

**ISTANBUL TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY ★ GRADUATE SCHOOL OF ARTS AND
SOCIAL SCIENCES**

**THE DARK SIDE OF SERVICE ENVIRONMENT: A SYSTEMATIC
LITERATURE REVIEW AND EXPERIMENTAL EXAMINATION OF
DYSFUNCTIONAL BEHAVIORS DURING SERVICE EXPERIENCES**

Ph.D. THESIS

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Department of Management

Management Programme

JUNE 2018

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İSTANBUL TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ ★ SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ

**HİZMET ORTAMININ KARAKLIK YÜZÜ: HİZMET DENEYİMLERİ
SIRASINDAKİ İŞLEV DIŞI DAVRANIŞLAR İÇİN SİSTEMATİK LİTERATÜR
TARAMASI VE DENEYSEL BİR ARAŞTIRMA**

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HAZİRAN 2018

Dedicated to truth, reason and Machiavelli,

FOREWORD

“Homo homini lupus” [Man is wolf to man]

I have always believed that human beings are perfect self-deceivers. They are strongly tended to persuade themselves about the roots of evil by always attributing it to others. After I reviewing marketing and organization literatures on dysfunctional behaviors, I saw that service organizations, their members and also researchers are not so different. The mainstream literature has viewed pro-sociality and functionality at the center of organizational processes. Dysfunctionality or dark side issues, on the other hand, are viewed as marginal, extraneous and problems that “need to be corrected” for service organizations (Linstead, Maréchal, and Griffin, 2014). However, during my personal service experiences, what I see is unhappy frontline employees with fake smiles, obviously deceptive salespersons, frustrated dictator customers, supervisors being on a power-trip and so on. Now, at the final stages of this thesis adventure, I not only believe but also strongly argue that dysfunctionality is at the core of value creation processes, rooted in the nature of service provision. This thesis is an outcome of my endless pursuit of darker sides of human beings.

First of all, I would like to express my deepest appreciation to Prof. A. Banu ELMADAĞ BAŞ, my thesis advisor. My gratitude to her is beyond words. The biggest fear about my academic career is disappointing her.

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I believe there is no better scientific community than ITU Faculty of Management in Turkey. I’d like to thank its members. I also would like to acknowledge my research assistant friends in Management Engineering Department and Graduate School of Arts

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Welcome to the dark side, where all the fun stuff happens!

May, 2018

Mehmet OKAN
(Research Assistant)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
FOREWORD	ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS	xi
LIST OF TABLES	xv
LIST OF FIGURES	xvii
SUMMARY	xix
ÖZET	xxi
1. INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Importance of the Thesis.....	1
1.2 Content and Aim of the Thesis.....	8
2. A SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW	13
2.1 Preliminary Review of Construct Development and Clarification Studies.....	13
2.1.1 Hierarchical criteria map for construct clarity.....	14
2.1.2 General terms.....	16
2.1.3 Umbrella constructs.....	17
2.1.4 Bridging constructs.....	18
2.1.5 Specific constructs.....	18
2.1.6 Manifest variables.....	19
2.2 Procedure and summary for systematic literature review.....	20
2.3 Results of Scoping Review.....	23
2.3.1 Mapping the field.....	28
2.3.2 Dimensional evaluation of constructs.....	34
2.3.2.1 Intentionality.....	34
2.3.2.2 Majority/severity.....	36
2.3.2.3 Interpersonal vs. organizational.....	36
2.3.2.4 Behavioral motives.....	38
2.3.2.5 Episodic vs. repetitive.....	40
2.3.2.6 Buss's dimensions.....	42
2.3.2.7 Legality.....	43
2.3.2.8 Overt vs. covert.....	44
2.4 Results of systematic literature review and synthesis.....	45
2.4.1 Dysfunctional behavior: An umbrella construct.....	49
2.4.2 A bridging construct for harm motivated service actions.....	52
2.4.3 Internal structure of Targeted Dysfunctionality.....	52
2.5 Conclusion.....	55
3. A META-ANALYTIC REVIEW	57
3.1 A Series of Meta-Analytic Investigation of Dark-Side Behaviors During Service Experiences: Employee-Based Antecedents and Consequences of Customer Mistreatment.....	57
3.2 Meta-analysis and its importance for behavioral sciences.....	57
3.2.1 Meta-analyses in service research and in the field of dark side issues.....	60
3.3 Antecedents and consequences of customer mistreatment: Frontline employee point-of-view.....	64
3.3.1 Meta-analytic Study 1: Antecedents of customer mistreatment.....	65

3.3.1.1 Hypothesis development.....	68
3.3.1.2 Method.....	82
3.3.1.3 Results.....	89
3.3.1.4 Discussion.....	91
3.3.1.5 Conclusion.....	95
3.3.1.6 Limitations and future research directions.....	96
3.3.2 Meta-analytic study 2: Effects of customer mistreatment on targeted dysfunctionality.....	97
3.3.2.1 Hypothesis development.....	98
3.3.2.2 Method.....	100
3.3.2.3 Results.....	101
3.3.2.4 Discussion for meta-analytic study 2.....	103
4. EXPERIMENTAL EXAMINATIONS OF THE EFFECTS OF DYSFUNCTIONAL BEHAVIORS DURING SERVICE EXPERIENCES.....	105
4.1 Witnessing Aggression During Service Experiences.....	105
4.2 Aggression in Service Experiences: The Witness’s Perspective.....	107
4.2.1 Witnessing aggression and emotions: shame and embarrassment.....	108
4.2.2 Role of empathic tendencies.....	111
4.2.3 Distinctive effects of witnessing employee and customer aggression.....	112
4.2.4 Indirect effects of witnessing aggression on intentions.....	113
4.3 Experiment I.....	114
4.3.1 Method.....	115
4.3.1.1 Scenario development and preliminary tests.....	115
4.3.1.2 Procedure.....	116
4.3.1.3 Measures.....	117
4.3.2 Analyses and results.....	118
4.3.2.1 Preliminary analyses: Reliability and manipulation checks.....	118
4.3.2.2 Hypothesis tests.....	119
4.3.2.3 Moderation analyses.....	120
4.3.2.4 Conditional process analysis.....	122
4.4 Experiment II.....	124
4.4.1 Scenario development for experiment II.....	124
4.4.2 Procedure.....	125
4.4.3 Measures.....	126
4.4.4 Analyses and results of experiment II.....	127
4.4.4.1 Preliminary analyses: Reliability and manipulation checks.....	127
4.4.4.2 Hypotheses tests.....	129
4.4.4.3 Moderation analyses.....	130
4.4.4.4 Mediation analysis.....	132
4.4.5 Discussion and implications for theory and practice.....	134
4.4.5.1 Managerial implications.....	136
4.4.5.2 Limitations and future research directions.....	138
5. CONCLUSION.....	141
5.1 General Discussion.....	141
REFERENCES.....	145
APPENDICES.....	179
APPENDIX A: Studies that was used in Meta-Analysis.....	179
APPENDIX B: Online Materials for Experiment I and Experiment I.....	181
CURRICULUM VITAE.....	189

LIST OF TABLES

	<u>Page</u>
Table 2.1 : Characteristics of construct types.....	20
Table 2.2 : Procedure for systematic literature review.....	22
Table 2.3 : Studies that suggest typology for dark side behaviors.....	24
Table 2.4 : Construct definitions in dark side behavior literature.....	30
Table 2.5 : Characteristics of dark side constructs.....	47
Table 2.6 : Classification of dark side constructs.....	49
Table 3.1 : Meta-analysis studies in service research.....	61
Table 3.2 : Meta-analysis studies on dark-side issues in organization research.....	63
Table 3.3 : Definitions of the constructs of study 1.....	84
Table 3.4 : Correlations between moderators and control variables.....	87
Table 3.5 : Meta-Analytic results of relationships in meta-analytic study 1.....	88
Table 3.6 : Meta-Regression results of the moderator analysis.....	90
Table 3.7 : Meta-Analytic results of relationships.....	102
Table 4.1 : Sample characteristics of experiment I.....	117
Table 4.2 : Inter-item correlations of experiment 1.....	118
Table 4.3 : Means and standard deviations of experiment I.....	120
Table 4.4 : Model coefficients for conditional process analysis.....	123
Table 4.5 : Scenarios for manipulations (experiment 1 and experiment 2).....	125
Table 4.6 : Sample characteristics of experiment 2.....	126
Table 4.7 : Inter-item correlations of experiment 2.....	128
Table 4.8 : Means and standard deviations of experiment 2.....	129
Table 4.9 : Model coefficients for mediation analyses.....	133

LIST OF FIGURES

	<u>Page</u>
Figure 1.1 : Outline of the thesis.....	12
Figure 2.1 : Criteria Map for Hierarchical Classification of Constructs.....	16
Figure 2.2 : Internal structure of Targeted Dysfunctionality.....	53
Figure 2.3 : Hierarchical map for Targeted dysfunctionality.....	55
Figure 3.1 : Antecedents of customer mistreatment.....	81
Figure 3.2 : Relationship between customer mistreatment and dysfunctional employee behavior.....	100
Figure 4.1 : Conceptual model for experimental studies.....	114
Figure 4.2 : Moderation of empathic tendencies on the effect of witnessing aggression on shame.....	121
Figure 4.3 : Moderation of empathic tendencies on the effect of witnessing aggression on embarrassment.....	121
Figure 4.4 : Experiment II - shame.....	131
Figure 4.5 : Experiment II – embarrassment.....	131

THE DARK SIDE OF SERVICE ENVIRONMENT: A SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW AND EXPERIMENTAL EXAMINATION OF DYSFUNCTIONAL BEHAVIORS DURING SERVICE EXPERIENCES

SUMMARY

Service climate with ongoing functional and prosocial relationships among service actors, which are consistently and idealistically portrayed in promotional materials, has turned into an unrealistic utopia (Fisk et al., 2010). Several studies and industrial reports show that negativity in organizations, especially in organizational frontlines, is at the crisis level. In the same vein, in the last two decades, number of studies on dark side issues has skyrocketed. As accumulated knowledge in the field has increased, unsystematic term proliferation started to cause overlapping blurred constructs that impair construct clarity in the field. It now becomes essential to uncover constructs that clearly target actual world phenomena and understand their distinctive relations with specific antecedents and consequences. Therefore, the current thesis aims (1) to provide a conceptually clear, operationally meaningful and practically important set of constructs for dark side phenomena in service ecosystems and (2) to understand and examine these constructs' associated and distinctive relations with other motivational, cognitive, emotional and behavioral constructs.

In this dissertation, the author conducted three sets of studies that examine and resolve these aforementioned issues. Firstly, the author systematically reviewed studies related to dark side issues in organizational behavior and marketing literatures between 1975 and 2016. By using the results of this systematic review, the author suggests four sub-constructs (aggression, incivility, sabotage and production deviance), which can be clearly dissociated from others using two dimensions (person targeted/process targeted and ambiguity of harm).

Secondly, the author employed two meta-analytic studies that investigate the person targeted dysfunctional acts between customers and frontline employees during service experiences. In the first meta-analytic review, data from prior employee-level studies on customer mistreatment is collected and potential employee-driven antecedents of customer mistreatment are investigated. Results showed that organizational and personal factors significantly influence employees' exposure to customer mistreatment. Especially, customer orientation has a strong negative relationship with exposure to customer mistreatment. In the second meta-analysis, the relationship between customer mistreatment and frontline employees' dysfunctional acts is investigated. Results provided support for the suggested typology in the systematic review and findings showed that the effect of customer mistreatment on employee incivility, employee aggression, service sabotage behaviors and product deviance varies in strengths. Results provided no significant effect of customer mistreatment on employee aggression but strong relationship between employee incivility and employee sabotage.

Thirdly, author conducted two experimental studies that investigate the effects of employee and customer mistreatment on bystander customers' emotions, evaluations and judgments related to the service providers. Results showed that witnessing aggression during service experiences increase specific self-conscious emotions (shame and embarrassment) and decrease revisit intentions. Witnessing aggression among employees had stronger effect on witnessing customers' emotions than witnessing aggression among other customers. Second experimental study also showed that witnessing aggression effects embarrassment and shame but witnessing incivility only affects embarrassment but not shame.

All in all, this thesis project contributes to the literature by analyzing the internal structure of harm-motivated behaviors in service context and examining its antecedents and consequences from different point-of-views by using multiple methods. It is believed that this thesis provides valid explanations for what are the main characteristics of dark side issues, how these types of behaviors are formed and resulted.

HİZMET ORTAMININ KARAKLIK YÜZÜ: HİZMET DENEYİMLERİ SIRASINDAKİ İŞLEV DIŞI DAVRANIŞLARA YÖNELİK SİSTEMATİK LİTERATÜR TARAMASI VE DENEYSSEL BİR ARAŞTIRMA

ÖZET

Çeşitli promosyon malzemelerinde sıkça idealize edilerek resmedilenin tersine, hizmet aktörleri arasındaki işlevsel ve prososyal ilişkiler artık gerçek dışı bir ütopya dönüşmüş durumdadır (Fisk et al., 2010). Birçok çalışma ve sektör raporu, müşterileri-çalışan etkileşiminin yaygın olduğu bölgeler başta olmak üzere örgütlerde antisosyalliğin artık bir kriz halini aldığını göstermektedir. Tüm hizmet aktörlerinin (çalışanlar, müşteriler, yöneticiler, eski çalışanlar, firmanın müşterisi olmayan diğer tüketiciler...) birbirlerine yönelik olumsuz yönlü davranış biçimlerini sürekli ve sık biçimde hizmet ortamında gerçekleştirildiği görülmektedir. Bununla ilişkili olarak yaklaşık yirmi yıllık süreçte örgütlerin karanlık yüzü ile ilgili çalışmalarda bir patlama yaşandığını göstermektedir. Biriken bilgi birikimi arttıkça, sistematik olmayan bir biçimde üretilen kavramlar çalışma alanındaki yapı temizliğine (construct clarity) zarar vermektedir. Mevcut yaşama dair fenomenleri net bir şekilde hedefleyen kavramsal yapıların açığa çıkarılması ve bu kavramsal yapıları belirli öncül ve sonuçlarla olan ayırt edici ilişkilerinin incelenmesi giderek daha önemli bir hal almıştır.

Mevcut tez çalışması (1) hizmet ekosistemlerinde karanlık tarafa ait kavramsal olarak net, işlemsel olarak anlamlı ve tatbiki açıdan önemli kavramsal yapı gruplarının ortaya çıkarılmasını, diğer kavramsal yapı gruplarından ayrıştırılmasını ve (2) bu kavramsal yapıların diğer güdüsel, bilişsel, duygusal ve davranışsal kavramlar ile ilişkisinin anlaşılmasını ve ampirik olarak test edilmesini amaçlamaktadır. Yazar, bu amaçlar doğrultusunda üç ayrı metodolojide (sistematik literatür taraması, meta-analiz ve deneysel araştırma) toplam altı çalışma yürütmüştür.

İlk olarak, yazar 1975 ile 2016 yılları arasındaki tüketici ve çalışan davranışının karanlık taraflarını inceleyen indeksli çalışmaları taramıştır. Bu sistematik literatür taramasının sonuçlarından hareketle, iki boyut sayesinde birbirinden ayrılan dört kavramsal altyapıyı (subconstruct) içeren bir tipoloji önermiştir. Bu tipoloji dahilinde odaklı işlevdışılığın (targeted dysfunctionality) dört kavramsal altyapı tarafından net bir şekilde açıklanabildiği görülmüştür: Saldırganlık (aggression), kabalık (incivility), sabotaj (sabotage) ve üretkenlikten sapma (production deviance). Saldırganlık ve sabotaj kavramları, hizmet aktörlerinin zarar verme amaçlarının net olduğu ve açık bir şekilde anlaşılabilirliği davranışları ifade ederken; kabalık ve üretkenlikten sapma davranışları zarar verme amaçlarının muğlak olduğu ve kolay anlaşılabilirliği durumları ifade etmektedir. Sabotaj ve üretkenlikten sapma davranışları direkt olarak hizmet süreçlerine zarar verme amaçlı davranışları ifade ederken; saldırganlık ve kabalık ise hizmet aktörü bireyleri (çalışanlar, müşteriler, yöneticiler gibi) hedef almaktadır.

İkinci olarak, yazar çalışanlar ile müşteriler arasındaki işlevdışı davranışları inceleyen iki meta-analiz çalışması uygulamıştır. İlk meta-analiz çalışmasında, yazar müşteri kötü muamelesi ile ilgili müşteriler ile doğrudan irtibat halindeki çalışanlardan toplanan veriler kullanılarak hazırlanan çalışmalardaki verileri bir araya getirmiş ve tüketici kötü muamelesinin çalışan ile ilgili öncüllerini araştırmıştır. 1990-2018 yılları arasında yönetim, pazarlama ve turizm alanında yapılan çalışmalar ayrıntılı bir şekilde taranmıştır. Örgütsel ve bireysel birçok faktörün çalışanların müşteri kötü muamelesine maruz kalmalarını arttırdığı ve azalttığı görülmüştür. Özellikle, çalışanların müşteri odaklı olmasının bu maruz kalmayı önemli ölçüde azalttığı ortaya çıkmıştır. Kişilik özellikleri arasından ise nevrotik ve olumsuz duygulanımı (negative affectivity) yüksek bireylerin diğer çalışanlara göre daha fazla müşteri kötü muamelesine maruz kaldığı görülmektedir. Aynı zamanda iş arkadaşları tarafından kötü muamele gören ve onlar ile sürekli çatışma yaşayan bireylerin, aynı zamanda müşteriler tarafından da kötü muameleye maruz kaldıkları ve çalışan kötü muamelesi ile müşteri kötü muamelesi arasındaki ilişkinin kuvvetli olduğu görülmüştür. Beklenenin aksine yaş ve tecrübenin diğer faktörlere göre daha zayıf etkilerinin olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. İkinci meta-analiz çalışmasında, müşteri kötü muamelesi ile çalışanların işlev-dışı davranışları arasındaki ilişki incelenmiştir. Sonuçlar, sistematik literatür çalışması sonucunda önerilen tipolojiyi destekler niteliktedir. Müşteri kötü muamelesi ile saldırgan müşteri davranışları arasında bir ilişki görülmesi de kaba çalışan davranışını güçlü bir şekilde arttırdığı görülmüştür. Kabalık üzerindeki etkisi kadar kuvvetli olmasa da müşteri kötü muamelesinin, çalışanların müşteriye yönelik sabotaj davranışlarını ve firma süreçlerine yönelik olarak da üretkenlikten sapma davranışlarını önemli ölçüde arttırdığı meta-analiz çalışması ile ortaya çıkmıştır. Bu etkilerin hizmetin sosyal karakteristiğine göre farklılaştığı görülmüştür. Sosyal niteliği öne çıkan hemşirelik, öğretmenlik, hasta bakım, sosyal hizmetler gibi mesleklerde müşteri kötü muamelesinin çalışanların işlevdışı davranışlarına etkisi daha düşük iken; ticari boyutu öne çıkan satış, konaklama gibi sektörlerde ve işlerde bu etkinin daha yüksek olduğu gözlemlenmiştir.

Üçüncü olarak yazar iki deneysel çalışma ile müşteriler arasındaki ve çalışanlar arasındaki kötü muamelenin üçüncü kişilerin belirli duyguları ve değerlendirmeleri üzerindeki ilişkisini incelemiştir. Saldırgan davranışlar hizmet ortamının ahlaki ve toplumsal normlarını ihlal etmekte ve bu ahlaki normların ihlali utanma ve utanç duygularını harekete geçirmektedir. Harekete geçen bu duygular empatik eğilimlerin de etkisiyle hizmet ortamındaki diğer müşterilere geçmektedir. Sonuçlara göre hizmet ortamında saldırgan davranışlara tanıklık etmek üçüncü kişi konumundaki müşterilerin utanç ve utanma hislerini uyandırdığı ve hizmet ortamını bir daha ziyaret etme isteklerini azalttığını göstermiştir. Ayrıca çalışanlar arasındaki saldırgan davranışlar, müşteriler arasındaki saldırgan davranışlara göre duygular ve değerlendirmeler üzerinde daha etkili olduğu görülmüştür. Ortaya çıkan bir diğer sonuç ise empatik eğilimleri yüksek olan bireylerin, tanık oldukları saldırgan davranışlardan bu eğilimleri düşük olan bireylere göre daha fazla etkilendikleri; utanma ve utanç duygularını daha yoğun hissettikleri ve yeniden ziyaret etme niyetlerinin daha fazla azaldığı görülmüştür. İkinci deneysel çalışma sonucuna göre ise saldırgan davranışlara tanıklık etmek hem utanç hem de utanma duygularını harekete geçirirken; kaba davranışlara tanıklık etmek sadece utanma duygusunu harekete geçirmekte; utanç duygusunu etkilememektedir.

Sonuç olarak, bu tez projesi zarar-odaklı-davranışların iç yapısını hizmet bağlamında analiz ederek; farklı referans noktaları üzerinden araştırarak ve farklı metodolojik

yöntemler ile test ederek literatüre katkı sağlamıştır. Karanlık tarafa ait konuların temel karakteristiklerine dair geçerli açıklamalar geliştirildiği ve sonuçlar ortaya konulduğuna inanılmaktadır. Hizmet bağlamında bu davranışların nasıl oluştuğu ve nasıl sonuçlandığı; hizmet aktörlerinin motivasyonlarıyla, bilişsel süreçleriyle, duygularıyla, çevresel faktörlerle, kişilik özellikleriyle ve hizmet ortamında gösterdikleri davranışlar ile nasıl bir ilişki içerisinde olduğu ortaya konulmuştur.

1. INTRODUCTION

Rapidly increasing problem of “negativity” in daily life and growing attention to dark side issues¹ in organizations and consumer research has turned service environments into a prolific behavioral habitat for both researchers and practitioners. The myth of functional service provision processes with peaceful customer-provider relationships was demolished long ago. Today, dysfunctionality in service environments is a common problem in different service contexts (Porath, MacInnis, and Folkes, 2010). All of the service ecosystem actors (customers, employees, managers, non-customers, ex-employees, bystanders etc.) compete with each other to be the most offensive, destructive and hostile that intend to harm other actors, service provision processes, well-being of the organization and its brand (Fisk et al., 2010; Grandey, Kern, & Frone, 2007; Kähr, Nyffenegger, Krohmer, & Hoyer, 2016). Moreover, increasing number of negative experiences with service providers in service environments and increasing confrontation of destructive and offensive hostility indicate new phenomena in service context (Kähr et al., 2016) that was previously observed in intra-organizational relations (Analoui, 1995).

1.1 Importance of the Thesis

In 2017, three incidents in the news spots showed the severity and level of negativity and dysfunctionality in organizational frontlines, where organizational members interact with their customers. On April 11th, one of the passengers of United Airlines was forcibly and violently dragged off from the plane after no one had accepted to voluntarily compensate their seats with next flight (CNN) (Zdanowicz and Grinberg, 2017). On May 1st, one of the passengers of Pegasus Airlines was severely beaten by

¹ Throughout the thesis, author uses “dark side behaviors”, “dark side issues” or “dark side actions” as general term that encompass somewhat motivated behaviors of the service actors (i.e., employees, customers, managers) that have undesirable results for individuals or organizations (Griffin and O’Leary-Kelly, 2004). In some sections, author prefer to use “dysfunctional behavior”, rather than “dark side behaviors”, because of its stress on harmful results, rather than motivational background.

other passengers for harassing other passengers. Finally, on May 3th, the video, filmed on a Tokyo – Los Angeles flight, showed men punching each other for seats (Dailymail) (Burns, 2017). These viral videos represent a very small proportion and a very specific form of the dark side of service experiences in a very specific context. Scope of negative service experiences has shifted its range from disconfirmation of expectations and basic service promises to destruction of the whole experience with extremely deviant behavioral conducts, which can turn loyal customers into your worst enemies (Grégoire and Fisher, 2008; Kähr et al., 2016). These cases represent only one specific type of the dark side behavior (physical aggression) in a very specific service sector (airline industry) within a very short time period. Today, scope and variety of dysfunctional behaviors in service ecosystems are vast and complex. Besides, the consequences of these behaviors on the well-being of the service organizations and service providing processes are severely harmful.

Negativity is a severe trend for organizations, for services and for society in general. Universally, individuals air their grievances about uncivil climates in almost all interactional contexts, such as politics, broadcast media, social media channels, organizations, and service interactions. According to *Civility in America* report, more than nine in ten adults believe that incivility is a real problem in America. Sixty-six percent of all Americans also express that lack of civility problem has risen to crises levels (*Civility in America*, 2014). According to Smith, Phillips, and King (2010) growing incivility is a common and universal problem throughout the history. They argue that, in our age, problem is not only about the crisis of civil society but also incivility has widespread, virulent and intense effects on social anxiety.

Almost all related studies and reports support these arguments in the contexts of service interactions (see Yagil, 2008: Table 1). According to Porath and Pearson (2013), 98% of employees report that they experience incivility in their workplace and 50% of those report that they are treated rudely once a week. More importantly, the ratio of employees who were treated rude once a week doubled from 1998 to 2011 (Pearson and Porath, 2009; Porath and Pearson, 2013). In a qualitative study, 85% of frontline employee informants admitted that they sabotaged service providing processes at least one time in the week of interview (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). 40% of surveyed customers report they witness incivility among employees at least once a month (Porath et al., 2010).

Reports and studies also support that customers are one of the most backbreaking source of dark side acts that cause. Workplace Aggression Report of CPSU (Community and Public Sector Union) shows 96% of Australians have been a victim of verbal abuse and threat. Nearly two-thirds of organizational members had been verbally abused at work in the last two months, 80% of these victims were abused and threatened directly by customers and in 80% of these experiences perpetrators are customers (CPSU, 2008). Similarly, USDAW (Union of Shop Distributive and Allied Workers) Report shows that customers' physical aggression and sexual harassment against front-of-store assistants increased from 41 to 51 per 1000 during 2016 in United Kingdom (USDAW, 2016). In England and Wales, Violence at Work 2015/16 Report of HSE (Health and Safety Executive) reports that 350.000 adults experienced work-related violence and 44% of those experienced violence more than one times (HSE, 2016). Call center employees reported on average 7 hostile calls from customers per day (Grandey, Dickter, & Sin, 2004). 74% of the frontline employees in airline and railway industries report verbal abuse from customers at least once a month (Boyd, 2002). Almost all of the informants of various qualitative studies report that they are consistently exposed to or witness deviant customer actions in specific service industries, such as airlines, hotels, bars and restaurants (Folgerø & Fjeldstad, 1995; Harris & Reynolds, 2004; Harris & Reynolds, 2003; Reynolds & Harris, 2006). 40% of interviewed social workers report that they had been the victim of verbal abuse from customers (Ringstad, 2005). Results of the survey study of Gettman and Gelfand (2007), show that rates of female employees who have experienced sexual harassment by customers are at deadly serious levels (sexist hostility: 86%; sexual hostility: 67%; unwanted sexual harassment: 40%; sexual coercion: 8%).

Therefore, these findings show that dark side issues in service environment are crucial problem in service environment and have widespread effects on the health of service organizations and their members.

Constantly increasing trend of dark side behaviors in service ecosystems reveals two main problems in literature. First problem is related to the skyrocketing numbers of empirical and theoretical studies about dark side behaviors in organization and marketing research. Associated with the severity of negativity in workplace and marketplace, research into "dark side behaviors" has received considerable attention

from organization and marketing researchers for over 20 years². Especially, research in the area of interpersonal dysfunctional behaviors, namely mistreatment, has exploded in the workplace, servicescape and marketplace contexts (Hershcovis, 2011; Skarlicki, van Jaarsveld, Shao, Song, and Wang, 2016). Organizational (and management) framework focuses on individual-level, group level and organization level antecedents and consequences of dark side actions, which are performed in the scope of workplace (Griffin, O’Leary-Kelly, and Collins, 1998). Marketing (and consumer) researchers, on the other hand, mainly focus on dark side actions, which are performed in the marketplace and their antecedents and consequences during value-creation processes. As accumulated knowledge in the field has increased, unsystematic term proliferation cause overlapping blurred constructs that impair construct clarity in the field. Well-researched existing phenomena may be re-introduced to the literature with new labels and these labels only “muddy the construct water” (Rynes, Giluk, and Brown, 2007). Besides, newly identified elements and terms cause fragmentation in study fields, fracturing theoretical development (Nixon, 2011). It is also important to note that fragmentation have costs in different areas, such as teaching, research, publication (Zammuto and Connolly, 1984). In fact, organization and marketing scholars inherited complex terminology from the field of abnormal psychology and human aggression, which was referred to as “semantic jungle” by Bandura (1973). In 1998, Robinson and Greenberg identified eight terms that related to dark side behaviors in organizations: “noncompliant behavior” (Puffer, 1987); “workplace deviance” (Robinson and Bennett, 1995); “workplace aggression” (Baron and Neuman, 1996); “organizational misbehavior” (Vardi and Wiener, 1996); “organization-motivated aggression” (O’Leary-Kelly, Griffin, and Glew, 1996); “antisocial behavior” (Giacalone and Greenberg, 1997); “employee vice” (Moberg, 1997); “organizational retaliation” (Skarlicki and Folger, 1997). Vardi and Weitz (2004) added two constructs: “dysfunctional behavior” (Griffin et al., 1998) and “counterproductive work behavior” (Sackett and DeVore, 2001). According to Vardi and Weitz (2004), in the early stages of the field, one should not expect consensus among scholars and scholars should be able to recognize perspective differences.

² It is important to note that, before 90s, organization and marketing literatures had placed emphasis on functional and prosocial aspects of organizational and marketplace behaviors and antisocial and dysfunctional aspects were seen as extreme, abnormal, in need to be corrected and managed by organizational and marketing professionals (Ang and Koslow, 2012; Linstead et al., 2014).

However, after 2003, organizational researchers increasingly introduced new constructs to the literature. In the new edition of their textbook, Vardi and Weitz (2016) gave examples of recent constructs, such as “detrimental citizenship” (Pierce and Aguinis, 2015); “generalized workplace harassment” (Rospenda and Richman, 2004); “pathological workplace behavior” (Babiak and Hare, 2006); “insidious workplace behavior” (Greenberg, 2010), “organizational wrongdoing” (Palmer, 2012), “workplace idleness” (Paulsen, 2014). Raver and Barling (2008) also identified eleven scholarly defined constructs, which are related to the dark side of the workplace and all of these constructs are frequently used in literature.

Almost all of these constructs are constructed as “umbrella constructs” (Hirsch and Levin, 1999) that define diverse set of phenomena (Floyd, Cornelissen, Wright, and Delios, 2011). In less general and more specific levels, the field of dark-side behavior have turned into “linguistic fog” (Nixon and Spector, 2015). According to several well-established scholars, popular mistreatment constructs have considerable overlapping definitions and measurement methods although they have few distinctive characteristics (Aquino and Thau, 2009; Hershcovis, 2011; Shapiro, Duffy, Kim, Lean, and O’Leary-Kelly, 2008). In the early stages of academic field, diverse set of terminologies and overlapping problems are normal (Vardi and Weitz, 2004). However, the body of knowledge in this academic field has been augmented. In this stage, scholars need to use a common set of terminologies and consolidate their findings (Reichers and Schneider, 1990). This problem not only fragments the study fields fracturing theoretical development but also it decreases the efficiency of empirical studies. Many scholars investigate virtually identical dark side behaviors but they label these behaviors differently (Raver and Barling, 2008; Spector and Fox, 2005). Scholars, who studied these overlapping constructs, largely examine same relationships repeatedly (Hershcovis, 2011). According to Bowling and Beehr (2006), different labels indicate same mistreatment constructs because their antecedents and consequences are the same. Moreover, this problem causes serious psychometric problems. Differently defined constructs may have been measured with same items (Raver and Barling, 2008). Spector and Fox (2005) shows how workplace deviance, workplace aggression and retaliatory behavior scales have almost same items. Some constructs are also measured with item-borrowing. Douglas and Martinko (2001)

measured aggression with Robinson and O’Leary-Kelly (1998)’s antisocial behavior scale.

Especially in organization research, in an attempt to overcome this problem, scholars called for a more unified view and meaningful research models that investigate the consequences and moderating dimensions of these behaviors (Hershcovis, 2011; Nixon, 2011; Nixon and Spector, 2015; Tepper and Henle, 2011). Two different views were suggested for constructing meaningful common set of terminologies. According to Hershcovis (2011), in the research area of workplace mistreatment, almost all the frequently used constructs (bullying, incivility, social undermining, mobbing, workplace aggression, emotional abuse, victimization) do not add noticeable contribution to our knowledge of dark side behaviors. She suggested that these constructs could be reconciled within workplace aggression constructs. Additionally, according to the meta-analysis of Hershcovis (2011), measured outcomes of several constructs are similar (job satisfaction, turnover intent, psychological well-being, physical well-being, affective commitment) although their construct definitions are different. If their consequences are same or similar, why scholars investigate these constructs under different research streams? Tepper and Henle (2011), on the other hand, argue that it is important to separate conceptually and operationally meaningful constructs from the constructs that only muddy the construct pool and inhibit theoretical progress. Some seemingly overlapping constructs include conceptually meaningful differences, for instance incivility vs. victimization; revenge vs. retaliation; interpersonal deviance vs. revenge. Therefore, according to them, using blanket terms to capture diverse set of phenomena may cause missing theoretically important distinctions.

Similar problems started to appear in marketing and consumer research. Although dark-side issues in consumption contexts started to be comprehensively investigated in 21st century (Fullerton and Punj, 2004; Harris and Reynolds, 2003), wide and confusing range of terms were employed for indicating such actions in a short span of time (Fisk et al., 2010). Several terms used interchangeably referring to consumers’ generally accepted norm-violations in exchange settings (Daunt and Harris, 2012a), such as “aberrant consumer behavior” (Abdelhadi, Foster, and Whysall, 2014; Fullerton and Punj, 1993), “problem customer behavior” (Bitner, Booms, and Mohr, 1994), “inappropriate behavior” (Strutton, Vitell, and Pelton, 1994), “jaycustomer

behavior” (Fong, So, and Law, 2017; Harris and Reynolds, 2004; Lovelock and Wright, 1999) “dysfunctional customer behavior” (Gong, Yi, and Choi, 2014; Harris and Reynolds, 2003) “consumer misbehavior” (Daunt and Greer, 2015; Fullerton and Punj, 2004) “deviant customer behavior” (Dootson, Johnston, Beatson, and Lings, 2016; Reynolds and Harris, 2006), “defective co-creation” (Greer, 2015). Scholars introduced most of these umbrella terms over a decade ago. Most of these terms are still used by scholars interchangeably. Another important problem is related to dominant normative perspective of marketers: “Customer is the King”. Both the marketing academicians and practitioners have thought customers were always right. However, widespread acceptance of customer sovereignty sometimes ends up with the dictatorship of the customer (Reynolds and Harris, 2006) that really impair the performance and well-being of the organization members, especially frontline employees. Although this idea is criticized several times (Grandey et al., 2004; Homburg, Müller, and Klarmann, 2011; Reynolds and Harris, 2006; Sorell, 1994) it still has widespread acceptance in the marketing discipline. Therefore, according to this perspective, misbehaving customer is seen as an oxymoron (Ang and Koslow, 2012). Relatedly, in the early phases of literature, dark side consumer behaviors are mostly seen as extreme cases or types of abnormality, such as consumer fraud (Cole, 1989); shoplifting (Cox, Cox, and Moschis, 1990). First special issue on dark side consumer behaviors appeared in *Psychology and Marketing* in 1996. In this issue, most studies investigated the addictive and compulsive consumption behaviors. According to Ang and Koslow (2012), marketing academicians approach dark side consumer behaviors as bundles of norm-violating behaviors that needed to be managed for controlling consumers’ actions better. Because of these conditions, author of this thesis argues, in marketing discipline, (1) conceptualizations and classifications of dark side behaviors are mostly practice-driven (e.g., (Lovelock and Wright, 1999)’s classification of jaycustomers) rather than theory-driven so there is broad terminological gap between organization and marketing research; (2) dimensional explanations are too few (e.g. Harris and Reynolds, (2004); and (3) there is a lack of constructs that bridge narrowly defined specific constructs (such as sexual harassment, fraudulent returns, customer incivility) with each other and bridge these constructs with broadly defined umbrella constructs (such as dysfunctional behavior).

Service research mainly stands on the shoulders of marketing and organization disciplines so current thesis draws on the literature in marketing, organizational behavior and psychology to suggest coherent and practically relevant conceptualizations of dark side issues in service contexts. Servicescapes are the joint spheres of workplaces and marketplaces so dark side issues in service contexts are investigated by both organization and marketing scholars (Grönroos and Voima, 2013) thus it is a meaningful field area for bridging these disciplines and provide term unity. Moreover, “service science” is an emerging discipline (Vargo and Akaka, 2009) that needs to develop its own common language. Unfortunately, behavioral service researches on dark side issues inherit complex, dissociated and amorphous terminology from organization and marketing literatures. Service researchers started to use differently labeled but virtually identical constructs interchangeably. In the first part of this thesis, the author aims to solve these construct clarity problems and suggest a conceptually meaningful and operationally valid set of behavioral constructs and sub-constructs for the dark side of service phenomena that may provide common terminology for service researchers. It is important because clarity, straightforwardness and shared theoretical structures in different fields increase effective communication between scholars and fields, scholars’ ability to obtain scientific resources and, consequently, development of the field (Pfeffer, 1993).

1.2 Content and Aim of the Thesis

This thesis aims (1) to provide conceptually clear, operationally meaningful and practically important set of constructs for dark side phenomena in service ecosystems and (2) to understand and examine these constructs’ associated and distinctive relations with other motivational, cognitive, emotional and behavioral constructs. It is believed that this literature review provides connection and helps to uncover relationships among umbrella constructs (dysfunctional behavior) and more specific constructs (aggression, sabotage, incivility and counterproductive deviance) (Hirsch and Levin, 1999). A comprehensive systematic review of organization and marketing literatures for dark side issues is carried out. On the other hand, this thesis mainly focuses on constructs with “intention to harm” motive since it is a well-documented motivation in organization research under several differently labeled research streams, such as workplace aggression, revenge and retaliation, workplace incivility, insidious

work behavior and workplace bullying. More importantly, this motivation indicates relatively new and important phenomenon for marketing, consumer and service researchers (Kähr et al., 2016). Besides, as results of the literature review and conceptualizations, author also expects to develop better defined constructs that are overtly distinct from other constructs based on one or more dimensions and to develop more coherent constructs, which take part in logically consistent and scientifically relevant totality (Suddaby, 2010).

Systematic literature review mainly focuses on the “dark side” acts in workplace and marketplace contexts. These “dark side” actions of organizationally insiders (manager and employee deviance) and outsiders (customer misbehavior) are mostly studied under separate research streams in organization research (Robinson and Greenberg, 1998) and marketing research (Fullerton and Punj, 2004). In service research, these two research streams are integrated but scholars tend to treat as separate (Groth and Grandey, 2012). As explained before, service research needs to develop clearer constructs that integrate different types of actions from customer and employee points of view (Bitner, 1992). Under traditional research streams, dark side actions of employees and customers are investigated separately and unrelatedly but new studies show, in the service context, these actions are highly related (Daunt and Harris, 2014; Walker, van Jaarsveld, and Skarlicki, 2014). It is believed that systematic examination of both literatures uncovers overlapping constructs and multiple labeling problems and will help mapping the hierarchical and horizontal relationships between constructs. Moreover, systematic literature review can provide transparency, clarity and impartial inclusive coverage on a specific research area (Parris and Peachey, 2013; Thorpe, Holt, Macpherson, and Pittaway, 2005). There are lots of broader and narrower constructs and unconstructed terms related to dark side actions in marketing and management literatures that need to be rationally and systematically eliminated for construct clarity. Systematic review is a very suitable way for this issue because it is “a comprehensive review of all published articles selected to address a specific question using a systematic method of identifying relevant studies in order to minimize biases and error” (Jesson, Matheson, and Lacey, 2011, p. 108).

In the systematic literature review process and further meta-analytic and experimental studies, author mainly focuses on “intention to harm” motivation because it reflects a new phenomenon in service environment. As explained before, today, these harm-

motivated uncivil, aggressive, saboteur and unproductive actions are conducted not only by intra-organizational actors but also all service ecosystem actors. Author introduces the concept of “targeted dysfunctionality” as a bridging construct that indicates an “intended to harm” oriented service actor behaviors. It refers to unambiguous or ambiguous actions of service actors that are dominantly motivated by causing harm to other actors and/or service provision processes. Previously, in organization and marketing literatures, studies uncover different types of constructs that are partially related to “harm motivation” such as workplace aggression (Baron and Neuman, 1996), customer aggression (Grandey et al., 2004), consumer brand sabotage (Kähr et al., 2016), service sabotage (Harris and Ogbonna, 2002), antisocial behavior (Giacalone and Greenberg, 1997), organizational misbehavior type D (Vardi and Wiener, 1996). “Intended to harm” motivation is the common ground for all of these constructs. However, author of this thesis argues fragmentation and labeling proliferation in dark side research in marketing and organization (Fisk et al., 2010; Hershcovis, 2011) mask these constructs’ dimensional relations and connections with each other and with higher-order constructs.

Systematic literature review, the first part of this thesis (Chapter 2), consists of three stages with one preliminary review. In preliminary review, the author reviewed construct development and classification studies in marketing and management literatures for developing suitable protocol for validly classifying and synthesizing constructs related to dark side issues. First stage encompasses scanning organization and marketing literatures, listing all the encountered terms that indicate “dark side” actions of organizationally insiders or outsiders and, finally, classifying these terms based on construct specificity and relation with “intended to harm” motivation. Second stage, on the other hand, encompasses listing main dimensions in the literature that differs these behavioral constructs from other behavioral constructs and actions. It is conducted by probing the lay definitions from dictionaries, and scholar definitions and conceptualizations of these terms. In the third stage, author synthesizes these conceptualizations and develops construct definitions and classifications that provide meaningful compact terminology to the field of dark-side issues in service research.

In the second (Chapter 3) and third (Chapter 4) parts of this thesis, author also aims to examine distinctive factors that affect dark-side actions and distinctive effects of specific “intention to harm” motivated dark side actions on emotions and service

outcomes. By using a meta-analytic approach, author examines how these determinants and consequences differ for various types of dark-side actions. Author tested motivational and environmental determinants of dark side actions in service context (customer mistreatment against frontline employees) by using a meta-analytic framework. From the perspective of appraisal theory, both aggression and incivility constructs have specific characteristics (i.e. moral violation) that can elicit specific and distinctive emotions. In the third part of the thesis, author aims to bring into connection with behavioral dark side constructs with a cognitively grounded emotional theory.

