SWP 9/93  THE "COPING" CAPACITY MANAGEMENT STRATEGY IN SERVICES, AND THE INFLUENCE OF QUALITY PERFORMANCE

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THE "COPING" CAPACITY MANAGEMENT STRATEGY IN SERVICES
AND THE INFLUENCE ON
QUALITY PERFORMANCE.

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Abstract

Matching supply and demand in services by capacity management has a direct
influence on the ability of the service delivery system to achieve service quality and
resource productivity targets. This paper examines some propositions for the
influences of capacity management on quality and resource productivity and for
managing capacity. In addition to the chase and level strategies for managing
capacity in services suggested by Sasser (1976) a coping strategy for capacity
management is described which aims to improve the overall delivery of service
quality whilst achieving resource productivity targets. Coping is necessary for all
organisations at some time. Some research results derived from the experience of a
range of service organisations indicate a less than satisfactory handling of the coping
situation.

Introduction

The literature on quality management in services has been expanding rapidly
(Gronroos 1984, Collier, 1987, Berry et al 1990). However these papers more
often than not deal with questions relating to the definition of quality and the
identification of measuring systems for quality management. Whilst the authors
recognise the influence on quality of the perceptions of management and service
providers, they do not address in detail issues relating to the overall management of
resources for the successful delivery of services, in particular capacity management
and the effect on service quality. It is argued in this paper that the aspect of the
delivery of services which has received insufficient recognition is the management
of capacity, although referred to by Collier, 1987, Rhyme, 1988, and Chase and

An operations manager in a service organisation will either succeed or fail in the
process of balancing quality of service and resource management, expressed in
terms of resource productivity, depending on their skill in managing capacity to
match demand. This paper examines more closely the factors in the management of
capacity in services which affect quality and productivity performance. It is
considered that even though service managers may be concerned about capacity
management they tend more to manage capacity by "feel" rather than intent or
design to a greater extent than their manufacturing counterparts. This is in contrast
to aspects of influencing demand through marketing activities.
There is an interaction between capacity management, quality management, and resource productivity or efficiency management which is at the heart of the planning and control process for operations management in services. A number of authors have identified some of the issues confronting operations managers in managing supply and demand in services which affect their ability to maintain quality standards whilst achieving productivity targets (Lovelock 1984, Rhyme 1988, Heskett et al 1990, Chase and Bowen 1991). The issues are threefold. First, having limited ability to alter capacity in terms of both the extent of the change and response time to make the change whilst having to deal with rapid fluctuations in demand. Second the need to deliver consistent levels of customer service. Third the varying degrees of uncertainty in demand.

Capacity management in service operations is a testing activity for operations managers because the nature of the service delivery process and the involvement of the customers in the process restricts the options open for controlling the process of matching supply with demand across the whole service delivery system. The four general options for operational control are altering the capacity, holding inventory in anticipation of demand, requiring customers to wait for the service, or influencing demand in other ways. In service delivery there is not the possibility of producing the complete service package in advance of demand and holding it as an inventory. This real time element of service production makes the matching of supply and demand very important, particularly in capacity constrained services like airlines, hotels, and professional services when the profitability of the operation is closely linked to the use of the current capacity and the prices charged.

Capacity management is the ability to balance demand from customers and the capability of the service delivery system to satisfy the demand. This places an emphasis on understanding first, the nature of demand by forecasting (Lovelock, 1984) and second, the options for managing capacity to meet the expected demand. Sasser (1976) suggested two basic strategies for managing capacity in services, namely, the level strategy and the chase strategy. The former is applicable where capacity is limited and hence the focus is on influencing demand to be in line with capacity, and the latter chase strategy being possible when supply can be changed to keep in line with demand. Consequently operations managers must understand the composition of their capacity, the degree to which it can be changed, and the speed of reaction (Slack, 1983), and the costs involved (Heskett et al 1990). An appropriate concept may be a capacity bite analogous to a sound bite.

A Model for Capacity Management

Capacity management relates the potential output from the resources available to actual output. The output achieved by any service delivery process depends on three main factors, Figure 1:

* The service mix represented by the variety of the services being delivered, the resource absorption per service and the variation in the demand pattern.

