

# The effects of customer justice perception and affect on customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior<sup>☆</sup>

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## Abstract

This research investigates whether customer justice perception influences affect and, in turn, customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior. Drawing on the social exchange theory and frustration–aggression theory, this paper argues that distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice influence positive affect as well as negative affect. Furthermore, this study argues that positive affect influences customer citizenship behavior, while negative affect influences customer dysfunctional behavior. To test these relationships, the present study uses data from 209 executive-MBA students and 68 buyer companies. The results of the structural equation analysis reveal that most of these hypotheses are supported. Following a discussion of the results, research limitations and directions for future research are offered.

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## 1. Introduction

The globalization of service industries and the open international economy compel service companies to enhance their competitiveness continually. Service companies have begun to pay greater attention to customers in order to improve their competitiveness. For this reason, much of the recent literature focuses on managing customers' as human resources (Bettencourt, 1997; Groth, 2005; Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004). In recent years, two independent streams of research have emerged. One stream of research concerns customer

citizenship behavior. Like employees, customers may exhibit voluntary behavior that is not required of them, but nonetheless helps the organization (Groth, 2005). The other stream of research relates to voluntary, but potentially dysfunctional actions by customers that cause problems for the organization, employees, and other customers (Harris & Reynolds, 2004).

To date, a comprehensive study of these determinants has yet to be conducted. In addition, attempts to provide a theoretical framework for these antecedents have been limited. Nevertheless, this is an important issue because customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior occur simultaneously in service encounter. In order to gain deeper insights into the effects of these customer behaviors, it is essential to examine both types of customer behavior together. Furthermore, there is a need for more work on the measurement of customer dysfunctional behavior and the examination of its underlying mechanisms.

The present research focuses on the antecedents of customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior. While there has been significant *theoretical* development on this subject, relatively little progress has been made *empirically*. In addition, research on antecedents should provide useful

<sup>☆</sup> Positive word-of-mouth is considered one component of customer citizenship behavior (Bailey, Gremler, & McCollough, 2001). Although the existing literature has used positive word-of-mouth to measure attitudinal aspects of customer loyalty, it also serves as an indicator of customer citizenship behavior. Regarding this, WOM is defined as communication about a service provider that is offered by a customer who is not trying to obtain monetary gain by doing so (Gremler & Brown 1999). Therefore, it is a voluntary and discretionary behavior that helps the organization and deemed appropriate for customer citizenship behavior.

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managerial implications for dealing with these customer behaviors effectively. Specifically, the study examines customer justice perception and affect in service delivery as antecedents of customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior. To date, most customer justice perception research has been mainly focused on how customers evaluate justice in the service failure context. Thus, although we know a great deal about the reason why customers perceive service recovery treatment as either fair or unfair, much less attention has been paid to the issue of whether or not customers' emotions and behaviors are shaped by the fairness experience in the service delivery context.

Like employees, customers can form justice perceptions during service delivery, because service encounters constitute a dyadic process between employees and customers (Bowen, Gilliland, & Folger, 1999; Solomon, Suprenant, Czepiel, & Gutman, 1985). Organizational researchers have consistently shown that employee perceptions of justice lead to employee organizational citizenship behavior, because a social exchange relationship develops between employees and the organization (Organ, 1988). In contrast, employees who feel unfairly treated are thought to experience anger that elicits a desire for dysfunctional behavior such as retribution (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999). Like employees, customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior might be explained by justice perception. Yet, to date, little attention has been paid to the relationship between customer justice perception and both customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior.

The concept of *affect* has also received considerable attention in the literature (Gardner, 1985; Huang, 2001; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Previous work in the area suggests that the role of affect is to energize the individual physiologically and to induce appropriate behavior (Spector & Fox, 2002). Furthermore, affect induces action tendencies that elicit behavior and helps to formulate intentions to engage in certain behaviors (Spector & Fox, 2002). Therefore, affect could explain why customer citizenship behavior and dysfunctional behavior occur.

The central thesis to be tested in this article is that the relationships among customer justice perception, customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior are mediated by affect. In the sections below, we briefly review the related theoretical background and literature on customer citizenship behavior, customer dysfunctional behavior, customer justice perception, and affect. The results of the present study are then discussed, followed by conclusions, some limitations of the study and possible directions for future research.

## 2. Theoretical background

Our model is primarily rooted in the social exchange theory and frustration–aggression theory (Berkowitz, 1993; Blau, 1964). Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) assumes that relationships between followers and organizations are seen as exchanges in which a follower reciprocates a positive personal outcome (e.g., fairness experience) by giving positive outcomes to the other party, such as citizenship behavior. From this perspective, norms of justice are starting mechanisms for social

exchange. Continued exchange of social gestures in the form of citizenship behavior depends on an individual's affective responses with prior exchanges (Bettencourt, Brown, & MacKenzie, 2005).

Similarly, Bateman and Organ (1983) contended that social exchange theory predicts that people seek to reciprocate those who benefit them. To the extent that a person's affective state results from the efforts of organizational employees and such efforts are interpreted as volitional, the person will seek to reciprocate those efforts. Furthermore, it is argued that social exchange produces positive or negative affect. When exchanges occur successfully, individuals experience positive affect, which in turn, promotes citizenship behavior (Lawler, 2001).

Frustration–aggression theory views that unjustified frustration leads to anger, which then leads to aggression such as dysfunctional behavior (Berkowitz, 1993). According to this theory, frustration is conceptualized as an “external condition that prevents a person from obtaining the pleasures he or she had expected to enjoy” (Berkowitz, 1993, p. 31). Because customer justice perception leads to affective reactions (e.g., anger, joy) experienced at service encounter, customer justice perception can be understood as the frustration in the frustration–aggression theory. From this perspective, customer injustice perception evokes negative affect, and this negative affect could generate dysfunctional behavior. In other words, customer injustice perception generates dysfunctional behavior only to the extent that it produces negative affect.

### 2.1. Customer citizenship behavior

In recent years, there has been an increasing focus on customer citizenship behavior in the managerial and marketing literature (Aherne, Bhattacharya, & Gruen, 2005; Bettencourt, 1997; Groth, 2005; Lengnick-Hall, Claycomb, & Inks, 2000). Like organizational employees, customers may engage in a variety of citizenship behavior directed toward a specific organization. Bowen (1986, p. 371) argues that “a central difference between service and manufacturing firms is that customers are often physically present when the service is provided, quite unlike manufacturing firms where customers are only rarely present during production.” Therefore, both customers and employees constitute the human resource of the service organization. Customers often perform the work that employees might otherwise perform, so that customers may even replace employees in service-based organizations (Halbesleben & Buckley, 2004). Previous research has proposed that service organizations should really view customers, at least in some senses, as organizational members or employees (Kelley, Donnelly, & Skinner, 1990).

Based on these descriptions, it is possible that service customers can exhibit citizenship behaviors like employees. Therefore, traditional organizational citizenship behavior research can be applied to the customer domain. In the management literature, organizational citizenship behavior has been defined formally as “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization” (Organ, 1988, p. 4). Similarly, customer citizenship behavior

is defined as “voluntary and discretionary behaviors that are not required for the successful production and/or delivery of the service but that, in the aggregate, help the service organization overall” (Groth, 2005, p. 11).

