Development of restaurant service sabotage scale

by

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B.A., National Taiwan University, 2007
M.A. with Distinction, Manchester Metropolitan University, 2012
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AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

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Abstract

Service sabotage refers to employees' deliberate actions that negatively affect service, functional quality, employee-customer rapport, and company performance. Almost all frontline employees in the hospitality industry have witnessed service sabotage behaviors, and 85% admitted to engaging in such misbehaviors. Despite the prevalence and profound impact of service sabotage, it has been a challenge for researchers to measure the construct and understand specific and contextualized restaurant service sabotage behaviors. Thus, the purpose of this dissertation was to develop a reliable and valid scale to measure restaurant service sabotage.

A mixed methods research design was applied. A qualitative study was conducted to explore prevalent restaurant service sabotage behaviors and to generate an item pool for the initial scale, followed by two quantitative studies with two different groups of non-managerial frontline employees in full-service restaurants to refine and validate the scale.

Guided by critical incident technique, 243 critical incidents were derived from the in-depth interviews (n = 26). Of those, 28 explicit types of restaurant service sabotage behaviors were identified and further categorized into three behavioral groups: targeting customers, colleagues, and restaurants. In conjunction with scale items extracted from related measures, an initial instrument consisting of 39 items was developed and administered to an online restaurant employee panel by hiring a professional research firm.

A total of 419 usable responses were collected and analyzed using principal axis factoring with a promax rotation. Results revealed a 13-item scale with three dominant factors. To validate the scale, 463 usable responses were gathered for data analyses. Results of the confirmatory factor analyses indicated a good model fit of the three-factor model, x^2/df=3.15, GFI=.96, CFI=.97, NFI=.95, and RMSEA=.07 while reducing the scale items from 13 to 10 and

supporting the scale's dimensionality. Tests for validating construct validity were all fully supported. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were all greater than .70, showing internal consistency of the scale. This psychometrically valid and conceptually sound scale may be applied in future restaurant service sabotage research and may stimulate additional studies to advance the theory and explore the criterion network. Implications, limitations, and direction for future research are discussed.

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Dedication

To my grandparents, parents, and parents-in-laws,

For their unconditional love and support in all things great and small.

They nourished me to be the person I am today.

To my lovely wife, Wanling and our little one, Adrian,

For being the best cheerleaders throughout the journey.

This work could not have been completed without their love and sacrifice.

Chapter 1 - Introduction

Introduction

The word "sabotage" derives from a French word that means to attack with sabots, wooden shoes that were once popular in Europe (*Merriam-Webster's online dictionary*, 2016). At one time, skilled workers threw sabots into manufacturing machines as a means of resisting the industrial revolution. Eventually, "sabotage" came to mean "to cause the failure of (something) deliberately" (*Merriam-Webster's online dictionary*). Early literature is based on the assumption that employees' behaviors are positive and compliant with organizational norms (Ackroyd & Thompson, 1999). However, this assumption does not always hold true; in actuality, some employees sabotage service (Harris & Ogbonna, 2009). Considering that service is pivotal to the success of restaurant businesses (e.g., Bitner, Booms, & Mohr, 1994; Saad Andaleeb & Conway, 2006), a deep understanding of service sabotage is necessary for managers and owners of restaurants.

Service sabotage refers to employees' intentional actions that negatively influence the delivery of service or service standards (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). The prevalence of service sabotage in the hospitality industry is high, and nearly 100% of frontline employees stated that they had witnessed service sabotage behaviors in the workplace (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). The financial cost of service sabotage is estimated to reach billions of dollars every year, including expenditures for the damage, prevention, and correction due to service sabotage (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fagbohungbe, Akinbode, & Ayodeji, 2012; Murphy, 1993). Furthermore, service sabotage has a strong and negative influence on service quality and the rapport between employees and customers, resulting in decreased customer satisfaction (Harris & Ogbonna,

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2006). In short, service sabotage is prevalent, costly, and detrimental in the service industry; therefore, managing service sabotage in the restaurant industry is critically important.

The restaurant industry has negative images among job seekers because of high levels of job stress, long work hours, and relatively low pay (Lashley, 2000). The work environment is unfavorable for frontline employees, but their performance is essential to customers' overall dining experience (Gounaris & Boukis, 2013; Spinelli & Canavos, 2000). Another unique characteristic of restaurant service is the inseparability of production and consumption (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988). There is almost no lapse in time between the production and consumption of service, unlike manufacturing industries that are able to produce and sell products separately. Lastly, frontline employees provide service to customers throughout the dining period, and prolonged service contacts increase the likelihood of service sabotage (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002).

Lee and Ok (2014) asserted that hospitality employees' emotional dissonance, the discrepancy between the genuine emotion and the feigned emotion, is positively associated with service sabotage. Frontline employees are the face of the restaurant; their employers expect them display positive emotions (e.g., friendliness and sincerity) when serving customers. Because of this expectation, frontline employees often need to suppress their true feelings to present the desired facade, creating emotional dissonance (Kruml & Geddes, 2000). Not all restaurant frontline employees work in a hospitable environment in every shift; therefore, displaying favorable emotions builds up emotional dissonance, which may lead to service sabotage behaviors (Lee & Ok).

Providing service to customers in restaurants requires extensive face-to-face communications including both verbal and nonverbal interactions, when taking orders or

delivering food. However, it is not uncommon to find frontline employees being abused by difficult customers. Mistreatment by customers was found to be significantly associated with service sabotage (Skarlicki, van Jaarsveld, & Walker, 2008). Revenge against abusive customers is also one of the major drivers for service saboteurs (Harris & Ogbonna, 2012).

The characteristics of the restaurant industry, the uniqueness of restaurant service, and the extensive direct interactions between frontline employees and customers all contribute to the urgent need to better understand and manage restaurant service sabotage. Service sabotage has been studied in various segments in the service industry, including overall hospitality organizations (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002), call centers (Skarlicki et al., 2008), and hotels (Shao & Skarlicki, 2014). Despite the abovementioned conditions that may increase potential service sabotage in the restaurant industry, there has been no research investigating service sabotage in the restaurant industry to date.

In recent years, service sabotage has caught the attention of a number of researchers (e.g., Harris & Ogbonna, 2006; Lee & Ok, 2014; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2008; Wang, Liao, Zhan, & Shi, 2011). However, each segment in the service industry has its own challenges and subsequent service sabotage behaviors. For example, service saboteurs may spill drinks on diners in restaurants, change guests' alarm settings to wake them up at midnight in hotels, or pretend to accidentally disconnect the customers' phone calls in call centers. Due to the context-specific nature of service sabotage behaviors, researchers must develop a new service sabotage measure to fit the research setting if it has not yet been studied.

The service sabotage scale developed by Harris and Ogbonna (2006) was constructed based on related literature and field interviews (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002) with frontline employees from four hospitality firms. The scale was intended to measure the construct of

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service sabotage in the overall service industry, especially the hospitality segments (e.g., "people here take revenge on rude customers"). The advantage of Harris and Ogbonna's (2006) scale is that it may be adapted in a wider range of segments within the service industry. However, the drawback is that it is not specific, identifying only limited forms of service sabotage behaviors, and some items may not be applicable in several segments, especially if face-to-face interactions are not required (e.g., "sometimes, when customers are not looking, people here deliberately mess things up").

Skarlicki et al. (2008) developed a customer-directed service sabotage measure in the call center setting. A specific example of a sabotage behavior in this context may be "purposefully transferred the customer to the wrong department." This service sabotage scale (Skarlicki et al.) is considered credible because they employed critical incident techniques to form the initial scale and then rewrote these incidents into behavioral items. However, their scale was specific to the call center context and limited to customer-directed service sabotage behaviors. It is likely that the scale may not be applicable in other service settings or for service sabotage behaviors not directed at customers.

For the lodging industry, service sabotage behaviors may be measured using the scale established by Shao and Skarlicki (2014). This three-item scale was used to gauge sabotage behaviors toward customers who mistreated service employees. An example item is "intentionally withheld some information from the guest (who mistreated you)." Although Shao and Skarlicki intended the scale for use in the hotel setting, the actual content of all three items is general, rendering its discriminant validity questionable.

Statement of Problems

In summary, service sabotage scales that are currently available and used (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2008) were not developed specifically for the restaurant industry. However, service sabotage behaviors are context specific; and compared to the lodging segment, service interactions between frontline employees and customers of full-service restaurants are extensive and relatively prolonged throughout the entire dining period. Furthermore, in contrast to the call center segment, service interactions between restaurant employees and diners include both verbal and nonverbal communications. Therefore, none of the aforementioned scales are deemed appropriate to measure restaurant service sabotage behaviors, and little is known about specific types of restaurant service sabotage behaviors. Therefore, a validated scale to measure restaurant service sabotage behaviors is needed, and explicit types of sabotage behaviors should be explored to manage the relevant challenges effectively in the restaurant industry.

Based on previous literature, this study was conducted to address the following research questions:

- What are the explicit types of service sabotage behaviors in the restaurant industry?
- How often do the abovementioned behaviors occur?
- Who are the targets of the abovementioned behaviors?
- What are the dimensions of the restaurant service sabotage scale?
- What is the reliability of the restaurant service sabotage scale?
- What is the convergent validity of the restaurant service sabotage scale?
- What is the discriminant validity of the restaurant service sabotage scale?
- What is the criterion-related validity of the restaurant service sabotage scale?

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Purpose

The purpose of this study was to develop a reliable and valid scale to measure restaurant service sabotage behaviors. A mixed methods design that includes both qualitative and quantitative methods was applied, consisting of three phases: instrument development, instrument refinement, and instrument validation.

Objectives

Specific objectives for Phase I (instrument development) using qualitative methods (in-depth interviews and critical incident techniques) were to

1. explore explicit types of service sabotage behaviors in the restaurant industry and

2. generate an item pool to form the initial restaurant service sabotage instrument.

Specific objectives for Phase II (instrument refinement) using quantitative methods (survey and exploratory factor analysis [EFA]) were to

1. evaluate the performance of the initial sabotage behavior instrument and

2. refine the initial instrument into a multidimensional service sabotage scale.

Specific objectives for Phase III (instrument validation) using quantitative methods (survey and confirmatory factor analysis [CFA]) were to

1. validate the refined service sabotage scale and

2. establish evidence for convergent, discriminant, and criterion-related validity of the service sabotage scale.

Significance of the Study

It is expected that the restaurant service sabotage scale can serve as a valid instrument for future studies pertaining to service sabotage behaviors in the restaurant industry. Churchill (1979) pointed out that the quality of research depends heavily on the tools that researchers develop to measure the variables of interest. Although service sabotage has attracted increasing attention from researchers in recent years, the number of studies is limited, which may be due to the lack of a valid measurement. The restaurant service sabotage scale developed from this study may fill this gap in the research and be applied in various domains (e.g., service marketing, human resource management, and organizational behaviors). Specifically, researchers may evaluate the relationships between restaurant service sabotage and other variables of interest (e.g., customer satisfaction, person-job fit, and organizational commitment). Ultimately, the scale may become a foundation for many future studies in this area.

The results from this study may enhance the understanding of restaurant service sabotage and contribute to theoretical advancements in this topic. Service sabotage scale development requires generating a pool of relevant behavioral items. This process relies on the critical incident technique and in-depth interviews. This study explored critical incidents in terms of restaurant service sabotage behaviors and analyzed using qualitative research methodology. Furthermore, types, frequencies, and targets of restaurant service sabotage behaviors were explicitly explored for better understanding of sabotage behaviors in full-service restaurants in the U.S.