* The way capacity is managed by using techniques of forecasting, prioritising, scheduling, managing demand and managing bottle-neck. In addition as is argued in this paper the need for coping strategies.

* The extent of capacity leakage because of key resources are not available, quality failures, scheduling losses, and change overs associated with achieving flexibility.
"Chase" and "Level" are not enough - A "Coping" Strategy

It is generally recognised that service organisations tend towards either chase or level capacity rather than exhibiting sole characteristics as identified by Sasser (1976). Level strategies are applicable when demand is more visible before the time of use and the service organisations can effectively tell customers to wait when demand cannot be satisfied i.e. the service is valued by the customers and they are willing to wait. In more sophisticated systems such as airlines and hotels there is a focus on the use of yield management techniques to get the best return from limited and costly resources. Chase strategies apply more when customers will not wait long for the service and there is an immediate need at least to get the process started and taken to a reasonable stage so that customers feel satisfied. The use of telephone response centres often fulfil this role for complex services such as customer service support for after sales service. There are in many instances mixed operating systems where both approaches are used, for instance for a garage the reception may employ a chase approach whereas the workshop is nearer to a level strategy.

However it is inevitable that all service organisations will at times run out of capacity to satisfy demand within the time frame expected by customers. This is the area which most service managers would recognise as coping. In these circumstances there are two possible course of action.

1. To allow service quality standards to fall in an uncontrolled way.

2. To try to control the fall in service standards, thereby protecting the service standards for the core service

The alternative scenario is when capacity is in excess of demand leading to lower efficiency and in some cases quality. In these circumstances the coping is concerned with minimising these effects, perhaps by accepting the situation as a period of rest and recovery for service staff or engaging them on other activities. This paper considers the effect of coping on service quality in more detail.

It might be expected that service operations managers would be aware of when they are entering the coping zone and the resulting change in customer perception of service quality. However anecdotal evidence and the suggests that this is not the case. As a result a number of propositions are derive which have been tested against research findings.

**Proposition 1:** Many service operations managers are not aware in any precise way when they are entering the coping zone although they may be aware when it happens.

**Proposition 2:** Most service operations managers do not measure the degradation of service quality as perceived by customers during coping.

**Resource Utilisation and Service Quality**

The concept of resource utilisation and service quality is understood in the context of queueing theory (Maister, 1985) where it is recognised that to maintain a consistency in waiting time and queue lengths average utilisation of resources may be relatively low. There is also the recognition in those services where the role of the customers (Johnston 1989) is to create the experience, for example in a theatre, theme park or restaurant the level of utilisation of the resources can affect the perceived service quality. Heskett (1986) reporting work in the context of a restaurant showed that perception of service quality increased with utilisation up to a
maximum of 75% and fell away from that point. It is easy to see that the build to the maximum is associated with the general ambience of the restaurant giving a "buzz" to the atmosphere which enhances the experience for customers and also helps to motivate serving staff. The subsequent fall in perceived quality is due in part to a move into the coping zone.

This additional aspect of coping indicates that services operations managers need to have an understanding of the level of utilisation of resources above or below which service quality will be affected unless some other actions are taken.

**Proposition 3a:** Service Operations Managers do not generally understand the link between resource utilisation and service quality for their operations.

**Proposition 3b:** Where they do understand the link they do not act in ways to maximise perceived service quality.

**Coping and Service Recovery**

The concept of a coping strategy for managing service resources has a particular link to service recovery (Hart et al 1990) and unconditional service guarantees (Hart 1988, Hart et al 1992). There is growing evidence from both these areas of literature that service organisations which are already good at delivering a consistent level of customer service are seeking to improve and differentiate themselves from their competitors by being able to respond quickly and effectively when things go wrong. Hence the overall level of customer satisfaction is not diminished and if there are unconditional guarantees these can be delivered without "giving away the store". To achieve these results requires a greater understanding of what is required to satisfy customers and to control the operation.

**Proposition 4:** Service organisations which are good at service recovery are better at managing in the coping zone

**Is there any Evidence for the Truth of the Propositions?**

There is no evidence for the four propositions which would establish them as proved or disproved hypotheses. However some recent research carried by way of a postal survey to managers in service organisations across the services sector who were subscribers to a quality journal suggests the propositions may have some validity. Armistead and Clark (1992a, 1992b). The sample selected might have been expected to display a high level of motivation to improve their quality performance and to be largely committed to Total Quality Management. About 170 responses were used in the analysis from a total sample of 3000.

