The Antecedents and Consequences of Service Customer Citizenship and Badness Behavior

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Abstract

This paper presents an empirical test of the antecedents and consequences of customer extra-role behavior (i.e., customer citizenship behavior and badness behavior). The model posits that negative affect, perceived justice, and commitment lead to customer extra-role behavior. In turn, such extra-role behavior is expected to impact perceived service quality. The model was tested in an exercise class context of participants at sports center. Results from the empirical test indicated that managing customer extra-role behavior is as important as that of employee. Secondly, the study found that the organization have to manage the negative affect of customers to prevent customer badness behavior, and perceived justice and commitment to increase customer citizenship behavior. Implications are discussed, possible areas of further research are indicated, and limitations of the study are noted.

Keywords: customer extra-role behavior, customer citizenship behavior, customer badness behavior, perceived service quality

INTRODUCTION

The globalization of the service industry and open international economy require service companies to enhance their competitiveness continually. Service companies have recently been paying more attention to customers in order to improve competitiveness. The current service marketing literature focuses on managing customers as human resources (Bettencourt 1997; Dellande, Gilly, and Graham 2004; Groth 2005). Particularly because services are produced and consumed simultaneously, the interaction between service providers and customers is highly significant to service company performance (Kelley, Donnelly, Skinner 1990; Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry 1990). Until now, most attention has been paid to service *employees*. However, a growing body of recent research has examined the management of customers rather than employees. Specifically, earlier research focused on customer extra-role behavior, because it affects the performance of service companies (Bettencourt 1997; Groth 2005). Thus, studies on extra-role behavior such as citizenship or antisocial behavior by service customers are well documented (Harris and Reynolds 2004; Woo and Fock 2004; Yi 2002). Yet, there has been little empirical work on the antecedents and consequences of customer extra-role behavior. If research in this area is to advance, researchers must test this issue empirically. Furthermore, no research has explored both the antecedents and consequences of customer extra-role behavior simultaneously within one model. Such an approach would identify the differential effects of customer extra-role behavior in terms of its antecedents and consequences.

The present research focuses on antecedents of customer extra-role behavior such as citizenship and badness behavior. Specifically, the study examines *negative affect* during service encounter, *service customer justice*, and *commitment* as antecedents of customer extra-role behavior. In the marketing literature, research on negative affect is abundant and has generally examined the issue empirically from the viewpoint of service employees (Aquino, Lewis, and Bradfield 1999; Ball, Trevino and Sims 1994). Also, we cover the question of justice.

Because customers are in contact with frontline service employees for service production and consumption, they can appraise justice. Lastly, we examine customer commitment, which is well documented in the relationship marketing research.

Moreover, the present study suggests that perceived service quality is a consequence of customer extra-role behavior. A growing stream of research has appraised the performance of service companies in terms of perceived service quality (Bell and Menguc 2002; Cermak et al., 1994; Rodie and Kleine, 2000). However, researchers have not yet linked this to customer citizenship or dysfunctional behavior. Thus, understanding how customer perceived service quality is related to these two types of customer extra-role behavior would add a valuable contribution to the literature. Yoon and Suh (2003) argue that customer service quality appraisal is a central component in assessing the effectiveness of a service organization. Thus, the present study explores the relationship between customer extra-role behavior and perceived service quality, and draws some managerial implications on customer extra-role behaviors.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Customer Citizenship Behavior

A series of studies recognize the role of positive customer functions and proposes concepts such as customer citizenship behavior and voluntary performance. Bettencourt (1997, p. 384) defines customer voluntary performance as "helpful, discretionary behaviors of customers that support the ability of the firm to deliver service quality." Groth (2005) defines customer citizenship behavior as voluntary and discretionary behavior by individual customers that is not directly or explicitly expected or rewarded, but that aggregates into higher service quality and promotes the effective functioning of service organizations (e.g., helping another customer or providing suggestions to the service organization).

Service companies now increasingly involve their customers in the production and delivery of services. Consequently, they have

come to view customers as human resources of their companies (Bowen and Schneider 1985; Zeithaml, Bitner, and Gremler 2005). Furthermore, the simultaneity of production and consumption of services requires customer participation in the delivery of the service, and customers are becoming close cooperators in the service encounter, contributing both suggestions and feedback so as to improve service delivery (Keh and Teo 2001). Moreover, service customers can also directly influence the company's production process and outcome. If customers are motivated and able to use various *self*-service elements, the service company may be able to invest fewer inputs and still enhance productivity (Ojasalos 2003). Chervonnaya (2003) emphasizes the "chameleon" nature of service customers and notes that customers can recommend a service to others, participate in evaluating service quality during service delivery, and serve as resources by contributing information to decision making by service employees. Bitner et al. (1997) describe the various roles of customers as productive resources, as contributors to quality, satisfaction and value, and as competitors to the service organization. Hsieh, Yen, and Chin (2004) argue that service customers can raise organizational productivity and improve company performance, customer satisfaction, repurchase, and referral. According to Lengnick-Hall (1996), competitiveness can be improved by customers who encourage high-quality performance through stimulating the firm into creating high-quality processes. A customer is thus a coproducer of services, and marketing can be seen as a process of doing things interactively with the customer (Vargo and Lusch 2004). In this manner, customers are often active participants in relational exchange and coproduction.