This study may also provide practical implications for the restaurant industry. First, managers may be able to address restaurant service sabotage behaviors more effectively by knowing the prevalent behaviors reported in this study. By identifying types, frequencies, and

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targets of restaurant service sabotage behaviors; this study helps managers understand managerial reactions, obtain a holistic picture of restaurant service sabotage, and develop better coping strategies and priorities.

Second, this study also provides insights for human resources. For example, administering the restaurant service sabotage scale in conjunction with other personality or person-job fit measures in the recruiting process may help managers hire employees who are less likely to be engaged in destructive service sabotage behaviors. Restaurant managers may also consider establishing certain training programs to prevent service sabotage behaviors (e.g., training in work ethics and emotional intelligence) (Lee & Ok, 2014).

Last, service sabotage is highly associated with customers' perceived service quality (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006). This study provides information about and detailed characteristics of restaurant service sabotage behaviors. Using the findings of this study, managers may be able to increase service quality by properly addressing such behaviors in their restaurants, and customer satisfaction may also improve.

Limitations

Restaurant service sabotage is a sensitive topic in the workplace. Furthermore, the restaurant service sabotage scale was self-administered, and so were the other measures in the validation process. Therefore, common method variance (CMV) could be an issue because responses were collected from the same source (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Harman's single-factor test was performed and scales were rated on different types of questionnaires (for example, 5-point and 7-point scales as well as yes or no questions) to assess whether the study results were significantly affected by CMV (Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). To ensure that the results were not significantly affected by common method variance (CMV),

Harman's single-factor test was performed. Results revealed that one single factor did not explain the majority of the variance (37.42%).

In addition, past literature cautioned the effect of social desirability bias when studying service sabotage. While one cannot guarantee that data from this study are free from the social desirability bias, the following strategies were adopted to minimize the impact of social desirability bias. First, questions used during interviews were framed in a nonthreatening way to explore restaurant service sabotage behaviors (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006). Instead of requiring respondents to answer questions based on their personal behaviors, the interviewees were asked to share restaurant service sabotage incidents according to what they have heard or witnessed in their workplace. Furthermore, influence from social desirability was assessed and controlled in quantitative analyses (Moorman & Podaskoff, 1992). Nevertheless, the threat of social desirability could not be completely eliminated.

Data in this study were collected from frontline employees in full-service restaurants in the U.S. where tipping is a social norm. Therefore, the results may not be generalizable to other restaurant segments (e.g., quick service or fast casual restaurants) or to other regions where tipping is not required or expected.

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Chapter 2 - Literature Review

The purpose of the study was to develop a reliable and valid scale to measure restaurant service sabotage behaviors. In the process of constructing the measurement, specific and contextualized restaurant service sabotage behavioral items were identified. The behaviors identified in the first phase of this study as well as those extracted from previous literature served as basis for generating a large item pool for subsequent scale development procedures. Following two sets of quantitative survey procedures, this research ultimately aimed to produce a robust restaurant service sabotage scale.

The following review of the extant literature comprises of three sections. The first section outlines literature pertaining to workplace deviance, which represents volitional workplace behaviors that contradict organizational norms (e.g., employee sabotage). The second section focuses on the concept of service sabotage. Types, motives, antecedents, and consequences of service sabotage as well as its impact on the restaurant industry are discussed. Finally, the last section summarizes the currently existing service sabotage scales for various service industries. In particular, scale items that may be applicable to the restaurant context are collected and reviewed.

Workplace Deviance

The Concept of Workplace Deviance

Traditionally, organizational behavior research indicates that employees' behaviors are positive and compliant with organizational norms (Ackroyd & Thompson, 1999). However, previous studies regarding workplace deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), antisocial behavior (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997), dysfunctional behavior (Griffin, O'Leary-Kelly, & Collins, 1998), and organizational misbehavior (Ackroyd & Thompson) have shown that some

employees intentionally engage in negative behaviors that affect the organization, people within it, or both. Although researchers use different labels to describe such negative workplace behaviors, it is generally agreed that this misconduct causes direct or indirect damage to the organization or members within it.

Robinson and Bennett (1995) defined workplace deviance as the "voluntary behavior of organizational members that violates significant organizational norms, and in so doing, threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both" (p. 556). The target of deviance is an important element when studying workplace deviant behaviors (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), and two major targets of workplace deviance have been identified. The first target is individuals by actions, such as cursing, acting rudely toward, or saying something harmful to others at work. The second workplace deviance target is against the organization, for example, stealing property, withholding effort, or ignoring a supervisor's instructions. The targets of workplace deviance identified by Bennett and Robinson (2000) seem to encompass most of the stakeholders in the workplace. However, it is unclear whether the framework of workplace deviance applies to the restaurant industry.

Customers play a critical role in service encounters in the restaurant industry because there is almost no lapse in time between the production and consumption of service, unlike manufacturing industries that are able to produce and sell products separately (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988). Therefore, service encounters at restaurants involve not only the organization and members within it but also outsiders (customers). The theory of workplace deviance does not address the extra-organizational role of customers, so that theory is less likely to cover the wide spectrum of negative workplace behaviors in the restaurant industry, especially those aimed at customers.

Types of Workplace Deviance

According to Robinson and Bennett's (1995) typology of workplace deviance, there are two dimensions that divide such behaviors into four quadrants: The first dimension is the target (interpersonal–organizational), and the other is the severity (minor–serious). Figure 2.1 shows the corresponding four types of workplace deviant behaviors: political deviance (interpersonal and minor), personal aggression (interpersonal and serious), production deviance (organizational and minor), and property deviance (organizational) (Robinson & Bennett, p. 565). It is notable that Robinson and Bennett categorize sabotage under property deviance, referring to sabotage of physical equipment in the organization. The products offered in the restaurant industry include both tangible (e.g., food) and intangible (e.g., service) aspects, so property deviance cannot capture the full range of sabotage, especially service sabotage toward clients or colleagues. Therefore, the phenomenon of such deviant employee behaviors in the restaurant industry need to be explored in greater depth.

Figure 2.1 Types of Workplace Deviant Behaviors (Robinson & Bennett, 1995).

ORGANIZATIONAL

Production Deviance
- Leaving early
- Taking excessive breaks
- Intentionally working slow
- Wasting resources

Property Deviance
- Sabotaging equipment
- Accepting kickbacks
- Lying about hours worked
- Stealing from company

MINOR ← → SERIOUS

Political Deviance
- Showing favoritism
- Gossiping about co-workers
- Blaming co-workers
- Competing nonbeneficially

Personal Aggression
- Sexual harassment
- Verbal abuse
- Stealing from co-workers
- Endangering co-workers

INTERPERSONAL

Workplace Deviance and the Service Industry

Employee sabotage is one of the most crucial topics in organizational deviant behavior studies. Generally, the word *sabotage* in the manufacturing industry implies the most extreme cases of damage or the highest level of destruction (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997). They indicated that the term *employee sabotage* could apply to various types of organizations because it suggests that staff intentionally damage the organization's assets, reputation, products, and services, including tangible facilities and intangible services.

Despite the fact that employee sabotage behaviors have attracted close attention and discussion in organizational behavior research, few researchers have focused on the service industry (e.g., Bennett and Robinson address workplaces in general). Employees in the service industry usually perform complex tasks and have extensive interactions with customers (Lashley, 2000). Frontline staff's behaviors influence not only the organization but also internal (e.g., other employees) and external targets (e.g., diners) at the same time. Hence, it is crucial to understand employees' deviant behavior in the service industry.

Service Sabotage

The Concept of Service Sabotage

Harris and Ogbonna (2002) defined service sabotage as "organizational member behaviors that are intentionally designed negatively to affect service" (p. 166). As discussed in the previous section, researchers have used various terms to describe negative employee behaviors depending on the focal point of such acts. For example, workplace deviance focuses on interpersonal and organizational deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). One question is how service sabotage differs from other concepts that have been developed to elucidate the dark side of employee behaviors, such as workplace deviance.

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In actuality, service sabotage should not be seen as another term for the general concept of workplace deviance, nor is it merely a subcategory within it. Ambrose, Seabright, and Schminke (2002) pointed out that sabotage explicitly concentrates on causing harm, whereas deviance focuses on violating norms. Therefore, service sabotage and workplace deviance are conceptually different.

A more detailed look at the definition of service sabotage clarifies that service sabotage happens for a reason. Service sabotage is derived from organizational members' intention (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002, 2006, 2009, 2012), and this intentionality sets service sabotage apart from the common service failure.

Service failure refers to service performance that falls below customers' expectations (Hoffman & Bateson, 1997), and it is typically not deliberate. While service sabotage is different from service failure in terms of the deliberate nature of such an action, from a customer's perspective, the service sabotage and service failure behaviors may be perceived identical. For instance, service staff may provide false information about the menu due to lack of knowledge or inadequate training (i.e., service failure), but service saboteurs may intentionally mislead customers by providing incorrect information. It is therefore plausible that frontline employees disguise service sabotage as service failure in front of customers to evade punishment. Harris and Ogbonna (2002) described frontline employees who intentionally spilled drinks on customers' backs but immediately apologized for their "accidental clumsiness." In such a situation, the customer cannot distinguish between service sabotage and service failure.

Service sabotage is conceptually different from other labels that have been used to illustrate other negative employee behaviors. Furthermore, service sabotage and service failure can be difficult to differentiate, particularly from the customer's viewpoint. Service saboteurs

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may intentionally conceal their misbehaviors to avoid being caught or punished, and therefore, it is challenging for others to identify service sabotage and even more so to manage service sabotage, effectively.

Types of Service Sabotage

In Harris and Ogbonna's (2002) typology, there are four types of service sabotage behaviors, anchoring on two dimensions: openness (covert–overt) and normality (intermittent–routinized) (Figure 2.2) (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002, p. 169). Customary-public service sabotage behaviors, such as undesirably changing the speed of service, account for 47% of all service sabotage incidents. This is followed by customary-private service sabotage behaviors, representing 25% of all incidents; for example, hourly staff often slow down service to earn overtime payments (Harris & Ogbonna). Seventeen percent of service sabotage behaviors are sporadic-public; for instance, service staff dripping sauce on a customer's white shirt and issuing immediate apologies for the "accidental clumsiness." The least common type of service sabotage behavior is sporadic-private (11%), such as spitting in or adding dirt to food (Harris & Ogbonna).

