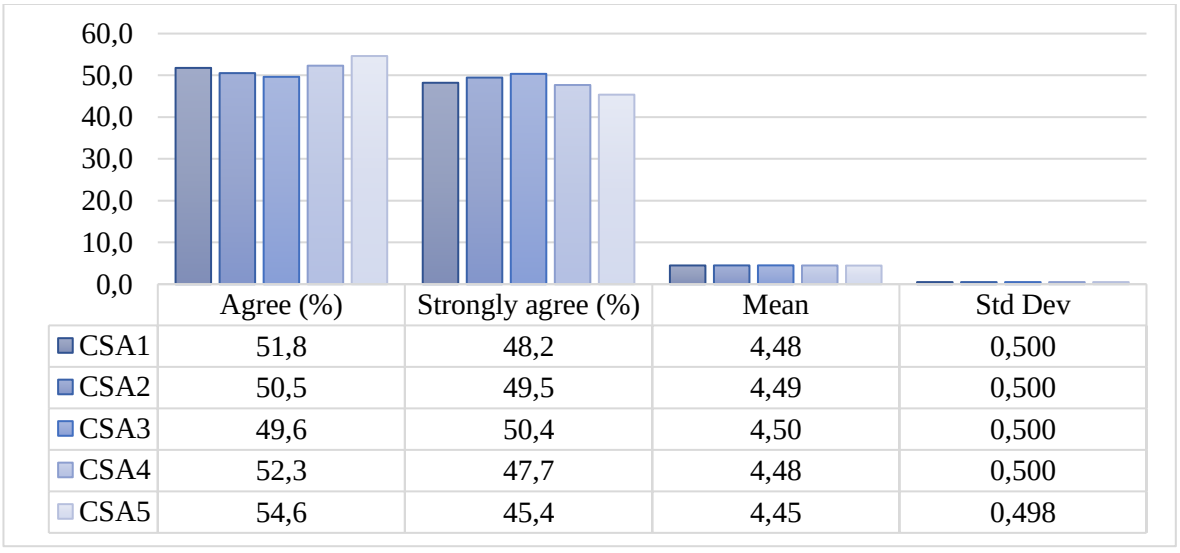


	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Mean	Std Dev
RAD1	0,7	60,9	38,4	4,38	0,500
RAD2	7,5	44,0	48,6	4,41	0,626
RAD3	7,5	57,1	35,4	4,28	0,593
RAD4	5,9	53,7	40,4	4,35	0,587
RAD5	11,6	50,2	38,3	4,27	0,654

Overall mean=4.34; Likert scale: 1=strongly disagree; 2=agree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree

7.2.2.6. Client satisfaction

Figure 7.6: Client satisfaction response distribution and mean



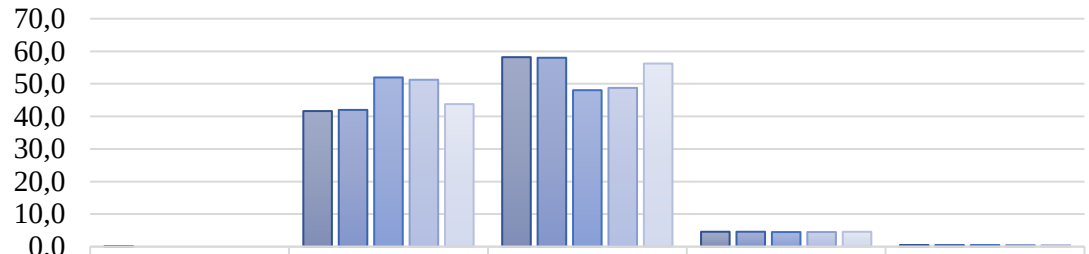
	Agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Mean	Std Dev
CSA1	51,8	48,2	4,48	0,500
CSA2	50,5	49,5	4,49	0,500
CSA3	49,6	50,4	4,50	0,500
CSA4	52,3	47,7	4,48	0,500
CSA5	54,6	45,4	4,45	0,498

Overall mean=4.48; Likert scale: 1=strongly disagree; 2=agree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree

As shown in Figure 7.6, respondents either agreed or strongly agreed that they were overall pleased with their hairstylists. Responses centred between agreement and strong agreement, as indicated by mean values ranging from 4.45 to 4.50 and less than 1 degree of standard deviation from the mean. In fact, the mean figures show that each respondent is satisfied with their hairstylist.

7.2.2.7. Commercial friendship

Figure 7.7: Commercial friendship response distribution and mean



	Disagree (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Mean	Std Dev
CFR1	0,2	41,6	58,2	4,58	0,505
CFR2	0	42,0	58,0	4,58	0,494
CFR3	0	52,0	48,0	4,48	0,500
CFR4	0	51,2	48,8	4,49	0,500
CFR5	0	43,8	56,2	4,56	0,497

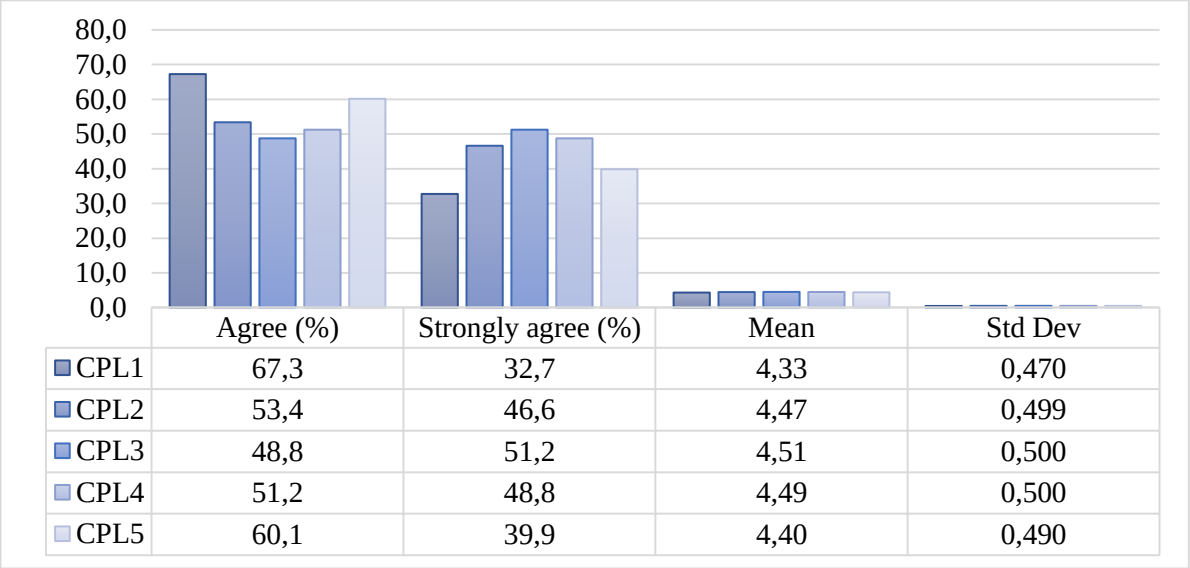
Overall mean=4.54; Likert scale: 1=strongly disagree; 2=agree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree

The response distribution for commercial friendship in Figure 7.7 shows that responses centred between agreement and strong agreement about interpersonal relationships between participants and their hairstylists. More respondents strongly agreed than agreed, as shown by higher percentages for “strongly agree” responses. The results also reveal higher mean values closer to 5 and standard deviations less than 0.6. This strongly suggests that respondents have interpersonal interactions with their hairstylists.

7.2.2.8. Personal loyalty dimensions

Figure 7.8 shows the response distribution for cognitive personal loyalty. The majority of responses are centred between "agree" and "strongly agree" options, as mean values range from 4.33 to 4.51 and a standard deviation of 0.5 and less. More respondents tended to agree about their beliefs of devotion to one hairstylist. This is indicated by higher percentages of "agree" responses which range from 48.8% to 67.3% for the items. More than half of the respondents strongly agreed that they identify more with their hairstylist than other hairstylists (CPL3). Overall, the results show that respondents believe in loyalty to one hairstylist.

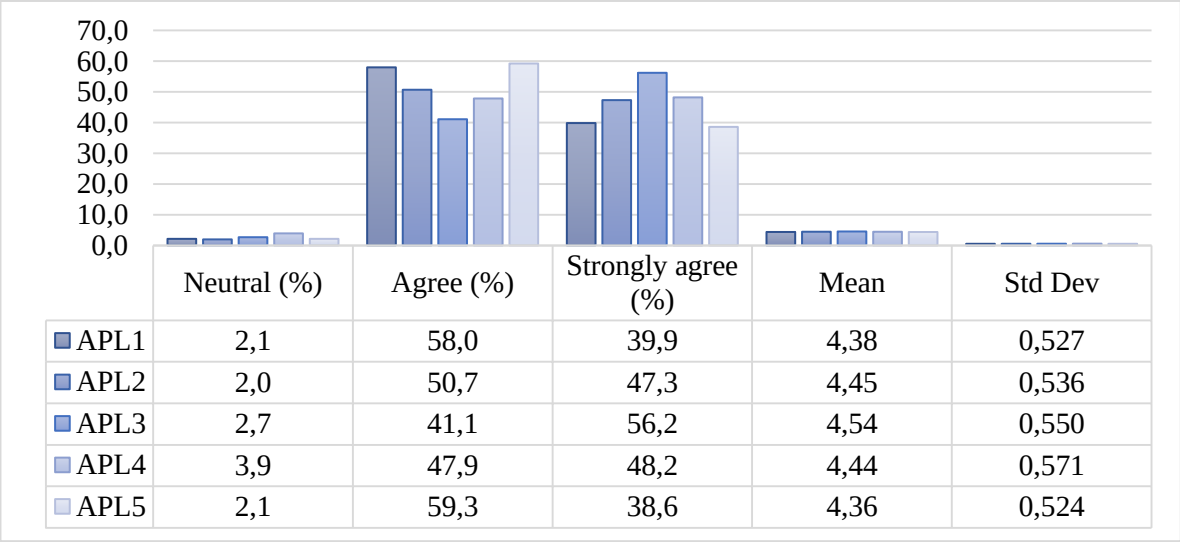
Figure 7.8: Cognitive personal loyalty response distribution and mean



	Agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Mean	Std Dev
CPL1	67,3	32,7	4,33	0,470
CPL2	53,4	46,6	4,47	0,499
CPL3	48,8	51,2	4,51	0,500
CPL4	51,2	48,8	4,49	0,500
CPL5	60,1	39,9	4,40	0,490

Overall mean=4.44; Likert scale: 1=strongly disagree; 2=agree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree

Figure 7.9: Affective personal loyalty response distribution and mean

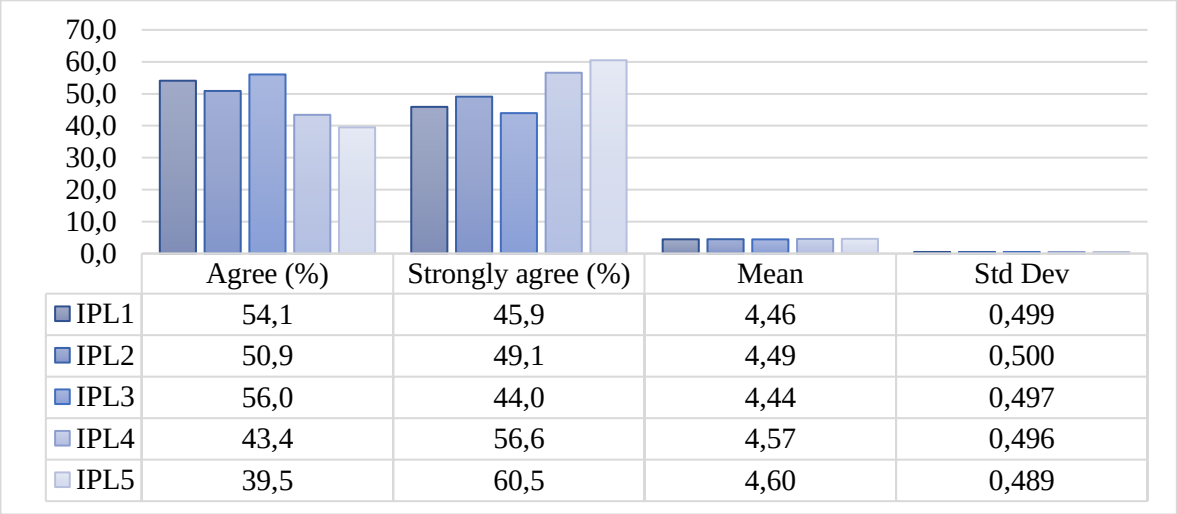


	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Mean	Std Dev
APL1	2,1	58,0	39,9	4,38	0,527
APL2	2,0	50,7	47,3	4,45	0,536
APL3	2,7	41,1	56,2	4,54	0,550
APL4	3,9	47,9	48,2	4,44	0,571
APL5	2,1	59,3	38,6	4,36	0,524

Overall mean=4.43; Likert scale: 1=strongly disagree; 2=agree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree

The distribution of responses regarding affective personal loyalty in Figure 7.9 centre between “agree” and “strongly agree”, shown by mean values from 4.36 to 4.45 and standard deviation values less than 0.6. The results show that at least 2% of each item response was neutral, compared to at least 38% of each item response that showed agreement or strong agreement. Overall, "agree" responses had higher percentages of item responses, ranging from 41.15 to 59.3%, compared to “strongly agree” responses, which range from 38.3% to 56.2%. This reflects that respondents feel loyalty to one hairstylist.

Figure 7.10: Intention personal loyalty response distribution and mean



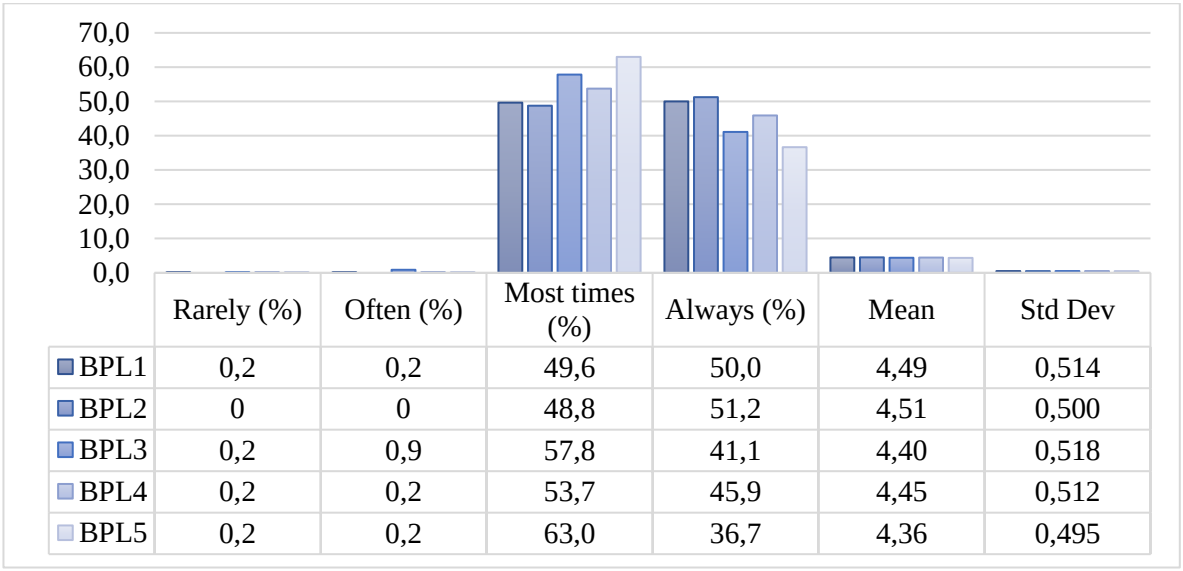
	Agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Mean	Std Dev
IPL1	54,1	45,9	4,46	0,499
IPL2	50,9	49,1	4,49	0,500
IPL3	56,0	44,0	4,44	0,497
IPL4	43,4	56,6	4,57	0,496
IPL5	39,5	60,5	4,60	0,489

Overall mean=4.5; Likert scale: 1=strongly disagree; 2=agree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree

Figure 7.10 shows the distribution of responses for intention loyalty. All respondents either agreed or strongly agreed about their conviction to commit to one hairstylist. Mean values from 4.44 to 4.60 and standard deviation values less than 0.6 indicate that responses centre between "agree" and "strongly agree". The highest percentage of responses indicates that 60.5 % of respondents strongly agreed that they would like to continue interactions with their current hairstylist (IPL5), followed by 56.6% who also strongly agreed that changing their current hairstylist in the future was not an option to consider (IPL5).

The distribution of responses for behavioural personal loyalty in Figure 7.11 shows that the majority of respondents either agreed or strongly agreed about how often they demonstrate personal loyalty to one hairstylist. Higher percentages for "most times" responses ranging from 48.8% to 63% for each item suggest that a larger proportion of the sample actively commit to one hairstylist, followed by 41.15 to 51.2% who always actively commit to one hairstylist. At most, 0.2% of each item response indicates that participants rarely demonstrated commitment behaviour to one hairstylist, and at most, 0.9% indicate that participants often demonstrate such behaviour. Despite this, the overall responses reflect that participants tend to commit to one hairstylist.

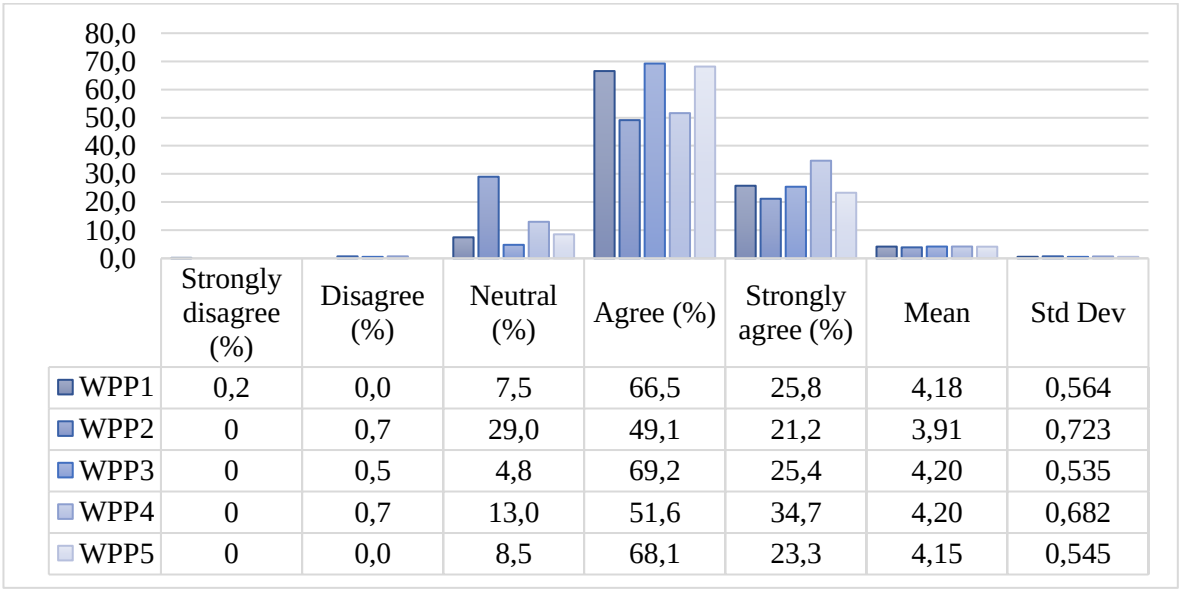
Figure 7.11: Behavioural personal loyalty response distribution and mean



	Rarely (%)	Often (%)	Most times (%)	Always (%)	Mean	Std Dev
BPL1	0,2	0,2	49,6	50,0	4,49	0,514
BPL2	0	0	48,8	51,2	4,51	0,500
BPL3	0,2	0,9	57,8	41,1	4,40	0,518
BPL4	0,2	0,2	53,7	45,9	4,45	0,512
BPL5	0,2	0,2	63,0	36,7	4,36	0,495

Overall mean=4.44; Likert scale: 1= never, 2 = rarely, 3 =often, 4 = most times, 5 = always.
BPL2 was negatively phrased and reversed.

Figure 7.12: Willingness to pay premium price response distribution



	Strongly disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Mean	Std Dev
WPP1	0,2	0,0	7,5	66,5	25,8	4,18	0,564
WPP2	0	0,7	29,0	49,1	21,2	3,91	0,723
WPP3	0	0,5	4,8	69,2	25,4	4,20	0,535
WPP4	0	0,7	13,0	51,6	34,7	4,20	0,682
WPP5	0	0,0	8,5	68,1	23,3	4,15	0,545

Overall mean=4.13; Likert scale: 1=strongly disagree; 2=agree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree.
WPP4 and WPP5 were negatively phrased and reversed.

Figure 7.12 shows the distribution of responses for willingness to pay a premium price to a hairstylist, in light of alternatives. Mean values from 4.15 to 4.2 and standard deviations below 0.7 indicate that most responses centre between "agree" and "strongly agree". The exception is for item WPP2, whose mean value of 3.91 and a standard deviation of 0.723 indicates that responses centre between “neutral” and “agree”. The results suggest that 29% of participants felt neutral about their willingness to pay a higher price for their hairstylist to do their hair,

compared to other hairstylists. Neutral responses for each item range from 4.8% to 29%, while "agree" and "strongly agree" responses range from 49.1% to 68.1% and 21.2% and 34.7% respectively. On average, the majority of participants tended to agree about tier inclination to pay more for one hairstylist.