Customers can make suggestions for service improvement, cooperate during the service encounter, engage in positive word-of-mouth, buy additional services, make recommendations to others, and increase price tolerance (Bettencourt 1997; Anderson, Fornell, and Mazvancheryl 2004). Lengnick-Hall, Claycomb, and Inks (2000) discuss organizational citizenship behavior by customers. They argue that the benefits of organizational citizenship behavior are considerable and include acts of cooperation, helpfulness, and kindliness. If all customers use equipment properly and promote a positive social

environment, they will enjoy and benefit from the service experience.

Customer Badness Behavior

Dysfunctional customers who damage the company in some way or prejudice the consumption experience for other customers are becoming a major problem. Because service companies can earn higher profits through reducing expenses caused by such dysfunctional customers, there is an increasing interest in dysfunctional customer management (Harris and Reynolds 2003; Yi 2002; Yi and Gong 2004). Furthermore, because customer badness behavior leads to significant financial and non-financial losses (e.g., lower status) to the service company, efforts to prevent customer badness behavior are increasing (Fullerton and Punj 1997).

The increase in both practical and academic interest has yielded various terms related to customer badness behavior. Fullerton and Punj (1993, p. 570) refer to 'aberrant consumer behavior' as "behavior in exchange settings which violates the generally accepted norms of conduct in such situations and which is therefore held in disrepute by marketers and by most consumers." They suggest that aberrant consumer behavior includes: 1) destruction of marketer property, 2) abuse, intimidation, physical and psychological victimization of other customers and service employees, and 3) material loss through various forms of theft including insurance, credit card, check fraud, and shoplifting. Mills and Bonoma (1979, p. 347) define 'deviant consumer behavior' as "behavior in a retail store that society considers inappropriate or in conflict with a previously accepted societal norm" and gives shoplifting, damaging in-store fixtures or restrooms, and consumer fraud as examples. Similarly, Lovelock (2001, p. 73) defines a 'jaycustomer' as "one who acts in a thoughtless or abusive way, causing problems for the firm, its employees, and other customers", and classifies a jaycustomer as (1) the thief who has no intention of paying and sets out to steal goods and services, (2) the rule breaker who breaks the rules and guidelines of a service company, (3) the belligerent who is red in the face, shouts angrily and mouths insults, threats, and obscenities, (4) the family feuder who gets

into arguments with other customers, (5) the vandal who damages service facilities and equipment, and (6) the deadbeat, delinquent account which fails to pay what is due for the service received. For Hoffman and Bateson (1997), 'uncooperative customers are denoted as (1) 'egocentric Edgar' who places his or her needs above those of all other customers and service employees, (2) 'bad-mouth Betty' who becomes loud, crude, and abusive to service employees and other customers alike, (3) 'hysterical Harold' who reverts to screaming and tantrums to make his point, (4) 'dictatorial Dick' who assumes superiority over all personnel and management, and (5) 'freeloading Freeda' who uses tricks or verbal abuse to acquire services without paying. Based on these various terms and definitions, this study defines customer badness behavior as "customer behavior that causes problems for the service company, its employees, and other customers in a thoughtless or abusive manner."

The early research in this field examined the antecedents of customer badness behavior. Fullerton and Punj (1993) suggest that a number of factors are related to the occurrence of customer badness behavior. These include: (1) demographic characteristics such as customer age, sex, education, and occupation, (2) psychological characteristics of customer such as personal traits, level of moral development, unfulfilled aspirations, and propensity of thrill-seeking, (3) social influences, and (4) consumer's antecedent mood states. More recently, a growing body of research has examined the consequences of such behavior. According to Harris and Reynolds (2003), badness behavior impacts negatively on customer contact employees, other customers, and the company as a whole. Customer badness behavior can cause service employees implicit psychological stress such as shame and insult. Specifically, threatening, aggressive, and obstructive customer behavior may have negative effects on the mood and emotion of service employees. Because customer badness behavior includes disturbing the service-provision process of other customers intentionally or accidentally, customer badness behavior can have a negative effect on the satisfaction perceived by other customers, perceived service quality, and loyalty to the company. Given that employees still have to deal with bad customers, their behavior reduces the time available to serve other customers and

thus exerts a negative impact on the retention, recruitment, and training of employees. Consequently, the service company may suffer from serious financial damage in terms of decreased profitability (Harris and Reynolds 2003).

Conceptual differences are evident between customer citizenship behavior and customer participation behavior. Customer participation behavior (CPB) refers to the actions of and resources supplied by customers for service production and delivery (Rodie and Kleine 2000). Similarly, Keh and Teo (2001) describe CPB as behavior that customers are literally required to perform during their service encounter. Kelley, Donnelly, and Skinner (1990) use customers of financial institutions who provide detailed records of their credit history as well as clients of accounting firms which also provide information, as examples of customer participation behavior. If customers do not fulfill the required action properly, the delivery of service will not succeed. It is thus concluded that in certain service contexts, customer participation behavior is the required action for service delivery.