Figure 2.2 Types of Service Sabotage Behaviors (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002).
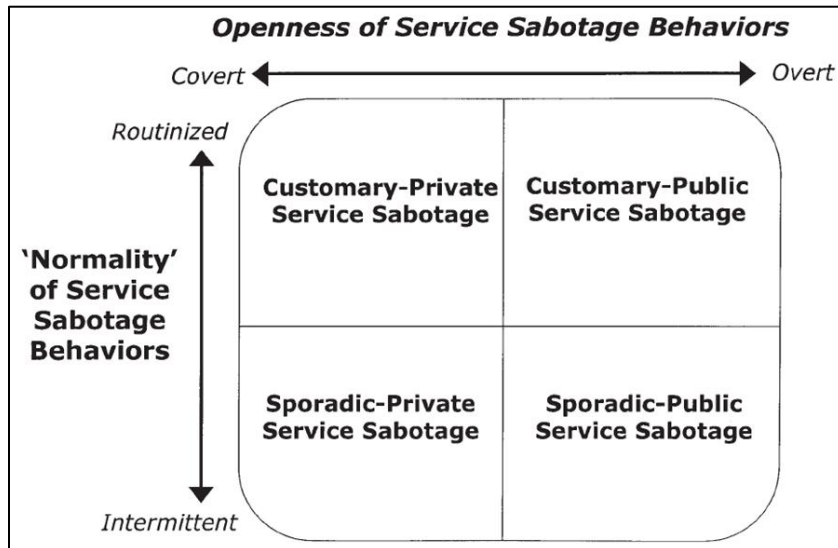
By contrast, Browning (2008) used seriousness (minor–serious) and whether the event

targets customers (indirectly–directly) as two dimensions to categorize service sabotage

behaviors in adventure tourism and hospitality organizations (Figure 2.3) (Browning, p.460). The

dimensions that Browning proposed are similar to Robinson and Bennett's (1995) typology for

workplace deviance (seriousness and target). The difference is that Browning included

customers' role in the typology of service sabotage, expanding the target of service sabotage

from intraorganizational (the organization itself and its members) to extraorganizational

(customers). This is particularly important because customers themselves, and the perception of

other customers, are critical to forming their experience during service encounters. Based on

Browning's (2008) typology, the most frequent service sabotage behavior is "indirect-minor

service deviance" (43%) (e.g., withdrawal of service), followed by "direct-minor service

deviance" (39%) (e.g., incivility toward customers), "direct-serious service deviance" (13%)

(e.g., personal aggression toward customers), and the rarest "indirect-serious service deviance"

(5%) (e.g., revenge against customers).

Figure 2.3 Types of Service Employee Deviant Behaviors (Browning, 2008).

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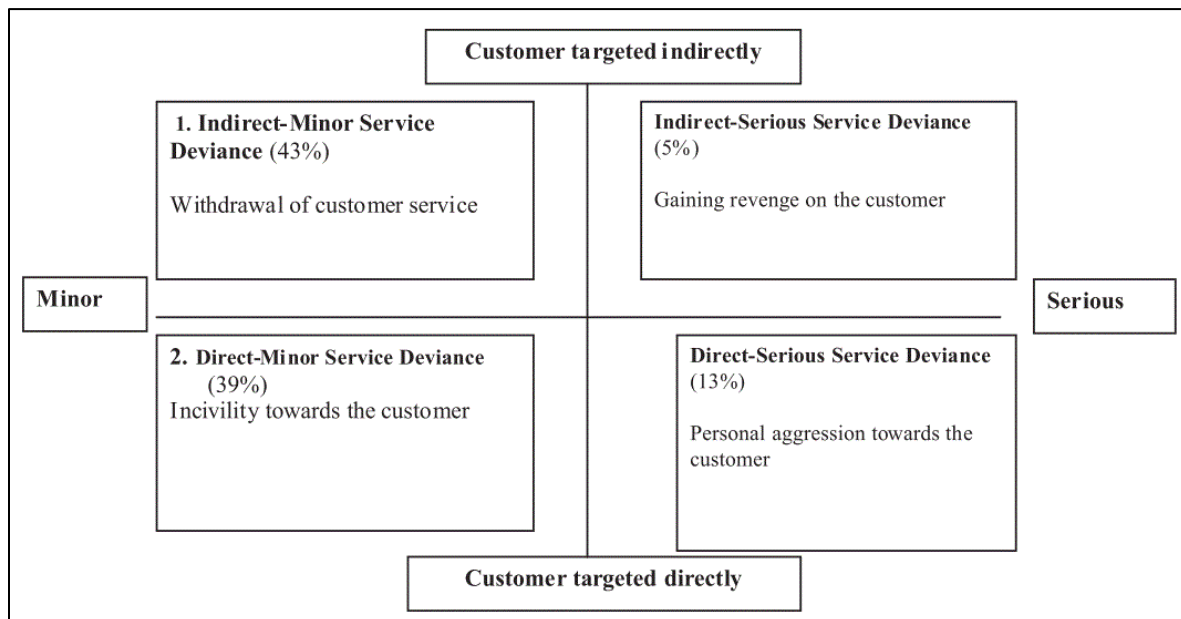
While addressing partial characteristics of service sabotage, neither Browning's nor Robinson and Bennett's typologies are sufficiently comprehensive to cover all parties involved in the service context. Service sabotage behaviors need to be understood with relationships among customers, frontline employees, colleagues, managers, and the organization itself. Identifying explicit types of service sabotage behaviors in restaurants in terms of normality, openness, severity, and targets may benefit the industry for recognition and prevention of such behaviors.

Service Saboteurs and Motives of Service Sabotage

Harris and Ogbonna (2009) classified four major types of service saboteurs, including thrill seekers (30%), apathetic individuals (30%), customer revengers (25%), and money grabbers (15%). Thrill seekers pursue excitement, exhilaration, and fun by sabotaging service; apathetic individuals withdraw effort from work, and satisfying customers is a lesser priority than work avoidance; customer revengers are motivated by their perception of unfair treatment from customers; and money grabbers aim to maximize their income from their employer by manipulating their work hours (Harris & Ogbonna, 2009). Money grabbers tend to steal indirectly, so they are sometimes also called 'time thieves.' Thrill seekers are active and easy to identify, whereas apathetic individuals are difficult to recognize among non-saboteurs (Harris & Ogbonna, 2009).

In the later research, Harris and Ogbonna (2012) explored the motives of service saboteurs to explain the reasons behind service sabotage. It is crucial to understand why organization members engage in service sabotage to explore plausible management strategies. Five primary motives of service sabotage behaviors are financial (25%), customer-driven (24%),

stress-related (20%), group-related (18%), and employee or firm-oriented (13%) (Harris &

Ogbonna, 2012).

Financial motives explain service sabotage behaviors that can bring financial gain for the

saboteurs (Harris & Ogbonna, 2012). In terms of the observable behavior, it is often that

saboteurs change the speed of service to a level that customers do not desire and contradicts the

service standards with the goal of increasing monetary rewards. More specifically, part-time

employees deliberately work slower so that they can earn extra pay, which greatly increases the

amount of payment they rightfully receive. By contrast, employees who are paid same amount by

shift, week, or month tend to increase the speed of service to reduce or minimize the amount of

time spent working. Whether saboteurs work slower or faster, the goal is the same, to attain

increased monetary income. Thus, saboteurs alter the service to suit their own needs. Harris and

Ogbonna (2012) pointed out that service sabotage behaviors motivated by financial cause are the

result of logical considerations rather than irrational behaviors.

The customer-driven motive (Harris & Ogbonna, 2012) depends heavily on how

employees perceive, interpret, and react to the interactions they have with customers. In general,

the customer-driven service saboteur desires to harm a particular customer because of an earlier

event, such as conflicts, mistreatments, or unreasonable requests. Although poor treatment from

customers can vary by the particular situation, corresponding service sabotage behaviors are

associated with the nature of dysfunctional customer behavior (Fullerton & Punj, 2004; Tonglet,

2002). For example, if the mistreatment from customers is public (e.g., in front of colleagues or

other customers), the subsequent service sabotage is likely to be severe. If the employee

perceives the customer mistreatment as personal and hostile, the following service sabotage

tends to be more covert.

The stress-related motive causes employees to sabotage service to either reduce the level

of stress or overcome too little stimulation (e.g., boredom) (Harris & Ogbonna, 2012). Service

sabotage behaviors that are intended to relieve stress may be harmful to the customers or the

organization; however, they are beneficial for saboteurs and somewhat "constructive" for their

psychological well-being (Warren, 2003). Generally, if the goal of service sabotage is to relieve

stress, service saboteurs display behaviors designed to make colleagues laugh (e.g., making faces

behind customers). If the purpose of service sabotage is to generate stimulation or excitement to

relieve boredom, the service sabotage behaviors are more likely to be intermittent and minor.

Employees will react antisocially to break the norm when facing repeated frustrating factors,

such as tedium (Spector, 1997).

One of the motives for service sabotage is group-related factors, such as an individual's

desire to increase status within a group. Service work generally requires a group of people to

work collectively to provide service to customers. Harris and Ogbonna (2006) found that service

sabotage is empirically related to higher levels of team spirit. For example, publicly engaging in

service sabotage behaviors in front of colleagues is a way to earn respect from peers in the work

group. Furthermore, pressure put on by a group or team may also contribute to the group-related

service sabotage behaviors (Robinson & O'Leary-Kelly, 1998). New employees taking a longer

time to complete the service because senior colleagues ask them to do so, this behavior can be

considered as group-related because employees adjust their behaviors to conform to the group

expectations and hope to enter the group's inner circle (Harris & Ogbonna, 2012).

The last motive is the employee or firm-oriented (Harris & Ogbonna, 2012). Unlike most

service sabotage behaviors, which are directed at customers, sabotage incidents caused by the

employee or firm-oriented motives are often designed to negatively affect a particular colleague,

a manager, or the organization. The impact of this type of service sabotage on both saboteurs and victims is so significant that victims usually ask to switch work hours as a way to avoid it. Others may even leave their job causing a high turnover rate. Service sabotage behaviors against the organization or its representative (i.e., the manager) tend to be covert and can be considered employees' resistance to perceived organizational injustice (Aquino, Lewis, & Bradfield, 1999).

Although the motives of service sabotage facilitate an understanding of *why* service employees engage in service sabotage, it is of equal importance to explore *how* they sabotage service. The construction of a reliable and valid scale to measure service sabotage may address both specific and contextualized types of behaviors and permit researchers to empirically examine the relationship between motives and subtypes of service sabotage or other variables of interest. Once a valid and reliable scale is developed, it can then be applied in future research on service sabotage.

Service Sabotage and Organizational Behavior

The review of the literature related to service sabotage reveals that there is an evident shift in studies from intraorganizational factors (e.g., organizational justice or injustice) that influence service sabotage toward extraorganizational factors (e.g., customer mistreatment). Ambrose et al. (2002) indicated that organizational injustice is the most common reason for sabotage, and individuals tend to engage in retaliation if the source of injustice is interactional. Moreover, the source of organizational injustice is usually the target of sabotage (Ambrose et al., 2002; Jones, 2009). By contrast, other studies asserted that the impact of extraorganizational factors, such as mistreatment by customers, on service sabotage is drastically greater than that of intraorganizational factors (e.g., perceived fairness) (Skarlicki, van Jaarsveld, & Walker, 2008). It has been identified that customer mistreatment is positively related to service sabotage

(Madupalli & Poddar, 2014; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2008) and that service sabotage is negatively associated with job performance ratings (Skarlicki et al., 2008).

Another change with respect to service sabotage research is the shift from resource-based to emotion-based factors. Specifically, service sabotage studies regarding organizational justice mainly relied on the resource-based perspective (e.g., Ambrose et al., 2002; Jones, 2009; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2008). However, Wang, Liao, Zhan, and Shi (2011) expanded the framework to include both resource-based factors (e.g., supervisory support climate, job tenure, and service rule commitment) and emotion-based factors (e.g., negative affectivity and self-efficacy for emotional regulation).

Daily customer mistreatment was associated with customer-directed sabotage, and negative affectivity exacerbated the mistreatment–sabotage relationship, whereas self-efficacy, job tenure, and service commitment weakened such a relationship (Wang et al., 2011). Lee and Ok (2014) explored service sabotage from the emotional perspective. Their work suggests that emotional dissonance is the major source of hotel frontline employees' service sabotage behaviors and that this relationship is fully mediated by employee burnout (Lee & Ok). Furthermore, the level of emotional intelligence employees possess buffers the emotional dissonance–service sabotage relationship (Lee & Ok).