Overall, the response distributions and the means of the constructs show that participants have strong agreeable perceptions of their hairstylists' service quality (in terms of reliability, trustworthiness) and the customer value (in terms of service customisation and relative advantage). The clients also strongly agreed to have developed commercial friendships, cognitive, affective, intention and behavioural personal loyalty to their hairstylists with all of the mean values being greater than 4. Views about the hairstylists' mobility, however, tend to be neutral with most of the means being between 2.5 and 3.5. Still on mobility, more than 50% disagreed with item MOB3, which measured whether hairstylists were willing to attend to their client at the client's at home and 2.5% strongly disagreed with item MOB5, which measured whether hairstylists would attend to their clients in a different location other than the salon. Although participants' views of their willingness to pay premium prices tend to be agreeable, each item indicates neutral views ranging from 4.8% to 29%. Although response distributions give an indication of clients' perceptions, SEM tests the hypothesised relationships between the constructs. To achieve this, the next section is dedicated to reporting the results of the inferential statistics obtained from the PLS-SEM analyses.

7.3. Inferential Statistics from PLS-SEM Analyses

Inferential statistics comprised of results from PLS-SEM analyses using SmartPLS3®. The hypotheses tested are restated in Table 7.2.

7.3.1. Measurement model assessment

SEM was initiated by the measurement model assessment phase to verify the suitability of the model. This was done by determining the reliability and validity of the latent variables. The measurement model assessment phase resulted in the deletion of items that did not meet the recommended criteria for reliability and validity, as well as to improve model fit simultaneously. Table 7.3 has a recap of the criteria for measurement model assessment and the CFA model is illustrated in Figure 7.13.

Table 7.2: Recap of hypotheses

Hypothesis	Relationship	Hypothesis	Relationship
H1	REL → CSA	H8	CFR → APL
H2	TRU → CSA	H9	CFR → IPL
H3	MOB → CSA	H10	CFR → BPL
H4	SCU → CSA	H11	CPL → WPP
H5	RAD → CSA	H12	APL → WPP
H6	CSA → CFR	H13	IPL → WPP
H7	CFR → CPL	H14	BPL → WPP

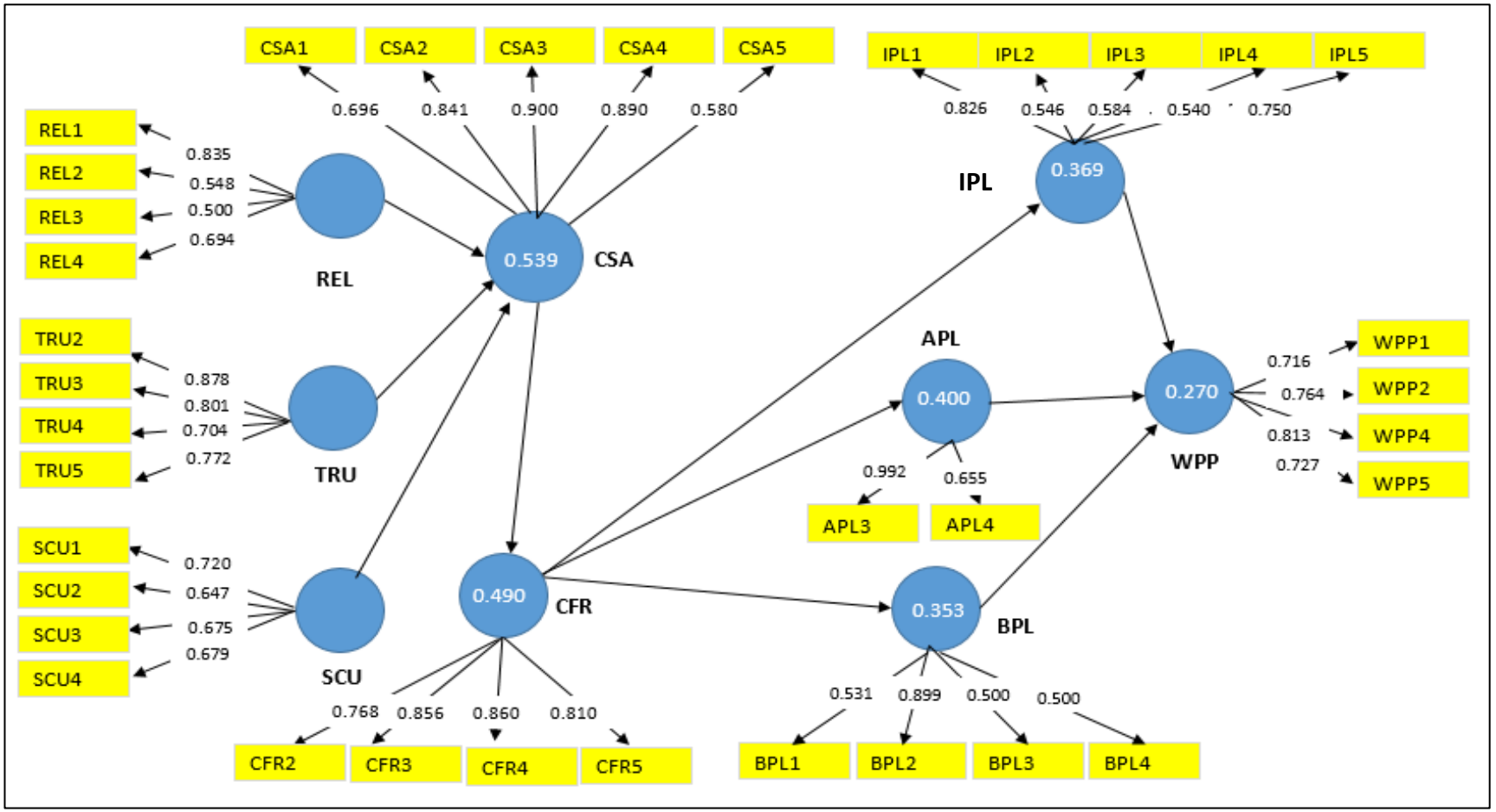
REL=reliability; TRU=trustworthiness; MOB=mobility; SCU=service customisation; RAD=relative advantage; CSA=client satisfaction; CFR=commercial friendship; CPL=cognitive personal loyalty; APL=affective personal loyalty; IPL=intention personal loyalty; BPL=behavioural personal loyalty; WPP=willingness to pay premium price

Table 7.3: Recap of measurement model assessment criteria

	Tests	Cut-off	Source
Reliability	Cronbach's alpha (α)	α > 0.5 or 0.7	Spitzer et al. (1978)
	CR	CR > 0.5 or 0.7	Hair et al. (2010)
Convergent validity	Factor loadings	Loading > 0.5	Hair et al. (2010)
	AVE	AVE > 0.4 or 0.5	Fornell and Larcker (1981); Henseler et al. (2015)
Discriminant validity	Fornell-Larcker	√AVE > correlations	Ab Hamid et al. (2017); Fornell and Larcker (1981)
	HTMT	HTMT < 1	Ab Hamid et al. (2017); Henseler et al. (2015)
Model fit	SRMR	SRMR < 0.08 or 0.05	Kline (2011)
	NFI	NFI > 0.9	Schumacker and Lomax (2004)
	Chi^2 (χ^2/df)	(χ^2/df) < 3	Hair et al. (2017)

CR=composite reliability; AVE=average variance extracted; HTMT=heterotrait-monotrait ration of correlations; SRMR=standardised root mean square residual; χ^2/df*=chi square/degrees of freedom.*

Figure 7.13: CFA model with R^2 values



REL=reliability; TRU=trustworthiness; MOB=mobility; SCU=service customisation; RAD=relative advantage; CSA=client satisfaction; CFR=commercial friendship; CPL=cognitive personal loyalty; APL=affective personal loyalty; IPL=intention personal loyalty; BPL=behavioural personal loyalty; WPP=willingness to pay premium price

7.3.1.1. *Reliability and convergent validity*

Table 7.4: Reliability and convergent validity results

Variables		Factor loadings	α	CR	AVE
REL	REL1	0.835	0.717	0.737	0.424
	REL2	0.548			
	REL3	0.500			
	REL4	0.694			
TRU	TRU2	0.878	0.802	0.869	0.626
	TRU3	0.801			
	TRU4	0.704			
	TRU5	0.772			
SCU	SCU1	0.720	0.717	0.775	0.463
	SCU2	0.647			
	SCU3	0.675			
	SCU4	0.679			
CSA	CSA1	0.696	0.853	0.891	0.626
	CSA2	0.841			
	CSA3	0.900			
	CSA4	0.890			
	CSA5	0.580			
CFR	CFR2	0.768	0.845	0.894	0.679
	CFR3	0.856			
	CFR4	0.860			
	CFR5	0.810			
IPL	IPL1	0.826	0.776	0.835	0.513
	IPL2	0.546			
	IPL3	0.854			
	IPL4	0.540			
	IPL5	0.750			
APL	APL3	0.992	0.713	0.822	0.706
	APL4	0.655			
BPL	BPL1	0.531	0.734	0.700	0.4
	*BPL2	0.899			
	BPL3	0.500			
	BPL4	0.500			
WPP	WPP1	0.716	0.765	0.842	0.571
	WPP2	0.764			
	*WPP4	0.813			
	*WPP5	0.727			

*Item was negatively phrased and reversed.
Deleted variables: REL5, TRU1, MOB1, MOB2, MOB3, MOB4, MOB5, SCU5, RAD1, RAD2, RAD3, RAD4, RAD5, CFR1, CPL1, CPL2, CPL3, CPL4, CPL5, APL1, APL2, APL5, BPL5 and WPP3.

Reliability was measured using Cronbach's alpha (α) and composite reliability and convergent validity measured using AVE and factor loadings. Items that did not satisfy the criteria for reliability and validity were excluded from the final results. Table 7.4 presents the results for reliability and convergent validity. The results pertain to retained variables with factor loadings greater than 0.5, Cronbach's alpha and CR values above 0.6, and AVE values above 0.4. This suggests that the retained items adequately represent their respective constructs and adequately converge with others within their constructs. Latent variables for mobility, relative advantage and cognitive personal loyalty, as well as other items, were excluded as they did not satisfy the measurement model assessment criteria.

Even though reliability, trustworthiness and service customisation constructs each lost one item, they successfully obtained high reliability scores above 0.7 and convergent validity scores above 0.4, as shown in Table 7.4. The excluded items focused on a hairstylist's ability to communicate important information with the client (REL5), to commit to attend to the client's needs (TRU1) and to use different strategies to meet the client's needs (SCU5). Client satisfaction retained all its five items and scored above 0.8 and 0.6 for reliability and convergent validity respectively. This reflects high degrees of internal and overall consistency and convergence between its items.

Client satisfaction and commercial friendship had the highest reliability scores (above 0.8), indicating good internal and overall consistency. After excluding CFR1, which measured how comfortable a client was sharing personal information with their hairstylist, commercial friendship reached a convergent validity score above 0.65. Similar to client satisfaction, intention personal loyalty was also measured consistently and internally converged with five items. Affective personal loyalty, on the other hand, scored the highest internal convergence of 0.706 with only two items (APL3 and APL4). Affective personal loyalty is consistently represented by a client's sense of belonging and happiness to commit to the hairstylists.

Behavioural personal loyalty and willingness to pay a premium price were both consistently represented by four items, scoring above 0.7 for reliability and above 0.4 for convergent validity. Unfortunately, measuring a client's behaviour to recommend their hairstylist to other people (BPL5) was not consistent with other items. For a similar reason, a client's willingness to request their hairstylist even if others charge lower prices was excluded from the measurement of willingness to pay a premium price. Overall, nine constructs provided internally consistent items necessary to measure nine out of twelve of the variables in the study.

7.3.1.2. Discriminant validity: Fornell-Larcker and the HTMT criteria

Discriminant validity was assessed using the cross-loadings, the Fornell-Larcker criterion and the HTMT ratio of correlations. Table 7.5 shows the correlation loadings between latent variables that were retained. The diagonal correlations are close to or equal to the square root of AVE of each corresponding variable. Table 7.5 figures show that the square root of AVE for each variable is greater than its correlations with other variables, thereby confirming discriminant validity. This suggests that each variable is distinct from others, and not measuring the same construct.

Table 7.6 shows the HTMT rations of correlations between latent variables. The HTMT criterion provides a more strict assessment of discriminant validity than the Fornell-Larcker criterion (Ab Hamid et al., 2017; Henseler et al., 2015). Since all of the ratios of correlations between the latent variables in Table 7.6 are less than 1 as recommended by (Ab Hamid et al., 2017, p. 4), the discriminant validity for each of the retained variables is confirmed.

Table 7.5: Fornell-Larcker criterion (√AVE > correlations)

	APL	BPL	CFR	CSA	IPL	REL	SCU	TRU	WTP	AVE	√AVE
APL	0.841									0.706	0.840
BPL	0.156	0.632								0.400	0.632
CFR	0.449	0.393	0.824							0.679	0.824
CSA	-0.004	0.375	0.302	0.791						0.626	0.791
IPL	0.225	0.141	0.413	0.002	0.716					0.513	0.716
REL	0.006	0.230	0.171	0.565	-0.089	0.651				0.424	0.651
SCU	-0.010	0.286	0.143	0.579	-0.063	0.258	0.680			0.463	0.680
TRU	0.010	0.023	0.157	0.157	-0.018	0.038	0.058	0.791		0.626	0.791
WTP	-0.037	0.202	0.040	0.086	0.106	0.026	0.009	-0.106	0.756	0.571	0.756

Table 7.6: HTMT ratios of correlations (HTMT < 1)

	APL	BPL	CFR	CSA	IPL	REL	SCU	TRU
APL								
BPL	0.183							
CFR	0.407	0.317						
CSA	0.034	0.221	0.314					
IPL	0.208	0.226	0.413	0.077				
REL	0.125	0.122	0.152	0.348	0.202			
SCU	0.167	0.206	0.139	0.421	0.137	0.338		
TRU	0.096	0.079	0.186	0.185	0.087	0.126	0.070	
WTP	0.101	0.220	0.176	0.112	0.234	0.226	0.106	0.122

7.3.2. Structural model assessment

7.3.2.1. Hypotheses testing

Structural model assessment comprised of path analysis to estimate the hypothesised relationships between the retained constructs. The hypotheses were tested against the statistical significance tests criteria restated in Table 7.7 as previously presented in Chapter 6.

Table 7.7: Statistical significance tests criteria

Significance tests	**p-values**	**t-statistics**
Scales	0 to 1	$-\infty$ to ∞
Confidence levels	**Acceptable levels**	
99.9%	$p \leq 0.001$	$\|t\| \geq 2.57$
95%	$p \leq 0.05$	$\|t\| \geq 1.96$
90%	$p \leq 0.1$	$\|t\| \geq 1.65$

Source: Adapted from Krommenhoek and Galpin (2013)

Table 7.8: Hypotheses testing path analysis results

Hypotheses		**Original sample**	**Sample mean**	**St Dev**	**t-stat**	**p-value**	**Decision**
H1	REL→CSA	0.443	0.443	0.031	14.383	0.000	Accept
H2	TRU→CSA	0.113	0.114	0.026	4.367	0.000	Accept
H4	SCU→CSA	0.458	0.458	0.032	14.162	0.000	Accept
H6	CSA→CFR	0.302	0.301	0.043	6.970	0.000	Accept
H8	CFR→APL	0.449	0.450	0.031	14.591	0.000	Accept
H9	CFR → IPL	0.413	0.418	0.036	11.383	0.000	Accept
H10	CFR→BPL	0.393	0.385	0.038	10.255	0.000	Accept
H12	APL→WPP	-0.091	-0.099	0.056	1.615	0.053	Reject
H13	IPL→WPP	0.098	0.115	0.076	1.297	0.097	Reject
H14	BPL→WPP	0.203	0.143	0.026	7.333	0.000	Accept

SRMR=0.051; NFI=0.895

H3, H5, H7 and H11 were not tested as their variables were deleted from the measurement model.

As shown in Table 7.8, ten hypotheses were tested from the retained constructs and eight relationships produced significant results. The original sample estimates are the path coefficients or estimates, and estimates closer to 1 reflect a stronger relationship than those closer to 0 (Hair, Hult, et al., 2017; Nusair and Hua, 2010). Hypotheses H3, H5, H7 and H11 were not tested as the latent variables were excluded from the measurement model, because most their items or observed variables did not meet recommended thresholds. Hypotheses H12 and H13, relating to the relationship between affective personal loyalty and intention personal loyalty and the willingness to pay a premium price are not significant, because even though their p-values show significance at 95% and 90% confidence levels, their t-statistics are below 1.65. Both hypotheses are therefore rejected.

Table 7.8 also reveals that client satisfaction was positively and significantly driven by hairstylists' reliability ($\beta = 0.443$, $p < 0.001$), trustworthiness ($\beta = 0.113$, $p < 0.001$) and service customisation ($\beta = 0.458$, $p < 0.001$). Client satisfaction in turn positively and significantly impacted on commercial friendship ($\beta = 0.301$, $p < 0.001$), which is a positive driver of affective ($\beta = 0.450$, $p < 0.001$), intention ($\beta = 0.418$, $p < 0.001$) and behavioural ($\beta = 0.385$, $p < 0.001$) personal loyalties. Of all these personal loyalty dimensions, only behavioural personal loyalty positively and significantly impacted on clients' willingness to pay premium prices with ($\beta = 0.143$, $p < 0.001$).

7.3.2.2. Model predictability accuracy

The model predictability shows the variance explained by the independent constructs of the dependent constructs using R-Square values. The results are presented in Table 7.9.

Table 7.9: Variance explained of the dependent constructs: R^2 and Adjusted R^2

Variable	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Variance explained by linked variables
CSA	0.539	0.537	53.7%
CFR	0.491	0.490	49%
APL	0.409	0.400	40%
IPL	0.370	0.369	36.9%
BPL	0.355	0.353	35.3%
WPP	0.295	0.270	27.5%

REL=reliability; TRU=trustworthiness; MOB=mobility; SCU=service customisation; RAD=relative advantage; CSA=client satisfaction; CFR=commercial friendship; CPL=cognitive personal loyalty; APL=affective personal loyalty; IPL=intention personal loyalty; BPL=behavioural personal loyalty; WPP=willingness to pay premium price

While the R^2 values in Table 7.9 show the proportion of variance in dependent constructs explained by independent constructs, the adjusted R^2 values accommodate for model complexity (Hair et al., 2010). Higher values indicate higher degrees of predictability of the model. Considering Hair et al.'s (2017) view that even a 40% variance explained of a construct is substantial in the field of consumer behaviour, the 53.7% variance of client satisfaction explained of client satisfaction is high. The 53.7% of the variance was explained by the hairstylists' attributes of reliability, trustworthiness and service customisation. Up to 49% of the variance in commercial friendship was also explained by the hairstylists' attributes and client satisfaction. The variances explained in affective, intention and personal loyalty dimensions are 40%, 36.9% and 35.3%, which are good and moderate respectively. Only 27% of the variance in willingness to pay a premium price was explained by all affective, intention and behavioural personal loyalty constructs.

7.4. Summary of empirical findings

Five relationships pertaining to customer value factors in hairstylists and client satisfaction were tested and three of those were found to be positive: relationships with reliability, trustworthiness and service customisation. Both relationships between hairstylist's relative advantage and mobility against client satisfaction were inconclusive due to model specification criteria during the measurement model assessment (CFA) phase of data analysis. This meant that hypotheses tests could not be conducted for relationship with those constructs. Nonetheless, the relationship between client satisfaction and commercial friendship was also found to be positive.

In determining the relationships between commercial friendship and each dimension of personal loyalty, positive results were found for affective, intention and behavioural loyalty. Unfortunately, no conclusive results were found for any relationships that included cognitive personal loyalty because the construct did not meet the measurement model assessment (CFA) criteria.

In estimating the relationships between personal loyalty dimensions and willingness to pay a premium price, it was found that only behavioural personal loyalty had a positive and significant relationship with willingness to pay a premium price. The relationships with affective and intention personal loyalty were found to be insignificant. The empirical objectives and corresponding results are summarised in Table 7.10.

Table 7.10: Summary of the empirical research objectives and results

Objective	No.	Main findings	Results
To estimate the relationship between hairstylist's reliability and client satisfaction.	1	p. 155	Accepted - there was a moderately positive relationship.
To test the relationship between hairstylist's trustworthiness and client satisfaction.	2	p.155	Accepted – the relationship was weak but positive.
To determine the relationship between hairstylist's relative advantage and client satisfaction.	3	p. 151	Note tested - the scale for the relative advantage construct was excluded from the study due to poor measurement model assessment (CFA) results. Therefore, hypothesis testing could not be conducted.
To test the relationship between hairstylist's service customisation and client satisfaction.	4	p.155	Accepted – the relationship was moderately positive.
To test the relationship between hairstylist's mobility and client satisfaction.	5	p. 151	Note tested - the scale for the hairstylist's mobility construct was excluded from the study due to poor measurement model assessment (CFA) results. Therefore, hypothesis testing could not be conducted.
To determine the relationship between client satisfaction and commercial friendship.	6	p. 155	Accepted – there was a low-moderate and positive relationship.
To estimate the relationship between commercial friendship and cognitive personal loyalty.	7	p. 151	Note tested - the scale for the cognitive personal loyalty was excluded from the study due to poor measurement model assessment (CFA) results. Therefore, hypothesis testing could not be conducted.
To test the relationship between commercial friendship and affective personal loyalty.	8	p. 155	Accepted - the relationship was moderately positive.