Many terms have been used to describe customer citizenship behavior, including customer discretionary behavior (Ford, 1995), customer voluntary performance (Bailey, Gremler, & McCollough, 2001; Bettencourt, 1997), organizational citizenship on the part of customers (Lengnick-Hall et al., 2000), coproduction (Gruen, Summers, & Acito, 2000), and customer extra-role behaviors (Aherne et al., 2005). The service literatures also suggest various forms of customer citizenship behavior. Groth (2005) identified three dimensions of customer citizenship behavior: (1) providing feedback to the organization, which means providing solicited information to organizations that helps them improve their service delivery process, (2) helping other customers, which closely parallels the altruism dimension found in organizational citizenship behavior, and (3) recommendations, which refers to recommendation of the business to friends or family members (Groth, Mertens, & Murphy, 2004). In addition, Ford (1995) suggests that customers who exhibit citizenship behavior may demonstrate commitment to the service organization and report potential safety problems to employees. Keh and Teo (2001) claim that customer tolerance of service failures is another dimension of customer citizenship behavior. They define it as customer willingness to put up with or to be patient about service encounters that are not performed as expected. This acquiescent attitude results in continued patronage of the store and *not* spreading negative word-of-mouth. In summary, the literature on customer citizenship behavior suggests that the common features of customer citizenship behavior include voluntary feedback, discretionary behavior, and helping the organization.

A few empirical studies have examined antecedents of customer citizenship behavior. Bettencourt (1997) found that customer satisfaction, customer commitment, and perceived support for customers are positively related to customer citizenship behavior. Gruen, Summers, and Acito (2000) demonstrated a positive relationship between affective commitment and customer citizenship behavior. Aherne, Bhattacharya, and Gruen (2005) have also proposed linkages between customer–company identification and customer citizenship behavior. Groth (2005) found that customer socialization and satisfaction are associated with customer citizenship behavior. While the majority of research efforts have focused on the *antecedents* of customer citizenship behavior, Lengnick-Hall, Claycomb, and Inks (2000) explored the *consequences* of customer citizenship behavior. Using a sample of members of a YMCA, they found a significant and positive effect of customer citizenship behavior on service investment, measured in terms of the range of services received, hours spent at the organization, and beneficial outcomes (e.g., personal development measured with perceived physical fitness, a positive outlook on life, and stress reduction).

## 2.2. Customer dysfunctional behavior

There is growing interest among researchers and practitioners in customer dysfunctional behaviors such as theft,

shoplifting, fraud, vandalism, violence, resistance, aggression, and physical & psychological victimization (Fullerton & Punj, 2004; Harris & Reynolds, 2003, 2004). The impetus for this growing interest in customer dysfunctional behavior is the increasing prevalence of such behavior in service organizations and the enormous associated costs. For example, the recent National Retail Security Survey conducted in the U.S.A. finds shoplifting, theft, fraud, and administrative errors to cost \$32 billion in 2000 (Babakus, Cornwell, Mitchell, & Schlegelmilch, 2004; Stores, 2002, p. 16). The financial costs of customer dysfunctional behavior toward products, financial assets, and physical premises are estimated to exceed \$100 billion annually (Fullerton & Punj, 2004). Several studies have documented not only the financial impact, but also the social and psychological effects of customer dysfunctional behavior on service organizations (Grandey, Dickter, & Sin, 2004; Harris & Reynolds, 2003).

Customers who exhibit customer dysfunctional behavior have been referred to as: jaycustomers (Lovelock, 2001), uncooperative customers (Hoffman & Bateson, 1997), and wrong customers (Woo & Fock, 2004). Likewise, customer dysfunctional behavior has been described variously as aberrant consumer behavior (Fullerton & Punj, 1993), consumer misbehavior (Fullerton & Punj, 2004), unethical consumer behavior (Babakus et al., 2004), customer dysfunctional behavior (Harris & Reynolds, 2003), consumer retaliation (Huefner et al., 2002), and customer verbal aggression (Grandey et al., 2004). Based on these various terms and related definitions, this study defines customer dysfunctional behavior as customer behavior characterized as thoughtless or abusive that causes problems for the service organization, its employees, and/or other customers.

The early research in this field examined antecedents of customer dysfunctional behavior. Fullerton and Punj (2004) suggest that a number of factors are related to the occurrence of customer dysfunctional behavior. These include: (1) demographic characteristics such as customer age, sex, education, and occupation, (2) psychological characteristics such as personal traits, level of moral development, unfulfilled aspirations, and propensity for thrill-seeking, (3) social influences, and (4) consumer’s antecedent mood states. Grandey, Dickter, and Sin (2004) found that the negative affectivity of service employees is positively related to the frequency of customer aggression, while perceived job autonomy is negatively related. Huefner et al. (2002) note that customer retaliation is the most extreme behavioral response to customer dissatisfaction.

According to Harris and Reynolds (2003), customer dysfunctional behavior negatively affects customer contact employees, other customers, and the company as a whole. Customer dysfunctional behavior can cause service employees implicit psychological stress such as shame and insult. Threatening, aggressive, and obstructive customer behavior may have negative effects on the mood and emotions of service employees. Because customer dysfunctional behavior includes disturbing the service-provision for other customers either intentionally or accidentally, it can have a negative effect on other customers’ satisfaction, perceived service quality, and loyalty to the company. Given that employees have to deal with dysfunctional customers, the

behavior of these customers reduces the time available to serve other customers and 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 & Reynolds, 2003).

Customer dysfunctional behavior has been the topic of several investigations and this concept may arguably be considered well documented. Nevertheless, little published research has measured customer dysfunctional behavior and investigated the links to other constructs. In the marketing literature, two different forms of voluntary behavior have been identified. If research in this area is to advance, researchers must examine these behaviors within a single, simultaneous model. Because customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior occur simultaneously during service encounter, it will cause bias if omitting one of the constructs in empirical research.

We argue that customer citizenship behavior is not just the opposite of customer dysfunctional behavior and they should be considered as separate constructs. There are several conceptual differences between them. First, there is little item overlap between customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior. For example, one of the items of customer dysfunctional behavior is “fantasizing or daydreaming.” However, merely not exhibiting “fantasizing or daydreaming” is not customer citizenship behavior. In a similar vein, customer citizenship behavior includes saying constructive suggestions. Not offering any suggestions is not customer dysfunctional behavior. Second, previous research has theorized that citizenship behavior and dysfunctional behavior have different antecedents. For example, Spector and Fox (2002) reported that negative emotion is related to dysfunctional behavior, but not to citizenship behavior. Sackett, Berry, Wiemann, and Laczko (2006) found that the personality correlates of citizenship behavior and dysfunctional behavior were different. It is thus conceptually possible for customers to exhibit high levels of both customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior.

### 2.3. Customer justice perception

Customer justice perception is a multifaceted construct, encompassing three dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice (Homburg & Fürst, 2005; Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar, 1998). Existing research that investigates the role of the three justice dimensions has been limited to the service failure, postcomplaint, and recovery processes. The limited application of the effects of justice outside the realm of postfailure experience is surprising, given that justice perception could affect all types of social exchange including service delivery, not just recovery (Bowen et al., 1999). During service delivery, customers view justice as a matter of whether the service organization has fulfilled its obligation to provide the results and benefits it had promised. Customers have expectations focused both on the promised benefits and how these benefits are delivered (Bowen et al., 1999).

In a service delivery context, *distributive* justice refers to the degree to which customers feel they have been treated fairly with respect to the outcome of the service encounter. *Procedural* justice refers to the perceived fairness of the policies and procedures by the organization, while *interactional* justice refers to the extent to which customers are treated fairly in their interactions with service employees (Blodgett, Hill, & Tax, 1997; Tax et al., 1998; Voorhees & Brady, 2005). According to Bowen, Gilliland, and Folger (1999), distributive justice involves three principles: cost, amount of service, and excellence. Procedural justice includes responding to unusual requests, efficient service, low waiting times, and helpful service employees. Interactional justice concerns the extent to which employees treat customers with friendliness, objectivity, honesty, politeness, and genuine interest. Bowen, Gilliland, and Folger (1999) suggest that all three types of customer justice make significant and independent contributions to customer satisfaction and repurchase intentions, with distributive justice being the most important predictor.