However, customers may choose to cooperate with service providers, make suggestions to the service organization, and help other customers beyond mere passive behavior in the context of service provision (Bettencourt 1997; Groth 2005; Keh and Teo 2001). However, even if customers do not perform such extra-role behaviors voluntarily, service failure would not necessarily occur.

We can also make conceptual distinctions between customer badness behavior and customer complaint behavior. In the marketing literature, customer complaint behavior includes engaging in negative word-of-mouth, exiting, and contacting third parties (Blodgett, Hill, and Tax 1997). Based on the preceding discussion, customer complaint behavior is often intended to resolve dissatisfaction during service delivery through a socially accepted method.

However, customer badness behavior is based on more than dissatisfaction, and occurs for various reasons. These include violence, theft, and fraud that violate generally accepted social norms. Thus, such behavior damages service organizations and other customers.

Table 1 summarizes the conceptual differences between these key concepts.

Table 1. The Distinction of Customer Behaviors

	In-role	Extra-role
Functional	Participation Behavior	Citizenship Behavior
Dysfunctional	Compliant Behavior	Badness Behavior

Perceived Service Quality

Increasingly, service companies focus their attention on improving customer service quality. Morrison (1996) accounts for this growing concern in that, firstly, service companies face ever increasing pressure from overseas competitors. Secondly, customers are more and more willing to do their business elsewhere if they are dissatisfied with the present seller. On the other hand, if customers have positive impressions of service quality, their satisfaction increases. Increased customer satisfaction is expected to lead to greater customer retention (Anderson and Mittal 2000; Schneider, White, and Paul 1998). Service quality improves customer satisfaction, satisfied customers develop a strong relationship with the provider, and this in turn generates steady revenues, and improves a firm's financial performance (Johnson and Selnes 2004; Morgan, Anderson, and Mittal 2005; Storbacka, Strandvik, and Grönroos 1994).

The marketing literature has traditionally investigated the impact of customer-contact (front-line) employees on service quality (Bitner 1990; Hartline and Ferrell 1996; Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry 1990). Unlike tangible products, services are produced and consumed simultaneously, so that boundary-spanning personnel essentially become the service producer. This aspect of services brings into sharp focus the vital role that service employees play in delivering high-quality services (Bienstock, DeMoranville, and Smith 2003). Hartline and Ferrell (1996) propose that, because the delivery of services occurs during the interaction between contact employees and customers (the service encounter), the attitudes and behaviors of contact employees can influence customer perceptions of the service. Thus, service companies must find ways to manage their customer-contact employees effectively to help ensure that their

attitudes and behaviors are conducive to the delivery of quality service (Hartline and Ferrell 1996).

However, recent studies have focused on the role of service customers in the perception of service quality (Bienstock, DeMoranville, and Smith 2003; Cronin and Taylor 1992; Parasuraman, Berry, and Zeithaml 1991). That is, there is another component in service encounters, namely customers. A growing number of studies emphasize the importance of customers as human resources (Lengnick-Hall 1996; Mills and Morris 1986; Namasivayan 2003). As a consequence, customers are becoming increasingly significant in the formation of service quality. Lengnick-Hall (1996) explains that many firms have 'erased the buffer' between core activities and customers, and that direct contact with customers is related to an emphasis on service quality. As customers' sophistication, knowledge, and expertise increase, they are viewed as important co-producers. In this regard, Schuler and Harris (1992) argue that firms should consider customers as partners for success. A partnership perspective is a useful conceptual framework for considering customers and competitive quality. Yoon and Suh (2003) argue that external customer evaluations of service quality constitute a major element of service firm effectiveness.

In summary, the above arguments suggest that the role of customers is highly significant for service quality. Nevertheless, many researchers have focused mostly on the role of employees and neglected that of customers. Thus, this study attempts to investigate the effects of customer extra-role behavior (citizenship and badness behavior) on service quality perceived by customers. The study is intended to provide useful implications for the managing and influencing service customer behavior.

HYPOTHESES

Our objective is to examine the antecedents and consequences of customer citizenship and badness behavior. In particular, we identify three antecedents: (1) negative affect, (2) justice, and (3) commitment. We also suggest one main consequence: perceived service quality. The conceptual framework of this study is presented in Figure 1.
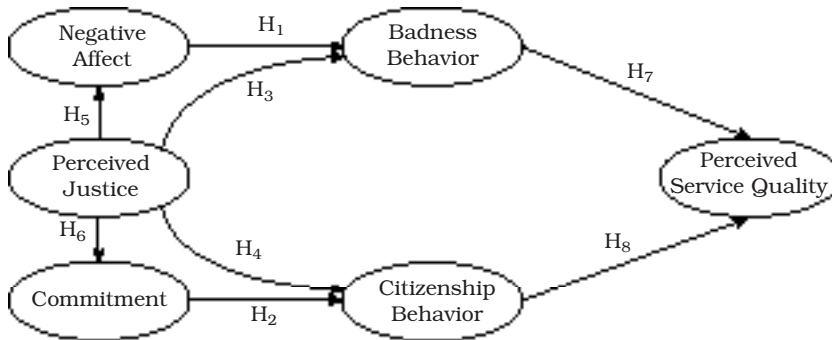
Figure 1. Conceptual Model