In the third part of the thesis, author examines the differential effects of two popular interpersonal dark side actions (aggression and incivility) on concrete emotions. Author of this thesis argues that appraisal processes of concrete emotions are related to the characteristics of specific emotions. Two negative emotion groups, which are highly relevant to service contexts, are examined in this thesis: emotions related to expectation disconfirmation (regret, disappointment, anger, sadness) and social relational self-conscious emotions (shame, embarrassment, guilt). Based on the appraisal theory and emotional system theory perspectives, this thesis argues aggressive and uncivil interactions cause motive-inconsistent and expectation-disconfirmed situations for service actors by violating moral social and service-related codes and the key emotions that regulate social relational emotions and emotions related to expectation disconfirmation in service ecosystems (Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, 1996, 2013; Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004). Associations among aggression, incivility and service related cognitive and behavioral outcomes (judgments, evaluations and intentions) are also investigated in the third part of this thesis.

For examining the mechanisms among the dark side phenomena and concrete emotions, three experimental studies were conducted. Using scenarios, author of this thesis compared consumers' emotional appraisal processes when they witness employee mistreatment and other customer mistreatment (aggression and incivility). In these three studies, author had chance to test causal relations between these actions and concrete emotions. In these studies, the third-party (observers or witnesses) perspective was used, rather than traditionally examining first party actors (perpetrators and victims). Although previous literature mostly focuses on the effects of customers' and employees' dark side actions on targets' emotional, cognitive and behavioral processes, especially in service contexts, an aggressive incident may have

widespread effects through the witnessing process rather than direct victimization. Relatedly, marketing and organization literature are increasingly interested in third party reactions to dark side actions (O'Reilly and Aquino, 2011; O'Reilly, Aquino, and Skarlicki, 2016; Porath et al., 2010; Porath, MacInnis, and Folkes, 2011; Priesemuth and Schminke, 2017; Sims and Sun, 2012; Skarlicki and Kulik, 2004; Skarlicki and Rupp, 2010). Previously mentioned United Airlines case shows why third-party reactions are severely important in the age of social media. For understanding how third parties emotionally appraise these dark side actions, author also examined the role of interpersonal reactivity tendencies. Three interpersonal reactivity components were investigated: empathy, emotional contagion and perspective taking (Davis, 1983; McBane, 1995). Moderator role of these sub-constructs for eliciting emotions were hypothesized and tested in these studies.

Outline of the research process of this thesis has shown below (Figure 1.1):

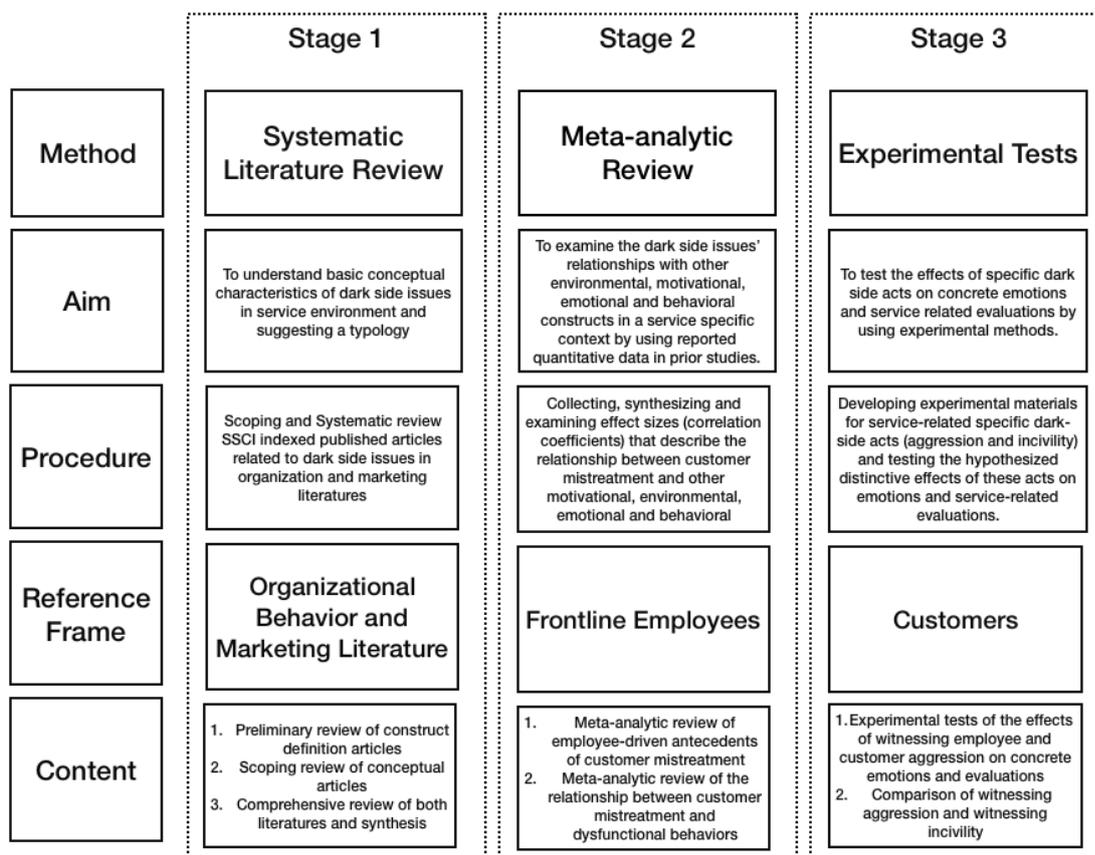


Figure 1.1 : Outline of the thesis.

2. A SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW

This thesis employs systematic literature review by adapting the key phases of systematic literature review process (Jesson et al., 2011). Moreover, a bibliometric analysis (Galvagno and Dalli, 2014; Nerur, Rasheed, and Natarajan, 2008) is integrated to this systematic process.

The systematic literature review is conducted in two stages and four phases. Before starting the systematic review, author reviewed construct development and classification studies to develop systematic criteria for construct classification. In systematic review, first stage is the stage that maps the field through scoping review to gain broad understanding and general description of the field. This traditional review process also helps author to determine the scope of the related literature for systematic review process. Author carefully read and probed basic and/or most cited articles. After that the author determined, read conceptual/theoretical studies that review the literature and empirical studies that suggest typology and classification for negative behavior in literature, and summarized their findings (typologies and classifications). 43 articles that suggest multidimensional typology or classifications for general “dark side” behavior constructs are determined. Organizational Behavior literature suggests 22 classifications and Consumer Behavior literature suggest 15 classifications for dark side behaviors in workplace and/or consumptionscapes. In these articles, there were 19 terms that were used to define “dark side behaviors”. 15 of these terms were (or could be) used by both of the organizational and consumer researchers. Then the basic dimensions that suggested for conceptualization of and classifying dark side behavior were determined.

2.1 Preliminary Review of Construct Development and Clarification Studies

Development of meaningful theory in the fields of management, marketing and other behavioral sciences need precision and clarity in conceptualization (DiRenzo, 1966; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, and Podsakoff, 2016). One major challenge in management and marketing research is providing construct clarity (Suddaby, 2010) because several

study fields in these literatures suffer from meaningless and overlapping construct proliferation. As previously explained, the field of dark-side issues is one of them. Thus, it is vital to provide meaningful definition and classification procedures for management and marketing phenomena in this area. It can be argued that hierarchically defining and classifying constructs can provide clear and practically meaningful construct definitions and classifications.

With the purpose of developing protocol for construct classification, an extensive review of construct development and clarification studies in management and marketing literature is carried out (Bacharach, 1989; Bagozzi, 2007; Bagozzi and Edwards, 1998; Churchill, 1979; J. R. Edwards and Bagozzi, 2000; Floyd et al., 2011; Gilliam and Voss, 2013; Hirsch and Levin, 1999; Jarvis, MacKenzie, and Podsakoff, 2003; Locke, 2012; MacKenzie, 2003; Mowen and Voss, 2008; Osigweh, 1989; Podsakoff et al., 2016; Rossiter, 2011; Suddaby, 2010). In this thesis, based on the aforementioned review, main issues and contradictory arguments are discussed. Then, previous construct definitions and classification arguments are synthesized and a criteria map is suggested.

2.1.1 Hierarchical criteria map for construct clarity

Several studies on construct definition argue that there has to be a distinction between constructs, concepts and variables (or expressions) based on their abstraction levels (Bacharach, 1989; Bagozzi, 2007; Osigweh, 1989; Podsakoff et al., 2016). For instance, Bacharach (1989) makes a distinction between constructs and variables and states that constructs are more abstract and more generalizable than variables. He also argues that, certain constructs are specific, rich in detail but strictly bound to the empirical findings, while others are highly abstract, grand theoretical statements but lack in observational details. Osigweh (1989) argues there are two types of constructs based on their abstraction levels: universal (or theoretical) constructs and observational (or empirical) constructs. Universal constructs are totally abstract constructs that represent a large class of subconstructs and their connection to empirical world can be weak. Empirical constructs, on the other hand, are both abstract and concrete and they can be used in abstract definitions of phenomena and/or direct observations. Empirical constructs also possess a level of abstraction but they have high ability to be more concrete. According to Hirsch and Levin (1999), this distinction

is rooted in the tendencies of scholars. They argue that, in literature, there are two groups with opposite tendencies for construct development: umbrella advocates and validity polices. First group, umbrella advocates, see broad patterns and synthesize regularities into integrative broadly defined constructs, namely umbrella constructs. Second, validity polices, see a lot of narrowly defined problems and issues, namely specific constructs, and challenge the inconsistencies within the umbrella constructs. According to Hirsch and Levin (1999), tension and challenge between umbrella advocates and validity polices initiate healthy construct lifecycle processes because this tension is eased with new typological explanations. It can be argued that ease of tension processes between highly abstract and highly concrete constructs cause more healthy and valid intermediate forms of constructs, such as bridging constructs. In this thesis, it is argued that abstraction level is critical since classifying and defining constructs in only two levels may not be enough to fulfill the needs of highly prolific and complex study fields in management and marketing literature, such as the field of dark-side issues.

Constructs need to be ordered and arranged based on their abstraction levels (Mowen and Voss, 2008). In this thesis, based on the literature review on construct definition studies in management, marketing and psychology in general, six hierarchical construct levels based on their abstraction and generality levels of the constructs are defined: General terms, umbrella constructs, bridging constructs, specific constructs, general expressions and behavioral expressions (see Figure 1). A hierarchical model for organizing constructs within the fields of organizational and marketing research is developed and suggested.

As visualized in Figure 2.1, author argues that well-employed constructs should be positioned between the upper and lower thresholds of abstraction or generalization. As previously discussed, scholars argue that constructs are related to the real or phenomenological world phenomena and a construct definition should congruently reflect its related phenomenon. However, in marketing and management literatures, there are several highly abstract and amorphous conceptualizations that include a bunch of weakly related behaviors, which cannot reflect a phenomenon. On the other hand, there are also several behavioral expressions in organizations or in markets, which cannot constitute a phenomenon on their own. Rather, these expressions can

only be a manifestation of a phenomenon in the real world, not the conceptualization of it.

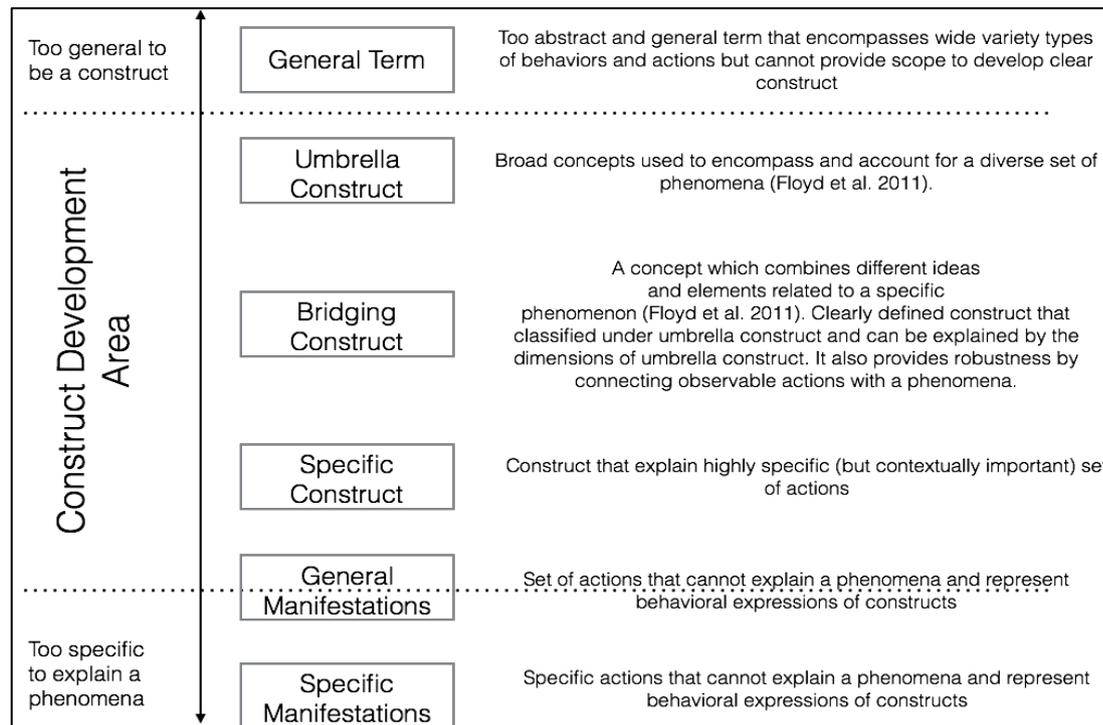


Figure 2.1 : Criteria Map for Hierarchical Classification of Constructs.

2.1.2 General terms

Defining constructs too broad cause vague and meaningless terminology, which may embrace weakly related various constructs together. On the other hand, too broad and unlimited definitions fail to target and explain a phenomenon. According to Locke (2012), several scholars believe that concepts are subjective notions and one of the consequences of this belief is lumping unrelated constructs together. We use ‘general terms’ that indicate highly abstract labels and definitions that encompass wide variety of weakly related concepts that may not have substantive elements in common. Locke (2012) argues these types of conceptualizations damage the meaning and value of phenomena. It is obvious that using general terms cause researchers to miss some interesting, distinct and meaningful attributes and characteristics of concepts (Tepper and Henle, 2011). However, we argue that these types of broad terms are useful to indicate a study field. For instance, today, “organizational frontlines” is one of the most popular terms in marketing and service research. It identifies the “interactions and interfaces at the point of contact between an organization and its customers that

promote, facilitate, or enable value creation and exchange” (Singh, Brady, Arnold, and Brown, 2017, p. 4). This term captures a wide variety of distinct service components (such as physical, digital, procedural) and actors (such as customers, frontline employees, managers, IT department) that can hardly be unified in a concept. However, as Singh et al. (2017) explained, it indicates a study field, rather than a concept, that tries to understand the intersection between customer-organization interactions and interfaces. We argue that these types of well-defined general terms clarify the subject matter and promote systematized body of knowledge (Hunt, 1976) thus we believe that determining the ‘general term’ is the first step for answering the question of “What are we talking about?”.

2.1.3 Umbrella constructs

Different constructs can be grouped together under a single, explanatory label but they need elements in common. Although, umbrella constructs sometimes have negative connotations in the literature, we use it as a level for constructs that integrate diverse but interrelated group of concepts. Umbrella constructs are broad concepts used to encompass and account for a diverse set of phenomena (Hirsch and Levin, 1999). Umbrella constructs are broad in scope, encompass multiple ideas and they have broad interpretive framework with no specific testable implications (Floyd et al., 2011). Although they provide common elements for interrelated phenomena (Locke, 2012), umbrella constructs barely provide dimensional explanations. Constructs such as dysfunctional customer behavior (Harris and Reynolds, 2003; Reynolds and Harris, 2009) or consumer misbehavior (Fullerton and Punj, 2004) are broadly defined constructs that encompass all types of “inappropriate” customer behaviors that violate norms in exchange settings. However, abstraction level of dysfunctional behavior construct indicates that it appears to be a second-order or superordinate construct and should be disaggregated by dimensions as sub-constructs (Bagozzi and Edwards, 1998; Edwards, 2001). Service quality is also a well-studied umbrella construct (Babakus and Boller, 1992), which combines five interrelated sub-constructs (tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy) (Parasuraman, Berry, and Zeithaml, 1991) that indicate customers’ overall subjective quality perceptions about the service delivery process (Parasuraman et al. 1985). It is impossible to argue that Parasuraman et al., (1985)’s conceptualization explains single distinct service

quality phenomenon, rather it provides a diverse set of phenomena that have something in common.

2.1.4 Bridging constructs

Unlike umbrella constructs, bridging constructs refer to a single phenomenon. Bridging constructs are concepts, which integrate different elements, related to a single phenomenon (Floyd et al., 2011). Bridging constructs unify conceptually different elements and bridge the gap between separate sets of literatures (Floyd et al., 2011). Bridging constructs are also suitable for connecting different theoretical elements or units of analyses, such as employees, customers, organizations, and institutions (Fuglsang and Jagd, 2015). For example, the field of dysfunctional behaviors needs bridging constructs to be introduced because these constructs synthesize different constructs under a single phenomenon and reconcile the paradox in the literature (Floyd et al., 2011; Poole and Van de Ven, 1989). There are few well-constructed bridging constructs in the literature because they create challenges for empirical analysis and theoretical explanations (Echambadi, Campbell, and Agarwal, 2006; Floyd et al., 2011). For instance, according to Floyd et al. ambidexterity is a good example of bridging construct, because it ties different elements (exploration and exploitation) and different trajectories (searching and learning). Service Quality conceptualization of Brady and Cronin Jr. (2001) also can be viewed as a bridging construct that has ties within different quality dimensions in service provision processes. Different from previous second-order conceptualizations (such as SERVQUAL), they discover that previously accepted service quality constructs (such as reliability, empathy and responsiveness) are explained by three service dimensions (interaction, physical characteristics and outcome) and service quality ties these dimensions as a third-order latent construct.

2.1.5 Specific constructs

Specific constructs are precise and represent contextually important phenomena that can be characterized by a small but concrete set of behavioral expressions. Specific constructs are fine-grained aspects of broader constructs (Bagozzi and Edwards, 1998), and have highly context-specific dispositions (Mowen and Voss, 2008). It is imperative to differentiate specific constructs and observable behavioral expressions.

By definition, “constructs are not reducible to specific observations but, rather, are abstract statements of categories of observations” (Suddaby, 2010, p. 346). Therefore, directly or indirectly observable dark side behaviors cannot constitute a specific construct. Specific constructs are needed, at least, at one level of abstraction. “Shoplifting” (Babin and Babin, 1996) is a good example of specific constructs because shoplifting (1) is manifested by specific set of consumer behaviors, (2) is a very important problem for retail sectors (3) has one level of abstraction and represents an aspect of broader constructs, such as dysfunctional behaviors.

2.1.6 Manifest variables

As previously explained, there are also direct observable behavioral manifestations or group of manifestations that have low level or no abstraction. These expressions are too specific to explain phenomena. These manifestations are directly observable and/or measurable entities, such as events, situations, behavioral expressions, perceptions or evaluations (Bagozzi, 2007; Schaffner, 1969). In this thesis, author makes distinction between general manifestations and specific manifestations. General manifestations are the sets of highly correlated actions that cannot explain a phenomenon but can represent manifestations of real world phenomena. These sets of manifestations are reflective indicators, rather than formative (or composite) measures therefore indicators in a set of manifestations are highly correlated with other indicators and their higher-order construct. Specific manifestations are observable actions that have weak relations with other expressions. They are more suitable for formative measurement because a group of these expressions can be causal indicators that provide a composition for a construct (MacCallum and Browne, 1993). However, as argued in several previous studies, relationship between abstract (or latent) constructs and observable entities should be constructed reflectively, rather than formatively (Bagozzi, 2007, 2011; Howell, Breivik, and Wilcox, 2007; Jarvis et al., 2003). In Table 2.1, characteristics and features of constructs are summarized.

Table 2.1: Characteristics of construct types.

Construct	Power	Abstraction Level	Dimensional Explanation	Operationalization	Example
General Terms	cannot account for any phenomenon	High level of abstraction	Weak	Not operational	Organizational Misbehavior
Umbrella Constructs	account for a diverse set of phenomena	High level of abstraction	Weak/ multidimensional	Not directly operational	Dysfunctional behavior
Bridging Constructs	account for a specific phenomenon	Moderate level of abstraction	Strong/ multidimensional	Operational	Workplace Aggression
Specific Constructs	account for a specific phenomenon	Low level of abstraction	Strong/ unidimensional	Operational	Fraudulent return
General Manifestations	cannot account for any phenomenon	Low level of abstraction	Weak/ unidimensional	Direct measure	Ridiculing
Specific Manifestations	cannot account for any phenomenon	No abstraction	Weak/ unidimensional	Direct measure	Swearing in front of his/her coworkers

Consequently, on the basis on this classification protocol, constructs, terms and/or labels in the field of dark side issues will be classified and synthesized in systematic review process. Author aims to discover potential bridging constructs for closing the gap among study fields, connecting research streams and synthesizing different elements related to specific phenomenon.

2.2 Procedure and summary for systematic literature review

As explained before, the author carried out the systematic literature review in two stages and four phases. First stage is the stage that maps the field through scoping review to gain a broad understanding and general description of the field. This traditional review process also helps to determine the scope of the related literature for systematic review process. Author carefully read and probed basic and/or most cited articles. After that author determined, read conceptual/theoretical studies that reviewed the literature and empirical studies that suggest typology and classification for negative behavior in literature, and summarized their findings (typologies and classifications) in the Table 2.2. 43 articles that suggest multidimensional typology or classifications for general “dark side” behavior constructs were determined. In these articles, there were 19 terms that were used to define “dark side behaviors”. 15 of these terms were (or can be) used by both of the organizational and consumer researchers. Then the

basic dimensions that suggested for conceptualization of and classifying dark side behaviors were determined.

Next, in the second stage, the author started the systematic literature review. At first, Web of Knowledge (SSCI and ESCI) and PsychINFO databases were determined as appropriate databases for comprehensive search. Publications that appeared from 1961 to 2016 were searched and only ‘articles’ were considered. 1961 was chosen as cut-off year for PsychINFO because Buss’s (1961) aggression typology is the earliest typology found that was cited by organizational and consumer behavior studies (Baron and Neuman, 1996). 19 dark side behavior terms, which are extracted from scoping review, with the words that indicate the organizational or consumer context were searched. For instance, the term “dysfunctional” with organization, workplace, employee, worker, service, consumer, customer, marketing or management in the title and the abstract of the paper was searched. Then titles of articles and journals for elimination of the unrelated articles for our context were scanned. Consequently, 1245 articles, which empirically or conceptually investigate dark side behaviors in workplaces or consumptionscape between 1975 and 2016, were determined. Using HistCite, the author also listed publications, cited by these articles (n= 39345). Using this publication list, most cited general psychology and/or sociology articles on negative behaviors were also sorted. Based on this list, 24 most cited articles, but not indexed by Web of Knowledge, were also added. The author comprehensively scanned abstracts and literature review sections of these articles and extracted 230 terms that indicate a construct or behavioral expression that can be subsumed in negative workplace behavior or negative customer behaviors. In addition to the determined dimensions in Phase I, 6 new dimensions were discovered through this scanning process. Lay definitions (from MerriamWebster dictionary) and scholar definitions in organization and marketing literatures (if any) for each term were listed for comparison. Extracted terms were classified based on these 12 dimensions and 7 hierarchical construct levels.

In systematic literature assessment stage, the author carefully read lay and scholar definitions and conceptualizations of these definitions in organization and marketing literatures. 27 constructs, which can be (partially) explained by “intended to harm” motivation, were determined. Author also determined 6 dimensions, which are highly important to conceptualize “targeted dysfunctionality” because these dimensions

enlighten the relationship between targeted dysfunctionality and other narrower and broader constructs and terms. Consequently, the author concluded that 4 of these constructs (aggression, sabotage, incivility and production deviance) with two dimensions (ambiguity of harm intention and humanization) can clearly explain “targeted dysfunctionality” in service context.

Table 2.2: Procedure for systematic literature review.

Phase	Aim	Conduct
Phase 1 Scoping Review: Mapping the field	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Specifying RQs for systematic review 2. Determining highly used keywords related to targeted dysfunctionality 3. Determining dimensional and definitional terms (constructs) using for conceptualizing and classifying “dark side” behaviors in organization and marketing research. 4. Determining articles that suggest typologies for “dark side” behaviors in organization and marketing literature 5. Determining dimensions and construct’s that have relations with “intended to harm” dimension. 6. Determining databases and search methods 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Using bibliographies and general search, studies that suggest typology and conceptualization for dark side behavior are determined. 2. Based on the careful analysis of these studies; constructs, their scholar definitions, dimensions and classifications are determined. 3. Problems about the contradictions and dimensional overlaps between these constructs are determined. 4. Perspectives of these studies are classified based on deontological/teleological dichotomy. 5. Inclusion, exclusion and classification criteria for systematic review are developed based on construct development literature. 6. ISI Web of Knowledge and PsychINFO are determined as electronic databases for systematic search. HistCite program is used for bibliographic analysis.
Phase 2 Comprehensive search	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Determining studies within the scope of systematic literature review 2. Determining all constructs, which are related to targeted dysfunctionality (broader constructs, narrower constructs and partially overlapped constructs) 3. Determining keywords using in the systematic literature review 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Based on the determined 19 constructs in Phase 1, Web of Knowledge (1970-2016) and PsychINFO (1961-2016) databases are scanned. 1245 studies related to “dark side” behavior in organization and marketing literature are listed and their full texts are found. 2. Abstracts and literature review parts of these studies are scanned and 221 terms that used for terming specific or general dark side behavior. 3. Lay definitions (from Merriam-Webster dictionary) and scholarly definitions (if possible) of these terms are found 4. These terms are classified based on dimensions, which were determined in Phase 1 5. These terms are also classified based on developed construct classification criteria in Phase 1
Phase 3 Assessment of literature	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Determining constructs, which are totally or partially relevant to “intended to harm” dimension 2. Determining dimensions, which are highly related to “intended to harm” dimension. 3. Determining studies that investigate these constructs and dimensions. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Based on the comparison of lay definitions and scholar definitions; 27 constructs are associated with intended to harm dimension. 2. It is found that 6 dimensions are highly important to conceptualize targeted dysfunctionality. 3. It is also found that targeted dysfunctionality can be explained by four sub-constructs (aggression, incivility, sabotage, production deviance) 4. 142 studies on these 4 constructs are determined
Phase 4 Synthesis	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Determining contradictions and overlaps between these 27 constructs 2. Determining most fitted constructs that subsumed targeted dysfunctionality under it. 3. Determining contradictions and overlaps between four sub-constructs. 4. Dissociate these four constructs and overcome contradictions. 5. Developing definitions by maximizing comprehension and minimizing overlaps for construct clarity. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. It is found that these four sub-constructs (aggression, incivility, sabotage, production deviance) can be dissociated from others by two dimensions (humanization of target, ambiguity of target) 2. Comparing all scholar conceptualization and lay definitions of these constructs in marketing and management literature, revising in the definitions of these four constructs are suggested based on service context. 3. These constructs with suggested definitions and conceptualizations are hierarchically associate with umbrella constructs (dysfunctional behavior) and bridging constructs (targeted dysfunctionality)

2.3 Results of Scoping Review

The first phase of the review processes is scoping review. In fact, scoping review is one of the traditional unsystematic literature review methods but it is employed as a preliminary review as a first part of an ongoing review process, the following phases of which is a full systematic review (Arksey and O'Malley, 2005). In this thesis scoping review is conducted for gaining general understanding about the dark side literature, mapping the scope of this literature and refining the questions of systematic review (Jesson et al., 2011). As a flexible review method, scoping review can set the frame for future research agenda. In this thesis, the author aims to produce a map of dark side behaviors based on basic dimensions and construct typologies. Scoping review is suitable method for mapping key concepts underpinning a complex research area (Mays, Roberts, and Popay, 2001).

Firstly, when employing the scoping review, the author's aim was to answer, "How do organization and marketing literatures define, classify and differentiate basic constructs and dimensions related to dark side issues?". Therefore, author focused on conceptual and empirical studies that suggest typologies and conceptualizations of dark side behaviors in organization and marketplace contexts. Second, as previously mentioned, using bibliographies and general search author determined 43 studies that suggest multidimensional, unidimensional or non-dimensional typologies for dark side behavior constructs. In these studies, the organizational behavior literature suggested 22 classifications and marketing literature suggested 15 classifications for dark side behavior in workplace and/or marketplace. Author carefully read and extracted constructs and dimensions from these studies. Author also scanned the bibliographies of these studies and found 52 constructs that have scholar definitions in literature. Third, basic findings in these studies that suggest typology for constructs and their dimensional explanations are summarized in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3: Studies that suggest typology for dark side behaviors.

Study	Literature	Preferred Term	Typology Dimensions	Classification
Buss (1961); Baron and Neuman (1996)	OB	Aggression	Verbal-Physical Direct-Indirect Active-Passive	8 types of aggression based on Buss (1961) dimensions.
Feshbach (1964); Bushman and Anderson (2001)	Psychology	Aggression	Primary Goal Planned/Unplanned Anger based	<u>Instrumental Aggression</u> : Premeditated, calculated behavior that is motivated by some other goal. <u>Hostile Aggression</u> : Impulsive, angry behavior that is motivated by a desire to hurt someone.
Mangione and Quinn (1975)	OB	Counterproductive Behavior	Active/Passive	Nonperformance: doing little or nothing (e.g., as reflected in poor quality or quantity of output) and Counterproductive behavior: doing something that is, from an employer's perspective, (e.g., damaging an employer's product on purpose).
Wheeler (1976)	OB	Offensive Behavior (Rule-breaking behavior)	Severity	<u>Major offenses</u> : "such as stealing, striking a foreman, or refusing to obey a legitimate order, usually result in immediate discharge." <u>Less serious offenses</u> : "such as tardiness, absenteeism, and careless workmanship, usually call for milder penalties aimed at correction."
Mills (1981)	CB	Deviance	-	Destroy-Damage Merchandise, Fraudulent Returns, Shoplifting, Vandalism, Fraudulent Complaints
Hollinger (1986); Hollinger and Clark (1982)	OB	Deviance	Social Bonding / Tangible-Intangible	<u>Production deviance</u> : "behaviors which violate the formally prescribed norms delineating the minimal quality and quantity of work to be accomplished (e.g., tardiness, slow or sloppy workmanship <u>Property deviance</u> : property deviance, focuses on those instances where employees acquire or damage the tangible property or assets of the work organization without authorization
Coleman (1987)	OB	White collar crime	Type of beneficiary	<u>Occupational crime</u> : Advances an individual's or group's gain (stealing from company) <u>Organizational crime</u> : Advances the interest of organization (overcharging customers)
Puffer (1987)	OB	Noncompliant behavior	Compatibility with organizational goals	Prosocial vs. noncompliant
Giacalone and Rosenfeld (1987); Dubois 1980	OB	Sabotage	Aim of the sabotage	<u>Instrumental sabotage</u> : is directed toward the achievement of certain limited demands and/or a change in socio-political power. <u>Demonstrative sabotage</u> : is not directed toward the achievement of any particular goal, but rather, serves "to castigate management, (as) a protest against injustice, (and) a rejection of accepted values"
Grove et al. 1987	CB	Non-normative behavior	-	Acquisitive, Usage, Dispositional
Moschis and Cox, 1989	CB	Deviant Behavior	Desirability Regulated	<u>Negligent Behavior</u> : compulsive behavior, product misuse... Criminal/Fraudulent Behavior: shoplifting
Zemke and Anderson, 1990	OB	Customers from hell	Practical importance	Abusive egocentrics, Insulting whiners, Hysterical shouters, Dictators, Free-loaders

Table 2.3 (continued): Studies that suggest typology for dark side behaviors.

Fullerton and Punj, 1993	CB	Aberrant Behavior	-	Destruction of property, Abuse, Material loss
Bitner et al. 1994	OB	Problem behavior	-	Drunkenness, Verbal and physical abuse, Breaking company policies, Uncooperative customers
Analoui, 1995	OB	Sabotage	Involvement (Overt/Covert)	<u>Destruction</u> : action involved the destruction and mutilation of the work environment; <u>Inaction</u> : a result of deliberate inaction predictable destruction occurred <u>Wastage</u> : deliberate action led to the wastage of, for example, raw materials.
Robinson and Bennett, 1996	OB	Deviance	Organizational/ Interpersonal Minor/Serious	Organizational Deviance Production Deviance Property Deviance Interpersonal Deviance Political Deviance
Vardi and Weiner, 1996	OB	Misbehavior	Intention or Motivation	OMB Type S: misbehavior that intends to benefit the self OMB Type O: misbehavior that intends to benefit the organization OMB Type D: misbehavior that intends to inflict damage
Moberg, 1997	OB	Employee Vice	Trust Betrayal Type of Beneficiaries	High Level Betrayal- Low Level Betrayal Self-benefited / Self and Other benefited
Neuman and Baron, 1998	OB	Aggression	Visibility	<u>Overt Aggression</u> : easily recognized as aggressive in nature (i.e. abusive supervision, slamming doors...) <u>Covert Aggression</u> : invisible, less visible, or more ambiguous in form and therefore covert in operation
Robinson and Greenberg, 1998	OB	Deviant Behavior	Perpetrator	<u>Insiders</u> : organizational members <u>Outsiders</u> : non-employees, former employees, customers Antisocial Behavior: Behavior that harms organization and/or its members
Pearson and Porath, 1999	OB	Incivility	Ambiguity of harm Intensity	Deviant Behavior: Antisocial behavior that violates norms Violence: High-intensity, physically aggressive behavior Aggression: Deviant behavior that intent to harm Incivility: Low-intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm
Ackroyd and Thompson, 1999	OB	Misbehavior	Intensity of disagreement Appropriation of time, work, product and identity	
Lovelock and Wright, 2001	CB	Jaycustomer Behavior	-	Theft, Rule-breakers, Belligerents, Family feuders, Vandals
Harris and Ogbonna, 2002	OB and CB	Sabotage	Normality Openness	Customary-Private (Routinized/Covert), Customary-Public (Routinized/Overt), Sporadic-Private (Intermittent/Covert), Sporadic-Public (Intermittent/Overt)

Table 2.3 (continued): Studies that suggest typology for dark side behaviors.

Warren, 2003	OB	Deviance	Negative/Positive Hypernorm/Reference group norm	Destructive Deviance: Behavior that does not align with organizational performance and hypernorms Constructive Deviance: Behavior that does not align with organizational performance but conforms to hypernorms Intrapersonal misbehavior (e.g. workplace problem drinking, drug abuse, workaholic behavior) Interpersonal misbehavior (e.g., incivility, aggressive behavior, bullying, and sexual harassment)
Vardi and Weiner, 2004	OB	Misbehavior	Expression Context	Production misbehavior (rule breaking, loafing, absenteeism, and tardiness) Property misbehavior (e.g., vandalism, theft, espionage, and computer hacking) Political misbehavior (e.g., misuse of power, impression management, politicking, and favoritism).
Fullerton and Punj, 2004	CB	Misbehavior	Direction of behavior Nature of the act Type and degree of disruption Reaction by marketers and other customers	Directed against marketer employees (verbal abuse, disobedience of rules) Directed against merchandise (shoplifting) Directed against other customers (jumping queues) Directed against marketer's financial assets (defrauding retail cashier) Directed against marketer's physical or electronic premises (vandalism, database theft)
Harris and Reynolds, 2004a	CB	Dysfunctional Behavior	Importance	Customer Resistance, Customer Aggression/Violence, Customer Complaining Other forms (retaliation, addiction, vandalism...)
Harris and Reynolds 2004b	CB	Jaycustomer behavior	Financial Motivation Overt/Covert	Compensation letter writing (Covert-Financial), Undesirable customers (Covert), Property abusers (Covert-Nonfinancial), Service workers (Overt-Financial), Vindictive customers, Oral abusers (Overt), Physical abusers (Overt-Nonfinancial), Sexual Predators (Overt-Nonfinancial)
Griffin and Lopez, 2005	OB	Bad behavior	Definitional Precision Temporal consistency Construct dimensions Motivations Consequences	Dysfunctional behavior/Antisocial behavior: Workplace Deviance: Workplace Aggression: Workplace Violence:
Spector et al. 2006	OB	Counterproductive Behavior		Sabotage, Withdrawal, Production Deviance, Theft, Abuse
Fowler III, 2007; Ang and Koslow, 2012	CB	Misbehavior	Cultural expectations (meets/violated) Institutional Norms (meets /violated)	Abiding behavior (e.g., buying a music CD from a shop) meets/meets Anomic behavior (e.g., stealing a music CD from a shop) violates/meets Carnavalesque behavior (e.g., buying a CD that preaches racial hatred) meets/violates Aberrant behavior (e.g., downloading of hard core pornographic material) violate/violate Workplace aggression:
Herschcovis and Barling, 2007; Herschcovis, 2011	OB	Aggression	Negativity	Any negative act, which may be committed towards an individual within the workplace, or the workplace itself, in ways the target is motivated to avoid
Berry and Seiders, 2008	CB	Unfair behavior	Severity of harm Frequency of behavior	Verbal abusers, Blamers, Rule breakers, Opportunists, Returnaholics

Table 2.3 (continued): Studies that suggest typology for dark side behaviors.

Fisk et al. 2010	CB	Dysfunctional behavior	Financial Impulse/Planned Intentionality Professionalism Overt/Covert Severity, Frequency Direction Organizational / Individual	
Bowing and Gruys, 2010	OB	Counterproductive Behavior	Majority, Legality Task /Non-task Hostile/Instrumental Fidelity-bandwidth	
Amine and Gicquel, 2011	OB	Deviance	Normality / Norm- infringement level	Conventional Expected Behaviors (Normal Behavior) <u>Accepted Behaviors</u> (Contextually normal or deviant) <u>Tolerated Behaviors</u> (Contextually normal or deviant) Pathologically Understood/Excused behavior (Deviant behavior) Criminal and Rejected Behavior (Deviant behavior) <u>Petty norm infringements</u> : exhibit very low levels norm infringements typically centered on misbehaviors such as failing to tell an employee of a mistake in their favour or making complaints without genuine cause.
Daunt and Harris, 2012	CB	Dysfunctional Behavior	Severity	<u>Felonious norm infringements</u> , encompass incidents where, typically, the behavior of customers involves non-violent criminal acts such as failures to pay for services, theft, or rudeness to service employees. <u>Belligerent norm infringements</u> , include the most severe acts of customer misbehavior such as intentional damage and infringements of the personal space and well-being of service workers.
Greer, 2015	CB	Dysfunctional Behavior (Defective Co-creation)	Good dominant logic / Service Dominant logic	<u>Goods-related misbehavior</u> : Property abuse (theft, vandalism); fraudulence (incite fraud; commit fraud) <u>Interpersonal misbehavior</u> : Verbal abuse (incivility, threats, sexual comments, personal attack); Physical aggression (Physical intimidation, using projectiles, aggressive physical contact) Relational misbehavior: Underparticipation (Refusal to engage, refusal to provide resources); Overparticipation (Gratuitous service interaction, Gratuitous personal interaction). Service encounter level mistreatment, Individual level mistreatment
Koopman et al., 2015	Service	Mistreatment	Context Sources and Targets of dysfunctional behavior	Customer to Employee, Customer to Customer, Employee to Employee
Esmark and Noble, 2016	Service	Bad behavior		

2.3.1 Mapping the field

Review on the conceptualization and typology studies in organization literature showed that 18 terms are used to define specific dark side phenomenon or diverse set of dark side phenomena. Three of them are specific for consumer behavior or work behavior: white collar crime (Coleman, 1987), jaycustomer behavior (Harris and Reynolds, 2004; Lovelock and Wright, 1999) and customers-from-hell (Zemke and Anderson, 1990). These terms' applicability to whole service actor behaviors is weak. For instance, Coleman (1987)'s conceptualization of white-collar crime emphasize socially elite persons' rational-calculated crimeful behaviors that are performed for gaining occupational or organizational advantage in workplaces. Main emphasis in this conceptualization is on "organizational elites" so it holds weak theoretical implications for consumer research. On the other hand, Lovelock & Wright (1999) "jaycustomer" and Zemke & Anderson (1990)'s "customers from hell" labels and conceptualizations are highly practice-driven and very specific for consumer behavior.

Six of them are infrequently used general terms are used to encompass wide variety of actions but cannot provide scope for construct development: offensive behavior (Wheeler, 1976), non-normative behavior (Grove, Vitell, and Strutton, 1989), problem behavior (Bitner et al., 1994; Cook and Goff, 2002), vice (Moberg, 1997), unfair behavior (L. L. Berry and Seiders, 2008) and non-compliant behavior (Puffer, 1987). For instance, "problem employee" term is firstly used in 1953 by Gilliland and Newman for indicating abnormality and inability to adjust social requirements of the organization. In marketing, Bitner, Booms & Mohr (1994) classify problematic customer behaviors as drunkenness, verbal and physical abuse, breaking company policies and uncooperative behavior. Both studies argue these behaviors are not normal and need to be managed. Author cannot determine any marketing or organization study that provides construct definition or dimensional explanation for problem behavior. Similarly, offensive behavior, non-normative behavior and unfair behavior terms have no clear scholar definitions in these literatures. On the other hand, vice and non-compliant behavior terms are defined by scholars. Employee vice refers personality trait-related behaviors that risk organizational resources for self-interests (Moberg, 1997) and non-compliant behavior is breaking organizational rules and norms in

negative ways (Puffer, 1987). These conceptualizations are also weak at dimensional explanation.

Other nine terms are defined, categorized, used and empirically studied several times in employee and customer contexts. Counterproductive behavior (Bowling and Gruys, 2010; Mangione and Quinn, 1975; Spector et al., 2006), deviant behavior (Amine and Gicquel, 2011; Cox et al., 1990; Hollinger, 1986; Hollinger and Clark, 1982; Mills, 1981; Robinson and Bennett, 1995; Warren, 2003), aberrant behavior (Fullerton & Punj, 1993), misbehavior (Fullerton & Punj, 2004; Vardi & Wiener, 1996) and dysfunctional behavior (Fisk et al., 2010; Griffin and Lopez, 2005; Harris and Reynolds, 2003), sabotage (Analoui, 1995; Harris & Ogbonna, 2002) terms are constructed as umbrella constructs that encompass diverse set of dark side phenomena and used interchangeably in organization and marketing literature. Each of these constructs' definitions and measurement items severely overlap with other constructs. On the other hand, incivility (Andersson and Pearson, 1999), aggression (Baron and Neuman, 1996; Hershcovis, 2011; Hershcovis et al., 2007; Neuman and Baron, 1998) and mistreatment (Koopmann, Wang, Liu, and Song, 2015) are conceptualized and operationalized for interpersonal dark side actions. Along the process of comprehensive search of the databases, these terms are used as keywords. Based on these studies construct definitions and dimensional explanations of these nine terms are investigated and basic dimensions are extracted. These dimensions are also used for classifying terms, which are extracted from comprehensive search.