Recent research has examined the effects of customer justice perception on satisfaction with service recovery, complaint handling, organization commitment, trust, purchase intention, and word-of-mouth (Blodgett et al., 1997; Homburg & Fürst, 2005; Tax et al., 1998). However, few studies have explored outcome variables in a service delivery setting.

It may be important to distinguish customer justice perception from the related concept of service quality. First of all, there is a conceptual difference between customer justice perception and service quality. That is, customer justice perception is based on psychological contract between the individual and the organization. Thus, customer justice perception is the evaluation of whether the service organization has fulfilled its obligation to provide the results and benefits it had promised (Bowen et al., 1999). Service quality, on the other hand, is a judgment about service's overall excellence or superiority. For example, customers might be able to state whether they think a particular service is of high or low quality based solely on their judgment about the service itself, but they will not be able to state if they receive fair service with it without actually perceiving organization's fulfillment of its obligation.

While customer justice perception and service quality can be distinguished based on their conceptual definitions, an additional issue concerns the measurement of the two constructs. For example, the items of interactional justice appear to be close with those of interaction quality or process quality. However, the scope of measurement is quite different between them. That is, the interaction quality scale involves all events and performances taking place during the interaction between customer and organization necessary to deliver the service. Thus, it includes all the attitudes, behaviors, and expertise of employees concerning the delivery of service (Brady & Cronin, 2001). However, the interactional justice scale focuses on the implementations of procedures by employees, more specifically, politeness and empathy.

Equity theory explains that when equity is blocked by injustice, individuals experience emotions such as frustration,

anger, and resentment that motivate them to eliminate inequity. Further, one of the ways of individuals' restoring equity is to engage in indirect dysfunctional behavior (Chory-Assad & Paulsel, 2004). In a similar vein, conditions of fairness will create positive affect within a person, which he or she will attempt to resolve by raising one's level of citizenship behavior (Moorman, 1991). Therefore, the present study focuses on customer justice perceptions as antecedents of customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior.

#### 2.4. Affect

Affect is defined as feeling states that are subjectively perceived by customers during service encounters (Gardner, 1985). Although there are similar terms like emotions and moods, affect is considered a general category for the mental feeling process including emotions, moods, and attitudes (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999). Affect fluctuates over time and is easily influenced by external factors. Thus, the concept is different from traits that reflect stable individual differences or dispositions (Gardner, 1985). The two dimensions of affect are positive affect and negative affect (Watson et al., 1988). Positive affect denotes pleasurable engagement, whereas negative affect is associated with such feelings as anger, contempt, disgust, guilt, and nervousness (Watson et al., 1988). Positive affect and negative affect are not merely opposite poles of the same affective dimension, but two independent and distinct dimensions (Bagozzi, Wong, & Yi, 1999; Huang, 2001; Watson et al., 1988). It is interesting to note that these two dimensions of affect are not always completely orthogonal, but they are separable. Specifically, Kohan and O'Conner (2002, p. 308) argue that "positive affect and negative affect are sometimes inversely related over very short time spans. It is perhaps rare for people to experience high PA and high NA at exactly same time. However, across even slightly longer time spans, such as weeks and months, the two dimensions emerge as noticeably independent and separable." In a similar vein, marketing researchers have consistently measured positive and negative affect independently in their model (Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005; Liljander & Mattsson, 2002; Menon & Dube, 2000).

Research has established that affect greatly influences various aspects of customer behavior. Prior research suggests that affect may influence customer behavior *during* a service encounter, the evaluation of the encounter, and the subsequent recall of the service encounter (Gardner, 1985). Several researchers have also investigated the impact of affect on customer satisfaction, loyalty, complaint behavior, information processing, reactions to advertising, and decision making (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999; Huang, 2001; Knowles, Grove, & Pickett, 1993). Regarding customer voluntary behaviors, several theoretical explanations have been suggested to account for why affect should foster citizenship behavior or dysfunctional behavior (Bailey et al., 2001; George, 1991; Williams & Shiaw, 1999).

### 3. Model development and hypotheses

Our research model is presented in Fig. 1. This model indicates that distributive, procedural, and interpersonal justice perceived by customers lead to greater positive affect, and less negative affect. Positive affect, in turn, leads to greater customer citizenship behavior. Negative affect leads to greater customer dysfunctional behavior.

#### 3.1. The effects of customer justice perception on affect

##### 3.1.1. Distributive justice and affect

Based on social exchange theory, distributive justice focuses on the role of equity. Individuals assess the fairness of an exchange by comparing their inputs to outcomes, so as to form an "equity score." When this equity score is proportional to the scores of other customers, customers may feel that they have been treated fairly (Maxham & Netemeyer, 2002). Distributive justice deals with the perceived fairness of outcomes (Blodgett et al., 1997). Previous research has found that distributive justice influences affective reactions to particular outcomes. Therefore, when an outcome is perceived to be unfair, it should influence the individual's affect, causing, for example, anger, happiness, pride, or guilt (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). In a service delivery situation, a problem of inequity could result in negative affect such as dissatisfaction, if a service provider does

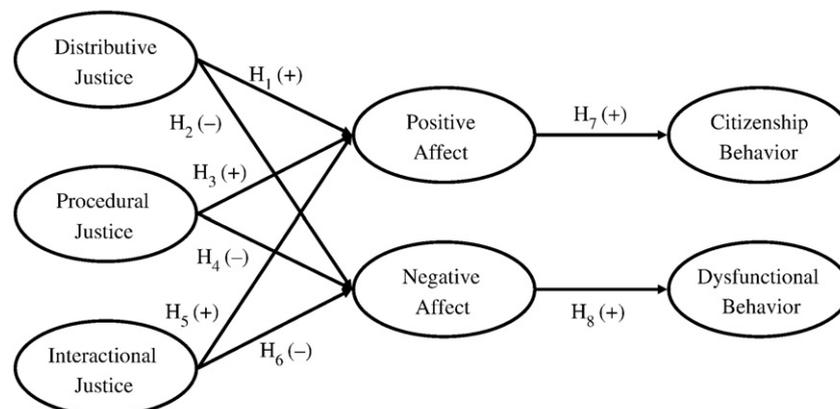


Fig. 1. Research model: Studies 1 and 2.

not recognize the same costs (in the broadest sense) as customers. However, positive affect can occur when customers believe the outcome is greater than deserved, given the inputs (McCullough, Berry, & Yadav, 2000). Based on Bowen, Gilliland, and Folger's (1999) distributive justice principle, the relationship between distributive justice and affect is somewhat intuitive. When customers feel that the service is too expensive relative to the benefits, receive better service than expected, are delivered the promised services, or are delivered benefits of high quality, they might experience positive or negative affect. Considering the above discussion, we predicted the following:

**H1.** There will be a positive relationship between perceptions of distributive justice and customers' positive affect.

**H2.** There will be a negative relationship between perceptions of distributive justice and customers' negative affect.