Objective	No.	Main findings	Results
To estimate the relationship between commercial friendship and intention personal loyalty.	9	p. 155	Accepted - the relationship was moderate and positive.
To determine the relationship between commercial friendship and behavioural personal loyalty.	10	p. 155	Accepted – the relationship was moderately positive.
To estimate the relationship between cognitive personal loyalty and willingness to pay a premium price.	11	p. 151	Note tested - the scale for the cognitive personal loyalty was excluded from the study due to poor measurement model assessment (CFA) results. Therefore, hypothesis testing could not be conducted.
To determine the relationship between affective personal loyalty and willingness to pay a premium price.	12	p. 155	Rejected – the relationship was negative and insignificant.
To test the relationship between intention personal loyalty and willingness to pay a premium price.	13	p. 155	Rejected – the relationship was insignificant.
To determine the relationship between behavioural personal loyalty and willingness to pay a premium price.	14	p. 155	Accepted – although it was weak, the relationship was positive.

7.5. Conclusion

This chapter presented the results of data analyses run for descriptive and inferential statistics. The respondent profile summarised biographical information about the sample. Overall, the study relates to male and female respondents, the majority of whom are aged between 25 and 45 years and from black, coloured, Indian and white ethnic backgrounds. They also vary in terms of monthly income and spending on haircare services, as well as the frequency of visits

to salons. Response distributions generally showed high means and levels of agreement for the constructs, except for mobility. The measurement model assessment reduced the proposed fourteen hypotheses to ten hypotheses after deleting relative advantage, mobility and cognitive personal loyalty constructs to maintain assessment criteria. Out of the ten retained hypotheses, path analysis estimated eight significant relationships between constructs. A summary of the hypothesis test results and empirical objectives relating to each is displayed in Table 7.10. The next chapter discusses the results in Table 7.10, makes conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER 8: DISCUSSIONS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1. Introduction

This final chapter discusses this study's findings, makes conclusions on how the objectives have been achieved, highlights the theoretical and practical conclusions and recommends areas for future studies. It begins by reflecting on the preceding chapters of the research in order to account for the contribution of each chapter towards the attainment of the research objectives. It then proceeds to discuss and conclude on the empirical results presented in Chapter 7. This is followed by the conclusions on how the research questions were answered, theoretical and practical contributions, limitations and recommendations for future studies.

8.2. Attainment of Theoretical Objectives From the Preceding Chapters

The previous chapters account for the theoretical and empirical objectives stated in Chapter 1, therefore, this section describes how the theoretical objectives were attained. Chapter 1 introduced the study, described the problem statement, provided preliminary literature and stated the theoretical and empirical objectives of the study. Chapter 2 proceeded to describe the research context of haircare services by providing an evaluation of the scope and contributions of the haircare industry in South Africa as well as in Africa, North and South America and Europe.

Chapters 3 and 4 delved into the literature review to discuss relevant frameworks on client satisfaction in services, relationship marketing and loyalty. This allowed for constructs to be defined, operationalised and to justifiably postulate hypotheses for relationships between the constructs. The hypotheses were then developed in Chapter 5 and resulted in a comprehensive conceptual model. This was essential as the overriding objective of the study was to test a model to estimate relationships that lead to clients' personal loyalty to one hairstylist as well as their willingness to pay the hairstylist premium prices.

Chapter 6 described the methodology of the research in detail, based on the research onion framework by Saunders et al. (2012). The research followed a positivist and deductive philosophical design. Therefore, hypotheses were deduced from literature and models about customer satisfaction, service quality, relationships marketing and loyalty, as discussed in

Chapters 3 and 4. A survey strategy was used to develop a self-administered questionnaire to gather quantitative data. The data was cross-sectional and therefore represented the opinions of 562 respondents at a particular time. The data analysis techniques were also described, with preferential references to the use of descriptive statistics and PLS-SEM for inferential statistics.

Following the relevant data collection and analysis methods discussed in Chapter 6, Chapter 7 reported on the data analysis results. After conducting descriptive statistics to assess the respondents' profile and testing constructs' reliability and validity from which three constructs (mobility, relative advantage and cognitive personal loyalty) were excluded due to unsatisfactory levels of reliability and validity, ten hypotheses were tested. Of the ten hypotheses, eight were accepted. The discussions pertaining to three excluded hypotheses are provided in the next sections of this chapter.

8.3. Relationships That Were Excluded From Data Analysis

Although the empirical objectives postulated fourteen hypotheses for the study, four relationships pertaining to hairstylist mobility (H3), relative advantage (H5) and cognitive personal loyalty (H7 & H11) were not tested. As aforementioned, the constructs failed to meet measurement model assessment criteria during the initial phase of PLS-SEM (Henseler et al., 2015; Nusair and Hua, 2010). The study does not conclude on the relationships pertaining to these constructs. However, there are recommendations for future research to explore the constructs and improve their representation and measurement.

8.3.1. Relationship between mobility and client satisfaction (H3)

As a construct, hairstylist mobility produced insufficient construct reliability and discriminant validity after unsuccessful attempts to improve results by reducing the number of items reflecting the construct. High HTMT ratios above 1 during the measurement model assessment phase proved that mobility was not discriminant and, rather, tended to reflect other constructs in the conceptual model. Furthermore, Cronbach's alpha values below 0.4 and diminishing factor loadings also pointed to poor internal consistency of the construct. Theoretically and logically, a hairstylist's mobility should increase client satisfaction because it provides time and effort convenience for clients (Cohen, 2010a; Kazdin, 2017; Vega-Vazquez et al., 2013). However, since mobility highly correlated with other constructs and it was not adequately represented by its items, its relationship with client satisfaction was not empirically tested in

this study. Hair et al. (2010) suggest that a construct with validity and reliability problems need restructuring and rewording at the item development level to improve its representation and validity in the future.

8.3.2. Relationship between relative advantage and client satisfaction (H5)

Similar to mobility, the relative advantage construct produced insufficient reliability and convergent validity despite item reductions to improve the measures. Although some factor loadings were marginally acceptable and alluded to internal reliability, construct reliability generally and convergent validity were not achieved. Low Cronbach's alpha and AVE values below 0.4 obtained for relative advantage suggest that the items did not consistently represent the construct and that items did not converge successfully with one another (Chin, 1998; Henseler et al., 2015). Although the construct was adapted from competition and relative advantage constructs by Chen (2015) and Carter and Belanger (2005), the construct's reliability and convergent validity were not satisfactory in the context of service employees in this study. Theoretically, relative advantage results in consumer satisfaction because it offers more value (Chen, 2015; Deng et al., 2013). However, the items to measure relative advantage in a hairstyling context require further refinement to improve its measurement before the relationship between relative advantage and client satisfaction can be empirically tested.

8.3.3. Relationships involving cognitive personal loyalty (H7 and H11)

The study aimed to test for positive relationships between commercial friendship and cognitive personal loyalty (H7) and cognitive personal loyalty and willingness to pay a premium price (H11). Similar to relative advantage, the construct was excluded due to inadequate construct reliability and convergent validity values. Specifically, the construct produced low and diminishing factor loadings, as well as Cronbach's alpha and AVE values below the threshold. Cognitive personal loyalty was adapted from cognitive loyalty scales constructed by Han et al. (2008) and Yuksel et al. (2010). These authors refer to cognitive loyalty in relation to firms and destinations. In the context of personal loyalty and for the haircare industry, however, the adapted items need further refinement to improve reliability and validity of the construct.

8.4. Tested Relationships Between Reliable and Valid Constructs

The ten relationships that were successfully tested between constructs are discussed in this section. Specific references have been made to the empirical results presented in Chapter 7.

8.4.1. Relationship between hairstylists' reliability and client satisfaction (H1)

The results of this study confirmed this relationship with more than 99.9% confidence that the reliability of an individual hairstylist relates positively to client satisfaction (β=0.443; $p \leq 0.001$). The result is consistent with conclusions drawn from the SERQUAL framework (Parasuraman et al., 1988; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016). The result obtained here also supports other conclusions about the relationship between reliability and consumer satisfaction (Basfirinci and Mitra, 2015; Collins et al., 2015; Eboli and Mazzulla, 2009).

Fernbach (2016), Bailey (2014) and Frangie et al. (2016) generally agree that, as a SERVQUAL dimension attributed to a service employee, hairstylist reliability is one of the most important and distinguishing attributes of a good hairstylist. More specifically, they maintain that the ability to apply hairstyling techniques correctly every time in order to produce desired hairstyles for clients is at the heart of the hairstyling profession. The empirical evidence in a South African context from this study proves that clients value their hairstylist's competence and ability to perform services efficiently as promised, including using the correct products, communicating about procedures to clients and applying the appropriate techniques. Above all, a hairstylist's reliability has a significant bearing on client satisfaction and should be prioritised in the haircare services context.

8.4.2. Relationship between trustworthiness and client satisfaction (H2)

Contrary to reliability, clients' perceptions of a hairstylist's trustworthiness were based on psychological and affective attributes rather than a technical attribute. Findings show a positive relationship between the trustworthiness of a hairstylist and client satisfaction (β=0.114; $p \leq 0.001$). Although the estimate or path coefficient was low, the relationship was highly significant at the 99% confidence level. This suggests that clients are happy with their preferred hairstylist's trustworthiness in terms of them being empathetic and benevolent employees. Gronroos (2019) and Bove and Johnson (2002) believe that these qualities are important in marketing relationships.

Findings, such as Agbonkhese and Aganbi (2016), Hmar (2011) and Laeti (2015) indicate that, in haircare services, a hairstylist's advice and sensitivity to client's needs are also aspects of trust that should not be underestimated. In an ongoing relationship between a client and hairstylist, trust is an enabling factor that justifies a client's engagement with the same

hairstylist because it demonstrates a client's faith in the hairstylist's capabilities (Lewis, 1999; Rosenbaum et al., 2015; Zhijun et al., 2015). Since the hairstylists in question have had multiple opportunities to prove themselves to their clients, a client's perception of a hairstylist's trustworthiness cannot be isolated from perceptions of other capabilities. While Morgan and Hunt's (1994) commitment-trust theory alludes to satisfaction from trustworthy relationships, Gronroos's (2011, 2019) relationship marketing perspective as well as Parasuraman et al. (1988), Harrison-Walker (2000) and Frangie et al. (2016) acknowledge the importance of empathy towards clients in service encounters. Empathetic consideration provides confidence, reduces personal and social risks and assures a client that their needs will be met. Moreover, due to the personal and high-involvement nature of haircare, trustworthiness has significant implications for client satisfaction.

8.4.3. Relationship between service customisation and client satisfaction (H4)

Similar to reliability, clients' perceptions of their hairstylists' service customisation capabilities were based on technical abilities to tailor services and hairstyles to suit individual clients. In this research, the explanatory power of client satisfaction by service customisation was one of the strongest (β=0.458; $p \leq 0.001$). The relationship was also highly significant at 99.9% confident level. This proves that clients value individual attention from their hairstylists with respect to clients' specific haircare needs and unique physical features.

Clients view customisation as an important attribute of a hairstylist because it addresses and appreciates them as unique clients. They therefore appreciate that hairstylists exercise judgment in order to deliver hairstyles that best compliment their individual characteristics. This can include altering hairstyles to appeal to a client's features, applying products suitable for a client's unique needs, and using various strategies to uniquely accommodate a client (Carr, 2013; Elsesser, 2013). Fernbach (2016), Bailey (2014) and Frangie et al. (2016) provide specialist advice in the haircare industry, and assert that competence and the ability to address clients' unique needs are both important for delivering the best value to the client. Consistent with the consumer orientation philosophy (Tadajewski and Jones, 2012) and studies pertaining to customisation (Coelho and Henseler, 2012; Gwinner et al., 2005; Kasiri et al., 2017; Marinkovic and Kalinic, 2017), this study confirms that service customisation in haircare is a positive attribute that is necessary for satisfying clients.

In terms of how the variance of client satisfaction was explained, the findings show that

hairstylists' reliability, trustworthiness and service customisation were responsible for more than 53% of the variance explained for this research (adjusted R^2=53.1%). Although these hairstylists' attributes have a good explanatory power, the finding also suggests that there are other attributes that can account for the remaining 46.9% of the variance in client satisfaction. This leaves potential for future research to fill this gap in order to explain more variance in client satisfaction with individual hairstylists.

8.4.4. Relationship between client satisfaction and commercial friendship (H6)

Findings about the relationship between client satisfaction and commercial friendship reveal that, with a 99.9% confidence level, client satisfaction positively leads to commercial friendship (β=0.302; $p \leq 0.001$). Although the estimate is moderate, the confidence level of its contribution to commercial friendship is high. This is particularly important as it confirms the importance of consumer satisfaction in relationship marketing theory, consumer orientation philosophy and SERVQUAL framework (Gronroos, 1984, 2019; Jung and Yoo, 2019; Tadajewski and Jones, 2012).

This finding also proves that a client's overall satisfaction with their hairstylists does not only lead to their social relationship as usually found, but also to commercial friendship. Reoccurring satisfactory encounters with hairstylists are confirmed here to lead to recurring interpersonal exchanges of private information, special service attention, words of encouragement, common interests and favours between a hairstylist and client, all of which constitute commercial friendship (Demir et al., 2015; Laeti, 2015; Rosenbaum et al., 2015). Although the primary purpose of the commercial relationship is to satisfy a client's haircare needs, Laeti (2015), Meyers (2012) and Pottel (2016) liken the relationship to social therapy sessions between two trusting friends. The study shows that client satisfaction is essential to maintain such a friendship, as 49% of the variance in commercial friendship is explained by client satisfaction (adjusted R^2=49%).

8.4.5. Relationship between commercial friendship and affective personal loyalty (H8)

Clients' perceptions of their affective personal loyalty towards their hairstylists reflect their emotional commitment to their respective hairstylists. At a 99.9% confidence level, the study found that commercial friendship with one hairstylist has a significant bearing on their emotional commitment to the hairstylist (β=0.449; $p \leq 0.001$). This finding is consistent with

Ritchie's (2016) and Rosenbaum et al.'s (2015) studies that showed that a friendship with high psychological, emotional and social involvement results in a client's emotional attachment to a hairstylist.

Evidently, hairstylists benefit more from affective personal loyalty as a result of their commercial friendships with clients. This further emphasises the fact that motivators for loyalty are deeply set in a client's emotional disposition, especially when the services engage them physically, socially and emotionally. Clients are not restricted to any one hairstylist; however, they are likely to commit to the one with whom they share the strongest bond with over the long-term. As much as 40% of the variance in affective personal loyalty was explained by commercial friendship (adjusted R^2=40%). While a 40% explanatory power is good according to Hair et al. (2017), there is a need for further research to explore other drivers of affective personal loyalty

8.4.6. Relationship between commercial friendship and intention personal loyalty (H9)

The study is 99.9% confident that commercial friendship significantly predicts intention personal loyalty positive (β=0.413; $p \leq 0.001$). Intention personal loyalty reflects a client's higher cognitive disposition to commit to one hairstylist. This includes a client deciding to not change hairstylists even though alternatives are readily available, and rather plan to interact more and dedicate all their future haircare services to their current hairstylist. Oliver's (1999) and Han et al.'s (2011) explanations of the progression of loyalty dimensions suggest that intention personal loyalty represents a client's deeply held beliefs and anticipations to commit to one hairstylist. Even though Han et al. (2008) postulate that commercial friendship can influence intention loyalty though customer satisfaction, cognitive and affective loyalty dimensions, the current study has shown that commercial friendship can directly drive intention personal loyalty.

Since clients have maintained interactions with one hairstylist for the past 10 months, this study implies that all the recurring interpersonal interactions enabled by the commercial friendships helped to justify and reaffirm clients' beliefs to commit to one hairstylist. More than one third of the variance in intention personal loyalty was explained by commercial friendship (adjusted R^2=36%). The 36% prediction of intention personal loyalty by commercial friendship is an indication that other factors can be responsible for intention personal loyalty, which need further study.

8.4.7. The relationship between commercial friendship and behavioural personal loyalty (H10)

The study estimated with 99.9% confidence that there is a moderate and positive relationship between behavioural personal loyalty and commercial friendship (β=0.393; $p \leq 0.001$). Behavioural personal loyalty was described in terms of how often a client physically demonstrated their commitment to one hairstylist. The results, therefore, suggest that a higher degree of commercial friendship would positively lead to higher tendencies of a client to decline other good hairstylists, disregard the services of other hairstylists, choose their preferred hairstylist for their next hair appointment, and make the effort to travel to their preferred hairstylist. This was explained by a 35.3% of the variance in behavioural personal loyalty (adjusted R^2=35.3%).

It is expected that clients benefit physically, emotionally and financially to an extent, from interpersonal interactions because the structure of a commercial friendship provides for such benefits. Therefore, their beneficial experiences of the relationship from repetitive cycles of interactions motivate them to physically respond or behave in such a manner that the hairstylists benefit too because of the loyalty. As suggested by Bove and Johnson (2000, 2009), Laeti (2015) and Melnyk (2014), clients tend to be actively loyal to one rather than many hairstylists. This study shows that commercial friendship facilitates active loyalty. As suggested by Oliver (1999) and Han et al. (2011), the repetitive cycles result in inertia, which explains why the more they repeatedly behave loyally, the more likely they are to continue on the path of behavioural loyalty. In addition to client retention over the long-term, the effect of active inertia enables hairstylists to benefit even more, especially with regards to exclusive access to clients, compared to other hairstylists and haircare service organisations (Bove and Johnson, 2002; Elsesser, 2013; Jung and Yoo, 2019). It imminently results in the separation and disruption of power over clientele between haircare service firms and hairstylists. Therefore, the compounding benefits of good commercial friendships and behavioural personal loyalty are critically important to the structure, sustainable management and profitability of haircare services. The relationship between affective personal loyalty and willingness to pay a premium price (H12)

The study reported a negative relationship between affective personal loyalty and willingness to pay a premium price, with 95% confidence (β=-0.091; $p<0.05$). Although the hypothesis

posited a positive relationship, the negative path regression coefficient may be explained from the fact that as a client gets emotionally attached and devoted to a hairstylist in terms of affective personal loyalty (Alan et al., 2016; Milady, 2016), they may rather expect discount prices, instead of the readiness to pay more for their services. Although Han et al. (2011), Oliver (1999) and Yim et al. (2008) assert that the involvement of emotions in affective loyalty make it easier for clients to justify their commitment, this study showed that paying more for services was not one of the benefits of such a commitment.

It is possible that, as a result of the commercial friendships that enabled affective loyalty, clients had expectations of financial benefits such as discounted prices and other favours. The emotional sense of entitlement to such benefits may have offset any willingness to pay higher prices. This is consistent with Beatty et al. (2016) and Jung and Yoo (2019)who found that unplanned losses due to favours for clients were negative consequences of commercial friendships. Therefore, this study suggests that emotions alone are not strong enough to overcome higher prices as an obstacle to loyalty.

8.4.8. The relationship between intention personal loyalty and willingness to pay a premium price (H13)

Even though the relationship between intention personal loyalty and willingness to pay a premium price was positive and significant at 90% confidence level with (β=0.098; p=0.097), the hypothesis was rejected because of the low t-value. This means that, while the relationship between willingness to pay premium prices and intention loyalty was supported by the theoretical and empirical underpinnings of Casisy and Wymer (2016), Palmatier (2007) and Wieseke et al (2014), the current results suggest that the relationship is hypothetical rather than statistically significant. In order to obtain a stronger significant relationship, a different or larger sample size may be required.

8.4.9. The relationship between behavioural personal loyalty and willingness to pay a premium price (H14)

Out of the four dimensions of personal loyalty proposed by Han et al.'s (2008) model, behavioural personal loyalty was the only dimension that proved to positively drive the willingness to pay a premium price at a 99.9% confidence level (β=0.203; $p \leq 0.001$). This shows that a more active devotion or transactional loyalty to a hairstylist is what predicts the premium price paying willingness. The willingness to pay a premium was explained by 27.5%

of behavioural personal loyalty (adjusted R^2=27.5%).

According to the explanations of active inertia discussed by Oliver (1999), Dube et al (2009) and Han et al. (2011), after a certain number of recurrences of loyal behaviour, the effects of obstacles like higher prices that can hinder loyal behaviour become negligible, and a client makes an effort to secure the services of their preferred hairstylist. Bove and Johnson (2000) reached a similar conclusion with a customer-service employee relationship model that proved that clients were willing to follow their preferred hairstylists if they relocated to a different salon. From this study, it is evident that behavioural personal loyalty, owing to active inertia, positively correlates with a client's willingness to pay their preferred hairstylist more than the normal price, more than what other hairstylists charge, as well as forgo switching to cheaper hairstylists.

8.4.10. Conclusions on the extent to which the empirical questions were answered

This study aimed to answer the following research questions:

- To what extent do customer value factors (hairstylist reliability, trustworthiness, mobility, service customisation, and relative advantage) individually enjoyed from a hairstylist influence a client's satisfaction?
- To what extent does a client's satisfaction influence the commercial relationship between the client and hairstylist?
- To what extent does the commercial relationship between the client and hairstylist influence four dimensions of personal loyalty (cognitive, affective, intention and behavioural)?
- To what extent do the four dimensions of personal loyalty constructs individually influence the client's willingness to pay a premium price?

Approximately 53.7% of client satisfaction is explained by a hairstylist's reliability, service customisation and trustworthiness as customer values. It is, therefore, important for hairstylists to possess technical attributes of reliability and service customisation as they are central to actual service performance and delivery in haircare services. The study confirms that both technical attributes affect client satisfaction significantly and positively. Although trustworthiness affects satisfaction to a lesser extent than reliability and service customisation, it is still important because it provides clients with the confidence and assurance necessary for

overall satisfaction with a hairstylist.