Negative Affect

Watson and Clark (1984) define *negative affect* as a higher-order personality variable describing the extent to which an individual experiences levels of distressing emotions such as anger, hostility, fear, and anxiety. The present study examines negative affect experienced during service encounters. Watson and Clark (1984) conclude that people subject to high negative affect are more hostile, demanding, and distant than those facing only low negative affect. Compared with a person who scores low on a measure of negative affect, an individual who scores high on such a measure can be described as experiencing greater distress, discomfort, and dissatisfaction over time in different situations (Skarlicki, Folger, and Tesluk 1999; Watson and Clark 1984). Douglas and Martinko (2001) explain that, in the social psychology literature, negative affect has been associated with aggression. Eysenck and Gudjonsson (1989) note that negative affect may produce delinquency, which is defined as the tendency to violate moral codes and engage in disruptive behavior. Heaven (1996) established that negative affect is related to self-reports of interpersonal vandalism, violence, and theft. Because customer badness behavior is one form of such deviant behavior, we expect that negative affect may be positively related to customer badness behavior.

H_1: Negative affect will exacerbate customer badness behavior.

Commitment

Commitment is defined as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Steers 1977). Early research on commitment concentrated exclusively on employees. However, service customers come to accept organizational goals and values through the socialization process, and they become more committed to the organization through stronger identification and involvement with the organization (Kelley, Donnelly, and Skinner 1990). Prior researchers have reported that commitment is strongly associated with citizenship behavior. Those who are committed to an organization are willing to make some form of sacrifice in order to contribute to its well being (Mowday, Porter, and Steers 1982). Meyer and Allen (1984) also report a strong relationship between commitment and citizenship behavior. Brief and Motowidlo (1986) argue that the components of commitment are predictive of citizenship behavior. Mackenzie, Podsakoff, and Ahearne (1998) suggest that commitment is an antecedent of in-role performance and a consequence of extra-role performance of citizenship behavior. Recent researches posits that customers engage in citizenship behavior that parallels that of employees and can be conceptualized and managed in similar ways (Groth, Mertens, Murphy 2004). Therefore, we predict a positive relationship between commitment and customer citizenship behavior.

H_2: Commitment will exert a positive influence on customer citizenship behavior.

Perceived Justice

A substantial body of research on justice deals with efforts to recover from service failure (Blodgett, Hill and Tax 1997; Maxham III and Netemeyer 2002; Olsen and Johnson 2003). Owing to the inseparability of production and delivery processes, direct contact between customers and service providers is inevitable (Bowen and Schneider 1985). Therefore, customers can perceive justice in the service delivery context as do

employees. With respect to human resource management, studies on employees provide some indirect implications for the relationship between justice and customer badness behavior. Aquino, Lewis, and Bradfield (1999) suggest that perceptions of injustice have been associated with deviant behaviors such as employee theft and vandalism. According to Sommers, Schell, and Vodanovich (2002), if employees feel they have been treated unfairly by those in power in the organization, they may resort to indirect and covert forms of retaliation.

We may thus posit a negative relationship between customer badness behavior and service justice, because customers are, in a sense, also employees. Organizational psychology suggests that justice generally encompasses three different components. Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of outcomes that an individual receives. Procedural justice is the perceived fairness of procedures that are used to determine outcome decisions. Interactional justice concerns the extent to which individuals are treated with politeness, dignity, and respect by those who carry out procedures or determine outcomes. In the service context, interactional justice involves evaluations of the respectfulness, politeness, and openness of customer-employee communication (Bies and Moag 1986; Colquitt 2001; Cropanzano and Greenberg 1997; Chory-Assad and Paulsel 2004). In this paper, we examine only interactional justice. Because the context of this research is characterized by frequent interaction between service employees and customers, interactional justice is therefore likely to be most relevant. Furthermore, of the three categories of justice, interactional justice has received the least attention in the literature.

H_3: Perceived justice will lower the degree of customer badness behavior.

Social exchange theory predicts that people seek to reciprocate to those who benefit them. Organizational citizenship behavior is one form of behavior that employees may exhibit in order to reward those who benefit them (Tansky 1993). Justice may be one type of benefit. Organ (1990) and Moorman (1991) suggest a reason why a measure of perceived justice may predict organizational citizenship behavior. Equity theory predicts that

conditions of unfairness will create tension within a person, which he or she will attempt to resolve (Adams 1965). Citizenship behavior can be considered an input into an individual's equity ratio. Masterson (2001) suggests that if employees value fair treatment by the organization and perceive that they are indeed treated fairly, they will be committed to the organization and thus feel obliged to reciprocate by providing something of value in return. In a service context, this reciprocity is likely to take the form of customer citizenship behavior. According to the meta analysis by Podsakoff et al. (2000) and Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001), justice is strongly related to organizational citizenship behavior. Given the conceptualization of customers as human resources of organizations, we believe that these arguments relating to employees can also be applied to customers. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed.

