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Emotional exhaustion and its role in service sabotage among boundary spanners

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Emotional Exhaustion and Its Role in Service Sabotage among Boundary Spanners

by

Diane R. Edmondson

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my family who has provided unconditional support throughout my entire doctoral program. Without my family's love and support, this degree would not have been possible. There are no words which can be said to fully express my gratitude to my parents and my son, Aaron, for all of their help and support that was necessary to pursue this degree.

I thank both my mother and father for their dedication and sacrifices that they have made. I also thank my son who was my inspiration for continuing my education. Finally, I thank my many friends and family who have encouraged me throughout this journey.

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Emotional Exhaustion and Its Role in Service Sabotage among Boundary Spanners

Diane R. Edmondson

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this dissertation is to investigate how emotional exhaustion (EE) impacts a boundary spanning employee's usage of service sabotage behaviors (SSB). This dissertation also investigates how perceived organizational support (POS) and perceived supervisory support (PSS) alleviate a boundary spanning employee's EE and SSB. Furthermore, this dissertation examines how extraversion (EXT) and imagination (IMAG) moderates the relationship between POS and SSB and between PSS and SSB.

A boundary spanning employee is any organizational employee who "engages in job-related interactions with a person who is considered part of the environment, who is not a member of the organization" (Robertson 1995, p. 75). These employees are important as research has shown that consumers use the attitudes and behaviors of these employees to positively or negatively impact their perceptions of the service encounter (e.g. Bitner 1990; Bowen and Schneider 1985; Pugh 2001).

SSB are overt or covert behaviors which negatively affect the relationship between the organization and the customer (Harris and Ogbonna 2006, 2002). Rather than the boundary spanning employee engaging in negative behaviors towards other employees or the organization as a whole, SSB are acted upon the customer.

EE occurs when an employee believes they are overextended by their work (Maslach and Jackson 1981). Boundary spanning employees are forced to display organizationally desired emotions even when encountering negative customers (Cordes and Dougherty 1993; Mulki, Jaramillo and Locander 2006). This interaction between the customer and employee may result in discontent and the employee may engage in SSB as a way to show this discontent.

A boundary spanner's EE is hypothesized to positively impact SSB; therefore, it is important to investigate what will reduce or mitigate a boundary spanner's EE. Two constructs that are hypothesized to reduce both EE and SSB are POS and PSS.

In order to test the hypotheses developed in this dissertation, 490 non-management retail sales and customer service employees across a variety of organizations were sampled. Results found that EE positively impacts SSB. EE also partially mediates the relationship between POS and SSB. The hypotheses associated with PSS, EXT and IMAG were not supported.

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Boundary spanning employees have long been of interest to marketing academics and managers because of the importance that these employees have on overall organization performance (Schwepker and Hartline 2005). Boundary spanning employees are employees who engage in interactions with individuals who are not members of the organization (Robertson 1995). Boundary spanning employees include salespeople, customer service representatives, nurses, teachers, policemen, and fast food employees.

These employees have three unique roles which distinguish them from other organizational employees. First, boundary spanning employees disseminate information coming from the external environment back to the organization (Bettencourt, Gwinner, and Meuter 2001; Schneider and Brown 1984). Second, they represent the face of the organization to the customer (Bettencourt, Gwinner, and Meuter 2001; Schneider and Brown 1984). Third, they must exhibit organizationally desired emotions during interactions with customers (Arnold and Barling 2003) *even* if these emotions are not a reflective of their true feelings (Adelmann 1996).

After examining the boundary roles, the critical role of boundary spanning employees is the employees' ability to exhibit organizationally desired emotions. Gronroos (1990) defined the service encounter as the "moment of truth" where customers perceive service quality. It is during the interaction between the customer and the

employee that service quality is most salient (Bitner, Booms and Mohr 1994). If an employee fails to exhibit the proper emotions or manage the image of the organization during the service encounter, the customer may develop less favorable impressions about the organization (Howard and Gengler 2001; Pugh 2001; Verbeke 1997). Furthermore, Yoon, Beatty and Suh (2001) found that an employee's satisfaction affects the service evaluation by customers. That is, if an employee is not satisfied with his or her job then this dissatisfaction will negatively impact service quality. For the boundary spanning employee, job satisfaction may be impacted by dealing with irate, hostile, and rude customers. Job satisfaction may also be affected by issues with the organization.

In essence, boundary spanning employees are subject to pressures and strains not found in other positions in the organization (Mulki, Jaramillo and Locander 2006). Research has found that boundary spanning employees are subject to a great deal of stress because they "are caught in a difficult position when they perceive that client demands cannot or will not be met by the organization" (Cordes and Dougherty 1993, p. 644). These employees are in a "three-cornered fight" as the customer and the organization are at competing ends with the boundary spanning employee caught in the middle (Bateson 1985; Singh 2000). If boundary spanning employees do not have the ability to get rid of the conflict between customer and organizational demands, the employees may engage in service sabotage as a way to show their unhappiness with the organization.

Service sabotage examines voluntary, overt and covert behaviors that negatively affect the relationship between the organization and the customer (Harris and Ogbonna 2006, 2002). Service sabotage is only conducted by boundary spanning employees to the final customer in service settings; therefore, only behaviors which would negatively

affect the customer-organization relationship are included. Some examples of service sabotage include a boundary spanning employee being rude to a customer, purposely overcharging or undercharging a customer's purchase, intentionally working slower than expected, and showing favoritism to certain customers. The limited research in service sabotage has found that more than 85% of customer-contact employees admitted to engaging in some form of service sabotage in a one week period (Harris and Ogbonna 2002). This indicates that these negative service sabotage behaviors may be common in the services industry.

Harris and Ogbonna (2006) examined six significant factors that influenced service sabotage. In this study, they found that an employee's risk taking proclivity, need for social approval and perceptions of labor market fluidity positively impacted service sabotage behaviors. An employee's desire to stay with his or her current firm, perceptions of surveillance and perceptions of cultural control inversely impacted service sabotage behaviors. These are factors that influence a boundary spanner's engagement in service sabotage, but they do not examine why a boundary spanning employee is willing to engage in service sabotage in the first place. Except for risk taking proclivity, Harris and Ogbonna (2006) predominantly examine organizational and job related factors; however, these factors do not explain why an employee is willing to engage in service sabotage at an individual level. Therefore, one of the aims in this dissertation is to uncover why a boundary spanning employee is willing to engage in service sabotage.

This dissertation proposes that emotional exhaustion is the key reason why boundary spanning employees engage in service sabotage. Emotional exhaustion has been defined as "the feeling of being emotionally overextended by ones' work" (Maslach

and Jackson 1981, p. 101). According to Conservation Resources Theory, emotional exhaustion occurs when an employee does not have the ability to face excessive job demands or job conflict. Boundary spanning employees are more susceptible to emotional exhaustion because of the organization's requirement that these employees display organizationally desired emotions even when dealing with hostile customers (Cordes and Dougherty 1993; Mulki, Jaramillo and Locander 2006). This negative interaction between the employee and customer can cause a boundary spanning employee to resent both the customer and the organization. Furthermore, the emotional exhaustion of a boundary spanning employee may lead that employee to withdraw from the organization or provide decreased performance (Cordes and Dougherty 1993).

One behavior that an emotionally exhausted boundary spanning employee may engage in to express his or her disgruntlement with the organization is service sabotage. Although emotional exhaustion has not been previously tested with service sabotage, there has been one study that found that emotional exhaustion is positively related to deviant behavior. Research has found that higher levels of emotional exhaustion led to higher engagement in deviant behavior (Mulki, Jaramillo and Locander 2006). Some examples of deviant behavior include calling in sick when the employee was not, neglecting to follow a boss's instructions, and leaving work early without permission. Conservation resources theory suggests that stress (e.g. dealing with hostile customers) reduces an employee's available resources (e.g. self-esteem, satisfaction, time) such that a loss of resources will negatively impact the employee's ability to do his or her job (e.g. Halbesleben and Buckley 2004, Hobfoll 1989). This loss in resources can cause the boundary spanning employee to be emotionally exhausted as he or she is unable to face

the excessive job demands, which can cause resentment towards both the organization and customer. This resentment may lead the employee to engage in negative behaviors such as service sabotage. It is proposed that emotional exhaustion is a key construct and explains why boundary spanning employees are willing to engage in service sabotage, even though there are negative consequences for the employees if caught by the organization.

It is important to investigate what an organization can do to reduce or mitigate a boundary spanner's emotional exhaustion and service sabotage because of the negative ramifications that service sabotage can have on the organization. The following quote by a regional hotel manager sums up the negative effects that a single episode of service sabotage can do to an organization, especially since customers like to share negative experiences with others (e.g. negative word-of-mouth):

“If service slips for any reason, sales will fall. If you've got staff intentionally sabotaging service I'd suspect that sales plummet! Poor service is something people enjoy telling others about. The business travelers are a good example of this—one bad incident and you'll lose an entire company—that can literally cost millions” (Harris and Ogbonna 2002, p.177).

Basically employees engaging in behaviors that negatively affect the customer-organization relationship may cost the service organization sales and customers and ultimately may cause the organization to fail.

Hence this dissertation considers two constructs that could possibly mitigate a boundary spanner's emotional exhaustion and service sabotage. These two constructs are perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support. Perceived

organizational support (POS) is defined as employees' "global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson and Sowa 1986, p. 501). Perceived supervisory support (PSS) deals with the employees' global beliefs concerning the extent to which the supervisor values their contribution and cares about their well-being (Kottke and Sharafinski 1988). Employees who believe that their organization or supervisor is committed to them will be committed to the organization or supervisor (e.g. Eisenberger, Lynch, Aselage and Rohdieck 2004; Kottke and Sharafinski 1988).

When an employee is in a supportive environment, then the employee is given the necessary tools to complete his or her job. A supportive organizational and supervisory environment will also help boundary spanning employees deal with the pressures and challenges associated with their job. By reducing the pressures associated with the job because of adequate supervisory and organizational support, it is proposed that boundary spanning employees will exhibit less emotional exhaustion. This is supported by conservation resources theory such that employees who are in a supportive work environment will be given the resources necessary to complete their job which will result in a reduced amount of emotional exhaustion (Halbesleben and Buckley 2004).

Furthermore, in a supportive environment, boundary spanning employees desire to help the organization reach their organizational and supervisory goals. This desire to help their supervisor and organization reach their goals may lead boundary spanning employees to be less inclined to engage in service sabotage behaviors. According to the norm of reciprocity, an employee that believes the organization cares about them will desire to help the organization by engaging in organizationally desired behaviors

(Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, and Rhoades 2001). It is proposed that perceived organizational and supervisory support will reduce a boundary spanner's service sabotage behavior.

Perceived organizational and supervisory support involves relationships between individuals. Since individuals have personalities, the personality of the employee is an important moderator that must be considered. Service organizations typically desire hiring individuals who are extraverted, imaginative, agreeable, conscientious, and emotionally stable (e.g. Barrick and Mount 1991; Bettencourt and Gwinner 1996; Hurley 1998). Two of these characteristics, extraversion and imagination, may lend to higher levels of service sabotage behavior; therefore, these two are the focus of this dissertation. An extraverted employee is gregarious, sociable, active, assertive, playful, impulsive, expressive, spontaneous, and dominant (John and Srivastava 1999). An imaginative employee is more original, creative, complex, analytical, artistic, and daring than individuals low in imagination (John and Srivastava 1999). Unfortunately, little research exists which investigates the importance of personality on service sabotage. In this dissertation, it is hypothesized that extraversion and imagination will moderate the relationships between perceived organizational support and service sabotage as well as between perceived supervisory support and service sabotage.

This dissertation also utilizes a direct measure of service sabotage behavior. The prior measure of service sabotage uses an indirect measure of service sabotage such that respondents were asked if people in their organization engaged in negative service sabotage behaviors (Harris and Ogbonna 2006). This is a weakness in Harris and Ogbonna's (2006) approach as it is not possible to determine if this measure would hold

at the individual level. Using an indirect approach, it is impossible to determine if the respondent was the one who actually engaged in the behavior or if other employees in the organization were the ones that engaged in these behaviors. Based on similar measures, such as counterproductive work behavior and workplace deviance (e.g. Mulki, Jaramillo and Locander 2006; Spector and Fox 2005), there is precedence for using a direct measure to determine if a particular employee has actually engaged in these negative behaviors so a direct measure is being used.

Given the model described above and shown in Figure 1, this dissertation is going to compare and contrast this model with the significant antecedents of Harris and Ogbonna's (2006) model. The aim is to show that a parsimonious model such as the one developed in this dissertation explains service sabotage better than the Harris and Ogbonna (2006) model.

Overall, this dissertation investigates why boundary spanning employees are willing to engage in service sabotage as well as what an organization can do to lessen the effects of service sabotage. It is important to understand the motivations behind why boundary spanning employees might engage in service sabotage. By understanding a boundary spanning employees' motivations, researchers and practitioners can develop guidelines organizations can use to avoid or reduce service sabotage and the organization can be successful (Caudron 1995; Harris and Ogbonna 2002).

Research Propositions

Figure 1 is a visual aid designed to understand the theoretical framework guiding the current empirical investigation. The model is constructed to develop a rationale for why employees are willing to engage in service sabotage behaviors. This model is also constructed to show what an organization can do to reduce service sabotage and emotional exhaustion. A more detailed discussion of the model is discussed in Chapter 2. As the model shows, the four research propositions that guide the current research endeavor are:

- (1) Does emotional exhaustion positively impact a boundary spanner's engagement of service sabotage behavior?
- (2) Does perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support mitigate a boundary spanner's emotional exhaustion?
- (3) Does emotional exhaustion partially mediate the relationships between perceived organizational support and service sabotage behavior and between perceived supervisory support and service sabotage behavior?
- (4) Do the personality factors of extraversion and imagination moderate the relationships between perceived organizational support and service sabotage behavior and between perceived supervisory support and service sabotage behavior?

Proposed Contributions of the Dissertation

There are contributions in this dissertation. One contribution of this dissertation is that it will create a better understanding as to why boundary spanning employees are willing to engage in these negative service sabotage behaviors through an empirical

investigation of emotional exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion is proposed to be the leading reason behind why boundary spanning employees are willing to engage in service sabotage.

This dissertation also investigates what an organization can do to mitigate emotional exhaustion and service sabotage through perceived organizational and supervisory support. By providing adequate organizational and supervisory support, the boundary spanning employee will not be as emotionally exhausted, which will lead to less service sabotage.

Finally, the personality characteristics of extraversion and imagination are considered as moderators. Organizations typically desire hiring extraverted and imaginative individuals (Barrick and Mount 1991; Bettencourt and Gwinner 1996, Hurley 1998). This dissertation examines these personality factors as possible individual characteristics that would lead to an increase in service sabotage.

Furthermore, this dissertation examines service sabotage at an individual level by investigating why a boundary spanning employee is willing to engage in these negative behaviors. Prior models of service sabotage (Harris and Ogbonna 2002, 2006) have investigated the factors that influence service sabotage. While certain factors exist that influence a boundary spanner's usage of service sabotage such as those found by Harris and Ogbonna (2006), more investigation is needed at the individual level in order to determine why a boundary spanning employee is willing to engage in these types of behaviors in the first place. In this way, this dissertation will shed more light on the process of service sabotage. In addition, this dissertation will also measure all of the factors that Harris and Ogbonna (2006) found to be significant indicators of service

sabotage (risk-taking proclivity, need for social approval, labor market fluidity, desire to stay with firm, perceptions of surveillance, perceptions of cultural control) so that Harris and Ogbonna's (2006) model can be compared and contrasted to the model developed in this dissertation. By comparing these two models, one aim in this dissertation is to show that emotional exhaustion does impact service sabotage, above and beyond the prior significant antecedents.

Another contribution of this dissertation is a direct measure of service sabotage that asks respondents how often the boundary spanning employees have done a list of service sabotage behaviors. The prior measure of service sabotage utilizes an indirect measure in which boundary spanners are asked if other people in their organization have engaged in service sabotage. The indirect measure asks respondents if they know of anyone in their organization that has engaged in service sabotage. By using an indirect measure, it is impossible to determine if the respondent actually engaged in service sabotage or if someone else did. There are other measures, such as counterproductive work behavior and workplace deviance (e.g. Mulki, Jaramillo and Locander 2006; Spector and Fox 2005; Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh and Kessler 2006) that have successfully used a direct approach by candidly asking the respondents how often they have engaged in these negative behaviors.

Managerial Implications

As the service industry expands and competition among service providers increases, it is important that managers and academics appreciate and understand why

boundary spanning employees would engage in service sabotage behaviors and what can be done to minimize these behaviors.

Because of this, one proposed managerial implication is that this dissertation will show that managers and organizations must provide supervisory and organizational support in order to lessen the negative effects of service sabotage behavior. Boundary spanning employees, who do not believe that the organization or supervisor cares about their well-being and values their contribution, will not be as committed to the organization or supervisor. These employees will be more inclined to engage in service sabotage behaviors. However by providing an adequate amount of organizational and supervisory support, the organization and supervisor can reduce the possibility that their employees will engage in service sabotage behavior.

Furthermore, managers need to adapt the hiring process at their service organization by considering the applicant's personality so that service sabotage behavior is minimized. This dissertation examines the impact of extraversion and imagination on the relationships between organizational support and service sabotage as well as between supervisory support and service sabotage. Usually managers are interested in hiring employees who are extraverted as these employees tend to do better in their job (Hurley 1998). Managers are also interested in hiring imaginative employees as these employees have the ability to customize the service delivery to the customer's needs (Bettencourt and Gwinner 1996). However, it is possible that these types of individuals are also more likely to engage in service sabotage behavior. For example, extraverted employees may be more inclined to engage in service sabotage since they are impulsive and not affected by any punishment received from the organization (John and Srivastava 1999).

Finally managers must recognize the signs of emotional exhaustion in boundary spanning employees as this can lead to service sabotage behavior. Boundary spanning employees in a service organization must exhibit organizationally desired emotions in front of customers at all times (Mulki, Jaramillo and Locander 2006). If these organizationally desired emotions do not equate to the employee's actual feelings, then emotional exhaustion can occur as the boundary spanning employee will feel physically and/or psychologically and emotionally drained. Due to the emotional exhaustion, boundary spanning employees may engage in service sabotage as this is the one way that these employees can show their discontent with their organization. Because of this, it is important that managers are able to recognize the signs of emotional exhaustion so that service sabotage behaviors can be minimized. Overall, with the knowledge gained from this dissertation, managers will have the opportunity to make informed decisions when managing the service encounter.

Organization of the Dissertation

To examine the relationships among the constructs, this dissertation will be divided into five chapters. Chapter 1 presented a brief introduction of the background, research propositions, and importance of the dissertation. Chapter 2 presents a review of the literature as well as the development of each hypothesis that will be examined in this dissertation. Chapter 3 presents the proposed methodology for this dissertation. It is in this chapter that a discussion of the proposed research design, the sampling procedure, the research and analytical procedures, and the measures to be employed are discussed. Chapter 4 presents the results of both the pilot test and the final study. Chapter 4 also

presents the results of the hypotheses tests. Finally, Chapter 5 discusses the findings and implications of the results as well as avenues for additional research.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

This chapter will first present an overview of boundary spanning personnel and the service encounter. Second, a review of the service sabotage literature and related conceptualizations will be completed. Third, an overview of emotional exhaustion, perceived organizational support, perceived supervisory support, extraversion, and imagination literatures is reviewed. Research hypotheses, based upon theory and prior empirical research, are also developed. A summary of the hypotheses is presented in Table 1.

Boundary Spanning Personnel and the Service Encounter

A boundary spanning employee is any organizational employee who “engages in job-related interactions with a person who is considered part of the environment, who is not a member of the organization” (Robertson 1995, p. 75). Particularly in the services literature (e.g. Chung-Herrera, Goldschmidt and Hoffman 2004; Hartline and Ferrell 1996; Yoon, Seo and Yoon 2004), the boundary spanning employee is also known as a front-line service employee or customer-contact employee. The number of employees in boundary spanning positions has been increasing such that the proportion of boundary spanners to non-boundary spanners is an expanding proportion of many organizations’ labor forces (Babin and Boles 1996; Stamper and Johlke 2003). Boundary spanning

positions include salespeople, customer service representatives, service technicians, retail employees, delivery personnel, teachers, nurses, and professional buyers (e.g. McNeilly and Russ 1992; Russ, McNeilly, Comer and Light 1998; Singh, Verbeke and Rhoads 1996).

Historically, boundary spanning employees have been charged with three roles in the organization. First of all, boundary spanning employees disseminate information coming from the external environment and relay it to the organization. In other words, the boundary spanning employee provides information about the customer's needs to the organization (Bettencourt, Gwinner, and Meuter 2001; Schneider and Brown 1984).

Secondly, boundary spanning employees are a representative of the firm to outsiders. This external representation of the organization is the second responsibility of the boundary spanning employee whereby they are charged with being the face of the organization to the customer (Bettencourt, Gwinner, and Meuter 2001; Schneider and Brown 1984; Stock 2006). This is a significant responsibility because the customer may only interact with the organization through that one person. Therefore, the boundary spanning employee must make sure to manage the image of the organization. In fact, boundary spanning employees can positively or negatively impact the image of the organization (Bettencourt, Gwinner, and Meuter 2001; Schneider and Brown 1984).

Finally, in order to manage the image of the organization, these employees are often required to exhibit organizationally desired emotions during interactions with customers (Arnold and Barling 2003); even if these emotions do not reflect the employee's true feelings (Adelmann 1996). A failure to exhibit the proper emotions or manage the image of the organization during the service encounter may cause the

customer to develop less favorable permanent impressions about the organization.

Because of this, it has been said that the boundary spanning employee is the link between the organization and the outside world (Aldrich and Herker 1977).

Research has shown that boundary spanning employees are directly responsible for service quality (Bitner 1990; Hartline and Ferrell 1996). A service encounter has been defined as any interaction between the customer and the organization. It is during the service encounter where the customer develops permanent impressions about the organization (e.g. Bitner, Booms and Mohr 1994; Bitner 1992) because this is where service quality is most salient (Bitner, Booms and Mohr 1994). Furthermore, the moment of truth regarding whether the service received is satisfactory occurs when the customer interacts with the service employee (Bitner, Booms and Mohr 1994; Bitner 1992).

Because of the intangibility of services, service quality and satisfaction are considerably more difficult for the consumer to evaluate than product quality (Hong and Goo 2004). Therefore, consumers use the attitudes and behaviors of the boundary spanning employees to positively or negatively impact their perceptions of service quality and satisfaction (e.g. Bitner 1990; Bowen and Schneider 1985; Grönroos 1983; Pugh 2001; Yoon, Beatty and Suh 2001). Research has shown that the attitudes and actions of boundary spanning employees are one of the most salient factors in the determination of service performance by the customer (Harris and Ogbonna 2002; Hartline and Ferrell 1996; Sergeant and Frenkel 2000).