As explained before, using bibliographies of these conceptualization and typology studies, author also determined 52 constructs that has scholar definitions in literature. These constructs' definitions and each construct's distinctive focuses are listed in the Table 2.4.

Table 2.4: Construct definitions in dark side behavior literature.

Construct	Lit.	Definition	Distinctive Focus
Occupational Crime	OB	“Occupational crime consists of offenses committed by individuals for themselves in the course of their occupations and the offenses of employees against their employers” (Braithwaite, 1985, p. 19; Clinard and Quinney, 1973)	Illegal / Self-interest
Corporate Crime	OB	“The offenses committed by corporate officials for the corporation and the offenses of the corporation itself” (Braithwaite, 1985, p. 19; Clinard and Quinney, 1973).	Illegal / Organizational Interest
Organizational Aggression	OB	“Behaviors designed to hurt the employer or the organization” (Spector, 1975, p. 635)	
Aggression	OB	“Any form of behavior directed toward the goal of harming or injuring another living being who is motivated to avoid such treatment” (Baron, 1977, p. 7).	Intent to harm/Intent to avoid
Organizational Aggression	OB	“Any behavior intended to hurt the organization, whether overt (strikes, work slowdowns, or lawsuits) or covert” (Fox and Spector, 1999, p. 917; Spector, 1978)	Intent to harm / Organizational
White-collar crime	OB	“A crime committed by a person of respectability and high social status in the course of his occupation” (Sutherland and Cressey, 1978, p. 44) “Violations of the law committed in the course of a legitimate occupation or financial pursuit by persons who hold respected positions in their communities” (Coleman, 1987, p. 407)	Respected position / Illegal
Deviant consumer behavior	CB	“Behavior in a retail store that society considers inappropriate or in conflict with a previously accepted societal norm” (Mills and Bonoma, 1979, p. 347) “Behavior is generally defined as "deviant" when it differs from some norm or standard. These standards or norms are in the form of customs, manners, rules and regulations, laws, and mores.” (Moschis and Cox, 1989, p. 732)	Societal norm violation
Political Behavior	OB	“Activities that are not required as part of one's organizational role but that influence, or attempt to influence, the distribution of advantages and disadvantages within the organization” (Farrell and Petersen, 1982, p. 405).	Extra-role behavior /Gain advantage
Employee Deviance	OB	“Delineate acts which violate the norms of the formal organization” (Hollinger, 1986; Hollinger and Clark, 1982, p. 333)	Norm-violation
Opportunistic behavior	CB	“The deceit-oriented violation of implicit or explicit promises about one's appropriate or required role behavior” (John, 1984, p. 279).	Extra-role behavior
Noncompliant behavior	OB	“Breaking rules or norms and describes behaviors that have been previously incorporated in generalized compliance” (Puffer, 1987, p. 616)	Norm-violation
Customers from hell	CB	Customers who “belittle, demand, threaten to get physical, get physical, throw tantrums, throw heavy objects, spew poisonous invectives, lie, rant, rave and in general behave like Caligula on a bad day” (Zemke and Anderson, 1990, p. 26)	Hard to manage
Mobbing /Psychological Terror	OB	“Hostile and unethical communication that is directed in a systematic way by one or more persons, mainly towards one targeted individual” (Leymann, 1990, p. 120) “Severe form of harassing people in organizations” (Zapf, Knorz, and Kulla, 1996, p. 215)	Processual

Table 2.4 (continued): Construct definitions in dark side behavior literature.

Employee Misconduct	OB	“Employee decisions to pursue self-interest at the expense of their principles or employer... misuse of company resources, tools, or equipment; unauthorized markdowns; vandalism; kickbacks; and theft of a company’s cash, merchandise, or time” (Leatherwood and Spector, 1991, pp. 553–554). “Behavior that falls short of the [punishing] agent’s moral or technical (work) standards” (Trevino, 1992, p. 648)	-self interest -fall short of standards
Conflict	OB	“The process which begins when one party perceives that another has frustrated, or is about to frustrate, some concern of his” (Thomas, 1992, p. 265)	Processual
Aberrant consumer behavior	CB	“Behavior in exchange settings which violates the generally accepted norms of conduct in such situations and which is therefore held in disrepute by marketers and by most consumers” (Fullerton and Punj, 1993, p. 570).	Norm-violation
Problem customers	CB	Customers who are “basically uncooperative. That is, unwilling to cooperate with the service provider, other customers, industry regulations, and/or laws” (Bitner et al., 1994, p. 98).	Hard to manage
Jaycustomer behavior	CB	“Deliberately act in a thoughtless or in an abusive manner, causing problems for the firm, employees, or other customers” (Harris and Reynolds, 2004, p. 339; Lovelock and Wright, 1999)	Intentional
Workplace Harassment	OB	“Repeated activities, with the aim of bringing mental (but sometimes also physical) pain, and directed toward one or more individuals who, for one reason or another, are not able to defend themselves” (Björkqvist, Österman, and Hjelt-Back, 1994, pp. 173–174).	Processual
Petty tyranny	OB	“Tendency to lord one’s power over others” (Ashforth, 1994, 1997, p. 126)	Tendency
Workplace Deviance	OB	“Voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both” (Robinson and Bennett, 1995, p. 556)	Organizational norm-violation
Organizational Misbehavior	OB	“Any intentional action by members of organizations that defies and violates (a) shared organizational norms and expectations, and/or (b) core societal values, mores and standards of proper conduct.” (Vardi and Wiener, 1996, p. 153)	Norm-violation
Organization-motivated Aggression	OB	“Attempted injurious or destructive behavior initiated by either an organizational insider or outsider that is instigated by some factor in the organizational context”. (O’Leary-Kelly et al., 1996, p. 229)	Harmful / organizational background
Workplace Aggression	OB	“Any form of behavior directed by one or more persons in a workplace toward the goal of harming one or more others in that workplace (or the entire organization) in ways the intended targets are motivated to avoid.” (Baron, 2004, pp. 26–27; Baron and Neuman, 1996)	Intent to harm /intent to avoid
Bullying at work	OB	“Harassing, offending, socially excluding someone or negatively affecting someone’s work tasks... bullying is an escalating process in the course of which the person confronted ends up in an inferior position and becomes the target of negative social acts” (Ståle Einarsen, Hoel, Zapf, and Cooper, 2003, p. 15; Ståle Einarsen and Skogstad, 1996; Leymann, 1996).	Processual / Intent to harm
Antisocial Behavior	OB	“Any behavior that brings harm to the organization, its employees, or its stakeholders” (Giacalone and Greenberg, 1997, p. vii)	Harmful
Organizational retaliation	OB	“Adverse reactions to perceived unfairness by disgruntled employees toward their employer” (Skarlicki and Folger, 1997, p. 434)	Reactional
Consumer Misbehavior	CB	“Behavioral acts by consumers which violate the generally accepted norms of conduct in consumption situations, and disrupt the order expected in such situation” (Fullerton and Punj, 1997, p. 336).	Norm-violations
Employee Vice	OB	Betraying acts that violate the individual or organizational trust (Moberg, 1997)	Trust-violation
Workplace violence	OB	“Extreme acts of aggression involving direct physical assault” (Neuman and Baron, 1998, p. 391)	Physical
Interpersonal conflict	OB	“An organizational stressor involving disagreements between employees” (Hershcovis, 2011, p. 502; Spector and Jex, 1998).	

Table 2.4 (continued): Construct definitions in dark side behavior literature.

Emotional Abuse	OB	“Repeated hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors (excluding physical contact) directed at one or more individuals over a period of time such that the target’s sense of self as a competent worker and person is negatively affected” (Keashly, 1998; Keashly and Harvey, 2005, p. 205)	Processual /Intent to harm
Dysfunctional Behavior	OB	“Motivated behavior by an employee or group of employees that has negative consequences for an individual within the organization, and/or the organization itself” (Griffin et al., 1998, p. 67).	Intentional
Organizational Misbehavior	OB	“Anything you do at work you are not supposed to do” (Ackroyd and Thompson, 1999, p. 2)	
Victimization	OB	“Individual’s perception of having been exposed, either momentarily or repeatedly, to the aggressive acts of one or more other persons.” (Aquino, Grover, Bradfield, and Allen, 1999, p. 260)	Interpersonal / Processual
Workplace Incivility	OB	“Low-intensity deviant (rude, discourteous) behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect” (Andersson and Pearson, 1999, p. 199)	Low intensity / ambiguous intent
Abusive supervision	OB	“Subordinates’ perceptions of the extent to which supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact” (Tepper, 2000, p. 178)	Interpersonal / Processual
Revenge	OB	“An action in response to some perceived harm or wrongdoing by another party that is intended to inflict damage, injury, discomfort, or punishment on the party judged responsible” (Aquino, Tripp, and Bies, 2001, p. 53)	Reactional / Intent to harm
Social undermining	OB	“Behavior intended to hinder, over time, the ability to establish and maintain positive interpersonal relationships, work-related success, and favorable reputation” (Duffy, Ganster, and Pagon, 2002, p. 332)	Interpersonal / Intent to harm
Service sabotage	OB	“Organizational member behaviors that are intentionally designed negatively to affect service” (Harris and Ogbonna, 2002, p. 166)	Intentional / service-related
Identity Threat	OB	“Any overt action by another party that challenges, calls into question, or diminishes a person’s sense of competence, dignity, or self-worth” (Aquino and Douglas, 2003, p. 196)	Intent to harm
Dysfunctional Customer Behavior	CB	“Actions by customers who intentionally or unintentionally, overtly or covertly, act in a manner that, in some way, disrupts otherwise functional service encounters” (Harris and Reynolds, 2003, p. 144)	Disrupting service process
Counterproductive Work Behavior	OB	“Volitional acts that harm or are intended to harm organizations or people in organizations” (Spector and Fox, 2005, p. 151). “Any intentional behavior on the part of an organization member viewed by the organization as contrary to its legitimate interests” (Gruys and Sackett, 2003, p. 30)	Intentional
Dark side behavior	OB	“Motivated behavior by an employee or group of employees that has negative consequences for an individual within the organization, another group of individuals within the organization, or the organization itself” (Griffin and O’Leary-Kelly, 2004, p. 4).	Intentional
Generalized workplace harassment	OB	“Behaviors that create a hostile, intimidating, or offensive work environment but which are not overtly based on legally protected characteristics” (Raver and Nishii, 2010, p. 236; Rospenda and Richman, 2004)	Processual
Interpersonal Mistreatment	OB	“A specific, antisocial variety of organizational deviance, involving a situation in which at least one organizational member takes counter-normative negative actions against another member” (Cortina and Magley, 2003, p. 247)	Interpersonal / norm-violation
Bad Behavior Online	CB	“Bad behavior is defined as consumer activities on the web that defy conventionally accepted norms of conduct in consumption situations in offline environments” (Denegri-Knott, 2006, p. 82).	Norm-violation
Badness behavior	CB	“Customer behavior that causes problems for the service company, its employees, and other customers in a thoughtless or abusive manner” (Yi and Gong, 2006, p. 150).	Hard to manage

Table 2.4 (continued): Construct definitions in dark side behavior literature

Unfair customer behavior	CB	“Customer unfairness occurs when a customer behaves in a manner that is devoid of common decency, reasonableness, and respect for the rights of others, creating inequity and causing harm for a company and, in some cases, its employees and other customers” (L. L. Berry and Seiders, 2008, p. 30).	
Insidious workplace behavior	OB	“A form of intentionally harmful workplace behavior that is legal, subtle, and low level (rather than severe), repeated over time, and directed at individuals or organizations” (M. S. Edwards and Greenberg, 2010, p. 4)	Intentional / Repeated
Marketplace aggression	CB	“Customers’ actions that are designed to directly harm a firm or its employees” (Grégoire, Laufer, and Tripp, 2010)	Intent to harm
Other customer failure	CB	“Actions by another customer, whether intentional or unintentional, that disrupts one’s own service experience” (Huang, Lin, and Wen, 2010, p. 152)	Disrupting service
Customer mistreatment	CB	“Low-quality interpersonal treatment employees receive from their customers” (M. Wang, Liao, Zhan, and Shi, 2011, p. 312)	
Defective co-creation	CB	“Any consumer behavior that obstructs the service provider from co-creating value” (Greer, 2015, p. 241)	Disrupting service
Detrimental citizenship	OB	“Discretionary employee behavior that goes beyond reason and necessity to promote specific organizational goals and, in so doing, harms legitimate stakeholder interests” (Pierce and Aguinis, 2015, p. 4)	Extra-role
Consumer brand sabotage	CB	“Deliberate behavior by customers or noncustomers who have the dominant objective of causing harm to a brand through the impairment of the brand-related associations of other consumers” (Kähr et al., 2016, p. 26)	Intent to harm

2.3.2 Dimensional evaluation of constructs

For the purpose of evaluating dark side constructs' characteristics; basic dimensions in the organizational behavior and consumer behavior literature are extracted. In this part, author evaluates dimensions and their relations with dark side constructs in organizational and consumer behavior literatures. Thus, author explicates definitional and classification relations in dark side behavior fields. As a result of this evaluation basic conceptual problems and contradictions in these literatures may be uncovered. The dimensions that will be mentioned are intentionality, majority/severity, interpersonal/organizational distinction, behavioral motives, episodic/repetitive distinction, active/passive, legality, overt/covert, direct/indirect and verbal/physical. The first dimension to be considered is intentionality.

2.3.2.1 Intentionality

In the field of dark side behaviors, conceptualizations repeatedly stress the importance of intentionality. Scholars generally emphasize that dark side behaviors are foremost intentional and/or motivated behaviors (Robinson & Greenberg, 1998). Almost all of the constructs above are defined as motivated, purposeful, intentional or volitional behaviors. In organization literature, Robinson and Bennett (1995) define workplace deviance as a voluntary behavior. Vardi and Weiner (1996) define organizational misbehavior as intentional actions. According to Griffin et al. (1998), in dysfunctional work behaviors, there always is intention or awareness. Counterproductive work behavior is also conceptualized as volitional behavior (Spector and Fox, 2005). Workplace aggression, sabotage, insidious work behavior constructs indicate more specific forms of intentionality (intention to harm). Only antisocial behavior and noncompliant behavior constructs are not conceptualized based on the intentionality dimension. Giacalone and Greenberg (1997)'s conceptualization of antisocial behavior encompasses all harmful behaviors. Puffer (1987)'s noncompliant behavior construct also encompasses all types of norm-infringing behaviors. Finally, Ackroyd and Thompson (1999) criticize Vardi and Weiner (1996)'s conceptualization of misbehavior in its scope of intentionality. They define organizational misbehavior as all types of behaviors that are not supposed to be done.

In consumer behavior literature, on the other hand, most of the early definitions of dark side behaviors are not specified as intentional or unintentional (Greer, 2015). Almost all of the broader level construct definitions do not specify dark side behaviors as intentional or unintentional. Dysfunctional behavior, jaycustomer behavior, problem behavior, customer misbehavior, non-normative behavior constructs encompass all types of intentional and unintentional acts (Fisk et al., 2010). Only, deviant consumer behavior, which is defined by Reynolds and Harris (2006), is limited with deliberate acts. Therefore, it can be observed that construct definitions in organization literature contradict with the definitions in marketing literature. Same terms are conceptualized in different levels and explained with different dimensions. Interestingly, in terms of intentionality, there are also contradictions between conceptualizations of same terms. For instance, dysfunctional customer behavior construct is conceptualized as both “deliberate acts” (Reynolds and Harris, 2009) and “intentional or unintentional acts” (Fisk et al., 2010; Greer, 2015; Harris and Reynolds, 2003). Similarly, deviant behavior is also used for “all types of norm-infringing consumer behaviors” (Fowler III, 2007) and “deliberate norm violation” (Reynolds and Harris, 2006).

In terms of intentionality, incivility is most idiosyncratic construct in organization and marketing literature. According to Andersson and Pearson (1999), most of the uncivil behaviors are intentional but the intention behind the uncivil acts is ambiguous. Victims of uncivil behaviors cannot easily determine intentionality or the motivation of the perpetrator. In some cases, individuals may behave rudely oversight or out of ignorance (Pearson and Porath, 2004). Incivility may be a complementary construct for the interpersonal work behavior studies because it defines the blurred area, where victims and witnesses cannot determine the intention of the perpetrator or instigator.

Dark side behaviors, which is the term we select for defining the study field, is also the term that is limited with motivated and/or intentional behaviors (Griffin & O’Leary-Kelly, 2004). Intentionality is the dimension that provides scope for hierarchically higher and broader level umbrella constructs. In organization literature, most of the widely used constructs are specified as intentional, deliberate, volitional or purposeful. On the other hand, although consumer behavior constructs encompass both the intentional and unintentional acts, investigated behaviors under these constructs are mostly intentional.

2.3.2.2 Majority/severity

Majority, severity or intensity of the dark side actions have been widely used as explanatory dimension since Robinson and Bennett (1995)'s seminal multidimensional scaling study. In fact, early studies in the literature used this dimension for classifying these constructs (Hollinger and Clark, 1982; Wheeler, 1976) but Robinson and Bennett (1995) support theoretical conceptualizations with empirical findings. In marketing literature, severity is also one of the most important dimensions for construct classification and typology studies. For instance, Daunt and Harris (2012a) determine three forms of dysfunctional behaviors (namely petty norm infringements, felonious norm infringements and belligerent norm infringements) based on the severity of the dysfunctional behavior. Severity is also used for defining interpersonal mistreatment constructs. Distinctions among incivility, aggression and violence constructs are generally stated by the severity or intensity of the dark side actions. Although aggression construct encompasses a wide variety of interpersonal actions in terms of severity or intensity, incivility generally (but not always) refers to low-intense interpersonal dark side actions and workplace violence generally refers to high-intense dark side actions that cause permanent damage (Andersson and Pearson, 1999; Baron and Neuman, 1996). According to Lawrence and Robinson (2007), deviant actions in different severity levels have different antecedents in workplace contexts. It can be understood that in many cases severity of actions is not used for defining wider (higher level) constructs, such as deviance and dysfunctional behavior. Severity is generally used for classifying types or forms under these umbrella constructs.

2.3.2.3 Interpersonal vs. organizational

Classifying dark side behaviors based on the characteristics of the target is widely used in organizational behavior literature. Popularity of the separation of person-targeted dark-side behaviors from organization-targeted dark-side behaviors stems from the multidimensional scaling study of Robinson and Bennett (1995) and the scale development study of Bennett and Robinson (2000). As subsets of workplace deviance construct, Robinson and Bennett (1995) conceptualize organizational deviance and interpersonal deviance constructs and develop measures for these constructs (Bennett and Robinson, 2000). If deviant behaviors are directly harmful to the organizations

(for instance; intentionally working slowly, taking property without permission), these behaviors indicate organizational deviance. On the other hand, if deviant behaviors are directly harmful to the individuals within the organization (making derogatory jokes about someone at work), these behaviors indicate interpersonal deviance (Bennett and Robinson, 2000). Another multidimensional scaling study uses interpersonal/organizational dichotomy and empirically supports the separation between organizational and interpersonal counterproductive work behaviors (Gruys and Sackett, 2003). Although this dichotomy gained wide acceptance in dark-side behavior literature, some meta-analytic studies call into question the distinction between these measured constructs. Dalal (2005)'s meta-analytical examination shows that organizational and interpersonal dark side behaviors are highly correlated. On the other hand, Berry, Ones and Sackett (2007)'s meta-analysis shows that although interpersonal and organizational deviance constructs are highly correlated, their relationships with other constructs are different. Supportively, recent studies show high correlation between organizational and interpersonal dark side behaviors (Ferris, Lian, Brown, and Morrison, 2015) and these constructs have distinct antecedents (Guay et al., 2016). According to Guay et al., (2016) interpersonal dark side behaviors are more related to interpersonal conditions and personality characteristics (i.e. agreeableness, supervisor support), whereas organizational dark side behaviors are more related to impersonal, task oriented conditions and characteristics (i.e. consciousness). Although there are dissenting opinions and findings, interpersonal/organizational dichotomy dominates organizational behavior literature (Kelloway, Francis, Prosser, and Cameron, 2010). Interpersonal dark-side behaviors have been studied in workplace aggression and incivility literatures. Two-factor workplace deviance scale of Bennett and Robinson (2000) maintains its popularity in the organizational behavior literature. Moreover, several specific dark side constructs, which are highly popular in the organizational behavior literature, are subsumed under interpersonal dark side behaviors, such as incivility, emotional abuse, abusive supervision, victimization, bullying, mobbing, workplace harassment and social undermining. These constructs are strictly separated from organizational dark-side behaviors although they have indirect harmful effects on organizations themselves.

In consumer behavior literature, organizational/interpersonal dichotomy is not popular but most of the studied dark side behaviors of consumers are viewed as

organizationally harmful rather than interpersonally harmful. On the other hand, destructive effects of customer mistreatment on front line employee's cognitive and emotional health and effects of interpersonal employee behaviors on customers' judgments, intentions and evaluations have gained considerable attention from consumer behavior and service researchers (Grandey et al., 2007; Henkel, Boegershausen, and Rafaeli, 2017; Kern and Grandey, 2009; Porath et al., 2011; Yagil, 2008b).

2.3.2.4 Behavioral motives

As previously discussed, most of the popular conceptualizations in the literature define dark side acts as intentional and/or motivated acts. Therefore, these behaviors are partly or totally conscious acts. Therefore, understanding the intent is important for understanding the origins of these behaviors. However, determining the intent behind the dark side acts need comprehensive and detailed assessment of these behaviors because (1) any given behavioral expression probably has multiple intentions and (2) intentions behind some specific dark side acts are not obvious (Griffin and Lopez, 2005). Although some constructs exclude the actual underlying intent because of these practical limitations (Raver and Barling, 2008), there are several conceptualizations in consumer and organizational behavior literatures that try to uncover motivations of dark side actions and classify these acts based on these motives.

One of the early classifications try to answer, "What is it done for?". According to Clinard and Quinney (1973) and Coleman (1987), members of organizations commit to illegal dark side behaviors either for gaining advantage for themselves (self-interest motivation: occupational crime) or for gaining advantage for their organizations (organizational interests: corporate crime). Vardi and Wiener (1996) extend this framework. According to them, organizational members not only misbehave for gaining advantage for themselves or their organization but also misbehave to inflict damage. Therefore, they define three types of dark side actions based on the intention underlying these actions: Organizational Misbehavior Type S (intention to benefit self), Type O (intention to benefit the organization), and Type D (intention to harm).

Over the last two decades, studies on intention to harm motivation and constructs related to this motivation have exploded in number in the organizational behavior literature, such as studies on workplace aggression, sabotage, revenge, retaliatory

behavior and insidious workplace behaviors. Especially, definitions of human aggression and workplace aggression stress the importance of “intent to harm” motivation in interpersonal mistreatment studies (Anderson and Bushman, 2002; Baron, 1977, 2004; Baron and Neuman, 1996). According to Bushman and Anderson (2001), “intent to harm” is the proximate (not ultimate) goal for all aggressive behaviors. It is sine qua non. Some other constructs differ at ultimate (or superordinate) goal levels. For instance, both the “organizational retaliatory behaviors” and “revenge” constructs include intent to harm motivation at proximate level but these constructs differ in superordinate goals. Ultimate level goal of organizational retaliatory behavior is securing justice in organizations (Skarlicki and Folger, 1997). On the other hand, revenge is ultimately motivated by self-interests of perpetrators (Tepper and Henle, 2011).

In consumer research, underlying motives of consumers’ dark side are limited in number in researchers’ conceptualizations and typologies. According to Daunt and Harris (2012b), three motives constitute dominant motivators for dark side consumer actions: financial gain motivated behaviors, ego gain motivated behaviors and revenge motivated behaviors. This classification roughly summarizes consumer research literature on dark side behavior motives. Grégoire and Fisher’s (2008; 2010) retaliation and revenge concepts and McColl-Kennedy et al., (2009)’s rage behavior concepts are well-studied constructs in consumer research. According to these studies, motivation behind most of the dark side actions of consumers is punishing firms that cause service failure and provide justice. Kähr et al., (2016) also stress “intent to harm” as the dominant motive for consumer brand sabotage behaviors. They argue that intent to harm motivation indicates a new phenomenon in today’s networked business environment and differs from retaliatory behavior because not only proximate goal but also ultimate motive of these brand sabotage behaviors motive of these brand sabotage behaviors is causing harm to the brand.

Finally, although self-interest behaviors of consumers (such as shoplifting and illegitimate returns) are studied extensively in consumer research (Cox et al., 1990; Harris, 2008), there are few studies that investigate and conceptualize opportunistic motivations behind dark side consumer behaviors (Daunt and Greer, 2015; Wirtz and McColl-Kennedy, 2010). Financial gain motives come into prominence as one of the most important motivation for specific dark side acts, such as shoplifting, (Moore,

1984); fraudulent returns (Reynolds and Harris, 2005); professional complaining (Reynolds and Harris, 2005); and illicit consumption (Albers-Miller, 1999). However, these specific behaviors may also be related to ego-gain motives, which are also important phenomena for dark-side consumer research. Studies show that need for self-worth and self-realization can be motivators of dark side actions (Daunt and Harris, 2012b).

Consequently, while organizational behavior scholars have tendency to define and specify dark side constructs with motivation, in consumer research, there are few behavioral construct definitions based on the motivation behind dark side acts. Kähr et al., (2016)'s "consumer brand sabotage" and Grégoire and Fisher's (2008; 2010) consumer retaliatory behavior constructs are well-defined examples that uncover motivational phenomena behind behavioral expressions.

2.3.2.5 Episodic vs. repetitive

Especially in organizational behavior research, constructs are categorized based on whether the behavioral expressions (consistently) repeated over time or if the behavior is episodic (Raver and Barling, 2008). According to Keashly and Jagatic (2011), episodic/repeated dichotomy or duration of behavior is one of the critical dimensions that provide important distinction among constructs. Workplace bullying, emotional abuse, abusive supervision and conflict constructs are sustained or long term dark side acts (Raver and Barling, 2008). For instance, Tepper (2000) defines abusive supervision as "sustained display of hostile behavior". Similarly, Einarsen et al., (2003) underline "repeated and enduring aggressive actions" as one of the main feature of bullying construct. Edwards and Greenberg (2010) also conclude "repetitive" as a defining characteristic of insidious workplace behavior. It means episodic or one-time dark side acts cannot constitute bullying, insidious workplace behavior or abusive supervision. Moreover, there is also different facets of repetition pattern (duration, frequency, patterning and escalating) but most of the studies and measures focus only on the frequency of dark side acts (Keashly and Jagatic, 2011). On the other hand, workplace aggression, incivility, counterproductive work behavior, employee deviance, revenge and organizational retaliatory behavior and workplace violence constructs are episodic in nature (Raver and Barling, 2008). In fact, there is no explicit focus on the duration of behavior in the conceptualizations of these constructs but their

definitions stress discrete acts, rather than continuous patterns (see Table 1.4) (Keashly and Jagatic, 2011).

However, some scholars argue there is no need to differentiate between these episodic and repeated dark side actions. According to Hershcovis and Barling (2007), although definitions of these sustained and episodic constructs are different, measures of these constructs have remarkable similarities. Hershcovis (2011) also argues, although definitions of workplace aggression construct do not include repetitive actions, its measures ask respondents the frequency of aggressive behaviors they experienced in workplace. She argues that frequency of dark side behavior is not the dimension that determines the characteristic of the phenomena. Therefore, she suggests that frequency of dark side acts as a moderator that influence relationship between dark side acts and its outcomes.

In consumer research, although dark side acts that are repetitive in nature are mostly ignored in conceptualizations, there are some studies that explore the repeated dark side acts in relational exchanges in specific sectors, such as professional services and home cleaning services. For instance, Bishop and Hoel (2008) show that there are customers, who persistently abuse certain frontline employees and make their job difficult. Using critical incident technique, Greer (2015) uncovers two types of dark side actions that are relational in nature: underparticipation and overparticipation. There are several examples in this study that show relational aspects of dark side consumer behavior, such as excessively repeated contacts with frontline employees (overparticipation), repeated shoplifting activities (property abuse), and refusing to communicate with the service provider (underparticipation) are some examples of continuous dark side actions of consumers. Therefore, specific dark side consumer behaviors are relational in nature and consumer behavior literature increasingly notices differential characteristics of continuous dark side actions.

Consequently, episodic/repetitive dichotomy provides distinctive characteristics to dark side behaviors for organizational behavior researchers. However, relational exchanges have been a prerequisite for marketing; and consumer researchers started to uncover dark side issues in relations between organizations and their customers.

2.3.2.6 Buss's dimensions: active-passive; physical-verbal; direct-indirect

One of the most widely recognized typologies in organization literature is Arnold H. Buss (1961)'s aggression typology which is based on three dichotomous dimensions: active-passive; physical-verbal; direct-indirect. In organizational context, Baron and Neuman (1996)'s highly used aggression and violence classifications are based on Buss's dimensional classification. Moreover, several other conceptualizations in organization and consumer contexts (such as emotional abuse, abusive supervision, service sabotage) are developed from these dimensions to explain and classify dark side constructs. It can also be said that these dimensions are related to Robinson and Bennett (1995)'s majority dimension. In general, active-physical-direct forms of aggressive behaviors represent more severe points in the minority-majority continuum.

Physical-verbal dichotomy is an important dimension for interpersonal mistreatments. Physical dark side actions involve physically harmful actions and verbal actions inflict harm through words (Neuman and Baron, 2005). There are several discussions on the conceptual difference between aggression and violence that are based on this dichotomy. According to Neuman and Baron (1998), violence requires direct physical assault but aggression involves physical and nonphysical acts thus violence is physical-direct-active forms of aggression. On the other hand, Griffin and Lopez (2005) distinguish aggression and violence and delimit aggression as nonphysical assertive acts to organizational members for construct clarity. Finally, unlike other approaches, O'Leary-Kelly et al., (1996) connect aggression and violence via cause-and-effect.. They suggest that aggression indicates potentially destructive acts and violence indicates the physically harmful consequences of these acts. Workplace harassment, emotional abuse and abusive supervision constructs are also delimited in the scope of "nonphysical behaviors" (Ståle Einarsen et al., 2003; Keashly, 1998; Tepper, 2000).

Active-passive dichotomy is less frequently used in organizational and consumer literatures but some authors argue it provides a meaningful classification for dark side behaviors. Behaviors in hostile fashion, especially aggressive behaviors, can be classified as active and passive behaviors. Active dark side actions involve some behaviors that are performed for harming others (swearing someone) and passive dark side actions involve withholding of expected behaviors (refuse to give required

information) (Keashly, 1998). According to Spector et al., (2006), difference between some organizational dark-side actions are based on active-passive dichotomy. For instance, Hollinger (1986)'s and Robinson and Bennett (1995)'s production deviance and property deviance (or sabotage) distinction is based on active-passive dichotomy. Sabotaging physical properties is an active dark side action while refraining to do a task intentionally is a passive dark side action.

Finally direct-indirect dichotomy is related to hostile-instrumental aggression distinction, which is one of the most popular distinctions in aggression literature (Bushman and Anderson, 2001). Direct dark side actions are directed at an intended victim (e.g., punching, insulting, refuse to speak) while others (indirect actions) are harmed indirectly (e.g., sabotaging equipment, spreading rumors) (Baron, 2004). Aim of the indirect actions is harming something or someone the target values or cares (Neuman, 2004). Based on the views of Homans (1961), Skarlicki and Folger (2004), indirect-direct dichotomy may be related to power relations. If the perpetrator is less powerful than the target, dark side act will be indirect. Perpetrator tries to harm powerful targets by harming less powerful targets associated with powerful targets (silent treatment towards customers). On the other hand, if the perpetrator is more powerful, dark side act will be direct (abusive supervision). This argument is supported by consumer behavior literature. According to Grégoire et al., (2010), if customers feel more (less) powerful against firms, customers' revenge behaviors will be (in)direct.

2.3.2.7 Legality

Legality is also viewed as an important dimension for defining and conceptualizing dark side acts. Many forms of dark side actions are legally forbidden by state regulations (Vardi and Weitz, 2004), whereas, other forms are not. Early studies on dark side issues in organizational behavior literature mostly focus on illegal white and blue collar behaviors (Braithwaite, 1985; Clinard and Quinney, 1973). After 90s, scholars have noticed that most of the norm-infringing behaviors in workplaces and marketplaces are lawfully expressed. Then they exclude the forms of illegal dark side acts from their construct definitions. For instance, according to Griffin and Lopez (2005), illegal behaviors are not in the scope of dysfunctional behavior field because illegal behaviors have been assessed and punished by the system. Edwards and

Greenberg (2010) also excluded illegal acts from the insidious workplace behavior construct because illegal behaviors are mostly episodic, not repetitive.

According to Bowling and Gruys (2010), legality is an imperative dimension for classifying dark side actions because legal and illegal dark side actions have different antecedents and consequences. For instance, fear of being caught is definitely a critical predictor for illegal acts but not for legal acts. However, there are some challenging conditions that harm the explanatory power of the legality dimension. First, legality dimension cannot universally be implementable for classifying different specific constructs and behavioral expressions because several acts (e.g., sexual harassment, downloading pirated products) are assessed as legal in some countries but illegal in others (M. S. Edwards and Greenberg, 2010). Second, especially in consumer contexts, some illegal dark side acts are not only performed episodically but also performed repeatedly and consistently, such as counterfeiting, shoplifting and illegal drug use. Third, specific constructs' legal or illegal positions may change over time. Therefore, it may be argued that excluding illegal acts from dark side damages the ecological validity of findings related to a construct. It can also be argued that legality is more a moderator variable, which determines the constructs' relationships with specific outcomes and predictors, than a dimension that defines the characteristics of that construct.

2.3.2.8 Overt vs. covert

Overt-covert dichotomy is related to the visibility of the dark side act (Vardi and Weitz, 2004). It is about the victim's perception whether third parties are aware of dark side acts or not (Hershcovis, 2011). Some acts are overtly performed against the person or organization itself, such as strikes and law suits, whereas others are covertly performed against them, such as sabotage and stealing (Spector, 1978). Behaving overtly or covertly is related to the expected punishment of the act (Spector, 1978). In overt acts, individuals face up to the expected punishment of performed acts. If the expected punishment is more than they can face up to, they tend to perform covert dark side acts or give up harming their target. Baron et al., (1999) argue that covert and overt forms of dark side acts represent two distinct clusters of aggression construct. They show that covert forms are more frequently experienced in workplaces than overt forms.

This dichotomy is also important for service interactions. According to Harris and Ogbonna (2002), service sabotage acts can be classified based on the visibility of the sabotage act by customers. Overt sabotage acts are deliberately performed in front of organizational insiders and outsiders, whereas covert sabotage acts are secretly performed. Interestingly, contradicting with previous workplace studies, Harris and Ogbonna (2002) found that overt acts are performed more prevalently than covert acts in service providing processes.

Overt/covert dimension is also highly related to other dimensions, which are also previously explained. For instance, Robinson and Bennett (1995) show that covert/overt attribute is negatively related to the severity dimension so overt forms of dark side acts are perceived as more serious than covert forms.

2.4 Results of systematic literature review and synthesis

In second part of systematic review process, author employed comprehensive and systematic search of the organizational behavior and marketing literatures. As explained in detailed before, in comprehensive search, constructs related to dark sides issues were searched, listed, dimensionally categorized and their scholar and lay definitions extracted. Table 2.5 shows a short version of the Excel sheet of classified construct list by produced with scanning process of articles' abstracts and literature review parts. By using construct types based on the abstraction level (see preliminary study on construct types), author classified these terms and constructs. Classification list is reported in Table 2.6. Based on the assessment of lay definitions and scholar definitions of constructs, author associated 6 dimensions and 31 terms with "intent-to-harm" motivation. Terms are: exploitative behaviors, offensive behavior, rudeness, dark side behavior, dysfunctional behavior, counterproductive behavior, aberrant behavior, misbehavior, attacking, interpersonal mistreatment, abuse, bullying, mobbing, aggression, violence, sabotage, retaliation, revenge, deviance, microaggression, social undermining, unfriendliness, sexual harassment, arson, yelling, belittling, silent treatment, psychological terror, vice, substandard production, disservice. Dimensions are: Intentionality (Intentional-Unintentional), Harm Severity (Minor-Major), Target Type (Interpersonal-Organizational-Process), Norm-infringement, Ambiguity of harm (ambiguous-unambiguous), Motivation (self-interested - other directed).

Targeted dysfunctionality differentiate itself from other dark side actions by its underlying motivation, intentionality and norm infringement behaviors. These types of acts are intentionally motivated, intentional acts that violate social norms. Therefore, these dimensions are higher level dimensions that determine the basic characteristics of targeted dysfunctionality.

On the other hand, dimensions related to intent-to-harm motivation make possible to dissociate lower level subconstructs with dimensional explanations. In some cases, intent-to-harm motivation is obvious and/or unambiguous. For instance, after a frustrated service experience, customers often yell, swear or offend frontline employees. In these cases, customers mistreat frontline employees and/or service providers with clear intent to harm. On the other hand, after a unsatisfactory service experiences, they often behave rudely or disrespectfully. In these cases, it is hard to determine customers real intent. Thus, ambiguity of the harm intentions makes these dysfunctional acts' relations with other constructs (antecedents and consequences). Other important dimension that determine the manifestation of targeted dysfunctionality is characteristics of the target. In some cases, customers or employees' intent to harm other human beings in service environment. On the other hand, in some cases, customer or employees choose to harm organizational processes, especially service provision processes. Therefore, it can be argued that type of the target and ambiguity of intention have potential to dissociate subconstructs with each other.

Table 2.5: Characteristics of dark side constructs (examples)

Construct	Similar Terms in OB	Similar Terms in CB	Distinctive Characteristics	Direction	Intent to Harm	Abstraction Level	Lay Definition (MerriamWebster or Dictionary.com)	Scholar Definition	Related constructs
Victimization	Workplace victimization	Customer fraud victimization	Victim perspective	Person directed	Ambiguous	High	The action of singling someone out for cruel or unjust treatment	acts of aggression perpetrated by one or more members of an organization that cause psychological, emotional, or physical harm to their intended target (Aquino and Thau, 2009)	aggression, mistreatment, abuse
Compulsive behavior	Compulsive work behavior	Compulsive consumption	Unintentional and accumulative	Self-directed	No	Low	doing something a lot and unable to stop doing it:	It includes "alcoholism, drug abuse, eating disorders, and compulsive gambling". (Hirschman, 1992)	
Retaliatory behavior	Organizational retaliatory behavior	Customer retaliation	Reactive, intentional, highly related to unfairness	Person and organization directed	Yes	Moderate	to do something bad to someone who has hurt you or treated you badly	Adverse reactions to perceived unfairness by disgruntled employees toward their employer (Skarlicki and Folger, 1997)	Revenge, sabotage
Incivility	Workplace incivility	Customer incivility	Low-intense; ambiguous intent to harm	Person directed	Ambiguous	Moderate	a rude or impolite attitude or behavior	"Low intensity deviant acts, such as rude and discourteous verbal and non-verbal behaviors enacted towards another organizational member with ambiguous intent to harm" (Andersson & Pearson, 1999).	Petty tyranny, social undermining,
Theft	Employee theft	Retail theft	Self-interested	No direction	No	Low	the felonious taking and removing of personal property with intent to deprive the rightful owner	No clear scholar definition was found	Shoplifting,
Discrimination	Employee (sexual or race) discrimination	Customer discrimination	Interpersonal, related to perpetrators' biases	Person directed	Yes	Moderate	the practice of unfairly treating a person or group of people differently from other people or groups of people	"the prejudicial treatment of an individual based on membership of a certain group or category, is likely to have negative effects on its victims' well-being and health".(Wood et al., 2013)	Social undermining, selective incivility,
Sabotage	Employee service sabotage	Customer brand sabotage	Intentional, process directed	Organization directed	Yes	Moderate	the act of destroying or damaging something deliberately so that it does not work correctly	employees' conscious actions that are designed to affect negatively customer service.	Aggression, organizational deviance

Table 2.5 (continued): Characteristics of dark side constructs (examples)

Aggression	Workplace aggression	Customer Aggression	Clear Intent-to-harm, interpersonal	Person-directed	Yes	Moderate	hostile, injurious, or destructive behavior or outlook especially when caused by frustration	all forms of behavior by which individuals attempt to harm others at work (Neuman and Baron, 1998)	Incivility, injustice
Deviance	Workplace deviance	Deviant customer behavior	Violation of organizational or cultural norms	Person and organization directed	Yes	High	different from what is considered to be normal or morally correct	Voluntary behavior that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both” (Robinson and Bennett, 1995)	Dysfunctional behavior, counterproductive
Unfriendliness	-	Customer unfriendliness	Norm violation, interpersonal	Person directed	Ambiguous	Moderate	not kind or helpful	Violation of interaction norms in the service encounter. (Albrecht et al. 2016)	Interpersonal deviance, incivility, aggression
Transgressive behavior		Brand transgression	Norm violation, immorality, legal problems	Person and organization directed	Ambiguous	High	infringement or violation of a law, command, or duty	Transgressions are defined as violations of relationship-relevant norms, and refer to the breaches of the implicit or explicit rules guiding relationship performance and evaluations (Aaker et al., 2004)	Deviance, contract breach

Table 2.6: Classification of dark side constructs

General Terms	Umbrella Terms	Bridging Constructs	Specific Constructs	General and Specific Expressions
Exploitative behavior, Destructive Behavior, Overreacting, Atypical behavior, Inappropriate Beh., Offensive Beh., Disrespectful Beh., Rudeness, Misdeed, Harmful behavior, Bizarre behavior, Unproductive beh., Reluctant beh., Belligerent beh., Thoughtless beh., Nastiness, Incompetent beh., Disreputable beh., Unreliable behavior, Impolite behavior, Endangering Opposition, Rowdy behavior, Reckless behavior, Derailment, Negative behavior Dark side behavior, Inconsiderate words Abrupt behavior, Attacking behavior Assault Patronizing behavior Non-conforming behavior Norm-violating behavior, Norm-breaking behavior, Problem Behavior Disruptive Behavior,	Mistreatment, Bad behavior, Antisocial Behavior, Misbehavior, Aberrant Behavior, Dishonest Behavior, Non-compliance Opportunistic Behavior, Uncooperative behavior, Illegal behavior, Antiservice behavior, Disservice, Abnormal behavior, Badness behavior, Infraction, Delinquent behavior, Vice Negative reciprocity, Counterrole behavior Wrong customer Dysfunctional Behavior Defective Co-creation Deviant Behavior Jaycustomer behavior Counterproductive Behavior Abuse Transgressive Behavior Harassment Interpersonal Conflict Injustice	Resistance Aggression Violent Behavior Sabotage Victimization Retaliatory Behavior Incivility Bullying Neglect Discrimination Obstructionism Property Deviance, Production Deviance Interpersonal Deviance Fraud Microaggression Vengeance, Revenge, Hostility Social Undermining Obnoxious behavior Lecherous behavior Misdemeanors Favoritism Devaluation tyrannical behavior Psychological terror Unfriendliness Reciprocal deviance	Shoplifting- Retail Theft Addictive-Compulsive Behavior Vandalism Employee Theft Stealing Espionage Whistle-blowing Concealment Lying Cheating Illegitimate Complaining Negative WOM Property Abuse Digital Piracy Absenteeism Work Avoidance Wardrobing Maverick Behavior Fraudulent returns, Retail borrowing Bribery Employee silence Time theft Threat Complaining Underparticipation Overparticipation Boycott Sexual hostility	Derogation Breaking Policies Ominous behavior Sarcasm Ridicule Belittling Embezzlement Withholding Property damaging Overcriticism Impaired behavior Politicking Sexual imposition Sexual Comments Gossip Work Slowdown Stoppage Strike Overcharging Trashing Switching price tags Database theft Arson Yelling Condescending remarks Swearing Homicide Hitting Daily hassles Ignoring Falsifying Intentional substandard production Bogus complaints Arguing Paying no attention Smoking Loafing Tardiness Silent treatment Sexual jokes Sexual remarks Staring Repeating rumors Unwanted sexual attention Grudge-holding

2.4.1 Dysfunctional behavior: Umbrella construct for Targeted Dysfunctionality

In our comprehensive search, it is found that lots of umbrella constructs and general terms that have severe overlapping problems, such as dysfunctional behaviors, deviance, counterproductive behaviors, organizational and consumer misbehavior. Author chose “dysfunctional behavior” as an umbrella construct. It is defined in organizational behavior literature as motivated behavior by an employee or group of employees that (is intended to have) negative consequences for another individual

and/or group, and/or the organization itself (Griffin and Lopez, 2005, p. 1000; Griffin et al., 1998). In marketing literature, it is defined as the “actions by customers who intentionally or unintentionally, overtly or covertly, act in a manner that, in some way, disrupts otherwise functional service encounters” (Harris and Reynolds, 2003). It is fitted to umbrella constructs because of four reasons. First, dysfunctional behavior clearly have negative connotations for associated behaviors. It describes a set of phenomena that have negative consequences for organizations, its members and/or its customers (Griffin and Lopez, 2005). It cannot be any dysfunctional behavior that have have positive consequences for targets with constructive intentions. On the other hand, deviant behaviors can be performed constructively or destructively. Supervisors, employees and customers can violate organizational norms in order to provide justice in workplaces or marketplaces. Moreover, if organizations violate cultural norms, their employees and customers may violate organizational norms for ethical reasons (Fowler III, 2007; Warren, 2003). However, these behaviors cannot be viewed as dysfunctional. These constructive norm-violations are beyond the scope of dark-side issues. Second, previous conceptualizations of dysfunctional behavior include teleological and deontological characteristics. Previous conceptualizations and measures mostly focus on the consequence or end result of a dark side act (teleological approach), rather than the act itself (deontological approach). According to Robinson and Greenberg (1998), it is important to integrate deontological characteristics and teleological characteristics while defining dark side issues. Among these broadly defined terms, “dysfunctional behavior” and “counterproductive behaviors” stress not only the consequences of dark side acts but also the motivation behind it. Dysfunctional behaviors are harmful acts with different motivations (Griffin et al., 1998). Third, dysfunctional behavior term is used by organizational behavior and marketing researchers both. It describes not only organizational insider acts (employees, managers, supervisors) but also outsider acts (customers and non-customers) (Griffin et al., 1998; Harris and Reynolds, 2003). For instance, in organizational behavior literature, counterproductive work behavior is an established construct that encompass different types of employee specific dark side acts (abuse, sabotage, production deviance, theft, withdrawal) (Gruys and Sackett, 2003; Marcus, Taylor, Hastings, Sturm, and Weigelt, 2016). However, its extension to consumer behavior is limited. Fourth, there are relatively surmountable contradictions between the previous definitions of the term dysfunctional behavior but, for instance,

organizational misbehavior has contradictory definitions in both literatures (Ackroyd and Thompson, 1999; Vardi and Wiener, 1996). Finally, this term fulfills the requirements to be a umbrella constructs (Floyd et al., 2011).