H_4: Perceived justice will exert a positive influence on customer citizenship behavior.

From a customer perspective, justice is more than merely a matter of economic exchange. However customers do not consciously calculate justice. Justice leads to specific effects, because the intangibility of services intensifies customer sensitivity to justice issues (Chebat and Slusarczyk 2005). Skarlicki, Folger, and Tesluk (1999) argue that if individuals perceive organizational decisions and actions to be unjust, they are likely to experience negative affect such as anger, outrage, and resentment. If individuals receive fair treatment, they will feel positive affect (Chebat and Slusarczyk 2005). Kennedy, Homant, and and Homant (2004) explain that perceived injustice results in profound anger toward the employer and organization, or toward specific employees and supervisors who are seen to have done wrong. The meta-analysis by Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) shows that negative emotions are predicted by organizational justice. Based on these findings and the related literature, the following hypothesis is proposed.

H_5: Perceived justice will lower negative affect.

Based on employee studies, we can find a reasonable basis for

a relationship between interaction justice and commitment among customers, because customers are, in effect, "partial employees." Masterson (2001) proposes that, to the extent employees feel fairly treated, they are more likely to feel a strong sense of belonging and identification with their organization, and, as a result, commit to it. Masterson (2001) developed a "trickle-down" model of justice, according to which, employee perceptions of justice influence their affective commitment. Empirical evidence has linked perceived justice to organizational commitment (McFarlin and Sweeney 1992). According to Bowen, Gilliland, and Folger (1999), when customers believe firms treat them fairly, they are most likely to form enduring relationships and establish organizational commitment, even though they are "just" customers. Therefore, we expect perceived justice to be positively related to commitment.

H_6: Perceived justice will exert a positive influence on commitment.

The Relationship between Customer Extra-role Behavior and Perceived Service Quality

The service marketing literature to date has paid scant attention to the consequences of customer badness behavior (Babin and Babin 1996; Cox, Cox, and Moschis 1990). However, recently, a growing body of mainly theoretical research has been published on this subject (Fullerton and Punj 1997; Harris and Reynolds 2003). Yet far less progress has been made empirically. According to Lovelock (2001), customer badness behavior is a cause of problems for firms, their employees, and other customers. We would thus expect customer badness behavior to exert a negative influence on perceived service quality. Fullerton and Punj (1993) conclude that customer badness behavior has a harmful impact on the performance of service organizations. Stewart and Chase (1999) claim that a substantial portion of service failure results from human error in the service delivery process, since services are inherently people-intensive. In this regard, customer badness behavior can be seen as a human error of customers in the dyadic service relationship. We therefore expect customer badness behavior to be negatively

related to perceived service quality. The performance of service organizations can be defined as the behavior of service employees and customers who contribute to the goals of the organization (Dunlop and Lee 2004). Because customer badness behavior, as defined in this paper, is opposed to the goals of service organizations, it is logical that customer badness behavior would contribute negatively to the goals of a service organization. Recent research has measured the performance of service organizations as perceived service quality (Bell and Menguc 2002).

The present study measured perceived service quality from the viewpoint of customers themselves, not from that of other customers. The traditional stressor-stress-strain framework posits that objective stressors in the environment evoke cognitive appraisals about the situation and coping responses (Grandey, Dickter, and Sin 2004). In our model, customer badness behavior is the work stressor. Therefore, if employees feel threatened by customer badness behavior, they will experience high levels of stress and may fail to provide adequate service-related works to their customers. For this reason, the customer who exhibits badness behavior himself might experience a low level of service quality. Although other customers' behaviors also have impact on perceived service quality, this study focuses on the behavior and perception of customers themselves. As the study is mainly dependent on self-reported surveys, it is difficult to gather the information of other customers' behavior.

Therefore, we propose that customer badness behavior has a negative influence on perceived service quality.

H_7: Customer badness behavior will exert a negative influence on perceived service quality.

The present study examines the relationship between customer citizenship behavior and perceived service quality. It would be helpful to consider the various definitions of customer citizenship behavior in the literature. As noted above, they are related to service quality. According to Groth (2005), customer citizenship behavior is associated with higher service quality. Bettencourt (1997) suggests that customer citizenship behavior is related to the ability to deliver service quality. Consistent with this view,

various studies have found an association between customer citizenship behavior and service quality, both conceptually and empirically (Castro, Armario, and Ruiz 2004; Podsakoff and Mackenzie 1997; Podsakoff et al. 2000). Bell and Menguc (2002) suggests two reasons for positive relationships between organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) and service quality. Firstly, OCB has a direct effect on customer perceptions, because it emerges during employee-customer interactions. Secondly, OCB can exert a positive effect on service quality through internal organizational factors, including service climate and service process consistency. In a similar manner to employees, customers of a service organization can engage in compliance and thorough citizenship behavior. As a result, the efficiency and productivity of the service production and service delivery are expected to increase. That is, customer citizenship behavior would have a positive effect on service quality perceived by customers.