Service firms are subject to service delivery failure because they are forced to depend on boundary spanning employees to deliver this service to the customers (Hartline and Ferrell 1996). This is especially true since boundary spanning employees

must exhibit organizationally desired emotions during interactions with customers (Arnold and Barling 2003). The customer may develop less favorable impressions about the organization if the customer observes the employee failing to exhibit the proper emotions or during the service encounter (Howard and Gengler 2001; Pugh 2001; Verbeke 1997).

In addition, boundary spanning employees also work without close supervision; therefore, these “employees have ample opportunity to engage in unethical behaviors” (Schwepker and Hartline 2000, p. 378). One type of unethical behavior a boundary spanning employee can engage in is service sabotage, the focus of this dissertation. Service sabotage behaviors are unethical because they are in violation of the organization’s rules and norms.

Service Sabotage Behavior and Prevalence in Services Industry

Service sabotage is any voluntary, intentional overt or covert behavior by boundary spanning employees that disrupts service encounters and negatively affects the dynamics between the boundary spanning employee and the customer. In other words, service sabotage involves intentional acts by boundary spanning employees that will negatively affect the service received by customers (Harris and Ogbonna 2002; 2006).

Some examples of possible service sabotage behaviors are being rude to the customer; arguing with the customer; publicly embarrassing or laughing at the customer; stealing from the customer; blaming the customer when something goes wrong; showing off in front of a customer; ignoring a customer; purposely overcharging or undercharging

on services provided to the customer; and taking longer than necessary to complete the service.

This negative effect by customers occurs immediately as sabotage behavior of a service encounter is likely to negatively affect a customer's evaluations of that service encounter immediately (e.g. service quality perceptions, customer satisfaction, and customer loyalty) (Harris and Ogbonna 2006). In a service sabotage behavior, the target is the customer rather than other employees (Harris and Ogbonna 2006), even though the customer may have done nothing to warrant the service sabotage. In fact, front-line service employees may engage in service sabotage behaviors since this type of sabotage is the central means through which boundary spanning employees are able to manifest their discontent with the organization (Harris and Ogbonna 2006). It should be noted that the customer or manager does not have to actually perceive the service sabotage behavior for service sabotage to exist (Harris and Ogbonna 2002; Murphy 1993; Slora 1989).

In summary, the main characteristics of service sabotage include:

- An overt or cover behavior
- Completed by boundary spanning employees
- In a service encounter
- That negatively affects some aspect of the service received by customers

Research on boundary spanning employees in a services context intentionally engaging in emotions in behaviors that are detrimental to the organization's goals has largely been ignored in the existing services research (Harris and Ogbonna 2002).

However in other literature streams, primarily management and psychology, research has found that the percentage of employees engaging in dishonest behavior ranges from 5%

(Murphy 1987) to 96% (Slora 1991). Research on counterproductive workplace behaviors has found that the percentage of employees who engage in these negative behaviors varies between 69% (Boye and Slora 1993) and 80% (Boye and Jones 1997). In the services literature, research has found that more than 85% of customer-contact employees admitted to engaging in some form of service sabotage in the past week (Harris and Ogbonna 2002). Furthermore, 100% of the service employees claimed to have witnessed some form of service sabotage behavior in the past (Harris and Ogbonna 2002). These figures exemplify that these negative service sabotage behaviors may be common in the services industry. These figures also show how important it is to investigate these types of behaviors, especially since there are negative ramifications of these behaviors on the organization.

A Comparison between Service Sabotage Behavior and Other Conceptualizations

Although the construct, service sabotage, is relatively new to the literature, other constructs, primarily in the psychology and management literatures, which deal with negative actions on the part of the employee have been investigated over the past few decades. Some of these related constructs include counterproductive work behavior, workplace aggression, antisocial behavior, workplace deviance, organization misbehavior, and workplace sabotage (e.g. Judge, Scott and Ilies 2006; Mulki, Jaramillo and Locander 2006; Spector and Fox 2005; Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh and Kessler 2006).

The main differences between service sabotage and the related constructs mentioned above is that service sabotage deals with a broad range of acts by boundary

spanning employees that will negatively affect the service encounter while the other related constructs are not specific to employee-customer interactions, service situations or boundary spanning employees.

In other words, service sabotage is more specific in that it is only conducted by boundary spanning employees to the final customer in service settings whereas the other related constructs can be completed by any company employee and can be geared towards the organization, employees or other stakeholders (Spector and Fox 2005; Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh and Kessler 2006). This implies that many of the aspects (e.g. employee absenteeism, acts against other employees, production deviance, and organizational theft) considered in the other related construct conceptualizations are not pertinent in service sabotage behavior.

Previous Models of Service Sabotage

In the literature, two previous models of service sabotage have been developed, with only one being empirically investigated. In a qualitative study, Harris and Ogbonna (2002) created a conceptual model of service sabotage after interviewing 182 executives, senior managers, middle managers, front-line managers, and front-line customer-contact employees from four hospitality industry firms (two hotel and restaurant chains and two solely restaurant chains). In this conceptual framework, nineteen propositions were created.

First of all, this model labeled the antecedents of service sabotage behaviors into four categories (individual, group or role, organizational, and environmental). For the individual category, five propositions dealing with an employee's attitude towards risk

taking, career orientation, personality (i.e. extroversion), and demographic factors (age and gender) were developed. For the group or role category, four propositions dealing with the nature of work (i.e. extent of customer-contact), informal socialization practices, on-the-job training practices, and sub-cultural prevalence and strength were created. Only two organizational and two environmental propositions were developed. The organizational propositions involved the surveillance techniques and culture control initiatives while the environmental propositions dealt with the perception of labor market fluidity and the perception of skill transferability between firms.

Finally, in this same model, three types of consequences of service sabotage behaviors were developed. The first consequence type was employee consequences, which included status, self-esteem, stress, and satisfaction. The second consequence type was service performance which included service quality, customer satisfaction, rapport, and customer loyalty. The final consequence type was firm performance and included profitability and sales growth. The final model developed in the Harris and Ogbonna (2002) study is shown in Figure 2.

Unfortunately the model previously discussed has not yet been fully tested empirically; however Harris and Ogbonna (2006) did test a smaller version of the above model. In this model, Harris and Ogbonna (2006) examined seven antecedents of service sabotage including employees' risk-taking proclivity; need for social approval; desire to stay with current firm; perceptions of surveillance; perceptions of cultural control; perceptions of employee-customer contact; and perceptions of labor market fluidity.

This model also tested five consequences of service sabotage, including: self-esteem, perceptions of team spirit, customer rapport; perceptions of functional quality; and perceptions of company performance. This model is shown in Figure 3.

After surveying informants from 259 front-line customer-contact personnel in the food and beverage sector of the hospitality industry (e.g. restaurants), Harris and Ogbonna (2006) found that all but one of the hypotheses was supported (i.e. extent of employee-customer contact was not supported). For the antecedents to service sabotage, risk taking, need for social approval and perceptions of labor market fluidity positively impacted service sabotage behaviors while desire to stay with current firm, perceptions of surveillance and perceptions of cultural control inversely impacted service sabotage behaviors. For the consequences, from the employee's point of view, service sabotage behaviors positively impacted self-esteem and perceptions of team spirit while service sabotage behaviors inversely impacted customer rapport, perceptions of functional quality and perceptions of company performance.

Limitations of Prior Service Sabotage Behavior Research

In the one empirical study on service sabotage by Harris and Ogbonna (2006), the six significant antecedents were all factors that influence a boundary spanner's engagement in service sabotage. These factors were predominantly organizational and job related factors, with only one individual related factor being measured (i.e. risk-taking proclivity). Each factor examines the influence that the factor has on service sabotage but none of the factors explains why a boundary spanning employee is willing to engage in service sabotage. While it is useful to determine what factors exist that

influence service sabotage engagement; more investigation is needed at the individual level in order to determine why a boundary spanning employee is willing to engage in service sabotage in the first place. A goal of this dissertation is to fill this gap through a development of a service sabotage model that is designed to shed more light on the process of service sabotage.

Another issue with the Harris and Ogbonna (2006) study is the usage of an indirect measure of service sabotage. In the Harris and Ogbonna (2006) study, respondents were asked if people in their organization engaged in negative service sabotage behaviors. For example, one of the items in the indirect measure is “People here hurry customers when they want to.” The usage of the indirect measure is a weakness as it is very difficult to determine if the respondent was the one who actually engaged in the behavior or if someone else at work engaged in the behavior. Because of this, it is impossible to determine if this measure would hold at the individual level. Another weakness of this measure is that it uses a Likert-type scale. By asking the respondent the extent to which he or she agrees or disagrees with each statement, it is impossible to determine how frequently with which each item occurs. However when examining other measures such as counterproductive work behaviors, employee deviance, and workplace deviance (e.g. Bennett and Robinson 2000; Hollinger and Clark 1983; Spector et al 2006), it is evident that a direct measure has also been effective in measuring these negative behaviors. In the direct measure, respondents would be asked how frequently they have engaged in a list of service sabotage behaviors.

Proposed Model in Dissertation

Since service sabotage is a human behavior, understanding the motivations behind why employees might engage in service sabotage is important in order for researchers and practitioners to develop ways organizations can avoid or reduce service sabotage. In this dissertation, it is proposed that a key to boundary spanners' usage of service sabotage is emotional exhaustion.

Employee's Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion is a topic of interest in marketing and organizational behavior (Wright and Cropanzano 1998), primarily because of the negative implications of emotional exhaustion on employees and organizations (Cordes and Dougherty 1993). Emotional exhaustion has been defined as “the feeling of being emotionally overextended by ones' work” (Maslach and Jackson 1981, p. 101). It occurs when an employee feels physically fatigued and/or psychologically and emotionally drained (Wright and Cropanzano 1998).

According to conservation resources theory (COR), emotional exhaustion occurs when individuals perceive a threat to something they value (Halbesleben and Buckley 2004; Hobfoll 1988). This threat can be due to the depletion of emotional resources or when the investment of personal effort does not garner the expected results (Wright and Cropanzano 1998). Resources have been defined as “those objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies that are valued by the individual or that serve as a means for attainment of these objects” (Hobfoll 1989, p. 516). For example, emotional resource depletion can occur when an employee is faced with excessive job demands and

continuous work stress (Shiron 1989; Wright and Cropanzano 1998). Another example of emotional exhaustion is when an employee spends a great deal of time helping another employee or customer without any return favor from that coworker or customer (Halbesleben and Buckley 2004). Employees may decide to stockpile “the resources necessary to meet their current work needs and protect themselves from further resource depletion” (Wright and Cropanzano 1988; p. 488). However, prolonged emotional exhaustion will cause these employees to perceive that they no longer have the resources necessary to handle the stress they are faced with (Lee and Ashforth 1996).

Research has shown that emotional exhaustion is positively affected by role ambiguity and role conflict (Babakus, Cravens, Johnston, and Moncrief 1999; Lee and Ashforth 1996). Interpersonal conflict and work overload have also been viewed as factors which lead to emotional exhaustion (Narayanan, Menon and Spector 1999; Singh, Goolsby and Rhoads 1994). Emotional exhaustion has a negative impact on employees and organizations (Mulki, Jaramillo and Locander 2006). Research has found that emotional exhaustion is negatively related to organizational commitment (Mulki, Jaramillo and Locander 2006; Singh 2000), job involvement (Lee and Ashforth 1996), job satisfaction (Babakus, Cravens, Johnston and Moncrief 1999; Mulki, Jaramillo and Locander 2006; Wright and Cropanzano 1998), organizational citizenship behavior (Cropanzano, Rupp and Byrne 2003), and job performance (Babakus, Cravens, Johnston and Moncrief 1999; Cordes and Dougherty 2003; Lee and Ashforth 1999; Wright and Cropanzano 1998). Research has found that emotional exhaustion positively impacts turnover intentions (Moore 2000; Wright and Cropanzano 1998).

Furthermore, emotional exhaustion is viewed as a chronic type of work-related strain and “occurs frequently among individuals who do ‘people-work’ of some kind” (Maslach and Jackson 1981, p. 99). In fact, research has shown that emotional exhaustion is especially prevalent in settings where employees must deal with people (Cordes and Dougherty 1993), such as service settings. Since boundary spanning personnel are the face of the organization and are responsible for all customer interactions, organizations expect them to exhibit organizationally desired emotions in front of customers at all times (Mulki, Jaramillo and Locander 2006).

Engaging in organizationally desired emotions, especially when these emotions do not equate to the employee’s actual feelings may result in emotional exhaustion. Furthermore, an employee that is forced to maintain these desired emotions while also encountering customers who are aggressive or negative on a frequent basis (Cordes and Dougherty 1993; Mulki, Jaramillo and Locander 2006) may have employees that resent not only the customer but the organization as well. In fact, it has been shown that the presence of emotional exhaustion can cause the employee to withdraw from the situation by changing his or her behavior (i.e. leave the organization or provide decreased performance) (Cordes and Dougherty 1993).

This decreased performance by front-line service employees due to emotional exhaustion may result in the usage of service sabotage since this type of sabotage is the central means through which boundary spanning employees are able to manifest their discontent with the organization (Harris and Ogbonna 2006). Although emotional exhaustion has not been tested empirically with service sabotage, research has found that emotional exhaustion is positively related to deviant behavior. Mulki, Jaramillo and

Locander (2006) found that higher levels of emotional exhaustion led to higher engagement in deviant behavior. Therefore, emotional exhaustion should have a positive impact on a boundary spanner's usage of service sabotage.

H₁: Emotional exhaustion will positively impact service sabotage behavior.

Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support (POS) is defined as employees' "global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson and Sowa 1986, p. 501). POS uses the norm of reciprocity to help explain how employees view their organization's commitment to them through the support resources the organization provides and how that level of support influences the level of commitment the employee provides back to the organization (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson and Sowa 1986; Emerson and Cook 1978; Gouldner 1960).

The norm of reciprocity states that employees will feel obligated to repay favorable treatment (Eisenberger, Lynch, Aselage and Rohdieck 2004; Rousseau 1990; Mowday, Porter and Steers 1982). In other words, if an organization treats their employees well, then the employees will feel obligated to act in ways that are of value (i.e. meeting the organizations goals and objectives) to the organization (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, and Rhoades 2001). Employees will return benefits desired by the organization as payback for benefits given to them by the organization.

Research has shown that POS is positively related to organizational commitment, job satisfaction and in-role and extra-role performance as well as negatively related to

withdrawal behavior (Edmondson and Riggle 2005; Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002; Stamper and Johlke 2003). It is also likely that POS would be negatively related to service sabotage. The rationale for why a negative relationship is expected between POS and service sabotage is that if an employee perceives that the organization supports them, then the employee will reciprocate this support by abiding by the organizational norms (Colbert, Mount, Harter, Witt and Barrick 2004). For example, employees that feel the organization cares about their well-being may not want to engage in service sabotage behaviors such as saying something hurtful or acting rudely to customers. On the other hand, employees who do not believe the organization supports them would be more likely to engage in these service sabotage behaviors. Therefore, based on the norm of reciprocity, it is hypothesized that:

H₂: Perceived organizational support will negatively and directly impact service sabotage behavior.

Perceived Supervisory Support

Perceived supervisory support is defined as employees' global beliefs concerning the extent to which the immediate supervisor values their contribution and cares about their well-being (Kottke and Sharafinski 1988). The notion of perceived supervisory support (PSS) stems from social exchanges between the individual and the supervisor and is also based on the norm of reciprocity. Initially, the concept of PSS was created in order to better explain the development of employee commitment to a supervisor via the norm of reciprocity, which presumes that social exchanges are the reciprocation of valuable resources that promote the building and preservation of interpersonal

relationships (Lynch, Eisenberger and Armeli 1999; Shanock and Eisenberger 2006). In other words, employee commitment is a two way street, in that employees perceive that their effort and commitment to the supervisor should be exchanged for benefits and rewards from the supervisor that are both tangible and intangible (Kottke and Sharafinski 1988).

High levels of PSS create employees' feelings of obligation toward the supervisor as well as the desire by the employees to reciprocate the supervisor's commitment by engaging in behaviors that support the supervisor's goals. Here, employees seek a balance in their exchange relationships with supervisors by having attitudes and behaviors commensurate with the degree of supervisor commitment to them as individuals.

Research has shown that PSS is related to autonomy, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and performance (Armstrong-Stassen, Mantler and Horsburgh 2001; Boyer and Edmondson 2006; Edmondson and Boyer 2008; Stinglhamber and Vandenberghe 2004). Research has also shown that PSS is negatively related to turnover intentions (Edmondson and Boyer 2008) yet no research exists which investigates the relationship between PSS and service sabotage behaviors, but it is proposed that PSS will be negatively related to service sabotage behaviors. This is because employees who do not feel that they are supported by their supervisor will not be motivated to engage in behaviors, such as kindness to customers, which will support the supervisor's goals and instead may exhibit service sabotage behaviors that will disrupt the service encounter and negatively affect the employee-customer dynamics.

H₃: Perceived supervisory support will negatively and directly impact service sabotage behavior.

The Mediating Role of Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion exists when a boundary spanning employee feels physically fatigued and/or psychologically and emotionally drained (Wright and Cropanzano 1998). Employees which are faced with excessive job demands or continuous hassles from other employees or customers will become emotionally exhausted (e.g. Wright and Cropanzano 1998) as they will not have enough emotional resources to handle the stress they are constantly faced with (Lee and Ashforth 1996).

However if an organization provides an adequate amount of organizational support, then the organization will be able to help boundary spanning employees deal with these stresses and challenges associated with their job. Perceived organizational support examines the extent to which the employee believes that the organization values the employee's contribution and cares about the employee's well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson and Sowa 1986). Research has shown that providing adequate support reduces the amount of aversive psychological and psychosomatic reactions (i.e. strains) to stressors (Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002). This is due to the fact that by providing organizational support, employees will perceive that they have the emotional and physical (e.g. providing the supplies necessary to complete the job) support needed to face the challenges associated with their job. These strains include employee fatigue (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey and Toth 1997) and anxiety (Robblee 1998). Although the strains previously investigated do not include emotional exhaustion, it is hypothesized

that a similar negative relationship will exist, such that perceived organizational support will negatively impact a boundary spanner's emotional exhaustion.

According to the conservation resources theory, if an organization does not provide enough support, then the employee will perceive that they do not have the resources to complete their job, which will lead to higher levels of emotional exhaustion. Due to the emotional exhaustion, the boundary spanning employee will change his or her behavior, such as engaging in service sabotage behaviors, as a way to show their discontent with the organization. Because of this, it is also likely that POS would be negatively related to emotional exhaustion. In other words, it is hypothesized that providing an adequate level of organizational support will reduce a boundary spanner's emotional exhaustion.

H₄: Perceived organizational support will negatively impact emotional exhaustion. In other words, emotional exhaustion will partially mediate the perceived organizational support and service sabotage relationship.

Besides the negative relationship hypothesized between perceived organizational support and emotional exhaustion, a negative relationship is also hypothesized to exist between perceived supervisory support and emotional exhaustion. If adequate supervisory support is provided to boundary spanning employees, then the supervisor will be able to help the employees deal with stressors and challenges associated with their job. Prior research has shown that supervisory support can alleviate the negative effects of emotional exhaustion incurred by employees coping with high job demands (Baruch-Feldman, Brondolo, Ben-Dayana and Schwarz 2002; Maslach and Jackson 1981; Thompson and Cavallaro 2007). According to the conservation resource theory, supervisors that support and care about the well-being of their employees will have

employees that are better able to handle stress and challenges associated with their job. Employees that can better handle their job stress will not feel as emotionally exhausted because they will perceive that they have the resources necessary to do their job. Therefore, it is hypothesized that providing supervisory support will ease a boundary spanning employee's emotional exhaustion.

H₅: Perceived supervisory support will negatively impact emotional exhaustion. In other words, emotional exhaustion will partially mediate the perceived supervisory support and service sabotage relationship.

Employee's Personality as a Moderator

There has been a renewed interest in personality research in the marketing literature (e.g. Weaven, Herington and Dant 2008). The norm of reciprocity focuses on relationships between employees and organizations as well as relationships between employees and supervisors. Because relationships deal with people and people have personalities, the personality characteristics of the employees need to be considered.

Overall, the personality of the employee may be a big indicator regarding whether the employee will choose to engage in service sabotage behaviors. Unfortunately little to no research exists which has investigated the importance of a boundary spanning employee's personality on whether that employee will or will not engage in service sabotage behaviors.

Personality traits involve emotional, cognitive, and behavioral tendencies that constitute the underlying dimensions on which individuals vary. When looking at the personality literature, it is evident that there is no one set structure of personality; however, there is a general consensus on a general taxonomy of personality traits (John

and Srivastava 1999). This general consensus is the Big 5 taxonomy; therefore, this taxonomy will be utilized in this dissertation.

The five-factor personality model, also known as the Big Five, was conceptualized back in the mid-1930s, with Allport and Odbert's seminal lexical study of personality-relevant terms from an unabridged English dictionary. Another study in this area was completed by Cattell (1943), who reduced the personality-relevant list of 4,500 terms by Allport and Odbert into 35 bipolar variables, which then factor-analyzed into about a dozen factors (John and Srivastava 1999). Although Cattell's study was unable to be replicated due to unfortunate clerical errors (Digman and Takemoto-Chock 1981), it was later determined that instead of the dozen or so factors Cattell originally perceived existed, there were really only five (Goldberg 1993). There have been numerous other researchers such as Fiske (1949), Norman (1963), and Smith (1967) that have also reproduced similar five-factor structures: Agreeableness, Extraversion, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability, and Imagination/Intellect.

Although each of these dimensions may impact a boundary spanner's usage of service sabotage, only two will be focused on in this dissertation. These two traits are extraversion and imagination. The reason these two traits are being investigated in this dissertation is that service firms want to hire individuals who are extraverted and imaginative; however, these same individuals may also be more likely to engage in service sabotage. This means that there is a disconnect between the organization's desires to hire these types of individuals and the possibilities that these same individuals will engage in service sabotage, which can have serious negative ramifications for the organization. Both of these traits will be discussed in more detail below.

- Extraversion

Extraversion relates to an employee's sociability, assertiveness, and positive emotionality. A boundary spanning employee who is deemed an extravert would be gregarious, playful, expressive, spontaneous, assertive, dominant, and ambitious. An introvert, on the other hand, is someone who is withdrawn, quiet, shy, inhibited, reserved, passive, and pessimistic (John and Srivastava 1999).

Prior studies have found that an extravert talks more and sooner when they meet someone as well as engage in more eye contact than an introvert. An extravert will also seek out or be drawn to professions that involve dealing with other people. Furthermore, an extravert will tend to be more impulsive and gamble more as well as respond less to any punishment received (John and Srivastava 1999).

Service firms like to hire extraverted individuals because research has found that these employees tend to do better in their job (Barrick and Mount 1991; Hurley 1998). Research has also shown that extraversion predicts job performance (Judge and Erez 2007).