**Proposition 1:** Many service operations managers are not aware in any precise way when they are entering the coping zone

Service managers were asked questions about "early warning signals" which warn them that they were running out of capacity. Most of the respondents talked about some fall in service standards and in particular, aspects of timing, of customers complaining and staff showing signs of stress. These might be interpreted as showing some awareness at the level "Gosh we're busy" or "We're rushed off our feet" rather than "We need to be careful now and make sure we control what is happening"
Some responses talked about measuring what is happening, against a plan, which suggests a data gathering exercise which might be used to improve forecasting in the future. Although an action which may be important in reducing the coping zone in the future it is not likely to help in the immediacy of the moment.

Overall the responses lend weight to the proposition being true for many service organisations. Perhaps this reflects that to be good at coping you must already be good at managing capacity so that the process is more controlled as thus reduce the coping zone. As one airline reported "We used to regard firefighting as part of our culture without recognising the affect this had on customer service and costs"

**Proposition 2: Most service operations managers do not measure the degradation of service quality as perceived by customers during coping.**

Responses to the question asking what suffers for service quality when they run out of capacity and whether this was measured revealed some alarming results. The features of service quality which were perceived to suffer most in these circumstances were responsiveness, reliability, assurance and empathy (summarising them in the terms used by Berry et al, 1990) and were the ones which were considered to be of most importance to customers. However despite the importance of the effect on customer satisfaction there was very little indication that this degradation of service quality was measured at the time either by internal measurement or by talking to customers. Most of the measurement was collected, analysed, and perhaps acted on after the event by way of internal audits or customer surveys or complaints. Whether the customer surveys fixed the time of the experience in all cases was not investigated. There were also instances of managers admitting that no measurements were made.

These results suggest that the proposition as stated in not strictly true. Managers do measure but not often at a time when there is the possibility of corrective action being taken. The effect is to have lagging rather than leading measures.

**Proposition 3a: Service Operations Managers do not generally understand the link between resource utilisation and service quality for their operations.**

**Proposition 3b: Where they do understand the link they do not act in ways to maximise perceived service quality.**

Respondents were asked to say whether there was an upper or lower utilisation level where service quality was affected for the worse. The responses to the question were often couched in terms which reported an average utilisation of resources achieved - a resource productivity measure rather than a quality measure. Some follow up telephone interviews with a smaller number of respondents suggested both a lack of understanding of the link between utilisation and quality. Where the link was understood there was a lack of good data to fix the utilisation figures relative to service quality dimensions.

The proposition seems to generally true for many service organisations in that while the link between utilisation and resource productivity is recognised as a measure the same it not true for the way in which resource utilisation and service quality is measured and managed. It does raise the question, "How without the knowledge of the link between resource utilisation and customer satisfaction can a service operation expect to raise its general level of utilisation of resources without affecting customer satisfaction if no measurements are being collected, analysed and used by the operations managers?"
Proposition 4: Service organisations which are good at service recovery are better at managing in the coping zone

The survey work described so far did not allow this proposition to be tested. However anecdotal and empirical evidence would suggest some truth to the proposition. Centre Parcs, an activity holiday resort, minimises the need to cope through design of flexible facilities and the availability of a range of alternative activities which can be offered when capacity is being reached in a particularly popular activity. Los Locos a Mexican style restaurant and nightclub relies on the skills of their staff to interact with their customers make the service experience different from less busy times. American Express Authorisation Departments forecast and monitor demand and maintain high flexibility in the speed with which extras staff can be brought into action.

Proposition 5: Service organisations which are good copers are good at designing flexibility into their operations

This proposition would seem to follow from an examination of the other four. An understanding of flexibility and capability to build it into the delivery system and to manage it operationally should reduce the coping zone.