Furthermore, with an explanatory power of 49%, the resultant overall client satisfaction has positive implications on the commercial friendship as it motivates increased interpersonal interactions and high-involvement attachment between the two. As a result of the attachment, commercial friendship positively affects a client's affective, intention and behavioural loyalty to the same hairstylist. Commercial friendship can predict 40%, 36.9% and 35.6% of affective, intention and behavioural personal loyalty from clients. More importantly, behavioural personal loyalty can explain 27.5% of a client's willingness to pay a premium price. Possibly due to increased expectations of favours, a client's emotional attachment to a hairstylist negatively affects their willingness to pay more. While the relationship between intentional personal loyalty and willingness to pay more is not scientifically valid, relationships concerning hairstylist mobility, relative advantage and a client's cognitive personal loyalty are also not conclusive.

8.5. Contributions of the Study

Following the findings, how much the research objectives have been achieved and questions answered, the study makes theoretical and practical contributions.

8.5.1. Theoretical contributions

Firstly, the study provides a tested conceptual model that can be used to predict personal loyalty through the customer values that clients enjoy from service employees, client satisfaction and commercial relationships between clients and service providers. It points to the importance of maximising consumer satisfaction to enjoy its myriads of benefits and through providing superior customer value, especially in personal services sector that involves both transactional and affective client-employee relationships. The SERVQUAL framework (Parasuraman et al., 1988) already attributes several of its dimensions to service employees, however, does not include service customisation. Despite this, service customisation is imminent in personal service quality because meeting the specific needs of individuals is central to the context of personal services. Therefore, this research provides motivation supported by empirical evidence, for service marketing theorists to consider developing subset frameworks for personal services, with service customisation as a prominent dimension. Many studies have adapted the SERVQUAL framework (Parasuraman et al., 1988) in the hospitality and retail

contexts. The adaption of the framework in the personal services contexts was needed, which this study has fulfilled by testing some of its elements.

On the subject of personal services, this study contributes a multi-variable diagram that illustrates the differences between services in terms of client-contact and service characteristics. By incorporating four important variables for classifying and differentiating personal services from other services, this multi-variable diagram integrates and adds to client-contact frameworks previously illustrated by Chase (2010, p. 13) and Wirtz and Lovelock (2016, p. 67). While Chase (2010) and Wirtz and Lovelock (2016) differentiate personal services by type and level of client-contact, it was necessary to include service heterogeneity and inseparability as relevant service characteristics that are critical to the differentiation and classification of personal services.

Even though inseparability and heterogeneity are recognised as services characteristics that explain differences between products and services (Kotler et al., 2018; Lamb et al., 2015; Wirtz and Lovelock, 2016), they received minor recognition for differentiating personal services from other services. However, this research recognises their importance and relevance and, therefore, justifies including them in the diagram. Furthermore, the inclusive diagram illustrates the relationships between heterogeneity and type of client-contact and between inseparability and client-contact level. With the examples of services included, the multi-variable diagram can help academics and marketers in service contexts to understand the interrelationships between the four variables for various services as well as determine the most important points of interaction in each service.

The study also contributes to theoretical views about relationship marketing and commercial friendships. It reveals the high relevance of loyalty to individual service employees, pointing to the need for relationship marketing theories to prioritise the impact of personal interactions between service employees and clients. From the application of Price and Arnould's (1999) commercial friendship construct in this study, it is evident that the emergence of the construct results in overlapping between the boundaries of commercial transactions and interpersonal relations. This research provides motivation for relationship marketing theory to recognise commercial friendship as a source of equity, rather than simply as means of recurring transactions and service encounters that need to be maintained. Commercial friendships have the potential to change the parameters of marketing relationships and can therefore be

determinants of the mutual value maintained over the lifespan of a marketing relationship.

The study also confirms that willingness to pay premium prices is a consequence of personal loyalty. This suggests that relationship marketing theory pertaining to loyalty needs to take the consequences of loyalty into account rather than assume that loyalty is always a final outcome. Furthermore, the management of personal loyalty dimensions when predicting outcomes of loyalty is equally important. In as much as Oliver's (1999) and Han et al.'s (2008) dimensions of loyalty describe different states of commitment, there are some dimensions that can have a detrimental effects. For example, this research found that affective personal loyalty may rather discourage clients from paying higher prices which the service employee or firm need to increase profits.

Conversely, behavioural loyalty, which has active and transaction domains, motivates the willingness to pay a premium price. One assumption is that, when applying the concept of inertia to loyalty dimensions, it is necessary to match the domain of the obstacle to that of the loyalty dimension. As behavioural loyalty propagates more loyal behaviour, affective loyalty should encourage more loyal affection and overcome obstacles that influence emotions, rather than behaviour. Therefore, when assessing the financial benefits of loyalty, relationship marketers should assess how much the loyalty is constituted by affection.

8.5.2. Practical contributions

By exposing the determinants of clients' personal loyalty and its dimension leading to willingness to pay a premium price, this study makes some practical contributions for the benefit of hairstylists, managers of salons and haircare service firms. In this regard, the following contributions are made:

8.5.2.1. Service customisation enhances client satisfaction

Hairstylists always take their time to listen to clients' descriptions of what styles they want. Hairstylists also follow evolving trends and styles online and other media to learn new hair styles (Spector, 2019). The results from the current study have showed that these efforts, along with reliability, can be rewarding through customer satisfaction. Service customisation satisfaction and reliability, in fact, had the highest impact on client satisfaction. This means that, in order to satisfy clients more, it is important to acknowledge that each client is unique in terms of their wants and physical features. Furthermore, being more open to creating new

hairstyles rather than replicating old ones demonstrates a hairstylist's ability to cater for individual needs and to do so well. Creating a product by considering all the unique characteristics of a customer is a basic principle of tailoring that guarantees customer satisfaction and that can be adopted by hairstylists (Cabrera and Antoine, 2015; Lowe, 2016). Therefore, by viewing their work as personal tailored services, hairstylists have the potential to enhance client satisfaction as well as brand themselves as caring and reliable hairstylists.

8.5.2.2. Commercial friendships are the link to personal loyalty

By revealing the driver and outcomes of commercial friendships between clients and hairstylists have compounding benefits of long-term personal loyalty, retention, as well as the potential to enable hairstylists to dominate over competitor hairstylists and managers. A commercial friendship represents the close one-to-one business relationship between a client and hairstylist, hence it is important for both salon managers and hairstylists to nurture and monitor them. While Han et al.'s (2008) model suggest that commercial friendship impacts four dimensions of company loyalty through satisfaction, this study contributes by showing that it directly impact the affective, intention and behavioural personal loyalty dimensions. Thus, instead of hair solon managers feeling threatened by the friendships hairstylists develop with their clients, they should rather encourage the commercial friendships and personal loyalty since these would lead to financial gains through clients' willingness to pay a premium price.

8.5.2.3. Behavioural loyalty is vital for financial gain

Of the four dimensions of loyalty, which Han et al.'s (2008) suggest, this study contributes by revealing that it is behavioural personal loyalty that has the most potential for individual hairstylists to financially earn more from their clients. This means that the best clients to approach with premium prices are those that are actively loyal because of the inertia effect that makes clients continue to behave favourably towards to the hairstylist. In the interest of increasing their turnover, hairstylists need to convert their clients' affective and intention loyalty into behavioural loyalty by implementing attractive rewards programmes through their hairstylists to garner personal behavioural loyalty. Not only do loyalty programmes add value, but they can also be used to eliminate unauthorised favours by replacing them with approved additional benefits for actively loyal clients.

Overall, service customisation, reliability and trustworthiness are the most important core

attributes that hairstylists must possess to satisfy their clients and initiate commercial friendships. Commercial friendships provide important links to personal loyalty between clients and hairstylists and this presents an opportunity for both salon managers and hairstylists to capitalise on the relationships and the resultant personal loyalty. Therefore, the focus of management should be on initiating behavioural personal loyalty through commercial friendships, which in turn, rely on superior service customisation, reliability, trustworthiness and overall satisfaction.

8.6. Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Future Research

While the research made meaningful contributions, it had some few limitations. Recommendations for future research are made to mitigate the limitations and to enrich studies in this area.

8.6.1. Limitations of the study

Due to its focus on the subject of personal loyalty to hairstylists and willingness to pay a premium price as an outcome of personal loyalty, the study was limited in its scope. While the findings may be generalised to services marketing, they are more applicable to personal services and, more specifically, haircare services. Despite there being many customer value factors in haircare services, it was more feasible to focus on five drivers of satisfaction related to individual hairstylists.

The study was also restricted geographically to Johannesburg City due to feasibility, time and financial constraints. Although haircare services are offered across the country, Johannesburg City was unique because of its classification as an alpha global city (GaWC Research Network, 2018; Hamilton, 2006) with a large and diverse population, numerous brands of haircare service providers and large number of hairstylists that clients can choose from. With Johannesburg's socio-economical and multicultural diversity, the findings for the study can apply to other alpha global cities in the world. Nonetheless, the findings may be made richer if further studies are conducted in other cities that have some degree of racial diversity that requires different haircare services, like Cape Town and Durban.

Since the study was based on cross-sectional data, it only reflects the opinions of respondents at the time they completed the questionnaire. Therefore, due to its limited time-relevance, replication studies would be required to provide long-term observations of their loyalty to

hairstylists. Furthermore, as a quantitative study, it confines participants' views about hairstylists to constructs explored by the research. Although the scope had breadth from many constructs, it restricted respondents from expressing other aspects that are peculiar to them.

8.6.2. Recommendations for future research

8.6.2.1. Theoretical implications

Theoretically, the predictability of the model for determining personal loyalty can be improved by further exploring other customer value and relationship building factors that boost clients' personal loyalty as well as its outcomes. This study examined only the willingness to pay a price premium as an outcome of the loyalty dimensions. Other outcomes, such as word-of-mouth, resistance to competitive pressure, increased profitability and lower marketing costs in relation to personal loyalty should be also studied with further research (Zineldin et al., 2014).

The establishment of reflective constructs to measure mobility, relative advantage and cognitive personal loyalty are also necessary to test their relevance in determining personal loyalty and its consequences. Following the example of SERVQUAL modifications, future studies should initiate the development of good measurement scales for personal service quality. Personal loyalty is not restricted to haircare services, and is rather applicable to where a business relies on ongoing high-involvement interactions, such as management consultancy, personal banking and legal services. Therefore, in the interest of improving theory (Gronroos, 2019; Gronroos and Gummesson, 2012; Kowalkowski, 2015), the development of personal service quality and personal marketing relationship scales and frameworks should be important areas for future services marketing studies.

To obtain deeper views on why some clients will continuously prefer particular hairstylists to the point of developing commercial friendships and personal loyalty with them, a future qualitative study is recommended. Qualitative studies in the form of a focus group or personal interview would help to expand the responses of participants and simulate their individual experiences with hairstylists (Creswell and Poth, 2018; Mohajan, 2018).

8.6.2.2. Practical implications

Practically, managers, hairstylists and policy makers are recommended to acknowledge that commercial friendships exist in the haircare services industry because of the personal nature of haircare. Since they are inevitable and lead to personal loyalty, they should rather embrace this

form of business relationship and capitalise on it rather than be paranoid about the hairstylists leaving the business with the clients and try to restrict it. This acknowledgement should prompt managers and policy makers to draft policies that accommodate commercial one-to-one business relationships between clients and service employees in this and other fields that exhibit similar relationships (for example, massage therapy).

Personal service providers should seek ways to sustain the commercial friendships, especially as the current study reveals that it leads to personal affective, intention and behavioural loyalties. Dlamini and Chinje (2019) found a strong relationship between loyalty reward programmes, commitment and repeat purchase/patronage. Since loyalty occurs at the firm level and individual level, hairstylists should, therefore, implement their own loyalty programmes.

In the same vein, salon managers should make considerable efforts to restructure their relationships with hairstylists so that they can capitalise on their commercial friendships and personal loyalty. To retain hairstylists, the can implement employee-based loyalty programmes that measure and reward hairstylists who develop strong networks of commercial friends or by offering hairstylists certified association and guild membership through training to improve hairstylists' qualifications. As an example, this may include forming or partnering with associations like the Employers Organisation of Hairdressing, Cosmetology and Beauty (EOHCB) in South Africa or the American Board of Certified Haircolorists in the USA. This would enable hairstylists to subscribe through their partner hair salons to enhance their qualifications and remain accredited by the boards. Not only will this retain the hairstylists, but will also ensure that managers have a vested interest in the skills development of their hairstylists.

Policy makers should also be aware of the prevalence of commercial friendships and personal loyalty, especially considering that hairstylists invest a lot of individual effort in directly maintaining their clientele. Therefore, non-solicitation agreements that bar hairstylists from approaching clients once they leave a salon should be re-considered in the interest of safeguarding client satisfaction and hairstylist productivity. This may require restructuring legal requirements for establishing the existence of personal loyalty so that hairstylists can rightfully retain their loyal clients, as cautioned by Alberino (2016) and Fijman (2017). As an example, personal loyalty may be legally established when a hairstylist attains a certain number of exclusive repeat visits from a client. Thereafter, should the hairstylist relocate to another

salon, they would be allowed to solicit the client at no fee or penalty.

Since it is clear that hairstylists are the direct service providers in haircare service contexts, salon managers are recommended to implement structures to improve employee retention so that they can secure both hairstylists and their clients. As mentioned previously, this may include encouraging hairstylists to subscribe to guilds, associations and affiliations that are certified by service firms and institutions and that clients recognise and associate with high standards of haircare service.

REFERENCES

Ab Hamid, M.R., Sami, W. and Mohmad Sidek, M.H. (2017), "Discriminant validity assessment: use of Fornell & Larcker criterion versus HTMT criterion", *Journal of Physics: Conference Series*, Vol. 890, pp. 1–5.

Agbonkhese, J. and Aganbi, A. (2016), "Male hairdressers: why women prefer them", *Vanguard*, 23 June, available at: https://www.vanguardngr.com/2016/06/male-hairdressers-women-prefer/ (accessed 29 November 2016).

Ahrholdt, D.C., Gudergan, S.P. and Ringle, C.M. (2017), "Enhancing service loyalty: the roles of delight, satisfaction, and service quality", *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol. 56 No. 4, pp. 436–450.

Aijo, T.S. (1996), "The theoretical and philosophical underpinnings of relationship marketing", *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 30 No. 2, pp. 8–18.

Akamavi, R.K., Mohamed, E., Pellmann, K. and Xu, Y. (2015), "Key determinants of passenger loyalty in the low-cost airline business", *Tourism Management*, Vol. 46, pp. 528–545.

Alan, A.K., Kabadayi, E.T. and Yilmaz, C. (2016), "Cognitive and affective constituents of the consumption experience in retail service settings: effects on store loyalty", *Service Business*, Vol. 10 No. 4, pp. 715–735.

Alberino, T. (2016), "Professional Crisis: Who do the clients belong to?", *This Ugly Beauty Business*, 26 October, available at: https://www.thisuglybeautybusiness.com/2016/10/aasm-client-distribution-after-separation-who-gets-to-keep-the-clients.html (accessed 4 October 2019).

Algharabali, N. (2014), "'Right, what are we having done today?': examining cultural challenges in service-encounters at a British beauty salon in Kuwait", *Journal of Studies in Social Sciences*, Vol. 6 No. 2.

Ali, M. and Raza, S.A. (2017), "Service quality perception and customer satisfaction in Islamic banks of Pakistan: the modified SERVQUAL model", *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, Vol. 28 No. 5–6, pp. 559–577.

All Things Hair. (2017), "All Things Hair South Africa", *YouTube*, available at: https://www.youtube.com/channel/UC7hEFLu6SSG6kY2fPscK09w (accessed 6 December 2017).

Allen, J. (2017), "Europe – France: Hair Care Market Report 2017", *Cosmetics Business*, France, 1 September, available at:

https://www.cosmeticsbusiness.com/news/article_page/Europe__France_Hair_Care_Market_Report_2017/133243 (accessed 4 June 2017).

Alshmemri, M., Shahwan-Akl, L. and Maude, P. (2017), "Herzberg's two-factor theory", *Life Science Journal*, Vol. 14 No. 5, pp. 12–16.

Amoako, G.K., Dzogbenuku, R.K. and Doe, J.K. (2016), "How service experience leads to brand loyalty: perspective from the telecom sector in Ghana", *Journal of Brand Management*, Vol. 13 No. 2, pp. 33–56.

Andaleeb, S.S. (1996), "An experimental investigation of satisfaction and commitment in marketing channels: the role of trust and dependence", *Journal of Retailing*, Vol. 72 No. 1, pp. 77–93.

Anderson, E.W., Fornell, C. and Lehmann, D.R. (1994), "Customer satisfaction, market share and profitability: findings from Sweden", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 58 No. 3, pp. 53–66.

Anderson, E.W. and Sullivan, M.W. (1993), "The antecedents and consequences of customer satisfaction for firms", *Marketing Science*, Vol. 12 No. 2, pp. 125–143.

Andreev, P., Heart, T., Maoz, H. and Pliskin, N. (2009), "Validating formative partial least squares (PLS) models: methodological review and empirical illustration", *ICIS 2009 Proceedings*, presented at the Thirteenth International Conference of Information Systems, Association of Information Systems, Phoenix, Arizona.

Ansari, A. and Riasi, A. (2016), "Modelling and evaluating customer loyalty using neural networks: evidence from startup insurance companies", *Future Business Journal*, Vol. 2 No. 1, pp. 15–30.

Anselmsson, J., Vestman Bondesson, N. and Johansson, U. (2014), "Brand image and customers' willingness to pay a price premium for food brands", *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, Vol. 23 No. 2, pp. 90–102.

Anti, M. (2012), *Commercial Friendship from a Customer Perspective*, Master's Dissertation, Norwegian Business School, Oslo.

Armstrong, K. (2017), "Americas – Brazil: Hair Care Market Report 2017", *Cosmetics Business*, 1 September, available at: https://www.cosmeticsbusiness.com/news/ (accessed 19 February 2018).

Arnold, S.L., Nguyen, D.T. and Hartley, N. (2011), "Pro bono service sheds new light into commercial friendship", *Journal of Strategic Marketing*, Vol. 19 No. 4, pp. 381–394.

Austin, J. (2016), "Hair salons and barbershops are booming in South African townships.",

AFK Insider, 9 June, No. June, available at: https://afkinsider.com/126474/ (accessed 4 October 2016).

Back, K.-J. (2012), "Impact-range performance analysis and asymmetry analysis for improving quality of Korean food attributes", *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 31 No. 2, pp. 535–543.

Baden, D. and Prasad, S. (2016), "Applying behavioural theory to the challenge of sustainable development: using hairdressers as diffusers of more sustainable hair-care practices", *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 133 No. 2, pp. 335–349.

Bailey, D.C. (2014), *Milady Standard Natural Hair Care and Braiding*, Milady; Cengage Learning, New York.

Banan, M. (2013), "Libre-halaal software: defining halaal manner-of-existence of software", Free Protocols Foundation, 30 August, available at: http://www.by-star.net/content/ (accessed 5 November 2017).

Baque, C.S.O., Zhou, J., Gu, W., Collaudin, C., Kravtchenko, S., Kempf, J.Y. and Saint-Léger, D. (2012), "Relationships between hair growth rate and morphological parameters of human straight hair: a same law above ethnical origins?", *International Journal of Cosmetic Science*, Vol. 34 No. 2, pp. 111–116.

Barber, K. (2008), "The well-coiffed man: class, race, and heterosexual masculinity in the hair salon", *Gender & Society*, Vol. 22 No. 4, pp. 455–476.

Barber, K. (2016), *Styling Masculinity: Gender, Class, and Inequality in the Men's Grooming Industry*, Rutger's University Press, New Brunswick.

Barrie, Z. (2015), "6 reasons why your hairdresser is the best friend you've ever had", *Elite Daily*, 23 March, available at: https://www.elitedaily.com/women/why-stylist-is-your-true-bff/973406 (accessed 15 October 2016).

Barry, J.A. and Roper, T. (2016), "The development and initial validation of the wellbeing benefits of everyday activities scale (WEBEAS) and the hairstylists visit questionnaire (hvq): a short report.", *New Male Studies*, Vol. 5 No. 2.

Basfirinci, C. and Mitra, A. (2015), "A cross cultural investigation of airlines service quality through integration of SERVQUAL and the Kano model", *Journal of Air Transport Management*, Vol. 42, pp. 239–248.

Baxter, L., Hughes, C. and Tight, M. (2010), *How to Research*, 4th ed., Open University Press - McGraw-Hill Education, England.

Beatty, S.E., Ogilvie, J., Northington, W.M., Harrison, M.P., Holloway, B.B. and Wang, S.

(2016), "Frontline service employee compliance with customer special requests", *Journal of Service Research*, Vol. 19 No. 2, pp. 158–173.

Beauty South Africa. (2016a), "Carlton Hair just launched a loyalty app", *BeautySouthAfrica.Com*, 6 April, No. April, available at: http://beautysouthafrica.com/hair-and-nails/carlton-hair-just-launched-a-loyalty-app (accessed 10 February 2017).

Beauty South Africa. (2016b), "Carlton Hair just launched a loyalty app", *BeautySouthAfrica.Com*, 6 April, No. April, available at: http://beautysouthafrica.com/hair-and-nails/carlton-hair-just-launched-a-loyalty-app (accessed 10 February 2017).