However hiring extraverted individuals can be problematic to service organizations. Because service sabotage involves behaving in a negative way to consumers, this type of behavior is risky as it could result in serious negative repercussions if the boundary spanning employee is caught exhibiting this type of behavior. Since research has shown that extraverted employees tend to be more impulsive, like to gamble more, and are not affected by punishment received than introverted employees (John and Srivastava 1999), it is possible that organizational and supervisory support will not be as relevant to these extraverted employees. Therefore, it

is expected that extraverts will be more likely to engage in these negative service sabotage behaviors, regardless of the support provided by the organization or supervisor.

H_{6a}: The more extraverted a boundary spanning employee is, the weaker the effect of perceived organizational support on service sabotage behavior.

H_{6b}: The more extraverted a boundary spanning employee is, the weaker the effect of perceived supervisory support on service sabotage behavior.

- **Imagination, Intellect, or Openness to Experience**

This dimension of personality is the most controversial. Besides being interpreted as imagination or intellect, it has also been called openness to experience (Barrick and Mount 1991). This dimension describes the breadth, depth, originality, and complexity of an individual's mental and experiential life (John and Srivastava 1999). An employee high in imagination is original, creative, complex, curious, daring, independent, analytical, untraditional, artistic, liberal, and insightful. An employee low in imagination, on the other hand, is conventional, nonanalytical, conservative, traditional, and narrow (John and Srivastava 1999).

Prior studies have found that individuals who have a higher imagination welcome change and enjoy challenge. These individuals also have a more differentiated fantasy life; have a greater variety of experiences; and more psychological insights (John and Srivastava 1999).

Research has shown that a key to customer satisfaction is the ability of the boundary spanning employee to customize the service delivery to meet the needs and desires of the customer (Bettencourt and Gwinner 1996). This implies that hiring employees who are imaginative will be beneficial to the organization as these employees will be better able to adapt the service to the customer's needs.

However hiring individuals who exhibit higher imagination as these individuals may also be more likely to engage in risky service sabotage behaviors. This is because boundary spanning employees who are more creative, daring, and open to new experiences are more likely to engage in risky service sabotage behaviors. Organizational and supervisory support may not be as relevant to imaginative boundary spanning employees as these employees enjoy challenges and like to engage in a variety of experiences. Since these employees are capable of adaptability in the services setting, they will not need to rely on the organization or supervisor to support them.

H_{7a}: The more imaginative a boundary spanning employee is, the weaker the effect of perceived organizational support on service sabotage behavior.

H_{7b}: The more imaginative a boundary spanning employee is, the weaker the effect of perceived supervisory support on service sabotage behavior.

Chapter Summary

The preceding chapter includes a comprehensive review of the literature of all of the constructs and theories used to explain the model presented in Figure 1. This literature review also explained the prior service sabotage behavior research and other conceptualizations.

The next chapter focuses on the methodology used to test the model displayed in Figure 1. The chapter begins with a discussion of the research setting and sample. It also includes a discussion of the measures as well as the data collection procedures. Finally, a description of the analytical technique being used to analyze the model is presented.

CHAPTER THREE

This chapter describes the methodology used to test the relationships among the service sabotage behavior model's constructs developed in the previous two chapters. First, the research setting and the sample characteristics are described. Second, a detailed explanation of the measures used and the data collection procedures are presented. Finally, the justification of the analytical technique utilized in this dissertation is offered.

Research Setting and Sample

The target population for this dissertation consists of boundary spanning personnel in a services setting. Although it would be interesting to compare a variety of different boundary spanning positions (i.e. customer service representative, salespeople, service personnel, nurses, teachers), this dissertation sampled only non-management retail sales and customer service employees from a variety of organizations. Because of the sensitivity of the topic area of service sabotage, collecting data from a single organization is impractical as the likelihood that the employee would be open and honest in their responses is greatly limited since the employee may believe that their employing organization will be able to see each employee's responses.

For the final study, the data was collected using panel data from Zoomerang. Zoomerang is an online panel in which interested individuals can complete self-administered surveys in exchange for chances to win prizes. In order to be a member of one of these panels, the individual must complete a detailed screening tool. This

screening tool is completed so that only applicable surveys will be sent to the individual. In other words, this screening information can be used so that only non-management retail sales and customer service employees will be sent the survey instrument. This information is also used so that Zoomerang can validate the potential individual to assure that the individual is who and where he or she says he or she is. This is done by comparing the information supplied by the individual against databases with objectively validated consumer demographics (Markettools.com 2007). For completing the survey, the non-management retail sales and customer service employees will be entered in a monthly sweepstakes prize package totaling \$5000 as well as be entered into the annual sweepstakes for a large grand prize (e.g. automobile). Zoomerang panels have been used in other dissertations such as Hansen (2006).

Data Collection Procedures

The data collection process included two parts: a pilot study and a final study. The pilot study was used to test the measures while the final study was used to test the hypotheses posited. Each stage is briefly discussed below:

Pilot Study

In the pilot study, a small convenience sample of non-management retail sales and customer service employees were asked to complete the questionnaire. The sample was obtained by having students in several marketing classes obtain completed questionnaires from adults who work as either retail sales or customer service employees in exchange for extra credit. Three screening questions were used to guarantee that the individual

does meet the criteria for inclusion. The first screening question asked the respondent if they are in management or non-management. The last two screening questions asked the respondent about the nature of their job. First, a question was asked as to their job title so that only those in retail sales or customer service positions will be included. Second, a question was asked regarding the extent of customer contact that the respondent has in a typical day. Only those individuals who are in non-management positions with a job title of retail sales or customer service and who have a great deal of customer contact were allowed to continue the survey.

Prior to administering the survey instrument, the students were given detailed instructions on who should be asked to complete the questionnaire and how to administer the study. The questionnaire was completed online and the link to the questionnaire was given out with the instructions. Hard copies of the instructions were given to each student to ensure that the procedure was followed and that any bias associated with survey administration was minimized. Furthermore, the respondent was also asked to give their telephone number. Ten percent of these respondents were randomly contacted to ensure that they filled out the survey and that the directions were followed. In order to ensure anonymity, the names and contact information of the respondent were kept separate from the rest of the survey data. It is expected that this sample was made up of predominately parents, other adult relatives, or co-workers of the students.

The pilot study was used to assess the time needed to complete the survey, the clarity of the instructions, and reliability and validity. On average, it took participants approximately 22 minutes to complete the survey. This time figure is expected to be reduced once the items in each scale are purified.

Reliability and validity are related constructs. The reliability of each measure will be determined using Cronbach's Alpha, in which any measure with an estimate of at least .7 is considered reliable (Nunnally 1978). For any multi-dimensional measure, reliability will be determined using a composite reliability.

Reliability, while necessary for validity, is not, by itself, sufficient (Kerlinger and Lee 2000). In other words, just because a measure is reliable does not mean the measure is valid. However, if the measure is deemed valid, then the measure will also be deemed reliable. Because of this, validity was also examined. Construct validity, which includes both convergent and discriminant validity, was assessed using the pilot study responses. Convergent validity examines the degree to which the operationalization is similar to other operationalizations that it theoretically should be similar to while discriminant validity examines the degree to which the operationalization is not similar to other operationalizations that it theoretically should not be similar to (Hair, Bush and Ortinau 2006). Convergent and discriminant validity were examined through confirmatory factor analyses. These factor analyses were also used to confirm the unidimensionality of each scale. When assessing convergent validity, there should be high factor loadings for the items that are supposed to measure the construct of interest. When assessing discriminant validity, the factor loadings for multiple constructs will be examined. If the items corresponding to a particular construct only load high on that construct's latent factor while the items load low on all other construct's latent factors, then discriminant validity will be shown. Furthermore, discriminant validity will be assessed by examining the average variance explained such that a measure will be viewed as valid if the average

variance explained is greater than the squared correlation of all the factors (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). SPSS was used in the pilot study to test reliability and validity.

Final Study

A web-based survey posted on zoomerang.com was developed and used to collect the data. After the web-based survey was developed, the survey link was sent to the non-management retail sales and customer service employees via email. The text in the email described the study, requested the employee's participation, ensured the complete confidentiality of the employee's responses, described the incentive, and provided the survey link. Two weeks after the initial email wave was sent out, another email was sent out to the non-management retail sales and customer service employees who had not already completed the survey in order to remind them about the survey.

Prior to data analysis, a test for response bias was completed using Armstrong and Overton's (1977) approach which compares early versus late respondents across the demographic variables being asked in the survey. No differences between answers of early and late respondents were found at $\alpha = 0.05$.

Measures

Except for the service sabotage behavior measure, all of the scales proposed in this study have been taken and modified from the extant literature. Prior literature has also utilized these scales in a services setting (e.g. Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski and Rhoades 2002). Each scale was measured on a 7-point scale as Churchill and Peter (1984) found that using 7-point scales increases the

reliability of the data findings. An assessment of reliability for all measures taken from the extant literature is also presented.

Service Sabotage Behavior Measure

The service sabotage behavior measure was created from the prior service sabotage (Harris and Ogbonna 2006), counterproductive work behavior (Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh and Kessler 2006), employee deviance (Hollinger and Clark 1983), and workplace deviance (Bennett and Robinson 2000) measures. The prior service sabotage measure was an indirect measure asking respondents to answer the service sabotage items on the basis of what other people at their workplace have done rather than on the respondent's personal usage of service sabotage behaviors (Harris and Ogbonna 2006). Using an indirect approach can be an issue as it is impossible to determine if the respondent was the one who engaged in the service sabotage behavior. A direct approach has been used for years in the counterproductive work behavior, employee deviance, and workplace deviance literatures (e.g. Bennett and Robinson 2000; Hollinger and Clark 1983; Spector et al 2006), therefore, there is precedence that a direct approach is also effective.

This dissertation employs a direct approach by asking respondents how often they have personally engaged in any of these service sabotage behaviors rather than asking respondents if they know of anyone that has engaged in these types of behavior. This new service sabotage behavior measure will examine how frequently employees have engaged in certain sabotage behaviors within the past twelve months. The service sabotage behavior measure differs from the counterproductive work behavior, employee

deviance, and workplace deviance measures in that these measures focus on employee to employee and employee to organization interactions instead of employee to consumer interactions.

Thus, items from these measures have been modified so that they are applicable to employee-customer interactions. For example, the Spector et al (2006) counterproductive work behavior measure asks respondents if they have ever stolen something belonging to another employee while, in the new service sabotage behavior measure, the item has been modified to ask respondents if they have ever stolen something belonging to the customer. Some other possible items for the service sabotage behavior measure include stealing customer's possessions, gossiping about customer, purposely overcharging or undercharging services provided to the customer, and intentionally working slower than the employee could have worked.

In order to compare the new service sabotage behavior measure with that of Harris and Ogbonna's (2006) measure, both the new direct measure as well as Harris and Ogbonna's indirect measure were asked. By asking both the indirect and the direct measure, a comparison of the effectiveness of each scale can be completed. This indirect measure has been shown to have a reliability of .75 (Harris and Ogbonna 2006).

The items which were used in the new service sabotage behavior scale as well as where each item was adapted is in Appendix A. It is expected that the number of items in the new service sabotage behavior measure will be greatly reduced after the pilot study has been completed. Appendix A also shows the items used in Harris and Ogbonna's 2006 measure.

Emotional Exhaustion

The emotional exhaustion measure is taken from the current literature. Emotional Exhaustion was measured using a 9-item scale from Maslach and Jackson (1981). This scale utilizes a 7 point scale where 1 equals never and 7 equals very often. Reliability indices of .89 for this measure have been previously found in the literature (e.g. Maslach and Jackson 1981; Mulki, Jaramillo and Locander 2006; Wright and Cropanzano 1998). The items that make up Emotional Exhaustion can be found in Appendix B.

Perceived Organizational and Supervisory Support

Both perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support are taken from the extant literature. Perceived organizational support was measured using the 8-item shortened version of the POS scale by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002). The scale was measured using a 7-point Likert scale. In the literature, the POS scale has shown reliabilities ranging from .6 to .98, with a majority of studies having reliabilities above .7 (Edmondson and Riggle 2005).

Perceived supervisory support was measured using an 8-item, 7-point Likert scale from Kottke and Sharafinski (1988). The reported reliabilities for this scale have ranged from .7 to .98 (Boyer and Edmondson 2006; Edmondson and Boyer 2008). The items representing perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support are listed in Appendix B.

Personality

The two personality dimensions, extraversion and imagination, were measured using a portion of Goldberg's (1992) 50 item IPIP-B5 scale. In this scale, each of the five dimensions was measured using 10 item, 7-point Likert type scales. Therefore, both extraversion and imagination will be measured using 10 item, 7-point Likert type scales from Goldberg (1992). The scale descriptors will range from 1 = Very Inaccurate and 7 = Very Accurate. Goldberg (1992) reported satisfactory reliability for each dimension. Weaven, Herington and Dant (2008) also reported acceptable reliabilities for each dimension, finding reliabilities of .82 for extraversion and .75 for imagination/intellect. The items being used to measure extraversion and imagination are shown in Appendix B.

Harris and Ogbonna (2006) Antecedents

In order to compare the proposed model to Harris and Ogbonna's (2006) model, each of the significant antecedents from the prior model were also asked. All of the measures used 7-point Likert scales. Employees' risk-taking proclivity ($\alpha = .81$) was measured using an 8-item scale and is based off of Raju's (1980) measure. Employees' need for social approval by work colleagues (5 items; $\alpha = .90$) was measured using an adapted measure from Fisher (1993). Employees' desire to stay with and pursue career with current firm (9 items; $\alpha = .87$) was adapted from Meyer and Allen's organizational commitment scale (1991). The employees' perception of the extent of surveillance ($\alpha = .83$) and perception of cultural control ($\alpha = .77$) were both taken from Jaworski and MacInnis' (1989) 4-item work control (process) and 3-item work control (self) scales, respectively. Finally employees' perception of labor market fluidity ($\alpha = .71$) was a 3-

item scale from Noe, Steffy and Barber (1988). Each of these measures is shown in Appendix C.

Data Analysis Technique

Because both extraversion and imagination are hypothesized to moderate the relationships between perceived organizational support and service sabotage and between perceived supervisory support and service sabotage (see Figure 3), the data analytic technique utilized was multiple regression. Structural equation modeling was also used to fit the mediating part of the model as SEM is a more powerful test since it allows the researcher to use latent variables in the analysis.

Prior to running the regression, the scales were summated so that they can be treated as a measured variable in the regression. Before this summation could occur, it was necessary to determine that the scales were unidimensional. This was accomplished using a principal components analysis (PCA) on each of the measures in the survey. The following section discusses the procedures involved when employing regression. SPSS was used to test the regression component of data analysis while AMOS was used to test the structural equation modeling portion.

Regression Procedures

- *Multicollinearity*

Before creating the regression model, the issue of multicollinearity between the independent variables will be examined. Multicollinearity exists when two or more independent variables in the model contribute redundant information (McClave, Benson

and Sincich 2001). If highly correlated independent variables are utilized in the model, then the model results would be confusing. Therefore, the Pearson's Correlation Coefficients will be examined between the independent variables in order to determine if multicollinearity exists. Although multicollinearity is not expected since prior research between the independent variables in this model has not displayed a high correlation (e.g. Edmondson and Boyer 2008), it is still imperative that multicollinearity be investigated. If the correlation between two of the correlation coefficients exceeds .95, then only one of the highly correlated independent variables will be included in the final model. If multicollinearity exists, the decision of which variable to include in the final model will be made by conducting a stepwise regression.

- *Examining Scatterplots*

After the correlation analysis has been completed and any multicollinearity issues have been resolved, the scatterplots will be examined in order to look for trends in the data collected. In these scatterplots, the dependent variable, service sabotage behavior, will be on the y-axis and one of the independent variables will be on the x-axis.

- *Testing of the Assumptions via a Residual Analysis and the Influential Observation Analysis*

Regression has four key assumptions that must be tested prior to running the regression analysis. In addition, an influential observation analysis must be conducted. Information on how these two analyses will be conducted is available in Appendix D.

- *Model Building Stage and Testing of Hypotheses*

After all of the variable screening tools are completed, the initial overall model will be created. The initial model being tested is as follows:

$$SSB = \beta_0 + \beta_1(EE) + \beta_2(POS) + \beta_3(PSS) + \beta_4(Ext) + \beta_5(IM) + \beta_6(POS \times Ext) + \beta_7(PSS \times Ext) + \beta_8(POS \times IM) + \beta_9(PSS \times IM) + \varepsilon$$

where: SSB = Service Sabotage Behavior; EE = Emotional Exhaustion; POS = Perceived Organizational Support; PSS = Perceived Supervisory Support; Ext = Extraversion; and IM = Imagination.

After the initial model has been established and the assumptions and outliers have been checked, this model will be interpreted by looking at several important statistics as well as the parameter estimates. The important statistics to be examined include the Global F test, the Root MSE, and the Adjusted R-square. The Global F test examines if the overall model is adequate for predicting service sabotage behavior. Conducting a Global F test is preferred over testing each β parameter individually as this reduces the chances that the researcher has made one or more Type I errors. The null and alternative hypothesis for this test is as follows:

$$H_0: \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \beta_3 = \beta_4 = \beta_5 = \beta_6 = \beta_7 = \beta_8 = \beta_9$$

Ha: At least one of the β parameters is nonzero.

The Root MSE represents the standard deviation. When interpreting the Root MSE, the larger the standard deviation, the greater the error that will exist when estimating the model parameters (Mendenhall and Sincich 1996). The adjusted R-square represents the amount of sample variation that is explained in the model. An R-square of 0 implies a complete lack of model fit to the data while an R-square of 1 implies a perfect fit

(Mendenhall and Sincich 1996). Instead of using just R-square, adjusted R-square will be utilized as it takes into account both the sample size and the number of β parameters in the model (Mendenhall and Sincich 1996). After investigating overall model fit, the hypotheses created in Chapter 2 will be tested.

- Testing Moderation Effects of Personality

A moderator is a variable that influences the strength or direction of a relationship between an independent variable, such as perceived organizational support, and the dependent variable, service sabotage behavior. Prior to the testing for the mediating effects of emotional exhaustion, the tests examining moderation will be completed. First of all, a partial F test will be completed which examines all of the interaction terms in the model in order to determine if any moderation exists. This test allows the researcher to test all four moderating variables simultaneously in order to determine if any of these terms are necessary in the model. The following is the null and alternative hypothesis for this test:

$$H_0 : \beta_6 = \beta_7 = \beta_8 = \beta_9 = 0 \text{ while } H_a: \text{At least one } \beta \text{ does not equal } 0.$$

If it is determined that moderation exists, then t-tests will be completed for each of the interaction terms in order to determine what moderators are significant. If each of the t-tests is significant, then hypotheses 6a, 6b, 7a, and 7b will be supported as results would show that extraversion and imagination moderates the support and service sabotage relationships. If the t-tests are deemed insignificant, then hypotheses 6a, 6b, 7a, and 7b will not be supported and the interaction terms will be removed from the model.

- Testing Mediation Effects of Emotional Exhaustion

A mediating variable is a variable that accounts for the relationship between the independent variable, such as supervisory support, and the dependent variable, service sabotage behavior (Baron and Kenny 1986). A mediating variable can also be considered a facilitating, intervening, or process variable. The mediation of emotional exhaustion will be investigated after Hypotheses 6a, 6b, 7a, and 7b have been tested using the procedure established by Baron and Kenny (1986). In this proposal, it is assumed that the moderating effect of personality is significant and thus personality is retained in the model. If the moderating effect is deemed insignificant, then structural equation modeling may be utilized to test for mediation instead of the procedure outlined below.

This procedure to determine if emotional exhaustion is a mediator involves the completion of several steps. Figure 4 displays a graphical representation of the steps being employed when testing mediation. The first step involves determining if the independent variables, perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support, are associated with the dependent variable, service sabotage. This is done by regressing service sabotage on both perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support. In this step, the following regression equation will be tested:

$$SSB = \beta_0 + \beta_2(POS) + \beta_3(PSS) + \beta_4(Ext) + \beta_5(IM) + \beta_6(POS \times Ext) + \beta_7(PSS \times Ext) + \beta_8(POS \times IM) + \beta_9(PSS \times IM) + \varepsilon$$

By completing this step, the researcher is establishing that there is an effect which may be mediated. In order to do this, two tests will be conducted using partial F-tests. This test compares nested models. The first partial-F test will be testing if perceived organizational support is associated with service sabotage while the second partial-F test

will be testing if perceived supervisory support is associated with service sabotage. The null and alternative hypotheses for each of these tests are shown below:

For perceived organizational support: $H_0 : \beta_2 = \beta_6 = \beta_8 = 0$ while H_a : At least one β does not equal 0

For perceived supervisory support: $H_0 : \beta_3 = \beta_7 = \beta_9 = 0$ while H_a : At least one β does not equal 0

If it is found that both perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support are good predictors of service sabotage, then the second step will be completed. It is in step one that Hypothesis 2 and 3 will be tested to determine if perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support negatively impacts service sabotage behavior.

The second step involves examining if the independent variable, organizational and supervisory support, is associated with the mediator variable, emotional exhaustion. In this step, the mediating variable, emotional exhaustion, is being treated as the dependent variable. The following is the regression equation being investigated in this step:

$$EE = \beta_0 + \beta_2(POS) + \beta_3(PSS) + \beta_4(Ext) + \beta_5(IM) + \beta_6(POS \times Ext) + \beta_7(PSS \times Ext) + \beta_8(POS \times IM) + \beta_9(PSS \times IM) + \varepsilon$$

In order to test if organizational and supervisory support is a good predictor of emotional exhaustion, partial-F tests comparing nested models will be completed. The null and alternative hypotheses for each of the tests are shown below:

For perceived organizational support: $H_0 : \beta_2 = \beta_6 = \beta_8 = 0$ while H_a : At least one β does not equal 0

For perceived supervisory support: $H_0 : \beta_3 = \beta_7 = \beta_9 = 0$ while H_a : At least one β does not equal 0

If it is found that both perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support are good predictors of emotional exhaustion, then the third step will be completed. In the second step, Hypothesis 4 and 5 will also be tested in order to determine if perceived organizational support negatively impacts emotional exhaustion and if perceived supervisory support negatively impacts emotional exhaustion.

The third step involves regressing service sabotage on the mediator, emotional exhaustion. A t-test will be used to determine if emotional exhaustion is a good predictor of service sabotage. The regression equation being utilized in this step as well as the null and alternative hypotheses are shown below:

$$SSB = \beta_0 + \beta_1(EE) + \beta_2(POS) + \beta_3(PSS) + \beta_4(Ext) + \beta_5(IM) + \beta_6(POS \times Ext) + \beta_7(PSS \times Ext) + \beta_8(POS \times IM) + \beta_9(PSS \times IM) + \varepsilon$$

$$H_0 : \beta_1 = 0; H_a : \beta_1 > 0$$

If it is determined that emotional exhaustion positively impacts service sabotage, then the final step will be completed in order to determine if emotional exhaustion mediates the support and sabotage relationships. By showing that emotional exhaustion positively impacts service sabotage, then Hypothesis 1 will also be supported.