It would seem that service organisations which fall into the category of good copers already carry out many of the basics of good capacity management with regard to service quality and resource productivity, namely:

* Improving their forecasting capabilities
* Setting clear quality targets
* Setting clear resource productivity targets
* Understand the bottle-necks in service delivery and manage them
* Understand the need for flexibility and build it into the service delivery
* Understand the critical failure points in service delivery (Armistead and Clark 1992c)
* Understand the critical and sensitive hygiene dimensions of service quality (Armistead and Clark 1992c)

A Coping Action Strategy

The present situation for managing coping does not seem to be encouraging on the basis of an empirical examination of the propositions relating to capacity management and the achievement of service quality and resource productivity targets. If service organisations are to improve their service delivery to compete on the service recovery and unconditional service guarantees an extension of the simple capacity strategies proposed by Sasser et al (1976) are inadequate guidance for service operations managers.

Armistead (1990) has proposed the importance of an understanding of the service operations task as an instrument for translating service strategy into a service delivery system which is capable of achieving the goals of the strategy. Integral to the task are statements of:
- the customer service dimensions which are:
  a) critical dimensions leading to competitive advantage and
  b) sensitive hygiene dimensions which if absent lead to loss of
  customer satisfaction

- service demand which describes the nature and variation of demand and
  shifts in the mix of services

- resource productivity targets

- constraints on resources or the actions managers can take.

Empirical evidence from working with service organisations suggests that service
managers do not necessarily have the information on these four important factors
organised in a way which brings them together in a cohesive manner. The result is
that they cope by custom and practice rather than by design.

However even when a service operations task can describe what has to be achieved
in terms of customer service dimensions, demand and resource productivity targets,
these may apply to the service overall. Hence the intricacies of understanding what
is needed to ensure that service delivery is achieved consistently through a multi-
stage operation may be missed. The same criticism can be levelled at the Sasser
model (1976) which suggests looking at the whole of the service delivery. What is
needed is a means of bringing together information which focuses on the critical
aspects of service delivery at different stages and to consider the general capacity
management issues and the specific coping issues at each stage. A combination of a
model of operational focus (Larsson and Bowen 1989) and of resource activity
mapping (Armistead and Clark 1992) offer an improved approach.

C-F-B Operational Focus

Larsson and Bowen (1989) suggested that different types of service present service
operations managers with a different operational focus. Their model addresses
aspects of uncertainty in demand, first in the mix of services required ie diversity of
demand, and second in the nature of demand related to customers willingness to
participate. This matrix is similar to that proposed by Maister and Lovelock (1982)
for standardised and customised services producing added value mainly in either the
front office or the back room. Figure 2 shows a combination of the Larsson and
Bowen and the Maister and Lovelock models so that high diversity of demand is
associated with customised services and high customer disposition to participate
with high customer involvement and value added in the front office. Four situations
arise for the C-F-B operational focus:

* High customisation + Added Value in the Front Office [C-F]-B:

  In this case the operational focus is around the interaction between
  the front line service providers and the customer, typical of
  professional services. The back-room still has a role to play in
  providing support and can of course frustrate the efforts of the front
  line if it fails to deliver. However it is not visible to the customer.

* High Customisation + Added Value in the Back Room C-[F-B]:

  In this case, typical of market research or repair operations, the focus
  for the operations is in making sure that the information which is
  gathered from the customer is relayed to the back room doers and
  ensures that the customer is satisfied.
queries and suggestions flow in the opposite direction. The front office must understand capacity and the current state of the back room in negotiating directly with the customer rather than acting as a mere go between. Also there is still the important aspect of the front line staff managing the customer service encounter capably so there is no decrease in customer satisfaction through over-promising. The client content in this case is often only at the beginning and the end of the process.

* High Standardisation + Added Value in the Back Room C-F-[B]:

In this case the operational focus is on the back room. Aspects of efficiency are likely to be more important (following Chase and Tansik 1983). Many transport operations and traditional retailing banking fall into this category. The front office role is to make a standard service seem “warm” to the customer through customer care techniques, in effect to train the customer to expect a standard service.

* High Standardisation + Added Value Front Office [C-F-B]:

Here there is a departure from the Bowen and Larsson model. The situation is one of self service by the customer but rather than this being the operational focus it is proposed that the focus is on the chain to ensure that front office and back room coordinate to ensure that the customer is able to do the job, and to receive the full benefit.

* Capacity Strategies for the different Operational Focus

Each of the four different types of operational focus require their own capacity strategy as a general approach and for coping.