Morrison (1996) views citizenship behavior as service-oriented behavior and argues that prior research has focused on the antecedents of citizenship behavior, but neglected critical organizational outcomes such as service quality. He also claims that citizenship behavior can contribute toward creating superior service quality perceptions. Applying Morrison's (1996) arguments to the customer perspective, service customers are likely to show high levels of respectful and considerate behavior to one another, as well as a positive attitude toward other customers. They will also avoid unnecessary complaining about the firm. Customers will experience greater service quality to the extent such behaviors are exhibited. In addition, through suggestions from customers, service organizations can continually improve their customer service. Based on the above discussion, it is proposed that there is positive relationship between customer citizenship behavior and perceived service quality.

H_8: Customer citizenship behavior will exert a positive influence on perceived service quality.

METHOD

Sample Selection and Data Collection

Participants were recruited from customers visiting a sports center in Seoul, South Korea. Although service situations are very diverse, the present study is based on exercise class participants at this sports center. The exercise class generally involves a high level of interaction between employees (instructors) and customers. Furthermore, it is 'high participation', requiring customers to perform most of the task themselves (Bitner et al., 1997). It is, therefore, to be expected that customer extra-role behaviors are well represented. Furthermore, the sports center in this study can provide customized service program and/or a decent customer care to customers because most of the class consists of less than 10 people. Thus, it is possible for customers to feel justice from employees.

Individuals were approached in public areas of the sports center. Having given their informed consent to participate in the study, one hundred individuals completed the questionnaires in a designated area. It turned out that three questionnaires were invalid.

Because people might tend to provide socially acceptable answers when asked about unacceptable or negative behavior, several precautions were taken to avoid response bias, based on Cole (1989) and Sudman & Bradburn (1982). Firstly, considerable attention was paid to the wording of the questionnaire. For example, the questionnaires did not contain any negative expressions. Respondents were told that the survey concerns the behavior of customers during instructional classes within the sports center program. The program instructor was not present when the questionnaires were completed, and there were verbal instructions emphasizing anonymity. The participants were 28% male and 72% female. With respect to exercise types, 36% were health, 54% jazz dance, 9% swimming, and 1% for other types of exercise. Regarding the enrollment period, 28% had signed up for less than 2 months, 34% for less

than 6 months, 28% for up to 2 years, and 10% for more than 2 years.

Measures

Self-administered questionnaires were used for the entire survey. For all constructs, we adopted the scale items from the relevant literature. However, we modified the wording of specific items to reflect the focus of present study on exercise classes.

The constructs were measured by means of seven-point Likert scales, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), and items were selected for measurement using three steps. Firstly, items from the existing literature were translated from English into Korean. Secondly, a university professor and a graduate student who were proficient in English were asked to evaluate the appropriateness of the Korean version of the scale. The inappropriate items were eliminated. Thirdly, a re-examination of measurements was repeated during the pre-test process. The above steps ensured that the questionnaire satisfied the criterion of content validity.

Negative affect was assessed with three items from Bougie, Pieters, and Zeelenberg (2003). These items measured the degree of anger, enragement, and resentment that respondents have felt toward instructors or other members of classes at the sports center. Perceived justice was measured by three items assessing the extent to which class instructors look after uses of the center, listen to them attentively, and treat them with courtesy. These measures were adopted from Blodgett, Hill, and Tax (1997).

Commitment was measured with three items adapted from Maltz and Kohli (1996). The items include: "I feel emotionally attached to this sports center," "I feel a strong sense of belonging to the sports center," and "This sports center has a great deal of personal meaning for me." Three items from Bennett and Robinson (2000) were used to assess customer badness behavior at the sports center: "acted rudely toward someone at the sports center," "came in late to class without permission," and "did not follow lecturers' instructions."

Customer citizenship behavior was measured with five-item scales adapted from prior research (Groth 2005). The items

reflected the degree to which customers recommend this sports center to peers and family, provide feedback for improvement, and assist and help other customers during exercise classes.

Perceived service quality was measured with five items from Bell and Menguc (2002). This scale was intended to assess promptness of service from the contact-employees, and his/ her courteousness, personal attention, ability to answer the customer questions, and understand customer-specific needs. In regards to measuring service quality, the SERVQUAL instrument has attracted the greatest attention as a result of its claim of being able to measure the relevant dimensions of the perceived service quality regardless of the service industry. The SERVQUAL instrument still continues to appeal to both academics and practitioners.