In order to determine if emotional exhaustion partially mediates the support and sabotage relationships, then Sobel's (1982) test as well as Baron and Kenny's (1986) modified test will be completed. This test is an indirect and approximate test which can be used to determine if a mediating effect exists. The formula for determining mediation (Baron and Kenny 1986) is as follows:

$$(axb) / \sqrt{b^2 s_a^2 + a^2 b_b^2 + s_a^2 s_b^2}$$

where: a represents the path from the support to emotional exhaustion; s_a represents the standard error for path a; b represents the path from emotional exhaustion to service sabotage; s_b represents the standard error for path b

Sobel's method omits the final term, $s_a^2 s_b^2$ and is useful when the model is complicated.

Overall, mediation exists if the effect of support on service sabotage is less in the equation in which emotional exhaustion is used to predict service sabotage (Step 3) than in the equation in which support is used to predict service sabotage (Step 1).

Test of the Mediating Part of Model Using Structural Equation Modeling

SEM will be used to fit the mediating part of the model as SEM is a more powerful test since it can test multiple dependent relationships at one time and allows the researcher to use latent variables in the analysis. SEM also accounts for the measurement error in the latent variables. The SEM model is tested by first examining the measurement model to determine if the scales had adequate measurement properties based upon the final sample. Next the structural model is calculated. It is during the structural model analysis in which the goodness of fit indices such as root mean square error approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), and normed fit index (NFI) will be used to determine if the model fits the data well. A model will be determined as having a close fit if RMSEA is .08 or below, CFI is .9 or above, and NFI is .9 or above. Additional indices such as the Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) could also be used to address model fit. The hypotheses (H1-H5) will only be examined once the model is determined to fit the data well. AMOS is used to run the SEM portion of this dissertation.

Comparison of Proposed Model to Harris and Ogbonna's 2006 Model

In order to compare the proposed model (See Figure 1) with Harris and Ogbonna's 2006 model (See Figure 5), a Nested F-test is used. Prior to running the Nested F-test, three regression models will have to be run. The first regression model is the model proposed above. This model will only include the constructs proposed in Figure 1. The second regression model will include only the antecedents of Harris and Ogbonna's 2006 model. This regression equation will look as follows:

$$SSB = \beta_0 + \beta_1(RTP) + \beta_2(SA) + \beta_3(DSF) + \beta_4(ES) + \beta_5(CC) + \beta_6(LMF) + \varepsilon$$

where SSB = Service Sabotage Behavior; RTP = Risk-taking Proclivity; SA = Need for Social Approval; DSF = Desire to Stay with and Pursue Career in Current Firm; ES = Extent of Surveillance; CC = Extent of Cultural Control; LMF = Labor Market Fluidity

The third model will incorporate Harris and Ogbonna's (2006) model into the model proposed in this dissertation. This regression equation will look as follows:

$$SSB = \beta_0 + \beta_1(EE) + \beta_2(POS) + \beta_3(PSS) + \beta_4(Ext) + \beta_5(IM) + \beta_6(RTP) + \beta_7(SA) + \beta_8(DSF) + \beta_9(ES) + \beta_{10}(CC) + \beta_{11}(LMF) + \beta_6(POS \times Ext) + \beta_7(PSS \times Ext) + \beta_8(POS \times IM) + \beta_9(PSS \times IM) + \varepsilon$$

A Nested F-test will then be run on the β 's associated with the Harris and Ogbonna 2006 model in order to determine if these constructs are useful predictors of service sabotage (Mendenhall and Sincich 1996). Furthermore, the adjusted R-square will be used to determine how much variance is explained in each model. This will show which model explains the most variance in service sabotage. If the proposed model explains more variance than the Harris and Ogbonna 2006 model, then there will be evidence that the proposed model is better at explaining service sabotage.

Chapter Summary

Chapter three includes a discussion of the sample, the measures, the procedures for collecting the data, and the procedures for analyzing the data. The sample for this dissertation is non-management retail sales and customer service employees. Prior to the final study, a pilot test was conducted in order to validate the measures being utilized in the questionnaire. One measure, the service sabotage behavior measure, is a new scale while the remaining measures have been adapted from scales in the existing literature. The final study was conducted via a web-based survey and the resulting data was analyzed using regression analysis and structural equation modeling.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results

This chapter presents the results of the pilot study and the final study. First, the pilot study results are discussed. Second, the final study results are discussed. Finally, each of the hypotheses developed in Chapter 2 are tested.

Pilot Study

Participants

Overall, there were 141 participants in the pilot study (36.4% male and 63.6% female). Of these 141 participants, 43.3% were retail sales employees and 20.6% were customer service employees. The remaining 36.1% classified their job as other (e.g. restaurant server). 113 out of the 141 participants (80.1%) stated that they had contact with the customer on a daily basis while 17.7% of the participants had customer contact 2 to 3 times per week. The sample characteristics for the pilot study are shown in Table 2.

Principal Components Analyses

In order to determine the adequacy of the newly created service sabotage behavior measure as well as all of the other measures in the proposed model, principal components analyses were completed on each construct. The results of these component analyses are shown in Appendix E. Out of the six measures included in the dissertation model, four were unidimensional. These measures included Emotional Exhaustion, Perceived

Organizational Support, Perceived Supervisory Support, and Extraversion. In each of these measures, there was only one component (with eigenvalue greater than 1) with the component loadings of each item exceeding .4.

For the newly created Service Sabotage Behavior measure, a three component solution was created. Because there were multiple components, a factor analysis using Varimax rotation was completed. During this analysis, 17 items were removed either due to the low variability in the responses or due to the item cross loading across multiple components. The final Service Sabotage Behavior scale contained 25 items. The three component solution can best be described as a measure of the severity of the service sabotage offenses. There were a total of 9 items which could be classified as minor offenses such as gossiping about a customer and talking with a co-worker instead of working. There were a total of 6 items that were classified as medium offenses such as intentionally making errors and lying to a customer about important information. Finally, there were 9 items which were classified as major offenses such as sexually harassing a customer and deliberately mistreating a customer. There was one item, neglecting to say thank you to a customer, which was retained in the scale even though this item cross loaded on both the minor offense and medium offense components. For the imagination scale, a three component solution was obtained.

Reliability and Validity Analysis

Results of the reliability and correlation analysis are shown in Table 3. Overall, all variables exhibited acceptable reliabilities above the .7 threshold established by Nunnally (1978).

Besides the reliability analysis, the correlations between the variables were also examined. Overall, the correlation matrix revealed some interesting associations between the variables. First, the correlation matrix confirms many of the hypothetical relationships proposed in Chapter 2. Results from the correlational analysis revealed that service sabotage behavior was positively related to emotional exhaustion while negatively related to perceived organizational support, perceived supervisory support, imagination, and extraversion. While the hypotheses cannot be tested using strictly the correlation matrix, it does show that the findings in both the regression and structural equation model should be favorable.

During the correlation analysis, the inter-item correlations within each construct's scale were also analyzed (Nunnally 1978). By analyzing the inter-item correlations, redundant items in each scale can be identified and possibly eliminated. When examining the inter-item correlations, the inter-item correlations should ideally be greater than .39 (Nunnally 1978). For the model developed in Chapter 2, overwhelmingly the inter-item correlations in each construct exceeded .39 while the correlations between the constructs did not. One case where inter-item correlations between two constructs exceeded the .39 was with perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support; however, given the moderate correlation between POS and PSS, this was not unexpected. The major construct of concern from the model developed in Chapter 2 is

imagination. The inter-item correlations for the imagination scale ranged from $-.049$ to $.726$; however, this is not unexpected considering the factor analyses found that this scale was multi-dimensional. Table 4 shows the range of the inter-item correlations for each measure. While analyzing the inter-item correlations for each construct is important, no action was taken prior to running the final study.

Final Study

Participants

A total of 490 non-management retail sales and customer service employees were sampled. There were 240 retail sales employees and 250 customer service employees in the final sample, with 53.3% being male and 46.7% being female. Participants worked, on average, 38.6 hours per week and have been employed with their current employer an average of 5.7 years. 81.6% of participants have contact with the customer on a daily basis with an additional 11% having contact two to three times per week. Table 5 summarizes the demographic information of the sample.

Principal Components Analyses

Although each of the measures were examined in the pilot study, principal components analyses were completed on each construct on the final study data as well. This was done in order to ensure that the newly created service sabotage behavior measure and all of the other measures in the proposed model were valid and reliable. The results of these analyses are shown in Appendix F. Out of the six measures included in the dissertation model, five were unidimensional (single component with an eigenvalue

greater than 1). These measures included Emotional Exhaustion, Perceived Organizational Support, Perceived Supervisory Support, Extraversion, and Imagination. In each of these measures, there was only one component with the component loadings of each item exceeding .4.

For the newly created Service Sabotage Behavior measure, a three component solution was created. Because there were multiple components, a factor analysis with Varimax rotation was completed. During this analysis, 5 additional items were removed either due to the low variability in the responses or due to the item cross loading across multiple components. The final Service Sabotage Behavior scale contained 20 items. The three component solution can best be described as a measure of the severity of the service sabotage offenses. There were a total of 11 items which could be classified as minor offenses, 5 items that were classified as medium offenses, and 4 items which were classified as major offenses. It is also important to note that 16 of the items loaded on the same factor as in the pilot study, while four of the items loaded on a different component than in the original classification structure.

For the imagination scale, two of the ten items were dropped due to having component scores less than .4. Once these two items were dropped, the measure was unidimensional.

Reliability and Validity Analysis

Results of the reliability and correlation analysis are shown in Table 6. All of the measures exhibited acceptable reliabilities (Nunnally 1978).

Besides the reliability analysis, the correlations between the variables were also examined. Overall, the correlation matrix confirms many of the hypothetical relationships proposed in Chapter 2. Results from the correlational analysis revealed that service sabotage behavior was positively related to emotional exhaustion (.266) while negatively related to perceived organizational support (-.254), perceived supervisory support (-.193), imagination (-.118), and extraversion (-.110). While the hypotheses cannot be tested using strictly the correlation matrix, it does show that the findings in both the regression and structural equation model should be favorable.

During the correlation analysis, the inter-item correlations within each construct's scale were also analyzed (Nunnally 1978). For the model developed in Chapter 2, overwhelmingly the inter-item correlations in each construct exceeded .39. The only case where the inter-item correlations did not exceed .39 was in the imagination scale; however, each of the inter-item correlations was statistically significant. It should be noted that the service sabotage behavior scale also had some inter-item correlations that did not exceed the recommended .39; however, considering this scale is a behavioral scale which incorporates a range of offenses, this is not unexpected. Appendix G shows the inter-item correlations for all of the measures except for service sabotage behavior while Appendix H shows the inter-item correlations for the newly created service sabotage behavior measure.

In addition to the principal components analyses, the measurement model was subjected to confirmatory factor analysis by assessing each scale in the model established in Chapter 2 simultaneously, which provides a stronger test of convergent and discriminant validity than assessing each factor independently. AMOS was the statistical package used to estimate the measurement model. Overall, there is a fairly good fit of the model to the data. The χ^2 for the measurement model was significant at 3368.2; however, this is not unexpected given the large sample size. The CFI, NFI, and TLI were .91, .84, and .90, respectively and the RMSEA was .049 (90% CI of .047 to .051). In addition, all the indicators for the model loaded highly and significantly on their hypothesized latent variable ($p < .01$), demonstrating the convergent validity of the measures (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). Furthermore, the scales exhibited satisfactory discriminant validity as the average variance extracted (AVE) of a given factor was greater than the squared correlation between this factor and all the other factors in the model (Fornell and Larcker 1981). Each of the AVEs as well as the squared latent correlations are found in Table 7. In addition, discriminant validity was exhibited as none of the confidence intervals for the construct correlations included 1.0 (Anderson and Gerbing 1988). A diagram of the measurement model is found in Appendix I.

Regression Analysis

Based on the factor analyses and reliability analyses, the regression analysis described in Chapter 3 was completed on the proposed model in Chapter 2. For each of the constructs, the scale items in each construct were summed prior to the completion of the regression equation. Since the service sabotage measure was determined to have

three components, only the first component was summed and utilized in the regression analysis.

- *Model Building Stage and Testing of Hypotheses*

After testing the assumptions and influential observations (see Appendix J), the initial model being tested is as follows:

$$\log(SSB_Factor1) = \beta_0 + \beta_1(EE) + \beta_2(POS) + \beta_3(PSS) + \beta_4(Ext) + \beta_5(IM) + \beta_6(POS \times Ext) + \beta_7(PSS \times Ext) + \beta_8(POS \times IM) + \beta_9(PSS \times IM) + \varepsilon$$

The log of the dependent variable was used because the constant error variance assumption was violated. Table 8 displays the results of this regression equation. The Global F test is significant meaning that at least one of the β 's is nonzero ($F = 5.216$). The Root MSE is .26993 while the Adjusted R-square is .078.

- *Testing Moderation Effects of Personality*

In order to determine if personality is a moderator, a partial F-test was completed. The partial F-statistic was .32 ($p = .8641$). Because of this, it was determined that extraversion and imagination do not moderate the support and service sabotage behavior relationships. Therefore, hypotheses 6a, 6b, 7a, and 7b are not supported. The four interaction terms (POS x Ext, PSS x Ext, POS x IM, PSS x IM) were removed from the model. Even though moderation did not exist, mediation was tested using both regression and structural equation modeling.

- *Testing Mediation Effects of Emotional Exhaustion*

In order to test mediation using regression, the approach established by Baron and Kenny (1986) was utilized. This approach involved the completion of three regression equations. The first regression equation examined if the perceived organizational support

and perceived supervisory support are associated with the dependent variable, service sabotage behavior. The model tested was as follows:

$$\log(SSB_Factor1) = \beta_0 + \beta_2(POS) + \beta_3(PSS) + \varepsilon$$

The results of the regression show that the model is statistically significant at predicting service sabotage behavior ($F = 8.834$; $p < .001$). By conducting t-tests on perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support, results found that only perceived organizational support was a significant predictor of service sabotage behavior (POS: $\beta = -.006$; $t = -3.080$; $p < .01$; PSS: $\beta = .001$; $t = .428$, $p > .05$). In other words, these results show that perceived organizational support negatively impacts service sabotage behavior, providing support for Hypothesis 2. Perceived supervisory support, on the other hand, does not negatively impact service sabotage support, so Hypothesis 3 is not supported.

The second step in testing mediation examined if perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support is associated with the mediator variable, emotional exhaustion. The model tested in this step is as follows:

$$EE = \beta_0 + \beta_2(POS) + \beta_3(PSS) + \varepsilon$$

The results of the regression show that the model with perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support is statistically significant at predicting emotional exhaustion ($F = 111.329$; $p < .001$). By conducting t-tests on perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support, results found that only perceived organizational support was a significant predictor of emotional exhaustion (POS: $\beta = -.5$; $t = -8.311$; $p < .01$; PSS: $\beta = -.115$; $t = -1.930$, $p > .05$). These results show that perceived organizational support negatively impacts emotional exhaustion, supporting

Hypothesis 4. Perceived supervisory support did not significantly impact emotional exhaustion; therefore, Hypothesis 5 is not supported.

The last stage of the mediation testing involves regressing service sabotage behavior on emotional exhaustion, using the equation shown below:

$$\log(SSB_Factor1) = \beta_0 + \beta_1(EE) + \beta_2(POS) + \beta_3(PSS) + \varepsilon$$

The results of the regression show that the model with emotional exhaustion, perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support is statistically significant at predicting service sabotage behavior ($F = 9.662$; $p < .001$). By conducting a t-test on emotional exhaustion, results find that emotional exhaustion has a significant positive impact on service sabotage behavior, supporting Hypothesis 1 (EE: $\beta = .005$; $t = 3.305$; $p < .01$).

In order to determine if the relationship between perceived organizational support and service sabotage behavior is mediated by emotional exhaustion, Sobel's (1982) test as well as Baron and Kenny's (1986) modified test was completed. Sobel's test yielded a test statistic of -2.3946 ($p < .05$) and Baron and Kenny's modified test (1986) yielded a test statistic of -2.3789 ($p < .05$). Both of these test statistics are significant; therefore, emotional exhaustion mediates the perceived organizational support and service sabotage behavior relationship, supporting Hypothesis 4.

Moderation in Structural Equation Modeling

Although moderation was tested using regression, structural equation modeling was also utilized using an approach established by Ping (1996) (see Li, Harmer, Duncan, Duncan, Acock and Boles (1998) for a review of this approach). Ping's (1996) approach

allows for the testing of moderation in SEM through the creation of latent variable interactions. Because of the complexity of the model shown in Figure 1 as well as the number of items utilized to represent each construct, only the highest three items, based on the principal components analysis results in Appendix F, were used to represent perceived organizational support, perceived supervisory support, extraversion and imagination. All of the items for constructs not involved in moderation (e.g. service sabotage behavior and emotional exhaustion) were kept in the model. Before the model could be run in AMOS, each item was mean centered.

Following the procedures outlined by Li et al (1998), a 2-step approach to moderation in SEM was completed. The first step involves the creation of the measurement model so that the factor loadings and error variances for the indicators of the constructs could be estimated. In the measurement model (see Appendix K), no interactions were included. Instead the measurement model contained service sabotage behavior, emotional exhaustion, perceived organizational support, perceived supervisory support, extraversion and imagination. Overall, there is a fairly good fit to the data. As expected, the χ^2 for this measurement model was significant at 1860.1. The RMSEA was .056 (90% CI of .053 to .06). The CFI, TLI, and NFI was .89, .89, and .83, respectively.

Using the regression weights, factor variances, and error variances from the measurement model, the next step involved calculating the variances and regression weights for each of the interactions so that these numbers could be utilized as fixed values in the structural model (Li et al 1998). For example, the regression weight for the interaction term, POS4 x Ext2, was calculated by multiplying the regression weight of POS4 by the regression weight of Ext2. The calculation for the variance of each

interaction was completed using the following formula: (regression weight for POS4 x factor variance for POS x error variance for Ext2) + (regression weight for Ext2 x factor variance for Ext x error variance for POS4) + (error variance for POS4 x error variance for Ext2). These calculations are available in Appendix K.

After all of the regression weights and error variances were fixed for the interaction terms, the structural model was run. The structural model is shown in Appendix L. Overall, the structural interaction model does not fit the data well. The χ^2 for this model was significant at 17455. The RMSEA was .106 (90% CI of .104 to .107). The CFI, TLI, and NFI was .58, .57, and .53, respectively. Because of this, it is evident that the model with interaction provides additional evidence that extraversion and imagination do not moderate the perceived organizational support and service sabotage behavior relationships or perceived supervisory support and service sabotage behavior relationships. Extraversion and imagination were thus dropped from the model.

Mediation in Structural Equation Modeling

In addition to testing the mediating role of emotional exhaustion on service sabotage behavior with regression, the mediating impact was also tested using structural equation modeling. In this SEM model, all items for each construct were included.

- *Measurement Model*

When using SEM, the measurement model is first examined in order to assess the measurement properties of the study variables. Results from the measurement model indicate that the measurement model adequately fits the data. Although the chi-square is significant ($\chi^2 = 3170.14$, $df = 944$, $p < .0001$), the RMSEA was .073 (CI = .07 to .076).

In addition, the factor loadings were all significant using an α of .05. Of all of the scales, the only four factor loadings that did not exceed the recommended .6 cutoff by Hu and Bentler (1999) were the four loadings associated with the major service sabotage behavior items (sexually harassed a customer, took personal property of customers, deliberately mistreated a customer, and publicly embarrassed the customer). When examining the data associated with these items, it is clear that variability is lacking in the respondent's responses. This is not unexpected since these four items are the most severe forms of service sabotage behavior in the service sabotage behavior scale. For the purposes of this dissertation, these items were removed from the model; however, future research is needed in order to determine if it is beneficial to keep these four items in the service sabotage behavior scale.

- *Structural Model*

Before the hypotheses were tested, the structural model was evaluated. Several indices were used to determine how well the model fits the data. The first fit index used was the Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA). RMSEA values less than or equal to .05 are viewed as having a "close approximate fit" whereas values between .05 and .10 are "reasonably approximate fit" (Hu and Bentler 1999). Any RMSEA value exceeding .10 is considered a poor fit. In this case, the RMSEA was .060 with a 90% confidence interval ranging from .057 to .063. This initially indicates that the model adequately fits the data. Besides RMSEA, other fit indices which were examined include the comparative fit index (CFI), the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), and the normed fit index (NFI). The current model's CFI, TLI, and NFI are almost all above the acceptable levels (CFI = .912; TLI = .907; NFI = .866). When taking into account both

the RMSEA and the other fit indices, it is determined that this model has an acceptable fit. Because of this, the hypotheses can now be tested.

- *Testing of Hypotheses*

In order to test each of the remaining hypotheses developed in Chapter 2, the structural path coefficients were examined. Based on the moderation results discussed previously, hypotheses 6a, 6b, 7a, and 7b were not supported. Therefore the structural model will be used to test hypotheses 1 through 5. A summary of the hypotheses results can be found in Table 8.

- Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 examined if emotional exhaustion had a positive impact on service sabotage behavior. Results indicate that the path between emotional exhaustion and service sabotage is positive (.092, $p < .05$). This finding indicates that the more the employee is emotionally exhausted, the higher is his/her service sabotage behavior. Therefore, hypothesis is supported.

- Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 examined if perceived organizational support had a direct negative impact on service sabotage behavior. Results indicate that the path between POS and service sabotage behavior is significant and negative (-.109, $p < .001$); therefore, this hypothesis is supported. This suggests that the more the employee perceives the organization supports him/her and cares about his/her well-being; his/her usage of service sabotage behaviors lessens.

- Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 examined if perceived supervisory support had a direct negative impact on service sabotage behavior. Unfortunately, the results show that this path is not significant, suggesting that the perception of supervisory support by the employee does not play a role in the employee's usage of service sabotage behaviors.

- Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 states that emotional exhaustion will partially mediate the perceived organizational support-service sabotage behavior relationship. Findings suggest that this hypothesis is supported as POS did have a significant, negative impact on emotional exhaustion (-.367, $p < .001$). This finding indicates that the more supportive an employee perceives the organization to be, the less emotionally exhausted that employee will be.

- Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 examines if emotional exhaustion partially mediates the perceived supervisory support-service sabotage behavior relationship. This hypothesis was not supported as perceived supervisory support did not have a significant impact on either emotional exhaustion or service sabotage behavior.

Comparison of Proposed Model to Harris and Ogbonna's 2006 Model

In order to adequately compare the final model proposed in this dissertation to the Harris and Ogbonna 2006 model, two series of regressions were run. The first series of regressions used the service sabotage measure by Harris and Ogbonna (2006) as the dependent variable. The second series of regressions used the newly developed service

sabotage behavior measure as the dependent variable. A summary of the regression results for each series of regression models is shown in Table 10.