Author choose to define dysfunctional behavior from service perspective as;

“Somewhat motivated behaviors by service actors that have negative consequences for other actors in service ecosystems.”

As discussed earlier, different from the definitions in organizational behavior, Harris and Reynolds includes unintentional behaviors in the scope of dysfunctional customer behavior. Author believe that broadening the scope of dark-side action cause inclusion of unrelated acts, such as mistakes and failures, which are beyond the basic characteristics of dark side actions. It is important to note that there are some other construct definitions that delimit their construct as “voluntary” (see Robinson and Bennett (1995)’s deviant behavior definition), “intentional” (see Vardi and Weiner (1996)’s organizational misbehavior definition) or “deliberate” (see Harris and Reynolds (2004)’s jaycustomer behavior definition) acts. Author also argues that using intentionality has also problems. As Fisk and colleagues argues, using “intentionality” as a definitional characteristic of dark side actions, it may cause over-emphasize the level of cognition and consciousness. There are some arguments for and against using “intentionality” in the definitions of dysfunctional behaviors in literature. According to Neuman and Baron (2005), presence of perpetrator’s intent is a prerequisite for defining aggressive events in organizations. According to them, if we eliminate the intent of the perpetrator, we assume some irrelevant cases as aggressive, such as dentists’ or surgeons’ unintentional harmful operational acts. According to Hershcovis and Barling (2007), on the other hand, if we assume all unintentional negative acts of employees or customers are beyond the scope of dysfunctional behaviors, we unnecessarily eliminate some specific cases or contexts that may have important contribution to the literature, such as alcoholic patients’ violent and sexually abusive acts towards the nurses, which are prevalent today. In this study we prefer to delimitate dysfunctional behaviors as “motivated behaviors” (rather than intentional, voluntary or deliberate behaviors) since all of these types of behaviors are somewhat motivated, consciously or unconsciously. For instance, a dentist’s or surgeon’s harmful operation cannot be a dysfunctional or dark side behavior because it is not motivated by unconscious motives or conscious goals of the dentist or the surgeon. On the other

hand, alcoholic patient's violence towards the nurses is clearly a dysfunctional behavior because it is motivated by alcohol and/or aggressive personality of the patient.

2.4.2 A bridging construct for harm motivated service actions

As previously discussed, harm-motivated behaviors have reflected a new service phenomenon that has severely harmful manifests in organizational frontlines. Author defines it as

“(Un)ambiguous dysfunctional actions of service actors that dominantly motivated by causing harm to other actors and processes in service ecosystems”.

First of all, different from several opportunistic behaviors, dominant characteristic of targeted dysfunctionality is “harm motivation”. These types of behaviors mainly motivated to harm service actors, such as customers, employees, group of employees, organizations (or its brands) and organizational processes. These types of behaviors have been observed for a long time in organizational contexts for normative (such as solidarity and securing justice) and instrumental reasons (such as revenge and vandalism) (Analoui, 1995; Vardi and Wiener, 1996). Today, along with technological advancements, all service actors use all available communication channels to be the most offensive, destructive and hostile that motivated to harm other actors and processes (Fisk et al., 2010; Grandey, Kern, & Frone, 2007; Kähr, Nyffenegger, Krohmer, & Hoyer, 2016). Second, from the perspective of victims and third-parties, it may be hard to determine harm-motivation in some types of dysfunctional behaviors. Thus, it is healthy to dissociate clear and unclear forms of targeted dysfunctionality while conceptualizing its internal structure.

2.4.3 Internal structure of Targeted Dysfunctionality

Figure 2.2 visualizes the internal structure of the targeted dysfunctionality construct. Four subconstructs that are dissociated by two dimensions is suggested for a typological explanation. Two constructs (aggression and sabotage) includes behaviors that can be easily defined as “harm-motivated” behaviors so these are surface components of targeted dysfunctionality. On the other hand, intent or motivation behind some dark side actions cannot be easily understood by victims or third parties.

Therefore, other two constructs (incivility and production deviance) were used to define blurred areas related to harm-motivated behaviors in service environment.

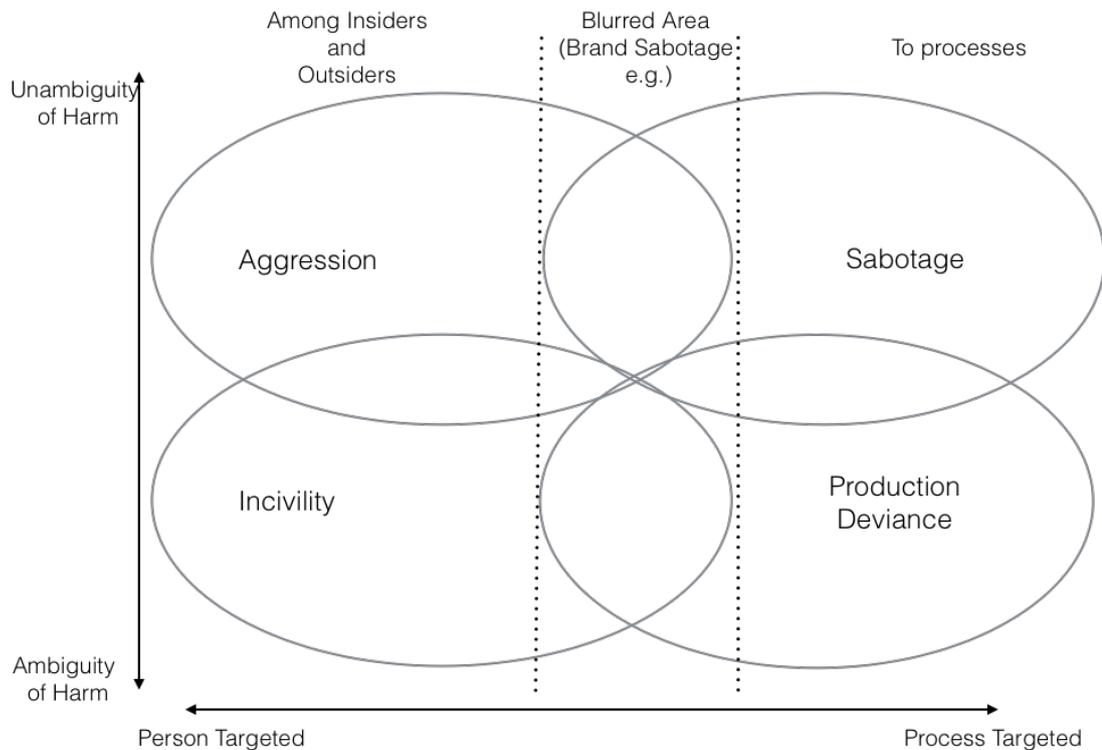


Figure 2.2 : Internal structure of Targeted Dysfunctionality.

First subconstruct is aggression. Aggression refers “any form of behavior directed by one or more persons in a workplace toward the goal of harming one or more others in that workplace (or the entire organization) in ways the intended targets are motivated to avoid.” (Baron, 2004, pp. 26–27; Baron & Neuman, 1996). Aggression can also be used for defining all person directed and organization directed harmful acts and attempts (Hershcovis and Barling, 2007; O’Leary-Kelly et al., 1996). However, in this thesis, author used for defining dark side acts with clearly motivated to harm towards persons in service ecosystems (Neuman and Baron, 2005). This perspective is adopted because this definition is meaningful for both of the deontological and teleological manners. It can be accepted that person-constituted structures (organizations) also can be the target of aggression. However, when we look at the aggression studies in organizational behavior and service research, target of the aggressive acts are generally human-beings, without few exceptions. Higher-order goals of perpetrators can be harming organizations but their target at surface are generally employees or customers.

Second construct is incivility. It refers “low intensity deviant behavior with ambiguous intent to harm the target, in violation of workplace norms for mutual respect” (Andersson and Pearson, 1999, p. 457). Different from aggression, incivility includes interpersonal behaviors with ambiguous intent to harm. In most dysfunctional behaviors cases in workplaces and marketplaces, it is hard to understand the motivation behind uncivil behaviors by targets and witnesses (third-parties). Sometimes perpetrators (or instigators) have no intention to harm victims (Pearson and Porath, 2004). Therefore, it defines the blurred area of the scope of targeted dysfunctionality.

Third construct is sabotage. In organizational and service-related contexts, it refers behaviors that designed to destruct, damage or negatively affect organizations’ operational or service provision processes (Crino, 1994; Harris and Ogbonna, 2002). Some previous studies view sabotage as an indirect, active physical form of aggression (Neuman and Baron, 2005). Although author agrees that sabotage behaviors can be performed for harming other human beings, its definitional nature emphasize behaviors directed towards processes, not human beings. Its lay definition is “the act of destroying or damaging something deliberately so that it does not work correctly” and directly refers acts towards objects that damage processes. Its etymological roots also symbolize wooden shoe (sabot), which was used for wrecking machinery production processes in nineteenth century (Lockwood, 1954). Author argue that it is important to differentiate interpersonal aggression and sabotage behaviors in service contexts. For instance, because of the strict display rules, frontline employees cannot easily show direct overt reactions towards customers. Instead of this, they choose retaliatory behaviors (The waiter spit in my soup!!!) to sabotage customer services (Chi, Tsai, and Tseng, 2013).

Different from some other dysfunctional behaviors that harm organizational processes, which is called production deviance (Robinson and Bennett, 1995), sabotage behaviors refers harm motivated behaviors and attempts (Analoui, 1995). Production deviance, which is fourth subconstruct, may not be easily identified as “harm-motivated”. “Behaviors that violate the formally proscribed norms delineating the minimal quality and quantity of work to be accomplished” (Hollinger and Clark, 1982, p. 1082; Robinson and Bennett, 1995). It is hard to understand harm-motivation behind production deviance as it encompasses covert forms of dysfunctional behaviors, such

as absenteeism, working slowly, ignoring procedures and doing jobs incorrectly (Krischer, Penney, and Hunter, 2010)

Figure 2.3 shows the hierarchical map for targeted dysfunctionality.

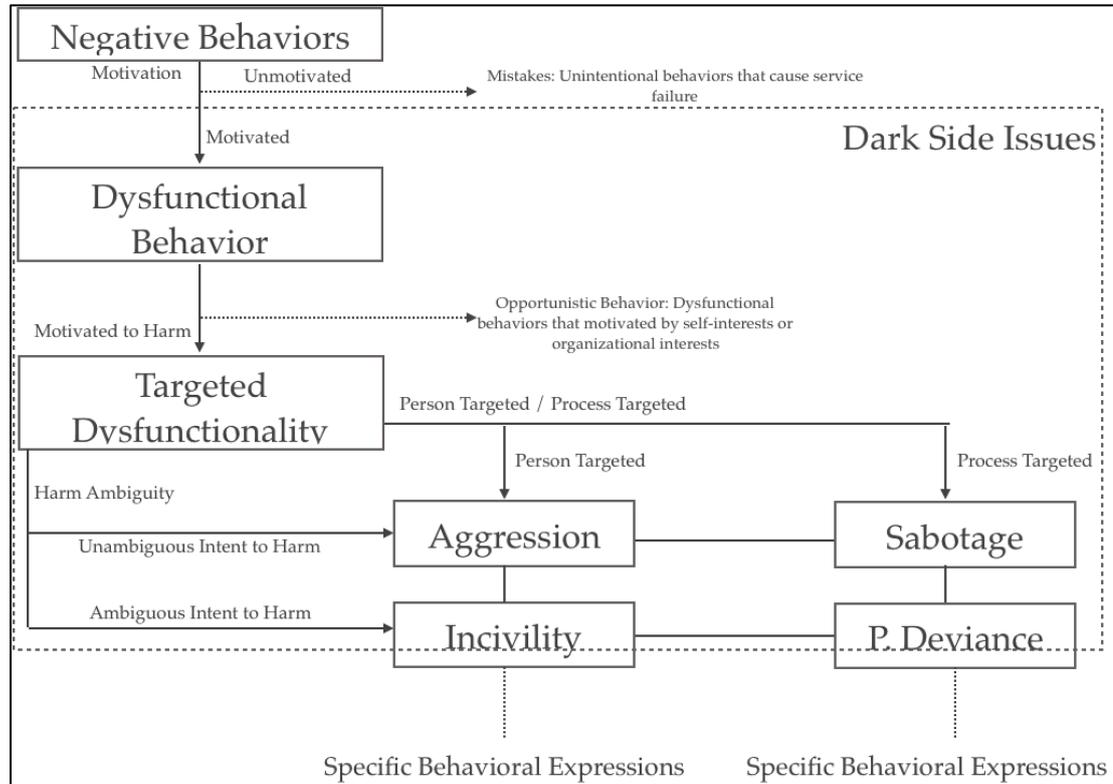


Figure 2.3 : Hierarchical map for targeted dysfunctionality.

Most of the other harm-related constructs can be reconciled under these four sub-constructs. For instance, withdrawal can be viewed as a type of production deviance and retaliatory behaviors can be viewed as a subset of sabotage. Sabotage behaviors motivated by retaliation or revenge are retaliatory behaviors and it is a more subtle form of sabotage (Ambrose, Seabright, and Schminke, 2002).

2.5 Conclusion

This study systematically review the field of dark side issues in organizational behavior and marketing literature in order to suggesting meaningful set of constructs for service research. In this study, author also conceptualized targeted dysfunctionality construct that target a service-related phenomenon which encompasses harm-motivated behaviors of service actors. It is believed that this conceptualization can help to minimize construct clarity and overlapping problems.

However, there are some limitations of this study that needs to be improved. First of all, methodologically, it is hard to measure perpetrators' harm motivations, especially from the perspective of victims and third parties. Perpetrators also may not easily reveal their harm-motivations because of the social desirability bias. Most of the existed formative measure in literature are also not well-fitted to suggested typology. Suggested typology is more suitable to reflective measures. As suggested by Herhcovis and Reich (2013), studies on dark side issues should use reflective measures, rather than formative measures. It is believed that reflective measures well-fitted to this typology will be established in future.

Second, some harm motivated constructs may have different characteristics that needs to be studied as representations of distinct phenomena, such as violence, discrimination and sexual harassment. For instance, although sexual harassment may be viewed as "harm-motivated" behavior, sexual motives behind it and its manifests (such as sexual jokes and remarks, staring and coercion) in service environments are different from other "harm-motivated behaviors). So, although sexual harassment conceptually can be subsumed under aggressive behaviors, approaching these types of sexually motivated behaviors as a manifests of distinct (but related) specific construct is suggested. Our typology may conceal its distinctive characteristics.

Finally, suggested model and typology need to be confirmed by empirical findings. It is believed that suggested model and classification are theoretically meaningful but it is possible to be unfitted to actual world phenomenon. In order to test model's validity in actual service environment, author conducted meta-analytic review (see second meta-analytic study in Chapter 3) and experimental examination (see second experimental study in Chapter 4) in a specific service context.

3. A META-ANALYTIC REVIEW

3.1 A Series of Meta-Analytic Investigation of Dark-Side Behaviors During Service Experiences: Employee-Based Antecedents and Consequences of Customer Mistreatment

In the first part of this thesis, the author reviews dark side issues in organizational and marketing literatures and concludes that targeted dysfunctional behaviors in service ecosystems can theoretically be unified under two dimensions (ambiguity of harm intention and target orientation, namely people targeted/process targeted) and four sub-constructs (human aggression, incivility, sabotage and production deviance). However, it is important to provide empirical support for theoretical unification and classification. In the second part of this thesis, as the final part of the systematic literature review, the author employs meta-analyses for three reasons: (1) meta-analysis is an important method for combining empirical results across studies and making comparison among these studies based on different dimensions (Grewal, Puccinelli, and Monroe, 2017), (2) meta-analysis is the best way to provide an empirical summary by aggregating replicated tests of relationships between constructs (J. E. Hunter, 2001) and finally (3) there are enough empirical studies on the antecedents and consequences of interpersonal customer mistreatment from employee point-of-view.

In this part of the thesis, the meta-analytic methodology is explained in detail and the results of three meta-analyses are evaluated.

3.2 Meta-analysis and its importance for behavioral sciences

All scientific study fields need accumulated knowledge and it is critical to integrate key findings for knowledge development in these fields (Grewal et al., 2017). Reviews are critical in summarizing the accumulated knowledge and provide state-of-the-art understanding of the research domain (Palmatier, Houston, and Hulland, 2017). On the other hand, reviews are also important for synthesizing findings and reconciling

conflicts (Palmatier et al., 2017). The only method for building a store of quantitative findings and synthesize these findings in a specific domain is the meta-analysis.

In a specific research topic, original quantitative studies include common and convertible metrics, namely effect sizes, which make the findings of these studies statistically combinable and comparable (Littell, Corcoran, and Pillai, 2008). Meta-analysis is a specialized, quantitative systematic review that synthesizes quantitative findings in previous studies related to the same phenomenon (Greenhalgh, 2014; Jesson et al., 2011). As indicated in recent studies, meta-analysis is more than combining data from similar studies (Cleophas and Zwinderman, 2017), and it is not only a statistical data analysis method. Rather it is a complete set of procedures (Arthur, Bennett, and Huffcutt, 2001). Beginning with the conceptualization of the research question that is based on the constructs that empirically tested in adequate number of previous studies (Cheung, 2015), meta-analysis includes several systematic stages, such as determining criteria for study selection, determining appropriate data type (correlations, means and standard deviations or odds ratio/risk ratio) for extraction, collecting studies, extracting data from these studies, coding data, controlling publication and data selection biases and analyses.

Synthesizing previous quantitative findings with a meta-analysis has several advantages. Firstly, meta-analytic findings have high statistical power for detecting significant effects because well-employed meta-analyses precisely summarize the effects sizes, accumulate and combine them (Littell et al., 2008). Moreover, working with a large sample size and systematic selection of studies also minimize bias and sampling error (Littell et al., 2008). For instance, the meta-analysis study of Hogueve et al. (2017) on service-profit chain combine 576 independent samples from 518 studies and test the relationships among service-profit chain constructs using data from thousands of respondents, such as the relationship between customer satisfaction and customer loyalty ($k=131$; $N=65258$); and the relationship between external service quality and customer satisfaction ($k=126$; $n=61164$).

Secondly, meta-analysis is less vulnerable towards the confirmation bias because of the systematic and more objective selection of studies. Meta-analysis gives researcher chances to compare effect sizes based on different variables by subgroup analysis and moderation analysis. In social sciences, studies on a specific phenomenon generally test the relationships using different measurement units (e.g. employee, customer,

manager, shareholder) in different contexts (such as different countries, service type, product type). The moderator analysis is an important tool for meta-analytic studies. It can leverage the contextual differences among measurement units to explain variances in effect sizes (Grewal et al., 2017). For instance, Eisend (2016) tests the effects of morality on attitude towards the counterfeit and pirated products. He compares effect sizes in low-piracy and high piracy countries and moderator analysis shows that effect of morality on attitude towards piracy is lower in high piracy countries than low piracy countries. These types of moderator analyses can be impossible with original studies. Zablah, Franke, Brown & Bartholomew (2012) also compare the effects of frontline employees' customer orientation on self-rated employee performance and manager-rated employee performance and find that there is a strong relationship between customer orientation and self-rated employee performance but a weak relationship between customer orientation and manager-rated performance.

Thirdly, although it is almost impossible to provide sufficient evidence to generalize the finding to the entire population with a single study, behavioral social scientists generally assume single study is enough for resolving research questions (Grewal et al., 2017; Wells, 2001). For instance, Open Science Collaboration (2015) replicated one hundred psychology studies, which are published in top psychology journals, and found out that 50% of psychology studies and 75% of social psychology studies fail to replicate the previous results at $p < .05$. Although replications of existing studies are generally rejected by top journals, replication crisis is obvious. Replications are vital for generalizability and meta-analyses become more and more important for fact-finding (J. E. Hunter, 2001).

Fourthly, associated with new meta-analysis methods (such as meta-regression; meta-analytic structural equations modeling), complex models in marketing and organizational behavior literatures are beginning to be examined with large datasets by using empirical findings of previous studies. Meta-analytic investigation of these models allows us to understand underlying mechanisms (Grewal et al., 2017) and compare competing models and theoretical arguments in the literature. For instance, although previous studies argue that market orientation has a direct effect on customer loyalty and perceived quality, using a meta-analysis, Kirca and colleagues (2005) show, that these effects are attenuated if market orientation influences innovativeness.

Fifthly, meta-analysis may give surprising results that are contrary to previous knowledge. For instance, Jones and Nisbett (1972)'s theory on actor-observer differences is widely accepted in psychology literature. However, Malle (2006)'s meta-analysis on 173 studies shows that the average effect sizes are very weak.

Sixthly, and finally, meta-analysis can be an important tool for theory development. It is the most effective bridge between theory and practice. Theories are revised based on empirical findings. Meta-analytic findings provide necessary information for theory revisions by revealing the direction, variation and strength of relationships among constructs (Orsinger, Hogueve, and Ordanini, 2016). Also, it can identify the gaps in well-tested theories (Orsinger et al., 2016). For instance, Hogueve and colleagues (2017) found out that, contrary to popular belief about the service profit chain, the direct effect of internal service quality on service performance is stronger than the indirect effect through employee satisfaction.

3.2.1 Meta-analyses in service research and in the field of dark side issues

In marketing and organizational behavior literature, meta-analysis has been used widely for the last two decades. For instance, 4 leading marketing journals (Journal of Marketing, Journal of Marketing Research, Journal of Consumer Research, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science) published 74 meta-analytic studies in total and 51 of them were published after 2000 (Grewal et al., 2017). However, there are still few meta-analytic studies in marketing and organizational behavior literatures that primarily focus on the service environment. The author of this dissertation determines fourteen meta-analytic studies published in leading marketing, service research and organizational research journals. Although there had been meta-analytic studies, which include data from service articles before 2007 (Franke and Park, 2006; Szymanski and Henard, 2001), service-specific meta-analytic studies begun to appear in leading journals after 2007. Table 2.1 summarizes the previous service-related meta-analyses.

Five of these service related meta-analytic studies mainly focus on the antecedents, and consequences of service quality and validity of service quality scales, such as SERVQUAL, SERVPERF (Black, Childers, and Vincent, 2014; S. P. Brown and Lam, 2008; Carrillat, Jaramillo, and Mulki, 2007, 2009; Ranjan, Sugathan, and Rossmann, 2015). Two studies test the relationships among all constructs in service profit chain and test the whole model by using meta-analytic structural equations modeling

(Hogreve et al., 2017; Hong, Liao, Hu, and Jiang, 2013). Four studies examined the consequences of service failure and consumer reactions to service recovery efforts (De Matos, Henrique, and Alberto Vargas Rossi, 2007; Gelbrich and Roschk, 2011; Roschk and Gelbrich, 2014; Van Vaerenbergh, Orsingher, Vermeir, and Larivière, 2014). Thirteen studies extract consumer data from published articles and unpublished manuscripts. Only four studies use employee data in meta-analysis. Three studies combine effect sizes from multi-level studies (employee, customer, manager and objective performance metrics). Most of the studies use customer satisfaction as an outcome of different service providing processes. On the other hand, although employees (especially frontline employees) are one of the main components of service ecosystems, there are few meta-analytic studies in service research that specifically synthesize employee data.

Table 3.1 : Meta-analysis studies in service research.

Study	Study Size (# Studies)	Time Period	Measurement Unit	Topic
Carillat et al., (2007) JOSM	17	1992 – 2007	Consumers	Testing the validity of SERVQUAL and SERVPERF Scales
De Matos et al., (2007) JSR	24	1987 – 2006	Consumers	Effect of after-failure service recovery process on customers' intentions and company image
Brown and Lam (2008) JR	36	1995 – 2008	Multiple	Relationship between employee satisfaction, service quality and customer satisfaction
Carrillat et al., (2009)	161	NA	Consumers	Effect of service quality on satisfaction loyalty and intentions
Gelbrich and Roschk (2011) JSR	95	1980 – 2009	Consumers	Effect of organizational complaint handling approaches on customers' justice perceptions and intentions
Zablah et al., (2012) JM	323	1979 - 2011	Frontline Employees	Effect of customer orientation on job outcomes
Hong et al., (2013) JAP	58	1992 – 2012	Multiple	Service Profit Chain Constructs
Van Vaerenbergh et al., (2014) JSR	45	1984 - 2013	Consumer	Relationship between service failure attributions and
Roschk and Gelbrich (2014) JSR	55	1980 - 2013	Consumer	Customers reactions to service failure compensation types
Black et al., (2014) JSM	222	NA	Consumer	Antecedents and consequences of service quality
Ranjan et al., (2015) JSM	34	1990 – 2012	Consumer	Antecedents and consequences of service interaction quality
Blut et al., (2016) JSR	117	1994 - 2015	Consumers	Determinants of Self-service technology acceptance
Hogreve et al., (2017) JM	576	1994 - 2015	Multiple	Service Profit Chain Constructs
Roschk et al., (2017) JR	66	1982 – 2016	Customers	Retail atmospherics on shopper outcomes

JOSM: Journal of Service Management; JSR: Journal of Service Research, JR: Journal of Retailing; JM: Journal of Marketing, JSM: Journal of Services Marketing, JAP: Journal of Applied Psychology

For the purposes of this dissertation, organizational behavior literature was also scanned for detecting meta-analysis studies on dark side issues. Content of these studies are summarized in Table 3.2. There are several meta-analytic studies on dark side issues in organizational behavior literature. The author determined twenty-five meta-analyses that synthesize data on the antecedents and consequences of different types of dark side actions in organizational contexts. Fourteen of them tested the antecedents and consequences of these actions in general. These fourteen studies assume that differently labelled (e.g. workplace aggression, counterproductive work behavior, workplace harassment, abuse, bullying) and differently measured dark side actions are reflections of the same general construct and combine their scores (Bowling and Beehr, 2006; Dalal, 2005; Hershcovis and Barling, 2010). Meta-analysis studies on workplace bullying, on the other hand, are mainly focused on long term, repeated dark side actions, such as bullying, mobbing and undermining (Nielsen and Einarsen, 2012; Nielsen, Matthiesen, and Einarsen, 2010; Nielsen, Tangen, Idsoe, Matthiesen, and Magerøy, 2015). There are also a few meta-analytic studies that investigate the dark side actions of superiors (e.g. manager, supervisor, physician) towards their subordinates (e.g. employees, nurses) (Mackey, Frieder, Brees, and Martinko, 2017; Y. Zhang and Bednall, 2016). Sexually active forms of dark side actions are also an important problem for organizations so there are also meta-analyses that specifically synthesize data from sexual harassment studies (Topa Cantisano, Morales Domínguez, and Depolo, 2008; Willness, Steel, and Lee, 2007). Data from the specific forms of dark side behaviors, such as absenteeism, are also synthesized. (Ones, Viswesvaran, and Schmidt, 2003; Viswesvaran, 2002).

Table 3.2 : Meta-analysis studies on dark-side issues in organization research.

Study	Study Size (#)	Time Period	Label	Topic
Viswesvaran (2002) IJSA	NA	NA	Absenteeism	Relationship between absenteeism and job performance
Ones et al., (2003) EJP	28	NA	Absenteeism	Relationship between Big Five Personality Traits and Absenteeism
Lapierre et al., (2005) JOHP	52	1987 – 2004	Workplace Aggression	Comparison of sexual and non-sexual workplace aggression effects on job satisfaction
Dalal (2005) JAP	49	1992 – 2004	Counterproductive Work Behavior	Relationship between Organizational Citizenship and Counterproductive Work Behavior
Bowling and Beehr (2006) JAP	168	1987 - 2005	Workplace Harassment	Antecedents and Consequences of Workplace Harassment
Willness et al., (2007) PP	41	1994 - 2004	Sexual Harassment	Antecedents and consequences of Sexual Harassment at Work
Berry et al., (2007) JAP	37	1999 - 2006	Deviance at Work	Relationship between Organizational and Interpersonal Deviance
Hershcovis et al., (2007) JAP	59	1975 – 2005	Workplace Aggression	Antecedents of Workplace Aggression
Cantisano et al., (2008)	60	1982 - 2005	Sexual Harassment	Antecedents and Consequences of Sexual Harassment at Work
Hershcovis and Barling (2010) JOB	66	1990 – 2008	Workplace Aggression	Comparison of the effects of supervisor, coworker and outsider aggression on employee outcomes
Nielsen et al., (2010) JOOP	86	1988 – 2009	Workplace Bullying	Testing the methodological moderators for workplace bullying
Kish-Gephart et al., (2010) JAP	136	1989 - 2008	Unethical Behavior at Work	Antecedents of unethical choice at work
Hershcovis (2011) JOB	60	1988 – 2008	Workplace Aggression	Comparison of the effects of differently labelled workplace aggression constructs
Nielsen and Einarsen (2012) WS	66	1989 - 2011	Workplace Bullying	Outcomes of workplace bullying
O’Boyle et al., (2012) JAP	245	1991 – 2011	Counter-productive Work Behavior	Relationship between counterproductive work behavior and dark triad personality
Berry et al., (2012) JAP	50	1987 – 2011	Counter-productive Work Behavior	Relationship between other-reported and self-reported counterproductive work behavior
Schyns and Schilling (2013) LQ	57	1997 – 2010	Destructive Leadership	Outcomes of destructive leadership
Grijalva and Newman (2014) AP	16	2002-2013	Counterproductive Work Behavior	Relationship between narcissism and counterproductive work behavior
Rupp et al., (2014) OBHDP	647	NA-2012	Organizational (In)Justice	Relationship between multifoci justice perceptions and organizational citizenship behavior
Nielsen et al., (2015) AVB	29	2001- 2014	Workplace Bullying	Effect of Bullying at work on Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder
Marcus et al., (2016) JOM	11	2006 - 2010	Counterproductive Work Behavior	Relationship between the facets of counterproductive work behavior
Zhang and Bednall (2016) JBE	74	NA	Abusive Supervision	Antecedents of abusive supervision
Sojo et al., (2016) PWQ	93	1985 – 2012	Harmful Workplace Experiences	Relationship between women’s harmful workplace experiences and their well-being
Carpenter and Berry (2017) JOM	46	1990 – 2012	Counterproductive Work Behavior	Relationship between counterproductive work behavior and withdrawal
Mackey et al., (2017) JOM	140	2000 – 2014	Abusive Supervision	Outcomes of Abusive Supervision

JOM: Journal of Management; JAP: Journal of Applied Psychology; AVB: Aggression and Violent Behavior; AP: Applied Psychology; An International Journal; LQ: Leadership Quarterly; WS: Work and Stress; JOB: Journal of Organizational Behavior; JOHP: Journal of Occupational Health Psychology; JOOP: Journal of Organizational and Occupational Psychology; PP: Personnel Psychology; IJSA: International Journal of Selection and Assessment; EJP: European Journal of Psychology; JBE: Journal of Business Ethics; PWQ: Psychology of Women Quarterly; OBHDP: Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes

Although there are not enough meta-analyses on service-related constructs, service field has already accumulated a large body of knowledge and developed its own theories (Kunz and Hogreve, 2011). The author argues that there is vast amount of accumulated data collected from customer contact employees and/or service industries not only in services research but also in management and organization research. This data can be synthesized using meta-analyses for testing service field's assumptions and theoretical knowledge. Meta-analysis would be able to provide conceptual clarity to the service field and integrate findings and perspectives in diversified disciplinary perspectives that are rooted in service field (Orsinger et al., 2016).

In the next section of this dissertation a meta-analysis is presented on the antecedents and consequences of dark side incidents that are frequently occurred during service experiences: customer mistreatment towards frontline employees. Effects of customer mistreatment have been one of the popular topics in organizational and marketing literatures for about fifteen years. Marketing researchers generally perceived customer dark side actions as a deviation from the normal service (or market) behavior and focus on how managers and employees should handle these customer mistreatments (Ang and Koslow, 2012). Organizational behavior researchers, on the other hand, mostly focus on the effects of customer mistreatments on employee outcomes, such as employee health, burnout, stress, turnover intentions (Koopmann et al., 2015). In this thesis, the author combines and synthesizes employee-based data to summarize findings on customer mistreatment and understand the employee-based antecedents and consequences of customer mistreatment.

3.3 Antecedents and consequences of customer mistreatment: Frontline employee point-of-view

As previously mentioned, studies and reports show that employee targeted customer mistreatment is a prevalent and severe problem for service organizations (Grandey et al., 2004; USDAW, 2016). Customer mistreatment refers to “the low-quality interpersonal treatment that employees receive from their customers during service interactions” (Koopmann et al., 2015, p. 34). Different from other types of dark side consumer actions (such as theft, vandalism, piracy), customer mistreatment encompasses direct harmful and dysfunctional acts towards frontline employees, such

as aggression and incivility. Customer mistreatment encompasses a wide variety of constructs that include poor-quality customer-to-employee interactions. It ranges from low-intense, subtle and covert customer acts, such as customer incivility (Sliter, Jex, Wolford, and McInnerney, 2010), to overt, direct and clearly intended-to-harm motivated acts, such as customer verbal aggression (Yagil, 2008b). Consistent with previous studies and meta-analytic reviews in workplace mistreatment literature (Hershcovis and Barling, 2010; McCord, Joseph, Dhanani, and Beus, 2018; Nielsen, Glasø, and Einarsen, 2017), in this study, customer mistreatment includes all of these wide variety of constructs: customer (verbal) aggression, customer incivility, customer pleasantness, customer injustice, customer-related social stressors, customer discrimination, violence, customer sexual harassment, customer undermining, customer abuse. However, verbal mistreatment (such as yelling, humiliating, arguing and rudely talking) are the most prevalent forms of customer mistreatments during service interactions (Yagil, 2017). During the systematic literature review process, the author noticed that there is considerable number of studies that quantitatively examine the employee-based antecedents and consequences of customer mistreatment. By combining the data from these studies, the author aims to test the effects sizes of relationships among constructs and show the validity of these theories for explaining customer mistreatment in the context of service interactions.

3.3.1 Meta-analytic Study 1: Employee-based antecedents of customer mistreatment

As discussed earlier, for almost three decades, “The Customer is the King” philosophy has been widely accepted and increased service standards and customer expectations to unrealistic levels. Thus, frontline employees are forced to maintain perfection of service experiences (from the highly subjective standpoint) and mistakes happen (Yagil, 2017). These service failures easily provoke customers to mistreat the members of the service provider, especially frontline employees (Sliter and Jones, 2016). These acts have become severe, deleterious and common problems for service managers and the members of the service organizations at the frontlines. Reports and studies, which are discussed in the first part of this thesis, also support the criticality of customer mistreatment in service industries. It is impossible to say that customer mistreatment is totally caused by poor or failed service providing processes. Inevitably, service-

unrelated factors (e.g. conflict with family members before service experience, customers' aggressive personality ect.) may sometimes cause customers to mistreat service employees for no reason. However, it also needs to be accepted that frontline employees themselves and service characteristics are important determinants of customer mistreatment (Sliter and Jones, 2016). Until recently, previous employee-level studies mostly viewed customer mistreatment as an external, hardly controllable, independent factor that mainly has no relationship with employee-related or service environment related factors. Employees are also unrealistically viewed as the only victims of these acts and customers are assumed as blame-attributed perpetrators, who act independently from service experiences (Sliter and Jones, 2016). Although responsibility of the customers on their mistreatment acts may be indisputable, the provocative role of the frontline employees and these employees work conditions should also be taken into consideration. Several consumer-level studies show that some of the reasons behind dysfunctional customer behaviors are related to their failed experiences with frontline employees (Fullerton and Punj, 2004; Reynolds and Harris, 2009). Previous studies on workplace victimization also show that victims' characteristics and their work environment also determine their likelihood to be exposed to mistreatment of others (Aquino and Thau, 2009). Moreover, employees in certain work environments have more potential to provoke customer mistreatment than others (Koopmann et al., 2015). These employees may be incapable of providing the expected level of service experiences to their customers and they may be more likely to fail and thus provoke customers to behave negatively. Moreover, specific individual characteristics and work conditions cause frontline employees to be more sensitive to customer acts so they may perceive neutral acts as negative or low-intense mistreatments as severely negative acts (Sliter and Jones, 2016).

Based on the goal-failure view and aggression-frustration framework, the current study conceptualizes customer mistreatment as a signal of goal failure, which indicates customer's message to the employee implying service failure and customer frustration. All of the customer mistreatment types can be viewed as customers' subjective "poor-quality" reactions against employees' service provision failures. Consumer-level studies also found that failed (and unrecovered) service experiences and deviant employee behaviors cause aggressive/retaliatory/unfair/rude behaviors by customers towards frontline employees (Daunt and Harris, 2014; Grégoire et al., 2010).

Therefore, personal and service factors related to frontline employees may determine customer mistreatment. Thus, we argue that frontline employees and their work environments are partly responsible for the mistreatments of customers because frontline employees may entice customers by not confirming expectations related to their service experiences. Employees' personality-related and demographic characteristics, factors related to organizational climate, employees' service-related resources, such as customer orientation, may be determinants of their perceived exposure to customer mistreatment. These factors have potential to construct healthy and collaborative relations with customers and both sides achieve their goals by providing and receiving satisfactory service quality. For instance, certain personality factors may make frontline employees more/less provocative, more/less capable or motivated to provide promised service quality and more/less sensitive to customer mistreatments (Sliter and Jones, 2016; Yagil, Luria, and Gal, 2008). Organizational or job-related factors, such as workload and job autonomy, may impede service employees in helping customers' problems. Therefore, these employee-level factors may decrease or increase the frequency or severity of customer mistreatment³. We aim to examine employee-level antecedents of customer mistreatment by employing a meta-analytic review. Meta-analysis is an efficient method for synthesizing research findings by revealing the direction, variation and strength of relationships among constructs (Orsinger et al., 2016). In the literature, factors related to frontline employee characteristics and factors related to their work environment are measured frequently but mostly viewed as control variables or moderators that change the effect of customer mistreatment on employee outcomes. Few studies conceptualize these factors as determinants of customer mistreatment (Grandey et al., 2004; Johnson, Holdsworth, Hoel, and Zapf, 2013; Sliter and Jones, 2016; Sliter, Withrow, and Jex, 2015). This study examines the direct relationship between employee-based antecedents and their perceived exposure to customer mistreatment with a meta-analytic perspective. We combine employee-level data in previous customer mistreatment studies that report employee demographic factors (age, tenure, gender); employee personality characteristics (Negative affectivity, positive affectivity, five

³ It is important to note that some difficult customers mistreat frontline employees because of personal problems and service-unrelated expectations. Employee-level factors may have no influence on these types of customer mistreatments.

factor); organization and job design related demands and resources (Supportive climate, conflicting climate, job autonomy, workload). We also tested the moderation effects of power distance and surface characteristics (frequency and intensity of customer mistreatment). Other cultural (individualism, power distance, masculinity and uncertainty avoidance) and service context related (social services vs. commercial services, and call center vs. face-to-face services) factors are also tested.