Beauty West Africa. (2019), "Nigerian Beauty and Cosmetics Market Overview", *Beauty West Africa*, available at: https://www.beautywestafrica.com/market-overview/ (accessed 13 February 2019).

Beneke, J., Bruwer, J.-P., Corbishley, K., Frazer, M., Nel, J. and Pentz, C. (2016), *Retail Management: A South African Perspective*, edited by Terblanche, N.S., 2nd ed., Oxford University Press Southern Africa, Cape Town.

Bennet, R. and Rundle-Thiele, S. (2002), "A comparison of attitudinal loyalty measurement approaches", *Journal of Brand Management*, Vol. 9 No. 3, pp. 193–209.

Bentz, J., Lopes, F., Calado, H. and Dearden, P. (2016), "Enhancing satisfaction and sustainable management: whale watching in the Azores", *Tourism Management*, Vol. 54, pp. 465–476.

Berry, L.L. (1995), "Relationship marketing of services-growing interest, emerging perspectives", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 23 No. 4, pp. 236–245.

Berry, L.L. (2002), "Relationship marketing of services perspectives from 1983 and 2000", *Journal of Relationship Marketing*, Vol. 1 No. 1, pp. 59–77.

Bevan-Dye, A. (2016), *Profiling the Generation Y Cohort*, North-West University, Vaal Triangle Campus, Vanderbijlpark, available at: https://dspace.nwu.ac.za/bitstream/.

Bhattacherjee, A. (2001), "Understanding information systems continuance: an expectation-confirmation model", *MIS Quarterly*, Vol. 25 No. 3, pp. 351–370.

Bischof, J. (2014), "South africa in focus at johannesburg photo festival", 24 November, available at: http://www.newsweek.com/south-africa-focus-johannesburg-photo-festival-286571 (accessed 6 December 2017).

Blut, M., Frennea, C.M., Mittal, V. and Mothersbaugh, D.L. (2015), "How procedural, financial and relational switching costs affect customer satisfaction, repurchase intentions, and repurchase behavior: A meta-analysis", *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, Vol. 32 No. 2, pp. 226–229.

Borgerson, J.L. (2013), "The flickering consumer: new materialities and consumer research", *Consumer Culture Theory*, Vol. 15, Emerald Group Publishing Limited, pp. 125–144.

Bornman, E. (2010), "Emerging patterns of social identification in postapartheid South Africa", *Journal of Social Sciences*, Vol. 66 No. 2, pp. 237–254.

Bove, L.L. and Johnson, L.W. (2000), "A customer-service worker relationship model", *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, Vol. 11 No. 5, pp. 491–511.

Bove, L.L. and Johnson, L.W. (2002), "Predicting personal loyalty to a service worker", *Australasian Marketing Journal*, Vol. 10 No. 1, pp. 24–35.

Bove, L.L. and Johnson, L.W. (2006), "Customer loyalty to one service worker: should it be discouraged?", *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, Vol. 23 No. 1, pp. 79–91.

Bove, L.L. and Johnson, L.W. (2009), "Does 'true' personal or service loyalty last? A longitudinal study", *Journal of Services Marketing*, Vol. 23 No. 3, pp. 187–194.

Brady, M.K., Voorhees, C.M. and Brusco, M.J. (2012), "Service sweethearting: its antecedents and customer consequences", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 76 No. 2, pp. 81–98.

Bronner Brothers. (2017), "Bronner Bros. Internationals Beauty Show", *Bronner Bros. International Beauty Show*, available at: http://bronnerbros.com/ (accessed 18 May 2017).

Brown, G.H. (1953), "Brand loyalty - fact or fiction part i: articles and reports", *The Trademark Reporter*, Vol. 43, pp. 251–258.

Brown III, U.J. and Beale, R.I. (2008), "Services marketing: the role of customer satisfaction in the hair care industry", *Academy of Marketing Studies Journal*, Vol. 12 No. 1, pp. 57–70.

Bryman, A. (2012), *Social Research Methods*, Fourth edition., Oxford University Press, Oxford ; New York.

Bryman, A. and Bell, E. (2015), *Business Research Methods*, 4th ed., Oxford University Press, United Kingdom.

Burger, R., Steenekamp, C.L., van der Berg, S. and Zoch, A. (2015), "The emergent middle

class in contemporary South Africa: examining and comparing rival approaches", *Development Southern Africa*, Vol. 32 No. 1, pp. 25–40.

Burns, A.C., Bush, R.F. and Veeck, A. (2016), *Marketing Research*, Pearson Education Limited, New York; London.

Business Tech. (2018), "More South Africans are turning to loyalty programmes to save money – these are 5 of the best ones right now", *Business Tech*, South Africa, 14 July, p. 1.

Busser, J. and Shulgar, L. (2019), "Role of commercial friendship, initiation and co-creation types", *Journal of Service Theory and Practice*, Vol. ahead-of-print No. ahead-of-print, p. ahead-of-print.

Butt, A.S. and Ahmad, A.B. (2019), "Personal relationship and conflicts in supply chains", *Benchmarking: An International Journal*, Vol. 26 No. 7, pp. 2225–2241.

Buttle, F. and Maklan, S. (2019), *Customer Relationship Management: Concepts and Technologies*, Fourth Edition., Routledge, New York, available at: https://0-ebookcentral-proquest-com.innopac.wits.ac.za/lib/wits-ebooks/detail.action?docID=5755765 (accessed 5 November 2019).

Button, M.L., Norouzian, N., Westra, H.A., Constantino, M.J. and Antony, M.M. (2018), "Client reflections on confirmation and disconfirmation of expectations in cognitive behavioral therapy for generalized anxiety disorder with and without motivational interviewing", *Psychotherapy Research*, Vol. 0 No. 0, pp. 1–14.

Cabrera, R. and Antoine, D. (2015), *Classic Tailoring Techniques for Menswear: A Construction Guide*, Bloomsbury Academic, Australia.

Cant, M.C., Van Heerden, C.H. and Makhitha, M. (Eds.). (2017), *Marketing Management*, 3rd ed., Juta and Company (Pty) Ltd, Cape Town.

Cardozo, R.N. (1965), "An experimental study of customer effort, expectation and satisfaction", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 2 No. 3, pp. 244–249.

Carifio, J. and Perla, R.J. (2007), "Ten common misunderstandings, misconceptions, persistent myths and urban legends about likert scales and likert response formats and their antidotes", *Journal of Social Sciences*, Vol. 3 No. 3, pp. 106–116.

Carlton Hair. (2019), "Current Promotions", *Carltonhair.Com*, available at: https://www.carltonhair.com/current-promotions/ (accessed 5 October 2019).

Carr, R.L. (2013), "On why clients prefer male hairdressers", *Rachel Lynn Carr*, 9 February, available at: https://rachellynncarr.wordpress.com/2013 (accessed 29 November 2016).

Carter, C., Krissoff, B. and Zwane, A.P. (2006), "Can country-of-origin labeling succeed as a marketing tool for produce? Lessons from three case studies", *Canadian Journal of Agricultural Economics/Revue Canadienne d'agroeconomie*, Vol. 54 No. 4, pp. 513–530.

Carter, L. and Belanger, F. (2005), "The utilization of e-government services: citizen trust, innovation and acceptance factors", *Information Systems Journal*, Vol. 15 No. 1, pp. 5–25.

Caruana, A. (2002), "Service loyalty: the effects of service quality and the mediating role of customer satisfaction", *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 36 No. 7/8, pp. 811–828.

Casidy, R. and Wymer, W. (2016), "A risk worth taking: perceived risk as moderator of satisfaction, loyalty, and willingness-to-pay premium price", *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, Vol. 32, pp. 189–197.

Central Johannesburg College. (2016), "Hair care department", *Study Opportunities*, available at: http://www.cjc.edu.za/study-opportunities/school-of-health-and-human-services/hair-care-department/ (accessed 15 August 2016).

Chai, J.C.Y., Malhotra, N.K. and Alpert, F. (2015), "A two-dimensional model of trust–value–loyalty in service relationships", *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, Vol. 26, pp. 23–31.

Chase, R.B. (2010), "Revisiting 'Where does the customer fit in a service operation?'", in Maglio, P.P. (Ed.), *Handbook of Service, Science, Service Science: Research in the Service Economy*, Springer Science and Business Media, Los Angeles, California.

Chase, R.B. and Tansik, D.A. (1983), "The customer contact model for organization design", *Management Science*, Vol. 29 No. 9, pp. 1037–1050.

Chaudhuri, A. and Holbrook, M.B. (2001), "The chain of effects from brand trust and brand affect to brand performance: the role of brand loyalty", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 65 No. 2, pp. 81–93.

Chawane, M. (2014), "The appearance and significance of Rastafari cultural aspects in South Africa.", available at: https://repository.nwu.ac.za:443/ (accessed 15 December 2017).

Chen, I. and Gupta, A. (1995), "Service quality: implications for management development", *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*, Vol. 12 No. 7, pp. 28–35.

Chen, S.-C. (2015), "Customer value and customer loyalty: is competition a missing link?", *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, Vol. 22, pp. 107–116.

Chin, W.W. (1998), "Issues and opinion on structural equation modeling", *Management*

Information Stystems Quarterly, Vol. 22 No. 1, pp. 7–16.

Chow, S. and Holden, R. (1997), "Toward an understanding of loyalty: the moderating role of trust", *Journal of Managerial Issues*, Vol. 9 No. 3, pp. 275–298.

City of Johannesburg. (2017), "City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality", *Municipalities of South Africa*, available at: https://municipalities.co.za/map/2/city-of-johannesburg-metropolitan-municipality (accessed 15 December 2017).

Coelho, P.S. and Henseler, J. (2012), "Creating customer loyalty through service customization", *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 46 No. 3/4, pp. 331–356.

Cohen, R.L. (2008), "Work relations and the multiple dimensions of the work-life boundary: hairstyling at home", in Warhurst, C., Eikhof, D.R. and Haunschild, A. (Eds.), *Work Less, Live More? A Critical Analysis of the Work-Life Boundary*, Palgrave, Bassingstroke, pp. 115–135.

Cohen, R.L. (2010a), "Rethinking 'mobile work': boundaries of space, time and social relation in the working lives of mobile hairstylists", *Work, Employment and Society*, Vol. 24 No. 1, pp. 65–84.

Cohen, R.L. (2010b), "When it pays to be friendly: employment relationships and emotional labour in hairstyling", *The Sociological Review*, Vol. 58 No. 2, pp. 197–218.

Coleman, A. (2013), "Cutting it as a freelance hairdresser", *Mail and Guardian*, London, 16 August, p. 3.

Collier, J.E. and Bienstock, C.C. (2015), "A Conceptual Framework for Measuring E-Service Quality", *Creating and Delivering Value in Marketing*, Springer, Cham, pp. 158–162.

Collins, M.D., Nale, R.D., Barr, P.B. and Rauch, D.A. (2015), "Measuring service quality in mid-scale hotels", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 27 No. 1, pp. 87–106.

Cossio-Silva, F.-J., Revilla-Camacho, M.-Á., Vega-Vázquez, M. and Palacios-Florencio, B. (2016), "Value co-creation and customer loyalty", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 69 No. 5, pp. 1621–1625.

Creswell, J.W. and Creswell, J.D. (2018), *Research Design: Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed Method Approaches*, 5th ed., Sage Publications Inc., Singapore.

Creswell, J.W. and Poth, C.N. (2018), *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among Five Approaches*, 4th ed., SAGE Publications, Singapore.

Cronbach, L.J. and Meehl, P.E. (1955), "Construct validity in psychological tests.",

Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 52 No. 4, pp. 281–302.

Cronin, J.J., Brady, M.K. and Hult, G.T.M. (2000), "Assessing the effects of quality, value, and customer satisfaction on consumer behavioral intentions in service environments", *Journal of Retailing*, Vol. 76 No. 2, pp. 193–218.

Cronin, J.J. and Taylor, S.A. (1992), "Measuring service quality: a reexamination and extension", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 56 No. 3, pp. 55–68.

Cronin, J.J. and Taylor, S.A. (1994), "SERVPERF versus SERVQUAL: reconciling performance-based and perceptions-minus-expectations measurement of service quality", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 58 No. 1, pp. 125–131.

Crouch, M. (2017), "Secrets hair stylists won't tell you", *Reader's Digest*, available at: https://www.rd.com/health/beauty/hair-stylist-tips/ (accessed 15 December 2017).

Cyril de Run, E. and Muhammad Butt, M. (2010), "Private healthcare quality: applying a SERVQUAL model", *International Journal of Health Care Quality Assurance*, Vol. 23 No. 7, pp. 658–673.

D & B Hoovers. (2017), "Industry Overview - Companies & Details - Hoovers.com", available at: http://www.hoovers.com/industry-analysis/ (accessed 7 December 2017).

Dabholkar, P.A., Thorpe, D.I. and Rentz, J.O. (1996), "A measure of service quality for retail stores: Scale development and validation", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 24 No. 3, p. 14.

Data USA. (2017), "Hairdressers, hairstylists, & cosmetologists", *Data USA*, available at: https://datausa.io/profile/soc/395012/ (accessed 1 December 2017).

Dawes, J.G. (2018), "Price promotions: examining the buyer mix and subsequent changes in purchase loyalty", *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, Vol. 35 No. 4, pp. 366–376.

Day, G.S. (1976), "A two-dimensional concept of brand loyalty", *Mathematical Models in Marketing*, Vol. 132, Springer, Berlin, Heidelburg, pp. 89–89.

De la Mettrie, R., Saint-Léger, D., Loussouarn, G., Garcel, A., Porter, C. and Langaney, A. (2007), "Shape variability and classification of human hair: a worldwide approach", *Human Biology*, No. June, pp. 265–281.

De Silva, W. (2015), "A proposed modified SERVQUAL model to assess the effectiveness of IT service delivery function", *International Journal of Engineering and Management Research*, Vol. 5 No. 5, pp. 25–28.

Demir, M., Orthel-Clark, H., Özdemir, M. and Özdemir, S.B. (2015), "Friendship and

Happiness Among Young Adults", *Friendship and Happiness*, Springer, Dordrecht, pp. 117–135.

Deng, W.J., Yeh, M.L. and Sung, M.L. (2013), "A customer satisfaction index model for international tourist hotels: Integrating consumption emotions into the American Customer Satisfaction Index", *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 35, pp. 133–140.

Department of Labour. (1997), *Basic Conditions of Employment*, available at: http://www.labour.gov.za/ (accessed 21 December 2016).

Department of Trade and Industry. (2016), "L'Oreal Research and Innovation Centre a clear indication of commitment in South Africa and African continent.", *The DTI.Gov*, 28 July, available at: https://www.thedti.gov.za/editmedia.jsp?id=3812 (accessed 6 December 2017).

DeShields, O.W., Kaynak, E. and Kara, A. (2005), "Determinants of business student satisfaction and retention in higher education: applying Herzberg's two-factor theory", *International Journal of Educational Management*, Vol. 19 No. 2, pp. 128–139.

Diagonal Reports. (2011), *Professional Haircare Market South Africa*, Diagonal Reports, Ireland, available at: http://www.diagonalreports.com/ (accessed 5 March 2016).

Dick, A.S. and Basu, K. (1994), "Customer loyalty: toward an integrated conceptual framework", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 22 No. 2, pp. 99–113.

Dixit, S.K. (2017), *The Routledge Handbook of Consumer Behaviour in Hospitality and Tourism*, Routledge.

Dlamini, S. and Chinje, N.B. (2019), "The influence of loyalty programs on south african youth's repeat purchase behaviour", *Journal of Business and Retail Management Research*, Vol. Volume 13 No. Issue 3, pp. 235–247.

Donahoo, S. (2019), "Owning Black Hair: The Pursuit of Identity and Authenticity in Higher Education", in Price-Williams, S. and Matita, F. (Eds.), *Navigating Micro-Aggressions Toward Women in Higher Education*, IGI Global, Pennsylvania, pp. 73–95.

Dorcas. (2008), "Why Do People from Different Race Have Different Hair Types? Find Out!", *Fair Haircare*, Blog, , April, available at: http://fairhaircare.blogspot.com/2008/04/why-do-people-from-different-race-have.html (accessed 7 December 2017).

Douglas, J.A., Douglas, A., McClelland, R.J. and Davies, J. (2015), "Understanding student satisfaction and dissatisfaction: an interpretive study in the UK higher education context", *Studies in Higher Education*, Vol. 40 No. 2, pp. 329–349.

Dube, J.-P., Hitsch, G.J. and Rossi, P.E. (2009), "Do Switching Costs Make Markets Less Competitive?", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 46 No. 4, pp. 435–445.

Durrani, B.A., Godil, D.I., Baig, M.U. and Sajid, S. (2015), "Impact of brand on buying behaviour among teenagers", *European Scientific Journal*, Vol. 11 No. 5, pp. 155–168.

Eboli, L. and Mazzulla, G. (2009), "A New Customer Satisfaction Index for Evaluating Transit Service Quality", *Journal of Public Transportation*, Vol. 12 No. 3, pp. 21–37.

Eid, R. (2015), "Integrating Muslim Customer Perceived Value, Satisfaction, Loyalty and Retention in the Tourism Industry: An empirical study", *International Journal of Tourism Research*, Vol. 17 No. 3, pp. 249–260.

Eighty20 and Tritech Media. (2018), *2018 Loyalty Programme Member Engagement Survey*, Industry Research Report, South Africa, available at: http://www.eighty20.co.za/app/uploads/2018/06/2018-Loyalty-Report.pdf.

Ekwujuru, P. (2018), "Nigeria: Hair & Beauty Market - Local and Foreign Brands Battle for Supremacy", *Vanguard (Lagos)*, 7 February, available at: https://allafrica.com/stories/ (accessed 2 December 2018).

Elsesser, K. (2013), "Why Are All the Top Hairstylists Men?", 11 October, available at: http://www.kimelsesser.com/ (accessed 7 February 2016).

Emekalam, K. (2017), "Africa's hair care industry grows by billions", *CGTN America*, News, , 14 April, available at: https://america.cgtn.com/ (accessed 2 August 2017).

Epstein, L. and Posner, E.A. (2016), "Supreme court justices' loyalty to the president", *The Journal of Legal Studies*, Vol. 45 No. 2, pp. 401–436.

Euromonitor International. (2016a), "Hair Care in South Africa: Market Research Report", May, available at: https://www.euromonitor.com/hair-care-in-south- (accessed 5 August 2016).

Euromonitor International. (2016b), "Hair Care in Brazil: Market research report", available at: http://www.euromonitor.com/hair-care-in-brazil/ (accessed 27 November 2017).

Euromonitor International. (2017), "Hair Care in Brazil", May, available at: http://www.euromonitor.com/hair-care-in-brazil/report (accessed 27 November 2017).

Euromonitor International. (2018a), "Hair Care in France: Market Research Report", Market research report, , May, available at: https://www.euromonitor.com/hair-care-in-france/report (accessed 4 December 2018).

Euromonitor International. (2018b), "Hair Care in Nigeria: Market research report", May,

available at: https://www.euromonitor.com/hair-care-in-nigeria/report (accessed 13 December 2018).

Evangelidis, I. and Van Osselaer, S.M.J. (2018), "Points of (Dis)parity: Expectation Disconfirmation from Common Attributes in Consumer Choice", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 55 No. 1, pp. 1–13.

Evans-Anfom, L.F. (2014), *Ghanaian Women and the Use of Human Hair Extensions*, Thesis, Ashesi University College, Berekuso, Ghana, April, available at: https://air.ashesi.edu.gh/handle/20.500.11988/109 (accessed 4 November 2016).

Expat Cape Town. (2016), "South Africa People: The Rainbow Nation - South African Population Facts 2014", *Expat Cape Town*, available at: http://www.expatcapetown.com/ (accessed 7 December 2017).

Farley, J.U. (1964), "Why does 'brand loyalty' vary over products?", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 1 No. 4, pp. 9–14.

Fausto, B. and Fausto, S. (2014), *A Concise History of Brazil*, 2nd ed., Cambridge University Press, New York.

Fernbach, M. (2016), "Cosmetology: A Beautiful Career", *ESSAI*, Vol. 14 No. 18, pp. 60–66.

Ferreira, A., Coventry, L. and Lenzini, G. (2015), "Principles of Persuasion in Social Engineering and Their Use in Phishing", in Tryfonas, T. and Askoxylakis, I. (Eds.), *Human Aspects of Information Security, Privacy, and Trust*, Springer International Publishing, pp. 36–47.

Festinger, L. (1962), *A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance*, Stanford University Press, California.

Fihlani, P. (2013), "SA thieves targeting dreadlocks", *BBC News*, 27 February, available at: http://www.bbc.com/news/world-africa-21498878 (accessed 21 June 2016).

Fijman, P.D.L.-M. (2017), "Social media complications in the enforcement of non-solicitation agreements", *Law Business Research*, 24 October, p. 1.

Fornell, C., Johnson, M.D., Anderson, E.W., Cha, J. and Bryant, B.E. (1996), "The American Customer Satisfaction Index: Nature, Purpose, and Findings", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 60 No. 4, pp. 7–18.

Fornell, C. and Larcker, D.F. (1981), "Evaluating Structural Equation Models with Unobservable Variables and Measurement Error", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 18 No. 1, pp. 39–50.

Foster, J. and McLelland, M.A. (2015), "Retail atmospherics: The impact of a brand dictated

theme", *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, Vol. 22, pp. 195–205.