* Client Driven Interaction: [C-F]-B

The main capacity strategy is more likely to be level because of the professional status of front office staff. The assumption being that the service highly valued by the customer.

The approaches to coping include:

- establishing customer expectations
- starting the first stage of the process
- keeping in touch with clients
- having associates/locums who can help out
- using back room staff to provide customer care though the organisation must be careful that this is not perceived as mollifying clients
- down grade the service offering in a planned manner

* Front to Back Driven: C-[F-B]
The main capacity strategy is towards level because of constraints on staff with the necessary skills or specialised equipment.

The approaches to coping include:

- managing customer expectation in the front office
- front office knows the status in the back room to be able to re-negotiate with customers or update
- confuse ignorant customers with the back room complexity!

* Operations Driven: C-F-[B]

The main capacity strategy could be either chase or level.

The approaches to coping include:

- downgrade the service protecting sensitive hygiene dimensions of customer service
- rely on the front office relationships with the customer to minimise damage in periods of coping
- prioritise work

* Self Service Driven: [C-F-B]

The main capacity strategy is more towards chase.

The approaches to coping include:

- focussing on customers in trouble
- action/escalation teams
- provide a basic no frills service

Resource Activity Mapping

Resource activity mapping (Armistead and Clark 1992d) allows a presentation of the resources used in the different stages for the complete delivery of a service. The technique allows examination of the build of perceived added value associated with critical customer service dimensions and where costs are absorbed. Hence strengths and weaknesses of the process can be established and enhancements identified. The technique is particularly useful for identifying gaps in the linkage between different stages.

Coping Action Mapping

Coping action mapping brings together the approach of resource activity mapping to display end to end the activities which constitute the whole service delivery. The concept is to display the main capacity strategy capacity and the developed coping approaches or issues with reference to the main stages in delivering the total service.
service whilst taking account of the critical and sensitive hygiene customer service dimensions. The operational focus for each activity is also displayed. In practice it has been found that most service delivery can be reduced to between five and seven main activities. The coping action mapping matrix developed from these factors is shown in Figure 3.

The use of the matrix is to examine coping issues and approaches in relation to the customer service dimensions at each stage. The process is best illustrated by way of a case example.

Case example of the use of Coping Action Mapping

Intruder Alarms is a hypothetical company based on a real company which designs, installs and services burglar alarm and access control systems for major public buildings, industrial premises, retail outlets and large private houses.

The company has less than 500 hundred employees and a turnover of £30m per annum. It has four Regional General Managers, each responsible for Sales and Service in their territory. Each region in turn has three or four "depots" or district offices containing sales people, system installers, service engineers, and administrative staff. Administration includes routine customer enquiries, service engineer control and local inventory management.

There is a small Headquarters staff including the Managing Director, Sales Director, and Chief Accountant. Other central services include a major projects team, national account managers and a small group of electronic design specialists available as a resource to sales consultants to solve non-standard problems.

There is a central monitoring station to which key systems are connected to give immediate warning that a system alarm has been activated. Of total inventory 30% of materials both for installation and service is held in the local depots, the remainder being held in a central store. There are weekly stock deliveries to the depots.

The UK intruder alarm market is very fragmented. There are a number of national network suppliers. Intruder Alarms has a strong national brand name; ABC Alarms has more installed systems, but an inferior quality reputation; and XYZ Alarms has better geographical coverage but is higher priced.

Intruder Alarms has about 8% of the UK market in terms of number of installed systems, ABC holds 12%, and XYZ, 7%. A further 10% of the market is represented by three local companies specialising in large systems and the remainder is made up of many small local suppliers who deal with private customers and small retail premises.

Installing a system does not guarantee the service contract will continue. Because the systems contain standard parts smaller service providers are often able to offer low cost maintenance.

The market is growing at 5% per annum as crime rates increase, and insurance is linked to the effectiveness of security systems.

The Industry generally is not good at maintaining service standards. A general statistic is that 90% of all alarm calls are false alarms. The reasons for these false alarms include poor installation and design, infrequent maintenance and incorrect operation by customers. Apart from the cost implications, a major issue is that the
police may take a system "off response" if the calls are consistently false alarms with consequent problems of insurance and protection.

There is an industry trade association which lays down agreed minimum standards, but this is more cosmetic than rigorous.