### 3.1.2. *Procedural justice and affect*

Procedural justice includes those procedures that support the organization and smooth operation of the service delivery system. When the organization is well administered and efficiently run, customers form positive attitudes toward an organization and rate service quality highly (Bowen et al., 1999; Cropanzano, Prehar, & Chen, 2002). As a result, customers can experience positive affect. When customers perceive the procedural process of the organization as fair, they are less likely to feel negative affect and more likely to feel positive affect (Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005). Based on Homans' (1974) arguments that those treated fairly will experience positive affect, whereas those underrewarded are likely to feel negative affect, Hegtvedt and Killian (1999) argue that perceptions that one is involved in a fair process is generally rewarding. So far as individuals are likely to seek such rewards as part of their self-interest, their emotional reactions may follow suit. Thus, the more likely they are to express positive affect and the less likely they are to indicate negative affect. According to Bowen, Gilliland, and Folger (1999), fair waiting time is an example of procedural justice. They argue that customer perceptions that waiting time is excessive are the significant predictor of customer dissatisfaction, a kind of negative affect. Similarly, Skarlicki and Folger (1997) propose that individuals respond to procedural injustice with negative affect, such as anger and desire for retribution. We consequently hypothesize that:

**H3.** There will be a positive relationship between perceptions of procedural justice and customers' positive affect.

**H4.** There will be a negative relationship between perceptions of procedural justice and customers' negative affect.

### 3.1.3. *Interactional justice and affect*

Using Affect Control Theory (ACT), Chebat and Slusarczyk (2005) propose that customer justice perception is associated with affect in a service recovery context. Their arguments can also be applied to interactional justice in a service delivery situation. Based on ACT premises, they argue that individuals behave in such a way that their affect is appropriate to the

situation. When customers experience an unacceptable service delivery, especially an unfair interaction with service employees, they may express negative affect. Previous research suggests that customers do not calculate justice perception, but rather experience justice-related affect and react to their affect (Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005). Affect helps customers cope with the stress inherent to a service delivery situation. With respect to interactional justice that is defined as customers' sense of fair interpersonal treatment with employees, customers who experience unpleasant interactions with employees will exhibit negative affect to cope with this stress. In contrast, customers who receive expressions of interest, kindness and politeness from employees will exhibit positive affect. Accordingly, we hypothesize that:

**H5.** There will be a positive relationship between perceptions of interactional justice and customers' positive affect.

**H6.** There will be a negative relationship between perceptions of interactional justice and customers' negative affect.

### 3.2. *The effect of affect on customer citizenship behavior*

Theorists have suggested that individual affective states may influence the extent to which people exhibit citizenship behavior (Williams & Shiaw, 1999). Early research indicates that when people are in positive affect, they are more likely to show citizenship behavior. George (1991) argues that positive affect causes people to perceive stimuli in a more positive light and to be attracted to other people. As a result, individuals in positive affect are more likely to look favorably on employees and customers and have an enhanced social outlook. The research suggests that all these factors contribute to citizenship behavior. Similarly, Spector and Fox (2002) claim that people in positive affect will engage in behavior that supports their affect and makes them feel good. They suggest that an example of such behavior is altruistic behavior similar to citizenship behavior. On the basis of the discussion, we propose the following:

**H7.** There will be a positive relationship between customers' positive affect and their customer citizenship behavior.

### 3.3. *The effect of affect on customer dysfunctional behavior*

Watson and Clark (1984) conclude that people subject to high negative affect are more hostile, demanding, and distant than those facing 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, & Tesluk, 1999; Watson & Clark, 1984). Prior work found that individuals who were made to feel bad by another individual will engage in dysfunctional behavior such as retaliation in order to make themselves feel better (Spector & Fox, 2002). Douglas and Martinko (2001) explain that 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. Negative affect is related to self-reports of interpersonal vandalism, violence, and theft (Heaven, 1996). Thus, we hypothesize the following:

**H8.** There will be a positive relationship between customers' negative affect and their customer dysfunctional behavior.

#### 3.4. *The mediation effects of affect*

Our research model suggests that the effects of the customer justice perception on customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior are indirect via their effects on affect. These predictions stem from the Affect Control Theory (ACT). Individuals treated fairly will experience positive affect, whereas those underrewarded are likely to feel negative affect. Positive and negative affect will then lead them to choose a type of behavior in such a way that the impressions generated by events confirm their sentiments, which allow them to regain their self-identity (Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005). In addition, the stimulus–organism–response (SOR) model suggests that environmental stimuli affect the emotional state of customers, which in turn can affect approach or avoidance behavior (Sherman, Mathur, & Smith, 1997). In a service delivery context, the stimuli can be conceptualized as customer justice perception. According to this theory, the stimulus is conceptualized as an influence that arouses the individual (Eroglu, Machleit, & Davis, 2001). Research on the service encounter indicates that the attitude and behavior of employees influence customer perceptions of the service (Hartline & Ferrell, 1996). Because customers form justice perception through employee attitude and behavior during service encounters, customer justice perception can be seen as the stimulus in the S–O–R framework. Affect is conceptualized as the organism. Customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior can be classified as response. Therefore, this model confirms that affect can be a mediating factor in the service delivery process, and may influence various dimensions of customer behavior. This argument is also consistent with the literature that treats affect as the central mediator variable (Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005; Oliver, 1993; Spector & Fox, 2002). Consequently, affect is hypothesized to mediate the relationship between customer justice perception and behavioral responses (citizenship behavior and dysfunctional behavior).

**H9.** Positive affect will mediate the relationship between customer justice perception and customer citizenship behavior.

**H10.** Negative affect will mediate the relationship between customer justice perception and customer dysfunctional behavior.

In the following sections, we present two studies that test our hypotheses. In Study 1, we gathered data from customers (students) of an executive-MBA program (i.e., a business-to-customer setting). In Study 2, we gathered data from customers

(buyers) of organizational products (i.e., business-to-business setting).

## 4. Study 1

### 4.1. *Sample selection and data collection*

In Study 1, we collected data from the students of executive-MBA (EMBA) program at a major university in Korea. Classroom teaching has been studied previously as a service setting, because it possesses three key characteristics used to identify services: intangibility, simultaneity, and customer presence (Masterson, 2001). It generally involves a high level of interaction with employees (instructors) and other customers (students) over time. Students (customers) may also help each other to achieve service goals and outcomes (Zeithaml & Bitner, 2003). Furthermore, dysfunctional behaviors such as violence and aggression in the classroom are often cited as a major concern at universities (Lawrence & Green, 2005). It is therefore expected that customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior are well represented.

Because people might tend to provide socially acceptable answers when asked about unacceptable or negative behavior, several precautions were taken to avoid any response bias (Cole, 1989). 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 students during EMBA classes. The instructor was not present when the questionnaires were completed, and there were verbal instructions emphasizing anonymity.

The survey was self-administered with instructions provided by the researcher. The total sample size was 209 and the respondents were 201 men and 8 women. Twelve percent of the respondents were between 30 and 39 years old, 44% between 40 and 49 years old, and 44% over 50 years old.

### 4.2. *Measures*

Self-administered questionnaires were used for the entire survey. All the scale items were adopted from the relevant literature. However, we modified the wording of specific items to reflect the focus of Study 1: EMBA classes. The constructs were measured by means of 7-point Likert scales, and most of the items were anchored with “very unlikely/very likely” (for a list of all the measures, see Appendix). The items were selected in several steps. First, items from the existing literature were translated from English into Korean. A university professor and a graduate student who were proficient both in English and Korean were then asked to evaluate the appropriateness of the Korean version of the scale. When major discrepancies were found between the original English version and the Korean version, these items were eliminated. On the other hand, minor discrepancies between them resulted in adjustment in the Korean version. Such a re-examination of measurements was repeated during the pre-test. The above steps ensured that the questionnaire satisfied the criterion of content validity.

Distributive justice was assessed with three items from Blodgett, Hill, and Tax (1997). These items measured the degree of perceived fairness with respect to the outcome of the service encounter. Procedural justice was measured with three items adapted from Maxham and Netemeyer (2002) and Voorhees and Brady (2005). These items measured the degree of perceived fairness concerning the policy and procedures of the university. Interactional justice was measured using three items from Chory-Assad and Paulsel (2004). These items measured the degree of respect of student–instructor communication and how well the instructor understands student needs.