Free State Goldfields Chamber of Business. (2016), "EAHCSA – Employers Association Hairdressing & Cosmetology of South Africa", available at: http://fschamber.co.za/wp/ (accessed 6 December 2017).

Freitas, F.A. and Leonard, L.J. (2011), "Maslow's hierarchy of needs and student academic success", *Teaching and Learning in Nursing*, Vol. 6 No. 1, pp. 9–13.

Friman, M., Gärling, T., Millett, B., Mattsson, J. and Johnston, R. (2002), "An analysis of international business-to-business relationships based on the Commitment–Trust theory", *Industrial Marketing Management*, Vol. 31 No. 5, pp. 403–409.

Fullerton, G. (2014), "The moderating effect of normative commitment on the service quality-customer retention relationship", *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 48 No. 3/4, pp. 657–673.

Galeeva, R.B. (2016), "SERVQUAL application and adaptation for educational service quality assessments in Russian higher education", *Quality Assurance in Education*, Vol. 24 No. 3, pp. 329–348.

Garzaniti, I., Pearce, G. and Stanton, J. (2011), "Building friendships and relationships: the role of conversation in hairdressing service encounters", *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, Vol. 21 No. 6, pp. 667–687.

Gavazzoni Dias, M.F.R. (2015), "Hair Cosmetics: An Overview", *International Journal of Trichology*, Vol. 7 No. 1, pp. 2–15.

GaWC Research Network. (2018), "City Link Classification 2018", *GaWC Research Network*, Research Forum, , available at: https://www.lboro.ac.uk/gawc/world2018link.html (accessed 24 September 2019).

Gentina, E., Butori, R., Rose, G.M. and Bakir, A. (2014), "How national culture impacts teenage shopping behavior: Comparing French and American consumers", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 67 No. 4, pp. 464–470.

Giese, J.L. and Cote, J.A. (2002), "Defining Consumer Satisfaction", *Academy of Marketing Science Review; Vancouver*, Vol. 2000 No. 1, pp. 1–24.

Gimlin, D. (1996), "Pamela's place: Power and Negotiation in the Hair Salon", *Gender & Society*, Vol. 10 No. 5, pp. 505–526.

Goo, J. and Huang, C. (2008), "Facilitating relational governance through service level agreements in IT outsourcing: an application of the commitment–trust theory", *Decision Support Systems*, Vol. 46 No. 1, pp. 216–232.

Gordon, D. (2016), “Crossing borders, blurring boundaries: comparative meanings of beauty in Brazil, South Africa and Jamaica”, *Ideaz*, Vol. 14, pp. 101–132.

Gremler, D.D. and Brown, S.W. (1998), “Service loyalty: antecedents, components, and outcomes”, *American Marketing Association. Conference Proceedings; Chicago*, Vol. 9, pp. 165–166.

Gronroos, C. (1984), “A Service Quality Model and its Marketing Implications”, *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 18 No. 4, pp. 36–44.

Gronroos, C. (1988), “Service Quality: The Six Criteria Of Good Perceived Service”, *Review of Business; New York*, Vol. 9 No. 3, p. 10.

Gronroos, C. (2011), “A service perspective on business relationships: The value creation, interaction and marketing interface”, *Industrial Marketing Management*, Vol. 40 No. 2, pp. 240–247.

Gronroos, C. (2019), “Are you ready for relationship marketing? It is a business challenge”, in Parvatiyar, A. and Sisodia, R. (Eds.), *Handbook of Advances in Marketing in an Era of Disruptions: Essays in Honour of Jagdish N. Sheth*, Sage Publications, India, p. Part V: 27.

Gronroos, C. and Gummesson, E. (2012), “The emergence of the new service marketing: Nordic School perspectives”, *Journal of Service Management*, Vol. 23 No. 4, pp. 479–497.

Guenzi, P. and Georges, L. (2010), “Interpersonal trust in commercial relationships: Antecedents and consequences of customer trust in the salesperson”, *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 44 No. 1/2, pp. 114–138.

Gustafsson, A., Johnson, M.D. and Roos, I. (2005), “The effects of customer satisfaction, relationship commitment dimensions, and triggers on customer retention”, *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 69 No. 4, pp. 210–218.

Gutek, B.A., Bhappu, A.D., Liao-Troth, M.A. and Cherry, B. (1999), “Distinguishing between service relationships and encounters”, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 84 No. 2, pp. 218–233.

Gwinner, K.P., Bitner, M.J., Brown, S.W. and Kumar, A. (2005), “Service Customization Through Employee Adaptiveness”, *Journal of Service Research*, Vol. 8 No. 2, pp. 131–148.

Haddon, G. (2011), “The Salon Index as Spain’s Economic Indicator”, *Public Radio International*, 13 December, available at: https://www.pri.org/stories/2011-12-13/ (accessed 22 December 2017).

Haddon, M. (2013), "The art of interaction", *South African Hairdressers' Journal*, Vol. 172 No. April, p. 60.

Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J. and Anderson, R.E. (2010), *Multivariate Data Analysis: A Global Perspective*, 7th ed., Pearson Education Inc., New Jersey.

Hair, J.F., Hollingsworth, C.L., Randolph, A.B. and Chong, A.Y. (2017), "An Updated and Expanded Assessment of PLS-SEM in Information Systems Research", *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, Vol. 117 No. 3, pp. 442–458.

Hair, J.F., Hult, G.T.M., Ringle, C.M. and Sarstedt, M. (2017), *A Primer on Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling (PLS-SEM)*, Second edition., Sage, Los Angeles.

Hair, J.F., Matthews, L.M., Matthews, R.L. and Sarstedt, M. (2017), "PLS-SEM or CB-SEM: updated guidelines on which method to use", *International Journal of Multivariate Data Analysis*, Vol. 1 No. 2, pp. 107–123.

Hair, J.F., Risher, J.J., Sarstedt, M. and Ringle, C.M. (2019), "When to use and how to report the results of PLS-SEM", *European Business Review*, available at:https://doi.org/10.1108/EBR-11-2018-0203.

Hairstyle on Point. (2017), "30 Of the Most Famous Men Haircut Names - Hairstyle on Point", available at: https://hairstyleonpoint.com/30-of-the-most-famous-men-haircut-names/ (accessed 2 June 2017).

Hallowell, R. (1996), "The relationships of customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, and profitability: an empirical study", *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, Vol. 7 No. 4, pp. 27–42.

Halstead, D., Hartman, D. and Schmidt, S.L. (1994), "Multisource Effects on the Satisfaction Formation Process", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 22 No. 2, pp. 114–129.

Hamilton, M.W. (2006), *Global Cities of the South: Mexico City and Johannesburg in an Era of Globalisation*, Assignment, Unversity of Stellenbosch, South Africa, available at: https://scholar.sun.ac.za › bitstream › handle › hamilton_global_2006.

Han, H., Kim, Y. and Kim, E.-K. (2011), "Cognitive, affective, conative, and action loyalty: Testing the impact of inertia", *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 30 No. 4, pp. 1008–1019.

Han, X., Kwortnik, R.J.Jr. and Wang, C. (2008), "An Integrative Model and Examination across Service Contexts", *Journal of Service Research*, Vol. 11 No. 1, pp. 22–42.

Hanson, K. (2019), "Beauty 'Therapy': The Emotional Labor of Commercialized Listening in the Salon Industry", *International Journal of Listening*, Vol. 33 No. 3, pp. 148–153.

Harrison-Walker, J.L. (2002), "Examination of the Factorial Structure of Service Quality: A Multi-Firm Analysis", *The Service Industries Journal*, Vol. 22 No. 2, pp. 59–72.

Harrison-Walker, L.J. (2000), "Service Quality in the Hair Salon Industry", *Journal of Business Disciplines*, Vol. 1, pp. 37–52.

Hartel, C.E.J. and Russell-Bennett, R. (2010), "Heart versus mind: the functions of emotional and cognitive loyalty", *Australasian Marketing Journal (AMJ)*, Vol. 18 No. 1, pp. 1–7.

Hashim, K.F. and Tan, F.B. (2015), "The mediating role of trust and commitment on members' continuous knowledge sharing intention: A commitment-trust theory perspective", *International Journal of Information Management*, Vol. 35 No. 2, pp. 145–151.

HCSBC. (2016), "HCSBC – National Bargaining Council for the Hairdressing Cosmetology Beauty and Skincare Industry of South Africa", available at: http://www.hcsbc.co.za/ (accessed 6 December 2017).

Hegner-Kakar, A.-K., Richter, N.F. and Ringle, C.M. (2018), "The Customer Loyalty Cascade and Its Impact on Profitability in Financial Services", in Avkiran, N.K. and Ringle, C.M. (Eds.), *Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling: Recent Advances in Banking and Finance*, Springer International Publishing, Cham, pp. 53–75.

Hennig-Thurau, T., Gwinner, K.P. and Gremler, D.D. (2002), "Understanding Relationship Marketing Outcomes: An Integration of Relational Benefits and Relationship Quality", *Journal of Service Research*, Vol. 4 No. 3, pp. 230–247.

Henseler, J., Ringle, C.M. and Sarstedt, M. (2015), "A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 43 No. 1, pp. 115–135.

Herhausen, D., Kleinlercher, K., Verhoef, P.C., Emrich, O. and Rudolph, T. (2019), "Loyalty Formation for Different Customer Journey Segments", *Journal of Retailing*, Vol. 95 No. 3, pp. 9–29.

Herington, C. and Weaven, S. (2009), "E-retailing by banks: e-service quality and its importance to customer satisfaction", *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 43 No. 9/10, pp. 1220–1231.

Herzberg, F., Mausner, B. and Snyderman, B.B. (1959), *The Motivation to Work*, John Wiley & Sons, New York.

Hill, N. and Alexander, J. (2017), *Handbook on Customer Satisfaction and Loyalty*

Measurement, 3rd ed., Routledge; Taylor and Francis Group, London and New York.

Hill, N. and Brierley, J. (2017), *How to Measure Customer Satisfaction*, 2nd ed., Routledge, London, available at: https://www.taylorfrancis.com/books/9781351930055 (accessed 15 May 2018).

Hmar, J. (2011), "Women prefer having a man style their tresses - Times of India", *The Times of India*, available at: http://timesofindia.indiatimes.com/ (accessed 29 November 2016).

Holodny, E. (2014), "Unusual Economic Indicators - Business Insider", 20 November, available at: http://www.businessinsider.com/unusual-economic-indicators-2014-10 (accessed 22 June 2016).

Hong, Q., Wang, Y., Gu, S. and Yu, L. (2008), "An epistemological critique of gap theory based library assessment: the case of SERVQUAL", *Journal of Documentation*, Vol. 64 No. 4, pp. 511–551.

Hoyle, D. (2001), *ISO 9000 Quality Systems Handbook*, 4th ed., Butterworth-Heinemann, Oxford ; Boston.

Hussain, R., Al Nasser, A. and Hussain, Y.K. (2015), "Service quality and customer satisfaction of a UAE-based airline: An empirical investigation", *Journal of Air Transport Management*, Vol. 42, pp. 167–175.

Industry ARC. (2018), *Professional Hair Care Market Research Report: Market Size, Industry Outlook, Market Forecast, Demand Analysis, Market Share, Market Report 2018-2023*, Market analysis No. CPR 0002, Industry ARC, available at: https://industryarc.com/Report/ (accessed 4 January 2019).

Ivanauskien, N. (2014), "Relations between Service Quality and Customer Loyalty: An Empirical Investigation of Retail Chain Stores in Emerging Markets", Vol. 3 No. 2, p. 9.

Jacobsen, K.A. (2017), "Sikhism", *Sikh Formations*, Vol. 13 No. 1–2, pp. 139–142.

Jacoby, J. and Chestnut, R.W. (1978), *Brand Loyalty*, John Wiley & Sons, New York.

Jacoby, J. and Kyner, D.B. (1973), "Brand loyalty vs. repeat purchasing behavior", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 10 No. 1, pp. 1–9.

Jain, S.K. and Gupta, G. (2004), "Measuring Service Quality: Servqual vs. Servperf Scales", *Vikalpa*, Vol. 29 No. 2, pp. 25–38.

Jiang, L., Jun, M. and Yang, Z. (2016), "Customer-perceived value and loyalty: how do key

service quality dimensions matter in the context of B2C e-commerce?", *Service Business*, Vol. 10 No. 2, pp. 301–317.

Jiang, Z., Nevskaya, Y. and Thomadsen, R. (2016), *Can Non-Tiered Customer Loyalty Programs Be Profitable?*, SSRN Scholarly Paper No. ID 2759888, Social Science Research Network, Rochester, New York, available at: https://papers.ssrn.com/ (accessed 22 December 2017).

Jin, B. and Kim, S. (2002), "Validating the retail service quality scale for US and Korean customers of discount stores: an exploratory study", *Journal of Services Marketing*, Vol. 16 No. 3, pp. 223–237.

Johnson, E. (2016), *Resistance and Empowerment in Black Women's Hair Styling*, Routledge, New York.

Johnson, M.D., Gustafsson, A., Andreassen, T.W., Lervik, L. and Cha, J. (2001), "The evolution and future of national customer satisfaction index models", *Journal of Economic Psychology*, Vol. 22 No. 2, pp. 217–245.

Johnston, K.A. (2018), "Toward a Theory of Social Engagement", *The Handbook of Communication Engagement*, Wiley-Blackwell, pp. 17–32.

Jones, A. (2011), "Hair salons and barbershops: A growing industry", *CNN*, 15 October, available at: http://www.cnn.com/2011/10/15/us/hair-salons-economy/index.html (accessed 22 June 2016).

Jones, T.O. (1996), "Why Satisfied Customers Defect", *Journal of Management in Engineering*, Vol. 12 No. 6, pp. 11–11.

Jung, J.H. and Yoo, J. (2019), "The effects of deviant customer-oriented behaviors on service friendship: The moderating role of co-production", *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, Vol. 48, pp. 60–69.

Kalicharan, H.D. (2014), "The Effect And Influence Of Country-Of-Origin On Consumers Perception Of Product Quality And Purchasing Intentions | International Business & Economics Research Journal (IBER)", *International Business and Economics Research Journal*, Vol. 13 No. 5, available at: http://clutejournals.com/index.php (accessed 1 November 2018).

Kalkowski, P. and Paul, G. (2017), "Wellness Customers and Their Needs", in Benkő, Z., Modi, I. and Tarkó, K. (Eds.), *Leisure, Health and Well-Being: A Holistic Approach*, Springer International Publishing, Cham, pp. 61–72.

Kane, S. (2017), "What Employers Should Know About Their Gen Y Employees", *The Balance*, 23 October, available at: https://www.thebalance.com/ (accessed 11

December 2017).

Kasiri, L.A., Guan Cheng, K.T., Sambasivan, M. and Sidin, S.Md. (2017), "Integration of standardization and customization: Impact on service quality, customer satisfaction, and loyalty", *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, Vol. 35, pp. 91–97.

Kaul, S. (2007), "Measuring Retail Service Quality: Examining Applicability of International Research Perspectives in India", *Vikalpa: The Journal for Decision Makers*, Vol. 32 No. 1, pp. 15–26.

Kazdin, A.E. (2017), "Addressing the treatment gap: a key challenge for extending evidence-based psychosocial interventions", *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, Vol. 88, pp. 7–18.

Kekana, M. (2015), "Township hair salons attracting big business", 3 September, available at: http://ewn.co.za/2015/09/03/Township-hair-salons-attracting-big-business (accessed 26 June 2016).

Klemperer, P. (1995), "Competition when Consumers have Switching Costs: An Overview with Applications to Industrial Organization, Macroeconomics, and International Trade", *The Review of Economic Studies*, Vol. 62 No. 4, pp. 515–539.

Kline, R.B. (2011), *Principles and Practices Structural Equation Modeling*, 3rd ed., The Guilford Press, London.

Knutson, B., Stevens, P., Wullaert, C., Patton, M. and Yokoyama, F. (1990), "LODGSERV: a service quality index for the lodging industry", *Hospitality Research Journal*, Vol. 14 No. 2, pp. 227–284.

Kotler, P., Armstrong, G. and Opresnik, M.O. (2018), *Principles of Marketing*, 17th ed., Global ed., Pearson Education Limited, Harlow.

Kowalkowski, C. (2015), "Speed of service innovation and the increasing role of real time experimentation", in Gummerus, J. and Koskull, K. von (Eds.), *The Nordic School - Service Marketing and Management for the Future*, Centre for Relationship Marketing and Service Management, Hanken School of Economics, Helsinki, Finland, pp. 55–67.

Krommenhoek, R.E. and Galpin, J.S. (2013), "Statistical research design analysis", Course notes, Course notes, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.

Krystallis, A. and Chrysochou, P. (2014), "The effects of service brand dimensions on brand loyalty", *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, Vol. 21 No. 2, pp. 139–147.

Kumar, V. and Reinartz, W. (2018), "Future of CRM", in Kumar, V. and Reinartz, W. (Eds.), *Customer Relationship Management: Concept, Strategy, and Tools*, Springer, Berlin,

Heidelberg, pp. 385–404.

Laeti, F., Y. (2015), "Therapy sessions with a hairdresser", *NewsActivist*, Educational Community Network, , available at: http://newsactivist.com/ (accessed 19 September 2016).

Lamb, C.W., Hair, J.F., McDaniel, C., Boshoff, C., Terblanche, N., Elliot, R. and Klopper, H. (2015), *Marketing*, 4th ed., Oxford University Press Southern Africa.

Leckie, C., Nyadzayo, M.W. and Johnson, L.W. (2016), "Antecedents of consumer brand engagement and brand loyalty", *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 32 No. 5–6, pp. 558–578.

Lee, L., Lee, M.J. and Dewald, B. (2016), "Measuring the customers' perception of tangible service quality in the restaurant industry: An emphasis on the upscale dining segment", *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, Vol. 19 No. 1, pp. 21–38.

Leibbrandt, M. and Zizzamia, R. (2017), "Stable middle-class in SA may be smaller than thought, study shows", *Business Day*, Cape Town, 2 October, available at: https://www.businesslive.co.za/bd/opinion/2017-10-02-stable-middle-class-in-sa-may-be-smaller-than-thought-study-shows/ (accessed 21 December 2017).

Leong, L.-Y., Hew, T.-S., Lee, V.-H. and Ooi, K.-B. (2015), "An SEM–artificial-neural-network analysis of the relationships between SERVPERF, customer satisfaction and loyalty among low-cost and full-service airline", *Expert Systems with Applications*, Vol. 42 No. 19, pp. 6620–6634.

Lewis, M. (2004), "The Influence of Loyalty Programs and Short-Term Promotions on Customer Retention", *Journal of Marketing Research (JMR)*, Vol. 41 No. 3, pp. 281–292.

Lewis, M.L. (1999), "Hair combing interactions: A new paradigm for research with African-American mothers", *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, Vol. 69 No. 4, pp. 504–514.

Ligas, M. and Chaudhuri, A. (2012), "The moderating roles of shopper experience and store type on the relationship between perceived merchandise value and willingness to pay a higher price", *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, Vol. 19 No. 2, pp. 249–258.

Lin, J.-S.C. and Lin, C.-Y. (2011), "What makes service employees and customers smile: Antecedents and consequences of the employees' affective delivery in the service encounter", *Journal of Service Management*, Vol. 22 No. 2, pp. 183–201.

Liu, C.-T., Guo, Y.M. and Lee, C.-H. (2011), "The effects of relationship quality and switching barriers on customer loyalty", *International Journal of Information Management*, Vol.

31 No. 1, pp. 71–79.

Lloyd, A.E. and Luk, S.T.K. (2011), "Interaction behaviors leading to comfort in the service encounter", *Journal of Services Marketing*, Vol. 25 No. 3, pp. 176–189.

Locke, E.A. (1967), "Relationship of success and expectation to affect on goal-seeking tasks.", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, Vol. 7 No. 2, Pt.1, p. 125.

Lolade, O. (2015), "Beauty Industry Grows: Nigeria's Hair Care Industry Worth N12bn Annually", *BizWatchNigeria.Ng*, 29 January, available at: https://bizwatchnigeria.ng/ (accessed 2 December 2016).

Loo, P.T. and Leung, R. (2018), "A service failure framework of hotels in Taiwan: adaptation of 7Ps marketing mix elements", *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, Vol. 24 No. 1, pp. 79–100.

L'Oreal Groupe. (2016a), "Elsewhere in the world: Asian hair, African hair, Caucasian hair", *Hair-Science.Com*, available at: http://www.hair-science.com (accessed 7 July 2017).

L'Oreal Groupe. (2016b), "Diversity of Hair Types", *L'Oreal Media*, News, , March, available at: http://www.loreal.com/media/ (accessed 9 July 2017).

L'Oreal Paris. (2019), "L'oreal Paris Launches Its Largest Loyalty Rewards Program", available at: https://www.prnewswire.com/news-releases/loreal-paris-launches-its-largest-loyalty-rewards-program-300427010.html (accessed 15 October 2019).

Loussouarn, G., Lozano, I., Panhard, S., Collaudin, C., Rawadi, C.E. and Genain, G. (2016), "Diversity in human hair growth, diameter, colour and shape. An in vivo study on young adults from 24 different ethnic groups observed in the five continents.", *European Journal of Dermatology*, Vol. 26 No. 2, pp. 144–154.

Lowe, S. (2016), *Hair*, Bloomsbury Publishing USA.

Luo, X. and Homburg, C. (2007), "Neglected Outcomes of Customer Satisfaction", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 71 No. 2, pp. 133–149.