Considering extended customer contacts in full service restaurants, it may be necessary for future restaurant service sabotage research to consider and integrate both intraorganizational and extraorganizational factors. It is also crucial to consider the role of emotion in the complex psychological process leading to actual service sabotage behaviors. However, a prerequisite of such a quantitative research agenda is the availability of a valid measurement for restaurant

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service sabotage. As no such measure exists to gauge service sabotage behaviors in restaurants, the need to develop one is evident.

Antecedents of Service Sabotage

Harris and Ogbonna (2002) postulated that (a) individual factors, (b) group and role factors, (c) organizational factors, and (d) environmental factors are the antecedents to service sabotage. Specifically, individual factors include employees' proclivity for risk-taking, desire to pursue a career in the current organization, personality traits (i.e., extroversion), and demographics (i.e., age and gender) (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). Empirical evidence suggests that employees' inclination for risk-taking is positively related to service sabotage, while their desire to pursue a career in the current organization is negatively associated with service sabotage (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006). Service sabotage behaviors are affected by individuals' maturity, which is associated with age (Skarlicki et al., 2008). In general, more mature an employee is the less likely they'd be engaged in service sabotage behaviors. Furthermore, male workers are more likely to engage in overt service sabotage behaviors (Fry, 1998), and an employee's anger and level of job stress were found to be antecedents to service sabotage (Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, & Kessler, 2006).

Group and role factors consist of the nature of work (e.g., prolonged service contacts), socialization, on-the-job training, and the prevalence of subcultures (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). Although prolonged service contacts provide more opportunities for employees to engage in service sabotage, the length of service contacts may not be as important as the quality. In a harmonious employee–customer relationship, service sabotage may less likely occur even when service contacts are extensive.

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Employees' perception of surveillance and organizational culture are among the

organizational factors that are antecedents to service sabotage (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). It was

found that the higher perceived level of surveillance mechanisms and better organizational

cultural, the less likely employees engage in service sabotage (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006). The

final antecedent to service sabotage is environmental factors (e.g., labor market conditions)

(Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). Previous literature indicated that the greater the employee's

perceived labor market fluidity (i.e., the better the employment opportunities outside the

organization), the more likely the employee is to disrupt service (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006).

Unlike Harris and Ogbonna (2002), who focused on personal, organizational, and

environmental factors as antecedents to service sabotage, Browning (2008) centered on

customers. For instance, customers' attitude toward frontline employees will affect the likelihood

of subsequent service sabotage in the service encounter (Browning, 2008). Mistreatment from

customers is also identified as an antecedent to service sabotage in several studies (Madupalli &

Poddar, 2014; Shao and Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki, van Jaarsveld, & Walker, 2008).

Consequences of Service Sabotage

The consequences of service sabotage are the outcomes of the disrupted service

encounters that affect (a) employees, (b) service performance, and (c) firm performance (Harris

& Ogbonna, 2002). Employee consequences may include an increase in saboteurs' perceived

status in the group, self-efficacy, and job satisfaction as well as a decrease in saboteurs' job

stress (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). Empirical evidence suggests that the higher levels of service

sabotage, the higher levels of self-esteem and team spirit, implying intangible benefits for

saboteurs (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006).

The conservation of resources (COR) theory (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001) may offer insight into the mechanisms underlying the relationship between service sabotage and its positive consequences. The COR theory explains that individuals tend to compensate for or minimize loss of resources (Hobfoll, 2001). Considering that every employee–customer interaction offers an opportunity for a gain or loss of mental resources, frontline employees may use service sabotage to compensate for a perceived loss, such as unfair treatment from customers, colleagues, or the organization. Therefore, it is not surprising that employees replenish their psychological resources by engaging in service sabotage, leading to higher levels of self-esteem and team spirit (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006).

On the other hand, effects of service sabotage on service performance are mainly negative. Service sabotage may lead to reduction in service quality, customer satisfaction, and customer loyalty (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). It was also found that service sabotage was associated with decreased employee–customer rapport and functional quality (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006). Furthermore, Harris and Ogbonna (2002) postulated that service sabotage may diminish profitability and sales growth. One empirical study showed that service sabotage was associated with employees' perceived company performance through the mediation of functional quality (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006).

The Impact of Service Sabotage on the Restaurant Industry

The sales outlook of the restaurant industry in U.S. is projected to reach $799 billion in 2017, with a workforce of 16.3 million employees (National Restaurant Association [NRA], 2016). However, researchers estimate that service sabotage costs firms billions of dollars every year (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fagbohungbe, Akinbode, & Ayodeji, 2012; Murphy, 1993), which is clearly a heavy burden on the industry. Harris and Ogbonna (2006) pointed out that

service sabotage is harmful to firm's performance. Eighty-five percent of frontline employees reported engaging in service sabotage, and nearly 100% of them have witnessed service sabotage in their workplace (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). Considering that 16.3 million people work for the restaurant industry (NRA), the number of service saboteurs would be over ten millions, and the subsequent negative effect of service sabotage would be devastating.

In the contemporary hospitality industry, marketers rely heavily on online reviews on web-based opinion platforms and social networking sites, such as Yelp.com and Facebook. Popularity of social networking makes the service saboteurs, especially thrill-seeking saboteurs to be more problematic. Today's young customers are extremely involved in sharing their experience online. Likewise, some employees share a part of their work days online using postings, photos, or videos. For example, two Domino's Pizza employees filmed themselves tampering with a customer's food in the kitchen and uploaded the video to social media; this video clip went viral on the internet in a short time (Clifford, 2009). Millions of customers viewed the video and expressed how disgusted they were through comments within a few days, and the Domino's brand was jeopardized and faced a public relations crisis. This single incident of service sabotage that violated multiple hygiene codes illustrated how service sabotage is capable of endangering a successful restaurant brand with only a few clicks, canceling out efforts from the Domino's management team.

Harris and Ogbonna (2002, 2006) indicated that service sabotage has profound impacts on various aspects of the organization, such as personnel, service quality, and performance. Moreover, working conditions in restaurants, such as prolonged service contacts (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002), a high level of job stress (Harris & Ogbonna, 2012), emotional dissonance (Lee & Ok, 2014), and mistreatment from customers (Skarlicki et al., 2008), contribute to the

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likelihood of employee service sabotage. However, it is challenging for managers to effectively identify and prevent restaurant service sabotage behaviors because it can be difficult to distinguish between service sabotage and service failure. As researchers attempt to understand the phenomenon of restaurant service sabotage and other variables, availability of a reliable and valid scale to measure restaurant service sabotage is a necessary prerequisite.

Scale Development for Service Sabotage

Scale Development Methodology

Seven- or eight-step guidelines for scale development were suggested by previous literature as summarized in Table 2.1 (Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 2012; Hinkin, Tracy, & Enz, 1997). The guidelines by Hinkin et al. were built upon Churchill's classic work, presenting a seven-step process to construct measures. Specifically, a subset of the steps in these guidelines included determining the scale items and the sample size as well as administering questions with other established items. Most steps of DeVellis' measurement construction guidelines are relatively similar to Churchill and Hinkin et al.'s work. However, DeVellis suggested that scale developers to include a social desirability scale or compare the newly constructed measures with other validated measures that are theoretically related to evaluate construct validity (step 5) as scale developers need to ensure that researchers measure the construct they intend to study without significantly influenced by social desirability bias. This is particularly critical for scales gauging sensitive topics (e.g., restaurant service sabotage behaviors). DeVellis also pointed out the relationship between the number of items included in the scale and reliability (step 8) to assist researchers in making better judgements as to whether a particular item should be eliminated.

Table 2.1 Guidelines for Scale Development

	DeVellis (2012)	Hinkin et al. (1997)	Churchill (1979)
Step 1	Determine clearly what it is you want to measure	Item generation	Specify domain of construct
Step 2	Generate an item pool	Content adequacy assessment	Generate sample of items
Step 3	Determine the format for measurement	Questionnaire administration	Collect data
Step 4	Have initial item pool reviewed by experts	Factor analysis	Purify measure
Step 5	Consider inclusion of validation items	Internal consistency assessment	Collect data
Step 6	Administer items to a development sample	Construct validity	Assess reliability
Step 7	Evaluate the items	Replication	Assess validity
Step 8	Optimize scale length		Develop norms

Current Scales Related to Service Sabotage

Harris and Ogbonna (2006) developed a service sabotage scale based on related literature and their field interviews with customer-contact employees from hotels, restaurants, and bars (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). This scale included nine items, which was measured by a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). An example of a question reads "people here take revenge on rude customers."

The service sabotage scale (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006) helped researchers examine the relationship between service sabotage and other variables using path analysis. However, the scale drew criticism with respect to its ability to accommodate the dynamics in various service industries (e.g., Lee & Ok, 2014). Harris and Ogbonna (2006) intended to develop a scale that might be applied in different settings across the service industry. As a result, the scale items were neither specific nor contextualized but focused on capturing the conceptual meaning of service

sabotage (e.g., "it is a common practice in this industry to 'get back' at customers") (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006).

The general context assumption may contradict the essence of service sabotage, in which sabotage behaviors vary greatly in different segments of the service industry. For example, restaurant settings, especially for full service restaurants, require extended face-to-face employee–customer interactions. Therefore, service sabotage behaviors are not only related to verbal and non-verbal communications between frontline employees and customers but also the delivery of tangible products (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002).

By contrast, service encounters in the call center setting involve only voice interactions, so sabotage behaviors can be different from the restaurant setting (e.g., deliberately directing a phone call to the wrong department) (Skarlicki et al., 2008). This may be the reason that a few studies on service sabotage included the construction of the researchers' own scales instead of adapting Harris and Ogbonna's scale (e.g., Madupalli & Poddar, 2014; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2008).

Developing a restaurant service sabotage scale that is context specific is a viable solution which may overcome the shortcomings of Harris and Ogbonna's scale. However, this effort requires qualitative research methods to collect specific behavioral items by exploring in-depth and specific behaviors and situations in the early stage of scale development. Moreover, rigorous guidelines should be followed strictly to develop and validate the scale in the later stages. If the scale is not valid or reliable, the results are equally unreliable. Therefore, obtaining a holistic picture of restaurant service sabotage is critical to successfully constructing such a measurement.