The question for Intruder Alarms is how it can compete more effectively in what is becoming an extremely price sensitive market?

The main activities in the total service delivery process are:

* **Design** of the system initiated by sales persons in response to enquiries

* **Installation** of the equipment essentially by their own crews but sometimes using sub contractors.

* **Commissioning** of the system and training of the customers. Training is important as many false alarms are caused by user errors. It is also the stage at which the system is passed from the installing teams to the service and support team.

* **Monitoring** of the systems in use from a central monitoring station linked to the systems by telephone lines. If alarms are activated the monitoring station alerts the police, a designated key holder, and a service engineer. An industry standard demands that all calls of this nature are attended by a service engineer to reset the system within four hours. Failure to meet this standard could lead to the police refusing to respond to calls.

* **Service** of the equipment. The work may be to repair or upgrade a system or to carry out preventative maintenance. The work is carried out by service engineers based in district offices. Engineers may be transferred between districts to balance work loads.

* **Support** of the customer in giving advice about the use of the system or upgrades or re-training of users as staff are replaced. Support is usually delivered from the district offices either by telephone or by visits from service engineers or sales people.

The most important critical dimensions of customer service for the main service provided by the company are:

- The reliability of the system
- First time fix when things go wrong
- User training
- Documentation about the system and service contracts
- The attitudes of front line staff
- Price

The sensitive hygiene dimensions of customer service are:

- The ease of installation of the systems
- Meeting the 4 hour response time
- Routine maintenance
- Access to staff
- Customer records

The main activities in the service delivery are shown in Figure 4. For each activity the C-F-B operational focus and the basic capacity management approach used, and the customer service dimensions which are most influences by the activity are identified.

* **Design**: The operational focus is C-[F-B] because the sales people do some of the design activity themselves and have to relate to back-room engineering specialists and the producers of tenders. The capacity in this activity is basically "level" because of the skill level of the sales people. Additional capacity in the short term is available only through overtime.

* **Installation**: The operational focus is C-F-[B] with little involvement of the customer or the front line staff. The emphasis is on the control of the installation team to fit the system according to the design specifications. The capacity strategy is "chase" with use being made of subcontractors and the ability to transfer resources about the network of branches when necessary.

* **Commissioning**: The operational focus is now [C-F]-B with the emphasis on the training of the users and the hand over between the sales team and the service team. The capacity strategy is "level" with the process being determined by the availability of the service engineer.

* **Monitoring**: The operational focus is C-F-[B] and with a "level" capacity strategy due to the number of telecommunication lines into the central station.

* **Service**: The operational focus is C-F-[B] with the concentration on the servicing of the security systems and ensuring consistency of work with first time fix. The capacity strategy is "chase" with engineers being scheduled against workloads and overtime and transfer of resources being used to accommodate peaks.

* **Support**: The operational focus switches to [C-F]-B with the contact with the customer to answer queries and to give advice. A "level" capacity strategy is followed.

**The Coping Issues and Service Quality**

The issues which confront the service managers for each activity are to some extent determined by the bias of the basic capacity strategy, the nature of the activity itself, and the customer service dimensions. Importantly it is necessary to have a feel for the affect on perceived service quality and costs in the coping zone when capacity runs out.

Taking the activities one at a time the coping issues are:

* **Design**: The design process in itself helps to minimise the need for coping at later stages in service delivery by increasing the reliability of the system. Actions which can be taken to minimise the occurrence of coping at the design stage include being careful about over promising what can be achieved in a period of time and persuading potential customers to wait; this requires good information on what is possible. Where there are conflicting demands from a number of customers a
A system for prioritising customers is required. It is inevitable that at some times capacity will not be able to cope with demand and service levels will fall. In the short term extra resources cannot be added so it is important to control the fall in service. Rushed service should be avoided because of the importance of reliability in the customer service dimensions. Information systems like computer aided design operated by centralised design specialists can be used to cut the time to design.

* **Installation**: Resources can be increased to minimise coping if the transferring of resources can be anticipated and planned with sub contractors controlled by supervisory resources. Better control of materials reduces the possibility of coping caused by stock shortages.