In this thesis, effects of different demographic factors, company climate and employee personality factors and employee resources on perceived exposure to customer mistreatment are tested using meta-analysis.

3.3.1.1 Hypothesis development

Employee demographics and customer mistreatment

As demographic characteristics of frontline employees, age, tenure in the profession and gender have been measured in many of the studies on customer mistreatment and may have a bearing on the frontline employee's perceived exposure to customer mistreatment. From the perspective of socioemotional selectivity theory (Carstensen, Isaacowitz, and Charles, 1999; Dahling and Perez, 2010), which argues that age is a critical factor that determines people's selection and pursuit of social goals, age and tenure may have important roles in determining frontline employee's success at service roles because; (1) older and more experienced people are better at regulating their emotions in a positive way (2) they perform better at emotional labor strategies since they are more successful at adapting their inner emotions (deep acting) to the affective instructions of the work environment (service display rules) and (3) they are more constructive in their social relationships. Therefore, it can be argued that older and more experienced employees are more successful in meeting the requirements of customer service providers and managing customer relationships in a constructive and positive manner than younger and less experienced employees so they are less likely to provide less than expected service quality and provoke customers to mistreat them.

Age is examined as the first demographic factor. According to Johnson, Holdsworth, Hoel and Zapf (2013), age is negatively related to customer mistreatment for several reasons. Firstly, as explained before, older people are more constructive and positive in their social interactions and they are more successful in displaying positive emotions

and controlling their emotions (Carstensen et al., 1999). Secondly, older people are more successful in perspective taking and social sensitivity. Thanks to these abilities, customers have higher tolerance for older employees. Besides, they are less likely to contribute to conflicts and provoke customers to misbehave because several studies show that older people tend to invest in positive relationships and people, in general, have a tendency to behave kinder to older people (Luong, Charles, & Fingerman, 2011). According to socioemotional selectivity theory, older people are better at optimizing and regulating their emotions and they attach importance to positive aspects of incidences in their interpersonal relationships as well (Beitler, Machowski, Johnson, & Zapf, 2016; Carstensen, Isaacowitz, & Charles, 1999). Therefore, the author proposes:

H1: There is a negative relationship between frontline employees' age and their perceived exposure to customer mistreatment.

Tenure in the profession is the second demographic factor. Job tenure is not only a demographic factor for employees, but also a cognitive resource that indicates employees' commitment to organizations and their job-related knowledge. It can be argued that employees with longer tenure have much more experience with customer mistreatments so they get better at managing these difficult customers and take better precautions against potential aggressive acts of those. Increased job tenure also increases employees' self-regulation capacity and may create more controlled job environments for them (M. Wang et al., 2011). According to Koopman et al. (2015), more experienced frontline employees are more specialized in both delivering qualified services and showing desirable emotions during service interactions. It can also be argued that experienced frontline employees can develop strategies for handling difficult customers (Sliter and Jones, 2016). In support of this argument, Grandey and colleagues (2007) found a marginal negative relationship between job tenure and customer mistreatment. Therefore, the author proposes:

H2: There is negative relationship between frontline employees' tenure and their perceived exposure to customer mistreatment.

The third demographic factor, examined here, is gender. Studies on selective incivility argue that some types of interpersonal mistreatments in organizational contexts are selective (discriminatory) in nature, and female employees are more frequently

exposed to rudeness of others than male employees (Kabat-Farr and Cortina, 2012). Reinforcing these arguments, women reported a higher volume of work-related victimization than men especially in specific jobs and contexts, such as attorneyship, universities, military, city government and court jobs (Cortina et al., 2002; Cortina, Kabat-Farr, Leskinen, Huerta, and Magley, 2013). However, the author believes that, from the perspective of goal failure, it is obviously unreasonable to argue women are less successful at service jobs and thus more provocative than men. The results of a recent meta-analysis also show significant but weak differences between women and men in workplace mistreatment exposure (McCord et al., 2018). It should be accepted that some forms of mistreatment acts of customers against frontline employees (especially subtle forms like customer sexual harassment, undermining and discrimination) may be more common for women than men. However, the author believes that there is no reasonable difference between the service performance and interaction quality of male and female employees thus a difference between male and female employees' reports of customer mistreatment is not expected.

Frontline employees' personality traits and customer mistreatment

Studies on dark side issues in organizations, generally focus on perpetrators' personality traits, such as aggressiveness, neuroticism, self-esteem and trait anger (Anderson and Bushman, 2002; Barling, Dupré, and Kelloway, 2009). However, it is also important to consider victims' characteristics and understand why these people are victimized (Aquino and Bradfield, 2000). For instance, Bunk and Magley's study shows that some people are more sensitive to interpersonal mistreatment than others at work (Bunk and Magley, 2011). Recent studies also show that personality characteristics of victimized employees have a bearing on their exposure to customer mistreatment in service environment (Schilpzand, De Pater, and Erez, 2016). Within the last decade, considerable amount of employee data about mistreated employee characteristics has been accumulated. The employee characteristics in those studies are neuroticism, agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion, negative affectivity and positive affectivity.

The first personality characteristic this study examines is negative affectivity. Negative affectivity is a high-order personality trait that refers to the pervasive tendency to be distressed, upset and have a negative view of self (Aquino et al., 1999; Watson and Clark, 1984). Frontline employees with high negative affectivity cannot control or

regulate their negative emotions. Because of their negative world-view, frontline employees with high negative affectivity frequently engage in dysfunctional behaviors in organizations. During stressful employee-customer interactions, they may easily provoke customers to mistreat owing to their easily aroused negative emotions (Penney and Spector, 2005; Walker et al., 2014). Employees with high negative affectivity are also more sensitive and susceptible to minor or ambiguous affective events (Koopmann et al., 2015; Penney and Spector, 2005)(Weiss and Beal, 2005). During these events, mistreatments by customers may be amplified by employees' negative affectivity. Previous literature provides evidence for the significant relationship between reported victimization of various entities by the dark side actions and victims' negative affectivity. For instance, Penney and Spector (Penney and Spector, 2005) found that high negative affectivity employees report more frequent incivility within the organization and they engage in more frequent dark side actions toward their organizations and its members. In service context, studies also found positive relationship between frontline employees' negative affectivity and their perceived level of customer mistreatment (Walker et al., 2014; M. Wang et al., 2011). Therefore; the author proposes third hypothesis as:

H3: There is a positive relationship between frontline employees' negative affectivity and their perceived exposure to customer mistreatment.

The second personality characteristic of frontline employees in scrutiny is positive affectivity. Positive affectivity refers to tendency to experience positive emotions, such as pleasure, joyfulness, cheer and enthusiasm. Positive view of self and self-confidence support stable, frequent and intense experiences of these positive emotions (Watson and Naragon, 2012). It may be assumed that positive affectivity is the opposite of negative affectivity. However, organizational behavior literature shows that these two constructs are related but distinct (Agho, Price, and Mueller, 1992). It may be argued that there is a negative relation between positive affectivity and perceived exposure to customer mistreatment. According to Milam and colleagues (2009), employees with high positive affectivity may not perceive the acts of others as uncivil, which may easily be perceived as uncivil by employees with low positive affectivity. Therefore, fourth hypothesis is:

H4: There is a negative relationship between frontline employees' positive affectivity and their exposure to customer mistreatment during service interactions.

The third personality trait that is examined here is neuroticism (emotional stability), which is highly related to negative affectivity (Milam et al., 2009). Neuroticism refers to the inability to adjust and stabilize emotional conditions (Judge, Martocchio, and Thoresen, 1997). Neuroticism is not only a characteristic of perpetrators but also a common personality trait of victims, which reports high level of exposure to aggressive and uncivil acts of other sources in organizations. Neurotic employees may be viewed as easy targets for mistreatment acts because they easily elicit insecure feelings and anxiety, instantly reveal these emotions during social interactions and cannot control their negative expressions (Mathisen, Øgaard, and Einarsen, 2012). Emotional instability weakens the ability to serve customers well (T. J. Brown, Mowen, Donovan, and Licata, 2002) because emotionally unstable employees are more likely to engage in provocative acts that may elicit aggressive or uncivil acts of customers towards them (Sliter and Jones, 2016). Moreover, neurotic employees hardly handle their emotions well and are unable to exhibit required emotions thus they frequently conflict with customers during service interactions (Milam et al., 2009). Therefore, relative to emotionally stable frontline employees, neurotic employees are more likely to provoke customers to be perpetrators and more likely to perceive their neutral behaviors as negative. Thus, the fifth hypothesis is;

H5: There is a positive relationship between frontline employees' neuroticism and their exposure to customer mistreatment during service interactions.

The fourth personality trait discussed here is agreeableness. Agreeableness refers to the individual's ability and motivation to maintain positive relations (Graziano and Tobin, 2002) and it is associated with sympathy, good-naturedness, cooperativeness (McCrae and Costa, 1987). According to Milam and colleagues (2009), agreeable employees are less likely to be exposed to incivility in organizations because they are less provocative and more cooperative with people. Besides, agreeable employees have the ability to empathize with their customers thus, contrary to neurotic employees; agreeable employees are perceived to be more trustful and less skeptical by other individuals. Ekinçi and Dawes (2009) also found that, from customer point-of-view, agreeable employees successfully interact with customers and satisfy them. Therefore, it can be argued that frontline employees with high levels of agreeableness are less likely to be exposed to customer mistreatment because they easily empathize with their customers and cooperate with them to solve their problems. Relatedly, by

recovering service failures, they can ease the tension of customers and prevent possible aggressive customer behaviors against themselves. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H6: There is a negative relationship between frontline employees' agreeableness and their exposure to customer mistreatment during service interactions.

The fifth personality trait to be examined is extraversion. Extraversion is a high-order construct that is used to describe individuals who are active, gregarious, sociable, assertive and talkative (Barrick and Mount, 1991; Liao and Chuang, 2004). Employees with low extraversion (introverts) may not enjoy to serve customers in long-term so they cannot easily identify and satisfy their needs (T. J. Brown et al., 2002). According to Koopman and colleagues (2015, pp. 54–55), extraversion may contribute to “respectful treatment from satisfied customers”. According to Milam and colleagues (2009), extraverts interpret neutral events in a positive light and may not notice the violations of social contracts in organizations. Yagil (2008a) argues extravert service employees have high person-job fit because they view themselves as customer-oriented and interaction-oriented thus they are engaged in better customer services. Therefore, the seventh hypothesis is:

H7: There is a significant relationship between frontline employees' extraversion and their exposure to customer mistreatment during service interactions.

Final personality trait is conscientiousness. Conscientiousness refers to the “propensity to follow socially prescribed norms for impulse control, to be goal directed, to plan, and to be able to delay gratification and to follow norms and rules” (Roberts, Jackson, Fayard, Edmonds, and Meints, 2009, p. 369). Prominent characteristics of conscientious individuals are carefulness, planfulness, responsibility, being organized and hardworking (Barrick and Mount, 1991). Along with emotional stability (low neuroticism), conscientiousness is viewed as one of the most valid personality trait that predicts success at work (Barrick, Mount, and Judge, 2001) and avoiding dark side actions in organizations (Salgado, 2002). Previous studies also negatively associate conscientiousness and workplace victimization. In the context of service interactions, conscientiousness is also viewed as a personality trait that decreases the perceived exposure to customer mistreatment. According to Yang and Diefendorff (2009), conscientious employees are less likely to engage in dark side actions so they may act less provocatively. However, we argue that negative effects of conscientiousness on

exposure to customer mistreatment cannot be generalizable to customer-employee interactions. Firstly, although conscientious frontline employees tended to serve their customer well, they are highly task oriented and tended to follow prescribed service roles. This may obstruct their ability to meet extremely variable customer demands during service experiences. Secondly, argued by Sliter and Jones (2016), conscientious frontline employees are rigid and role-bound that increase the time spent on completing customer-related tasks, which may irritate customers. Finally, the effect of conscientiousness on service quality is highly dependent on employees' emotional exhaustion, which is a widespread problem among frontline employees. Witt and colleagues (2004) found that conscientious frontline employees with high levels of emotional exhaustion serve their customer worse than unconscientious colleagues. Therefore, although conscientiousness makes frontline employees more engaged in customer services, the author argues that, their task-oriented nature and tendency to follow formal rules may hinder their ability to meet customers' instant demands and suppress customer-employee relationship. In support to this argument, Sliter and Jones (2016), in their recent study, found no significant relationship between conscientiousness and customer mistreatment. Hence, the author does not expect any relationship between conscientiousness and exposure to customer mistreatment.

Organizational climate and customer mistreatment

Organizational climate includes a wide range of subjective evaluations of the work environment (Neal, Griffin, and Hart, 2000). Organization/Service environment, organizational policies and service job characteristics are also important determinants of customer mistreatment. Less stressful and more supportive work environments decrease actual and perceived customer mistreatment against frontline employees (Ben-Zur and Yagil, 2005; Grandey et al., 2004). Moreover, service environment and service delivery rules and strategies may negatively affect service quality; cause dissatisfaction and frustration that might be manifested as customer incivility (Gutek, Groth, and Cherry, 2002; Sliter and Jones, 2016). A considerable number of studies investigate the relationship between different types of customer mistreatments and organizational support, employees' workload, job autonomy and organizational conflict.

Job autonomy is one of the main work characteristics that make employees more with their jobs. Job autonomy refers to the freedom, independence and discretion provided

to employees (Hackman and Oldham, 1976). For instance, if frontline employees have the right to determine their work schedules and procedures, their jobs become more autonomous. Although service organizations are generally known with their strict display and response rules (Goldberg and Grandey, 2007) that decrease job autonomy, frontline employees with more job autonomy are more likely to treat their customers well and provide high quality service (Koopmann et al., 2015). According to Sliter and Jones (2016), lack of autonomy may cause unwanted reactions from customers since it limits frontline employees in serving their customers. In a qualitative study, several customers express that they get rude after frontline employees start to read scripted responses instead of solving customers' problems. Employees also perceive customer encounters less aggressive if they have control of the services they provide (Grandey et al., 2004). Therefore, we argue that frontline employees with high job autonomy have more resources to meet various customer demands and discretion to recover service failures that decrease the likelihood of customer mistreatment.

H8: There is a positive relationship between frontline employees' job autonomy and their exposure to customer mistreatment during service interactions.

Another organizational climate factor is organizational support. Organizational support refers to an organization's perceived readiness to meet their employees socioemotional needs, help their employees when they need, and reward their increased efforts (Rhoades and Eisenberger, 2002). Negative events are more likely to occur in social environments with lack of support (Thoits, 1982). In service organizations, supportive environment reduces job stressors, which include customer-related job stressors (Yagil, 2008a). Employees feel more respected, display more positive emotions and avoid conflict with customers if they feel supported by their organizations and organizational members (Koopmann et al., 2015). On the other hand, employees, who perceive low levels of organizational support, are more likely to feel frustrated and act aggressively (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt, and Barrick, 2004) thus they are more likely to provoke customers to misbehave against themselves. The literature defines two sources for organizational support for frontline employees in their jobs: supervisory support and coworker support. We believe that both have negative effects on customer mistreatment. Therefore our hypotheses are:

H9: There is a negative relationship between organizational support and exposure to customer mistreatment during service interactions.

H9a: There is a negative relationship between supervisory support and exposure to customer mistreatment during service interactions.

H9b: There is a negative relationship between coworker support and exposure to customer mistreatment during service interactions.

Studies on interpersonal mistreatment in organizational behavior literature increasingly take multifoci approach that assumes interpersonal mistreatment from different sources (such as customers, supervisors and coworkers) are distinct constructs. We argue that they are distinct but cannot be viewed as unrelated constructs. The first reason for this argument is that mistreated frontline employees by organizational insiders become resource-depleted and more sensitive to acts of customers and may view neutral acts of customers as negative acts. Secondly, resource-depleted frontline employees may hardly be able to regulate their emotions so they are more likely to provoke customer mistreatment (Koopmann et al., 2015). Thirdly, supervisor and coworker mistreatment damage employees' affective commitment to their organizations (Hershcovis and Barling, 2010) and decreased affective commitment may cause disappointing service performance (Zablah et al., 2012) that may provoke employees to perform poorly. Therefore, we argue that frontline employees, who are mistreated by their supervisors and coworkers, may not have enough resources to provide superior service quality courteously so they may easily provoke customers to misbehave. Thus our hypotheses are:

H10a: There is a positive significant relationship between coworker mistreatment and exposure to customer mistreatment during service interactions.

H10b: There is a positive significant relationship between supervisor mistreatment and exposure to customer mistreatment during service interactions.

The final organization factor that will be examined is workload. Workload is the totality of qualitative and quantitative work that needs to be done by an employee in a specific time period. In a quantitative manner, it "simply represents the sheer volume of work required of an employee" (Spector and Jex, 1998, p. 358). General agreement is that workplaces have become more and more demanding and workloads and, relatedly, time pressure on employees drain employees emotionally and cognitively (Teuchmann, Totterdell, and Parker, 1999). Especially, frontline employees are confronted with excessive workloads so they need to handle multi-tasks with

polychronic orientation for successful service delivery performance (Arasli, Namin, and Abubakar, 2018). Service employees may not be able to serve their customers successfully because of excessive work demands so low-quality services cause less pleasant, and sometimes more aggressive, customer treatment against frontline employees (Koopmann et al., 2015). Moreover, work overloads, may cause frontline employees to be more vulnerable (Meyer and Maltin, 2010) so they may perceive neutral customers as negative. Therefore, we argue that workload make frontline employees' resources insufficient, cause poor service quality and increase the likelihood of service failures. Thus, customers are more likely to react negatively to these frontline employees, who do not have required time and resources for superior service quality. As a consequence, our hypothesis is:

H11: There is a positive relationship between workload and exposure to customer mistreatment during service interactions.

Customer mistreatment and frontline employees' customer orientation

From the psychological point-of-view, customer orientation refers to an (frontline) "employee's tendency or predisposition to meet customer needs in an on-the-job context" (T. J. Brown et al., 2002, p. 111; Zablah et al., 2012). Customer orientation⁴ is a psychological resource that shapes employees' perceptions and attitudes in service environment (Zablah et al., 2012) and may protect frontline employees from stressful events (M. R. Smith, Rasmussen, Mills, Wefald, and Downey, 2012). It can be argued that customer-oriented employees are less likely to frustrate customers by providing better customer service (Sliter and Jones, 2016). From the perspective of emotional labor theory (2014), customer-oriented employees are less likely to provoke customers since they are more effortful in adapting themselves to organizations' displayed rules during service interactions (Allen, Pugh, Grandey, and Groth, 2010). Besides, even if customer-oriented employees are subjected to customer mistreatment, they are inclined to show more prosocial behaviors to other customers to repair their self-view (Yue, Wang, and Groth, 2017) so it may decrease the likelihood to provoke other customers to behave badly and decrease the frequency of customer mistreatment.

⁴ In this thesis, customer orientation and service orientation are viewed as a differently labelled same constructs. Employee-level customer orientation is referred to as a "service orientation" in organization and hospitality literatures (Brady and Cronin, 2001).

Harris (2013) found that customer oriented frontline employees are less frequently subjected to customer phone rage than others. Additionally, customer orientation shapes frontline employees' perceptions and attitudes related to customer mistreatment. Customer-oriented employees perceive customer mistreatment less threatening and less stressful (J. J. E. Yoo, Kim, and Lee, 2015) so they may appraise these acts less intense than employees with low customer orientation. Therefore, we argue that customer-oriented employees are more resourceful to provide superior service quality and empathize and handle with frustrated customers so they are less likely to be exposed to customer mistreatment. We hypothesized that;

H12: There is a negative relationship between customer orientation and exposure to customer mistreatment during service interactions.

Role of culture: Moderation effects of power distance

Previous studies revealed that, employees' perceptions of and reactions to their environments are varied and based on cultural values and dimensions. Several studies explain variations in employees' performances and their engagement in dysfunctional behaviors by using Hofstede's (1980) four cultural dimensions: individualism/collectivism; power distance, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance and long term/short term orientation. For instance, Shao and Skarlicki (2014) found that, frontline employees in a western culture (Canada) cope with customer mistreatment by directly reacting to the perpetrator and sabotaging service delivery processes but in an eastern-Asian culture (China), they cope with customer mistreatment indirectly by refraining from customer-oriented behaviors. In this thesis, it is argued that between these cultural dimensions, power distance is a critical cultural dimension that makes the effects of organizational factors on customer mistreatment more nuanced in some cultures than others. Power distance refers to the acceptance degree of inequalities by individuals, organizations or societies and viewing these inequalities as functional and legitimate (Daniels and Greguras, 2014; Hofstede, 1980). Frontline employees' perceptions of power distance determine their relations with more powerful actors in the service environment, such as customers and supervisors. We believe that the relationship between customer mistreatment and some demographic factors (such as age and tenure), are dependent on power distance perceptions because these demographics may have more potential to increase healthy

customer relationships in low-power distance countries than in high power distance countries.

As previously discussed, it is expected that age and tenure have negative relationship with customer mistreatment. However, most of the studies that found negative relationships between these factors were conducted in low-power distance countries. It is believed that negative effects of age and tenure on customer mistreatment are relatively low because (1) employees in high power distance culture have lesser tendency to invest in their personal development and higher tendency to complete formal duties so their age and experience in customer services may not increase their success in customer-employee relationships and (2) employees in low power distance cultures develop better relations with more powerful actors in organizations, such as customers, than in high power distance cultures. Cross-cultural studies also found that positive relationship between age or age perceptions and employee outcomes are significant only in low-power distance countries (Borycki, Thorn, and LeMaster, 1998; Chiu, Chan, Snape, and Redman, 2001). Therefore, although older and tenured frontline employees are expected to get better in managing and hindering customer mistreatment, it is argued that older frontline employees in high power distance countries may easily provoke their customers to mistreat them similar with their younger colleagues. Because they may not develop better relations with their customers, which is critical for customer service, and may not be able to provide superior service quality thus they can easily provoke their customers to mistreat them. Therefore, the next hypothesis is;

H13: Negative effects of age and tenure on perceived customer mistreatment are more pronounced if frontline employee is from a low power distance country than a high power distance country.

Moderator effects of surface characteristics

As previously discussed, several conceptualizations, construct definitions and measures have been introduced by scholars in the literature. As a surface characteristics of customer mistreatment, current research mainly uses two types of response scales: frequency of the exposure (i.e. how frequent, how often) and intensity or severity of the exposure (i.e. to what extent). For instance, in their customer-related social stressor scale, Dormann and Zapf (2004) measure intensity of the exposed

customer mistreatment in their response scale. On the other hand, in their adapted scale, Skarlicki and colleagues (2008) and Grandey and colleagues (2004, 2007) measure the frequency of customer mistreatment. According to Hershcovis (2011) frequency and intensity characteristics can moderate the relationships between interpersonal mistreatment and other constructs. Perceived intensity is “the severity or harmfulness the victim attributes” to the interpersonal mistreatment (Hershcovis, 2011, p. 511) and frequency is the occurrence volume of mistreated actions in a specific work period. It is believed that our hypothesized relations may be more pronounced for customer mistreatment intensity, rather than frequency for two reasons. Firstly, indispensably, frequency scales assume all mistreated customer actions have the same level of severity and employees are told to report the count of mistreatment acts only. However, intensity scales ask employees to report perceived impact of these acts. Therefore, although, frequency of customer mistreatment is more objective than the intensity, intensity of customer mistreatment pay attention to differences in employees’ perceptions and differences in the severity of perpetrators’ acts. Secondly, frequency response scales are less standardized than intensity scales. Intensity scales generally use 5-point or 7-point scales, anchored by not at all true/absolutely true or not at all/to a great extent (Dormann and Zapf, 2004). However, there are great variances in frequency scales such as open ended response scales (Grandey et al., 2004); bipolar scales (Grandey et al., 2007); dichotomous scales (Wood, Braeken, and Niven, 2013). Besides, low-base rate of the frequency of customer mistreatment (less than once a month or less than once a three day) may be a variant based on the sectoral standards. Therefore, lowest anchor in a 5-point scales may be different (Koopmann et al., 2015). It can be argued that these variances and characteristic differences may increase the heterogeneity of effect sizes and make intensity scales more effective than frequency scales. A recent meta-analytic study by Mccord and colleagues (2018) also show that relationships between workplace mistreatment and some of its antecedents are more pronounced in intensity response scales than frequency response scales. Therefore, the next hypothesis is

H14: Relationships between employee’s perceived exposure to customer mistreatment and its antecedents are more pronounced in intensity response scales than frequency response scales.

Therefore, the proposed model related to employee-driven antecedents of customer mistreatment is shown below.

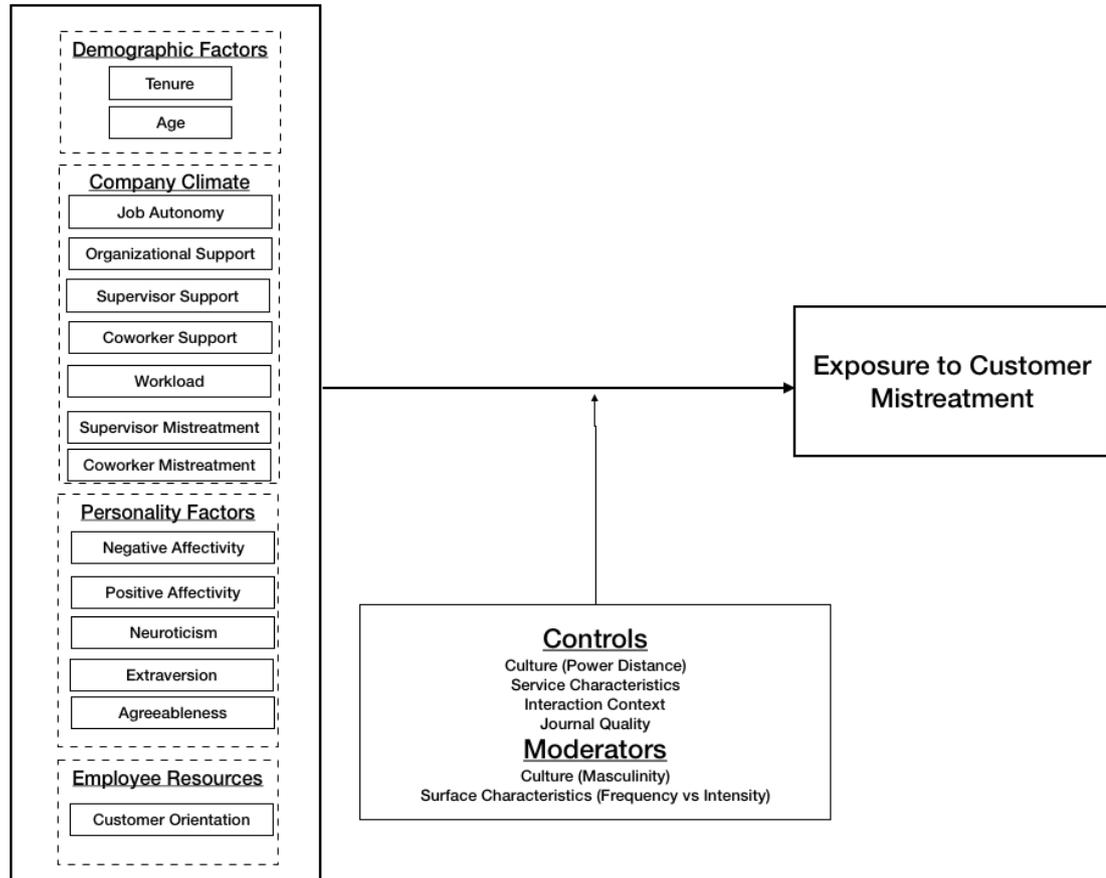


Figure 3.1 : Antecedents of customer mistreatment.

Control variables

In the field of customer mistreatment, previous studies are conducted in several different contexts. These contextual differences have the potential to increase heterogeneity and change effect sizes. Thus, they needed to be controlled for while employing meta-analytic tests. Firstly, sector type can be an important control variable. For instance, it can easily be argued that healthcare industry, education sector, social services and governmental jobs have more of a societal orientation than customer services, such as hospitality industry, banking industry, food industry and any type of sales force. So the difference between socially oriented services and commercially oriented services should be controlled for. Secondly, interaction context can be important. Unlike other frontline employees, call center workers interact with their customers indirectly and without seeing their faces. It may increase or decrease

perceived customer mistreatment due to lack of facial expressions making it harder to understand the intent of the customers. Thirdly, although moderation effects of power distance is hypothesized, Hofstede (1980)'s other national culture dimensions (individualism/collectivism; masculinity/femininity; uncertainty avoidance) may also have a potential to influence the results. Finally, other national characteristics may influence the results so it may be important to compare a specific nation, such as USA or China, with other nations.

3.3.1.2 Method

Literature search

Author used multiple inclusion and exclusion criteria for the selection of studies used in the meta-analysis. The first inclusion criterion is that studies had to collect individual-level data from frontline employees, who serve external customers or other organizational outsiders, such as patients and students. Secondly, to ensure that this meta-analysis provides adequate quality, selected studies had to be published in journals, which are now indexed in SCI/SSCI/ESCI listed or published by Routledge, Emerald, Sage, Taylor and Francis, Elsevier or Wiley publications. Thirdly, studies had to employ correlation scores that show the relationship between customer mistreatment types and other frontline employee-based constructs.

Consequently, applying the first exclusion criterion, author excluded conceptual and theoretical papers (e.g., Groth and Grandey, 2012), qualitative studies (e.g., Greer, 2015) and encounter-level quantitative studies that use external observers (e.g., Walker et al., 2014). Next, studies, which do not provide appropriate data for effect size computation, are excluded from the final set of articles. Finally, author also excluded studies that measure customer mistreatment as a result of specific events, such as fuzzy return requests (e.g., S. Wang, Beatty, and Liu, 2012).

Towards completing a comprehensive literature search, the author used multiple methods. These study retrieval methods are consistent with previously published meta-analyses in management and marketing literatures (i.e., (Eisend, 2016; Willness et al., 2007; e.g., Zablah et al., 2012). At first, author conducted a manual search of 19 major journals in management, marketing and hospitality, including Journal of Marketing, Journal of Marketing Research, Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Journal

of Service Research, Journal of Services Marketing, Journal of Service Management, Journal of Service Theory and Practice, Academy of Management Journal, Journal of Applied Psychology, Journal of Management, Journal of Organizational Health Psychology, Personnel Psychology, Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, Journal of Organizational Behavior, Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, Work and Stress, International Journal of Hospitality Management, International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, Cornell Hospitality Quarterly. Secondly, references of previous review articles on customer mistreatment (Ang and Koslow, 2012; Fisk et al., 2010; Hershcovis and Barling, 2010; Koopmann et al., 2015; Yagil, 2008b, 2017) are scanned. Thirdly, a keyword search of various electronic databases (e.g., PsychINFO, ISI Web of Science) was performed using mistreat*, agresi*, incivil*, uncivil*, harass*, mistreat*, misbehav* and abus* combined with customer, consumer, patient, client or outsider. Additionally, researchgate and google scholar pages of major scholars in the field were scanned. The oldest study included was published in 1990 thus sample studies cover 28 years of research on customer mistreatment against frontline employees. This searching process provided correlations from 184 independent samples reported in 162 articles (for the list of all studies included in meta-analysis, see Appendices).

Coding procedure and coded variables

Author adapted previous studies' coding procedure (e.g., Hogreve et al., 2017; Hong et al., 2013; Zablah et al., 2012) to this set of studies and develop a coding scheme for correlations among variables, sample information (sample size, country, sector), key variables, moderator variables, reliability scores for measures. Author and advisor of this thesis discussed and determined moderator variables and resolve the disagreements about how to code studies based on this procedure. In coding process, author used the definitions of related variables and extracted suitable data from the studies. Table 3.2 summarizes the definitions and scope of constructs that are included to this study. As previously mentioned, because of the product proliferation in the field, different labels and definitions could be used for referring same phenomenon so author also included studies with different labels (see "Common aliases" column in Table 3.2).

Table 3.3 : Definitions of the constructs of study I.

Construct	Definition	Common Aliases	Representative Studies
Customer Mistreatment	“the low-quality interpersonal treatment that employees receive from their customers during service interactions” (Koopmann et al., 2015, p. 34).	Customer mistreatment, Customer (verbal) aggression, customer incivility, negative customer behavior, customer abuse, customer-related social stressors, customer (sexual) harassment, customer (in)justice	Grandey et al., (2004), Dormann and Zapf (2004), Wilson and Holmvall (2013)
Negative Affectivity	High-order personality trait that refers pervasive tendency to be distressed, upset and negative view of self	Negative affectivity, negative emotionality	Walker et al., (2014), Grandey et al., (2004)
Positive Affectivity	A trait that stable tendency to experience positive emotions, such as pleasure, joyfulness, cheer and enthusiasm	Positive Affectivity, positive emotionality	Goussinsky (2011)
Neuroticism	The tendency to negative psychological adjustment and unstable emotional conditions	Neuroticism, emotional stability (r), emotional instability	Chi, Tsai and Tseng (2013); Sliter and Jones (2016)
Agreeableness	The motivation of maintaining positive relations wiother and it associated with sympathy, good-naturedness, cooperativeness	Agreeableness, agreeability	Sliter and Jones (2016); Sliter, Withrow and Jex, (2015)
Conscientiousness	“propensity to follow socially prescribed norms” (Roberts et al., 2009, p. 369)	Conscientiousness	Sliter and Jones (2016); Milam et al., (2009)
Extraversion	high-order construct that is used to describe individuals who are active, gregarious, sociable, assertive and talkative	Extraversion, Introversion (r)	Chi et al., (2013); Milam et al., (2009)
Job Autonomy	freedom, independence and discretion level of job provided to employees	Job Autonomy, Response Autonomy, Display Autonomy	Goldberg and Grandey (2007); Grandey et al. (2004); Sliter and Jones (2016)
Organizational Support	organization’s perceived readiness to meet their employees’ socioemotional needs, help their employees when they need, and reward their increased efforts	Organizational support, supervisor support, coworker support, support from colleagues	Wang et al., (2013); Dormann and Zapf (2004)
Workload	“simply represents the sheer volume of work required of an employee” (Spector and Jex, 1998, p. 358)	Workload, Work overload, Time pressure	N/A
Customer Orientation	“employee’s tendency or predisposition to meet customer needs in an on-the-job context” (T. J. Brown et al., 2002, p. 111).	Customer Orientation, Service Orientation, Customer-oriented Behaviors	Harris (2013)
Age	Employees’ age	Age	Johnson et al. (2013)
Gender	-Employees’ biological sex	Gender, Sex, Biological Sex (male=0; female=1)	-
Tenure	The length of time an employee has worked on a specific job	Tenure, years of experience, service experience	Grandey et al., (2007);

(r) = reverse coded

Author applied correlation coefficient as the effect size metric, consistent with previous meta-analytic studies in marketing and management literatures (e.g., Hershcovis et al., 2007; Hogleve et al., 2017). Random effects model, which is developed by Hunter and Schmidt (2004) is used for calculating mean correlations and correcting them for sampling and measurement error (Franke and Park, 2006; Zablah et al., 2012). As suggested by Hunter and Schmidt (2004), author used raw correlation coefficient scores without Fisher’s transformation (Franke and Park, 2006; Zablah et al., 2012).

As discussed in the first part of the literature, targeted dysfunctionality of customers (herein customer mistreatment) is multidimensional bridging construct that encompasses different types of employee mistreatment. In literature, different subconstructs of customer mistreatment are examined together in some studies and correlation scores were reported separately. Author computed composite correlations for the separately reported customer mistreatment measures, following Hunter and Schmidt (2004). However, in few studies, intercorrelation between studies these subconstructs were very low and this condition inflated computed composite correlation. In these studies author chose a subconstruct that represent customer mistreatment better than other subconstructs and coded its correlation score.

Studies sample sizes are used as weights for correcting sampling errors. Author also used all available reliability coefficients to correct measurement error (J. E. Hunter and Schmidt, 2004). Cronbach alpha scores and (if Cronbach alpha scores were not reported in studies) composite reliability scores were used as reliability coefficient. However, few studies did not report any reliability scores. Besides, some studies used single item measures (e.g. Grandey et al., 2004). Author filled these missing values with average of reliability scores. Demographic variables (age, gender and tenure) were treated as totally objective variables and their reliability scores were assumed as 1.00.

Analysis strategy

Before starting hypotheses tests, author controlled publication bias⁵ by using Fail-safe N approach of Orwin (1983) To test proposed direct and moderated effects, weighted least squares were adopted to provide correct coefficient estimates (Franke and Park, 2006). Random effects model, rather than fixed effects model, was used for calculating the mean correlations because it provides more generalizable and realistic estimates of average effect sizes if the variability of effects sizes are high (Zablah et al., 2012). Hunter and Schmidt (2004)'s artifact-distribution procedure was followed for correcting measurement error. We also used meta-regression procedures to examine

⁵ As shown by several studies, scientific journals tend to publish studies with statistically significant result more than studies with statistically insignificant results. Relatedly, scholars also tend to report their significant results in order to publish their studies. These tendencies cause bias, which is called publication bias, in meta-analyses of published studies and systematic error, which is rooted in non-representative study selection (see Borenstein, Hedges, Higgins, and Rothstein, 2009)

moderation effects. Meta-analytic process also included the test of multivariate models so author used Meta-analytic Structural Equations Modeling (MASEM) approach of Cheung (2015) to test proposed models. Author used R* and Excel programs for coding, correcting and analyzing process. metaSEM (Cheung, 2015), metafor (Viechtbauer, 2010) and psychmeta (Dahlke and Wiernik, 2017) packages in R* were used in meta-analysis process. Meta-Essentials excel sheets (Suurmond, van Rhee, and Hak, 2017) was also used for publication bias analyses and heterogeneity tests. Author used mean of the weighted correlation coefficient values (r) and weighted and artifact corrected correlation coefficient scores to identify the strength of relationship between constructs. 95% confidence intervals were used as an indicator of the significance of relationships. If confidence intervals include zero, it indicates relationships between constructs is trivial. However, if confidence intervals exclude zero, it indicates relationship between constructs is significant. 80% credibility intervals show the generalizability of finding to whole population. Zero excluded credibility intervals mean that correlation coefficient scores can generalizable to, at least, %80 of the population.

Moderation analysis procedure and control variables

Meta-regression procedures were used to test potential moderation effects and controlling the effects of potential control variables. Restricted maximum likelihood was used for regressing meta-analytic correlations for each path. Before the model estimations, potential multicollinearity problems among moderator variables were examined. Table 3.3 shows the correlations between moderator variables and control variables. As expected, correlation between individualism and power distance, and between masculinity and uncertainty avoidance are high. Surprisingly, correlation between interaction context and common method variance control is also high. They indicate potential multicollinearity problems. At first, in order to test the effects of moderators on each relationship, we included all of the potential moderators to the model. After that we excluded ineffective moderators that increase the heterogeneity of the relationship (I^2) and decrease the explained amount of heterogeneity (R^2). Finally, we excluded one of the correlated moderators in order to prevent defective effects of multicollinearity. Table 3.5 summarized the meta-regression results.

Table 3.4 : Correlations between moderators and control variables.

Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Year									
2. US (1) vs. non-US (0)	.01								
3. Power Distance (High=1; Low=0)	.39	-.47							
4. Individualism (Individualistic=1; Collectivistic=0)	-.32	.42	-.89						
5. Masculinity (Masculine=1; Feminine=0)	.01	.43	-.32	.37					
6. Uncertainty Avoidance (High=1; Low=0)	.02	-.55	.28	-.17	-.73				
7. Social (1) vs. Commercial (0)	.10	.05	-.28	.34	.12	-.03			
8. Surface Characteristics (Frequency=1; Intensity=0)	.07	.11	-.17	.04	.03	-.27	.14		
9. Journal Quality (Top Journal=1; Others=0)	.11	.02	-.11	.09	.25	-.17	-.16	-.07	
10. Interaction Context (Call Center=1; Others=0)	.06	.13	.12	-.16	.11	-.12	-.06	-.01	.43

Table 3.5 : Meta-Analytic results of relationships in meta-analytic study I.

Relation	k	N	r	SDr	ρ	SD ρ	95% CI		80% CrI		I (%)
							Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	
Gender → Customer Mistreatment	76	27173	-.002	.162	.003	.059	-0.022	0.015	-.079	.072	49.60
Age → Customer Mistreatment	56	22558	-.096	.128	-.102	.126	-.138	-.066	-.264	.059	85.41
Tenure → Customer Mistreatment	57	16953	-.060	.133	.070	.138	-.110	-.030	-.247	.106	81.19
Negative Affectivity → Customer Mistreatment	19	4958	.216	.157	.252	.182	.170	.333	.028	.475	85.67
Positive Affectivity → Customer Mistreatment	7	2193	-.052	.169	-.061	.186	-.208	.085	-.300	.177	88.97
Neuroticism → Customer Mistreatment	10	2527	.162	.118	.206	.127	.113	.299	.043	.369	74.74
Extraversion → Customer Mistreatment	4	1246	-.057	.101	.067	.099	-.184	.048	-.194	.059	71.03
Agreeableness → Customer Mistreatment	7	1742	-.100	.106	-.126	.107	-.224	-.0271	-.263	0.111	70.82
Conscientiousness → Customer Mistreatment	6	1833	-.017	.125	-.020	.133	-.139	.100	-.190	.150	78.92
Job Autonomy → Customer Mistreatment	16	7982	-.196	.114	-.240	.113	-.270	-.150	-.354	-.354	91.64
Workload → Customer Mistreatment	23	13694	.145	.136	.176	.157	.109	.243	-.026	.377	91.33
Coworker Mistreatment → Customer Mistreatment	27	10421	.314	.128	.361	.136	.306	.417	.187	.535	86.61
Supervisor Mistreatment → Customer Mistreatment	23	7591	.230	.110	.259	.109	.208	.310	.120	.399	78.84
Organizational Support → Customer Mistreatment	28	11854	-.175	.128	-.206	.140	-.262	-.150	-.385	-.027	85.39
Supervisor Support → Customer Mistreatment	17	5554	-.117	.128	-.137	.135	-.208	-.066	-.310	.036	80.33
Coworker Support → Customer Mistreatment	11	3791	-.131	.093	-.154	.091	-.219	-.088	-.270	-.037	66.63
Customer Orientation → Customer Mistreatment	13	4019	-.280	.167	-.330	.185	-.436	-.223	-.567	-.092	89.42

k=number of correlations per relation, N=total number of respondents, r=mean correlations (weighted), SD=standard deviation of weighted mean correlations, ρ = artifact corrected weighted mean correlations, CI=Confidence Interval, CrI=Credibility Interval, I=Unexplained Variance, $N_{fail-safe}$ =The fail-safe N

3.3.1.3 Results

Bivariate relationships

In Table 3.5, weighted mean correlation results, confidence and credibility interval results are summarized. Total number respondents in all bivariate analyses are higher than a thousand. Main effect analyses show that all the artifact corrected weighted mean correlations (ρ) between hypothesized antecedent variables and customer mistreatment are significant (confidence intervals exclude zero), except extraversion, positive affectivity (confidence intervals include zero). Among these results, frontline employees' conflicts with their colleagues (coworker mistreatment) have highest effect size on their perceived exposure to customer mistreatment ($\rho=.361$). Supervisor-related determinants also effect customer mistreatment, significantly. Conflict with supervisors has also relatively higher level of effect size among employee-driven antecedents ($\rho=.259$). Significant negative effects of coworker support and organizational support are also found in meta-analytic examination ($\rho=-.137$ and $\rho=-.159$, respectively). Factors also related to job design (workload and job autonomy) were also have significant effects size on customer mistreatment ($\rho=-.176$ and $\rho=-.240$, respectively). Customer orientations is also one of the strongest determinants of customer mistreatment ($\rho=-.330$). Unsurprisingly, negative affectivity and neuroticism have highest effect sizes among personality characteristics ($\rho=.241$ and $\rho=.206$, respectively). Age and tenure have weak but statistically significant effects on perceived exposure to customer mistreatment ($\rho=.10$ and $\rho=.07$, respectively). Therefore, H1, H2, H3, H5, H6, H9a, H9b, H10, H11, H12 hypotheses are confirmed. Besides, as expected, it was not found any significant relationship of customer mistreatment with gender and conscientiousness. Results also show no significant differences between male and female frontline employees' exposure to customer mistreatment ($\rho=.001$; male=1, female=0). However, contrary to our arguments, which are extraversion, conscientiousness and positive affectivity, show no considerable effect on perceived exposure to customer mistreatment ($\rho=.067$, $\rho=-.020$ and $\rho=-.061$, respectively). Therefore H4, H8 hypotheses are rejected.