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Scale Items Applicable to the Restaurant Context

To generate a large-scale item pool, scale developers generally conduct in-depth

interviews or focus groups to collect critical incidents and/or review related literature or

measures to gather applicable scale items (e.g., Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Harris & Ogbonna,

2006; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2008). The goal of this stage of research is to

extract scale items from current measures that are theoretically related to restaurant service

sabotage. Specifically, the extracted scale items that are applicable to the full-service restaurant

context are labeled as Tier I. Scale items that are somewhat applicable to the general

hospitality/service industry are labeled as Tier II and rewritten to fit the purpose and research

context in this study. Scale items deemed inapplicable to the full-service restaurant setting are

eliminated. The following paragraphs will elucidate the item review process, and the extracted

items are summarized in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Extracted Items from Current Measures

Developers/ Context	Tier I	Tier II	Dropped
Bennett & Robinson (2000)/ Workplaces in general	Made fun of someone at work	Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work	Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses
	Said something hurtful to someone at work	Taken property from work without permission	Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person
	Cursed at someone at work	Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working	
	Played a mean prank on someone at work	Littered your work environment	
	Acted rudely toward someone at work		

Table 2.2 (Continued) Extracted Items from Current Measures

Developers/ Context	Tier I	Tier II	Dropped
Bennett & Robinson (2000)/ Workplaces in general	Publicly embarrassed someone at work		
	Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace		
	Come in late to work without permission		
	Neglected to follow your boss's instructions		
	Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked		
	Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job		
	Put little effort into your work		
	Dragged out work in order to get overtime		
Harris & Ogbonna (2006)/ Overall hospitality industry	People here take revenge on rude customers	People here never show off in front of customers. (R)	
	People here hurry customers when they want to		
	It is common practice in this industry to "get back" at customers		
	People here ignore company service rules to make things easier for themselves		
	Sometimes, people here "get at customers" to make the rest of us laugh		

Table 2.2 (Continued) Extracted Items from Current Measures

Developers/ Context	Tier I	Tier II	Dropped
Harris & Ogbonna (2006)/ Overall hospitality industry	Sometimes, when customers aren't looking, people here deliberately mess things up		
	At this outlet, customers are never deliberately mistreated. (R)		
	People here slow down service when they want to		
Skarlicki et al. (2008)/ Call center	Hung up on the customer	Purposefully transferred the customer to the wrong department	
	Intentionally put the customer on hold for a long period of time	Told the customer that you fixed something but didn't fix it	
	Purposefully disconnected the call		
Shao & Skarlicki (2014)/ Hotel industry	Intentionally slowed your service to the guest		
	Intentionally withheld some information from the guest		
	Got even with the guest		
	Tried to get even with the guest during his/her next visit[*]		
	Asked your colleagues to withdraw from providing high quality service to the guest[*]		
	Purposely adhered to rules excessively to delay the service to the guest[*]		

Note: [*] denotes the item that passed the inclusion criteria, but was not included in the final scale in Shao and Skarlicki's (2014) work.

Bennett and Robinson (2000) developed a measure to gauge workplace deviance, anchoring on two dimensions: interpersonal deviance and organizational deviance. Bennett and Robinson intended to apply the workplace deviance measure in various industries, such as in retail, manufacturing, government, hospitality, and education. Most of the scale items in the measure seem to be applicable in the restaurant industry after rewording. However, "falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses" and "discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person" are less likely to be service sabotage behaviors for frontline employees in the restaurant industry. These two scale items are excluded from the item pool.

Unlike Bennett and Robinson's (2000) workplace deviance measure, which is a multidimensional scale, the service sabotage scale developed by Harris and Ogbonna (2006) is a unidimensional measure with nine items. Harris and Ogbonna (2006) developed the scale to gauge service sabotage in the overall hospitality industry, focusing on capturing the misbehavior that disrupts service or service standards. It is notable that Harris and Ogbonna (2006) recognize the critical role of customers during service encounters, which is reflected in their scale. As indicated in Table 2.2, the items of Harris and Ogbonna's scale are mostly related to "revenging on customers," "changing the speed of service," "breaking service standards," and "deliberately doing such behaviors." The scale included two reverse coded items (i.e., "people here never show off in front of customers" and "at this outlet, customers are never deliberately mistreated") and were rewritten before inclusion in the item pool in this study.

Skarlicki et al. (2008) followed critical incident technique and guidelines for scale development to construct a customer-directed service sabotage scale in the call center context. Although the research setting is different from the full-service restaurant context, a subset of the

items may be applicable because some restaurants take reservations, which requires employee–customer communication via telephone. Therefore, three of the five items in the Skarlicki et al. scale are labeled as Tier I for the item pool in this study, one of the remaining two items were rewritten to better fit the context, and the last item, "purposefully transferred the customer to the wrong department," is not applicable to this study and was eliminated (Table 2.2).

The service sabotage scale developed by Shao and Skarlicki (2014) contains only three items, gauging service sabotage behaviors toward customers who mistreated employees in the hotel context. Initially, Shao and Skarlicki generated 17 items from focus group interviews, and six items remained after they assessed acceptable fit with the definition of service sabotage and two subject experts in the hotel industry reviewed the items. Although only three items qualified after the statistical procedures, all six items seem to be valid and applicable to the restaurant context and were included in the item pool in this study. Table 2.2 summarizes the categorization of items from the current measures related to service sabotage.

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Chapter 3 - Methodology

The purpose of the study was to develop a reliable and valid scale to measure restaurant service sabotage behaviors. Specific objectives were to (a) explore explicit types of service sabotage behaviors in the restaurant industry; (b) generate an item pool to form the initial restaurant service sabotage questionnaire; (c) evaluate the performance of the initial sabotage behavior instrument; (d) refine the initial instrument into a multidimensional service sabotage scale; (e) validate the refined service sabotage scale; and (f) establish evidence for convergent, discriminant, and criterion-related validity of the service sabotage scale.

A mixed methods design consisting of three phases was applied in this study. Phase I of the study (instrument development) was conducted using a qualitative approach (in-depth interviews). Subsequently, Phase II (instrument refinement) and Phase III (instrument validation) used a quantitative approach with two different self-administered surveys. The three-phase mixed methods design was employed based on scale construction literature (Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 2012; Hinkin, Tracy, & Enz, 1997) and measurement studies related to service sabotage (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Harris & Ogbonna, 2006; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki, van Jaarsveld, & Walker, 2008).

Specifically, the 12-step approach described in Table 3.1 became the basis for this research. The first step for scale development (Phase I: instrument development) was specifying the construct, followed by generating an item pool, reviewing items, and determining the format for measurement. Steps 5–8 (Phase II: instrument refinement) were administering the initial scale, evaluating the items, exploratory factor analysis (EFA), and assessing internal consistency. Steps 9–12 (Phase III: instrument validation) included administering the refined scale, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and assessing convergent, discriminant, and criterion-related

validity. These 12 steps, in conjunction with three phases of this study, are presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Procedure for Developing Restaurant Service Sabotage Scale

Phase of Study	Procedure	
Phase I Instrument Development	Step 1	Specifying the construct
	Step 2	Generating an item pool
	Step 3	Reviewing items
	Step 4	Determining the format for measurement
Phase II Instrument Refinement	Step 5	Administering the initial scale
	Step 6	Evaluating the items
	Step 7	Exploratory factor analysis
	Step 8	Assessing internal consistency
Phase III Instrument Validation	Step 9	Administering the refined scale
	Step 10	Confirmatory factor analysis
	Step 11	Assessing convergent and discriminant validity
	Step 12	Assessing criterion-related validity

The target population of this study was frontline employees who work in full-service restaurants in the U.S. This chapter describes sample selection, instrument development, data collection, and data analysis procedures for all three phases of the study in chronological order. Approval to use human subjects (Approval number: 8548 and 8778) for this research was obtained from the Institutional Review Board of Kansas State University (K-State) prior to data collection (Appendix A).

Phase I - Instrument Development

The first step of scale development started with specifying the construct (Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 2012), addressing what the scale intends to measure. In recent years, Harris and Ogbonna's research has provided rich insights regarding the concept of service sabotage in terms

of theory development (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002, 2006, 2009, 2012). This study adopted Harris and Ogbonna's (2002) definition of service sabotage, which refers to employees' intentional actions that negatively influence the delivery of service or service standards. This definition was considered appropriate and applicable to service sabotage behaviors in the restaurant industry.

The second step of measurement construction was generating an item pool. Service sabotage behaviors identified in previous studies outside the restaurant industry context did not seem to apply to this study (e.g., Harris & Ogbonna, 2002; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2008). Furthermore, specific types of restaurant service sabotage behaviors remain understudied. To satisfy the need for item generation and identification of specific types of restaurant service sabotage behaviors, an exploratory study using qualitative methods (in-depth interviews and critical incident technique [CIT]) was conducted. CIT was selected as the most appropriate research method for generating items for restaurant service sabotage behaviors because it is suitable for discovering, analyzing, and classifying human behaviors from the interviewee's perspective without preconception (Gremler, 2004).

Sample Selection

Employees (e.g., waiter/waitress, cook, manager) in full-service restaurants (e.g., fine dining, casual dining, and family dining) in the U.S. were recruited to explore restaurant service sabotage behaviors through snowball sampling (Patton, 2015). Employees working in both chain and independently-owned restaurants were invited to increase the breadth of the study and cover a broader spectrum of restaurant service sabotage behaviors. Employees in limited-service restaurants (e.g., fast casual and quick service restaurant) were excluded from the study sample because their interaction with customers was relatively limited.

Patton (2015) indicated that there is no specific rule for sample size in qualitative inquiry and that data collection should cease when informational redundancy or data saturation occurs. Flanagan (1954), the initiator of CIT, also stated that there are no firm rules for the sample size when using CIT and that data collection and data analysis should be conducted concurrently. Nevertheless, in practice, sample size selection is required for research designs. Therefore, rather than setting a fixed number of samples for data collection, using a "minimum" number of samples based on the purpose of the study was not only feasible but also allowed data collection to be flexible and contingent (Patton, 2015). The minimum number of samples in this study was determined to be 25 in Phase I to yield a sufficient number of critical incidents in CIT studies (Hughes, 2007).

Instrument Development&

The script was developed for semi-structured, in-depth interviews. At the beginning of each interview, demographic questions were asked about interviewees' background, such as the restaurant type and if it is a chain or independently owned restaurant, type of position, ethnicity, age, and educational level. The definition of service sabotage was explicitly provided by the researcher before administering the primary questions.

CIT pursues contextualized examples of behaviors and their significance to the subject (Hughes, 2007). Based on the suggestions for designing questions in CIT research as well as service studies that applied CIT (Bitner, Booms, & Tetreault, 1990; Gremler, 2004; Hughes, 2007; Meuter, Ostrom, Roundtree, & Bitner, 2000; Ro & Wong, 2012), potential interview questions were developed to elicit details of the incident as below, and the complete interview script and consent form are included in Appendix B.

- Think of a time when a colleague engaged in service sabotage at the restaurant that you work for (this is a nonthreatening approach for the question). Please choose one where you remember the situation clearly.

- Describe the circumstances leading up to this service sabotage incident.

- Exactly what did the colleague say or do at that time? Describe the incident in detail.

- How often did the colleague behave that way?

- Did anyone (e.g., customer or manager) other than you notice the behavior? Please explain the situation fully.

- What was the outcome of the incident? How did the incident affect everyone there?

- Describe the actions that the manager took to deal with the incident (if any).

Experts in foodservice research, restaurant management, service quality, and qualitative research methods were invited to review the interview questions to ensure that questions were designed and phrased properly to accomplish study objectives in Phase I. The interview questions were revised and updated according to suggestions from the expert panel. A pilot test was conducted to confirm the usability of the interview script prior to formal data collection.

Data Collection

Research participants were recruited through classes in hospitality management, and alumni groups in the Department of Hospitality Management (HM) at Kansas State University. Interviewees were also invited through researchers' personal connections, HM faculty members' professional networks, and references from interviewees who had already been recruited. Advertisements were made and posted on social networking sites. Once potential interviewees were identified, they were contacted through telephone or email to schedule the time and place for the interview. These procedures continued until 25 qualified participants were identified.

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The interview took approximately 20 minutes to complete. To increase participation, the researcher provided each participant with $5.00 payment as compensation for their time and effort. The researcher preferred face-to-face interviews to capture both verbal and nonverbal expressions. However, phone calls or virtual meetings via online conference technology platforms (e.g., Zoom, Skype, and FaceTime) were viable alternatives if geographical limitation existed. The researcher solicited informed consent according to Institutional Review Board protocols, and interviews were audio-recorded with the participant's permission to ensure the accuracy of the transcripts for further analysis.