Two scales measured respondents' affective responses to the encounter. The items used to measure affect are based on the Differential Emotional Scale (DES) of Izard (1991) and the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) Scales of Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988). Positive affect were measured by the positive emotions of the DES. To get a scale with a better fit in the present context, we decided to measure negative affect with the PANAS. Several negative affect items of the DES are not well fit with this research (e.g., mad, guilt, scared, etc.). It is quite rare for students to feel negative affect such as madness or guilt in the classroom. However, it is more common for them to feel angry or upset when they encounter problems in the classroom. It has also been argued that a disadvantage of the DES is that it overemphasizes negative affect (van Dolen, de Ruyter, & Lemmink, 2004). Thus, respondents were asked to describe how they felt during class, using a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from “very slightly or not at all” (1) to “very strongly” (7) to respond to each item. Examples of items are “joyful,” “delighted,” and “Upset.”

Customer citizenship behavior was measured with seven-item scales adapted from prior research (Bettencourt, 1997). Participants evaluated the items based on their degree of agreement with the particular issues on a 7-point Likert scale with responses ranging from “never” to “always.” These items reflected the degree to which customers recommend this EMBA programs to others, provide feedback for improvement, observe the rules of the program, and assist the lecturer.

Customer dysfunctional behavior was measured with eight items from Ball, Trevino, and Sims (1994), Bennett and Robinson (2000), Lee and Allen (2002), and Vardi (2001). Participants indicated their agreement with the items on a 7-point Likert scale, with responses ranging from “never” to “always.” Sample items from the customer dysfunctional behavior scale include ‘I miss class without reasonable justification’ and ‘I don't follow the instructor's requests and directives.’

Customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior were modeled as formative measures. Based on the decision rules that Jarvis, Mackenzie, and Podsakoff (2003) developed for determining whether a construct is formative or reflective, it is appropriate to use composite latent formative models in our context. For example, the direction of causality is from items to construct. Specifically, the items of customer citizenship and customer dysfunctional behavior are defining characteristics of the construct and changes in the items cause changes in the construct. Additionally, indicators are not interchangeable, and thus dropping the indicator alters the

conceptual domain of the construct. Most notably, these indicators do not need to be highly correlated with one another. To illustrate, ‘missing class’ and ‘not following directions’ in items of customer dysfunctional behavior are not related to each other.

#### 4.3. Results

The conceptual model depicted in Fig. 1 was tested using partial least squares (PLS) (Chin, 2001). A PLS analysis is appropriate when the model incorporates both formative and reflective indicators, when the assumption of multivariate normality cannot be made, and when the main concern is the prediction of dependent variables (Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001; Fornell & Cha, 1994; White, Varadarajan, & Dacin, 2003). We measured customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior using formative items. Furthermore, because the dysfunctional behavior of the present study is deviant or undesirable behavior, it is possible that these items suffer from an inadequate distribution problem, such as highly skewed data or extreme values from positive kurtosis. For these reasons, PLS was deemed appropriate in this study.

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics and the intercorrelations of the variables. One might wonder whether customer dysfunctional behavior actually occurred, because the mean for this construct is 1.97 (less than 2 on a 1-to-7 scale). However, the maximum for this construct is 5.50 and most deviant or undesirable behavior constructs have a relatively low mean like this study. For example, Aquino, Lewis, and Bradfield (1999) measured employee deviance using a 5-point Likert scale and reported the mean of this variable to 1.30 (standard deviation is .34). Dunlop and Lee (2004) measured workplace deviance behavior using a 5-point scale and reported a mean for this construct of 1.81 (standard deviation is .32). Kelloway, Loughlin, Barling, and Nault (2002) measured counterproductive behaviors with ten items using a 5-point Likert scale and reported means for these items in the range from 1.10 to 2.06. Such low means are typical in common settings, because high

Table 1  
Study 1: Correlations and summary statistics

Variables	Correlation						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Distributive justice	1.00						
2. Procedural justice	.59	1.00					
3. Interactional justice	.73	.75	1.00				
4. Positive affect	.61	.60	.68	1.00			
5. Negative affect	-.49	-.53	-.53	-.47	1.00		
6. Citizenship behavior	.41	.42	.49	.55	-.38	1.00	
7. Dysfunctional behavior	-.35	-.40	-.39	-.35	.36	-.38	1.00
Summary statistics							
Number of items	3	3	3	3	3	7	8
Mean	5.27	5.46	5.47	5.85	2.54	5.83	1.97
Standard deviation	.97	.98	.99	.88	1.24	.64	.81
Maximum	7.00	7.00	7.00	7.00	6.67	7.00	5.50
Minimum	1.67	2.33	2.00	3.33	1.00	3.14	1.00

means of deviant behaviors might denote the disruption or breakdown of normal service delivery.

Both formative and reflective measures are used in this study. A latent variable with formative indicators implies that the construct is expressed as a function of manifest variables. Because the latent variable is viewed as an effect rather than a cause of indicator responses, these indicators are not necessarily correlated. Rather, each indicator may occur independently of the others. For example, indicators can have positive, negative, or zero correlations (Chin & Gopal, 1995; White et al., 2003). As a result, observed correlations among these indicators are not meaningful, and thus traditional assessments of individual item reliability and validity are inappropriate and irrelevant (Bollen, 1989; Diamantopoulos & Winklhofer, 2001). Furthermore, in the case of constructs measured by formative indicators, the loadings are misleading, because the intraset correlations for each block are never taken into account in the estimation process. Therefore, it makes no sense to compare loadings among indicators within a block. Instead, the interpretation of latent variables with formative indicators should be based on weights (Chin, 1998b). Like the canonical correlation analysis, weights allow us to understand the make-up of each latent variable. They provide information about how each indicator contributes to the respective construct (Calvo-Mora, Leal, & Roldan, 2005). More importantly, Mathieson, Peacock, and Chin (2001, p. 107) claim that “the inclusion of non-significant formative measures should not affect the estimates and any reanalysis after dropping non-significant items is not required.

Because PLS is based on standard ordinary least squares regression, misspecification due to the inclusion of irrelevant items will not bias the estimates of significant items.” However, these may be high collinearity among formative measures which would produce unstable estimates and make it difficult to separate the distinct effect of the individual indicators on the construct (Calvo-Mora et al., 2005; Mathieson et al., 2001). Therefore, we performed a collinearity test using variance inflation factor with SPSS.

Table 2 shows the PLS weights and variance inflation factor (VIF) for the items of customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior. The weights indicate the relative impacts of various customer behavior facets on the citizenship or dysfunctional latent variable. The weights and significance of all formative measures indicate that the items contribute significantly to the formation of the construct of customer citizenship and customer dysfunctional behaviors. A checking for multicollinearity revealed that the variance inflation factor (VIF) values for all of the constructs are acceptable (i.e., between 1.203 and 2.999).

In the case of reflective measures, scale validation proceeded in two phases: convergent validity and discriminant validity analyses. The convergent validity of scale items was assessed with three criteria suggested by Fornell and Larcker (1981): (1) all item factor loadings should be significant and exceed .70, (2) composite reliabilities for each construct should exceed .80, and (3) average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct should exceed .50. As seen from Table 2, factor loadings for all scale items were significant at the .05 level and exceeded the minimum criterion of .70. The composite reliabilities of all

Table 2  
Measurement model for Study 1

Scale item	Weight	Variance inflation factor	Loading	Composite reliability	Average variance extracted
Distributive justice				.90	.75
DJ1			.84		
DJ2			.89		
DJ3			.86		
Procedural justice				.91	.76
PJ1			.89		
PJ2			.92		
PJ3			.82		
Interactional justice				.92	.79
IJ1			.90		
IJ2			.88		
IJ3			.87		
Positive affect				.94	.85
PA1			.94		
PA2			.95		
PA3			.87		
Negative affect				.91	.77
NA1			.88		
NA2			.85		
NA3			.91		
Citizenship behavior				n.a.	n.a.
CB1	.55	1.33			
CB2	.07	1.20			
CB3	.38	3.00			
CB4	.46	2.77			
CB5	.49	1.60			
CB6	.08	1.75			
CB7	.05	1.58			
Dysfunctional behavior				n.a.	n.a.
DB1	.26	1.37			
DB2	.25	1.30			
DB3	.29	1.26			
DB4	.19	1.57			
DB5	.07	1.55			
DB6	.57	1.29			
DB7	.22	1.60			
DB8	.08	1.31			

All weights and loadings are significant at the .05 level.

factors also exceeded the required minimum of .80 (the lowest value was .899 for the distributive justice construct) and average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct exceeded .50. Hence, all three conditions for convergent validity were met.