- Regressions using Harris and Ogbonna's Service Sabotage Measure

The first regression was the best fitting model from this dissertation. This model is as follows:

$$SS = \beta_0 + \beta_1(EE) + \beta_2(POS) + \beta_3(PSS) + \varepsilon$$

The second regression equation utilized was from Harris and Ogbonna's 2006 model. Each measure from Harris and Ogbonna's (2006) model were summed.

$$SS = \beta_0 + \beta_1(RTP) + \beta_2(SA) + \beta_3(DSF) + \beta_4(ES) + \beta_5(CC) + \beta_6(LMF) + \varepsilon$$

The final model incorporated the two models shown above, leading to the following model:

$$SS = \beta_0 + \beta_1(EE) + \beta_2(POS) + \beta_3(PSS) + \beta_4(RTP) + \beta_5(SA) + \beta_6(DSF) + \beta_7(ES) + \beta_8(CC) + \beta_9(LMF) + \varepsilon$$

A Nested F-test was completed in order to examine if the measures by Harris and Ogbonna are useful predictors of service sabotage. Results found that the six measures included in Harris and Ogbonna's (2006) study are not useful predictors of the Harris and Ogbonna (2006) service sabotage measure ($F = 1.27$; $p > .05$). When examining the regression results for each model, only two of the constructs in the original Harris and Ogbonna model were significant. These two constructs were social approval and Employees' Desire to Stay with and Pursue Career with Current Firm. In the model developed in this dissertation, emotional exhaustion and perceived organizational support were both significant predictors of service sabotage. Additionally, the Harris and Ogbonna (2006) model explained 4.1% of the variance (adjusted R-square) while the

dissertation model explained 21.1%. The Bayesian information criterion (BIC), a model comparison statistic, was also calculated. This criterion can be used to compare models even if the models are not nested (Schwarz 1978). For the Harris and Ogbonna model, the BIC was 2000.34 while for the proposed model, the BIC was 1897.49. Since the proposed model has the lower BIC, this is the preferred model. Because of this, it is determined that the model developed in this dissertation is better at explaining Harris and Ogbonna's service sabotage measure.

- Regressions using New Service Sabotage Behavior Measure

The first regression was the best fitting model from this dissertation, which did not include the interaction terms. This model is as follows:

$$\log(SSB) = \beta_0 + \beta_1(EE) + \beta_2(POS) + \beta_3(PSS) + \varepsilon$$

The second regression equation utilized was from Harris and Ogbonna's 2006 model in which the new measure, service sabotage behavior, was used as the dependent variable.

$$\log(SSB_Factor1) = \beta_0 + \beta_1(RTP) + \beta_2(SA) + \beta_3(DSF) + \beta_4(ES) + \beta_5(CC) + \beta_6(LMF) + \varepsilon$$

The final model incorporated the two models shown above, leading to the following model:

$$\log(SSB_Factor1) = \beta_0 + \beta_1(EE) + \beta_2(POS) + \beta_3(PSS) + \beta_4(RTP) + \beta_5(SA) + \beta_6(DSF) + \beta_7(ES) + \beta_8(CC) + \beta_9(LMF) + \varepsilon$$

In order to determine if the measures by Harris and Ogbonna are useful predictors of service sabotage, a Nested F-test was completed (Mendenhall and Sincich 1996). Results found that the six measures included in Harris and Ogbonna's (2006) study are not useful predictors of service sabotage behavior ($F = .92; p > .05$). This is further exemplified

when examining the regression results for each model. The model using the constructs identified in Harris and Ogbonna (2006) lead to a non-significant model ($F = 1.242$; $p > .05$). The adjusted R-square is also only .003 in the Harris and Ogbonna model while it is .07 in the model developed in this dissertation. The BIC was also calculated in which the BIC was 1809.23 for the Harris and Ogbonna model while the BIC was 1770.1 for the proposed model. Since the proposed model has the lower BIC, this is the preferred model. Overall, it is determined that the model developed in this dissertation is better at explaining the newly developed service sabotage behavior measure.

Summary

This section presented the results from the pilot study as well as the final study. The hypotheses developed in Chapter 2 were tested. Support was found for three out of the seven hypotheses developed in Chapter 2. The best fitting model developed in this chapter was then compared to the model developed in Harris and Ogbonna (2006). Chapter 5 presents a discussion of these results followed by a discussion of the study's limitations and areas for future research.

CHAPTER FIVE

Discussion

The purpose of this dissertation was to build and test a model investigating the role that emotional exhaustion, perceived organizational support, perceived supervisory support, extraversion and imagination has on a boundary spanner's usage of service sabotage behaviors. This model was then compared to the model developed by Harris and Ogbonna 2006. With respect to boundary spanner employees, emotional exhaustion is positively related to service sabotage behavior. In addition, a boundary spanner's perceptions of organizational support lessen one's usage of service sabotage behaviors. Overall, the model developed in this dissertation also explains more variance than the model developed in Harris and Ogbonna's 2006 study. In this final chapter, I discuss and summarize these findings in three sections.

In the first section, I discuss the effects that emotional exhaustion, perceived organizational support, perceived supervisory support, extraversion, and imagination has on service sabotage behavior. In the second section, I compare the model created in the dissertation to that of Harris and Ogbonna's 2006 model. In the final section, I discuss the study limitations and directions for future research.

Impact on Service Sabotage Behavior

Emotional Exhaustion

The impact of emotional exhaustion on a boundary spanner's usage of service sabotage behavior was the major focus of this dissertation. Because boundary spanning employees directly interact with the customer, they are subject to pressures not found in other organizational positions (Mulki, Jaramillo and Locander 2006). I hypothesized these pressures lead to emotional exhaustion; a key reason why a boundary spanning employee may engage in service sabotage behaviors. This is because engaging in these types of behaviors is one way that the employee can show their discontent with the organization.

My first research proposition proposes that emotional exhaustion positively impacts service sabotage behavior. As shown in Figure 8, results support this proposition. This finding bolsters the belief that when a boundary spanning employee faces excessive job demands or job conflicts, that employee will become emotionally exhausted leading to service sabotage behaviors. This finding also supports conservation resource theory which stipulates that emotional exhaustion occurs when an employee does not have the necessary resources to complete their job. When an employee has a depletion of resources, then this depletion positively impacts service sabotage behaviors.

These findings also support the work done in deviant behavior (Mulki, Jaramillo and Locander 2006). Similarly prior research has shown that emotional exhaustion can result in lower job performance (e.g. Babakus et al 1999; Cropanzano, Rupp and Byrne 2003). Lower job performance may be due to the employee engaging in these service sabotage behaviors.

Managers should consider the impact of emotional exhaustion when attempting to combat the effects that service sabotage behaviors have on the organization. The organization can help minimize service sabotage behavior by pursuing ways to reduce emotional exhaustion of their employees. Organizations and managers need to be skilled at looking for indications of emotional exhaustion in employees. An emotionally exhausted employee will show signs of fatigue, burn out, frustration, and be emotionally stressed from their work.

Perceived Organizational and Supervisory Support

I hypothesized that perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support would both directly impact service sabotage behavior as well as a mediate service sabotage behavior through emotional exhaustion. Furthermore these relationships would be negative. However, only perceived organizational support was statistically significant. Results indicate that a boundary spanner's perception of organizational support lessens the employee's usage of service sabotage behavior directly as well as through emotional exhaustion. By providing adequate organizational support, an organization can reduce or mitigate a boundary spanner's emotional exhaustion and service sabotage behavior.

Boundary spanning employees who perceive the organization supports them will be more committed and thus engage in organizationally desired behaviors. This provides support for the norm of reciprocity and conservation resources theory.

Organizations can help increase a boundary spanner's perceptions of organizational support by communicating to those employees that the organization does indeed care about their employees' well being. One way to show that the organization

cares and appreciates their employees is through the creation of policies and programs which exemplify these perceptions. Some examples include providing genuine “thank-yous” to employees for work well done, offering an open communication environment and flexible scheduling to employees.

I was surprised perceived supervisory support did not significantly impact emotional exhaustion nor service sabotage behaviors. Results from Table 6 showed a significant negative relationship between perceived supervisory support and service sabotage behavior (-.193) as well as between perceived supervisory support and emotional exhaustion (-.480). These results also showed a strong positive relationship between perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support (.765). Although this correlation is strong, it does show that employees can differentiate the support perceived from the organization from that of their supervisor.

One possible explanation for why perceived supervisory support did not negatively impact both emotional exhaustion and service sabotage behavior is due to the role the supervisor plays in boundary spanning positions. It is possible that in many boundary spanning positions, there are numerous supervisors that an employee must associate with on a daily basis. For example, a retail sales employee may have his or her immediate supervisors, several assistant managers and the store manager as possible supervisors. In many retail sales positions, one’s supervisor also changes frequently such that a supervisor may work a variety of shifts in the organization (e.g. night) or may work in a variety of locations (e.g. work in multiple stores). This lack of consistency in a supervisor could be problematic when examining the perceptions of supervisory support by the respondents.

When considering the perceived supervisory support scale does not specify a particular supervisor (e.g. immediate supervisor), it is also possible that respondents did not have a specific supervisor in mind when completing that scale. Instead it is likely that some respondents answered the scale items based on the average of all his or her supervisors while other respondents answered the scale items based on a single supervisor. By making the scale more specific to a single supervisor, this possible confound may be eliminated or reduced.

Personality

I hypothesized that extraversion and imagination, two of the five personality dimensions from the Big Five Factor Model, moderates the relationship between perceived organizational support and service sabotage behavior. These two dimensions would also moderate the relationship between perceived supervisory support and service sabotage behavior.

Most service organizations desire outgoing, ambitious employees capable of adapting to the needs of the customer. Research has shown that extraverted individuals are better able to do their job and have higher job performance than introverted individuals (Barrick and Mount 1991; Hurley 1998; Judge and Erez 2007). Service organizations also desire hiring imaginative employees as these employees are creative individuals who are better able to meet the needs and desires of the customers (Bettencourt and Gwinner 1996).

However because extraverted and imaginative employees are also more likely to take chances such as engaging in service sabotage behaviors, I posited that the more

extraverted or imaginative an employee is, the weaker the relationship between perceived organizational and supervisory support and service sabotage behavior. Unfortunately, these hypotheses were not statistically significant. In other words, personality did not moderate the support and service sabotage behavior relationships.

When examining the correlations between the extraversion, imagination, perceived organizational support, perceived supervisory support, and service sabotage behavior, several interesting implications can be drawn. Based upon the hypotheses developed in Chapter 2, it would be expected that there would be a negative relationship between the two personality dimensions and perceived organizational support and perceived supervisory support. It would also be expected that there would be a positive relationship between extraversion/imagination and service sabotage behavior. Instead the opposite was found in both cases. Extraversion and imagination were positively related to both perceived organizational support (.119 Ext; .136 Imag) and perceived supervisory support (.134 Ext; .136 Imag). This implies that more extraverted and imaginative boundary spanning employees perceived greater support from their organization and supervisor. This greater perception of support may be due to the fact that these employees do not need as much support in the first place as hypothesized in Chapter 2. Because of this, these employees perceive even minimal support as adequate. In addition, the correlation between both personality variables and service sabotage behavior was negative (-.110 Ext; -.118 Imag). This implies that the more extraverted and imaginative boundary spanning employees are, the less these employees were willing to engage in service sabotage behaviors. These negative relationships are counterintuitive to what was predicted in Chapter 2; however, the limited amount of

research in this area shows that additional investigation is necessary. It is possible that there are other individual characteristics such as agreeableness which are better predictors of service sabotage behavior.

Comparison of Dissertation Model to Harris and Ogbonna 2006 Model

When comparing the model developed by Harris and Ogbonna 2006 to that of the model developed in this dissertation, it is evident that the dissertation model is better at explaining both Harris and Ogbonna's service sabotage measure as well as the service sabotage behavior measure developed in this dissertation. In fact, only social approval and desire to stay with firm explained Harris and Ogbonna's measure while none of the measures explained service sabotage behavior (see Table 10). Emotional exhaustion and perceived organizational support, on the other hand, did explain both service sabotage and the newly created service sabotage behavior measure.

However this discrepancy may be due to the samples in both studies. The original study by Harris and Ogbonna 2006 was completed using 259 front-line customer contact personnel from the restaurant industry. In this dissertation, paneled data was used such that the retail sales and customer service employees sampled came from a variety of industries and companies. Only 6.9% of the respondents were from the food and beverage industry. By having a variety of industries and companies, it is expected that these dissertation findings are more generalizable than those collected from a single industry. It would be useful to complete a second study using the restaurant industry in order for a true comparison between this dissertation model and that of Harris and Ogbonna 2006 can be made.

Besides the differences in the sample, several of the measures (labor market fluidity and extent of cultural control) used in Harris and Ogbonna's original 2006 model were also found to be unreliable. Other measures such as service sabotage and risk-taking proclivity were also problematic as these measures were multi-dimensional. These discrepancies in the measures could have impacted the results obtained in this dissertation. Therefore additional research is needed on these measures.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

There are several limitations associated with this study. First of all, all of the measures were based on self-reports rather than observation. This means that respondents personally reported how often they engaged in the service sabotage behavior measure. Steps were taken to ensure that respondents answered appropriately by putting in some measurement checks in which the respondent was asked to answer in a certain way (i.e. answer strongly agree for this item). Any respondent which did not fill out the appropriate response was removed from the study. An additional check placed in the survey was the measurement of social desirability. This scale examines if the respondent is answering in a socially desirable manner. Any respondent found answering in a socially desirable manner was removed from the study. However because of the nature of the study (service sabotage), it is possible that the respondents did not answer truthfully regarding the extent to which they engage in service sabotage behavior. Considering significant results regarding emotional exhaustion, perceived organizational support and service sabotage behavior were obtained in this dissertation; it is likely that these results would only be greater if respondent honesty was indeed an issue. It would

be prudent if additional work using observational, longitudinal, or experimental research techniques is completed.

Although a pilot study was conducted, the main findings are based off of a single sample. This one-shot study needs to be replicated with additional samples. In addition, the service sabotage behavior measure was created in this dissertation as a direct measure of a boundary spanning employee's usage of these negative service behaviors.

Additional work is needed on the measure in order to determine if the major service sabotage behavior items (e.g. sexually harass a customer) are necessary.

Service sabotage behavior is defined as a resource-conserving activity. This means that an employee will engage in service sabotage behaviors as a means to conserve his remaining resources. Because of this, service sabotage behavior does not take into consideration situations in which an employee purposely decides to utilize additional resources in order to engage in service sabotage. For example, an employee may spend time strategizing ways to engage in service sabotage. This time is a resource that the employee could have devoted to other tasks; however, the employee has selected to use these resources in order to engage in these negative service behaviors. Therefore additional research is necessary in order to examine situations in which service sabotage behavior is an activity that requires additional effort and resources.

In this dissertation, emotional exhaustion and perceived organizational support were found to directly impact service sabotage behaviors; however the explained variance (R-square adjusted) in service sabotage behavior was low (.07). This implies that there are other variables that might better explain service sabotage behavior. For example, it is possible that personality characteristics such as agreeableness, the effect of

co-workers or teams, pay satisfaction, turnover intentions, ethical climate of the organization, and role stressors may also explain service sabotage behavior. Because of this, future research is needed to determine what other factors might help explain a boundary spanner's usage of service sabotage behavior.

FIGURE 1

Proposed Model of Service Sabotage Behavior

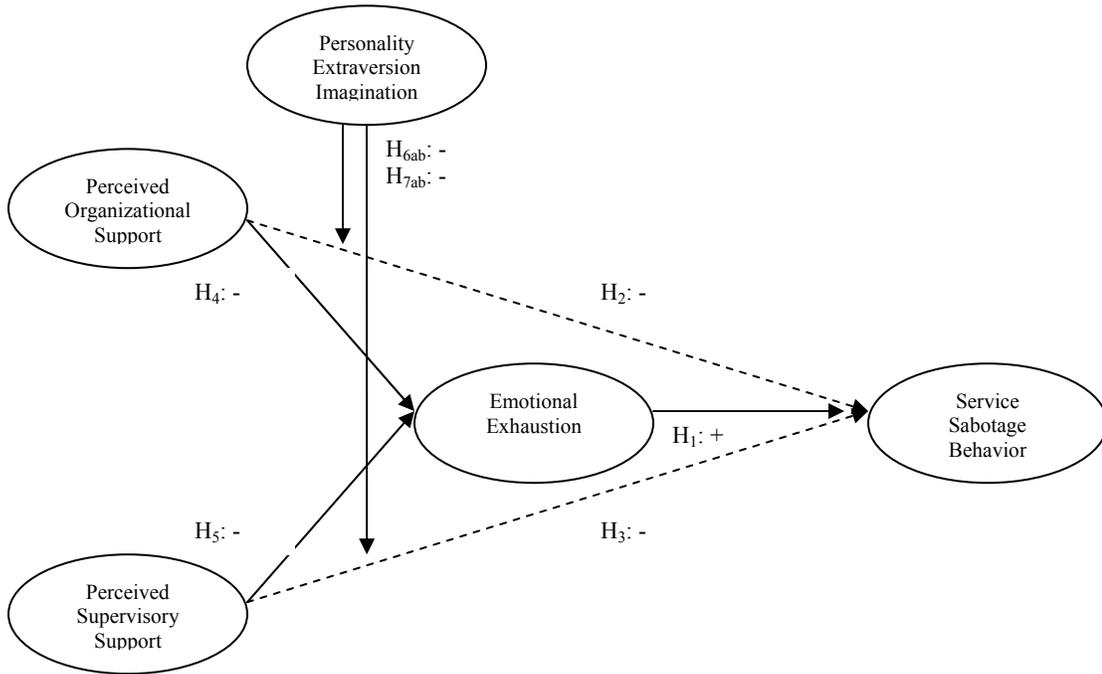


FIGURE 2

Harris and Ogbonna's 2002 Proposed Model (pg. 173 and 176)

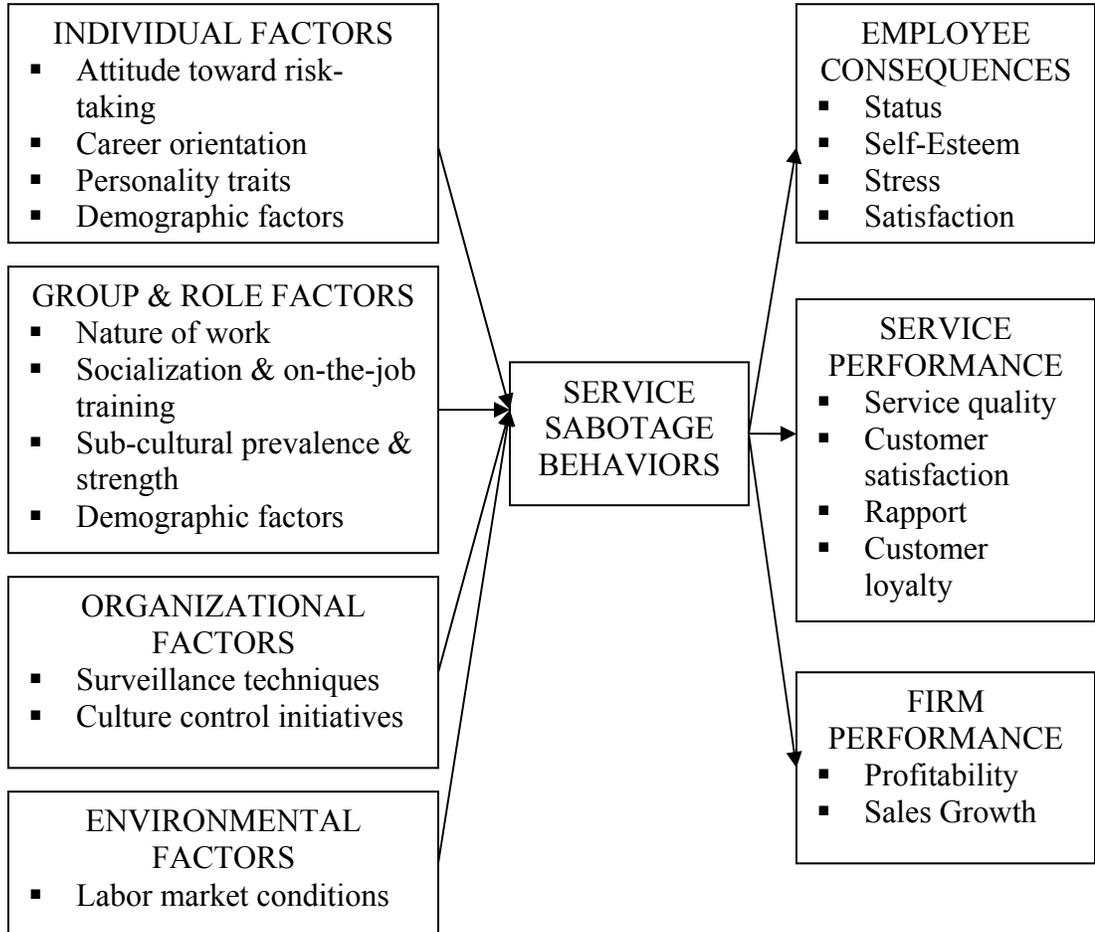


FIGURE 3

Harris and Ogbonna's 2006 Model (pg. 545 and 551)