Data Analysis

Audio-recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim and organized using Microsoft Office Excel software. CIT is an inductive content analytic process, and the goal in this phase of study was to classify critical events and identify contextualized critical behaviors, such as restaurant service sabotage behaviors (Flanagan, 1954; Hughes, 2007). First, the researcher reviewed whether the gathered critical incidents conform to the definition of service sabotage as per Harris and Ogbonna (2002). Second, the researcher determined if the critical incident was discrete (i.e., independent of other incidents); otherwise, it was eliminated (Bitner, Booms, & Mohr, 1994). Third, the researcher rewrote all qualified critical incidents into behavior items for the next round of expert review. Lastly, the researcher analyzed and summarized types, frequencies, and targets relating to the remaining restaurant service sabotage behaviors.

In the third step of scale development (Phase I), nine judges independently reviewed all items that were emerged from the qualitative data analysis (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Six of these judges were faculty members specializing in food and beverage management, restaurant operations, service marketing, service management, and qualitative methods, and the last three

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were senior restaurant managers. First, the judges rated how well each item fitted the operational definition of restaurant service sabotage in this study. Second, the judges rated the clarity and conciseness of each item. Finally, the judges rated the degree to which each item was relevant to the restaurant industry. As suggested by Bennett and Robinson, the judges used a 7-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*), to assess each item. An item with a mean score of 3.0 or less on any of the three criteria was either rewritten or eliminated from the item pool to ensure content validity. Restaurant service sabotage behavioral items that passed reviews by the researcher and the nine judges were used to form the initial measure.

The fourth step of instrument development was to determine the format for measurement. Based on related service sabotage measurements, such as a measure for workplace deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), a service sabotage scale in hotel settings (Shao & Skarlicki, 2014), and a service sabotage scale in a call center context (Skarlicki et al., 2008), this study applied a 7-point behavior frequency scale. Use of this scale increased the reliability of data findings (Churchill & Peter, 1984). Specifically, the scale items were 1 (*never*), 2 (*once a year*), 3 (*twice a year*), 4 (*several times a year*), 5 (*monthly*), 6 (*weekly*), and 7 (*daily*).

Phase II - Instrument Refinement

The second phase of the study began with step 5, administering the initial scale, as shown in Table 3.1. Specifically, the goal of Phase II was to test the items generated in Phase I by evaluating the performance of the items (step 6), conducting preliminary factor analysis (step 7), and assessing the scale's internal consistency (step 8). In so doing, the restaurant service sabotage scale was refined prior to Phase III, instrument validation.

Sample Selection

The target population in Phase II was frontline employees who work in full-service restaurants in the U.S. The sample size for Phase II was determined based on the suggestions for performing EFA. Comrey and Lee (1992) provided general rules for the adequacy of different sample sizes for factor analysis, stating that 50 is very poor, 100 is poor, 200 is fair, 300 is good, 500 is very good, and 1,000 is excellent. Meyers, Gamst, and Guarino (2013) suggested that the sample size should not be lower than 200 to ensure factorability and that at least 300 participants should be recruited for a 25-item scale. While it is apparent that the more participants the better, considering the resources available for this study, the sample size of Phase II was initially set as 300. Ultimately, the target number changed to 400 completed because additional funding was available.

Instrument Development

The instrument in Phase II consisted of four major components. The first part of the online survey was screening questions to filter out unqualified respondents. Only respondents who currently work as service providers at full-service restaurants in the U.S. and are 18 years of age or older were allowed to enter the main survey. To gain a better understanding of the participant profiles, four demographic questions regarding their work setting were asked, including the operational type of the restaurant (chain or independent), hours of work per week, job tenure in the restaurant industry, and average tips (in percentages) received per ticket.

The third part of the survey asked respondents to rate the frequency of 39 restaurant service sabotage behaviors in their workplace. As discussed in Phase I, all behavioral items were measured on a 7-point behavior frequency scale, ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*daily*). These listed items derived from two sources: the study results of Phase I and a literature review of previous

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measures related to service sabotage that fit the restaurant context. For example, participants

were asked to indicate the frequency of engaging in the behavior "(I have intentionally)

neglected to follow my supervisor's instructions," which was adapted and reworded from the

workplace deviance measure (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). The last part of the survey contained

demographic information about participants, including gender, ethnicity, educational level, and

age. All four parts of the questions are summarized in Table 3.2 and the complete questionnaire

is included in Appendix C.

To ensure the data quality, two attention check questions were included in the middle of

the survey. Specifically, participants were given simple instructions to select a particular

response of that question (e.g., "please choose 7 (*daily*) for this statement to continue the survey,

or you will not be able to finish it"). Respondents who failed to pass the attention check

questions were excluded from the dataset.

Table 3.2 Structure of Online Survey in Phase II

Part A: Screening Questions	
A1	Are you at least 18 years of age? ☐ Yes ☐ No
A2	Are you currently employed by a restaurant in the USA? ☐ Yes ☐ No
A3	Are you working as a frontline service provider (e.g., waiter or waitress) in a restaurant? ☐ Yes ☐ No
A4	Which of the following best describes the restaurant that you work for? ☐ Fine dining (e.g., Ruth's Chris Steak House) ☐ Casual dining (e.g., T.G.I. Friday's) ☐ Fast casual (e.g., Chipotle Mexican Grill) ☐ Quick service restaurant (e.g., McDonald's)
Part B: Work Characteristics	
B1	What is the operational type of the restaurant that you work for? ☐ Chain restaurant ☐ Independent restaurant
B2	How many hours do you work per week on average? (Enter in the text box) ☐ hours per week

Table 3.2 (Continued) Structure of Online Survey in Phase II

Part B: Work Characteristics	
B3	How long have you worked as a frontline service provider in the restaurant industry? (Enter in the text box) For [＿＿] year(s) and [＿＿] month(s)
B4	On average, what is the percentage of gratuity (i.e., percent per ticket) that you receive? (For example, if the tip is 20% of the bill, then enter "20" in the text box.) [＿＿] percent(s) (%)
Part C: Restaurant Service Sabotage Behaviors (1=never, 2=once a year, 3=twice a year, 4=several times a year, 5=monthly, 6=weekly, 7=daily). I have intentionally…	
C1	Acted rudely toward customers 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
:	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
C25	Please choose 7 (*daily*) for this statement to continue the survey, or you will not be able to finish it (*attention check*). 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
:	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
C40	Adhered to rules excessively to delay the service to customers 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Part D: Demographics	
D1	What is your gender? ☐ Male ☐ Female ☐ Prefer not to disclose
D2	What is your ethnicity? ☐ Caucasian ☐ African American ☐ Hispanic ☐ Asian ☐ Native American ☐ Pacific Islander ☐ Other (please specify)
D3	What is the highest level of education you have completed? ☐ Less than High School ☐ High School/GED ☐ Some College ☐ Associate Degree (2-year college) ☐ Bachelor's Degree (4-year college) ☐ Advanced or professional degree beyond the college degree (e.g., graduate school, graduate certificate program, etc.)
D4	What is your age? (For example, if you are 30 years old, enter "30" in the text box.) [＿＿] years old

After expert review, the survey instrument was converted to online format using the

Qualtrics survey system. Then the online instrument was pilot-tested using a panel of 30

frontline employees in full-restaurant. The instrument was revised based on results of the pilot

test to ensure content validity, reliability, and usability prior to formal data collection.

Data Collection

Participants were recruited from an online panel by hiring a professional research firm,

Qualtrics. The link to the online survey was sent to the Qualtrics staff to disseminate to their

restaurant employee panel. A cover letter stating the purpose and other specifics about the study was displayed in the first page of the online survey. Anyone who were not qualified to complete the survey or failed to pass the attention check questions was excluded from the dataset. Furthermore, to ensure the data quality, survey responses which were completed in less than 1/3 of average time for completing pilot study were removed. Data collection was conducted between May 31 and June 8, 2017 and completed when the target of 400 completed survey responses were collected.

Data Analysis

Data analysis for Phase II was conducted using IBM SPSS Version 24. The first part (step 6) for developing the restaurant service sabotage scale was to evaluate the items based on two criteria: item-scale correlations and item variances (DeVellis, 2012). The second part of analysis in Phase II was to conduct EFA (step 7). Specifically, a principal axis factoring with oblique rotation was performed to explore the interrelationships between scale items and to determine which items should be retained (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995). Oblique rotation was chosen because it allows for correlations among scale items (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). Scale items with factor loadings below 0.30 were excluded (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). To ensure that an individual item is explicitly defined by one factor, all cross-loaded items were evaluated to have one dominant factor based on the context and the reasonableness of the interpretation (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003; Meyers et al., 2013). After the above procedures for purifying the scale, EFA was conducted again to identify unique factors with eigenvalues greater than 1. Prior to the second EFA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed using Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value being greater than .80 (Kaiser, 1974), and Bartlett's test of sphericity was conducted with $p<.01$ to show good factorability.

The last stage of data analysis in Phase II was to assess internal consistency (step 8). Cronbach's alpha coefficients was computed to evaluate the scale's inter-item reliability, with the goal of an alpha greater than .70. Factors with an alpha below .70 were reevaluated and revised to ensure good internal consistency.

Phase III - Instrument Validation

The goal of Phase III was to provide initial support to construct validity, including dimensionality as well as convergent, discriminant, and criterion-related validity. After refining the service sabotage scale in Phase II, the scale was validated with another set of restaurant frontline employees. Four steps involved in Phase III were administering the refined scale, conduct confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), assessing convergent and discriminant validity, and assessing criterion-related validity.

Sample Selection

The target population in Phase III is consistent with Phases II: frontline employees who work in full-service restaurants in the U.S. To maintain the level of factorability and an acceptable sample size to perform CFA, the sample size of Phase III for instrument validation was 300 (Comrey & Lee, 1992; Meyers et al., 2013). Due to extra funding available, it was determined to recruit 400 participants. It is critical to gather a new set of samples for scale validation (Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 2012; Hinkin et al., 1997), and therefore, 400 new participants were recruited from a different online panel using Amazon Mechanical Turk.

Instrument Development

The primary purpose of Phase III was to validate the refined restaurant service sabotage scale developed in Phase II. Thus, the instrument used in Phase III was similar to the instrument used in Phase II. The main differences were that scale items in Phase III were updated based on

results from Phase II and several additional constructs were added to establish support for construct validity of the scale (see Appendix D).

All remaining scale items (n = 13) from Phase II were used in Phase III of the instrument to replace the initial items. The number of items in the scale decreased after implementing the scale purifying procedure in Phase II. Previous literature has highlighted the issue of response bias due to social desirability when revealing service sabotage behaviors (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006; Lee & Ok, 2014; Moorman & Podsakoff, 1992; Wang, Liao, Zhan, & Shi, 2011). Therefore, a 13-item scale to measure social desirability (Reynolds, 1982) was included in the instrument to control for the confounding effect of social desirability. Reynolds revised the measure from the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960), which was found to be reliable and valid with approximately one third of the items in the original scale.