Yoon and Suh (2003) argue that customer service quality appraisal is a central component in assessing the effectiveness of a service organization. Recent research has measured the performance of service organizations by perceived service quality (Bell and Menguc 2002). Further, the focus of the present research is the interaction between customers and employees. Therefore, the role of employees is still important and we feel that perceived service quality scale of this study is appropriate.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The conceptual model depicted in Figure 1 was tested using AMOS 4.0 (Arbuckle and Worthke 1999). All analyses used maximum likelihood estimation and the covariance matrix. The correlation matrix with standardized errors and means is provided in Table 2.

Structural equation modeling is sensitive to the distributional characteristics of the data, particularly the departure from multivariate normality or a strong kurtosis (skewness) in the data. A lack of multivariate normality is problematic mainly because it significantly inflates chi-square statistics and creates upward bias in critical values which determine coefficient significance (Hair et al. 1998). The present study measures deviant or undesirable behavior. Thus, it is possible that customer badness behavior measures suffer from an inadequate

Table 2. Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliabilities of Constructs

	Mean	SD	Correlation					
			1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Negative Affect	3.707	0.948	*0.741*					
2. Perceived justice	5.526	1.074	0.029	*0.902*				
3. Commitment	5.206	0.958	-0.004	0.715	*0.863*			
4. Badness Behavior	1.827	0.691	0.099	-0.041	-0.081	*0.717*		
5. Citizenship Behavior	5.938	0.801	-0.141	0.422	0.493	-0.281	*0.902*	
6. Perceived Service Quality	5.553	0.979	0.039	0.725	0.668	-0.084	0.543	*0.9256*

NOTE: Italicized entries on the diagonal for variables are coefficient alpha estimates.

distribution problem, such as highly skewed data or extreme values from positive kurtosis. Therefore, this study examined the data normality. Consequently, several measures of customer badness behavior yielded high skewness problems (i.e., 4.472). To overcome these undesirable properties, we used the item parceling technique adopted in many empirical investigations as a means of obtaining item distributions that are more continuous and normally distributed (Bandalos 2002). As a result of parceling, the ranges of skewness and kurtosis were acceptable for structural equation model analysis (skewness: 0.730~0.960, kurtosis: -0.363~0.224).

Measurement Model

Measures were validated using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The adequacy of the measurement model was evaluated for the criterion of overall fit with the data, reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. The CFA produced a χ^2 goodness of fit statistic of 344.4 with 194 degrees of freedom (p < .001). The model fit was evaluated using the CFI and IFI fit indices that are recommended because of their relative stability and insensitivity to sample size (Bentler and Bonett 1980; Hu and Bentler 1999). The comparative fit index (CFI) is 0.904 and incremental fit index (IFI) is 0.907, suggesting a reasonably good fit. These results support the unidimensionality of the scales (Bagozzi and Yi 1988). Cronbach's α coefficients (Table 2) reveal that all construct reliabilities exceed 0.70, which indicates

Table 3. Estimated Coefficients for the Structural Model

Hypothesized paths	Expected sign	Unstandardized coefficient	Standardized coefficient	t-value
H_1 Negative affect → customer badness behavior	+	**0.191**	0.295	2.100
H_2 Commitment → customer citizenship behavior	+	**0.168**	0.222	2.209
H_3 Perceived justice → customer badness behavior	-	0.090	0.084	0.614
H_4 Perceived justice → customer citizenship behavior	+	**0.280**	0.326	3.018
H_5 Perceived justice → negative affect	-	**-0.767**	-0.461	-4.352
H_6 Perceived justice → commitment	+	**0.916**	0.809	8.371
H_7 Customer badness behavior → perceived service quality	-	-0.025	-0.025	-0.336
H_8 Customer citizenship behavior → perceived service quality	+	**2.029**	1.564	5.307
Fit statistics				
χ^2		352.503		
df		201		
Comparative fit index		0.903		
Incremental fit index		0.905		

NOTE: Based on one-tailed tests, significant coefficients at p = 0.05 are in bold.

acceptable reliability (Nunnally 1978). All loadings are highly significant. Furthermore, no two factors can be combined into one without producing a significantly worse fit. Therefore, the measurement model is deemed adequate for further analysis.

Hypothesis Testing

The results indicate that the model fits well (Table 3). The structural model gave the following result: $\chi^2_{(201)} = 352.503$, p < .001. Additional diagnostics include a CFI of 0.903, and an IFI of 0.905.

In terms of hypotheses, *negative affect* was found to have a significant effect on customer badness behavior (p < .05), confirming Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 2, which proposed a positive relationship between commitment and *customer citizenship behavior*, was supported (p < .05). However, *perceived justice* did not have a significant association with customer badness behavior, so that Hypothesis 3 was not confirmed. Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6 were confirmed. *Perceived justice* had a significant (p < .01) and positive relationship with customer

citizenship behavior. As expected, justice had a negative relationship with *negative affect* (p < .001) and a positive relationship with commitment (p < .001). Finally, the relationship between customer badness behavior and *perceived service quality* was not statistically significant, which did not support Hypothesis 7. Hypothesis 8 was supported. Customer citizenship behavior had a significant (p < .001) and positive relationship with perceived service quality.