FIGURE 4

Emotional Exhaustion Mediation Tests

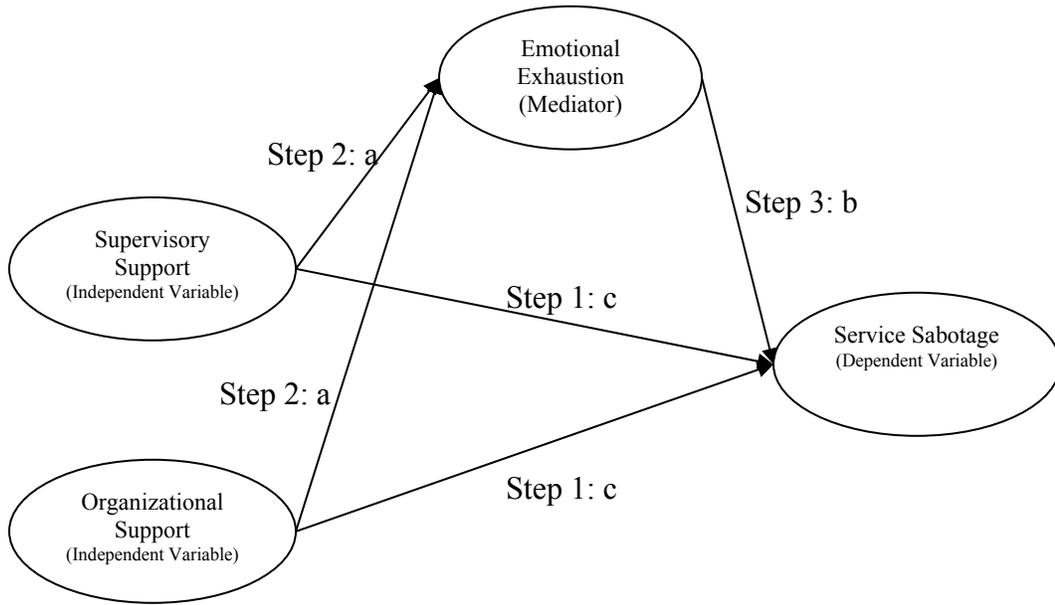


FIGURE 5

Harris and Ogbonna's 2006 Model Tested in This Dissertation

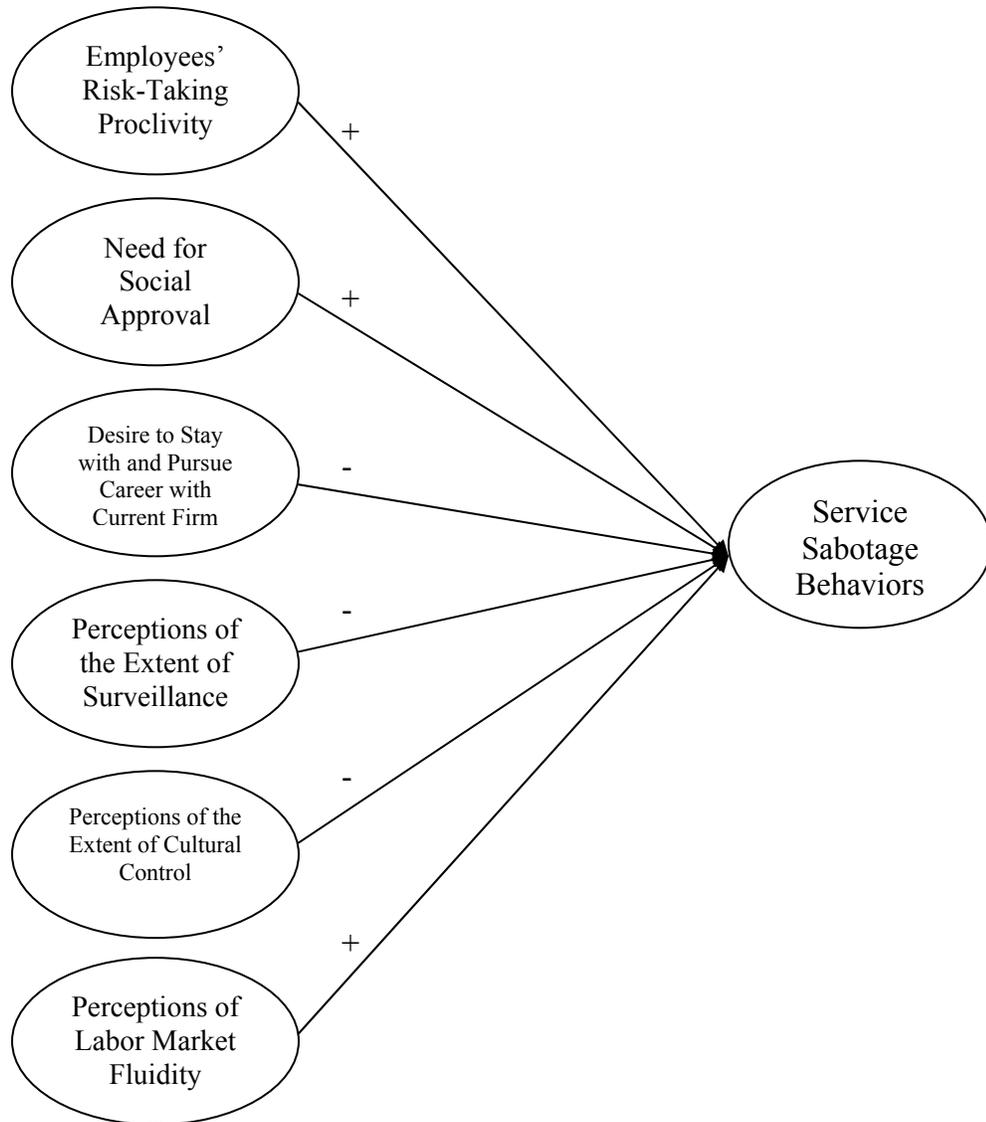
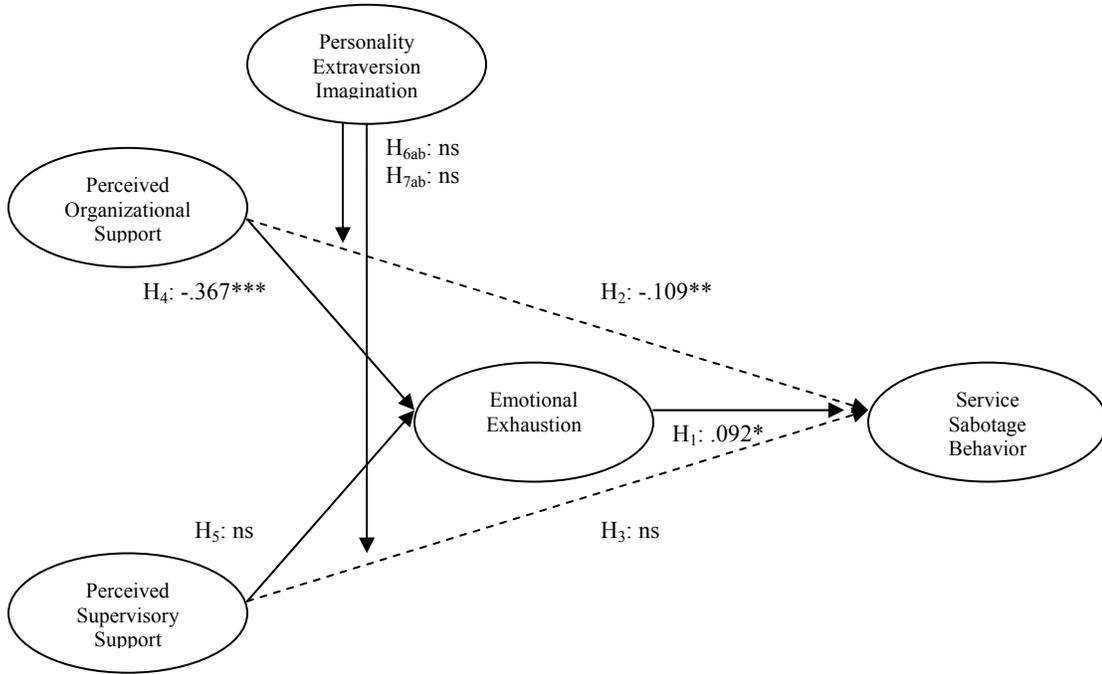


FIGURE 6

Model Results



Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

TABLE 1

Summary of Model Hypotheses

H ₁ :	Emotional Exhaustion will positively impact Service Sabotage Behavior.
H ₂ :	Perceived Organizational Support will negatively and directly impact Service Sabotage Behavior.
H ₃ :	Perceived Supervisory Support will negatively and directly impact Service Sabotage Behavior.
H ₄ :	Perceived Organizational Support will negatively impact Emotional Exhaustion. In other words, Emotional Exhaustion will partially mediate the perceived organizational support and service sabotage relationship.
H ₅ :	Perceived Supervisory Support will negatively impact Emotional Exhaustion. In other words, Emotional Exhaustion will partially mediate the perceived supervisory support and service sabotage relationship.
H _{6a} :	The more extraverted a boundary spanning employee is, the weaker the effect of perceived organizational support on service sabotage behavior.
H _{6b} :	The more extraverted a boundary spanning employee is, the weaker the effect of perceived supervisory support on service sabotage behavior.
H _{7a} :	The more imaginative a boundary spanning employee is, the weaker the effect of perceived organizational support on service sabotage behavior.
H _{7b} :	The more imaginative a boundary spanning employee is, the weaker the effect of perceived supervisory support on service sabotage behavior.

TABLE 2**Sample Characteristics of Pilot Study**

		N	%
Gender	Males	51	36.4
	Females	89	63.6
Age	18 to 25	104	74.3
	26 to 35	19	13.6
	36 to 45	9	6.4
	46 to 55	7	5.0
	56 to 65	1	0.7
	Over 65	0	0.0
	Education	High school or less	9
Attending/attended college 1-3 years		92	65.7
Graduated from 4 year college		33	23.6
Postgraduate study or degree		6	4.3
Marital Status	Single	112	80.0
	Married	22	15.7
	Divorced or Separated	6	4.3
	Widowed	0	0.0
Income	Under \$20,000	49	35.0
	\$20,000 - \$29,999	17	12.1
	\$30,000 - \$39,999	18	12.9
	\$40,000 - \$49,999	13	9.3
	\$50,000 - \$59,999	7	5.0
	\$60,000 - \$74,999	14	10.0
	\$75,000 - \$99,999	11	7.9
	\$100,000 or more	11	7.9
Commission	Solely Commission Based	9	6.4
	Salary or Hourly Wage Plus Commission	33	23.6
	Solely Salary or Hourly Wage	98	69.5
Hours Worked Per Week	Under 10	2	1.4
	10 to 19	17	12.1
	20 to 29	52	37.1
	30 to 39	30	21.4
	40 to 49	34	24.3
	50 to 59	2	1.4
	60 to 69	2	1.4
	Over 70	1	0.7
Length of Employment	Less than 1 year	46	32.9
	1 – 3 years	60	42.9
	4 – 6 years	24	17.1
	7 – 9 years	6	4.3
	10 – 12 years	4	2.9
	13 – 15 years	0	0.0
	More than 15 years	0	0.0

TABLE 3**Reliabilities and Correlations for Pilot Study**

	SSB	SS	POS	PSS	EE	Ext	Imag
SSB	.90						
SS	.410**	.81					
POS	-.309**	-.377**	.91				
PSS	-.287**	-.355**	.761**	.93			
EE	.338**	-.311**	-.494**	-.393**	.92		
Ext	-.199**	-.060	.258**	.176*	-.255**	.90	
Imag	-.257**	-.089	.199**	.233**	-.095	.268**	.81

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level; * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Note: SSB = Service Sabotage Behavior; SS = Service Sabotage; POS = Perceived Organizational Support; PSS = Perceived Supervisory Support; EE = Emotional Exhaustion; Ext = Extraversion; Imag = Imagination

Note: Reliability of the construct is on the diagonal.

TABLE 4**Inter-item Correlation Results**

Construct	Range of Inter-item Correlations
Service Sabotage	-.052 - .570
Perceived Organizational Support	.376 - .661
Perceived Supervisory Support	.374 - .765
Emotional Exhaustion	.331 - .758
Extraversion	.227 - .627
Imagination	-.049 - .726
Social Approval	.298 - .674
Extent of Surveillance	.036 - .546
Intent to Remain	.032 - .751
Labor Market Fluidity	.094 - .292
Cultural Control	-.391 - .292
Risk-Taking Proclivity	-.028 - .485

TABLE 5**Sample Characteristics of Final Study**

		N	%
Gender	Males	259	53.3
	Females	227	46.7
Age	18 to 25	61	12.6
	26 to 35	95	19.5
	36 to 45	106	21.8
	46 to 55	137	28.2
	56 to 65	58	11.9
	Over 65	29	6
	Education	High school or less	106
Attending/attended college 1-3 years		231	47.5
Graduated from 4 year college		112	23
Postgraduate study or degree		37	7.6
Marital Status	Single	145	29.8
	Married	254	52.3
	Divorced or Separated	76	15.6
	Widowed	11	2.3
Income	Under \$20,000	56	11.5
	\$20,000 - \$29,999	80	16.5
	\$30,000 - \$39,999	72	14.8
	\$40,000 - \$49,999	57	11.7
	\$50,000 - \$59,999	51	10.5
	\$60,000 - \$74,999	58	11.9
	\$75,000 - \$99,999	67	13.8
	\$100,000 or more	45	9.3
Commission	Solely Commission Based	49	10.1
	Salary or Hourly Wage Plus Commission	87	17.9
	Solely Salary or Hourly Wage	350	72.0
Hours Worked Per Week	Under 10	9	1.9
	10 to 19	31	6.4
	20 to 29	62	12.8
	30 to 39	117	24.1
	40 to 49	203	41.8
	50 to 59	51	10.5
	60 to 69	12	2.5
	Over 70	1	.2
Length of Employment	Less than 1 year	75	15.4
	1 – 3 years	152	31.3
	4 – 6 years	102	21
	7 – 9 years	46	9.5
	10 – 12 years	31	6.4
	13 – 15 years	19	3.9
	More than 15 years	61	12.6

TABLE 6**Reliabilities and Correlations for Final Study**

	SSB	SS	POS	PSS	EE	Ext	Imag
SSB	.83						
SS	.473**	.85					
POS	-.254**	-.442**	.95				
PSS	-.193**	-.397**	.762**	.97			
EE	.266**	.361**	-.568**	-.480**	.94		
Ext	-.110*	-.066	.119**	.134**	-.204**	.93	
Imag	-.118**	-.034	.136**	.136**	-.083	.392**	.85

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level; * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Note: SSB = Service Sabotage Behavior; SS = Service Sabotage; POS = Perceived Organizational Support; PSS = Perceived Supervisory Support; EE = Emotional Exhaustion; Ext = Extraversion; Imag = Imagination

Note: Reliability of the construct is on the diagonal

TABLE 7

Discriminant Validity Results

	SSB	POS	PSS	EE	Ext	Imag
SSB	.32					
POS	.07	.68				
PSS	.04	.60	.80			
EE	.07	.38	.27	.64		
Ext	.03	.01	.02	.03	.56	
Imag	.02	.02	.01	.01	.19	.41

Note: AVE is on the diagonal.

TABLE 8**Regression Results**

Model	Unstandardized Beta Coefficient	Unstandardized Std. Error	Standardized Beta Coefficient	t	Sig.
Constant	3.3034	.341		8.904	.000
EE	.005	.002	.166	2.894	.004
POS	-.004	.012	-.128	-.315	.753
PSS	.007	.011	.248	.619	.536
Ext	.000	.004	-.009	-.058	.954
Imag	-.001	.009	-.027	-.157	.875
POSxExt	.000	.000	-.242	-.733	.464
PSSxExt	-.000026	.000	.058	.171	.864
POSxImag	.000	.000	-.268	-.509	.611
PSSxImag	.000	.000	.208	.405	.685

Note: Global F = 4.458 (p=.000); R-square = .084; Adjusted R-square = .065; Root MSE = .33303

TABLE 9**Summary of Model Hypothesis Results**

H ₁ :	Emotional Exhaustion will positively impact Service Sabotage Behavior.	Supported
H ₂ :	Perceived Organizational Support will negatively and directly impact Service Sabotage Behavior.	Supported
H ₃ :	Perceived Supervisory Support will negatively and directly impact Service Sabotage Behavior.	Not Supported
H ₄ :	Perceived Organizational Support will negatively impact Emotional Exhaustion. In other words, Emotional Exhaustion will partially mediate the perceived organizational support and service sabotage relationship.	Supported
H ₅ :	Perceived Supervisory Support will negatively impact Emotional Exhaustion. In other words, Emotional Exhaustion will partially mediate the perceived supervisory support and service sabotage relationship.	Not Supported
H _{6a} :	The more extraverted a boundary spanning employee is, the weaker the effect of perceived organizational support on service sabotage behavior.	Not Supported
H _{6b} :	The more extraverted a boundary spanning employee is, the weaker the effect of perceived supervisory support on service sabotage behavior.	Not Supported
H _{7a} :	The more imaginative a boundary spanning employee is, the weaker the effect of perceived organizational support on service sabotage behavior.	Not Supported
H _{7b} :	The more imaginative a boundary spanning employee is, the weaker the effect of perceived supervisory support on service sabotage behavior.	Not Supported

TABLE 10**Model Comparison using Harris and Ogbonna 2006 Measure**

Final Model from Dissertation					
Model	Unstandardized Beta Coefficient	Unstandardized Std. Error	Standardized Beta Coefficient	t	Sig.
Constant	34.626	2.442		14.178	.000
EE	.101	.038	.136	2.638	.009
POS	-.206	.052	-.271	-3.950	.000
PSS	-.094	.048	-.125	-1.954	.051
Note: Global F = 40.859 (p=.000); R-square = .217; Adjusted R-square = .211; Root MSE = 8.16337					
Harris and Ogbonna (2006) Model					
Model	Unstandardized Beta Coefficient	Unstandardized Std. Error	Standardized Beta Coefficient	t	Sig.
Constant	43.892	4.173		10.518	.000
RTP	-.063	.058	-.051	-1.081	.280
SA	-.171	.078	-.106	-2.196	.029
DSF	-.122	.049	-.132	-2.506	.013
ES	-.126	.091	-.068	-1.391	.165
CC	-.034	.198	-.009	-.170	.865
LMF	-.232	.134	-.085	-1.733	.084
Note: Global F = 4.156 (p=.000); R-square = .054; Adjusted R-square = .041; Root MSE = 9.00365; where RTP = Risk-taking proclivity; SA = Social approval; DSF = Desire to Stay with and Pursue Career with Current Firm; ES = Extent of surveillance; CC = Cultural control; LMF = Labor market fluidity					
Combined Model					
Model	Unstandardized Beta Coefficient	Unstandardized Std. Error	Standardized Beta Coefficient	t	Sig.
Constant	33.795	4.600		7.347	.000
EE	.091	.040	.122	2.288	.023
POS	-.222	.055	-.292	-4.073	.000
PSS	-.120	.050	-.159	-2.403	.017
RTP	-.053	.053	-.043	-1.003	.316
SA	-.116	.071	-.072	-1.630	.104
DSF	.001	.046	.001	.014	.989
ES	.174	.092	.093	1.889	.060
CC	.144	.181	.037	.796	.426
LMF	.109	.126	.040	.861	.390
Note: Global F = 14.515 (p=.000); R-square = .230; Adjusted R-square = .214; Root MSE = 8.14854					

TABLE 11**Model Comparison using New SSB Measure**

Final Model from Dissertation					
Model	Unstandardized Beta Coefficient	Unstandardized Std. Error	Standardized Beta Coefficient	t	Sig.
Constant	2.963	.100		29.575	.000
EE	.005	.002	.186	3.305	.001
POS	-.004	.002	-.126	-1.685	.093
PSS	.001	.002	.051	.732	.464
Note: Global F = 12.157 (p=.000); R-square = .076; Adjusted R-square = .070; Root MSE = .27118					
Harris and Ogbonna (2006) Model					
Model	Unstandardized Beta Coefficient	Unstandardized Std. Error	Standardized Beta Coefficient	t	Sig.
Constant	3.399	.159		21.328	.000
RTP	-.002	.002	-.050	-1.036	.301
SA	-.001	.003	-.018	-.375	.708
DSF	-.001	.002	-.029	-.542	.588
ES	.003	.003	.040	.811	.418
CC	-.008	.008	-.057	-1.100	.272
LMF	-.002	.005	-.079	-1.578	.115
Note: Global F = 1.242 (p=.283); R-square = .017; Adjusted R-square = .003; Root MSE = .34389					
Combined Model					
Model	Unstandardized Beta Coefficient	Unstandardized Std. Error	Standardized Beta Coefficient	t	Sig.
Constant	3.011	.189		15.923	.000
EE	.005	.002	.162	2.770	.006
POS	-.005	.002	-.165	-2.092	.037
PSS	.001	.002	.025	.342	.732
RTP	-.002	.002	-.046	-.978	.328
SA	.001	.003	.011	.220	.826
DSF	.001	.002	.042	.770	.442
ES	.006	.004	.089	1.640	.102
CC	-.004	.007	-.025	-.499	.618
LMF	-.001	.005	-.008	-.164	.870
Note: Global F = 3.833 (p=.000); R-square = .073; Adjusted R-square = .054; Root MSE = .33501					

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Possible Service Sabotage Items

7-point scale where 1 = Never to 7 = Daily

How often have you done each of the following...

1. *Stolen customer's possessions?* * and **
2. Gossiped about a customer? *
3. Started negative rumors about your organization? *
4. Sexually harassed a customer? *****
5. Purposely overcharged on services provided to customer? ****
6. *Purposely under-rang a customer's purchase?* *****
7. **Intentionally made errors?** *
8. Covered up mistakes made? *****
9. Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked? *, ** and ***
10. *Endangered the customer by not following safety procedures?* *****
11. *Acted foolishly in front of customers?* *****
12. *Verbally abused customers?* *
13. Shown favoritism to certain customers? *****
14. Talked with a co-worker instead of worked? *****
15. **Was rude or nasty to customers?** *
16. *Insulted customers?* *
17. Lied to customers about important information? *****
18. *Placed a false order?* **
19. *Lost important customer files and papers?* *****
20. **Disclosed secret information about organization to customers?** **
21. *Argued with customers?* *
22. *Intentionally worked carelessly?* *****
23. Pretended to work to avoid helping a customer? *****
24. Blamed the customer when something went wrong? *
25. Took personal property of customers? *****
26. *Said something hurtful to the customer?* *
27. *Cursed the customer?* **
28. Told the customer about the lousy place where you work? *
29. Publicly embarrassed the customer? **
30. *Lied to a customer?* *****
31. *Left a mess unnecessarily where customers can see it?* **
32. Failed to give customers required information? *****
33. Neglected to say thank you to customer? *****
34. **Took revenge on rude customers?** ***

APPENDIX A (CONTINUED)

- 35. Hurried customers when desired? ***
- 36. *Showed off in front of customers?* ***
- 37. Deliberately messed things up when customers aren't looking? ***
- 38. *Ignored a customer?* *
- 39. *Laughed at a customer?* ***
- 40. Ignored company service rules to make things easier for you? ***
- 41. Deliberately mistreated a customer? ***
- 42. Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark or joke in front of a customer? ****

Note:

* Adapted from Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh and Kessler (2006)

** Adapted from Bennett and Robinson (2000)

*** Adapted from Harris and Ogbonna (2006)

**** Adapted from Hollinger and Clark (1983)

***** New Item

Italics represent items dropped during pilot study.

Bold represents items dropped during final study.

APPENDIX A (CONTINUED)

Harris and Ogbonna's (2006) Service Sabotage Measure

7-point scale where 1 = Strongly Disagree and 7 = Strongly Agree

1. People here take revenge on rude customers.
2. People here hurry customers when they want to.
3. It is common practice in this industry to “get back” at customers.
4. People here ignore company service rules to make things easier for themselves.
5. Sometimes, people here “get at customers” to make the rest of us laugh.
6. People here never show off in front of customers. (R)
7. Sometimes, when customers aren't looking, people here deliberately mess things up.
8. At this outlet, customers are never deliberately mistreated. (R)
9. People here slow down service when they want to.

APPENDIX B

Emotional Exhaustion, Support and Personality Measures

Employees' Emotional Exhaustion (Adapted from Maslach and Jackson 1981)

7-point scale where 1 = Never and 7 = Very Often

1. I feel emotionally drained from my work.
2. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.
3. I feel burned out from my work.
4. I feel frustrated by my job.
5. I feel used up at the end of the workday.
6. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.
7. I feel I am working too hard on my job.
8. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.
9. Working directly with people puts too much stress on me.