* **Commissioning**: The issue here is concerned with transferring resources to be able to carry out customer training and hand over. If this fails the service levels are likely to fall with poor customer training leading to errors in the use of the system and poor hand over with the potential for an adverse effect on the reliability of the system.

* **Monitoring**: Coping will occur if there are so many incidents that there are insufficient staff to communicate with the police and service engineers. Some system of prioritising calls would minimise the effect or by spending more on remote diagnostics which would reduce call out to false alarms.

* **Service**: Coping in service will be reduced if the basics of service can be carried out. Preventative maintenance, which can be scheduled accurately, reduces the incidence of failures. Execution of fault free work when breakdown does occur and carried out at the first visit will also reduce the incidence of false alarms. When demand is running close to capacity and coping takes place and there will be a fall in the response time and the possibility of rushed service with mistakes being made. A vicious circle is set up of more coping leading to less time for preventative maintenance and hence more failures. The effects may be reduced by having comprehensive customer records of the system and of the key holders, by being able to schedule engineers real time, being able to maintain contact with them. The issue is concerned with how much can be spent to improve scheduling and customer records to control the fall in service with the present incidence of coping.

* **Support**: Coping can be frequently induced as the capacity is essentially level. As the main feature of customer service which is likely to be affected is access to information and to field staff the issue is to measure what is happening. When are customers being kept waiting? When are staff spending too little time with customers? When does the contact seem rushed for the customers? Are there errors in information or advice given to customers at these times?

* **General Issues**: Other actions to help to minimise coping include training of staff to increase their willingness to solve problems as they arise and engendering a right first time attitude in the service and support activities. The actions taken may involve a redesign of the service delivery system making increased use of technology to help in the design process, in remote diagnostics and remote resetting of alarms, in giving engineers access to information on specific systems, and for scheduling and controlling the movement of staff. All of which would help to increase the reliability of the systems and minimise failures thus reducing the coping zones.
Conclusions:

Research findings suggest that service managers are not good at managing capacity in relation to service quality. A coping capacity strategy is proposed as a way of augmenting the strategies of chase and level capacity management. The coping action map is an attempt to present a way of developing coping strategies which recognise changing operational focus, capacity strategies and customer service dimensions within a total service delivery. It is not prescriptive in the development of coping strategies at each stage but it does allow the main coping issues or approaches to be identified. If the aspect of coping is found to have an critical affect on service quality it indicates the need to develop a coping strategy. Such a strategy would include involve:

- improving the basics of capacity management in forecasting and scheduling
- measurement of service quality and utilisation of critical resources
- instituting a measuring system which will warn when the coping zone is being approached
- deciding whether to reduce service quality levels and how this should be done, or
- deciding how to bring in additional resources

Such an approach would help to overcome the shortfalls in understanding and managing capacity in relation to service quality.

References


Words 6250
FIGURE 1 CAPACITY MANAGEMENT

SERVICE MIX
- Variety
- Variation in Demand
- Resource absorption per service

RESOURCES CAPACITY
- Labour hours
- Equipment hours
- Space

CAPACITY MANAGEMENT
- Priorities
- Bottlenecks
- Forecasting
- Scheduling
- Demand Management
- Coping Strategies

CAPACITY LEAKAGE
- Labour
- Quality Failures
- Scheduling Losses
- Flexibility

SERVICE OUTPUT
- Calls / Day
- Guests / Night
Added Value
Back Room

Customise

Standardised

Front to Back
Room Driven

C - [F - B]

Front Office

Client Interaction
Driven

Operations Driven

Low Customer Contact

High Customer Contact

[C - F] - B

C - F - [B]

[C - F - B]

Self Service
Driven

Figure 2 Operational Focus for Service Delivery
(adapted from Larsson and Bowen 1989)
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<td>(ii) Sensitive Hygiene</td>
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Figure 3 Basic Coping Action Map
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<th>DESIGN</th>
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<tr>
<td>• Overpromising</td>
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<td>• Customer waiting</td>
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<td>• Prioritising leads</td>
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<td>• Controlling subcontracts</td>
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<td>• Transfering resources</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Transfering resources</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Contact &quot;key&quot; players</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Minimising incidents</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Record accuracy</td>
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<td>• Real time scheduling</td>
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<td>• Access to information and field staff</td>
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Figure 4. Coping Action Mapping
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