Discriminant validity between constructs was examined using Fornell and Larcker's (1981) recommendation that the square root of AVE for each reflective construct should exceed the correlations between that and all other constructs. From the data presented in Table 1, we can see that the highest correlation between any pair of constructs was .747 (between procedural justice and interactional justice). This was lower than the lowest square root of AVE (.864 for distributive justice). Hence, the discriminant validity criterion was also met, demonstrating adequate psychometric properties for all of our reflective measures.

Table 3 shows the results of the hypothesis test using partial least squares. Tests for path significance were conducted using bootstrapping (generating a large number of random samples from the original dataset by sampling with replacement) with 200 re-samples (Chin, 2000). Since PLS does not generate an overall

goodness of fit index for the research model, the  $R^2$  values and the structural paths are examined instead (Smith & Barclay, 1997; White et al., 2003). As PLS does not attempt to minimize residual item covariance or make any distributional assumption, there are no summary statistics to measure the overall fit of models (Smith & Barclay, 1997; White et al., 2003). Additionally, Chin (1998a, p. 12) states that “existing goodness of fit measures are related to the ability of the model to account for the sample covariances and therefore assume that all measures are reflective. SEM procedures that have different objective functions and/or allow for formative measures (e.g., PLS) would, by definition, not be able to provide such fit measures. In actuality, models with good fit indices may still be considered poor based on other measures such as  $R$ -square. The fit measures only relate to how well the parameter estimates are able to match the sample covariance. They do not relate to how well the latent variables or items are predicted.”

Our research model demonstrates good explanatory power, because the  $R^2$  values for the endogenous constructs range from .196 to .522. All are within the ranges typically reported in structural model research (White et al., 2003). We report one-tailed significant levels. This is because we exclusively test directional hypotheses based on strong theoretical grounds. Nine of the 10 paths were statistically significant and satisfied Chin's (1998a) recommendation that path coefficients exceed .2 in order to be deemed to exert a “substantial” impact, as opposed to “just being statistically significant” (p. 12), except for Hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 1 predicted a positive relationship between distributive justice and positive affect. The results indicate that this hypothesis was supported ( $\beta=.23, p<.01$ ). Hypothesis 2 predicted a negative relationship between distributive justice and negative affect. In support of the hypothesis, the estimate for the structural path was significant ( $\beta=-.21, p<.05$ ). A positive relationship was found between procedural justice and positive affect, as predicted by Hypothesis 3 ( $\beta=.18, p<.05$ ). In accordance with Hypothesis 4, procedural justice and negative affect were significantly and negatively related ( $\beta=-.30, p<.05$ ). Hypothesis 5 predicted a positive relationship between interactional justice and positive affect. This path was found to be significant ( $\beta=.40, p<.001$ ). However, Hypothesis 6 was not

supported as interactional justice was not significantly related to negative affect ( $\beta=-.16, p>.05$ ).

There were two hypotheses (H7–H8) involving affect and customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior. Hypothesis 7 predicted a positive relationship between positive affect and customer citizenship behavior. This path was found to be significant ( $\beta=.66, p<.001$ ). Hypothesis 8 predicted a positive relationship between negative affect and customer dysfunctional behavior, and the results confirmed this prediction ( $\beta=.44, p<.001$ ).

To test whether the effects of customer justice perception on customer citizenship behavior and dysfunctional behavior are fully mediated by positive and negative affect, we compare the models in Fig. 1 to models where direct paths are introduced from customer justice perception to customer behaviors. The significance of the difference in the  $R^2$  statistics of between the baseline models and two alternative models reflect the increased explanation of the dependent variable by the inclusion of the direct link. More specifically,  $f^2$  is calculated as  $(R^2_{\text{full}} - R^2_{\text{excluded}})/(1 - R^2_{\text{full}})$ . The  $f^2$  statistic is computed as multiplying  $f^2$  by  $(n - k - 1)$ , where  $n$  is the sample size and  $k$  is the number of independent constructs, which provides a pseudo  $F$  test for testing the significance of the  $f^2$  statistic with 1 and  $(n - k)$  degrees of freedom (Mathieson et al., 2001; Subramani, 2004).

The results of these tests indicate that the effect of customer justice perception on customer citizenship behavior is completely mediated by positive affect. The research model incorporating mediated paths is preferred to the alternative model that includes direct paths from customer justice perception to customer citizenship behavior. The  $R^2$  value for customer citizenship behavior is .44 for the research model and .45 for the alternative model with a direct link between customer justice perception and customer citizenship behavior. Then,  $f^2$  is .018 and  $F(1, 205) = 3.74, p > .05$ .

The results of mediation tests also reveal that the effect of customer justice perception on customer dysfunctional behavior is completely mediated by negative affect. The research model incorporating mediated paths is preferred to the alternative model including direct paths to customer dysfunctional behavior. The  $R^2$  value for customer dysfunctional behavior is .196 for the research model and .211 for the alternative model with a direct link between customer justice perception and customer dysfunctional behavior. Then,  $f^2$  is .018 and  $F(1, 205) = 3.83, p > .05$ . Overall, the hypothesized mediated effects of customer justice perception on customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior are supported, as predicted by Hypothesis 9–10.

## 5. Study 2

To test the generalizability of our findings, we conducted a second study that included business customers in a different environment: the manufacturing industry.

### 5.1. Sample selection and data collection

In Study 2, we collected data from the buyer firms of organizational products located in Korea. We identified the

Table 3  
Tests of hypothesized relationships for Study 1

	Positive affect	Negative affect	Citizenship behavior	Dysfunctional Behavior
Distributive justice	.23(2.79)**	-.21(2.12)*		
Procedural justice	.18(2.13)*	-.30(3.06)**		
Interactional justice	.40(4.06)***	-.16(1.44)		
Positive affect			.66(17.58)***	
Negative affect				.44(7.47)***
Construct $R^2$	.52	.36	.44	.20

Notes: a.  $t$ -values in parentheses.

b. One-tailed test.

\*  $p < .05$ .

\*\*  $p < .01$ .

\*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

Table 4  
Study 2: Correlations and summary statistics

Variables	Correlation						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Distributive justice	1.00						
2. Procedural justice	.78	1.00					
3. Interactional justice	.67	.74	1.00				
4. Positive affect	.57	.56	.71	1.00			
5. Negative affect	-.37	-.28	-.43	-.37	1.00		
6. Citizenship behavior	.62	.60	.54	.52	-.34	1.00	
7. Dysfunctional behavior	-.18	-.11	-.23	-.05	.39	-.11	1.00
Summary statistics							
Number of items	3	3	3	3	3	5	6
Mean	4.61	4.74	5.02	4.60	3.46	4.79	2.55
Standard deviation	1.37	1.24	1.24	1.13	1.59	1.16	1.19
Maximum	7.00	7.00	7.00	7.00	6.67	6.80	6.00
Minimum	1.33	1.33	1.00	2.00	1.00	1.80	1.00

sample by first contacting seller firms of raw materials for manufacturers and obtaining names and contact information for important buyer firms. Research assistants hand-delivered the questionnaires to the key respondents in the buyer firms that had agreed to participate in the study. Respondents then completed the questionnaire and returned the self-reported survey to the respective assistant. All respondents were assured of the confidentiality of their responses.