Perceived Organizational Support (Rhoades and Eisenberger 2002)

7-point scale where 1 = Strongly Disagree and 7 = Strongly Agree

1. The organization values my contribution to its well being.
2. The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me. (R)
3. The organization would ignore any complaint from me. (R)
4. The organization really cares about my well being.
5. Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice. (R)
6. The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.
7. The organization shows very little concern for me. (R)
8. The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.

APPENDIX B (CONTINUED)

Perceived Supervisory Support (Kottke and Sharafinski 1988)

7-point scale where 1 = Strongly Disagree and 7 = Strongly Agree

1. My supervisor values my contribution to its well being.
2. My supervisor fails to appreciate any extra effort from me. (R)
3. My supervisor would ignore any complaint from me. (R)
4. My supervisor really cares about my well being.
5. Even if I did the best job possible, my supervisor would fail to notice. (R)
6. My supervisor cares about my general satisfaction at work.
7. My supervisor shows very little concern for me. (R)
8. My supervisor takes pride in my accomplishments at work.

Extraversion

(Adapted from Weaven, Herington and Dant 2008; Goldberg 1992)

7-item scale where 1 = Very Inaccurate and 7 = Very Accurate

1. Am quiet around strangers (R)
2. Keep in the background (R)
3. Don't like to draw attention to myself (R)
4. Talk to a lot of different people at parties
5. Don't talk a lot (R)
6. Don't mind being the center of attention
7. Have little to say (R)
8. I am the life of the party
9. Start conversations
10. Feel comfortable around people

APPENDIX B (CONTINUED)

Imagination/Intellect

(Adapted from Weaven, Herington and Dant 2008; Goldberg 1992)

7-item scale where 1 = Very Inaccurate and 7 = Very Accurate

1. Am quick to understand things
2. Am feel of ideas
3. Have excellent ideas
4. Do not have a good imagination (R)
5. Have difficulty understanding abstract ideas (R)
6. Have a vivid imagination
7. Spend time reflecting on things
8. Have a rich vocabulary
9. Use difficult words
10. Am not interested in abstract ideas (R)

APPENDIX C

Harris and Ogbonna (2006) Measures

Employees' Risk-Taking Proclivity

1. I am the kind of person who would try any new product once.
2. When I go to a restaurant, I feel it is safer to order dishes that I am familiar with. (R)
3. I am cautious in trying new/different products. (R)
4. Even for an important date, I wouldn't be wary of trying somewhere new.
5. I would rather stick with a brand I usually buy than try something new. (R)
6. I never buy something I don't know about at the risk of making a mistake. (R)
7. I will buy only well-established brands. (R)
8. I enjoy taking chances in buying unfamiliar brands.

Employees' Need for Social Approval by Work Colleagues

1. It's very important to me that my work colleagues approve the way I do my job.
2. It's not important to me that my work colleagues approve the way I talk to customers. (R)
3. It's very important to me that my work colleagues approve how I get on with the manager.
4. It's not important to me that my work colleagues approve the way I organize my work. (R)
5. It's very important to me that my work colleagues approve how quickly I work.

Employees' Desire to Stay With and Pursue Career in Current Firm

1. I have put too much into this job to consider changing now.
2. Changing jobs now would be difficult for me to do.
3. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I were to change my job.
4. It would be costly for me to change my job now.
5. Changing jobs now would require considerable personal sacrifice.
6. I feel a sense of pride and accomplishment as a result of the type of work I do.
7. I very much dislike the work I am doing for this firm. (R)
8. My job performance improves from year to year.
9. My job offers me a career path that I am pleased with.

Employees' Perceptions of the Extent of Surveillance

1. My line manager monitors the extent to which I follow established procedures.
2. My line manager evaluates the procedures I use to accomplish a given task.
3. My line manager modifies my procedures when desired results are not obtained.
4. I receive no feedback on my performance. (R)

APPENDIX C (CONTINUED)

Employees' Perceptions of the Extent of Cultural Control

1. The major satisfactions in my life do not come from my job.
2. The work I do on this job is very meaningful to me.
3. I feel that I should take credit or blame for the results of my work.

Employees' Perceptions of Labor Market Fluidity

1. If I left my current job, I could easily get another.
2. Given my experience, there are other jobs I could do.
3. There are few opportunities for promotion outside of this firm. (R)

APPENDIX D

Testing of the Regression Assumptions and Influential Observation Analysis

Assumption #1: Constant Error Variance for All Levels of the Independent Variables

The constant error variance assumption tests if the model is homoscedastic. In order to determine if this assumption is satisfied, plots of the residuals will be completed in which the residual is on the y-axis and the predicted dependent variable, service sabotage behavior, is on the x-axis. If the plots reveal heteroscedasticity (e.g. plot has a cone, funnel, or football shape), then a variance-stabilizing transformation will be made to the dependent variable (y), service sabotage behavior. For example, if the plot shows a poisson distribution, then the appropriate variance-stabilizing transformation is \sqrt{y} . If the plot shows a binomial proportion distribution, then the transformation is $\sin^{-1}\sqrt{y}$. If the plot shows a multiplicative distribution, then the appropriate transformation is $\log y$ (Mendenhall and Sincich 1996).

Assumption #2: Mean Error of 0

The mean error of 0 assumption occurs when the model is misspecified. This is usually due to terms being omitted from the model. In order to check model misspecification, a plot of the residuals will be completed where the residual is on the y-axis and the independent variable is on the x-axis. If a curvilinear pattern is observed in the plot, then including a curvature term for that independent variable in the model is necessary. In order to determine what type of curvature best fits the model, three curvature types will be tested. These types include the usage of a squared term for the independent variable, the usage of 1 divided by the independent variable, or the usage of the log of the independent variable (Mendenhall and Sincich 1996). The decision regarding what curvature term is best will be based on what model has the best fit. In other words, what model has the lowest standard deviation and the highest adjusted R-square. If the difference between the model without the curvilinear term and the model with the curvilinear term is small, using the model without the curvilinear term will be used as it will give a more parsimonious model which is easier to interpret.

APPENDIX D (CONTINUED)

Assumption #3: Errors are Normally Distributed

In order to test the assumption, errors are normally distributed, a histogram of the residuals will be used. If it is shown in this histogram that the distribution is not too badly skewed, then no modifications will be necessary and this assumption will be deemed reasonably satisfied. This is because this assumption is robust in nature; therefore, the assumption holds true even if the data is slightly skewed. Although there is a statistical test which can determine if this assumption is satisfied, this test will not be used in this dissertation. The reason is that this test, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for normality, is extremely sensitive to any type of skewness which may lead the test to show that the data is non-normal even when the data is only slightly skewed (Mendenhall and Sincich 1996). Because of this, it has been decided that only the histogram will be utilized to examine if this assumption is satisfied.

Assumption #4: Errors are Independent

Since the data being collected in this dissertation is not time-series in nature, the assumption of independent errors is not an issue; therefore, this assumption is satisfied. No tests are needed to satisfy this assumption.

Influential Observation Analysis

After testing the assumptions and creating the initial model, a test for influential observations or outliers will be completed using two different tests. These tests include the Leverage Test and Cook's Distance. Outliers or influential observations are observations which do not fall within three standard deviations of the mean. The first test which will be run is the Leverage Test. This test creates leverage values which show the influence that each observation has. The final test used to look for influential observations is Cook's Distance. This test is a combination of the leverage and jackknife methods. Any Cook's Distance value close to 1 is considered an influential observation (Mendenhall and Sincich 1996). After running these three tests, a decision needs to be made regarding what to do with the influential observations. First of all, each influential observation will be checked to make sure no problems with data entry exist. If it is found that no data entry errors exist in regards to the influential observations, then these influential observations will be eliminated from the data set.

APPENDIX E

Pilot Study Factor Analysis Results

Table 12
Service Sabotage Behavior
 25 items; $\alpha = 0.90$

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	St. Dev	Factor Analysis*		
						1	2	3
Gossiped about a customer?	180	1	7	3.32	1.66	.71		
Started negative rumors about your organization?	180	1	5	1.50	0.94	.67		
Covered up mistakes made?	180	1	7	2.78	1.41	.80		
Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked?	180	1	7	2.71	1.41	.57		
Showed favoritism to certain customers?	180	1	7	3.28	1.57	.70		
Talked with a co-worker instead of worked?	180	1	7	3.64	1.61	.75		
Pretended to work to avoid helping a customer?	180	1	7	2.59	1.54	.71		
Hurried customers when desired?	180	1	7	2.70	1.42	.66		
Ignored company service rules to make things easier for you?	180	1	7	2.58	1.44	.74		
Neglected to say thank you to customer?	180	1	7	2.17	1.23	.42	.48	
Purposely overcharged on services provided to customer?***	180	1	6	1.33	0.85		.75	
Intentionally made errors?	180	1	6	1.54	0.97		.81	
Lied to customers about important information?	180	1	7	1.57	1.07		.63	
Failed to give customers required information?	180	1	6	1.77	1.08		.62	
Deliberately messed things up when customers aren't looking?	180	1	6	1.63	1.05		.75	
Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark or joke in front of a customer?	180	1	5	1.36	0.88		.77	
Sexually harassed a customer?	180	1	6	1.17	0.69			.66
Was rude or nasty to customers?	180	1	4	1.39	0.79			.51
Disclosed secret information about organization to customers?	180	1	6	1.26	0.76			.77
Blamed the customer when something went wrong?	180	1	4	1.44	0.81			.55
Took personal property of customers?	180	1	7	1.22	0.78			.91
Told customer about the lousy place where you work?	180	1	7	1.44	1.02			.85
Publicly embarrassed the customer?	180	1	7	1.32	0.94			.88
Took revenge on rude customers?	180	1	5	1.44	0.96			.47
Deliberately mistreated a customer?	180	1	7	1.29	0.82			.80

* Three factor solution; Eigenvalues = 9.889, 3.795, 1.165 (61.81% variance explained); Labels: 1 = Minor Offense, 2 = Medium Offense, 3 = Major Offense.

** Changed item to "Purposely incorrectly charged a customer's purchase" for Final Study

APPENDIX E (CONTINUED)

Table 13
Emotional Exhaustion
 9 items; $\alpha = 0.92$

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	St. Dev.	PCA*
I feel emotionally drained from my work.	182	1	7	3.19	1.58	.76
I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	182	1	7	3.53	1.64	.60
I feel burned out from my work.	182	1	7	3.54	1.58	.66
I feel frustrated by my job.	182	1	7	3.59	1.54	.72
I feel used up at the end of the workday.	182	1	7	3.66	1.58	.65
I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.	182	1	7	2.69	1.69	.67
I feel I am working too hard on my job.	182	1	7	3.44	1.54	.46
Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	182	1	7	3.01	1.55	.44
Working directly with people puts too much stress on me.	182	1	7	2.77	1.42	.57

* Eigenvalue = 5.526 with 61.4% variance explained.

Table 14
Perceived Organizational Support
 8 items; $\alpha = 0.91$

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	St. Dev	PCA*
The organization values my contribution to its well being.	185	1	7	5.17	1.44	.76
The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me. (R)	185	1	7	4.83	1.60	.72
The organization would ignore any complaint from me. (R)	185	1	7	5.24	1.46	.77
The organization really cares about my well being.	185	1	7	4.96	1.51	.85
Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice. (R)	185	1	7	5.17	1.58	.78
The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.	185	1	7	4.94	1.57	.81
The organization shows very little concern for me. (R)	185	1	7	5.15	1.63	.82
The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	185	1	7	5.01	1.48	.77

* Eigenvalue = 4.929 with 61.62% variance explained.

APPENDIX E (CONTINUED)

Table 15
Perceived Supervisory Support
 8 items; $\alpha = 0.93$

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	St. Dev	PCA*
My supervisor values my contribution to its well being.	183	1	7	5.14	1.41	.75
My supervisor fails to appreciate any extra effort from me. (R)	183	1	7	5.09	1.62	.84
My supervisor would ignore any complaint from me. (R)	183	1	7	5.33	1.41	.79
My supervisor really cares about my well being.	183	1	7	5.06	1.60	.81
Even if I did the best job possible, my supervisor would fail to notice. (R)	183	1	7	5.24	1.53	.84
My supervisor cares about my general satisfaction at work.	183	1	7	5.07	1.50	.84
My supervisor shows very little concern for me. (R)	183	1	7	5.14	1.65	.88
My supervisor takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	183	1	7	5.04	1.48	.76

* Eigenvalue = 5.289 with 66.11% variance explained.

Table 16
Extraversion
 10 items; $\alpha = 0.90$

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	St. Dev	PCA*
Am quiet around strangers (R)	182	1	7	4.30	1.74	.72
Keep in the background (R)	182	1	7	4.99	1.46	.83
Don't like to draw attention to myself (R)	182	1	7	4.25	1.66	.63
Talk to a lot of different people at parties	182	1	7	5.10	1.36	.74
Don't talk a lot (R)	182	1	7	5.26	1.54	.75
Don't mind being the center of attention	182	1	7	4.98	1.51	.75
Have little to say (R)	182	1	7	5.43	1.37	.74
I am the life of the party	182	1	7	4.40	1.58	.73
Start conversations	182	1	7	5.37	1.26	.76
Feel comfortable around people	182	1	7	5.52	1.25	.63

* Eigenvalue = 5.331 with 53.31% variance explained.

APPENDIX E (CONTINUED)

Table 17
Imagination
 10 items; $\alpha = 0.81$

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	St. Dev	Factor Analysis*		
Am quick to understand things	182	1	7	5.45	1.14		.58	
Am full of ideas	182	2	7	5.51	1.15	.71		
Have excellent ideas	182	1	7	5.50	1.17	.78		
Do not have a good imagination (R)	182	1	7	5.29	1.65			.65
Have difficulty understanding abstract ideas (R)	182	1	7	5.12	1.37			.74
Have a vivid imagination	182	1	7	5.48	1.33	.70		
Spend time reflecting on things	182	1	7	5.40	1.38	.65		
Have a rich vocabulary	182	1	7	4.86	1.35		.82	
Use difficult words	182	1	7	4.18	1.56		.77	
Am not interested in abstract ideas (R)	182	1	7	4.93	1.43			.74

* 3 Factor Solution; Eigenvalues = 5.289, 1.255; and 1.105 with a total of 63.89% variance explained; Rotated using Varimax

APPENDIX F

Final Study Factor Analysis Results

Table 18
Service Sabotage Behavior
 20 items; $\alpha = 0.83$

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	St. Dev	Factor Analysis*		
						1 ^a	2 ^a	3 ^a
Covered up mistakes made?	490	1	7	1.87	1.16	.60		
Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked?	490	1	7	1.90	1.16	.57		
Showed favoritism to certain customers?	490	1	7	2.36	1.50	.68		
Talked with a co-worker instead of worked?	490	1	7	2.62	1.39	.62		
Failed to give customers required information?	490	1	7	1.63	.97	.56		
Pretended to work to avoid helping a customer?	490	1	7	1.55	1.00	.58		
Hurried customers when desired?	490	1	7	2.03	1.25	.68		
Ignored company service rules to make things easier for you?	490	1	7	1.82	1.17	.69		
Neglected to say thank you to customer?	490	1	7	1.75	.96	.41		
Gossiped about a customer?	490	1	7	2.51	1.50	.73 ^b		
Blamed the customer when something went wrong?	490	1	5	1.47	.87	.49 ^b		
Purposely incorrectly charged a customer's purchase?	490	1	7	1.16	.59		.77	
Lied to customers about important information?	490	1	6	1.18	.57		.67	
Deliberately messed things up when customers aren't looking?	490	1	5	1.14	.49		.76	
Started negative rumors about your organization?	490	1	7	1.27	.74		.63 ^b	
Told customer about the lousy place where you work?	490	1	6	1.29	.75		.59 ^b	
Sexually harassed a customer?	490	1	4	1.03	.23			.82
Took personal property of customers?	490	1	5	1.07	.40			.76
Deliberately mistreated a customer?	490	1	7	1.15	.58			.69
Publicly embarrassed the customer?	490	1	6	1.10	.46			.71
<i>Was rude or nasty to customers?***</i>	490	1	5	1.52	.86			
<i>Disclosed secret information about organization to customers?***</i>	490	1	5	1.14	.53			
<i>Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark or joke in front of a customer?***</i>	490	1	7	1.21	.65			
<i>Took revenge on rude customers?***</i>	490	1	7	1.30	.77			
<i>Intentionally made errors?***</i>	490	1	6	1.20	.64			

* Three factor solution; Eigenvalues = 7.108, 2.112 and 1.184 with 52% variance explained (33.916%, 10.160% and 5.981% of variance explained per component)

** Dropped Items

^a Labels: 1 = Minor Offense, 2 = Medium Offense, 3 = Major Offense

^b Represents a difference between original classification structure and final classification structure

APPENDIX F (CONTINUED)

Table 19
Emotional Exhaustion
 9 items; $\alpha = 0.94$

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	St. Dev	PCA*
I feel emotionally drained from my work.	490	1	7	3.48	1.72	.88
I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.	490	1	7	3.51	1.69	.86
I feel burned out from my work.	490	1	7	3.60	1.75	.89
I feel frustrated by my job.	490	1	7	3.77	1.69	.85
I feel used up at the end of the workday.	490	1	7	3.88	1.71	.84
I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.	490	1	7	3.00	1.74	.86
I feel I am working too hard on my job.	490	1	7	3.66	1.71	.80
Working with people all day is really a strain for me.	490	1	7	3.00	1.57	.76
Working directly with people puts too much stress on me.	490	1	7	2.89	1.50	.74

* Eigenvalue = 6.233 with 69.26% variance explained.

Table 20
Perceived Organizational Support
 8 items; $\alpha = 0.95$

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	St. Dev	PCA*
The organization values my contribution to its well being.	490	1	7	4.73	1.70	.86
The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me. (R)	490	1	7	4.26	1.94	.84
The organization would ignore any complaint from me. (R)	490	1	7	4.75	1.71	.81
The organization really cares about my well being.	490	1	7	4.41	1.75	.89
Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice. (R)	490	1	7	4.54	1.86	.84
The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.	490	1	7	4.38	1.75	.88
The organization shows very little concern for me. (R)	490	1	7	4.51	1.90	.90
The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	490	1	7	4.54	1.70	.86

* Eigenvalue = 5.916 with 73.95% variance explained.

APPENDIX F (CONTINUED)

Table 21
Perceived Supervisory Support
 8 items; $\alpha = 0.97$

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	St. Dev	PCA*
My supervisor values my contribution to its well being.	490	1	7	5.02	1.58	.89
My supervisor fails to appreciate any extra effort from me. (R)	490	1	7	4.82	1.83	.89
My supervisor would ignore any complaint from me. (R)	490	1	7	5.09	1.62	.85
My supervisor really cares about my well being.	490	1	7	4.82	1.67	.92
Even if I did the best job possible, my supervisor would fail to notice. (R)	490	1	7	4.98	1.81	.92
My supervisor cares about my general satisfaction at work.	490	1	7	4.77	1.64	.91
My supervisor shows very little concern for me. (R)	490	1	7	4.97	1.75	.93
My supervisor takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	490	1	7	4.82	1.64	.92

* Eigenvalue = 6.539 with 81.742% variance explained.

Table 22
Extraversion
 10 items; $\alpha = 0.93$

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	St. Dev	PCA*
Am quiet around strangers (R)	490	1	7	3.74	1.79	.81
Keep in the background (R)	490	1	7	4.06	1.68	.83
Don't like to draw attention to myself (R)	490	1	7	3.56	1.64	.71
Talk to a lot of different people at parties	490	1	7	4.35	1.75	.81
Don't talk a lot (R)	490	1	7	4.42	1.77	.80
Don't mind being the center of attention	490	1	7	4.11	1.75	.78
Have little to say (R)	490	1	7	4.76	1.64	.77
I am the life of the party	490	1	7	3.40	1.61	.75
Start conversations	490	1	7	4.75	1.57	.81
Feel comfortable around people	490	1	7	5.18	1.47	.73

* Eigenvalue = 6.08 with 60.80% variance explained.