Following Bennett and Robinson's (2000) strategies to assess a measurement's convergent and discriminant validity, the restaurant service sabotage scale was compared with measures that gauge (a) similar behaviors, such as workplace deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2000); (b) theoretically related behaviors, such as customer mistreatment (Shao & Skarlicki, 2014); and (c) dissimilar behaviors, such as employee voice, an extra-role behavior to make innovative suggestions to change organizational procedures even when others disagree (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

To assess criterion-related validity, four measures developed in relation to employees' self-esteem (Oliver & Bearden, 1985), perception of team spirit (Jaworski & Kohki, 1993), perception of employee–customer rapport (Gremler & Gwinner, 2000), and perception of functional quality (Lytle, Hom, & Mokwa, 1998) were adapted based on Harris & Ogbonna's revision so that the measures are appropriate to the restaurant context.

Based on the provisions discussed above, a 12-part questionnaire was finalized. Part 1 contained the screening questions, part 2 the work characteristics, part 3 the restaurant service sabotage scale, part 4 the social desirability scale, parts 5–7 the measures used to construct convergent and discriminant validity, parts 8–11 the scales used to establish evidence for criterion-related validity, and part 12 the demographic questions (Appendix D). The list of specific scales included in the questionnaire are listed in Table 3.3 below.

Table 3.3 Structure of Online Survey in Phase III

Purposes	Questions / Scales
Screening and background information	1. Screening questions
	2. Work characteristics
Main scale of interest	3. Restaurant service sabotage
Scales for constructing convergent and discriminant validity	4. Social desirability (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960)
	5. Workplace deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2000)
	6. Customer mistreatment (Shao & Skarlicki, 2014)
	7. Employee voice behavior (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).
Scales for establishing criterion-related validity	8. Employees' self-esteem (Oliver & Bearden, 1985)
	9. Employees' perception of team spirit (Jaworski & Kohki, 1993)
	10. Employees' perception of employee-customer rapport (Gremler & Gwinner, 2000)
	11. Employees' perception of functional quality (Lytle et al. 1998)
Background information	12. Personal demographic information

Data Collection

Participants were recruited from an online panel by using Amazon Mechanical Turk. The researcher posted the information about the survey, including title and purpose of this study, time it may take to complete the survey, and the amount of compensation. Potential participants were

directed to the online survey if they accepted the research invitation. Those who completed the survey were provided with a unique 7-digit code to receive compensation through Amazon Mechanical Turk. A cover letter stating the purpose and mechanisms of the study was displayed in the first page of the online survey. The same data quality control mechanisms applied in Phase II (screening questions, attention check questions, and completion time control) were employed in the data collection process. Data collection was conducted between June 19 and July 4, 2017 and completed when the target of 400 completed survey responses were collected.

Data Analysis

CFA (step 10) was performed using IBM SPSS Amos Version 22 to evaluate the fitness of the measurement model, and construct validity (steps 11 and 12) was assessed using IBM SPSS Version 24. In particular, the demonstration of CFA was to validate the dimensionality of the EFA performed in Phase II (DeVellis, 2012; Hinkin et al., 1997). Model fit was evaluated based on the computation of fit indices, including the ratio between x^2 and df, comparative fit index (CFI), normed fit index (NFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and goodness of fit index (GFI) (Meyers et al., 2013).

To assess convergent and discriminant validity of the scale (step 11), correlation analysis between restaurant service sabotage, workplace deviance, customer mistreatment, and employee voice were conducted following Bennett and Robinson's (2000) recommended strategies. It was expected that restaurant service sabotage behaviors would be significantly correlated with workplace deviance and that the correlation would be strong. The correlation between restaurant service sabotage and customer mistreatment should be significant and moderate. The relationship between restaurant service sabotage behaviors and employee voice should be insignificant with a lower coefficient value, as there is no anticipated correlation between these constructs.

Step 12 for developing the restaurant service sabotage scale was to provide support for criterion-related validity. Four simple linear regression models consisting of the independent variable (restaurant service sabotage) and dependent variables (employees' self-esteem, perception of team spirit, perception of employee–customer rapport, and perception of functional quality) were developed accordingly. Each dependent variable was expected to be significantly predicted by the restaurant service sabotage scale; if so, the restaurant service sabotage scale is a valid measure to gauge the construct and the scale's criterion-related validity is supported (Schwab, 2005). All statistical analyses were conducted with the significance of $p<0.05$.

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Chapter 4 - Exploring Restaurant Service Sabotage Behaviors: Scale Development and Refinement

Abstract

The purpose of the study was to explore restaurant service sabotage behaviors and develop a reliable scale to measure such misbehaviors. A mixed methods research design was applied, consisting of in-depth interviews and an online survey. Twenty-six employees in full-service restaurants were recruited through snowball sampling to solicit frontline employee's service sabotage behaviors. Twenty-eight unique sabotage behaviors distilled from 243 critical incidents were identified using critical incident technique. Thirty-nine behavioral items derived from interviews and extant literature were used to form the initial scale. A total of 419 valid responses were collected and analyzed using principal axis factoring with a promax rotation. Results revealed a 13-item scale with three dominant factors: affecting customer relations/treatment (factor 1), diminishing work/quality standards (factor 2), and achieving personal gains (factor 3). Scale items in factors 2 and 3 were highly relevant to restaurant operations, showing the scale's specificity. The scale was internally consistent, supporting its reliability. The scale may be applied to various future studies in restaurant service sabotage to gauge the construct and explore relationships with variables of interest. This study also yields practical insights for restaurant managers to more effectively manage service sabotage. Limitations and suggestions for future research are discussed.

Keywords: restaurant service sabotage, scale development, scale refinement, frontline employees

Introduction

Traditionally, employees' behaviors have been considered positive and compliant with organizational norms (Ackroyd & Thompson, 1999). However, negative employee behaviors have been identified and researched over time, including workplace deviant behaviors (Robinson & Bennett, 1995), antisocial behaviors (Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997), dysfunctional behaviors (Griffin, O'Leary-Kelly, & Collins, 1998), and organizational misbehaviors (Ackroyd & Thompson). These researchers have shown that some employees intentionally engage in negative behaviors that affect the organization, people within it, or both. Although researchers use different labels to describe such negative workplace behaviors, it is generally agreed that these misconducts cause direct or indirect damages to the organization or members within it.

More recently, *service sabotage* has drawn attention in various sectors of the service industry. Service sabotage refers to employees' deliberate actions that negatively influence the delivery of service or service standards (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). The prevalence of service sabotage in the hospitality industry is high, and nearly 100% of frontline employees stated that they had witnessed service sabotage behaviors in the workplace (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). The financial cost of service sabotage is estimated to reach billions of dollars every year for the damage, prevention, and correction due to service sabotage (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fagbohungbe, Akinbode, & Ayodeji, 2012; Murphy, 1993). Furthermore, service sabotage has a strong and negative influence on service quality and the rapport between employees and customers, resulting in decreased customer satisfaction (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006). In short, service sabotage is prevalent, costly, and detrimental in the service industry; therefore, managing service sabotage in various service industries including the restaurant industry is critically important.

The restaurant industry has negative images among job seekers because of high levels of job stress, long work hours, and relatively low pay (Lashley, 2000). The paradox lies in the fact that while the work environment is unfavorable for frontline employees, their performance is essential to customers' overall dining experience (Gounaris & Boukis, 2013; Spinelli & Canavos, 2000). Another unique characteristic of restaurant service is the inseparability of production and consumption (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988), as there is almost no lapse in time between the production and consumption of service. Lastly, frontline employees provide service to customers throughout the dining period, and prolonged service contacts increase the likelihood of service sabotage (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002).

Providing service to customers in restaurants requires extensive face-to-face communications including both verbal and nonverbal interactions. However, it is not uncommon to find frontline employees being abused by difficult customers. Mistreatment by customers was significantly associated with service sabotage (Skarlicki, van Jaarsveld, & Walker, 2008), and revenge against abusive customers was also one of the major drivers for service saboteurs (Harris & Ogbonna, 2012).

The characteristics of the restaurant industry, the uniqueness of restaurant service, and the extensive interactions between frontline employees and customers all contribute to the urgent need to better understand and manage restaurant service sabotage. However, restaurant service sabotage has not been studied extensively, while service sabotage behaviors have been studied in overall hospitality organizations (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002), call centers (Skarlicki et al., 2008), and hotels (Shao & Skarlicki, 2014).

The service sabotage scale developed by Harris and Ogbonna (2006) was constructed based partially on interviews (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002) of frontline employees of hospitality

firms. This scale was intended to measure the construct of service sabotage in the overall service industry, especially the hospitality segments. While adaptability to a wider range of segments within the service industry is its strength, a drawback of this service sabotage scale (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006) is lack of specifics, identifying only limited forms of service sabotage behaviors. Furthermore, some items in this scale may not be applicable to all service industry, especially if face-to-face interactions are not required (e.g., "sometimes, when customers are not looking, people here deliberately mess things up").

Likewise, service sabotage scale by Skarlicki et al. (2008) cannot be applied to the restaurant industry because it was developed using call centers and limited to customer-directed service sabotage behaviors. For the lodging industry, the three-item service sabotage scale that was developed by Shao and Skarlicki (2014) may be used to gauge sabotage behaviors toward customers who mistreated service employees. Although Shao and Skarlicki intended the scale for use in the hotel setting, the actual content of all three items is general, rendering its discriminant validity questionable.

In summary, while service sabotage behaviors are context specific, none of the currently available service sabotage scales (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2008) were developed specifically for the restaurant industry. Service interactions between frontline employees and customers of full-service restaurants are extensive and relatively prolonged compared to the lodging industry. Furthermore, unlike the call center segment, service interactions between restaurant employees and diners are extensive both verbally and nonverbally. Therefore, a validated scale to measure restaurant service sabotage behaviors may be needed.

The purpose of the study was to explore restaurant service sabotage behaviors and develop a reliable scale to measure such misbehaviors. Specific objectives were to:

1. explore explicit types and targets of service sabotage behaviors in the restaurant industry,

2. generate an item pool to form the initial restaurant service sabotage instrument,

3. evaluate the performance of the initial instrument, and

4. refine the initial instrument into a multidimensional restaurant service sabotage scale.

Developing a valid and reliable restaurant service sabotage scale may support future studies pertaining to service sabotage behaviors in the restaurant industry. Churchill (1979) pointed out that the quality of research depends heavily on the tools that researchers develop to measure the variables of interest. The following review of the extant literature comprises of three sections. The first section outlines the concept of service sabotage. The second section focuses on the impact of service sabotage on the restaurant industry. Finally, the third section discusses the guidelines of scale development and refinement.

Literature Review

The Concept of Service Sabotage

Harris and Ogbonna (2002) defined service sabotage as "organizational member behaviors that are intentionally designed negatively to affect service" (p. 166). As discussed in the previous section, researchers have used various terms to describe negative employee behaviors depending on the focal point of such acts. For example, workplace deviance focuses on interpersonal and organizational deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). While service sabotage is one example of negative organizational employee behaviors; it is conceptually

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different from previously studied scales, and it is unknown how different they are from the other

dark side of employee behaviors, such as workplace deviance.

In actuality, service sabotage should not be seen as another term for the general concept

of workplace deviance, nor is it merely a subcategory within it. Sabotage explicitly concentrates

on causing harm, whereas deviance focuses on violating norms (Ambrose, Seabright, &

Schminke, 2002). Therefore, service sabotage and workplace deviance are conceptually

different. Furthermore, a more detailed look at the definition of service sabotage clarifies that

service sabotage happens for a reason. Service sabotage is derived from organizational members'

intention (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002, 2006, 2009, 2012), and this intentionality sets service

sabotage apart from the common service failure.