DISCUSSION

The present study examined simultaneously both the antecedents and consequences of service customer citizenship and badness behavior by using structural equation modeling. Negative affect, justice, and commitment were suggested as the antecedents, and perceived service quality as the consequence. The findings of the present study revealed that managing *customer* behavior as a human resource is as important as that of employees. However, unlike previous research projects, only customer citizenship behavior had a significant impact on service organization performance, measured in terms of perceived service quality. Contrary to predictions, customer badness behavior was not significantly related to perceived service quality. One reason for the inconsistent findings could be the characteristics of the sample. Each exercise class was relatively small (less than 15~20 members). Therefore, if one of them manifested badness behavior, this would easily be observed by other members. Thus, it is to be expected that the frequency of badness behavior might be relatively low compared with citizenship behavior. Therefore, the results might not be significant. However, the positive and significant relationship between customer citizenship behavior and perceived service quality was significant. As a result, we found that perceived service quality by customers was also affected by the behavior of customers themselves. Previous research had focused on other variables, for example, service employees, physical environments, etc. However, this finding suggests that service firms should indeed focus on the management of customer behavior.

This study also examined the *antecedents* of customer badness

and citizenship behavior. Firstly, as hypothesized, *negative affect* has a significant impact on customer badness behavior. This finding is consistent with those of Heaven (1996). Therefore, in order to prevent customer badness behavior from harming a service organization, the organization and its employees must carefully manage the affect of customer behavior. In previous marketing research, customer affect, emotion, and mood have been emphasized (Bagozzi, Gopinath, and Nyer 1999; Chebat and Robicheaux 2001). However, few investigations have examined the effect of negative affect on customer badness behavior. While *justice* is proposed as another antecedent of customer badness behavior in the current research, this particular relationship is insignificant. This may be because our research focused only on interactional justice rather than procedural or distributive justice. In a sports-center situation, although customers are treated with less kindness and dignity from service providers than customers in other businesses, it might be difficult or uncommon for customers to behave undesirably to service providers or other customers, as they will have to meet them the next time they attend the class. However, the badness behavior is serious enough to suggest that this relationship ought to be investigated in other samples in future research.

Secondly, this research helped to shed light on the antecedents of customer citizenship behavior. As expected, justice and commitment were positively related to customer citizenship behavior. The major strength of the present study could be that we have extended the previous organizational research on the employee perspective to that of the customer. Most justice research in the marketing literature has focused on service recovery and failure situations (e.g., Blodgett, Hill, and Tax 1997). However, this research applied organizational justice to customer justice in the service delivery situation. Therefore, based on these results, service organizations should devote far more managerial effort to improving customer perceived justice and commitment.

Finally, the results also suggest that justice exerts a significant influence on negative affect and commitment. The study showed that negative affect and commitment have significant effects on customer behavior. Thus, service organizations should pay

attention to managing these constructs. Given this finding, academic researchers and practitioners should consider the justice construct and manage it accordingly. According to the present research, justice has both direct and indirect effects on customer badness and citizenship behavior. Furthermore, it leads to clear perceptions of service quality thorough customer behavior. Given the above, service marketers should focus their marketing efforts on customers' perceived justice more than on any other constructs, so as to improve the performance of the service organization.

Overall, the current study makes a contribution to the field by demonstrating the effects of customer citizenship and badness behavior on service organization performance and exploring their antecedents. As noted earlier, this study is one of very few empirical tests of customer citizenship and badness behavior. Current research demonstrates that, like conventional organizational behavior, consumer citizenship and badness behavior are also important elements of the marketing mix that service providers must take seriously and manage. Service organizations need to focus on antecedents and consequences of customer behavior in order to improve their competitiveness. The study has established that customers are not merely recipients of services, but also human resources which impact on the company in various ways. This means that more principles normally applied only to employees can also be applied to customers and ever beyond citizenship and badness behavior.

The research also identified a number of areas where further research could prove fruitful. Future research is needed to enhance the external validity of our model of customer behavior. Only additional research can determine whether these results can be replicated in other populations and contexts. The present research deals with limited antecedents of customer behaviors. The previous literature suggests numerous other constructs including customer personality, locus of control, self-efficacy, and store image. In order to provide a comprehensive understanding of customer extra-role behavior, future research should also take the various additional antecedents into consideration.

The present study has several limitations. Firstly, it relied on cross-sectional, self-reported data. Therefore, the causal

statements about the hypothesized relationships of this study are constrained in their relevance. Collecting longitudinal data would be a major step towards making casual inferences about the relationships. Furthermore, the exclusive use of self-reported data raises concerns about common method variance (Podsakoff and Organ 1986). When all measures come from the same source, any deficiency in that source may contaminate all of the measures, resulting in erroneous correlations. Secondly, a sample which is representative of the general population, rather than a stratified random sample, would provide more generalizability. Therefore, significant effort should be devoted to detecting any potential bias in these nonrandom samples.

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