The total sample size was 68, and the respondents were 35 men and 33 women. Thirty percent of the respondents were under 30 years old, 50% between 37 and 48 years old, and 20% over 49 years old. The respondents had been working at the firm for an average of 9.87 years. They represented various levels of management: middle (30%), upper middle (33.3%), and executive (36.7%). Forty percent of respondents represented firms with 30 or fewer employees, and 15% of respondents had over 100 employees. The size of purchases ranged from \$21,000 to \$23,310,000.

### 5.2. Measures

We used the same measures that were used in Study 1, except for customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior. We modified the wording of specific items to reflect the industrial marketing context. Because of the lack of existing indices related to customer citizenship and dysfunctional behavior in the business market, we created new indices. We followed the guidelines for constructing indices based on the work of Diamantopoulos and Winklhofer (2001). They propose several issues that are critical to the successful construction of indices with formative indicators: content specification, indicator specification, and collinearity of the indicators.

First, we reviewed the definitions of customer citizenship behavior as well as customer dysfunctional behavior and specified the domain of concept in order to carry out content specification. We then attempted to specify the indicators for

customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior indices, so that we could capture the entire scope of the latent variable described by the index’s domain of content. We generated items on the basis of in-depth and exploratory interviews with representative managers of buying centers and an extensive review of the extant literature. These indicators are listed in the Appendix. Lastly, we performed a multicollinearity analysis. Because formative measurement is based on a multiple regression, substantial collinearity among indicators would cause the instability of indicator coefficients. In our analysis, multicollinearity among the five citizenship behavior variables as well as the six dysfunctional behavior variables did not pose a problem, given that the conditioning index was no higher than 10, which is below 30, and the maximum variance inflation factor came to 3.80, which is below 10 (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006).

### 5.3. Results

Table 4 shows the descriptive statistics and the intercorrelations of the variables. In the case of formative measures, Table 5

Table 5  
Measurement model for Study 2

Scale item	Weight	Variance inflation factor	Loading	Composite reliability	Average variance extracted
Distributive justice				.94	.84
DJ1			.94		
DJ2			.93		
DJ3			.88		
Procedural justice				.87	.70
PJ1			.82		
PJ2			.79		
PJ3			.89		
Interactional justice				.88	.71
IJ1			.78		
IJ2			.88		
IJ3			.86		
Positive affect				.95	.87
PA1			.93		
PA2			.94		
PA3			.94		
Negative affect				.93	.82
NA1			.88		
NA2			.93		
NA3			.90		
Citizenship behavior				n.a.	n.a.
CB1	.54	2.72			
CB2	-.25	1.21			
CB3	-.42	1.99			
CB4	.67	3.80			
CB5	.20	2.97			
Dysfunctional behavior				n.a.	n.a.
DB1	.38	2.47			
DB2	.01	1.90			
DB3	-.06	2.17			
DB4	.19	2.81			
DB5	.64	2.45			
DB6	.44	1.68			

All weights and loadings are significant at the .05 level.

shows the PLS weights and variance inflation factor (VIF) for the items of customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior. The weights and significance of all formative measures indicate that the items contribute significantly to the formation of customer citizenship and dysfunctional behaviors. A check for multicollinearity revealed that the variance inflation factor (VIF) values for all of the constructs are acceptable (i.e., between 1.21 and 3.80).

In the case of reflective measures, Table 5 shows that factor loadings for all scale items were significant at the .05 level and exceeded the minimum criterion of .70. The composite reliabilities of all factors also exceeded the required minimum of .80, and average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct exceeded .50. Hence, convergent validity was met. From the data presented in Table 4, we can see that the highest correlation between any pair of constructs was .78 (between procedural justice and distributive justice). This was lower than the lowest square root of AVE (.84 for procedural justice). Hence, the discriminant validity criterion was also met, demonstrating adequate psychometric properties for all of our reflective measures.

Table 6 shows the results of the hypothesis test using partial least squares. Our model demonstrates good explanatory power, because the  $R^2$  values for the endogenous constructs range from .19 to .54.

Hypothesis 1 predicted a positive relationship between distributive justice and positive affect. The results indicate that this hypothesis was supported ( $\beta=.19, p<.05$ ). Hypothesis 2 predicted a negative relationship between distributive justice and negative affect. The results indicate that Hypothesis 2 was supported: distributive justice was significantly related to negative affect ( $\beta=-.33, p<.05$ ). A positive relationship was found between procedural justice and positive affect, as predicted by Hypothesis 3 ( $\beta=.29, p<.01$ ). In accordance with Hypothesis 4, procedural justice and negative affect were significantly and negatively related ( $\beta=-.33, p<.05$ ). Hypothesis 5 predicted a positive relationship between interactional

justice and positive affect. This path was found to be significant ( $\beta=.62, p<.01$ ). Hypothesis 6 was supported as interactional justice was significantly related to negative affect ( $\beta=-.47, p<.01$ ).

There were two hypotheses (H7–H8) involving affect and customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior. Hypothesis 7 predicted a positive relationship between positive affect and customer citizenship behavior. This path was found to be significant ( $\beta=.67, p<.001$ ). Hypothesis 8 predicted a positive relationship between negative affect and customer dysfunctional behavior, and the results confirmed this prediction ( $\beta=.44, p<.001$ ).

The results of mediation tests indicate that the effect of customer justice perception on customer citizenship behavior is completely mediated by positive affect. The research model incorporating mediated paths is preferred to the alternative model that includes direct paths from customer justice perception to customer citizenship behavior. More specifically, the  $R^2$  value for customer citizenship behavior is .51 for the research model and .53 for the alternative model with a direct link between customer justice perception and customer citizenship behavior. Then,  $f^2$  is .006 and  $F(1, 65)=3.59, p>.05$ .

The results of mediation tests also reveal that the effect of customer justice perception on customer dysfunctional behavior is completely mediated by negative affect. The research model incorporating mediated paths is preferred to the alternative model including direct paths to customer dysfunctional behavior. The  $R^2$  value for customer dysfunctional behavior is .27 for the research model and .31 for the alternative model with a direct link between customer justice perception and customer dysfunctional behavior. Then,  $f^2$  is .006 and  $F(1, 65)=3.71, p>.05$ . Overall, the hypothesized mediated effects of customer justice perception on customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior are supported, as predicted by Hypothesis 9–10.

## 6. Discussion

As one of the few empirical studies investigating the antecedents of customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior, this research examined the roles of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice, as well as the impacts of positive and negative affect on these customer behaviors.

One objective of this study was to examine the impact of perceived justice on affect. Although most previous research focused on the service failure context, this research attempted to understand the impact of customer justice perception on affect within the service delivery setting. Like organizational employees, customers perceive justice through a service delivery process. The present study therefore shows that customer justice perception can be expanded to this setting, and thus extends previous customer justice perception research beyond the service failure context. The significant impacts of customer justice perception on affect are noteworthy. Because the importance of affect is well established through numerous prior studies, managers clearly need to understand the importance of managing justice perception among customers. If the latter perceive unfair

Table 6  
Tests of hypothesized relationships for Study 2

	Positive affect	Negative affect	Citizenship behavior	Dysfunctional Behavior
Distributive justice	.19(1.83) *	-.33(1.74) *		
Procedural justice	.29(2.45) **	-.33(2.13) *		
Interactional justice	.62(4.83) ***	-.47(2.45) **		
Positive affect			.67(10.08) ***	
Negative affect				.44(3.68) ***
Construct $R^2$	.55	.18	.51	.27

Notes: a.  $t$ -values in parentheses.

b. One-tailed test.