Lusardi, A. and Mitchell, O.S. (2017), "How Ordinary Consumers Make Complex Economic Decisions: Financial Literacy and Retirement Readiness", *Quarterly Journal of Finance*, Vol. 07 No. 03, p. 1750008.

MacInnes, J. (2001), "The crisis of masculinity and the politics of identity", in Whitehead, S. and Barret, F. (Eds.), *The Masculinities Reader*, Cambridge, Polity, pp. 311–329.

MacLeman, L. (2017), "Whose client is it anyway?", *Timely*, 4 November, available at: https://www.gettimely.com/blog/whose-client-is-it-anyway/ (accessed 6 February

2018).

Mafika. (2007), “SA’s booming black middle class”, *Brand South Africa*, 23 May, available at: https://www.brandsouthafrica.com/people-culture/people/blackdiamonds-230507 (accessed 21 December 2017).

Malhotra, N.K. (2011), *Research Methodology: Research Design and Data Analysis*, Sage.

Malo, P. (2016), “Structural equation modeling - Part 1: Confirmatory Factor Analysis”, Aalto University, School of Business, 21 January, available at: https://mycourses.aalto.fi/pluginfile.php/194163/mod_resource/content/1/QER-Lecture5-CFA-2016.pdf (accessed 15 October 2019).

Manzuma-Ndaaba, N.M., Harada, Y., Romle, A.R. and Shamsudin, A.S. (2016), “Cognitive, affective and conative loyalty in higher education marketing: proposed model for emerging destinations”, *International Review of Management and Marketing; Mersin*, Vol. 6 No. 4S, pp. 168–175.

Marinkovic, V. and Kalinic, Z. (2017), “Antecedents of customer satisfaction in mobile commerce: Exploring the moderating effect of customization”, *Online Information Review*, Vol. 41 No. 2, pp. 138–154.

Markert, J. (2004), “Demographics of age: generational and cohort confusion”, *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising*, Vol. 26 No. 2, pp. 11–25.

Marnburg, E. and Luo, Z. (2014), “Testing the validity and reliability of the levels of self-concept scale in the hospitality industry”, *Journal of Tourism and Recreation*, Vol. 1 No. 1, pp. 37–50.

Maseko, T. and Motloung, N. (2016), “Hair Business Booming on the Streets of Johannesburg”, *SABC News*, Johannesburg, 9 September, p. 1.

Maslow, A.H. (1970), *Motivation and Personality*, Harper and Row, New York.

Matshego, L. (2017), “A History Of African Women’s Hairstyles”, *Africa.Com*, 30 May, available at: https://www.africa.com/history-african-womens-hairstyles/ (accessed 27 November 2017).

McAlexander, J.H., Kim, S.K. and Roberts, S.D. (2003), “Loyalty: The Influences of Satisfaction and Brand Community Integration”, *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, Vol. 11 No. 4, pp. 1–11.

McConnell, J.D. (1968), “The Development of Brand Loyalty: An Experimental Study”, *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 5 No. 1, pp. 13–19.

McMullan, R. and Gilmore, A. (2003), "The conceptual development of customer loyalty measurement: A proposed scale", *Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing*, Vol. 11 No. 3, pp. 230–243.

Meesala, A. and Paul, J. (2018), "Service quality, consumer satisfaction and loyalty in hospitals: Thinking for the future", *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, Vol. 40, pp. 261–269.

Melnyk, V. (2014), "Resisting temptation: gender differences in customer loyalty in the presence of a more attractive alternative", *Australasian Marketing Journal*, Vol. 22 No. 4, pp. 335–341.

Melnyk, V., Van Osselaer, S.M.J. and Bijmolt, T.H.A. (2009), "Are Women More Loyal Customers Than Men? Gender Differences in Loyalty to Firms and Individual Service Providers", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 73 No. 4, pp. 82–96.

Mendelson, M.J. and Aboud, F.E. (1999), "Measuring friendship quality in late adolescents and young adults: McGill Friendship Questionnaires.", *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science / Revue Canadienne Des Sciences Du Comportement*, Vol. 31 No. 2, pp. 130–132.

Meyers, S. (2012), "The Psychology of Hair Salons & Stylists: Therapy for Free", *Psychology Today*, 3 July, available at: http://www.psychologytoday.com/ (accessed 19 April 2016).

Meyer-Waarden, L. and Benavent, C. (2006), "The Impact of Loyalty Programmes on Repeat Purchase Behaviour", *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 22 No. 1–2, pp. 61–88.

Milady. (2016), *Milady Standard Cosmetology*, 13th ed., Cengage Learning, New York.

Miles, T. (2014), "Communication can make or break a business", *South African Hairdressers' Journal*, Vol. 185 No. June, pp. 72–73.

Miller, T.R., Baird, T.D., Littlefield, C.M., Kofinas, G., Chapin III, F.S. and Redman, C.L. (2008), "Epistemological Pluralism: Reorganizing Interdisciplinary Research", *Ecology and Society*, Vol. 13 No. 2, available at:https://doi.org/10.5751/ES-02671-130246.

Mittal, B. (2016), "Retrospective: why do customers switch? The dynamics of satisfaction versus loyalty", *Journal of Services Marketing*, Vol. 30 No. 6, pp. 569–575.

Mittal, B. and Lassar, W.M. (1996), "The role of personalization in service encounters", *Journal of Retailing*, Vol. 72 No. 1, pp. 95–109.

Mittal, V. (2017), *Buy American: A User's Guide for Measuring Customer Motivations*, SSRN

Scholarly Paper No. ID 2952636, Social Science Research Network, Rochester, NY, available at: https://papers.ssrn.com/ (accessed 23 October 2018).

Mohajan, H.K. (2018), "Qualitative research methodology in social sciences and related subjects", *Journal of Economic Development, Environment and People*, Vol. 7 No. 1, pp. 23–48.

Mohammad, H.I. (2015), "7Ps marketing mix and retail bank customer satisfaction in northeast Nigeria", *British Journal of Marketing Studies*, Vol. 3 No. 3, pp. 71–88.

Mordor Intelligence. (2016), "Brazil Hair Care Market Industry - by Products, Distribution Channels and Vendors - Market Trends and Forecasts (2015 - 2020)", available at: https://www.mordorintelligence.com/industry-reports/brazil-hair-care-market-industry (accessed 7 December 2017).

Mordor Intelligence. (2018), *Hair Care Market Trends, Size, Share, Industry Overview (2018-23)*, Mordor INtelligence, available at: https://www.mordorintelligence.com/industry (accessed 12 July 2018).

Mordor Intelligence. (2019), *South Africa Hair Care Market | Growth | Overview (2019 - 2024)*, Market analysis report, Mordor Intelligence, available at: https://www.mordorintelligence.com/industry-reports/south-africa-hair-care-market-industry (accessed 29 October 2019).

Morgan, R.M. and Hunt, S.D. (1994), "The Commitment-Trust Theory of Relationship Marketing", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 58 No. 3, pp. 20–38.

Morgeson III, F.V., Sharma, P.N. and Hult, G.T.M. (2015), "Cross-National Differences in Consumer Satisfaction: Mobile Services in Emerging and Developed Markets", *Journal of International Marketing*, Vol. 23 No. 2, pp. 1–24.

Motseki, M. and Oyedemi, T. (2017), "Social media and the cultural ideology of beauty among young black women in South Africa", *Communitas*, Vol. 22 No. 1, pp. 136–148.

Mukhtar, U., Anwar, S. and Sheikh, U.A. (2018), "Retail service quality scale validation in Pakistani super and hyper stores' context", *International Journal of Business Forecasting and Marketing Intelligence*, Vol. 4 No. 4, pp. 369–385.

Mungai, C. (2015), "An Off-the-Wall African Index: 10 Indicators That Tell You How an Economy Is Really Doing", *MG Africa*, 16 October, available at: http://mgafrica.com/article/2015 (accessed 22 December 2016).

Netemeyer, R.G., Bearden, W.O. and Sharma, S. (2003), *Scaling Procedures: Issues and Applications*, SAGE, California.

Netemeyer, R.G., Krishnan, B., Pullig, C., Wang, G., Yagci, M., Dean, D., Ricks, J., et al. (2004), "Developing and validating measures of facets of customer-based brand equity", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 57 No. 2, pp. 209–224.

Newell, S.J., Belonax, J.J., McCardle, M.W. and Plank, R.E. (2011), "The effect of personal relationship and consultative task behaviors on buyer perceptions of salesperson trust, expertise, and loyalty", *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*, Vol. 19 No. 3, pp. 307–316.

Nielsen. (2018), "Black Impact: Consumer Categories Where African Americans Move Markets", *Nelisen Insights*, Research News, , 15 February, available at: http://www.nielsen.com/us/en/insights/news/2018/black-impact-consumer-categories-where-african-americans-move-markets (accessed 19 December 2018).

Niraj, R. and Jaiswal, A.K. (2011), "Examining mediating role of attitudinal loyalty and nonlinear effects in satisfaction-behavioral intentions relationship", *Journal of Services Marketing*, Vol. 25 No. 3, pp. 165–175.

Norman, G. (2010), "Likert scales, levels of measurement and the 'laws' of statistics", *Advances in Health Sciences Education: Theory and Practice*, Vol. 15 No. 5, pp. 625–632.

Nunnaly, J.C. and Bernstein, I.H. (1994), *Nunnally, J. C. & Bernstein, I. H., 1994. Psychometric Theory. 3 Ed. New York: McGraw-Hill*, 3rd ed., McGraw-Hill, New York.

Nusair, K. and Hua, N. (2010), "Comparative assessment of structural equation modeling and multiple regression research methodologies: E-commerce context", *Tourism Management*, Vol. 31 No. 3, pp. 314–324.

Nyadzayo, M.W. and Khajehzadeh, S. (2016), "The antecedents of customer loyalty: a moderated mediation model of customer relationship management quality and brand image", *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, Vol. 30, pp. 262–270.

Nyamnjoh, F. and Fuh, D. (2014), "Africans consuming hair, Africans consumed by hair", *Africa Insight*, Vol. 44 No. 1, pp. 52–68.

Ogba, I.-E. and Izogo, E.E. (2015), "Service quality, customer satisfaction and loyalty in automobile repair services sector", *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*, Vol. 32 No. 3, pp. 250–269.

Oliver, R.L. (1980), "A Cognitive Model of the Antecedents and Consequences of Satisfaction Decisions", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 17 No. 4, p. 460.

Oliver, R.L. (1981), "Measurement and Evaluation of Satisfaction Processes in Retail

Settings", *Journal of Retailing*, Vol. 57 No. 3, pp. 25–48.

Oliver, R.L. (1996), *Satisfaction: A Behavioral Perspective on the Consumer*, McGraw-Hill, Columbus OH.

Oliver, R.L. (1999), "Whence Consumer Loyalty?", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 63, pp. 33–44.

Oliver, R.L. (2014), *Satisfaction: A Behavioral Perspective on the Consumer: A Behavioral Perspective on the Consumer*, Routledge.

Onsongo, S. and Muturi, W. (2015), "Factors Influencing the Growth of Hair Salon Enterprises in Kenya: A Surveyof Hair Salon Enterprises in Kisii Town", *IOSR Journal of Business and Management*, Vol. 17 No. 3, pp. 1–15.

Palmatier, R., Scheer, L.K. and Steenkamp, J.B.E. (2007), "Customer loyalty to whom? Managing the benefits and risks of salesperson-owned loyalty", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 44 No. 2, pp. 185–199.

Pan, Y., Sheng, S. and Xie, F.T. (2012), "Antecedents of customer loyalty: an empirical synthesis and reexamination", *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, Vol. 19 No. 1, pp. 150–158.

Panda, T.K. and Das, S. (2014), "The Role of Tangibility in Service Quality and Its Impact on External Customer Satisfaction: A Comparative Study of Hospital and Hospitality Sectors - ProQuest", *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 13 No. 4, pp. 53–69.

Parasuraman, A., Berry, L.L. and Zeithaml, V.A. (1991), "Refinement and Reassessment of the SERVQUAL Scale", *Journal of Retailing; Greenwich*, Vol. 67 No. 4, p. 420.

Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V.A. and Berry, L.L. (1985), "A Conceptual Model of Service Quality and Its Implications for Future Research", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 49 No. 4, pp. 41–50.

Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V.A. and Berry, L.L. (1988), "SERVQUAL: a multiple-item scale for measuring consumer perceptions of quality", *Journal of Retailing; Greenwich*, Vol. 64 No. 1, pp. 12–40.

Patterson, P.G. and Mechinda, P. (2011), "The Impact of Service Climate and Service Provider Personality on Employees' Customer-Oriented Behavior in a High-Contact Setting", *Journal of Services Marketing*, Vol. 25 No. 2, pp. 101–113.

Persistence Market Research. (2014), "Hair Care Market - Industry Size, Share and Forecast to 2020", 16 September, available at: https://www.persistencemarketresearch.com/market-research/hair-care-market.asp (accessed 7 December 2017).

Picon, A., Castro, I. and Roldan, J.L. (2014), "The relationship between satisfaction and loyalty: a mediator analysis", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 67 No. 5, pp. 746–751.

Pine, C. (2017), "What a riot", *Instyle*, No. Jul/Aug, pp. 76–77.

Pizam, A., Shapoval, V. and Ellis, T. (2016), "Customer satisfaction and its measurement in hospitality enterprises: a revisit and update", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 28 No. 1, pp. 2–35.

PMCA Economic Consulting. (2011), *Price Increases and Hairdresser Rivalry*, PMCA Economic Consulting, Ireland, available at: http://www.pmca.ie/2011/ (accessed 3 November 2016).

Pottell, N. (2016), "We hairdressers can be therapists and magicians, too. No wonder people trust us", *The Guardian*, 25 January, p. 3.

Pourali, P., Zadeh, N.R. and Yahyaei, B. (2016), "Editorial: Children as Consumers", *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, Vol. 40 No. 5, pp. 509–510.

Price, L.L. and Arnould, E.J. (1999), "Commercial Friendships: Service Provider-Client Relationships in Context", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 63 No. 4, pp. 38–56.

Punniyamoorthy, M. and Raj, M.P.M. (2007), "An empirical model for brand loyalty measurement", *Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing*, Vol. 15 No. 4, pp. 222–233.

Rajendran, R.P. and Suresh, J. (2017), "Customer Satisfaction Index as a Performance Evaluation Metric: A Study on Indian E-Banking Industry", *International Journal of Business; Fresno*, Vol. 22 No. 3, pp. 251–274.

Ranaweera, C. and Prabhu, J. (2003), "On the relative importance of customer satisfaction and trust as determinants of customer retention and positive word of mouth", *Journal of Targeting, Measurement and Analysis for Marketing*, Vol. 12 No. 1, pp. 82–90.

Rasyida, D.R., Ulkhaq, M.M., Setiowati, P.R. and Setyorini, N.A. (2016), "Assessing Service Quality: A Combination of SERVPERF and Importance-Performance Analysis", *MATEC Web of Conferences*, Vol. 68, p. 06003.

Reinartz, W. and Eisenbeiss, M. (2015), "Manageing customer loyalty to maximize customer equity", in Kumar, V. and Shah, D. (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Customer Equity in Marketing*, Edward Elgar Publishing, Cheltenham, UK; Northampton, MA, USA, pp. 139–159.

Repko, A., F. and Szostak, R. (2017), *Interdisciplinary Research*, 3rd ed., Sage Publications

Inc., California.

Research and Markets. (2018), "The European shampoo market to 2023: A $7.5 billion opportunity", available at: https://www.businesswire.com/news/ (accessed 4 March 2019).

Research First. (2016), *Hair Care Services Industry Profile*, Industry profile, Research First, Ireland, available at: http://www.firstresearch.com/Industry-Research/Hair-Care-Services.html.

Revilla-Camacho, M.-A., Cossio-Silva, F.-J. and Vega-Vázquez, M. (2014), "Seeking a sustainable competitive advantage in periods of economic recession for SMEs and entrepreneurs: The role of value co-creation and customer trust in the service provider", *Entrepreneurship, Innovation and Economic Crisis: Lessons for Research, Policy and Practice*, pp. 69–76.

Riquelme, H. and Rios, R. (2010), "The moderating effect of gender in the adoption of mobile banking", *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, Vol. 28 No. 5, pp. 328–341.

Ritchie, E. (2016), *The Relative Importance of Communication Competence, Communication Satisfaction and Commercial Friendship in Hair Stylist-Client Consultation Communication: A Coorientational Approach*, Master of Science Dissertation, University of Wisconsin-Whitewater, Wisconsin, May.

Robinson, V., Hall, A. and Hockey, J. (2011), "Masculinities, Sexualities, and the Limits of Subversion: Being a Man in Hairdressing", *Men and Masculinities*, Vol. 14 No. 1, pp. 31–50.

Rojek, C. (2012), *Fame Attack: The Inflation of Celebrity and Its Consequences*, A&C Black, London.

Rosenbaum, M.S. (2006), "Exploring the Social Supportive Role of Third Places in Consumers' Lives", *Journal of Service Research*, Vol. 9 No. 1, pp. 59–72.

Rosenbaum, M.S. (2009), "Exploring commercial friendships form employees' perspective", *Journal of Services Marketing*, Vol. 23 No. 1, pp. 57–66.

Rosenbaum, M.S., Kelleher, C., Friman, M., Kristensson, P. and Scherer, A. (2017), "Re-placing place in marketing: A resource-exchange place perspective", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 79, pp. 281–289.

Rosenbaum, M.S., Russell-Bennett, R. and Drennan, J. (2015), "Commercial friendships between gay sales associates and straight female customers in luxury settings: A proposed theoretical framework", *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, Vol. 27, pp. 179–186.

Rosenbaum, M.S., Seger-Guttmann, T. and Mimran, O. (2018), "The role of social incompatibility in customer discomfort", *Journal of Service Management*, Vol. Ahead-of-print No. Ahead-of-print, available at:https://doi.org/10.1108/JOSM-12-2017-0328.

Roshnee Ramsaran-Fowdar, R. (2008), "The relative importance of service dimensions in a healthcare setting", *International Journal of Health Care Quality Assurance*, Vol. 21 No. 1, pp. 104–124.

Rust, R.T. and Oliver, R.L. (1993), *Service Quality: New Directions in Theory and Practice*, SAGE Publications.

SA Health. (2017), "Hairdressing standards", *South African Health*, available at: http://www.sahealth.sa.gov.au/ (accessed 6 December 2017).

Salegna, G.J. and Fazel, F. (2011), "An Examination of the Relationships and Interactions Among Product Brand Personal and Service Provider Loyalty", *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, Vol. 24, pp. 42–55.

SAQA. (2015), "Qualification", *Regqs*, available at: http://regqs.saqa.org.za/viewQualification.php?id=65749 (accessed 3 November 2016).

Sattler, K.M. and Deane, F.P. (2016), "Hairdressers' Preparedness to Be Informal Helpers for Their Clients", *Journal of Community Psychology*, Vol. 44 No. 6, pp. 687–694.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (2012), *Research Methods for Business Students*, 6th ed., Pearson Education, England.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., Thornhill, A. and Bristow, A. (2015), "Understanding research philosophy and approaches to theory development", in Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (Eds.), *Research Methods for Business Students*, Pearson Education, Harlow, pp. 122–161.

Savishinsky, N.J. (1994), "Transnational popular culture and the global spread of the Jamaican Rastafarian movement", *NWIG: New West Indian Guide / Nieuwe West-Indische Gids*, Vol. 68 No. 3/4, pp. 259–281.

Schumacker, R.E. and Lomax, R.G. (2004), *A Beginner's Guide to Structural Equation Modeling*, 2nd ed., Lawrence Erbaum Associates, New Jersey.

Simmers, C.S. and Keith, N.K. (2015), "Measuring Retail Store Service Quality: The Disparity Between the Retail Service Quality Scale (rsqs) and Comment Cards", *Academy of Marketing Studies Journal*, Vol. 19 No. 2, p. 117.

Siu, N. and Cheung, J.T.-H. (2001), "A measure of retail service quality", *Marketing*

Intelligence & Planning, Vol. 19 No. 2, pp. 88–96.

Small Business Development Centre. (2014), "Beauty Salon 2014", available at: http://www.sbdcnet.org/small-business-research-reports/beauty-salon-2014 (accessed 7 December 2016).

Souca, M.L. (2011), "SERVQUAL – Thirty years of research on service quality with implications for customer satisfaction", in Plaias, I. and Ciornea, R. (Eds.), *Marketing from Information to Decision*, Vol. 4, presented at the International Conference, pp. 420–429.

Spector, N. (2019), "How to get a haircut you'll actually like, according to stylists", *NBC News*, 13 May, p. 1.

Spitzer, R.L., Endicott, J. and Robins, E. (1978), "Research diagnostic criteria: Rationale and reliability", *Jama Psychiatry*, Vol. 35 No. 6, pp. 773–782.

Statistica. (2018), "Hair Care - France: Statista Market Forecast", *Statista*, available at: https://www.statista.com/outlook/ (accessed 2 March 2019).

Statistica. (2019), "Global hair care industry 2012-2024", *Statista The Statistics Portal*, available at: https://www.statista.com/statistics/ (accessed 12 February 2019).

Statistics South Africa. (2011), "Metropolitan Municipality | Statistics South Africa", available at: http://www.statssa.gov.za/ (accessed 13 June 2016).

Statistics South Africa. (2018), *Mid-Year Population Estimates*, Statistical Demographic Report No. P03022017, Statistics South Africa, available at: http://www.statssa.gov.za/publications/ (accessed 15 December 2018).