All of the effect sizes with zero included (insignificant) confidence intervals have also zero-included credibility intervals. On the other hand, 80% credibility intervals of age (LCrI= $-.254$; UCrI= $.057$), tenure (LCrI= $-.114$; UCrI= $.020$), agreeableness (LCrI= $-.061$; UCrI= $.020$), and neuroticism (LCrI= $.020$; UCrI= $.061$) are also zero-included.

.263; UCrI=.111), organizational support (LCrI= -.398; UCrI=.086) and workload (LCrI= -.039; UCrI=.383) include zero, which indicate insignificant relationship, although their confidence intervals indicate significant relationship.

Moderator effects and control variables

Table 3.5 provides moderator analyses results. These moderators also decrease the residual heterogeneity of the effect sizes ($p < .01$ for both). It means variance in effect sizes partially explained by power distance, surface characteristics and journal quality. First, results supported H13. The effect of age and tenure on perceived exposure to customer mistreatment is stronger in high power distance countries ($\rho = -.14$ for age; $\rho = -.09$ for tenure) than low power distance countries ($\rho = -.02$ for age; $\rho = -.00$ for tenure). In high power distance countries, confidence intervals also included zero, which means age and tenure has no significant effect on perceived exposure to customer mistreatment in high power distance countries. Second, results partially supported H14. The effect of age on customer mistreatment are stronger in severity scales than frequency scales. However, moderation analysis did not find any significant differences between frequency and severity scales related to the effects of tenure on customer mistreatment.

Finally, results show that journal quality cause significant differences for the effect of tenure on customer mistreatment but it did not moderate the relationship between age and customer mistreatment.

Table 3.6 : Meta-Regression results of the moderator analysis

Moderator	Age	Tenure
Intercept	-.204***	-.048***
Surface Characteristics: Frequency (vs. Severity)	-.05(-.16) **	-.06 (-.07)
Power Distance: High (vs. Low)	-.02 (-.14) ***	-.00 (-.09) **
Journal Quality: Top Journal (vs. Others)	-.09 (-.10)	-.02 (-.09) **
R ²	.21	.16
I ²	79.97	77.96

Finally, potential moderator effects of control variables on age and tenure were also tested. First, socially oriented services and commercial oriented services were compared. Results showed no differences (Age: $\rho_{\text{social}} = -.068$; $\rho_{\text{commercial}} = -.073$; Tenure: $\rho_{\text{social}} = -.036$; $\rho_{\text{commercial}} = -.051$, $p > .05$). Second, potential effects of interaction context were also tested. No differences between call center employees and other frontline

employees were also found (Age: $\rho_{\text{call center}}=-.073$; $\rho_{\text{other}}=-.105$; Tenure: $\rho_{\text{social}}=.034$; $\rho_{\text{commercial}}=-.047$, $p>.05$). As a national culture dimension, Masculinity/Femininity comparison also showed no significant differences (Age: $\rho_{\text{masculine}}=-.125$; $\rho_{\text{feminine}}=-.040$; Tenure: $\rho_{\text{masculine}}=-.042$; $\rho_{\text{feminine}}=-.104$, $p>.05$). For avoiding multicollinearity problems, author did not employ moderation analysis for other national culture dimensions because, consistent with previous findings, individualism was highly correlated with power distance and uncertainty avoidance ($r=.89$) was highly correlated with masculinity/femininity ($r=.73$, $p>.05$). Finally, in order to compare specific national culture, we compare the studies that collect data from United States with other studies (Age: $\rho_{\text{US}}=-.062$ $\rho_{\text{other}}=-.121$; Tenure: $\rho_{\text{US}}=-.065$; $\rho_{\text{commercial}}=-.053$, $p>.05$).

Additionally, all of the effects of moderator and control variables were also tested for the gender. As expected, no interaction effect between gender and these moderators on customer mistreatment was found ($p>.1$ for all).

3.3.1.4 Discussion

By synthesizing the findings in previous studies with meta-analytic approach, this study primarily aims to explore employee-driven antecedents of customer mistreatment and to elucidate contradictory and unclear findings in literature. Driven on goal-failure view and aggression-frustration framework, we hypothesized which frontline employee-driven characteristics that cause poor quality customer-to-employee treatment, increase or decrease the reported customer mistreatment. Author collected and synthesized considerable amount of frontline employee-level studies that investigate the impacts of factors, which can be classified as employee demographics (age, tenure, gender), employees' personality traits (negative affectivity, positive affectivity, neuroticism, agreeableness, extraversion and conscientiousness) and organizational climate (workplace mistreatment and organizational support from multiple sources) and job design factors (job autonomy and workload), on various types of customer mistreatment.

Results of the meta-analytic study showed that, according to frontline employee-level data, employees' customer orientation is the main employee resource that decrease employees' perceived exposure to customer mistreatment. It is found that customer orientation has stronger negative impact on customer mistreatment than other factors.

Therefore, it can be said that customer orientation is a critical resource for frontline employees that helps employees to develop more healthier relations with their customers.

Compared to organizational and job design factors, five-factor personality traits of employees have relatively lower effects on the level of customer mistreatment exposure, except neuroticism. Especially, contrary to previous arguments in literature, results show that conscientiousness and extraversion have no significant effect size on customer mistreatment. Although previous meta-analytic study (Nielsen et al., 2017) showed significant negative relationship between these two personality traits and exposure to dark-side actions in whole organizational contexts, our results show that these effects cannot be confirmed in the contexts of customer mistreatment. As previously explained, in prior studies, impact of conscientiousness on perceived exposure to customer mistreatment is hypothesized in both negative and positive directions (Sliter and Jones, 2016; Yang and Diefendorff, 2009). However, author believed that, although conscientiousness is one of the most valid personality trait that predict employee performance (Barrick et al., 2001), task-oriented and prescribed rule-committed features of conscientious employees may sometimes contradict with customers' urgent expectations. Therefore, author expected no significant relationship between conscientiousness and customer mistreatment and meta-analytic finding supported that.

On the other hand, contrary to our expectations, meta-analytic findings of our study showed that two interrelated personality traits, which are extraversion and positive affectivity, had no impact on customer mistreatment. It is believed that rejection of our hypotheses may be related to two reasons: First, author argues that, in the contexts of service interactions, there may be another factor, which is the violation of reciprocity norm, that may decrease the negative effect of positive affectivity on customer mistreatment. Employees with high positive affectivity and extraversion may be more sensitive to unfair acts of customer and more likely to feel offended because norm of reciprocity is violated by customers mistreated response to employees' positive, helpful or kind acts of employees (Goussinsky, 2011). Thus, they may provide poor service quality that may provoke customers to mistreat them. Second, there are limited studies for testing the effects of extraversion ($k=4$) and positive affectivity ($k=11$). In

further analysis, we combined these two interrelated constructs and results show meaningful impact on customer mistreatment ($\rho = -.104$; $SD\rho = .145$ CI: $-.201 / -.007$).

Previous intra-organizational meta-analytic findings had shown neuroticism and negative affectivity are critical personality traits that determine employees performance in their jobs (Barrick et al., 2001), their likelihood to behave aggressive to their coworkers and likelihood to be a victim of mistreated acts of other coworkers (Nielsen et al., 2017). Our results supported this effect by showing significant impact of neuroticism and negative affectivity on customer mistreatment. Among all higher-order personality traits, negative affectivity and neuroticism are the most effective personality traits that increase employees' exposure to customer mistreatment. Therefore, findings of this study supported previous findings in intra-organizational mistreatment studies related to neuroticism and negative affectivity and expanded them by providing evidence from organizational frontlines.

Current meta-analytic study showed weak relationship between agreeableness and customer mistreatment. Although its effect size is significant, credibility interval of agreeableness included zero that means our findings related to the effect of agreeableness cannot be generalized to whole population.

It is also found meaningful but weak relationship between hypothesized demographic factors (age and tenure) and customer mistreatment. For instance, age is viewed as critical factor that decrease the level of perceived exposure to customer mistreatment (Johnson et al., 2013). It is also viewed as tenured employees are more resistant to interpersonal mistreatment. Our results supported the negative effects of age and tenure on customer mistreatment but it was relatively weaker effect than other factors and credibility intervals showed that negative effects of age and tenure could not generalizable to the whole population. Supportedly, moderation analysis showed that (1) age and tenure had meaningful negative impacts on customer mistreatment in low power distance countries but no impact on high power distance countries; (2) age had also more strong impact on the severity of customer mistreatment than frequency of customer mistreatment.

In these meta-analyses, it is also shown that cultural factors determine when, where and how demographic factors influence customers relations with their customers. Previous findings related to the effects of age on customer mistreatment may be

meaningless in high power distance cultures, which mostly encompass Eastern, Middle Eastern, Eastern Bloc and Mediterranean countries.

From the theoretical view of this study, author expected no significant relationship between gender and customer mistreatment and results supported it. Thus, this meta-analytic review did not support the prior arguments related to selective incivility. On the other hand, sample studies, which used for meta-analysis, mostly investigate customer mistreatment as a general form of poor quality behaviors of customers, rather than a specific type of act. We believe that female frontline workers may be exposed to subtler, more sexually active and discriminatory acts of customers than males. However, there were not enough study on these specific types of acts for comparison.

Among organizational environment factors, results showed strong relationship between customer mistreatment and mistreatment of organizational insiders. Especially, coworker mistreatment was strongly related to customer mistreatment. Therefore, according to the meta-analytic results, it can be argued that conflicting workplace environment makes frontline employees highly vulnerable to customer mistreatment. It is also showed that supportive characteristics of workplace environment decreased customer mistreatment. However, coworker support and supervisor support are significant but relatively low important factors that slightly decrease perceived exposure of customer mistreatment.

In previous studies, it is argued and empirically showed that coworkers are more critical for frontline employees' customer orientation and their service performance because they interact with their coworker than their superiors and high level of interaction make them a group and make closest to them so their supportive and non-supportive attitudes and behaviors become more critical for service employees (Susskind, Michele Kacmar, and Borchgrevink, 2003). This argument partly supported by our studies. Both of the coworker mistreatment and supervisor mistreatment had considerable impact on customer mistreatment but exposure to mistreated actions of colleagues (or coworkers) more strongly increase exposure to customer mistreatment than the acts of supervisors. However, supervisory support and coworker support was almost equally effective on customer mistreatment. Author argues that there is another reason for why coworker mistreatment impact customer mistreatment stronger than supervisor mistreatment. Recent studies show that, in servicescapes, customers frequently witness mistreated acts among frontline employees, these acts negatively

influence their service experience and their attitudes toward service company and its members (Porath et al., 2010, 2011). Coworker mistreatment, rather than supervisor mistreatment, have more potential to be observed by customer. Therefore, our study showed that preventing coworker and supervisor mistreatment are very crucial to makes frontline employees more resourceful at service provision and getting intended high quality customer reactions to organizations and its members.

3.3.1.5 Conclusion

As previously mentioned, customer mistreatment is a highly harmful worldwide phenomenon for service environment today. Previous studies showed that it destructs frontline employees' service performance outcomes (Koopmann et al., 2015) and also other customers' relations with service companies. It may also cause emotional (stress and strain), cognitive (memory loss) and also physical (sleeplessness) problems (Grandey et al., 2004; Y. Liu et al., 2017; Rafaeli et al., 2012). We believe that current study uncovers more manageable sides of customer mistreatment. Rather than managing the harmful effects of customer mistreatment, it may be more constructive to decrease customer mistreatment by eliminating employee-related and factors related to service environment. Current study showed that, by controlling frontline employee related factors, it is possible to decrease customer mistreatment and to create healthy customer-employee relations.

First of all, service managers should be careful to handle with relationships among organizational insiders (coworkers and supervisors). Our study showed that poor quality relationship with coworkers and supervisors have impact on customer mistreatment. Service managers should help frontline employees with developing respectful and fair service environment. According to the results, good quality relationships with insiders increase the quality of relationship with customers.

Second, our study uncovers customer orientation is a strong psychological resource that decrease reported or perceived customer mistreatment. Our finding is congruent with prior meta-analytic study that shows how customer orientation improve job outcomes and psychological welfare (Zablah et al., 2012). Relative to other personality traits, it is most critical psychological characteristics that decreases employees' exposure to customer. It is believed that service companies should invest more to customer orientation not only for their success at customer services but also their

contribution to healthy service environment. According to results, it can be suggested that investing emotionally stable employees in selection and compensation of frontline employees may attenuate negative interactions and leverage interaction quality. Because they are more successful to prevent and handle customer mistreatment.

Third, age and tenure may be affective in low power distance countries because older employees are more successful to develop healthy relationships with powerful customers in these countries. However, in high power distance countries, expectations of service managers from older customers are possible to be disconfirmed.

3.3.1.6 Limitations and future research directions

Some issues related to our meta-analytic dataset should be taken into consideration. First, most of the studies included to this meta-analytic investigation are based upon survey data from cross-sectional researches. There is also considerable amount of studies that do not control common method bias methodologically or statistically. Second, in these studies, several different scales are used for measuring customer mistreatment. So, these variations in measurement tools may increase the heterogeneity level. Third, using self-reported perceptual measures could cause under or overestimation of hypothesized relationships, especially for personality factors. Recent experimental study show that some personality traits (positive affectivity and trait anger) cause employees perceive customers' uncivil act more or less seriously (Sliter et al., 2015). However, author does not suppose perceptual differences in employees with different traits influence the results seriously. Because findings of this meta-analysis's findings and Sliter and colleagues's experimental results are considerable different. On the contrary, these perceptual differences may be the reason for our non-findings because, according to their experimental study, positive affectivity may cause customer mistreatment more seriously perceived by employees. Finally, number of effect size and sample size are adequate but limited for hypothesized for personality constructs, especially for conscientiousness and extraversion. Therefore, rejected hypotheses related to these constructs have potential to be confirmed with additional studies.

In this meta-analysis, we analyzed each effect size separately. In further research, meta-analytic structural equations modeling may be helpful to test indirect effects (Cheung, 2015). For instance, indirect negative effects of agreeableness and

extraversion on customer mistreatment through customer orientation may be meaningful because these personality are also related to customer orientation (T. J. Brown et al., 2002).

Previously, Hershcovis and Barling (2010) conducted a meta-analysis on the outcomes of customer mistreatment and compared results with insider mistreatment. On the other hand, considerable amount of knowledge on the outcomes of customer mistreatment has been accumulated since 2010 so new meta-analytic investigations are needed.

Finally, in this study, moderation analysis only performed for age and tenure. More data needed for healthy analysis of the moderation of power distance and these antecedents on customer mistreatment. For instance, power distance may also moderate the effects of supervisor mistreatment because, in high power distance countries, employees see their superiors as role models and mimic their behaviors when interacting others during interpersonal interactions in organizations (Lian, Ferris, and Brown, 2012). Therefore, they may easily provoke their customers to mistreat them and more likely to fail during customer interactions by behaving like their abusive supervisors when they interacting with their customers. Additional analysis also showed that this relationship is slightly more pronounced in high power distance countries ($\rho=.28$) than low power distance countries ($\rho=.22$). However, more study needed for employing meaningful analysis for the moderation effects.

3.3.2 Meta-analytic study 2: Effects of customer mistreatment on targeted dysfunctionality

In the first part of this thesis, by employing systematic literature review, it is concluded that intent-to-harm motivated behaviors in service ecosystems can be classified under four subconstructs (aggression, incivility, sabotage and production deviance) by explaining two dimensions (ambiguity of harm and person targeted/process targeted). This second meta-analytic study aims to investigate the validity of this framework in customer-employee interaction context. In this study, by adopting meta-analytic procedure, we examine the effect of customer mistreatment on employees' dysfunctional behaviors. Author used similar meta-analytic processes with first study. First, the impact of customer mistreatment on dysfunctional behaviors of employees will be tested by combining all types of dysfunctional employee acts against customers, their organizations and service provision processes as results of customers

poor quality treatments towards employees. Second, the impact of customer mistreatment on employee aggression, employee incivility, employees' service sabotage and employees' production deviance will be tested separately and compared by using moderation analysis.

3.3.2.1 Hypothesis development

Customer mistreatment and frontline employee dysfunctionality

Although workplace mistreatment literature generally focus on within-organizational sources and antecedents of employee dysfunctionality, recent studies show that customers and other outsiders cause employees dysfunctional acts by (1) decreasing employee well-being, (2) increasing stress (3) depleting employee resources (van Jaarsveld, Walker, and Skarlicki, 2010). Moreover, employees can also directly react to the customers because of their mistreated acts (Walker et al., 2014). Previous studies on workplace incivility and aggression show that these types of acts cause spiraling effects on interpersonal relationships (Hershcovis and Barling, 2010; Porath and Pearson, 2013). Because mistreatment violates the expectations and norms of interpersonal relationship and this violation elicits negative emotions and “stimulate[s] a desire to reciprocate the perceived unfair act” (Andersson and Pearson, 1999, p. 460). As previously discussed, customers have also high power in service contexts and misbehaved easily towards employees. These acts cause negative emotions and are perceived as unfair by frontline employees. Therefore, it can be argued that customer mistreatment causes dysfunctional acts of frontline employees. Hypothesis is:

H1: There is significant relationship between customer mistreatment and dysfunctional acts of employees.

Moderation of the type of targeted dysfunctionality

On the other hand, mistreated employees may cope with customer mistreatment by showing different types of dysfunctional behaviors. Previous studies show mistreated employees become harmful for customers, organizations, service processes and also within-organizational processes (Groth and Grandey, 2012; Koopmann et al., 2015). However, employees dysfunctional act towards customers may be a little different from the acts towards organizational insiders. Today, “customer is always right” is

almost universally accepted organizational philosophy that makes customer highly powerful actors and encourage customers to behave irresponsibly against frontline employees (Rafaeli et al., 2012). Frontline employees, on the other hand, are relatively powerless actors, whose are highly restricted by formal and informal display rules in service interactions. Because of that, employees' direct dysfunctional acts with clear intent to harm (such as aggression or venting) towards customers are barely possible. Therefore, it is expected that frontline employees cope with customer mistreatment by choosing indirect and/or ambiguous acts towards customers and organizational processes (sabotage, incivility and production deviance), rather than direct dysfunctionality (aggression). Hypothesis is;

H2: There are relationship between customer mistreatment and dysfunctional acts only if the types of dysfunctional acts are sabotage, incivility or production deviance. There is no meaningful relationship between customer mistreatment and employee aggression.

Moderation of service job characteristics

According to Job Demands and Resources framework, mistreated employees need more job-related and/or organizational resources for effectively coping with customer mistreatment because it depletes their personal resources (Koopmann et al., 2015). Job characteristics related to provided service may decrease or increase the impact of customer mistreatment on dysfunctional frontline employee behaviors. Author argues that if the service job includes more "caring for others" or "societal contribution", employees more effectively handle with customer mistreatment and control their dysfunctional reactions. These jobs are intrinsically more valued and meaningful for employees (Lyons, Duxbury, and Higgins, 2006). In these more valued and meaningful jobs, frontline employees more successful manage the detrimental effects of customer mistreatment (Arnold and Walsh, 2015). Relatedly, previous studies show that employees in public sectors stress societal contribution and pro-social orientation than private sectors. Therefore, we argue that employees in public sectors are more successfully handle with customer mistreatment than private sector employees. Hypothesis is;

H3: Relationship between customer mistreatment and dysfunctional employee behaviors is more pronounced for employees in private sectors than public sectors.

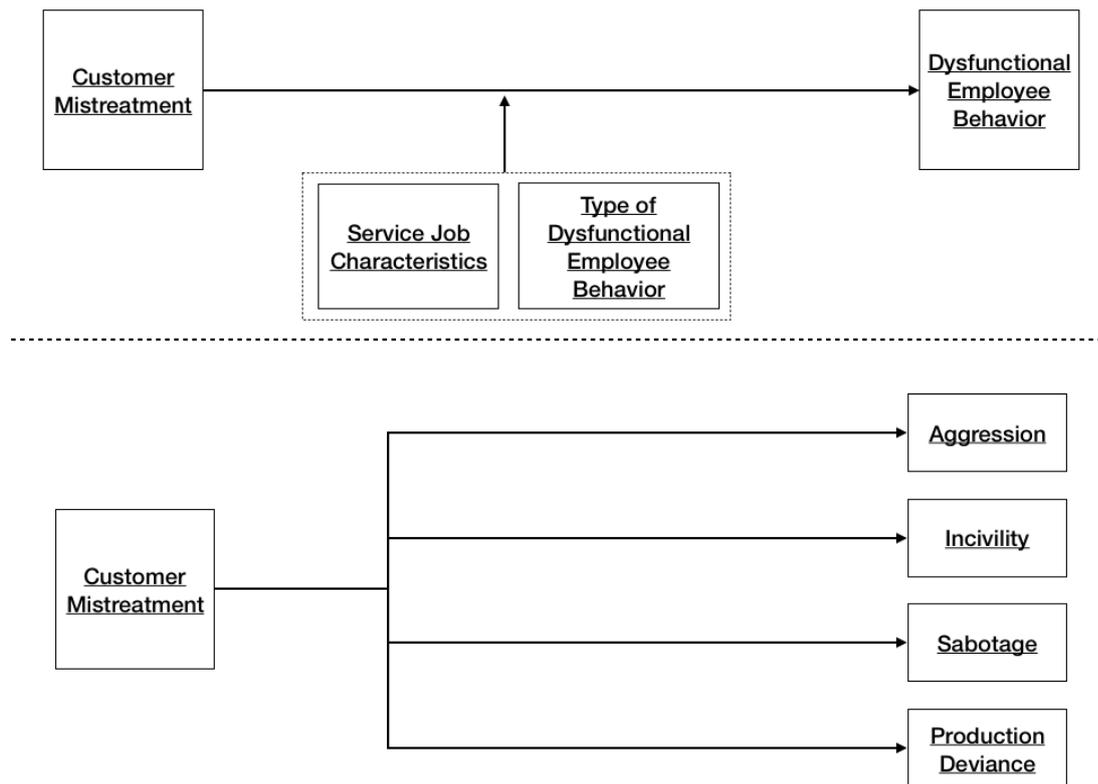


Figure 3.2 : Relationship between customer mistreatment and dysfunctional employee behavior.

3.3.2.2 Method

Author used same literature search procedures with first meta-analytic study. This searching process provide correlations from 42 independent samples reported in 38 articles (for the list of all studies included in meta-analysis, see Appendices). Total sample size 12284. Similar coding procedure with first meta-analytic study was also followed. In order to code moderator variables, we coded public and parapublic sector samples as social services and private sector samples as commercial services. Author followed the definitions of aggression, incivility, sabotage and production deviance, which was provided in the systematic review part of this thesis. Finally, same bivariate and moderator analyses strategies with first study were also followed.

3.3.2.3 Results

Bivariate relationships

Table 3.6 summarizes results of mean correlations between customer mistreatment and dysfunctional employee behaviors. First, by aggregating all types of dysfunctional employee behaviors, its relations with customer mistreatment was tested. We found that customer mistreatment is strongly and positively related to dysfunctional employee behaviors at aggregated level ($\rho=.323$, CI and CrI excluded zero). Therefore, H1 was confirmed. Second, author tested mean correlations of customer mistreatment with aggression, incivility, production deviance and sabotage separately. As expected, relationship between aggression and customer mistreatment was trivial ($\rho=.058$, CI and CrI included zero). On the other hand, it is found that there were strong positive impacts of customer mistreatment on incivility, sabotage and production deviance ($\rho=.403$; $\rho=.359$; $\rho=.275$; respectively, CI and CrI excluded zero for all). As a result, customer mistreatment had impact on service-process directed dysfunctional employee behaviors (sabotage and production deviance) and person directed (customers and organizational members) dysfunctional employee behaviors with ambiguous intent-to-harm (incivility). Among these types of dysfunctional behaviors, customer mistreatment had strongest effect size on employee incivility.

Moderation analysis

I^2 values suggested substantial heterogeneity so moderator analysis is needed. We tested the moderator effects of service type (social vs. commercial) and dysfunctional behavior type (aggression vs. incivility, sabotage and production deviance). First, Results showed that employees are more likely to show uncivil, sabotage and production deviance behaviors than aggressive behaviors if they are exposed to customer mistreatment. Therefore, H2 was confirmed. Second, results showed marginal moderation effect of service type ($p < .10$). Customer mistreatment has weaker impact on dysfunctional employee behaviors in public service employees than commercial service employees.

Table 3.7 : Meta-Analytic results of relationships.

Customer Mistreatment (CM) → Dysfunctional Employee Behavior (DEB)	Moderation (vs. Aggression)	k	N	r	SDr	ρ	SDρ	95% CI		80% CrI		I (%)
								Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	
Composite		46	12284	.267	.168	.323	.187	.264	.381	.083	.562	88.27
CM → Aggression		4	1504	.050	.129	.058	.145	.072	.058	.132	-.083	83.75
CM → Incivility	.3806***	12	3097	.365	.182	.402	.205	.287	.519	-.135	.670	91.41
CM → Production Deviance	.2538**	20	4974	.225	.112	.275	.103	.215	.334	.142	.407	69.34
CM → Sabotage	.3556**	16	4739	.302	.135	.359	.146	.281	.438	.172	.547	84.80
Composite (Aggression Excluded)		42	10780	.297	.151	.359	.163	.304	.414	.150	.567	85.63
CM → DEB (Social Services)		8	1564	.220	.091	.256	.021	.201	.312	.227	.285	
CM → DEB (Commercial Services)		33	9002	.315	.156	.346	.162	.286	.405	.133	.558	
R ²	22.98											

k=number of correlations per relation, N=total number of respondents, r=mean correlations (weighted), SD=standard deviation of weighted mean correlations, ρ= artifact corrected weighted mean correlations, CI=Confidence Interval, CrI=Credibility Interval, I=Unexplained Variance, N_{fail-safe}=The fail-safe N

3.3.2.4 Discussion for meta-analytic study 2

This second study aims to investigate the relationship between customer mistreatment and dysfunctional employee behaviors and examine the validity of suggested typology for targeted dysfunctionality. According to the results of this study, there is strong relationship between customer mistreatment and dysfunctional employee behaviors. This result supports previous meta-analytic findings that found significant relationship between customer mistreatment and dysfunctional employee behaviors directed to customers and organizations (Hershcovis and Barling, 2010). On the other hand, although prior meta-analysis found weaker impact of customer mistreatment than supervisor and coworker mistreatment, relatively strong correlation was found in this meta-analytic study. Supporting our systematic literature review, meta-analytic results show considerable differences between aggression, incivility, sabotage and production deviance behaviors of employees who are exposed to customer mistreatment.

According to the results, we found no meaningful relationship between customer mistreatment and frontline employee aggression. It means that employees do not choose to react customer directly with clear intent. Rather, results show that they cope with customer mistreatment by sabotaging service processes or showing lack of regard or respect. Incivility is the most critical employee reaction to customer mistreatment. This study shows that employees choose to show no respect, help and kindness to their customers if they are exposed customer mistreatment more frequently and severely. Sabotage behaviors are covert, indirect form of dysfunctional behavior, mostly performed secretly and purposefully for destroying service process. Therefore, these behaviors are highly harmful and not easily determined. This meta-analytic study show that service sabotage is a critical coping mechanism of frontline employees that destructs the health of service environment. It is also widespread that employees, who are mistreated by customers, more likely to involve in production deviance. It means that these employees more possibly slow down their works, withdraw from the work, excessively spend organizational resources and perform other harmful behaviors that cannot easily determined by service managers.

4. EXPERIMENTAL EXAMINATIONS OF THE EFFECTS OF DYSFUNCTIONAL BEHAVIORS DURING SERVICE EXPERIENCES

4.1 Witnessing Aggression During Service Experiences

As a profound type of dysfunctional interaction, aggressive behaviors are very serious and prevalent problems in interactional service contexts. Both employees' and customers' aggressive behaviors are frequently observed during socially interactive service experiences such as restaurant, hotel, and travel services (Grandey et al., 2004; Yagil, 2008b). Throughout these experiences, customers come across these dysfunctional interactions not only as actors, who are directly exposed to dysfunctional behaviors, but also as observers, who witness these behaviors in social service settings (Huang, 2008; Reynolds and Harris, 2009). Moreover, although previous service literature mostly focuses on the effects of customer and employee aggression on targets' emotional, cognitive and behavioral processes, in service context, an aggressive incident may have widespread effects through the witnessing process rather than direct victimization. Therefore, customer and employee aggression threaten the well-being of social service environments and service provision processes more than anticipated.

Although its significance is obvious, appraisal processes and motivational background behind witnessing aggression in service settings and its emotional and behavioral consequences have not received much attention in services literature. Previous studies in service contexts mostly investigate situational factors that have an effect on the valence of emotions (negative emotions) and, specifically, anger as a result of dysfunctional behaviors (such as rudeness) (Porath et al., 2010, 2011). By drawing on appraisal theory (Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, 2013; Scherer, 2005), this study proposes that witnessing aggressive behaviors is more likely to instigate social relational concrete emotions (i.e. shame and embarrassment) than basic negative emotions.

From the appraisal theory perspective, aggressive interactions cause motive-inconsistent situations for witnessing customers by explicitly and unambiguously

violating moral and social codes in service environments and the key emotions that regulate these violations are vicariously experienced shame and embarrassment (Lickel, Schmader, Curtis, Scarnier, and Ames, 2005; Roseman, 2001). Shame and embarrassment can be elicited by customers as results of witnessing harm-motivated, moral code violating aggressive behaviors during service experiences. This is because these motive-inconsistent emotions are based on appraisals of moral code-violating situations that are caused by intrinsically negative sources (Roseman, 2013; Roseman and Smith, 2001). The current study employs the appraisal perspective of Roseman (2013) and extends it to explore “other caused” appraisals of service incidents (witnessing employee and other customer aggression) that elicit shame and embarrassment. Shame and embarrassment are thought as “self-conscious” emotions (Lewis, 1995) but they are also “other-conscious emotions” (Tangney, Miller, Flicker, and Barlow, 1996), which are strongly shared and vicariously experienced in social environments with the influence of empathic tendencies (Welten, Zeelenberg, and Breugelmans, 2012). Therefore, consumers, who witness employee or other customer aggression during service experiences, may experience shame and embarrassment if they have enough capacity or tendency to empathize other social actors in the service environment.

This study contributes to the service literature and provides implications for service marketers by examining the widespread emotional and long-term behavioral effects of a critical social-interactive problem, namely aggression, on witnessing consumers. Moreover, it contributes to consumer behavior literature by uncovering the appraisal processes of specific service incidents (witnessed employee and other customer aggression) and elicitation of concrete emotions (shame and embarrassment), which are mostly overlooked. By doing so, current research answers the call for research by So and colleagues (2015) on the nuanced role of discrete emotions in decision making and the distinct appraisal processes of these discrete emotions in different consumption contexts. It also answers the calls for research by Priesemuth and colleagues (2017) on the relationship between third parties’ self-conscious moral emotions (e.g. shame and embarrassment) and workplace aggression. The role of customer-specific inclinations such as empathic tendency is also examined. Service-specific outcomes, such as revisit and word of mouth intentions about the service provider are also assessed as outcomes of emotions of shame and embarrassment generated during the service experience.

4.2 Aggression in Service Experiences: The Witness's Perspective

As discussed in the systematic review part, author of this thesis conceptualizes aggressive behaviors as observable, expressed non-physically and profound interpersonal efforts to harm others (Glomb and Liao, 2003; Griffin and Lopez, 2005; Neuman and Baron, 1998)⁶. These types of dysfunctional behaviors are severe forms of uncivil mistreatments (Porath et al., 2011) and are common in service settings (Harris and Reynolds, 2003). In service settings, both employees and customers can be exposed to aggression verbally and emotionally, affecting their affective and cognitive abilities thus their subsequent behaviors negatively (Grandey et al., 2004; Rafaeli et al., 2012; Rose and Niedermeyer, 1999; Yagil, 2008b; Yeh, 2015). These aggressive behaviors are also observed by other customers and negatively influence their service experiences, satisfaction and overall judgments related to the service provider (Harris and Ogbonna, 2006; Harris and Reynolds, 2003). Although there are more people that are exposed to aggression vicariously (by observing or hearing it) than the ones directly subjected to, there is far less research on vicarious emotional experiences of aggression (Dupré, Dawe, and Barling, 2014; Porath et al., 2011).

For the purpose of understanding witnessing aggression in service settings, current study integrates two sources of dysfunctional behavior, employee and customer, by examining them from the bystander view. Research has confirmed, customers and employees negatively affect each other by expressing aggression and other types of dysfunctional behaviors in social servicescapes (Grove, Fisk, and John, 2004)(Grove et al., 2004).

Harris and Reynolds (2003) found that customers frequently express their aggression and other types of dysfunctional behaviors in service environments and these aggressive behaviors cause other customers to elicit sympathy for the direct victims of the aggressive behavior. Moreover, Porath et al. (2010) showed witnessing rude and disrespectful employee behaviors (incivility) in service settings cause negative emotions (anger) at the service provider and drive consumers to make negative generalizations about the service provider. According to Harris (2013), consumers

⁶ It is important to note that aggression may be manifested as physical aggression but this study mainly focuses on verbal aggression. As Griffin and Lopez (2005) argues, aggression may be limited to nonphysical efforts for theoretical clarity.

observe a great deal of aggression and other types of dysfunctional behaviors among service employees and these behaviors affect their intentions and overall judgments. Furthermore, Daunt and Harris (2014) show that witnessing dysfunctional employee behavior cause dysfunctional customer behaviors regulated by concrete emotions. Author also stress the gap between the two research streams about dysfunctional employee and customer behaviors and the importance of linking these two types of dysfunctional behaviors for a better understanding of social servicescapes.

4.2.1 Witnessing aggression and emotions: shame and embarrassment

Witnessing aggressive and other forms of dysfunctional behaviors during service experience are thought to evoke general negative emotions and anger (Porath et al., 2010; Grove et al., 2012). However, going beyond valence and focusing on more concrete emotions (such as disappointment, regret, guilt, shame, fear, embarrassment, sadness) provides better insight into the specific behaviors occurring during and after service experiences (Zeelenberg and Pieters, 2004). The perspective of studies on aggression and emotions has also shifted from anger to self-conscious emotions as the family of emotions (i.e. shame and embarrassment) (Elison et al., 2014). Appraisal theory provides a systematic and interrelated framework for explaining how shame and embarrassment are elicited by evaluations of aggressive behaviors in order to provide responses (Roseman, 2001; Lazarus, 1991). According to Roseman (2013), appraisal processes of concrete emotions are integrated and interrelated process that encompass motive-related evaluations of environmental cues, emotional regulations and actions.

This study argues that shame and embarrassment have active and powerful roles while appraising aggressive behaviors witnessed during service experiences because both the social meaning of aggressive behavior and the underlying mechanisms of appraisal of vicariously or socially experienced emotions (shame and embarrassment) have the same fundamental principle: violation of social norms.

As previously discussed, aggressive behaviors are harm intended severe forms of dysfunctional behaviors that unambiguously violate social codes and norms in social servicescapes (Fisk et al., 2010; Grandey et al., 2004; Neuman and Baron, 1998). Thus, aggressive behaviors are inconsistent with the motives and expectations of social actors. When a moral or social norm or code is violated, shame and embarrassment

regulate the interactional social situation (Keltner, 1996; Keltner and Harker, 1998; Lickel et al., 2005). Therefore, violation of norms or codes of social servicescapes via aggressive behaviors may evoke shame and embarrassment.

Current thesis also extends shame and embarrassment framework of Roseman (2013) from self-caused appraisals to self-caused and other-caused appraisals. According to Roseman (2013), these emotions are elicited only if the norm-violating situation is attributed to the self. However, these emotions are also cognition-dependent empathetic emotions that are activated by subjectively evaluated social disapproval of impropriety (Tangney et al., 1996; Tracy and Robins, 2007). Therefore, within the social context, if people attribute improper behavior (i.e. aggression) to themselves or if they empathize with the ascribed person, they also vicariously or empathetically feel ashamed and/or embarrassed (Welten et al., 2012).

Shame and embarrassment

Shame and embarrassment are labeled as “self-conscious emotions” (Lewis, 1995; Mattila and Wirtz, 2004), which are experienced within self-blaming situations that pose a threat to self-identity (De Hooge et al., 2008, Svavi et al., 2011; Petzer et al., 2012). On the other hand, shame and embarrassment are also exclusively social emotions that are activated by the presence of others and are also shared with others (Fearon, 2004). Therefore, these emotions are also “other-conscious emotions” (Tangney et al., 1996), which are shared and vicariously experienced by others with the effect of innate tendencies to empathize with others (Welten et al., 2012; Wondra and Ellsworth, 2015).

Vicariously experienced shame and embarrassment are experiences that are results of the behaviors of others (Krach et al., 2011; Welten et al., 2012). Cognitive empathy makes shame and embarrassment possible to be experienced by unrelated others in social environments (Welten et al., 2012). These emotions are empathic emotions that are experienced “on behalf of others” or “with others” (Hawk et al, 2011). Witnessing mistreatment empathetically elicits emotions if it violates witness’ moral codes or perceived fairness (Priesemuth et al., 2017). For instance, witnessing aggressive behaviors of another customer in a restaurant may result in experiencing shame on behalf of this customer even if he/she does not feel ashamed of his/her own behavior. These behaviors also cause shame because people may share the emotions of the

victim of this disrespectful behavior. Interestingly, aggressive behaviors elicit shame and embarrassment emotions of victims rather than perpetrators in workplaces because targets of aggressive behaviors look internally and blame themselves for the situations (Felblinger, 2008). Relatedly, in service settings, it is argued that customers witnessing aggression may vicariously feel shame and embarrassment on behalf of victims due to being able to empathize more with the victim than the aggressor.

H1: Witnessing aggression during service experiences activates a) shame and b) embarrassment. Consumers shame and embarrassment levels are significantly higher in witnessed aggression condition than the condition that does not contain witnessed aggression.

Some scholars argued that embarrassment is an element of shame (Izard, 1977; Kaufman, 1989), however, later studies have shown that these emotions are related but distinct (Tangney et al., 1996). Miller and Tangney (1994) and Lewis (2007) show that while shame is an intense emotion that follows more serious transgressions, embarrassment is a less intense emotion that is resulted from surprising, daily situations. Grace (2007) concludes that embarrassment, relative to shame, is frequently experienced during socially disruptive service events and is a dominant emotion in social-situational face-to-face service contexts, such as restaurants and hotels because service failures are generally related to the presented self, not the core-self. Therefore, it is expected that, witnessing aggression is more likely to result in embarrassment than shame. Thus, it is argued that embarrassment relative to shame has a more active role during service experiences.

H2: Witnessing aggression during service experiences more strongly activates embarrassment than shame. Consumers' embarrassment levels are significantly higher than shame levels in witnessed aggression condition. There is no significant difference between these emotions in the condition that does not contain witnessing aggression.

Although shame and embarrassment emotions are based on appraisal processes that insinuate contextual and subjective evaluation of social conditions rather than unconscious mimicry (Schmader and Lickel, 2006), explaining the underlying appraisal tendencies is crucial when understanding how some emotions differ from others in similar conditions (Han et al., 2007). According to Tangney and Dearing

(2002), people experience shame and embarrassment at differing levels because of their own dispositional empathic tendencies to feel these emotions.

4.2.2 Role of empathic tendencies

The occurrence of vicarious emotional states is strongly related to empathy, which provides fit between the emotions of actors or targets and the emotions of witnesses (Wondra and Ellsworth, 2015). From the perspective of appraisal theory, the empathic emotional adoption process of the witness is based on subjective evaluations of the emotional condition of the target (victim) (Wondra and Ellsworth, 2015) and the personality characteristics of the witness (Davis, 1983). As some emotions may not empathetically flow from the target (victim) to the witness (Delvaux et al., 2015) some may flow in different levels (Chartrand and Bargh, 1999). It depends on the witnesses' tendency or capacity to emphasize and internalize the appraised situations (Schrift and Amar, 2015). According to Decety and Jackson (2004: 71), this empathetic tendency is a natural ability "to understand the emotions and feelings of others, whether one actually witnessed his or her situation, perceived it from a photograph, read about it in fiction book, or merely imagined it, refers to the phenomenological experience of empathy". The empathic tendency is also related to the capacity to emotionally converge with others in social situations (Schrift and Amar, 201). Thus, the level of emotional reaction to social situations is based on the innate empathic tendencies of individuals (Bhullar, 2012).

Shame and embarrassment are vicariously experienced through emotional flow process with the effect of empathic tendencies (Welten et al. 2012; Miller, 1987). Previous studies show that greater tendencies of empathy cause higher degree of shame and embarrassment reactions in social experiences (Friesen, 1979; Miller, 1987). Therefore, in this experiment, it is expected that effects of witnessed aggressive behaviors on shame and embarrassment will be more pronounced for customers with greater empathic tendencies.