APPENDIX F (CONTINUED)

Table 23
Imagination
 8 items; $\alpha = 0.85$

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	St. Dev	PCA*
Am quick to understand things	490	1	7	5.59	1.12	.70
Am full of ideas	490	1	7	5.31	1.22	.85
Have excellent ideas	490	1	7	5.35	1.12	.80
Do not have a good imagination (R)	490	1	7	5.50	1.42	.72
Have difficulty understanding abstract ideas (R)	490	1	7	5.10	1.38	.57
Have a vivid imagination	490	1	7	5.36	1.29	.77
Spend time reflecting on things	490	1	7	5.34	1.21	.52
Have a rich vocabulary	490	1	7	5.15	1.37	.68
<i>Use difficult words**</i>	490	1	7	4.34	1.59	-
<i>Am not interested in abstract ideas (R)**</i>	490	1	7	4.79	1.37	-

* Eigenvalue = 4.033 with 50.41% variance explained

** Dropped Item

APPENDIX G

Final Study Inter-Item Correlations

Table 24
Emotional Exhaustion

	EE1	EE2	EE3	EE4	EE5	EE6	EE7	EE8
EE2	.74**							
EE3	.80**	.76**						
EE4	.74**	.71**	.77**					
EE5	.76**	.68**	.74**	.69**				
EE6	.73**	.72**	.77**	.74**	.69**			
EE7	.66**	.61**	.68**	.65**	.67**	.62**		
EE8	.57**	.60**	.58**	.51**	.53**	.57**	.55**	
EE9	.55**	.57**	.56**	.50**	.49**	.58**	.53**	.82**

Table 25
Perceived Organizational Support

	POS1	POS2	POS3	POS4	POS5	POS6	POS7
POS2	.61**						
POS3	.61**	.68**					
POS4	.78**	.67**	.63**				
POS5	.64**	.77**	.69**	.66**			
POS6	.77**	.67**	.64**	.80**	.63**		
POS7	.72**	.75**	.72**	.77**	.78**	.74**	
POS8	.79**	.64**	.59**	.79**	.65**	.77**	.71**

Table 26
Perceived Supervisory Support

	PSS1	PSS2	PSS3	PSS4	PSS5	PSS6	PSS7
PSS2	.73**						
PSS3	.69**	.73**					
PSS4	.81**	.77**	.74**				
PSS5	.75**	.86**	.75**	.80**			
PSS6	.80**	.75**	.74**	.85**	.78**		
PSS7	.76**	.84**	.79**	.85**	.87**	.82**	
PSS8	.83**	.79**	.71**	.84**	.82**	.85**	.80**

APPENDIX G (CONTINUED)

**Table 27
Extraversion**

	EXT1	EXT2	EXT3	EXT4	EXT5	EXT6	EXT7	EXT8	EXT9
EXT2	.65**								
EXT3	.56**	.61**							
EXT4	.63**	.63**	.42**						
EXT5	.62**	.66**	.51**	.59**					
EXT6	.55**	.58**	.60**	.57**	.53**				
EXT7	.60**	.59**	.54**	.51**	.69**	.53**			
EXT8	.54**	.59**	.50**	.61**	.53**	.65**	.45**		
EXT9	.60**	.58**	.44**	.71**	.62**	.56**	.56**	.55**	
EXT10	.52**	.54**	.39**	.63**	.51**	.49**	.51**	.47**	.65**

**Table 28
Imagination**

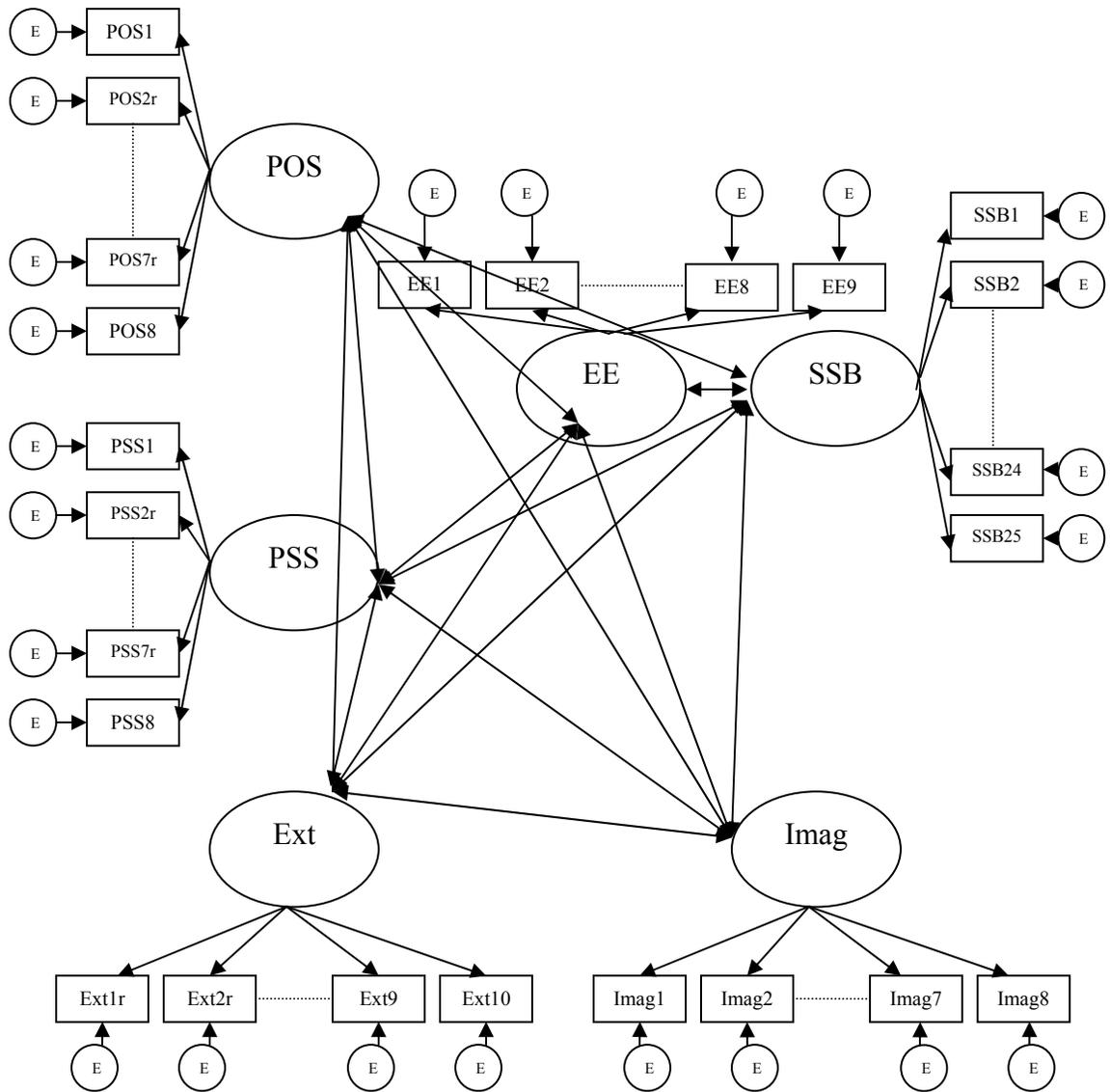
	IMAG1	IMAG2	IMAG3	IMAG4	IMAG5	IMAG6	IMAG7
IMAG2	.54**						
IMAG3	.57**	.71**					
IMAG4	.32**	.59**	.46**				
IMAG5	.39**	.38**	.35**	.34**			
IMAG6	.39**	.63**	.54**	.63**	.32**		
IMAG7	.28**	.38**	.33**	.30**	.17**	.36**	
IMAG8	.47**	.46**	.46**	.40**	.41**	.38**	.30**

APPENDIX H

Table 29
Inter-item Correlations for Final Service Sabotage Behavior Measure

#	2	3	4	5	8	9	13	14	17	23	24	25	28	29	32	33	35	37	40
3	.25**																		
4	.12**	.39**																	
5	.22**	.53**	.28**																
8	.40**	.40**	.24**	.38**															
9	.36**	.33**	.15**	.31**	.35**														
13	.44**	.27**	.12**	.24**	.44**	.31**													
14	.39**	.20**	.09*	.21**	.28**	.39**	.36**												
17	.23**	.40**	.27**	.50**	.30**	.33**	.24**	.23**											
23	.35**	.41**	.30**	.30**	.43**	.39**	.45**	.33**	.38**										
24	.35**	.31**	.24**	.30**	.39**	.27**	.38**	.26**	.36**	.40**									
25	.17**	.38**	.51**	.32**	.23**	.17**	.17**	.11*	.31**	.27**	.24**								
28	.24**	.44**	.22**	.37**	.29**	.35**	.25**	.19**	.42**	.43**	.38**	.24**							
29	.15**	.40**	.55**	.36**	.30**	.17**	.18**	.11*	.37**	.29**	.24**	.48**	.29**						
32	.42**	.38**	.23**	.37**	.45**	.42**	.37**	.30**	.36**	.40**	.30**	.27**	.34**	.31**					
33	.24**	.35**	.25**	.30**	.37**	.36**	.33**	.20**	.29**	.41**	.24**	.22**	.29**	.31**	.35**				
35	.48**	.26**	.12**	.29**	.35**	.44**	.39**	.37**	.34**	.44**	.36**	.08	.30**	.13**	.43**	.33**			
37	.23**	.53**	.32**	.62**	.26**	.32**	.25**	.15**	.48**	.37**	.27**	.25**	.35**	.39**	.32**	.26**	.26**		
40	.45**	.25**	.14**	.24**	.46**	.44**	.36**	.32**	.23**	.41**	.31**	.14**	.31*	.13**	.37**	.27**	.42**	.21**	
41	.29**	.41**	.55**	.42**	.31**	.26**	.32**	.20**	.37**	.43**	.40**	.47**	.23**	.50**	.32**	.29**	.29**	.44**	.26**

APPENDIX I
Measurement Model



Note: Dotted line represents the additional items in each construct not shown graphically on this measurement model. Each additional item not shown also has an error term associated with it.

APPENDIX J

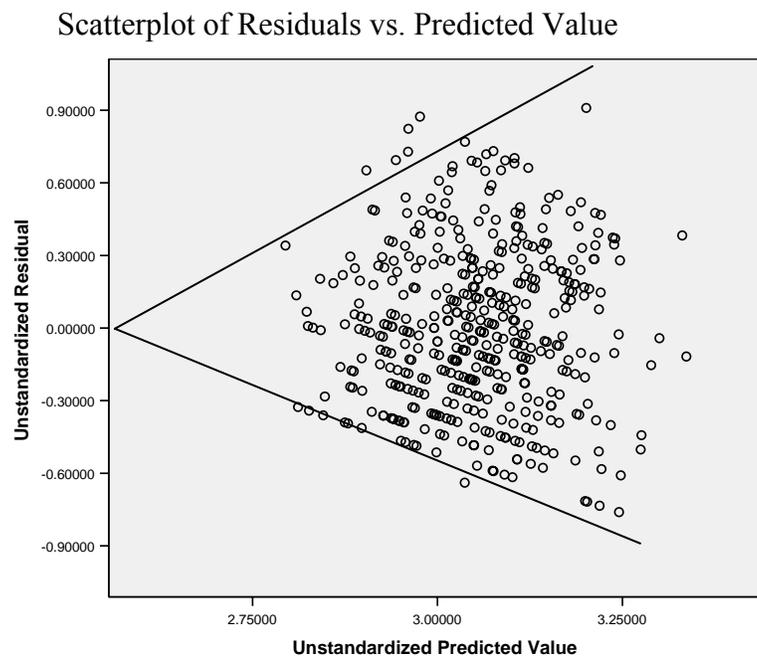
Testing of the Regression Assumptions and Influential Observation Analysis

Multicollinearity

By examining the Pearson's Correlation Coefficients in Table 6, it is evident that multicollinearity is not an issue as none of the correlations between the independent variables exceeded .95. Because of this, stepwise regression was not needed.

Assumption #1: Constant Error Variance for All Levels of the Independent Variables

In order to check if a variance-stabilizing transformation was necessary, a scatter plot was created with the residuals on the y-axis and the predicted dependent variable, service sabotage behavior, on the x-axis. This plot is shown in the figure below. This figure clearly shows that this assumption is violated. Because the pattern shows a multiplicative distribution, the dependent variable, service sabotage behavior, was transformed using the log y.



APPENDIX J (CONTINUED)

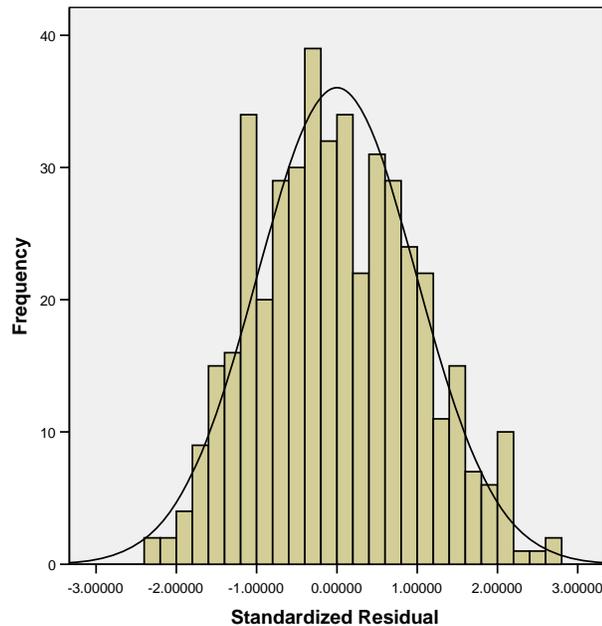
Assumption #2: Mean Error of 0

In order to determine if this assumption was satisfied, scatter plots were created with the residuals on the y-axis and each of the independent variables (emotional exhaustion, perceived organizational support, perceived supervisory support, extraversion, and imagination). No patterns were evident in these five scatter plots; therefore, the model was not misspecified and no curvature is necessary.

Assumption #3: Errors are Normally Distributed

By examining a histogram of the residuals (see below), it was determined that this assumption was reasonably satisfied. Because this assumption is robust in nature, the assumption holds true even if the data is slightly skewed.

Histogram of Standardized Residuals



Assumption #4: Errors are Independent

The last assumption was deemed satisfied since the data being collected is not time series in nature.

APPENDIX J (CONTINUED)

Influential Observation Analysis

Only three observations existed where the standardized residuals exceeded ± 3 standard deviations from the mean. However before determining what to do with these observations, several tests were completed in order to determine how influential these observations were. First of all, the Leverage Test was completed. The possible range of leverage scores is 0 to $(N-1)/N$ or .998. The range of leverage scores obtained in the data fell from .001 to .160. The rule of thumb is that any cases with a leverage statistic above .2 should be examined for possible undue leverage. In this dissertation, no observations were found with a leverage value exceeding .2; therefore, no influential observations were found. Finally, Cook's Distance was completed. The range of distances obtained in the data fell from 0 to .101. Since no observations had a Cook's Distance close to 1, no influential observations were found. Because both Cook's Distance and the Leverage Test revealed no influential observations, no observations were removed from the study.

APPENDIX K

Interaction Term Calculations

Table 30
Regression Weight Estimates, Error Variances and
Factor Variances from Measurement Model

	Regression Weights	Variance
POS		2.576
4	0.95852127	0.581594
6	0.93831948	0.694427
7	1	0.943812
PSS		2.053
4	1.07859052	0.347564
7	1.13246972	0.419651
8	1	0.532992
Ext		1.323
2	1	1.339537
4	1.27553516	0.83383
9	1.13918886	0.666783
Imag		1.03
2	1	0.324328
3	0.80744387	0.472381
6	0.86251478	0.818615

APPENDIX K (CONTINUED)

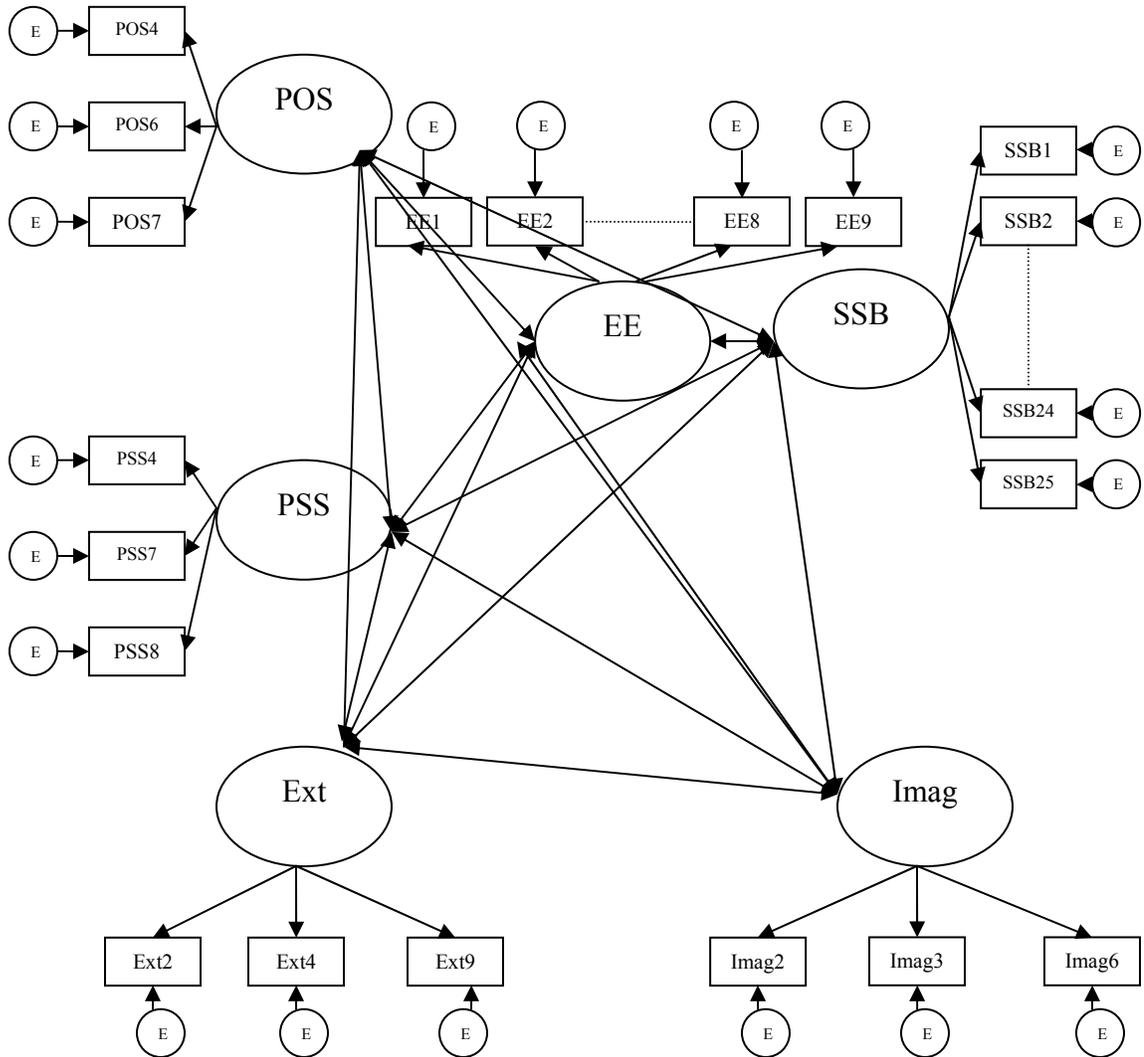
Table 31
Regression Weight and Error Variance Interaction
Calculations for Structural Model

Constructs		Regression Weights	Error Variances	Constructs		Regression Weights	Error Variances
POS	Ext	POSxExt		POS	Imag	POSxImag	
4	2	0.95852127	4.856035	4	2	0.95852127	1.588483
6	2	0.93831948	5.086748	6	2	0.93831948	1.724417
7	2	1	5.963583	7	2	1	2.113699
4	4	1.222627581	3.52526	4	3	0.773952124	1.924807
6	4	1.196859488	3.766361	6	3	0.757640312	2.047364
7	4	1.27553516	4.527637	7	3	0.80744387	2.44763
4	9	1.091936753	2.910732	4	6	0.826738762	3.014067
6	9	1.068923099	3.121324	6	6	0.80931442	3.164073
7	9	1.13918886	3.769414	7	6	0.86251478	3.719843
PSS	Ext	PSSxExt		PSS	Imag	PSSxImag	
8	2	1	4.169182	8	2	1	1.387691
7	2	1.13246972	4.231708	7	2	0.80744387	1.322394
4	2	1.07859052	3.891603	4	2	0.86251478	1.18889
8	4	1.27553516	3.055719	8	3	0.80744387	1.664846
7	4	1.444504945	2.996714	7	3	0.914405733	1.645513
4	4	1.375780132	2.722723	4	3	0.870901304	1.499256
8	9	1.13918886	2.527593	8	6	0.86251478	2.590436
7	9	1.290096889	2.462536	7	6	0.976771871	2.619594
4	9	1.228718305	2.232069	4	6	0.930300265	2.405991

APPENDIX L

Moderation in Structural Equation Modeling

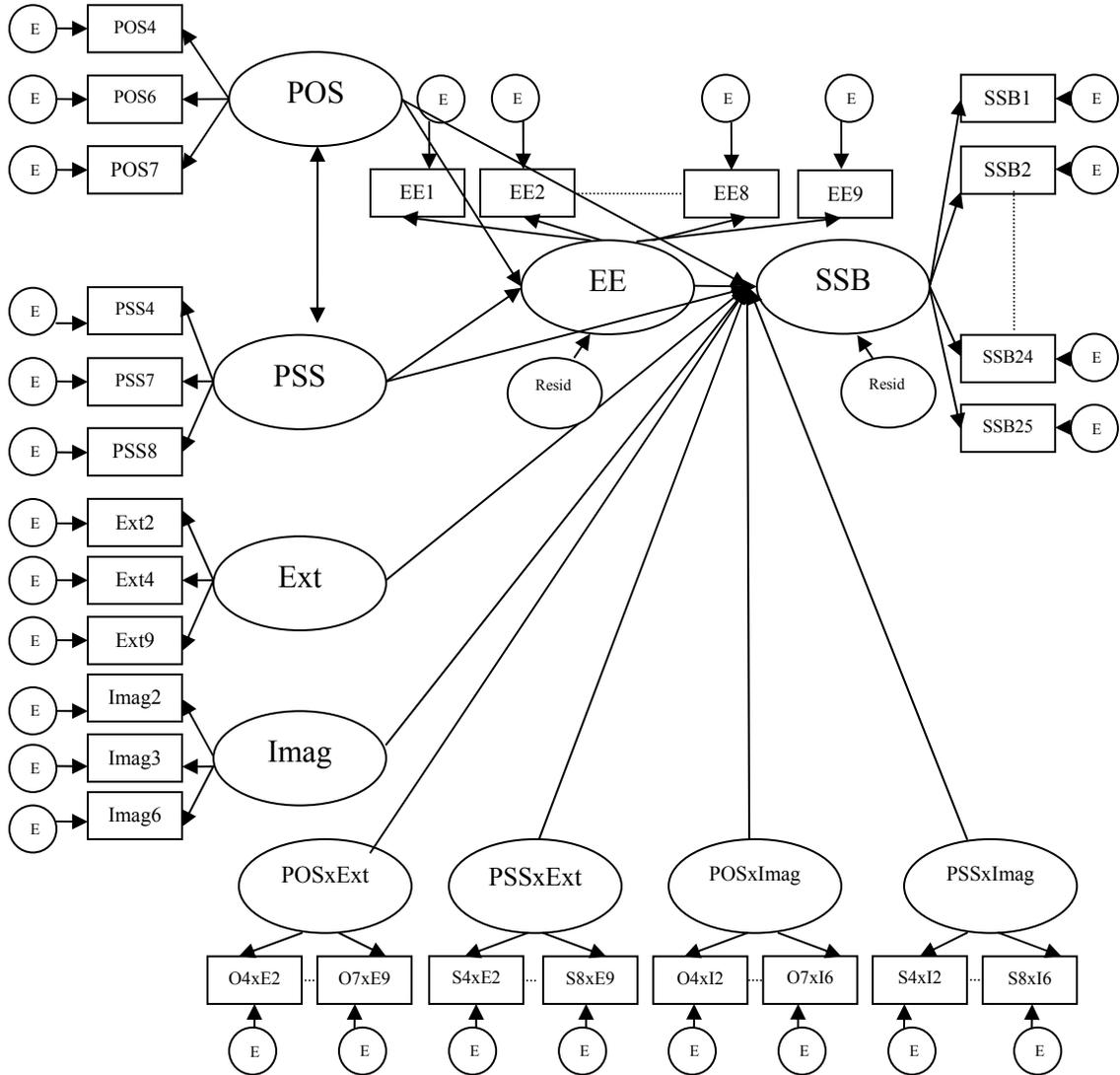
Measurement Model



Note: Dotted line represents the additional items in each construct not shown graphically on this measurement model. Each additional item not shown also has an error term associated with it.

APPENDIX L (CONTINUED)

Structural Model



Note: Dotted line represents the additional items in each construct not shown graphically on this structural model. Each additional item not shown also has an error term associated with it.

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Diane R. Edmondson is currently an Assistant Professor of marketing at Middle Tennessee State University. She earned her Bachelor's degree in General Business Administration and Masters in Business Administration from the University of South Florida in Tampa, Florida.

While in the Ph.D. program, Diane presented papers at conferences such as the Academy of Marketing Science, the American Marketing Association, the Society for Marketing Advances, and the National Conference in Sales Management. Her work has also been published in several journals including the *Journal of Business Research* and *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice*.

Diane resides in Murfreesboro, Tennessee with her son, Aaron.