Stefano, N.M., Filho, N.C., Barichello, R. and Sohn, A.P. (2015), "A Fuzzy SERVQUAL Based Method for Evaluated of Service Quality in the Hotel Industry", *Procedia CIRP*, Vol. 30, pp. 433–438.

Stevens, P., Knutson, B. and Patton, M. (1995), "Dineserv: a tool for measuring service quality in restaurants", *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, Vol. 36 No. 2, pp. 56–60.

Style Blazer. (2013), "14 Iconic Hairstyles Named After or Made Popular By Celebrities", *StyleBlazer*, 7 October, available at: http://styleblazer.com/187035/15-iconic-hairstyles-named-made-popular-celebrities/ (accessed 7 December 2017).

Sun, K.-A. and Kim, D.-Y. (2013), "Does customer satisfaction increase firm performance? An application of American Customer Satisfaction Index (ACSI)", *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 35, pp. 68–77.

Sweet, R. (2011), *The Mobile Worker: Concepts, Issues, Implications*, Research report, National Centre for Vocational Education; Department of Education and Training, Adelaide, Australia.

Szymanski, D.M. and Henard, D.H. (2001), "Customer Satisfaction: A Meta-Analysis of the Empirical Evidence", *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Vol. 29 No. 1, pp. 16–35.

Tadajewski, M. and Jones, D.G.B. (2012), "Scientific marketing management and the emergence of the ethical marketing concept", *Journal of Marketing Management*, Vol. 28 No. 1–2, pp. 37–61.

Taormina, R.J. and Gao, J.H. (2013), "Maslow and the Motivation Hierarchy: Measuring Satisfaction of the Needs", *The American Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 126 No. 2, p. 155.

Tate, R.S. (1961), "The supermarket battle for store loyalty", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 25 No. 6, pp. 8–13.

Technavio. (2016), *Haircare Market in Africa 2016-2020*, Market analysis No. 3920515, Technavio, USA, available at: https://www.technavio.com/report/ (accessed 13 February 2017).

TenTimes. (2017), "Bronner Bros International Beauty Show", available at: https://10times.com/bronner-bros-hair (accessed 7 December 2017).

Teo, T. (2011), "Technology Acceptance Research in Education: research and issues", in Teo, T. (Ed.), *Technology Acceptance in Education*, Sense Publishers, Rotterdam, pp. 1–5.

Thaichon, P. and Quach, T.N. (2015), "The relationship between service quality, satisfaction, trust, value, commitment and loyalty of Internet service providers' customers", *Journal of Global Scholars of Marketing Science*, Vol. 25 No. 4, pp. 295–313.

Thompson, C. (2009), "Black Women, Beauty, and Hair as a Matter of Being", *Women's Studies*, Vol. 38 No. 8, pp. 831–856.

Thomson, M. (2013), "Human brands: investigating antecedents to consumers' strong attachments to celebrities", *Http://Dx.Doi.Org/10.1509/Jmkg.70.3.104*, research-article, , 29 May, available at:https://doi.org/10.1509/jmkg.70.3.104.

Thorpe, K., Horn, A., Poeti, A. and Tadjo, V. (Eds.). (2014), *Hospitality & Hostility in the Multilingual Global Village*, First edition., Sun Press, Bloemfontein [South Africa].

Tolsi, N. (2011), "The rise and rise of the Rastafari", *The M&G Online*, 14 October, available at: https://mg.co.za/article/2011-10-14-the-rise-and-of-rastafari/ (accessed 15

December 2017).

Tonder, E. van and Petzer, D.J. (2018), "The interrelationships between relationship marketing constructs and customer engagement dimensions", *The Service Industries Journal*, Vol. 38 No. 13–14, pp. 948–973.

Trefis. (2016), "How L'Oreal stands to gain from the growth of the global hair care market.", *Nasdaq News*, USA, 7 December, p. 1.

Truth. (2016a), *The Current State of Loyalty in South Africa*, White paper, Truth, South Africa, available at: http://www.whyfive.co.za/ (accessed 3 October 2017).

Truth. (2016b), *Customer Loyalty Behaviour in South Africa*, White paper, Truth, South Africa, available at: (accessed 3 October 2017).

Truth and BrandMapp. (2018), *South African Loyalty Landscape 2018/2019*, White paper, Truth and BrandMapp, South Africa, available at: https://truth.co.za/articles-2/75-of-south-africans-are-using-loyalty-programmes/ (accessed 2 October 2019).

Tucker, W.T. (1964), "The Development of Brand Loyalty", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 1 No. 3, pp. 32–35.

Turner, A. and Green, D. (2018), "The US is missing out on billions from the black hair care industry", *CNBC*, USA, 17 August, p. 2.

UN DESA. (2017), *World Population Prospects: The 2017 Revision*, United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, available at: https://www.un.org/development/ (accessed 27 February 2018).

UN DESA. (2018), *2018 Revision of World Urbanization Prospects*, United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, available at: https://www.un.org/development/ (accessed 27 November 2018).

Van Cleave, K. (2015), "Women's Hairstyles & Cosmetics of the 18th Century: France & England, 1750-1790 – Démodé", *Demonde Couture*, available at: http://demodecouture.com/hairstyles-cosmetics-18th-century/ (accessed 8 June 2017).

Van Paris, C. (2017), "The History of French Girl Hair: From Marie Antoinette's Pouf to Bardot's Bedhead", *Vogue*, 25 September, available at: https://www.vogue.com/article (accessed 9 December 2017).

Vargo, S.L. and Akaka, M.A. (2015), "Extending the context of service: from encounters to ecosystems", *Journal of Services Marketing*, Vol. 29 No. 6/7, pp. 453–462.

Varki, S. and Wong, S. (2003), "Consumer Involvement in Relationship Marketing of

Services", *Journal of Service Research*, Vol. 6 No. 1, pp. 83–91.

Vega-Vazquez, M., Revilla-Camacho, M.-A. and Cossio-Silva, F.-J. (2013), "The value co-creation process as a determinant of customer satisfaction", *Management Decision*, Vol. 51 No. 10, pp. 1945–1953.

Venter, Z. (2007), "Fur flies as stylists duel in contract row", *IOL News*, South Africa, 20 January, p. 1.

Walsh, M., Ortega, E. and Heckman, B. (2016), "The Dental Hygiene Scholarly Identity and Roadblocks to Achieving It", *American Dental Hygienists Association*, Vol. 90 No. 2, pp. 79–87.

Wan, Y. (2018), "Brand Loyalty and Generic Entry: Why do Brand-Name Drug Companies Launch Their Own Generics?", *The Japanese Economic Review*, Vol. 69 No. 3, pp. 340–346.

Ward, R., Campbell, S. and Keady, J. (2016), "'Gonna make yer gorgeous': everyday transformation, resistance and belonging in the care-based hair salon", *Dementia*, Vol. 15 No. 3, pp. 395–413.

Webb, D. (2015), "Getting Along with Teenagers", *The Education Digest; Ann Arbor*, Vol. 80 No. 9, pp. 13–17.

Weinswig, D. (2016), *The Beauty Market in Brazil*, Industry report, Fung Global Retail and Technology, Brazil, available at: http://www.deborahweinswig.com/wp-content/.

Wentzel, M. (2017), "Save big with SA's most popular loyalty programmes", *BizCommunity*, South Africa, 28 March, p. 2.

West, D.C., Ford, J. and Ibrahim, E. (2015), *Strategic Marketing: Creating Competitive Advantage*, Oxford University Press.

Westbrook, R.A. and Reilly, M.D. (1983), "Value-Percept Disparity: an Alternative to the Disconfirmation of Expectations Theory of Consumer Satisfaction", *ACR North American Advances*, Vol. 10, pp. 256–261.

Wieseke, J., Alavi, S. and Habel, J. (2014), "Willing to Pay More, Eager to Pay Less: The Role of Customer Loyalty in Price Negotiations", *Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 78 No. 6, pp. 17–37.

Wiid, J. and Diggines, C. (2015), *Marketing Research*, 3rd ed., Juta and Company Ltd, Cape Town.

Williams, A. (2014), "Hairdresser Abby aims to be the best in SA", *HeraldLive*, South Africa,

31 October, p. 1.

Wirtz, J. and Lovelock, C. (2016), *Services Marketing: People, Technology, Strategy*, 8th ed., World Scientific Publishing, New Jersey.

Wisniewski, M. (2001), "Using SERVQUAL to assess customer satisfaction with public sector services", *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, Vol. 11 No. 6, pp. 380–388.

Workman, D. (2019), "Top Human Hair Exporters by Country", *World's Top Exports*, 23 January, available at: http://www.worldstopexports.com/top-human-hair-exporters-by-country/ (accessed 20 February 2019).

World Bank Group. (2018), "Data: Population", Database, available at: https://data.worldbank.org/indicator.

World Population Review. (2016), "Johannesburg Population 2018 (Demographics, Maps, Graphs)", 12 June, available at: http://worldpopulationreview.com/world-cities/johannesburg-population/ (accessed 13 September 2017).

World Skills International. (2016), "Personal services: hairdressing", World Skills International, available at: (accessed 4 December 2016).

Yee, R.W.Y., Yeung, A.C.L. and Cheng, T.C.E. (2010), "An empirical study of employee loyalty, service quality and firm performance in the service industry", *International Journal of Production Economics*, Vol. 124 No. 1, pp. 109–120.

Yi, Y. (2011), "A critical review of customer satisfaction", in Zeithaml, V.A. (Ed.), *Review of Marketing 1990*, Marketing Classics Press, USA, pp. 68–123.

Yim, C.K. (Bennett), Tse, D.K. and Chan, K.W. (2008), "Strengthening Customer Loyalty through Intimacy and Passion: Roles of Customer—Firm Affection and Customer—Staff Relationships in Services", *Journal of Marketing Research*, Vol. 45 No. 6, pp. 741–756.

Yuksel, A., Yuksel, F. and Bilim, Y. (2010), "Destination attachment: Effects on customer satisfaction and cognitive, affective and conative loyalty", *Tourism Management*, Vol. 31 No. 2, pp. 274–284.

Zhang, Z., Ye, Q., Song, H. and Liu, T. (2015), "The structure of customer satisfaction with cruise-line services: an empirical investigation based on online word of mouth", *Current Issues in Tourism*, Vol. 18 No. 5, pp. 450–464.

Zhijun, C., Zhu, J. and Zhou, M. (2015), "How does a servant leader fuel the service fire? A multilevel model of servant leadership, individual self identity, group competition

climate, and customer service performance", *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Vol. 100 No. 2, pp. 511–521.

Zineldin, M., Nessim, K., Thurn, E. and Gustafsson, D. (2014), "Loyalty, Quality And Satisfaction In FMCG Retail Market : Does Loyalty In Retailing Exist?", *Journal of Business & Financial Affairs*, Vol. 3 No. 2, available at: http://urn.kb.se/ (accessed 11 March 2016).

Appendix A: Ethical Clearance Certificate (HN17/11/47)

Research Office

HUMAN RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE (NON-MEDICAL)
R14/49 Pamaneche

CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE	PROTOCOL NUMBER: H17/11/47
PROJECT TITLE	Predictors and behavioural outcome of personal loyalty dimensions in Johannesburg hairstylists
INVESTIGATOR(S)	Miss R Pamaneche
SCHOOL/DEPARTMENT	Economic and Business Sciences
DATE CONSIDERED	17 November 2017
DECISION OF THE COMMITTEE	Approved
EXPIRY DATE	16 April 2021
DATE 17 April 2018	CHAIRPERSON (Professor J Knight)

cc: Supervisor : Dr H Duh

DECLARATION OF INVESTIGATOR(S)

To be completed in duplicate and ONE COPY returned to the Secretary at Room 10004, 10th Floor, Senate House, University. Unreported changes to the application may invalidate the clearance given by the HREC (Non-Medical)

I/We fully understand the conditions under which I am/we are authorized to carry out the abovementioned research and I/we guarantee to ensure compliance with these conditions. Should any departure to be contemplated from the research procedure as approved I/we undertake to resubmit the protocol to the Committee. I agree to completion of a yearly progress report.

Signature _____ Date ____/____/____

PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER ON ALL ENQUIRIES

Appendix B: Research Questionnaire Package

PARTICIPATION INFORMATION SHEET

Good day,

My name is Rukudzo Pamacheche (Wits Student number: 698247), and I am working towards a PhD in Business Sciences (Marketing) at the University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg.

The research is entitled "Predictors and behavioural outcome of personal loyalty dimensions in Johannesburg haircare service providers". The aim of the research study is to examine the factors of hairstylists lead to clients' loyalty to individual hairstylists. The study also examines how that loyalty affects the clients' eagerness to pay a higher price to be served by the hairstylist. The findings are expected to reveal how the factors influence personal loyalty, and influence of personal loyalty on willingness to pay a premium.

You are kindly invited to participate in the study. You will not receive any direct benefits from participating in this study, and there are no disadvantages or penalties for not participating. Your participation is entirely voluntary, and your confidentiality and anonymity will be assured. I will not be asking for you name or any identification information, and any information you give me will be held securely. Kindly note that completing and submitting the questionnaire will count as consent. You are free to withdraw from the study at any stage, in which case, your questionnaire will not be included in the research.

The information you provide for the study will be used to compile a doctoral thesis, which will be available online via the University's library website. If you have any queries, concerns or complaints regarding the ethical procedures of this study, you are welcome to contact the University Human Research Ethics Committee (non-medical) at the following:

Telephone +27(0)11 717 1408,

Email: hrec-medical.researchoffice@wits.ac.za/, or

Email Shaun Schoeman Shaun.Schoeman@wits.ac.za

Yours sincerely,

Rukudzo Pamacheche **(Researcher)** Email: Rukudzo.Pamacheche@students.wits.ac.za	Dr Helen Duh **(Supervisor)** Email: Helen.Duh@wits.ac.za Tel: 011 717 8217

Questionnaire

Instructions: Please take your time to read and complete the entire questionnaire. It comprises of 11 sections, labelled sections A to K.

SECTION A: Screening questions

Please indicate your answer by ticking (✓) the appropriate box.

A1 Have you been with the same hairstylist for the past 10 months?	1 No		2 Yes	

If you selected "No", thank you for your time. Please hand the questionnaire back to the researcher.

If you selected "Yes", please proceed to Section B: Biographical Information.

SECTION B: Biographical Information

Please indicate your responses by ticking (✓) the appropriate box.

B1 Please indicate your age category.

25-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46+
1	2	3	4	5

B2 Indicate your gender.

Female	Male	Prefer not to say
1	2	3

B3 Please indicate your ethnic group.

Black	**Coloured**	**Indian**	**White**
1	2	3	4

B4 Please indicate your level of monthly income.

R1 – R7 000	**1**
R7 001 – R14 000	**2**
R14 001 – R28 000	**3**
R28 001 – R35 000	**4**
More than R35 000	**5**

B5 On average per month, how much do you spend to have your hair done by your hairstylists?

Below R1 000	R1 001-R2 000	R2 001 – R3 000	R3 001 – R4 000	More than R4 000
1	2	3	4	5

B6 How often do you have your hair done by the hairstylist?

More than once every week	1
Once a week	2
Once every month	3
2-3 times a month	4
Other (specify)	5

B7 Does your hairstylist have a professional hair care qualification?

No	Yes	Not sure
1	**2**	**3**

The next sections comprise of statements about value factors of your hairstylist. Kindly indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statements by ticking (✓) the corresponding

number in the 5-point scales provided: *1= strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = moderately agree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree.*

SECTION C: Reliability

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
REL1	The hairstylist uses good skills and techniques to style my hair.	1	2	3	4	5
REL2	He/she completes styling my hair within the promised time.	1	2	3	4	5
REL3	The hairstylist is able to produce my desired hairstyles.	1	2	3	4	5
REL4	He/she produces my desired style correctly the first time.	1	2	3	4	5
REL5	He/she communicates necessary and accurate information about the service with me.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D: Trustworthiness

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
TRU1	The hairstylist is committed about attending to my hair care needs.	1	2	3	4	5
TRU2	I trust the expertise of the hairstylist to understand and address the problems that I have with my hair.	1	2	3	4	5
TRU3	He/she is sensitive to the uniqueness of my hair.	1	2	3	4	5
TRU4	I am always peaceful that the hairstylist will do my hair according to my taste.	1	2	3	4	5
TRU5	I trust the advice the hairstylist gives me on the best way to make-up my hair.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION E: Mobility of hairstylist

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
MOB1	The hairstylist is willing to do my hair outside his/her salon environment.	1	2	3	4	5
MOB2	The hairstylist can do my hair outside formal business hours.	1	2	3	4	5
MOB3	He/she is willing to come to	1	2	3	4	5

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
	my home to do my hair.					
MOB4	The hairstylist makes time for me, even when I do not have an appointment.	1	2	3	4	5
MOB5	If I request, the hairstylist can do my hair in a different location.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION F: Service customisation

For this section, kindly indicate your perception of how well you hairstylist customises services for you based on the following scale: *1= very poorly, 2 = poorly, 3 =average, 4 = well, 5 = very well*

		Very poorly	Poorly	Average	Well	Very well
SCU1	The hairstylist knows about the unique needs of my hair.	1	2	3	4	5
SCU2	The hairstylist alters hairstyles so that they suit me.	1	2	3	4	5
SCU3	He/she offers me hair products and services that satisfy my unique needs.	1	2	3	4	5
SCU4	The hairstylist makes the service comfortable specifically for me.	1	2	3	4	5
SCU5	The hairstylist uses a variety of strategies to satisfy my needs.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION G: Relative advantage

Compared to other hairstylists that I know, my hairstylist is better in the following ways:

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
RAD1	Is more knowledgeable about hairstyles and products.	1	2	3	4	5
RAD2	Is better at styling my hair type.	1	2	3	4	5
RAD3	Is more up-to-date with trendy hairstyles.	1	2	3	4	5
RAD4	Can perform a wider variety of haircare services.	1	2	3	4	5
RAD5	Is more creative at inventing new hairstyles.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION H: Client satisfaction

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
CSA1	My decision to choose to this	1	2	3	4	5

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
	hairstylist was a wise one.					
CSA2	The hairstylist meets my expectations of hairstyling.	1	2	3	4	5
CSA3	The services of this hairstylist is mostly satisfying	1	2	3	4	5
CSA4	I am happy with my decision to remain with this hairstylist	1	2	3	4	5
CSA5	My hairstylist mostly meets my expectations	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION I: Commercial friendship

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
CFR1	I am comfortable sharing personal information about myself with the hairstylist.	1	2	3	4	5
CFR2	The hairstylist and I discuss other issues besides hair.	1	2	3	4	5
CFR3	Other than hair, the hairstylist and I share common interests and values.	1	2	3	4	5
CFR4	Sometimes the hairstylist does favours for me.	1	2	3	4	5
CFR5	The hairstylist reassures me about myself.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION J: Personal Loyalty

Cognitive personal loyalty

I am committed to my hairstylist because of the following reasons:

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
CPL1	I consider this hairstylist to be the best choice for me.	1	2	3	4	5
CPL2	I believe he/she provides me with higher service quality than other hairstylists.	1	2	3	4	5
CPL3	I identify more with this hairstylist than I do with other hairstylists.	1	2	3	4	5
CPL4	I think committing to this hairstylist is good for me.	1	2	3	4	5
CPL5	I think recommending the hairstylist to others is a good idea.	1	2	3	4	5

Affective personal loyalty

I have regularly done my hair with my hairstylist because of the following reasons:

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
APL1	I feel good when this hairstylist does my hair.	1	2	3	4	5
APL2	Compared to other hairstylists, I like being served by my hairstylist.	1	2	3	4	5
APL3	I feel a sense of belonging with the hairstylist.	1	2	3	4	5
APL4	I feel happy to commit to this hairstylist.	1	2	3	4	5
APL5	I am attached to this hairstylist and will be glad to refer other people to this hairstylist.	1	2	3	4	5

Intention personal loyalty

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
IPL1	I intend to continuously do my hair with my current hairstylist.	1	2	3	4	5
IPL2	I would like to dedicate my future hair care services to my current hairstylist.	1	2	3	4	5
IPL3	I would look for my current hairstylist in the future.	1	2	3	4	5
IPL4	Changing my current hairstylist in the future is not an option	1	2	3	4	5
IPL5	I would like to continue my interactions with my current hairstylist.	1	2	3	4	5

Behavioural personal loyalty

For this section, kindly indicate the frequency of the following statements relating to loyalty, based on the following scale: *1= never, 2 = rarely, 3 =often, 4 = most times, 5 = always*

		Never	Rarely	Often	Most times	Always
BPL1	I decline other good hairstylists for my current one.	1	2	3	4	5
*BPL2	I allow other hairstylists to do my hair.	1	2	3	4	5
BPL3	I would choose this hairstylist for my next hairstyle.	1	2	3	4	5
BPL4	I leave my area of residence to travel to my hairstylist	1	2	3	4	5
BPL5	I recommend this hairstylist to other people.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION K: Willingness to pay premium price

		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
WPP1	For the service that I receive from this hairstylist, I am willing to pay more than the normal price.	1	2	3	4	5
WPP2	Compared to what other hairstylists charge, I am willing to pay a higher price for this hairstylist to do my hair.	1	2	3	4	5
WPP3	I will request this hairstylist, even if other hairstylists charge slightly less.	1	2	3	4	5
*WPP4	If this hairstylist charges slightly higher than other hairstylists do, I will not switch to another hairstylist.	1	2	3	4	5
*WPP5	I will only pay the normal price for this hairstylist to do my hair, and not more.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you very much for completing the questionnaire.