\*  $p<.05$ .

\*\*  $p<.01$ .

\*\*\*  $p<.001$ .

treatment from the organization and employees, they might become angry and upset. The negative consequences of customer negative affect are so obvious that managers may undertake considerable efforts to improve customer justice perception.

Our results generally point to the existence of significant impacts of customer justice perception on affect, with the exception of the relationship between interaction justice and negative affect in Study 1. One explanation for the lack of a significant relationship may be the peculiarity of the research setting. Interactional justice entails person-to-person interaction, and in most normal classroom settings, students and instructors are not involved in emotional conflict. They usually interact with respect and dignity. Therefore, it is not common for students to be angry or upset with instructors during class.

The results associated with this study revealed that managers need to train employees to serve their customer better, so that customers perceive greater justice. Given this finding, managers should re-examine the fairness and appropriateness of existing processes (procedural justice), outcomes (distributive justice), and employee–customer communications (interactional justice). This is especially important because the results indicate that customer justice perception may influence affect and indirectly influence customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior.

Another objective of the study was to examine the impact of affect on customer citizenship behavior and dysfunctional behaviors. As we hypothesized, all the paths between affect and customer behaviors were statistically significant. Affect has received considerable attention from both academics and practitioners over the past few decades, but relatively little attention have been paid to investigating its impact on customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior. Our results show that customer citizenship behavior can be encouraged by positive affect, whereas customer dysfunctional behavior by negative affect. From the managerial perspective, this research suggests that a focus on customer affect may be an effective way to address customer citizenship behavior as well as customer dysfunctional behavior. Managers thus need to consider customer affect as part of their decision process to minimize negative affect and maximize positive affect (Spector & Fox, 2002).

Another interesting finding concerns the mediating role of affect between customer justice perception and customer citizenship behavior as well as customer dysfunctional behavior. Service firms should realize that customer citizenship behavior and dysfunctional behavior are mostly affect-driven. Distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice influence customer citizenship behavior as well as customer dysfunctional behavior only through positive and negative affect. Thus, affective change precedes the behavioral response, a result consistent with the bulk of research in marketing (Bagozzi, Gopinath, & Nyer, 1999; Gardner, 1985; Huang, 2001). Thus, managers might need to emphasize total customer affect management programs — rather than strategies that focus solely on customer justice perception to improve customer citizenship behavior or customer dysfunctional behavior.

A major strength of this study lies in the integration of two independent streams of research: those on customer citizenship behavior and on customer dysfunctional behavior. The research thus integrates the seemingly different areas. The antecedents of these two types of customer behavior are very similar and they have the same underlying mechanism. Managers, therefore, need to manage these two types of customer behavior with the same principle. Instead of developing two different strategies, service organizations should focus on common predictors: customer justice perception and affect.

Our study also contributes to the marketing literature because our samples cover both the business-to-customer (B2C) context and the business-to-business (B2B) context. This should enhance external validity of the present study.

## 7. Limitations and future research

Although this study provides useful insights, there are several limitations worth addressing. Although the present research suggests customer justice perception and affect as antecedents of customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior, more research is needed to reveal other antecedents in an effort to better understand why customers participate in citizenship and dysfunctional behavior. It is also possible that the results are due to spurious variables not included in our research. For example, Fullerton and Punj (1993) suggest that important drivers of customer dysfunctional behavior are the customer trait and predispositions including personality traits, attitude, and the desire for thrill-seeking. Such factors might be pursued in future research.

Although the focus of the present study is to explore the antecedents of customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior, it may also be useful to consider the consequences of customer citizenship behavior and customer dysfunctional behavior. For example, it would be worthy exploring the relationship between financial performance and customer citizenship behavior as well as customer dysfunctional behavior. Furthermore, one might consider moderators such as involvement, commitment, and customer experience. Customers with different attitudinal characteristics may require different approaches to apply our research model. Managers thus might try to segment their customers according to their characteristics.

The data collection for this study relied exclusively on survey information gathered at one point in time. This approach raises concerns regarding the influence of common method variance. Such variance is problematic if associations between constructs are artificially inflated due to the manner in which the data were collected. Future work should consider a longitudinal design to delineate more clearly the causal relations hypothesized in our framework.

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**Appendix A. Items used to operationalize constructs in Study 1**

## Distributive justice

DJ1 Compared to what you expected, the EMBA program offered more than expected.

DJ2 Taking everything into consideration, the EMBA program was quite fair.

DJ3 Given the circumstances, I feel that the EMBA program offered an adequate educational service.

## Procedural justice

PJ1 The university has fair policies and practices for dealing with students.

PJ2 With respect to policies and procedures, the university handled my encounter fairly.

PJ3 Overall, the procedures followed by the university were fair.

## Interactional justice

IJ1 The instructor treats students with dignity.

IJ2 The instructor communicates with students in a respectful manner.

IJ3 The instructor understands student needs.

## Positive affect

PA1 Joyful

PA2 Delighted

PA3 Happy

## Negative affect

NA1 Nervous

NA2 Angry

NA3 Upset

## Customer citizenship behavior

CB1 I say positive things about this EMBA program to others.  
CB2 I give constructive suggestions to this EMBA program on how to improve its service.

CB3 When I have a useful idea on how to improve service, I communicate it to someone in this EMBA program.

CB4 When I experience a problem at this EMBA program, I let someone know so that they can improve the service.

CB5 I try to keep the classroom clean (e.g., not leaving trash behind).

CB6 I carefully observe the rules and policies of this EMBA program.

CB7 I do things that can make the instructor's job easier.

## Customer dysfunctional behavior

DB1 I miss class without reasonable justification.

DB2 I talk to fellow students during class.

DB3 I come to class late without permission.

DB4 I intentionally submit assignments later than I should.

DB5 I do not follow the instructor's requests and directions.

DB6 I focus on the negative side, rather than the positive side in class.

DB7 I put little effort into my class work.

DB8 I spend time fantasizing or daydreaming during class.

**Appendix B. Items used to operationalize constructs in Study 2**

## Distributive justice

DJ1 Compared to what you expected, this supplier offered more than expected.

DJ2 Taking everything into consideration, this supplier was quite fair.

DJ3 Given the circumstances, I feel that this supplier offered an adequate service.

## Procedural justice

PJ1 This supplier has fair policies and practices for dealing with our company.

PJ2 With respect to policies and procedures, this supplier handled our encounter fairly.

PJ3 Overall, the procedures followed by this supplier were fair.

## Interactional justice

IJ1 This supplier treats us with dignity.

IJ2 This supplier communicates with us in a respectful manner.

IJ3 This supplier understands our needs.

## Positive affect

PA1 Joyful

PA2 Delighted

PA3 Happy

## Negative affect

NA1 Nervous

NA2 Angry

NA3 Upset

## Customer citizenship behavior

CB1 We say positive things about this supplier to others.

CB2 We give constructive suggestions to this supplier on how to improve its service.

CB3 We complete the payment to this supplier before the due date whenever possible.

CB4 We recommend this supplier to others.

CB5 We do things that can make this supplier's job easier.

## Customer dysfunctional behavior

- DB1 We delay payment to this supplier intentionally.  
 DB2 We demand that this supplier discount the delivery price unreasonably.  
 DB3 We do not consider the profit margin of this supplier.  
 DB4 We do not follow this supplier's requests and directions.  
 DB5 We act rudely toward this supplier.  
 DB6 We put little effort into the business with this supplier.

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