H3: Effects of witnessing aggression on shame and embarrassment are moderated by consumers' empathic tendencies. Witnessing aggression cause higher shame and embarrassment for customers with high empathic tendencies than low empathic tendencies.

It is important to note that Tangney and Dearing (2002) argue shame and empathy are negatively correlated because empathy refers to other oriented tendencies but shame is a self-attributed emotion. However, although firsthand shame entails self-attributed emotion, shame and embarrassment require other oriented tendencies leading to different appraisal and elicitation mechanisms. Accordingly, shame and embarrassment are positively correlated with empathic tendencies (Welten et al. 2012; Miller, 1987). Therefore, as hypothesized, it is expected that empathic tendencies increase emotional flow of shame from the target to the witnessing customer during service experiences.

4.2.3 Distinctive effects of witnessing employee and customer aggression

It is almost impossible to argue that effects of different components of social servicescapes (ie. actors) have similar effects on service outcomes. As previously explained, studies show that, being the two main components of social servicescapes (Bitner, 1992), both employees' and other customers' uncivil and/or aggressive behaviors have profound effects on consumers' emotions, evaluations and intentions related to the service provider (Harris and Reynolds, 2003; Fisk et al. 2010; Porath et al., 2010, 2011). However, research still needs to examine the comparative effects of employee and customer aggression during service experiences. Thus, current study answers the calls for research to compare the dysfunctional employee and customer behaviors using an experimental framework (Daunt and Harris, 2014). By drawing on expectation disconfirmation model, this research argues that employees are a more integral component of the service provision that is strongly associated with service norms, standards and quality perceptions (Cadotte et al. 1987; Brady and Cronin, 2001) than other customers, who are not easily managed and/or controlled by service providers (Kim and Lee, 2012). Research shows that employees are more integral and a core component than other customers (Bitner, 1992; Walter et al. 2010) as they are also the part of the core service provision from the customer's perspective (N. Kim and Lee, 2012). Therefore, it is postulated that witnessing employee aggression causes higher negative emotional reaction (shame and embarrassment) than witnessing other customer aggression.

H4: Effects of witnessing employee aggression on shame and embarrassment is higher than witnessing customer aggression

4.2.4 Indirect effects of witnessing aggression on intentions

This study also aims to examine the effects of witnessing aggression on customers' behavioral intentions towards service providers and how shame and embarrassment regulate these effects. Previous studies also show that these emotions affect consumers' judgments, evaluations and intentions (D. Han, Duhachek, and Agrawal, 2014). Previous studies have shown that witnessing dysfunctional and aggressive behaviors cause negative inferences and intentions related to service providers (McColl-Kennedy et al., 2009; Porath et al., 2010, 2011). However, the mediating roles of concrete emotions (shame and embarrassment e.g.) between aggression and behavioral intentions still need to be clarified even though roles of general emotions have become known.

This study argues witnessing employee or customer aggression during service experiences influence customers' word of mouth and revisit intentions related to the service provider. Vicariously experienced shame and embarrassment have mediating roles in these processes. Based on consumers' empathic tendency levels witnessing aggressive behaviors can directly decrease positive intentions (WOM and Revisit Intentions) of customers or indirectly decrease through increasing shame and embarrassment.

H5: Witnessing aggression during service experiences affects customers' behavioral intentions towards the service provider through shame and embarrassment.

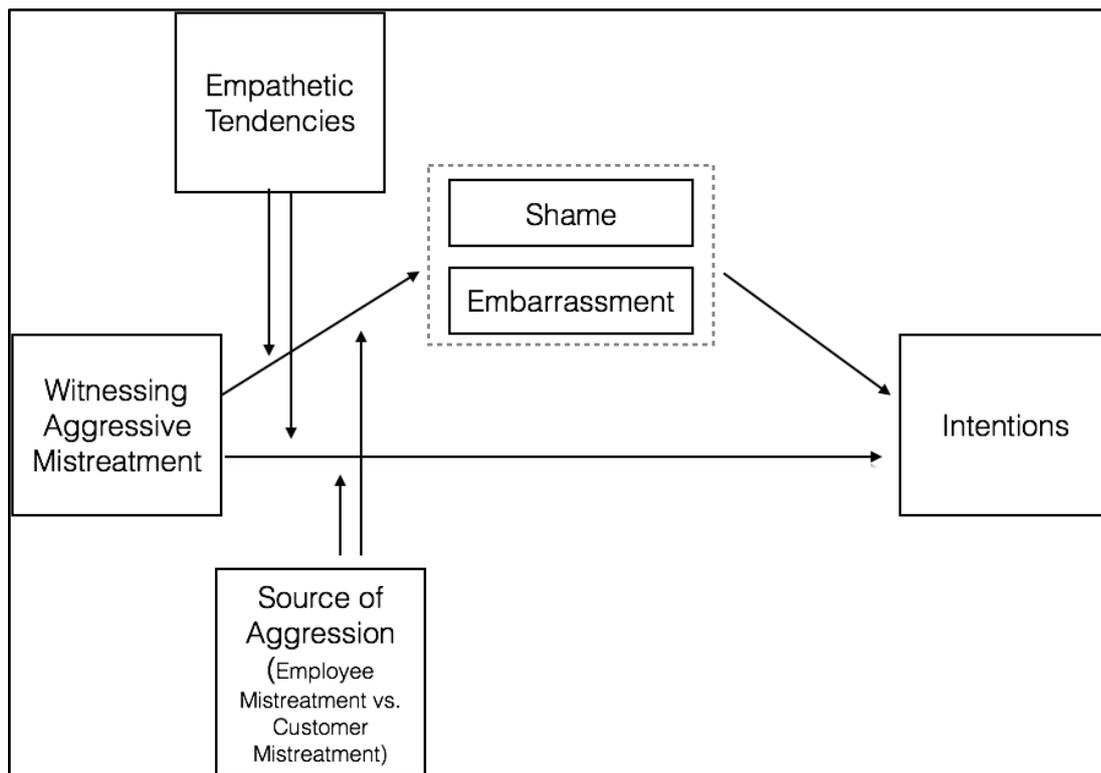


Figure 4.1 : Conceptual model for experimental studies.

4.3 Experiment I

Experiment I examined the effects of witnessing employee and other customer aggression on customers' behavioral intentions towards the service provider through shame and embarrassment. Six hypotheses were tested via a scenario-based experimental design. Consistent with the literature of dysfunctional behaviors, vicariously experienced emotions and empathy, it was expected that witnessing employee and other customer aggression negatively affect customers' intentions towards the service provider with the mediation of shame and embarrassment. It was also expected that customers' empathic tendencies moderated the effect of witnessed aggression on shame and embarrassment. Finally, these effects were expected to be stronger for employee aggression conditions than other customer aggression conditions.

As the context of the study, a restaurant setting was selected since all possible interactions among employees, customers and other customers can easily be witnessed (or observed) in the same locale. Thus, we tested the emotional and behavioral

reactions to specific aggression conditions between two servers and between two other customers in a restaurant setting.

4.3.1 Method

4.3.1.1 Scenario development and preliminary tests

After several iterations of the scenarios and a pretest, aggression and source of mistreatment (aggression in this case) manipulations were set. The source of mistreatment (employee vs. customers) manipulation was carried out via scenarios that described witnessing aggressive employee and other customer behaviors after an unintentional service failure (tripping over an unoccupied chair). The conditions of witnessed employee aggression and customer aggression contained swearing as a manifestation of verbal aggression (Rassin and Muris, 2005) (for among employee aggression: “Be careful, you f...ing idiot. Do your job properly!”, for among customer aggression: “Be careful, you f...ing idiot. Walk properly!”). With the aim of comparison, two scenarios for no mistreatment (control) conditions that described the restaurant experience with the unintentional service accident but without any aggressive or uncivil interaction among employees or among other customers were included (For all scenarios see Table 4.5).

Randomly assigned 137 participants, who were recruited from Amazon MTurk, were then asked about their perceptions of respectfulness, rudeness, incivility of the interaction related to the situation described in the scenarios. 7-point likert scales, anchored by 1 ‘strongly disagree’ and 7 ‘strongly agree’ were used for all.

To check for manipulations, respectfulness, rudeness, incivility scores were compared via variance analyses. As expected, ANOVA results showed aggression manipulation have significant main effects on respectfulness ($F= -276.5, p < .001$), rudeness ($F= 296.1, p < .001$), incivility ($F= 317.5, p < .001$). Moreover, results showed there was no unexpected effect of source of mistreatment manipulation on respectfulness ($F= .066, p > .10$), rudeness ($F= 2.63, p > .10$), incivility ($F= .059, p > .10$) levels. Interaction effects were also not significant ($p > .10$ for all).

All of these results indicated that aggression scenarios successfully and equivalently manipulate aggression without any confounding effects for both employee and other

customer conditions. Manipulation checks indicated independence for aggression and source of mistreatment manipulations (Perdue and Summers, 1986).

Finally, analysis of credibility check items, which were adapted from McColl-Kennedy et al., (2003) and measured on a 7-point likert scale, showed that aggression and control group means of believability ('The scenario is believable') and perceived realism ('I think there are service situations like this in real life') of the scenarios exceeded 5.28, indicating strong realism and believability for the scenarios. Variance analyses also showed that there was no significant difference (indicating no systematic difference) among the scenarios assigned to the four conditions ($F_{\text{believability}}(131) = 1.35, p > .25$; $F_{\text{perceived realism}}(131) = .84, p > .25$). Therefore, the four scenarios in the pretest were used for actual data collection (see Table 4.5 for all scenarios).

4.3.1.2 Procedure

This experiment employed a 2 (witnessing aggression vs. no-mistreatment -control) x 2 (source of mistreatment: employee aggression vs. other customer aggression) between-subjects factorial design. A total of 248 subjects were recruited from Amazon MTurk and randomly assigned to one of the four experimental conditions. MTurk is an appropriate panel for experimental studies (Kees, Berry, Burton, and Sheehan, 2017) but subjects' attention to experimental materials must be controlled (Goodman, Cryder, and Cheema, 2013). 5 responses were removed because they missed attention check questions and 7 responses were removed because they reported that they were unable to adopt given scenario. 236 valid responses were used for analysis (55.9% male, aged between 18 and 65, see Table 4.1 for sample characteristics).

Table 4.1 : Sample characteristics of experiment I.

	Frequency (%)
	Total
Gender	
Female	131 (55,5%)
Male	105 (43,5%)
Education Level	
High School	18 (7%)
Some college	90 (38%)
College Degree	108 (45%)
Graduate degree	19 (8%)
Age	
18 – 25	63 (27%)
26 – 35	89 (38%)
36 – 45	54 (23%)
Over 45	30 (13%)
Total	236

Firstly, participants were asked to imagine themselves in the assigned scenario. Next, they rated how strongly they felt shame, embarrassment in this situation. Then subjects rated their behavioral intentions (word of mouth intention, revisit intention) about the restaurant. Following the manipulation check questions, subjects were asked to do a filler task. Finally, items for measuring empathic tendencies and demographic questions were answered.

4.3.1.3 Measures

Emotions items (shame, embarrassment) were adapted from self-conscious emotions scale of Tangney et al., (1996) and were measured using a 7-point scale, anchored by “not at all” and “very”. Intentions of participants were measured via two items. Behavioral intentions (word of mouth and revisit intentions) were measured via two items, both of which were anchored from ‘Strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree’. Empathic tendencies were measured using four items, adapted from Davis (1983) and McBane (1995). Effect coding was used for manipulated aggression (aggression=1; control=-1) and source of mistreatment (consumer aggression=-1; employee aggression=1) constructs.

4.3.2 Analyses and results

4.3.2.1 Preliminary analyses: Reliability and manipulation checks

Reliability coefficients for behavioral intentions ($\alpha = .94$) and empathic tendencies ($\alpha = .84$) scales were all above the suggested limits. Factor analysis results showed that behavioral intentions, empathic tendencies and emotion scales loaded appropriately on their intended constructs, with no cross-loadings greater than .50. Correlations between all constructs were also less than .50, with the anticipated exception of shame and embarrassment ($r = .68$; see Table 4.2). All Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio of Correlations (HTMT) were lower than .85 so it can be said that discriminant validity was established for all constructs (Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt, 2014). All variance inflation factors were smaller than 2.00, suggesting no multicollinearity. Multi-item scales were averaged for further analysis.

Table 4.2 : Inter-item correlations of experiment I.

Items	Factor Loadings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Empathic Tendencies ($\alpha = .84$)									
1. I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person.	.83	1.00							
2. If someone is unhappy, I quickly realize this, even if I do not know the person well.	.70	.50	1.00						
3. Other people's misfortunes usually disturb me a great deal.	.80	.49	.37	1.00					
4. I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me.	.92	.74	.58	.67	1.00				
Intentions ($\alpha = .94$)									
5. I would go this restaurant again	.93	.10	.12	-.07	.06	1.00			
6. I would recommend this restaurant to friends and family	.91	.16	.20	-.03	.13	.89	1.00		
Shame Emotions									
7. I would feel ashamed	.91	.13	.06	.23	.16	-.48	-.44	1.00	
8. I would feel embarrassed	.84	.06	.04	.08	.06	-.45	-.39	.68	1.00

Analyses of credibility check items indicated strong realism and believability of the scenarios (all means > 5.85). Variance analyses also showed that there was no significant difference among the scenarios assigned to the four conditions ($F_{\text{believability}}(233) = .57, p > .10$; $F_{\text{perceived realism}}(233) = .29, p > .10$).

For the purpose of manipulation checks, variance analyses were conducted to compare aggression in the four conditions, by using a four-item "severity of mistreatment" scale, adapted from Porath et al., (2010)'s incivility, Douglas and Martinko (2001)'s

aggression scales.⁷ As expected, results showed that aggression manipulation had significant main effects on perceived severity of mistreatment ($F= 592.02, p < .001$). Moreover, results revealed no unexpected effects of source manipulation on the perceived severity of mistreatment ($F= 2.4, p > .10$). Interactional effects were also insignificant ($p > .10$). All these results indicated that aggression scenarios successfully and equivalently manipulate aggression without any confounding effects for both employee and other customer conditions. Manipulation checks indicated independence for the aggression manipulation and source of mistreatment manipulation (Perdue and Summers, 1986).

Finally, undesirable effects of aggression manipulations on empathic tendencies measures were checked. Variance analyses revealed no significant main effects of aggression manipulation ($F= .299, p > .10$) or source of mistreatment ($F= .150, p > .10$), or interactional effect of these manipulations ($F= .174, p > .10$). Therefore, there was no cross-manipulation effect or interaction among manipulations. Thus, empathic tendencies construct was used as a moderator in the model without any validity problems.

4.3.2.2 Hypothesis tests

t-test results showed that customers felt more ashamed and embarrassed, and their positive intentions towards the service provider were lower when witnessing employee aggression than no-mistreatment ($t_{\text{shame}} (124)= 6.886, p < .001$; $t_{\text{embarrassment}} (124)= 6.72, p < .001$; $t_{\text{intentions}} (124)= -8.24, p < .001$). Similarly, customers felt more ashamed and embarrassed, and their positive intentions towards the service provider were lower when witnessing other customer aggression than no-mistreatment ($t_{\text{shame}} (108) = 3.74, p < .01$; $t_{\text{embarrassment}} (108)= 2.24, p < .01$; $t (108)= -2.83, p < .01$). Thus, H1 was supported.

Paired t-test results showed that embarrassment levels were higher than shame levels for both witnessing employee aggression ($t (61) = 2.156, p < .05$) and other-customer aggression ($t (49)= 2.059, p < .05$) conditions. Therefore, H2 was supported. (for all mean scores, see Table 4.3).

⁷ Scale consisted of four items [respectful (R), rude, uncivil, norm violating] with 7-point scale, anchored by “not at all” and “very”.

Table 4.3 : Means and standard deviations of experiment I.

	Means (Standard Deviations) of Conditions			
	Employee Aggression	Other Customer Aggression	Employee Control	Other Customer Control
Constructs				
Shame	3.39 (1.87)	2.35 (1.73)	1.53 (1.02)	1.34 (.81)
Embarrassment	4.32 (2.05)	3.12 (1.93)	2.20 (1.42)	2.36 (1.63)
Intentions	3.35 (1.68)	4.87 (1.28)	5.40 (1.02)	5.52 (1.08)
Manipulation Checks				
Severity of Mistreatment	6.43 (.75)	2.70 (1.23)	6.42 (.83)	3.15 (1.40)
Credibility Checks				
Believability	6.05 (1.19)	6.14 (1.15)	5.92 (1.30)	5.90 (1.16)
Perceived Realism	6.03 (1.06)	5.92 (1.08)	5.91 (1.17)	5.85 (1.08)

4.3.2.3 Moderation analyses

By conducting three series of moderation analyses (PROCESS Macro Model 2, Hayes, 2013), moderating roles of the source of mistreatment (employee vs. other customer) and empathic tendencies on shame, embarrassment and intentions were tested.

Results revealed a significant two-way interaction between aggression and source of mistreatment on shame ($F(1, 227)=5.83, p < .05$, see Figure 2), embarrassment ($F(1, 227) = 11.10, p < .001$, see Figure 3) and intentions ($F(1, 227)= 18.03, p < .01$). Results also revealed a significant two-way interaction between aggression and empathic tendencies on shame ($F(1, 227)= 10.80, p < .01$, see Figure 2), embarrassment ($F(1, 228)= 23.20, p < .001$, see Figure 3) and intentions ($F(1, 227)= 13.30, p < .01$). There was also significant interaction of aggression with both moderators on shame ($F(2, 227) = 8.03, p < .001$). Main effects of aggression and source of mistreatment on shame, embarrassment and intentions were also significant (all $ps < .05$). Control variables, such as age, gender and education level, were insignificant (all $ps > .05$). To probe the significant interaction, Spiller et al. (2013)'s and Hayes (2013)'s provided spotlight and floodlight analysis guidelines for Johnson-Neyman (1936) technique were used to identify significant regions of the moderation where the effect of witnessing aggression on shame became significant⁸. In employee conditions, effect of witnessing employee aggression on shame and embarrassment was significant if

⁸ Hayes (2013)'s PROCESS Macro cannot produce Johnson-Neyman technique results for multiple moderation (Model 2). Therefore, results are produced separately for witnessing employee aggression and witnessing customer conditions with Model 1.

consumers' empathic tendencies were higher than 3.11 (13.49% below; 86.51% above) and 3.50 (17.46% below; 82.54% above) respectively. In other customer conditions, these effects were significant if empathic tendencies were higher than 3.82 (18.18% below; 81.82% above) and 4.66 (34.55% below; 65.45% above) respectively. Thus, H3 and H4 were confirmed.

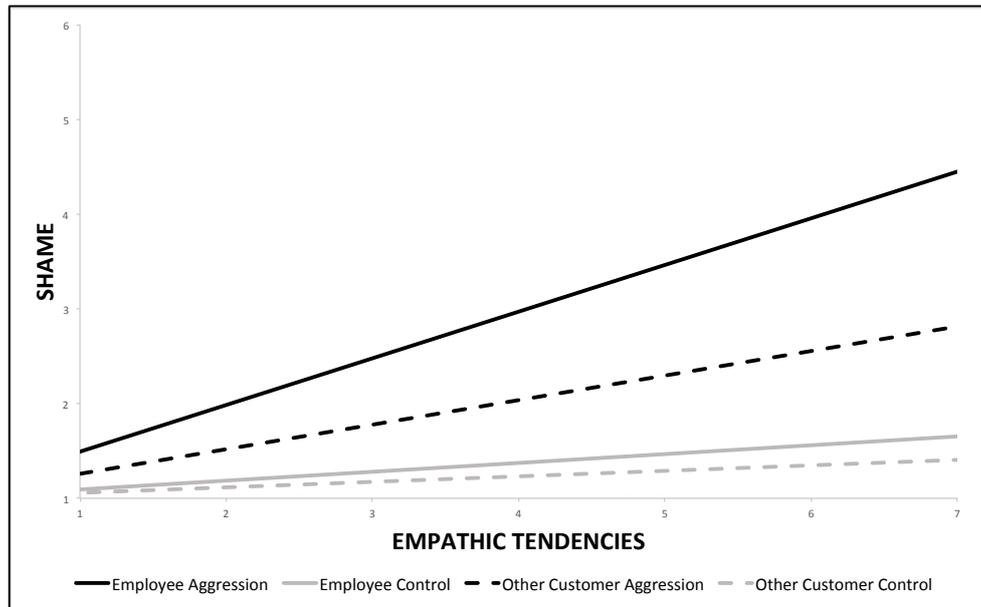


Figure 4.2 : Moderation of empathic tendencies on the effect of witnessing aggression on shame.

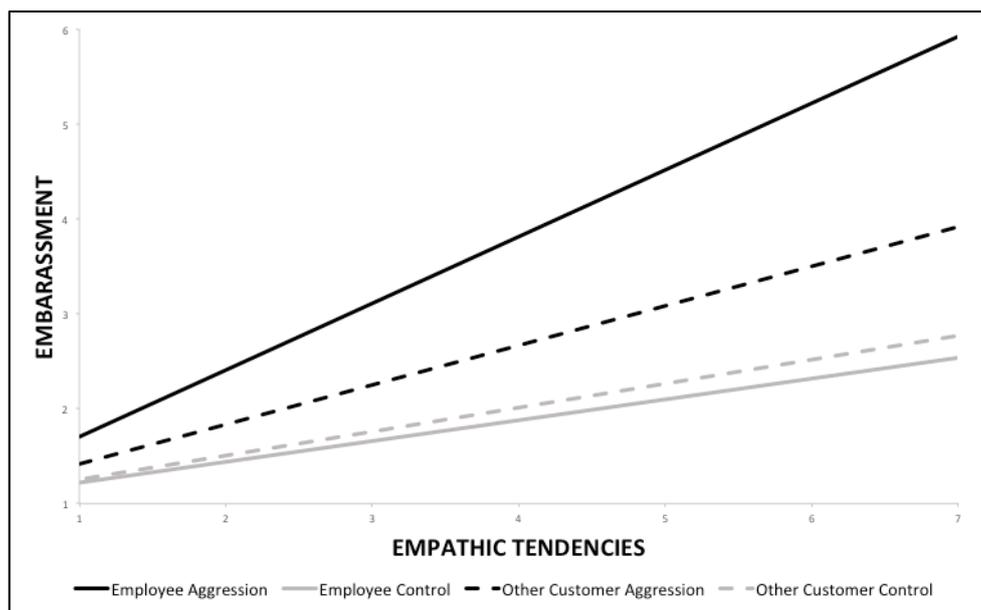


Figure 4.3 : Moderation of empathic tendencies on the effect of witnessing aggression on embarrassment.

4.3.2.4 Conditional process analysis

By conducting two series of moderated mediation analyses, mediation of the shame and embarrassment were tested. PROCESS Macro Model 10 (Hayes, 2013) was used for testing the effect of multiple interactions, which was tested in previous moderation analysis, on intentions towards the service provider with the mediation of shame and embarrassment. Mediation of shame and embarrassment were examined separately with conducting conditional process analysis with two times. It was considered necessary to test moderated mediation of shame and embarrassment separately because, as argued by Hayes (2013), highly correlated mediators can suppress or confound the potential effects of each other in multiple mediation analyses. Therefore, testing the role of these emotions separately provides more powerful statistical results about the role of shame and embarrassment in this research.

Supporting the prediction, in the witnessing employee aggression condition, bootstrapping ($n = 10,000$) revealed that the pathway from aggression manipulation to intentions related to service provider through shame and embarrassment (indirect effects) was not significant and included zero at lowest level (10th percentile) of empathic tendencies ($\beta_{\text{shame}} = -.05$, 95% CI: $-.14$ to $.01$; $\beta_{\text{embarrassment}} = -.14$, 95% CI: $-.37$ to $.02$) and became significant and excluded zero at other levels (for instance 90th percentile: $\beta_{\text{shame}} = -.15$, 95% CI: $-.28$ to $-.03$; $\beta_{\text{embarrassment}} = -.80$, 95% CI: -1.31 to $-.39$). In the witnessing customer aggression condition, the indirect pathway was not significant at 10th ($\beta_{\text{shame}} = -.01$, 95% CI: $-.16$ to $.10$; $\beta_{\text{embarrassment}} = -.06$, 95% CI: $-.01$ to $.14$) and 25th percentiles then became significant and excluded zero at other percentiles (for instance, $\beta_{\text{shame}} = -.091$, 95% CI: $-.20$ to $-.02$; $\beta_{\text{embarrassment}} = -.16$, 95% CI: $-.28$ to $-.07$). Thus, H5 was confirmed

Table 4.4 : Model coefficients for conditional process analysis.

Predictors	Shame (M1)			Intentions (Y)		
	β	SE	t	β	SE	t
Intercept	.47	.35	1.37	.02	.33	.06
Aggression (X)	.44	.06	**7.96	-.35	.06	-2.83
Shame (M1)	-	-	-	-.18	.06	** -2.83
Source of Mistreatment (W)	.20	.06	**3.54	-.24	.05	** -4.40
Empathy (Z)	.11	.06	1.93	.10	.06	1.71
X x W	.13	.06	*2.41	-.20	.05	** -3.81
X x Z	.18	.06	**3.29	-.16	.05	** -4.40
Age	-.06	.09	-1.08	-.01	.08	-.03
Gender	-.08	.19	-.74	-.10	.17	.62
Education Level	-.03	.07	-.54	-.06	.11	-.52
	R ² = .31; F (8, 227) = 12.82**			R ² = .40; F (9, 226) = 16.11**		
Employee Aggression	Direct Effect			Indirect Effect (M1)		
	β	SE	t	β	BSE	LLCI/ULCI
10 th percentile of Z	-.30	.11	-2.92**	-.05	.03	-.14/-.01 ^b
25 th percentile of Z	-.46	.08	-5.71**	-.08	.04	-.17/-.02 ^a
50 th percentile of Z	-.55	.08	-6.95**	-.10	.05	-.20/-.02 ^a
75 th percentile of Z	-.66	.09	-7.20**	-.12	.05	-.23/-.03 ^a
90 th percentile of Z	-.78	.12	-6.68**	-.15	.06	-.28/-.03 ^a
Customer Aggression	β	SE	t	β	BSE	LLCI/ULCI
10 th percentile of Z	.10	.11	.86	-.01	.02	-.16/-.10 ^a
25 th percentile of Z	-.06	.08	-.72	-.04	.02	-.10/-.01 ^a
50 th percentile of Z	-.15	.08	-1.94	.06	.03	-.12/-.01 ^a
75 th percentile of Z	-.25	.09	** -2.85	-.07	.03	-.15/-.02 ^a
90 th percentile of Z	-.37	.11	** -3.36	-.09	.05	-.20/-.02 ^a
Predictors	Embarrassment (M2)			Intentions (Y)		
	β	SE	t	β	SE	t
Intercept	.77	.34	*2.26	.15	.32	.45
Aggression (X)	-.38	.06	**6.87	-.32	.06	** -5.74
Embarrassment (M2)	-	-	-	-.27	.06	** -4.44
Source of Mistreatment (W)	.14	.06	**3.33	-.24	.05	** -4.50
Empathy (Z)	.22	.06	3.73	.13	.06	*2.42
X x W	.18	.06	**3.33	-.18	.05	** -3.36
X x Z	.26	.06	**4.82	-.12	.05	* -2.26
Age	-.07	.06	-1.31	-.01	.05	-.14
Gender	-.06	.12	-.48	-.07	.11	.64
Education Level	-.12	.07	-1.76	-.06	.07	-.94
	R ² = .32; F (8, 227) = 13.62**			R ² = .42; F (9, 226) = 18.18**		
Employee Aggression	Direct Effect			Indirect Effect (M2)		
	β	SE	t	β	BSE	LLCI/ULCI
10 th percentile of Z	-.32	.10	** -3.11	-.14	.10	-.37/-.02 ^b
25 th percentile of Z	-.43	.08	** -5.54	-.36	.11	-.62/-.18 ^a
50 th percentile of Z	-.50	.08	** -6.44	-.49	.14	-.81/-.25 ^a
75 th percentile of Z	-.57	.09	** -6.41	-.62	.18	-1.01/-.31 ^a
90 th percentile of Z	-.67	.12	** -5.73	-.80	.24	-1.31/-.39 ^a
Customer Aggression	β	SE	t	β	BSE	LLCI/ULCI
10 th percentile of Z	.03	.11	.32	-.06	.04	-.01/-.14 ^b
25 th percentile of Z	-.08	.08	-1.03	.02	.03	-.06/-.03 ^b
50 th percentile of Z	-.15	.08	* -2.02	.06	.03	-.12/-.02 ^a
75 th percentile of Z	-.22	.08	** -2.66	-.10	.04	-.19/-.04 ^a
90 th percentile of Z	-.32	.11	** -2.93	-.16	.05	-.28/-.07 ^a

Note: 10,000 bootstrapping samples; X, ind. variable; Y, dep. variable, M1 and M2, mediators; W and Z, moderator variables
Presented here are the partly standardized regression coefficients from bootstrapping analysis and their associated standard errors (SE), t-statistics and lower and upper levels for confidence interval (ULCI/LLCI). M1, M2, W and Z were standardized and X was coded using effect coding (aggression=1; control=-1); Shame and Embarrassment mediations were separately analyzed.
* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; ^a Confidence interval excludes zero, ^b Confidence interval does not exclude zero

4.4 Experiment II

As mentioned earlier, aggression is a more severe, intense and directed form of interpersonal dysfunctional behavior with clear intent to harm compared to incivility (Porath et al., 2010). Therefore, it is important to show the distinctive effects of severity of mistreatment (aggression vs. incivility) for construct clarity. Experiment II argues, severity of mistreatment is crucial for the elicitation of shame and embarrassment because high intense, purposeful mistreatments (namely aggression, Neuman and Baron, 1998) is a clearer violation of moral norms of the social servicescape compared to low intense mistreatments with lack of intent (namely incivility, Andersson and Pearson, 1999). In this study, author tested the effects of witnessed aggression (high severity mistreatment) and incivility (low severity mistreatment) on customers' intentions through shame and embarrassment in cases where the source of mistreatment is either other customers or employees. Additionally, in the first study, shame and embarrassment were measured via single item measures using parts of self-conscious emotions scale. However, since these are distinct constructs, in Experiment II, shame and embarrassment were measured using multi-item scales in order to improve validity.

4.4.1 Scenario development for experiment II

Via a similar procedure, author used same manipulations as in Experiment I with the exception of incivility manipulation. Following Porath *et al.* (2010) and Henkel *et al.* (2017), these scenarios were adapted to low intense uncivil conditions. In these uncivil conditions, participants read incidents with rude, impolite interactions with no swearing. In employee incivility conditions, after the failure, one employee said “*Be careful, Do your job properly!*”. In other customer condition, one customer said “*Be careful, walk properly!*” to another customer (see Table 4.5).

Table 4.5 : Scenarios for manipulations (experiment I and experiment II).

<p>Witnessing employee aggression</p>	<p>Imagine that, you and your friends decide to go to your favorite restaurant for lunch. As you enter the restaurant, you and your friends are escorted to an available table. After being seated, the waiter comes to take orders. You and your friends each order main courses and drinks. As you're waiting for your order to arrive, one of the servers (Server A) accidentally hits an empty chair and trips. Another server (Server B) sees that, approaches the server who tripped and says "Be careful, you fucking idiot. Do your job properly!". You and your friends hear that. You keep watching these servers, and notice that Server B keeps rebuking the server who tripped while they are going to the back of the restaurant. After that, your orders arrive without any problem. You and your friends start eating...</p>
<p>Witnessing employee incivility</p>	<p>Imagine that, you and your friends decide to go to your favorite restaurant for lunch. As you enter the restaurant, you and your friends are escorted to an available table. After being seated, the waiter comes to take orders. You and your friends each order main courses and drinks. As you're waiting for your order to arrive, one of the servers (Server A) accidentally hits an empty chair and trips. Another server (Server B) sees that, approaches the server who tripped and says "Be careful. Do your job properly!". You and your friends hear that. You keep watching these servers, and notice that Server B keeps warning the server who tripped while they are going to the back of the restaurant. After that, your orders arrive without any problem. You and your friends start eating...</p>
<p>Employee Control</p>	<p>Imagine that, you and your friends decide to go to your favorite restaurant for lunch. As you enter the restaurant, you and your friends are escorted to an available table. After being seated, the waiter comes to take orders. You and your friends each order main courses and drinks. As you're waiting for your order to arrive, one of the servers (Server A) accidentally hits an empty chair and trips. You and your friends as well as another server (Server B) see that. You realize that Server A and Server B were looking at each other but they do not say a word. After that, your orders arrive without any problem. You and your friends start eating...</p>
<p>Witnessing other customer aggression</p>	<p>Imagine that, you and your friends decide to go to your favorite restaurant for lunch. As you enter the restaurant, you and your friends are escorted to an available table. After being seated, the waiter comes to take orders. You and your friends each order main courses and drinks. As you're waiting for your order to arrive, a customer (Customer A) accidentally hits an empty chair at another customer's (Customer B) table and trips. Customer B stands up and says "Be careful, you fucking idiot. Walk properly!". You and your friends hear that. You keep watching these servers, and notice that Customer B keeps rebuking the Customer A who tripped while they are going to the back of the restaurant. After that, your orders arrive without any problem. You and your friends start eating...</p>
<p>Witnessing other customer incivility</p>	<p>Imagine that, you and your friends decide to go to your favorite restaurant for lunch. As you enter the restaurant, you and your friends are escorted to an available table. After being seated, the waiter comes to take orders. You and your friends each order main courses and drinks. As you're waiting for your order to arrive, a customer (Customer A) accidentally hits an empty chair at another customer's (Customer B) table and trips. Customer B stands up and says "Be careful. Walk properly!". You and your friends hear that. You and your friends hear that. You keep watching these servers, and notice that Customer B keeps rebuking the Customer A who tripped while they are going to the back of the restaurant. After that, your orders arrive without any problem. You and your friends start eating...</p>
<p>Other Customer Control</p>	<p>Imagine that, you and your friends decide to go to your favorite restaurant for lunch. As you enter the restaurant, you and your friends are escorted to an available table. After being seated, the waiter comes to take orders. You and your friends each order main courses and drinks. As you're waiting for your order to arrive, a customer (Customer A) accidentally hits an empty chair at another customer's (Customer B) table and trips. You realize that Customer A and Customer B were looking at each other but they do not say a word. After that, your orders arrive without any problem. You and your friends start eating...</p>

4.4.2 Procedure

This experiment employed a 3 (severity of mistreatment: aggression vs. incivility vs. no-mistreatment –control) x 2 (source of mistreatment: employee aggression vs. other customer) between subjects factorial design. 317 subjects recruited from Amazon

Mturk (51.9% female, aged between 18 and 60, see Table 4.6 for sample characteristics), were randomly assigned to one of the six experimental conditions. 15 responses were removed because they missed attention check questions and 7 responses were removed because they reported that they were unable to adopt given scenario. 295 valid responses were used for analysis.

Table 4.6 : Sample characteristics of experiment 2.

	Conditions
	Total (%)
Gender	
Female	153 (52%)
Male	142 (48%)
Education Level	
High School	43 (15%)
Some college	80 (27%)
College Degree	137 (46%)
Graduate degree	19 (6%)
Ethnicity	
Caucasian	235 (79%)
Other	60 (21%)
Age	
18 – 25	44 (15%)
26 – 35	120 (41%)
36 – 45	72 (24%)
Over 45	59 (20%)
Total	295

4.4.3 Measures

Firstly, embarrassment was measured using a three item-scale (Dahl, Manchanda, and Argo, 2001). Participants indicated how embarrassing, awkward and uncomfortable they would feel in the situation described in the scenario. Second, shame was measured via a five item-scale (adapted from Johnson et al., 2011; Tangney et al., 1996). These emotions were measured using a 7-point scale, anchored by “not at all” and “very”. Participants indicated how ashamed, humiliated, insecure, vulnerable, remorse and disgraced they would feel because of what happened in the scenario. Behavioral intentions and empathic tendencies were measured by scales, used in Experiment I.

Finally, severity of mistreatment was measured with broadened version of the scale used in Experiment 1. We added two items (I think behavior in the scenario is very..... aggressive; purposely harmful).

4.4.4 Analyses and results of experiment II

4.4.4.1 Preliminary analyses: Reliability and manipulation checks

Reliability coefficients for shame ($\alpha = .92$), embarrassment ($\alpha = .90$), behavioral intentions ($\alpha = .90$) and empathic tendencies ($\alpha = .76$) scales were all above the suggested limits. Factor analysis results showed that all items loaded appropriately on their intended constructs (see Table 4.7). All of the HTMT results are lower than .85 so it can be said that discriminant validity is established for all constructs. All variance inflation factors were smaller than 2.50, suggesting no multicollinearity. Multi-item scales were averaged for further analysis.

Analyses of credibility check items indicated strong realism and believability for all the scenarios (all means >5.65). Variance analyses also showed that there was no significant difference among the scenarios assigned to the six conditions ($F_{\text{believability}}(295) = 1.97, p > .05$; $F_{\text{perceived realism}}(233) = 1.3529, p > .10$).

Variance analysis was used for manipulation checks of severity of mistreatment. Comparison based on the severity of mistreatment scale ($\alpha = .94$) showed that aggression and incivility manipulations have significant main effects on severity perceptions ($F = 273.59; p < .01$) with no other main effects ($F = 3.95; p > .05$) and interactional effects ($F = .04; p > .10$). Therefore, results showed that scenarios successfully manipulated aggression and incivility with no cross-manipulation.

Table 4.7 : Inter-item correlations of experiment II.

Items	Factor Loadings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Empathic Tendencies ($\alpha = .76$)															
1. I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person.	.83	1.00													
2. Other people's misfortunes usually disturb me a great deal.	.79	.45	1.00												
3. I often have tender, concerned feelings for people less fortunate than me.	.89	.62	.63	1.00											
Intentions ($\alpha = .90$)															
4. I would go this restaurant again	.89	.13	-.05	-.07	1.00										
5. I would recommend this restaurant to friends and family	.90	.10	.11	-.06	.85	1.00									
Shame ($\alpha = .92$)															
6. I would feel ashamed	.82	.05	.13	.08	-.48	-.43	1.00								
7. I would feel humiliated	.83	.00	.10	.06	-.42	-.36	-.70	1.00							
8. I would feel insecure	.82	.03	.16	.10	-.35	-.30	-.66	.73	1.00						
9. I would feel vulnerable	.80	.04	.15	.11	-.34	-.28	.64	.69	.80	1.00					
10. I would feel disgrace	.79	.04	.12	.06	-.54	-.49	.82	.68	.63	.63	1.00				
11. I would feel remorse	.70	.09	.17	.13	-.45	-.40	.71	.59	.52	.48	.73	1.00			
Embarrassment ($\alpha = .90$)															
12. I would feel embarrassed	.60	.15	.24	.19	-.39	-.38	.65	.65	.60	.56	.58	.53	1.00		
13. I would feel awkward	.87	.12	.29	.22	-.36	-.39	.52	.47	.50	.51	.48	.48	.71	1.00	
14. I would feel uncomfortable	.81	.12	.29	.18	-.42	-.40	.56	.51	.54	.53	.56	.53	.67	.86	1.00

4.4.4.2 Hypotheses tests

T-test results showed that customers felt more ashamed and embarrassed, and their positive intentions towards the service provider were lower when witnessing employee aggression than no-mistreatment ($t_{\text{shame}}(110) = 7.32, p < .001$; $t_{\text{embarrassment}}(110) = 9.11, p < .001$; $t_{\text{intentions}}(110) = -8.12, p < .001$). Customers also felt more ashamed and embarrassed, and their positive intentions towards the service provider were lower when witnessing other customer aggression than in no-mistreatment condition ($t_{\text{shame}}(88) = 2.31, p < .05$; $t_{\text{embarrassment}}(88) = 3.69, p < .001$; $t_{\text{intentions}}(88) = -3.20, p < .01$). Expectedly, there were no significant differences between witnessing incivility and control conditions' shame and embarrassment levels (p 's $> .10$ for all) and significant differences between these conditions' intentions level (p 's $< .05$ for both). These results supported H1.

Paired t-test results showed that embarrassment levels were higher than shame levels for both witnessing employee aggression ($t(55) = 9.44, p < .01$) and other-customer aggression ($t(43) = 9.68, p < .01$) conditions. Therefore, H2 was supported. (for mean scores, see Table 4.8).

Table 4.8 : Means and standard deviations of experiment II.

	Cronbach Alpha	Means (Standard Deviations) of Conditions					
		Employee Aggression	Other Customer Aggression	Employee Incivility	Other Customer Incivility	Employee Control	Other Customer Control
Constructs							
Shame	.92	3.57 (1.41)	2.29 (1.29)	1.91 (1.11)	1.98 (1.02)	1.77 (1.17)	1.72 (1.07)
Embarrassment	.90	5.33 (1.46)	3.92 (1.69)	3.25 (1.26)	3.28 (1.66)	2.82 (1.46)	2.73 (1.37)
Intentions	.90	3.25 (1.60)	4.81 (1.31)	4.58 (1.31)	5.13 (1.16)	5.28 (.94)	5.54 (.80)
Manipulation Checks							
Severity of Aggression	.94	6.18 (1.04)	6.38 (.78)	4.56 (1.12)	4.84 (.98)	2.59 (1.17)	2.81 (1.30)
Credibility Checks							
Believability	-	5.95 (1.31)	6.39 (.92)	6.32 (1.02)	6.07 (1.00)	6.02 (1.00)	6.07 (1.02)
Perceived Realism	-	5.65 (1.19)	5.95 (1.16)	6.20 (.99)	5.58 (1.27)	5.95 (.91)	5.91 (1.19)

4.4.4.3 Moderation analyses

By conducting three series of moderation analyses (PROCESS Macro Model 1; Hayes, 2013), moderating role of source of mistreatment (employee vs. other customer) on shame, embarrassment and intentions was tested. Empathic tendency construct was added to the model as a covariate. Moderation analyses were conducted by using the procedures of Hayes and Montoya (2017) for moderation analyses with multicategorical independent variables.

Sequential coding was used for manipulated aggression. Sequential coding is suitable for testing the effects of multicategorical independent variables when the variable is ordinal (Hayes and Montoya, 2017). Following Hayes and Montoya (2017), we produced two variables. D1 was produced for testing the distinct effects of aggression and incivility groups from control groups (D1: aggression=1, incivility=1, control=0). D2 was produced for testing the distinct effect of aggression from incivility and control groups (D2: aggression=1, incivility=0, control=0). Source of mistreatment was dummy coded (employee=1, other customer=0).

Results revealed a significant two-way interaction of D2 (aggression only) and source of mistreatment on shame ($\beta = .44$, $SE = .13$, $t(285) = 3.47$, $p < .01$; see Figure 4), embarrassment ($\beta = .30$, $t(285) = 2.61$, $p < .01$; see Figure 5) and intentions ($\beta = .34$, $t(285) = -2.76$, $p < .01$). Main effect of D2 was also significant ($\beta = .72$, $SE = .12$, $t(285) = 5.76$, $p < .01$). Interestingly, there was no significant interaction between D1 and source of mistreatment on shame, embarrassment and intentions (all p 's $> .05$). Main effects of D1 and source of mistreatment on shame were insignificant ($p > .05$). To probe the significant interaction, slope analyses were conducted. Effects of D2 on shame, embarrassment and intentions increase from other customer conditions ($\beta_{\text{shame}} = .38$, $SE = .25$, $t = 1.48$, $p > .10$; $\beta_{\text{embarrassment}} = .49$, $SE = .17$, $t = 2.85$, $p < .01$; $\beta_{\text{intentions}} = .26$, $SE = .18$, $t = -1.43$, $p > .10$) to employee aggression condition ($\beta_{\text{shame}} = 1.58$, $SE = .23$, $t = 6.84$, $p < .01$; $\beta_{\text{embarrassment}} = 1.10$, $SE = .15$, $t = 7.00$, $p < .01$; $\beta_{\text{intentions}} = -.93$, $SE = .16$, $t = 5.68$, $p < .01$).

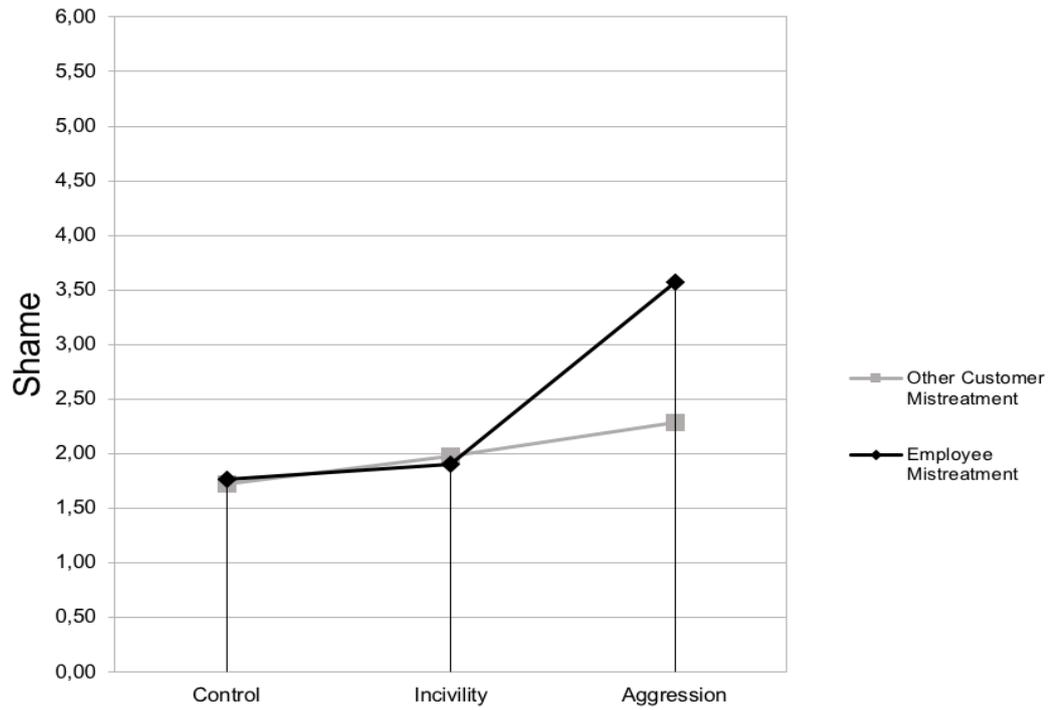


Figure 4.4 : Experiment II – shame.

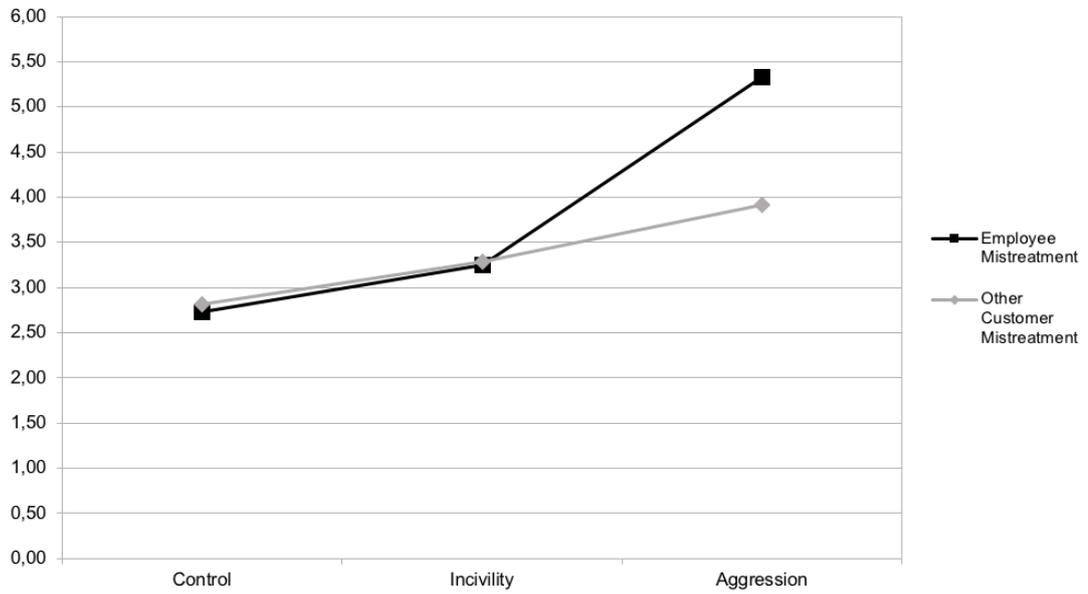


Figure 4.5 : Experiment II – embarrassment.

4.4.4.4 Mediation analysis

Following the procedure of Hayes and Preacher (2014) for mediation analysis with a multicategorical independent variable, PROCESS Macro Model 4 (Hayes, 2013) was used for testing the effect of D1 (aggression and incivility) and D2 (aggression only), which were tested in previous moderation analysis, on intentions towards the service provider with the mediation of shame and embarrassment.

Supporting the prediction, bootstrapping (n= 10,000) revealed that the pathway from D2 to intentions related to service provider through shame (indirect effect) and embarrassment were significant and did not include zero ($\beta_{\text{shame}} = -.33$ 95% CI: -.63 to -.12; $\beta_{\text{embarrassment}} = -.23$, 95% CI: -.37 to -.12). Interestingly, pathway from D1 to intentions through shame was not significant ($\beta = -.13$ 95% CI: -.38 to .01). Different from shame, pathway from D1 to intentions through embarrassment was significant ($\beta = -.07$ 95% CI: -.15 to -.01).

Table 4.9 : Model coefficients for mediation analyses.

Shame Mediation						
Predictors	Shame (M1)			Intentions (Y)		
	β	SE	t	β	SE	t
Intercept	.24	.33	.71	.35	.30	1.16
D1	.12	.13	.97	-.35	.12	** -3.08
D2	.76	.13	**5.96	-.36	.12	** -3.01
Shame (M1)	-	-	-	-.34	.05	** -6.37
Source of Mistreatment (W)	.17	.05	**3.23	-.22	.05	** -4.72
Empathic Tendencies	.11	.06	*1.98	.09	.05	1.78
Age	-.01	.01	** -2.70	-.01	.01	-1.59
Gender	-.18	.11	-1.67	-.13	.10	1.30
Education Level	.05	.06	.79	-.08	.05	* -2.26
			R ² = .23; F (7, 287) = 12.48**			
			R ² = .38; F (8, 286) = 22.32**			
Shame Mediation (continued)						
Severity of Mistreatment	Direct Effect			Indirect Effect (M1)		
	B	SE	t	β	BSE	LLCI/ULCI
D1 (Incivility + Aggression)	-.35	.12	** -3.08	-.13	.10	-.38/.01 ^b
D2 (Aggression only)	-.36	.12	** -3.01	-.33	.13	-.63/-.12 ^a
Omnibus	F (2, 286) = 17.42**			-.05	.02	-.09/-.02 ^a
Embarrassment Mediation						
Predictors	Embarrassment (M2)			Intentions (Y)		
	β	SE	t	β	SE	t
Intercept	.22	.30	.74	.33	.31	1.07
D1	.26	.12	*2.22	-.32	.12	** -2.72
D2	.82	.12	**7.05	-.40	.13	**3.09
Embarrassment	-	-	-	-.28	.06	** -4.62
Source of Mistreatment (W)	.16	.05	3.41	-.24	.05	** -4.82
Empathic Tendencies	.20	.05	**4.03	.11	.05	*2.06
Age	-.01	.01	* -2.31	.01	.01	1.90
Gender	-.42	.10	** -4.29	.07	.10	.69
Education Level	.09	.05	1.72	-.11	.05	* -2.01
			R ² = .37; F (8, 287) = 23.67**			
			R ² = .35; F (8, 286) = 18.90**			
Embarrassment Mediation (continued)						
Severity of Mistreatment	Direct Effect			Indirect Effect (M2)		
	β	SE	t	β	BSE	LLCI/ULCI
D1 (Incivility + Aggression)	-.32	.12	** -2.72	-.07	.04	-.15/-.01 ^a
D2 (Aggression only)	-.40	.13	** -3.09	-.23	.06	-.37/-.12 ^a
Omnibus	F (2, 286) = 14.63**			-.05	.02	-.10/-.03 ^a

Note: 10,000 bootstrapping samples
X, independent variable; Y, dependent variable, M1 and M2, mediators; W and Z, moderator variables
Presented here are the standardized regression coefficients from bootstrapping analysis and their associated standard errors (SE), t-statistics and lower and upper levels for confidence interval (ULCI/LLCI)
Shame and Embarrassment mediations were separately analyzed.
* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; ^a Confidence interval excludes zero, ^b Confidence interval does not exclude zero

Therefore, when all types of interpersonal mistreatments were assumed to be similar or same (D1), moderation analyses showed that their main, interactional effects failed to elicit shame and mediation analyses showed that indirect effects failed to change intentions towards service provider through shame (not through embarrassment). On the other hand, if high-level purposeful mistreatment (aggression) and low-level mistreatment (incivility) were assumed to be distinct types of mistreatment (D2), witnessing aggression successfully elicited shame and embarrassment. Moreover, when customers were the source of aggression intentions towards the service provider were affected less than when the source was the employee. Hypothesis tests showed that both incivility and aggression affected customer intentions related to the service provider. On the other hand, they also confirmed that, compared to control groups, witnessing employee and other customer aggression elicited shame and embarrassment but witnessing employee and other customer incivility did not significantly affect shame or embarrassment.

4.4.5 Discussion and implications for theory and practice

The purpose of these experiments was to develop and experimentally test a model of the influence of witnessing aggressive and uncivil behaviors on customers during service experiences and the regulatory processes of self-conscious emotions. Moderation and conditional process analyses were applied to two datasets collected from 531 subjects via two scenario-based online experiments.

Firstly, the results of Experiment I and Experiment II show that witnessing aggression during service experiences negatively influences customers' intentions towards to service provider both directly and indirectly through shame and embarrassment. Therefore, consumers, who witness aggression during service experiences, can intentionally avoid service provider because of the vicariously experienced shame and embarrassment. Results show that when customers witness other customers being verbally aggressive towards each other their intentions towards the service provider is influenced less negatively than when they witness employees being verbally aggressive. Moreover, Experiment I also reveals that innate empathic tendencies of customers moderate the effect of witnessing aggression on shame and embarrassment emotions and behavioral intentions. That is, the significance of all direct and emotion mediated indirect paths are dependent on the empathic tendencies, especially in other

customer conditions. Third, Experiment II shows the distinct effect of aggressive behaviors on shame and embarrassment in social service settings. In this context, hypothesis tests show that witnessing low intense interpersonal mistreatments (incivility) does not elicit shame and embarrassment. On the other hand, witnessing employee or other customer aggression elicits shame and embarrassment. It is believed that the results of this research provide several theoretical contributions to the literature and managerial implications for marketers and service managers.

Theoretical contributions

These experiments mainly contribute to the literature by uncovering emotional appraisal processes of customers when they witness mistreatments in service settings. It is firstly discussed how aggressive behaviors are appraised as explicit moral code violating behaviors by third parties and how consumers' intentions are decreased by empathetically or vicariously internalized self-conscious emotions, such as shame and embarrassment.

First, these experiments fill an important gap in the service and consumer literature by showing how aggressive behaviors influence concrete emotional states of customers as the witnesses (or observers) of those behaviors. Although previous literature in consumer behavior and services areas have mostly emphasized possible negative consequences of aggressive and other uncivil behaviors on victims, this study is one of the first attempts that examines the consequences of aggressive behaviors from the perspective of others, who are the witnesses of aggression during service experiences.

Second, this study also approaches aggression as a construct related to harm-intended, explicit moral violations and examines its effects on shame and embarrassment, which are negative self-conscious emotions that are triggered by appraisals of morally violated social situations. In services literature, previous studies (Porath et al., 2010, 2011) test and confirm how witnessing these types of immoral dysfunctional behaviors affect approach-oriented emotions (anger) and activate behavioral intentions (revenge from the perpetrator and/or service provider). This study confirms witnessing aggression during service experiences affect avoidance-oriented emotions (shame and embarrassment) and pacify some behavioral intentions (revisit and word of mouth intentions).

Third, this study expands the understanding of shame and embarrassment in emotion and cognition literature from the perspective of appraisal theory. Previous studies have argued that shame and embarrassment are results of internalization of moral violations in social situation (Lewis, 2008; Tangney et al., 1996) and people vicariously experience these emotions only if they internalize (or attribute to themselves) the moral violation of others' behaviors (Lickel et al., 2005). However, in this study, it is argued and empirically confirmed that these emotions have the potential to spread to others based on their empathic capabilities. It is shown that witnessing aggressive behaviors as a bystander can result in shame and embarrassment and these causal relationships are strengthened by the witnessing customers' tendencies to empathize with others.

Fourth, by including both the employee aggression and customer aggression during service experiences in a single study, the gap between two research streams on dysfunctional behaviors is also addressed. All types of aggression in service settings have influences on consumers but employee aggression, as a strongly integrated component of social servicescapes, has a stronger effect than customer aggression.

Finally, this study is the first to compare the effects of embarrassment with shame in a service context. Analyses of this study show that embarrassment is a more strongly elicited emotion in situational or incidental service contexts such as unintentionally witnessed aggressive behaviors during service experiences.

4.4.5.1 Managerial implications

This study proves that aggressive behaviors displayed by both frontline employees and other customers in social service settings have severe effects on specific concrete emotions (shame and embarrassment) experienced by customers and on intentions of customers towards the service provider. Uncovering the appraisal processes of customers witnessing mistreatments and the mechanisms by which shame and embarrassment are elicited is crucial for service managers. Because emotional appraisals or elicitation processes of these incidents are more idiosyncratic than other types of dysfunctional behaviors. First, findings of this study should be cautionary to service managers and guide them before these incidents. Aggression is a much more severe and visible form of dysfunctional and uncivil behaviors thus service managers must prevent aggression and avoid aggression-inducing interactions, especially during social service experiences. Drivers of the aggression are well-established in the

psychology and organizational behavior literature and controlling these drivers can be helpful to prevent employee aggression and customer aggression to a certain degree. Obviously, aggressive behaviors displayed by customers to other customers are very hard to predict and manage before the incident but managers can provide training programs for frontline employees that teach how to respond and interfere aggressive interactions among customers in front of the other customers in servicescapes.

Secondly, it is important to note that in service settings the sheer number of customers who are directly subjected to the aggression is far less than the number of customers witnessing the situation. As this study shows that witnessing aggression vicariously triggers negative emotions, managers should be prepared to control and contain the situation. Findings of this study have important implications about how service managers and frontline employees should behave during these incidents. Service managers may prevent the empathetic flow of shame and embarrassment to customers who witness these incidents by providing information about the aggressive behavior and validating it because third-parties experience these emotions if they uncertain about perpetrators' intention behind aggressive behavior (Priesemuth and Schminke, 2017).

Thirdly, this study also shows the way for recovering possible damages on service evaluations of customers following these incidents. Service and marketing managers may contact customers who witness the situation and try to explain the moral violation. If and when the service providers provide a sense of fairness so that the witnesses perceive the behavior as "fair", shame and embarrassment, which are induced by the moral violation, may tail off.

All service managers should know that shame and embarrassment yielding incidents (i.e. aggression) are severe. These emotions are entirely social and relational emotions and they have the power to regulate customers' relations with service providers and/or service employees. Especially shame, as a more enduring emotion than embarrassment, may completely destroy the relationship between customer and service provider. If service providers do not deal with elicited shame, symptoms will either be maintained or increase (Retzinger, 1998). Therefore, service managers and employees should reestablish social bonds between the service provider and customer who witness aggression - may it be among customers or among employees.

4.4.5.2 Limitations and future research directions

These experimental studies are limited by its use of online experiments and simulated experiences. Contributing to the literature; results provoke additional research on aggression in service contexts. Field experiments can be helpful to increase generalizability and critical incident technique may show the way for discovering other drivers and consequences of witnessing aggression and other dysfunctional behaviors during service experiences. Using visual materials (video clips, photographs) may also be effective to elicit shame and embarrassment in further studies.

Future research might also investigate other appraisal processes of self-conscious emotions during service experiences. For instance, witnessing infamous crimes (such as stealing) may induce different types of self-conscious emotions. Additionally, this research only examines the effects of witnessing verbal aggression. However, as mentioned before, aggression may also be manifested as physical aggression and/or physical violence. Effects of witnessing these types of behaviors may be more intense on emotional experiences.

This research shows perpetrators and/or victims' service roles (customer or employee) are important for the evaluation of aggression by witness customers. However, there are several other service-specific or permanent roles that may affect emotional appraisal of aggressive behaviors. For instance, how gender affects evaluations of aggressive behaviors during service experiences? Previous studies have contradictory results about the relationship between gender and aggression (Hershcovis et al., 2007). Although there is no significant effect of witness customers' gender in the current study, it would be interesting to discern the witnessing customers' appraisals of male-to-male; male-to-female, female-to-female or female-to-male aggressions. Another important issue may be the hierarchical position of perpetrators and victims. From the customer side, Henkel et al. (2017) have contributed to the literature by profoundly examining customer to employee aggression and incivility from the perspective of the bystander. Further studies may look into the employee side and study customer reactions of witnessing supervisor aggression.

Previous studies in psychology literature show that witnesses' social and physical proximity to actors of incidents can be important for the elicitation of vicarious shame and embarrassment (Lickel et al., 2005; Welten et al., 2012). This study examines

witnesses' emotional elicitations in bystander position consequently social connections between observers and victims are low in the context of the study. However, social and physical proximity may be important when customers hold warm feelings towards victims (Henkel et al., 2017). Examining in-group vs. out-group factors, social closeness, friendship; perceived threat can provide important implications for service providers.

This research focuses on the consequences of failing actions (aggression) but future research about recovery processes is also needed. Further studies may examine the role of recovery techniques in turning the negative effects of witnessing aggression into positive intentions. Researchers may explore ways to reconstruct the effects of moral violations during service settings.

In these studies, as a statistical limitation, multiple mediation analyses results were not employed due to high intercorrelation between the two mediators namely shame and embarrassment (Experiment 1: $r=.68$; Experiment 2: $r=.69$) because high intercorrelation muddles multiple mediation results (see Hayes, 2013). Correlation between shame and embarrassment is natural because, as explained before, elicitation of these emotions are based on similar appraisal patterns.

Finally, today, effects of negative interactions in service settings spread not only to the customers who actively witness the incident but also all around the world by social media channels. There are several aggressive behavior and moral violation cases that happened in service settings and gone viral in social media. Therefore, future research on witnessing aggression and vicarious experience of aggression through social media may provide insightful knowledge about service interactions. Previous literature in consumer behavior and services areas have mostly emphasized possible negative consequences of aggressive and other uncivil behaviors on victims. These experiments are two of the early attempts that examines the consequences of aggressive behaviors from the bystander perspective.

5. CONCLUSION

5.1 General Discussion

Along with the increasing trend of negativity and incivility in the society, today, dysfunctional behaviors in service ecosystems are complex and various. Consequences of these behaviors are destructive for the service organizations and service providing processes. The field of research on the dark side issues in organizational behavior and marketing literatures has become far too complex and fragmented due to the skyrocketed problems related to service actors' dysfunctional behaviors in service ecosystems. Comprehensive evaluation of these dark side issues in the workplace and marketplace settings is needed for handling clarity and overlapping problems in the literature. Current thesis includes three research processes, which are employed for (1) understanding the nature and internal structure of dark side issues in service contexts and suggest new conceptualizations and typology for service researchers and (2) examine these types of behaviors with other environmental, motivational, emotional, cognitive and behavioral constructs. During the research process, the main focus was on harm-motivated dysfunctional acts (targeted dysfunctionality) and their service related antecedents and consequences.

In the first stage of this project, systematic literature review is employed to increase construct clarity and resolve overlapping problems in the literature and propose a theoretically meaningful and practically relevant set of constructs for the new conceptualization of dark side phenomenon (targeted dysfunctionality) in service contexts. It is concluded that several constructs, which are previously introduced, have severe overlapping problems and these constructs can conceptually be reconciled under four constructs, which are aggression, incivility, sabotage and production deviance. These constructs are conceptually dissociated with each other by two dimensional explanations: ambiguity of harm and characteristic of the target (person vs. process). With few exceptions, several other constructs can be subsumed under these dimensional explanations. However, the conceptual model and typology need

empirical support. For providing empirical support for the suggested structure and understanding dysfunctional behaviors relations with other constructs, author employed a meta-analytic review and a set of experimental tests for service related dark-side issues in second and third stages of this thesis.

In the meta-analytic review, by collecting and synthesizing effect sizes (correlation coefficients) in prior frontline employee-level quantitative studies, author tested the relationships between customer mistreatment and employee-driven motivational, organizational and behavioral constructs. As a type of dysfunctional behavior, customer mistreatment is selected since it is one of the most important problem for service industries and includes all person-targeted (incivility and aggression) dysfunctional behaviors. Moreover, there is a considerable amount of studies that investigate the relationship between customer mistreatment and frontline employees' different types of dysfunctional behaviors (which can be subsumed under aggression, incivility, sabotage and production deviance). Thus, the meta-analytic review makes it possible to test the suggested typology.

Two meta-analytic studies are conducted. First meta-analytic study aims to test the impact of potential employee-related and organization related factors on the reported exposure to customer mistreatment. Based on goal failure perspective and frustration-aggression framework, mistreated acts of customers towards frontline employees are partly viewed as expressions of frustrated or dissatisfied service experiences. Therefore, it is argued that these acts may be triggered by service-related and frontline employee-related factors, such as employees' personality traits and demographics, employee resources, organizational climate and job-related factors. Meta-analytic results show that among employee related factors, customer orientation of frontline employee strongly decrease employees exposure to customer mistreatment. Employees with high negative affectivity are reported higher exposure to customer mistreatment. It is also found that customer mistreatment is positively related with neuroticism and negatively related with agreeableness. However, contrary to our expectations, we found no significant relationship between extraversion and customer mistreatment. Among organizational factors, results show strong relationship between customer mistreatment and coworker mistreatment. Employees, who are exposed to coworker mistreatment, are more likely to be exposed to customer mistreatment. Job autonomy and organizational support also decrease customer mistreatment. This study

show that decreasing customer mistreatment is possible by controlling organizational and employee-related factors. It is suggested service managers should mainly invest in customer oriented employees and try to decrease intra-organizational dysfunctional issues for facilitating healthy relationships between employees and their customers.

Finally, it is argued that age and tenure can be viewed as a resource that decrease exposure to customer mistreatment in high power distance cultures, rather than low power distance cultures. Meta-analytic results support that frontline employees tenure and age decrease customer mistreatment in low power distance countries but there is no significant correlation in high power distance countries. Therefore, it may be meaningless to invest in tenured and aged customers in high power distance countries, such as Middle East, Far East, Medditeranean and Former Communist Block countries.

Second meta-analytic study examines the effect of customer mistreatment on dysfunctional employee behaviors. We found that employees, who are mistreated by customers, are more likely to perform dysfunctional behaviors. On the other side, supporting our typology, we found different effects sizes on different dysfunctional behavior types. Employees cope with customer mistreatment by performing indirect or ambiguous dysfunctional behaviors (e.g. incivility against other employees, sabotaging service processes, withdrawal, excessive usage of company resources), rather than direct, unambiguous acts (e.g. aggression, venting, yelling). Most possibly, employees treat mistreated customers with lack of regard and respect (incivility).

At the final stage, author conduct two experimental studies that investigate the issue from the perspective of customers. Person-targeted dysfunctional issues may have widespread consequences on customers because they are not only the perpetrator or victim of aggression and incivility; they are also witnesses that observe aggressive and uncivil treatments during their service experiences and they may change their judgments about the service providers based on these experiences. Driving on appraisal theory of self-conscious emotions, these experiments contribute to the literature by uncovering emotional appraisal processes of customers when they witness aggression and incivility in service settings. It is confirmed that witnessing aggression during service experiences affect avoidance-oriented emotions (shame and embarrassment) and pacify positive behavioral intentions related to service providers. In second experiment it is also shown that aggression and incivility have distinct relations with self-conscious emotions. While witnessing employee and customer

aggression elicit shame and embarrassment, witnessing incivility only elicits embarrassment. These results also support our typology that argues aggression and incivility are distinct but related constructs that have different relationships with specific emotional constructs.

Consequently, this thesis project contributes to the literature by analyzing internal structure of harm-motivated behaviors in service context and its antecedents and consequences from different point-of-views by using multiple methods. It is believed that this thesis provides valid explanations for the main characteristics of dark side issues, formation of these types of behaviors in service exchanges and results on service actors emotions and behaviors.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Studies that was used in Meta-Analysis

(Adams and Buck, 2010; Adams and Webster, 2013; Akkawanitcha and Patterson, 2017; Arasli et al., 2018; Arnold and Walsh, 2015; Bakker, Demerouti, Taris, Schaufeli, and Schreurs, 2003; Bakker, Schaufeli, Sixma, Bosveld, and Van Dierendonck, 2000; Baranik, Wang, Gong, and Shi, 2017; Barling, Rogers, and Kelloway, 2001; Beitler, Machowski, Johnson, and Zapf, 2016; Ben-Zur and Yagil, 2005; Booth et al., 2018; Briggs, Jaramillo, and Noboa, 2015; Büssing and Höge, 2004; Campana and Hammoud, 2015; Chang and Lyons, 2013; Chen, 2016; Chi et al., 2013; Chi, Yang, and Lin, 2018; Cho, Bonn, Han, and Lee, 2016; Choi, Kim, Lee, and Lee, 2014; Crabbe, Alexander, Klein, Walker, and Sinclair, 2002; Dahling, 2017; Darrat, Mulki, and Swimberghe, 2017; Deery, Iverson, and Walsh, 2002; Deery, Walsh, and Guest, 2011; Dierendonck and Mevissen, 2002; Dormann and Zapf, 2004; Dudenhöffer and Dormann, 2013; Dupré et al., 2014; Enosh and Tzafrir, 2015; Enosh, Tzafrir, and Stolovy, 2015; Evers, Tomic, and André Brouwers, 2001; Gettman and Gelfand, 2007; Goldberg and Grandey, 2007; Goussinsky, 2011, 2012, 2013, 2015; Goussinsky and Livne, 2016; Grandey et al., 2004; Grandey, Foo, Groth, and Goodwin, 2012; Grandey et al., 2007; Greenbaum, Quade, Mawritz, Kim, and Crosby, 2014; Guidroz, Burnfield-Geimer, Clark, Schwetschenau, and Jex, 2010; Guidroz, Wang, and Perez, 2012; S. J. Han, Bonn, and Cho, 2016; Hanson, Perrin, Moss, Laharnar, and Glass, 2015; Harris, 2013; Hensel, Lunskey, and Dewa, 2012; Ho and Gupta, 2014; Holmvall and Sidhu, 2007; Hsin Hui Hu, Hu, and King, 2017; Hsiu Hua Hu, Hsu, Lee, Chang, and Hsu, 2011; X. Hu, Zhan, Garden, Wang, and Shi, 2017; E. M. Hunter and Penney, 2014; Hur, Moon, and Han, 2015; Hutton and Gates, 2008; Irwin and Cederblad, 2017; Jiang, Tripp, and Hong, 2017; Johnson et al., 2013; Jung, Brown, and Zablah, 2017; Kao, Cheng, Kuo, and Huang, 2014; Karaeminogullari, Erdogan, and Bauer, 2018; Karatepe, 2011; Karatepe and Anumbose Nkendon, 2014; Karatepe and Ehsani, 2012; Karatepe, Yorganci, and Haktanir, 2009, 2010; Kashif, Zarkada, and Thurasamy, 2017; Keashly, Hunter, and Harvey, 1997; Kern and

Grandey, 2009; G. Kim, Ro, Hutchinson, and Kwun, 2014; H. J. Kim, Shin, and Swanger, 2009; T. T. Kim, Paek, Choi, and Lee, 2012; Kumar Madupalli and Poddar, 2014; LeBlanc and Kelloway, 2002; E. K. Lee, Hong, and Avgar, 2015; G. Lee, Kim, Shin, and Oh, 2012; Li and Zhou, 2013; X.-Y. Liu, Kwan, and Chiu, 2014; Y. Liu et al., 2017; Molino et al., 2016; Morash et al., 2008; Morganson and Major, 2014; Mueller and Tschan, 2011; Mulki and Wilkinson, 2017; Mullen and Kelloway, 2013; Niven, Sprigg, and Armitage, 2013; Richard, Bupp, and Alzaidalsharief, 2016; Rupp, Silke McCance, Spencer, and Sonntag, 2008; Rupp and Spencer, 2006; Schonfeld, 1990; Shao and Skarlicki, 2014; Shih, Lie, Klein, and Jiang, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2016, 2008; Sliter and Boyd, 2015; Sliter et al., 2010; Sliter, Pui, Sliter, and Jex, 2011; Sliter, Sliter, and Jex, 2012; Sliter et al., 2015; Sliter and Jones, 2016; G. Song and Liu, 2010; Y. Song et al., 2017; Spencer and Rupp, 2009; Sprigg, Armitage, and Hollis, 2007; Torres, van Niekerk, and Orłowski, 2017; Totterdell and Holman, 2003; Tremmel and Sonnentag, 2017; Tsouloupas, Carson, Matthews, Grawitch, and Barber, 2010; Van Dierendonck, Schaufeli, and Sixma, 1994; van Jaarsveld et al., 2010; Viotti and Converso, 2015, 2016; Viotti, Gilardi, Guglielmetti, and Converso, 2015; Volmer, Niessen, Binnewies, and Sonnentag, 2012; Walker et al., 2014; Walker, van Jaarsveld, and Skarlicki, 2017; B. R. Walsh and Clarke, 2003; G. Walsh, 2011, 2014; G. Walsh, Yang, Dose, and Hille, 2015; M. Wang et al., 2013, 2011; X. Wang and Wang, 2017; Weber, Bradley, and Sparks, 2017; Wegge, van Dick, and von Bernstorff, 2010; Wegge, Vogt, and Wecking, 2007; Wen, Li, and Hou, 2016; Wessel and Steiner, 2015; Wilson and Holmvall, 2013; Winstanley and Whittington, 2002; Wood et al., 2013; Yagil and Ben-Zur, 2009; Yagil et al., 2008; Yang and Diefendorff, 2009; Yeh, 2015; J. Yoo, 2013; J. Yoo and Frankwick, 2013; J. J. E. Yoo et al., 2015; Yragui, Demsky, Hammer, Van Dyck, and Neradilek, 2017; Yue, Wang, and Groth, 2016; Yue et al., 2017; Zhan, Wang, and Shi, 2016; R. Zhang, Redfern, Newman, and Ferreira-Meyers, 2016)

APPENDIX B: Online Materials for Experiment 1 and Experiment 2

Restaurant Experiment
Welcome to our study
<p>Dear Respondents,</p> <p>Hi, we are marketing academics at Istanbul Technical University. This survey is a part of our research study which we are conducting in the US. The purpose of our study is to <u>investigate customers' views related to their restaurant experiences</u>. We very much appreciate your willingness to help us out.</p> <p>In this survey, you will first be presented with <u>ascenario</u> in a restaurant setting. Please <u>* imagine yourself in the scenario and answer the related questions</u> <u>** read the directions for each section and answer ALL the questions</u>. Some of the questions may sound similar, or a little strange, but they all have a purpose.</p> <p>There are no right or wrong answers.</p> <p>All your answers will only be used for academic purposes. All the information collected in this survey will be kept completely confidential. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact Prof. Ayşe Banu Elmadağ Baş in the Management Engineering Department at Istanbul Technical University @ +902122931300 - 2022. If you have any questions about this research, please contact me at mokan@itu.edu.tr</p> <p>We greatly appreciate your help!!!</p> <p>The survey takes appoximately 5-7 minutes to finish.</p> <p>Mehmet Okan (mokan@itu.edu.tr) Prof. Ayşe Banu Elmadağ Bas (elmadaga@itu.edu.tr)</p> <p>Management Engineering Department Istanbul Technical University</p>

Restaurant Experiment

Please read the scenario carefully and imagine yourself in the described situation and then answer the questions

Restaurant Experiment

A 16.65% Imagine that, you and your friends decide to go to your favorite restaurant for lunch.

As you enter the restaurant, you and your friends are escorted to an available table.

After being seated, the waiter comes to take orders. You and your friends each order main courses and drinks. As you're waiting for your order to arrive, one of the servers (Server A) accidentally hits an empty chair and trips. Another server (Server B) sees that, approaches the server who tripped and says "**Be careful, you fucking idiot. You are such a lousy asshole! Do your fucking job properly!**". You and your friends hear that. You keep watching these servers, and notice that Server B **keeps rebuking** the server who tripped while they are going to the back of the restaurant.

After that, your orders arrive without any problem. You and your friends start eating...

B 16.67% Imagine that, you and your friends decide to go to your favorite restaurant for lunch.

As you enter the restaurant, you and your friends are escorted to an available table.

After being seated, the waiter comes to take orders. You and your friends each order main courses and drinks. As you're waiting for your order to arrive, one of the servers (Server A) accidentally hits an empty chair and trips. Another server (Server B) sees that, approaches the server who tripped and says "**Be careful. Do your job properly!**". You and your friends hear that. You keep watching these servers, and notice that Server B keeps warning the server who tripped while they are going to the back of the restaurant.

After that, your orders arrive without any problem. You and your friends start eating...

C 16.67% Imagine that, you and your friends decide to go to your favorite restaurant for lunch.

As you enter the restaurant, you and your friends are escorted to an available table.

After being seated, the waiter comes to take orders. You and your friends each order main courses and drinks. As you're waiting for your order to arrive, one of the servers (Server A) accidentally hits an empty chair and trips. You and your friends as well as another server (Server B) see that. You realize that Server A and Server B were looking at each other but they do not say a word.

After that, your orders arrive without any problem. You and your friends start eating...

D 16.67% Imagine that, you and your friends decide to go to your favorite restaurant for lunch.

As you enter the restaurant, you and your friends are escorted to an available table.

After being seated, the waiter comes to take orders. You and your friends each order main courses and drinks. As you're waiting for your order to arrive, a customer (Customer A) accidentally hits an empty chair at another customer's (Customer B) table and trips. Customer B stands up and says "**Be careful, you fucking idiot. You are such a lousy asshole. Walk properly!**". You and your friends hear that. You keep watching these customers, and notice that Customer B **keeps rebuking** Customer A about tripping as Customer A walks away.

After that, your orders arrive without any problem. You and your friends start eating...

E
16.67% Imagine that, you and your friends decide to go to your favorite restaurant for lunch.

As you enter the restaurant, you and your friends are escorted to an available table.

After being seated, the waiter comes to take orders. You and your friends each order main courses and drinks. As you're waiting for your order to arrive, a customer (Customer A) accidentally hits an empty chair at another customer's (Customer B) table and trips. Customer B stands up and says "**Be careful. Walk properly!**". You and your friends hear that. You keep watching these customers, and notice that Customer B keeps warning Customer A about tripping as Customer A walks away.

After that, your orders arrive without any problem. You and your friends start eating...

F
16.67% Imagine that, you and your friends decide to go to your favorite restaurant for lunch.

As you enter the restaurant, you and your friends are escorted to an available table.

After being seated, the waiter comes to take orders. You and your friends each order main courses and drinks. As you're waiting for your order to arrive, a customer (Customer A) accidentally hits an empty chair at another customer's (Customer B) table and trips. You realize that Customer A and Customer B were looking at each other but they do not say a word.

After that, your orders arrive without any problem. You and your friends start eating...

Restaurant Experiment

1. Please indicate how you would feel if you were dining in the restaurant described in the scenario.

	Not at all (1)	2	3	4	5	6	Very (7)
How embarrassed would you feel?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How awkward would you feel?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How uncomfortable would you feel?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How much regret would you feel about going to this restaurant?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How much disappointment would you feel?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How much shame would you feel?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How disgraced would you feel?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How much remorse would you feel?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How insecure would you feel?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How vulnerable would you feel?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How much guilt would you feel?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How humiliated would you feel?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
How angry would you be because of what happened?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

2. Please indicate how you would feel about **the person who tripped** and **the situation** if you were dining in the restaurant described in the scenario

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
I would feel embarrassed for this person	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would feel sorry for the person	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would feel connected with the person	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can imagine how I would feel if I were in that person's situation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can imagine how painful it was for that person	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would be sorry about what happened	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would support that person if I could	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would want to comfort that person	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would wish I had gone to another restaurant with my friends	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would feel bad about this situation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would feel humiliated about this situation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would feel ashamed about this situation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would feel embarrassed about this situation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Things would have gone better if I had gone to another restaurant with my friends	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Restaurant Experiment

3. The following questions are related to your judgments about the restaurant in the scenario. Please indicate your level of agreement to each statement

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am satisfied with the restaurant in general	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I feel pleased with the restaurant in the scenario	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The restaurant met my expectations very well	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would go this restaurant again	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would recommend this restaurant to friends and family	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Restaurant Experiment

6. I think the people in the scenario went too far for my own standards

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither disagree nor agree	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Restaurant Experiment

7. Please indicate what you would think if you were dining in the restaurant described scenario. Please click the most appropriate response

	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly Agree
The interaction between the two people in the restaurant was respectful	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Inappropriate words were used during the interaction	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Disrespectful words were uttered during the interaction	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The people in the scenario had no respect towards each other	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Rude behavior was observed during the interaction	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Negative behavior was presented by the person in the scenario	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think the behavior described in the scenario is uncivil	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think the behavior described in the scenario is aggressive	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think the behavior described in the scenario is purposely harmful	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Restaurant Experiment

9. The following questions are related to your views of the scenario you read. Please indicate your level of agreement to each statement

	Strongly Disagree	1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly Agree
I think there are service situations like this in real life	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I think there are people like this in real life	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The scenario is believable	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I was able to adopt the role of the customer described in the scenario	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

10. I think purpose of the study was: (please click one of the three options below)

- To learn about customer's views about their restaurant experiences
- Other (please specify below)
- Don't know

11. If your answer is "other", please specify

Classification Questions

12. What is your age? Please write

13. What is your gender?

Female Male

14. What is your education level?

Less than high school High school Some college College degree Graduate degree

15. Which country are you from?

16. Currently, are you working as a server in a restaurant

Yes No

17. Have you ever worked as a server in a restaurant?

Yes No

18. Currently, are you a full time student?

Yes No

19. How would you define yourself?

- Hispanic / Latin American
- Asian / Pasific Islander / Asian American
- African American
- Caucasian
- American Indian / Alaskan Native

Multiple Ethnicity / Other (please specify)

In order for us to compensate you for your time and effort, we need you to make up a 5 digit completion code number, enter it below first, and then again on MTurk

20. Please make up and enter a 5-digit completion code number (e.g., first 5-digits of your phone number). We ask you not to choose 12345. Please make a note of this number if you think you'll have trouble remembering it, as you'll have to enter same number on Mechanical Turk again after submitting this survey.

CODE:

PLEASE REMEMBER TO ENTER THIS CODE INTO THE MECHANICAL PAGE AFTER SUBMITTING THIS SURVEY ON THE NEXT PAGE. OTHERWISE, WE WON'T KNOW THAT YOU COMPLETED THE SURVEY AND WE WON'T BE ABLE TO COMPENSATE YOU

CURRICULUM VITAE



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Publications

Published Articles

- **Okan, M. & Elmadağ, Banu.** (2018). A hierarchical approach for defining and classifying constructs in management and marketing research: examples from the field of dysfunctional behavior. Pressacademia. 5. 55-65. 10.17261/Pressacademia.2018.807.

- Demiray, M., **Okan, M.**, & Karadayi, S. (2014). Effects of Personal Issues on the Consumers' Product Failure Evaluations. *Journal of Euromarketing*, 23, 19-28.
- **Okan, M.**, & Burnaz, S. (2017). Tüketici etigi çerçevesinde korsan tüketim: Sosyo-bilissel bir model önerisi. *METU Studies in Development*, 44(1), 69.

Conference Presentations

- **Okan, M.** and Elmadağ, A. Banu (2018) "Targeted Dysfunctionality: A Systematic Review and Conceptualization", 20th AMS World Marketing Congress, Porto, Portugal, June 2018
- Genc, E., **Okan, M.** & Elmadağ, A. Banu (2017) "Are Artists Disentangled from the Market? Early Ethnographic Insights from The Turkish Market", 2017 Consumer Culture Theory Conference, California, USA, July 2017
- Döğerlioğlu Demir, Kıvılcım and **Okan, M.**, "Consumer attachment styles and preference for participating in sharing systems", EMAC 2016 Conference, EMAC (European Marketing Academy), Norway, May 2016
- **Mehmet Okan**, A. Banu Elmadağ and Selime Sezgin (2015), "Does Incivility Cost? Examining the Effects of Incivility in Service Settings", 18th AMS World Marketing Congress, Bari, Italy, June 2015
- **Mehmet Okan** and A. Banu Elmadağ, (2014) "Advertising Incivility: The Effects of Uncivil Message Frames on Consumer Reactions", 2014, AMA Summer, San Francisco, USA, August, 2014
- Demiray, M., **Okan, M.**, & Karadayi, S. (2014). Effects of Personal Issues on the Consumers' Product Failure Evaluations. 23rd World Business Congress of the IMDA, Ankara, 24.06.2014 - 28.06.2014, *Best Paper Award
- **Okan, M.**, Demiray, M., Karadayi, S., Solmaz, M. F. & Çoban, V. (2014). The impact of product failures on consumer attitudes and behaviors, National Marketing Conference (Ulusal Pazarlama Kongresi), 2014, Gaziantep.