Service failure refers to service performance that falls below customers' expectations

(Hoffman & Bateson, 1997), and it is typically not deliberate. While service sabotage is different

from service failure in terms of the deliberate nature of such an action, from a customer's

perspective, the service sabotage and service failure behaviors may be perceived identical. For

instance, service staff may provide false information about the menu due to lack of knowledge or

inadequate training (i.e., service failure), but service saboteurs may intentionally mislead

customers by providing incorrect information. It is, therefore, plausible that frontline employees

disguise service sabotage as service failure in front of customers to evade punishment. For

example, frontline employees who intentionally spilled drinks on customers' backs but

immediately apologized for their accidental clumsiness may be viewed as service failure, when

in fact it could be service sabotage (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002).

In summary, service sabotage is conceptually different from other labels that have been

used to illustrate negative employee behaviors, and service sabotage and service failure can be

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difficult to differentiate, particularly from the customer's viewpoint. Service saboteurs may intentionally conceal their misbehaviors to avoid being caught or punished, and therefore, it is challenging for others to identify service sabotage and even more so to manage service sabotage, effectively.

The Impact of Service Sabotage on the Restaurant Industry

The sales outlook of the restaurant industry in U.S. is projected to reach $799 billion in 2017, with a workforce of 16.3 million employees (National Restaurant Association [NRA], 2016). Researchers estimate that service sabotage costs firms billions of dollars every year (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fagbohungbe at al., 2012; Murphy, 1993), which is clearly a heavy burden on the industry. Furthermore, 85% of frontline employees reported engaging in service sabotage, and nearly 100% of them have witnessed service sabotage in their workplace (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). If this estimate is accurate, considering the 16.3 million employees in the restaurant industry (NRA), the number of service saboteurs would reach over 10 million, and the subsequent negative effect of service sabotage would be devastating.

In the contemporary hospitality industry, marketers rely heavily on online reviews on web-based opinion platforms and social networking sites, such as Yelp.com and Facebook. Popularity of social networking makes the service saboteurs, especially thrill-seeking saboteurs (Harris & Ogbonna, 2009) to be more problematic. Today's young customers are extremely involved in sharing their experience online, and some employees readily share a part of their work days online using postings, photos, or videos. For example, two Domino's Pizza employees filmed themselves tampering with a customer's food in the kitchen and uploaded the video to social media; this video clip went viral on the internet in a short time (Clifford, 2009). Millions of customers viewed the video and expressed how disgusted they were through comments within

a few days, and the Domino's Pizza faced a public relations crisis. This single incident of service sabotage that violated multiple hygiene codes illustrated how service sabotage is capable of endangering reputation of a restaurant brand with only a few clicks.

Service sabotage has profound impacts on various aspects of the organization, such as personnel, service quality, and performance (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002, 2006). Moreover, working conditions in restaurants, including prolonged service contacts (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002), a high level of job stress (Harris & Ogbonna, 2012), emotional dissonance (Lee & Ok, 2014), and mistreatment from customers (Skarlicki et al., 2008), contribute to the likelihood of employee service sabotage. However, it is challenging for managers to effectively identify and prevent restaurant service sabotage behaviors because it can be difficult to distinguish between service sabotage and service failure. As researchers attempt to understand restaurant service sabotage behaviors and their relationships with other variables, availability of a reliable and valid scale to measure restaurant service sabotage is a necessary prerequisite.

The Guidelines of Scale Development and Refinement

Table 4.1 summarizes the guidelines of scale development and refinement (Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 2012; Hinkin, Tracy, & Enz, 1997). The guidelines by Hinkin et al. were built upon Churchill's classic work to construct and refine measures. Specifically, a subset of the steps in these guidelines included determining the scale items and the sample size as well as administering questions with other established items. Most steps of DeVellis' measurement construction guidelines are relatively similar to Churchill and Hinkin et al.'s work. However, DeVellis suggested that scale developers to include a social desirability scale to control for response bias. It is imperative that researchers measure the construct they intend to study without being significantly influenced by social desirability bias. This is particularly critical for scales

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gauging sensitive topics such as restaurant service sabotage behaviors. DeVellis also pointed out

the relationship between the number of items included in the scale and reliability to assist

researchers in making better judgements as to whether a particular item should be eliminated.

Based on the above guidelines, scale development focuses on item generation through qualitative

inquiry (e.g., in-depth interview, focus group). On the contrary, scale refinement involves

several statistical procedures to help scale developers make better decisions for whether an item

should stay or remove through quantitative inquiry (e.g., variance, item-total correlation,

exploratory factor analysis).

[INSERT TABLE 4.1 HERE]

Methodology

A mixed methods research design was applied in this study: qualitative approach using

in-depth interviews (Phase I) and quantitative approach using online survey (Phase II). The

research design was guided by scale construction literature (Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 2012;

Hinkin, et al. 1997) and measurement studies related to service sabotage (Bennett & Robinson,

2000; Harris & Ogbonna, 2006; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2008). Table 4.2

outlines the step-by-step procedures used in this study. Approval to use human subjects for this

research was obtained from a Midwestern University prior to data collection.

[INSERT TABLE 4.2 HERE]

Phase I

Sample Selection

Employees working in full-service restaurants in the U.S. were recruited to explore

restaurant service sabotage behaviors through snowball sampling (Patton, 2015). Employees

working in both chain and independently-owned restaurants were invited to cover a broader

spectrum of restaurant service sabotage behaviors. However, employees in limited-service restaurants were excluded from the study sample because of limited customer-employee interactions. The minimum number of interviewees was determined to be 25 to yield sufficient critical incidents for data analysis. The number of samples was contingent upon data saturation because data collection and analysis were conducted concurrently (Flanagan, 1954).

Development of Interview Questions

The script was developed for semi-structured, in-depth interviews. At the beginning of each interview, demographic questions were asked about participant's background. The definition of service sabotage was explicitly provided by the researcher before administering the primary questions. Critical incident technique (CIT) pursues contextualized examples of behaviors and their significance to the subject (Hughes, 2007). Based on the suggestions for designing questions in CIT research as well as studies that applied CIT (Bitner, Booms, & Tetreault, 1990; Gremler, 2004; Hughes, 2007; Meuter, Ostrom, Roundtree, & Bitner, 2000; Ro & Wong, 2012), the interview questions were developed and then revised according to suggestions from the expert panel (n = 4). A pilot test was conducted to confirm the usability of the interview script prior to formal data collection. After the pilot test, the following questions were asked to each participant:

- Think of a time when a colleague engaged in service sabotage at the restaurant that you work for. Please choose one where you remember the situation clearly.

- Describe the circumstances leading up to this service sabotage incident.

- Exactly what did the colleague say or do at that time?

- How often did the colleague behave that way?

- Did anyone (e.g., customer or manager) other than you notice the behavior?

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- What was the outcome of the incident? How did the incident affect everyone there?

- Describe the actions that the manager took to deal with the incident (if any).

Data Collection

Participants were recruited through the researcher's professional and personal networks and references from interviewees who had already been recruited (i.e., snowball sampling). Participants were offered $5.00 payment as compensation. All interviews were conducted face-to-face to capture both verbal and nonverbal expressions, except for one interview via a video conferencing system due to geographical distance. A nonthreatening approach, in which interviewees were asked to share stories about their colleagues rather than report their own misbehavior, was applied to elicit critical sabotage incidents and minimize social desirability bias (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). Interviews were audio-recorded with the participant's permission to ensure the accuracy of the transcripts for further analyses.

Data Analysis

Audio-recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim and organized using Microsoft Office Excel software. CIT, an inductive content analytic process, was designed to classify critical events and identify contextualized critical behaviors, such as restaurant service sabotage behaviors (Flanagan, 1954; Hughes, 2007). First, the researcher reviewed whether the gathered critical incidents conform to the operational definition of service sabotage. Second, the researcher determined if the critical incident was discrete (i.e., independent of other incidents); otherwise, it was eliminated (Bitner, Booms, & Mohr, 1994). Third, all qualified critical incidents were rewritten into behavioral items for the next round of expert review. Finally, the researcher analyzed and summarized types, frequencies, and targets of the restaurant service sabotage behaviors.

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Nine judges independently reviewed all items that were emerged from the qualitative data analysis according to protocols recommended by Bennett and Robinson (2000). Six of these judges were researchers in food and beverage management, restaurant operations, service marketing, service management, and qualitative methods; and the last three were senior restaurant managers. The judges rated how well each item fitted the operational definition of restaurant service sabotage. Then, the judges rated the clarity and conciseness of each item and the degree to which each item was relevant to the restaurant industry. An item with a mean score of ≤ 3.0 of 7-point Likert-type scale on any of these three criteria was either rewritten or eliminated from the item pool to ensure content validity.

Items that passed reviews by the judges were used in the initial scale. Based on related service sabotage measurements (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2008), this study applied a 7-point behavior frequency scale because it increased the reliability of data findings (Churchill & Peter, 1984). Scale items were anchored as 1 for *never*, 2 for *once a year*, 3 for *twice a year*, 4 for *several times a year*, 5 for *monthly*, 6 for *weekly*, and 7 for *daily*.

Phase II

Sample Selection

The target population was non-managerial frontline employees in full-service restaurants in the U.S. The target sample size was initially determined to be 300 or more to properly perform exploratory factor analysis (EFA) (Comrey & Lee, 1992; Meyers, Gamst, & Guarino, 2013). After securing additional funding for data collection, the sample size was adjusted to 400 because a larger sample was considered better for factor analysis.

Instrument Development

The instrument in Phase II consisted of four major components, including questions pertaining to (a) eligibility to take the survey, (b) work characteristics, (c) restaurant service sabotage, and (d) demographics. In particular, the initial restaurant service sabotage scale comprised 29 items derived from Phase I and 10 additional items that were applicable to the full-service restaurant context from previous research (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2008). From the previous research measurements, the researcher excluded the behavioral items that were covered by the 29-item pool (results from Phase I). Second, the researcher revised the verbiage of previous measurements so that the sentence structure of all items was consistent. Third, the researcher added "when taking reservations or to-go orders" in Items LI4, LI5, and LI6 (Table 4.3); these items were originally developed in the call center context, and this change rendered them more relevant to the restaurant industry (Skarlicki et al., 2008). Restaurant sabotage behaviors were measured on a 7-point behavior frequency scale, ranging from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*daily*).

[INSERT TABLE 4.3 HERE]

To ensure the data quality, two attention check questions were included in the middle of the survey. After expert review, the survey instrument was converted to an online format using the Qualtrics survey system. Then the online instrument was pilot-tested using a panel of 30 non-managerial frontline employees in full-service restaurants. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the 39-item initial scale was .94, showing high internal consistency of the instrument. However, no respondent admitted to have engaged in "served contaminated food" which contradicted to the findings from the interviews. After consulting the panel expert, the verbiage of this item was

altered to "served unsanitary food" to ensure content validity and usability prior to main data collection.

Data Collection

Participants were recruited from an online restaurant employee panel by hiring a professional research firm, Qualtrics. A cover letter stating the purpose and mechanisms of the study was displayed in the first page of the online survey. Anyone who were not qualified to complete the survey or failed to pass the attention check questions was excluded from the dataset. Moreover, survey responses which were completed in less than 1/3 of average time for completing pilot study were removed to ensure data quality. Data collection was conducted between May 31 and June 8, 2017 and completed when the target sample size of 400 completed responses was attained.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics, EFA, and reliability tests were performed using IBM SPSS Version 24. To refine the initial scale, the restaurant service sabotage behavioral items were evaluated based on item-scale correlations and item variances prior to EFA (DeVellis, 2012). A series of principal axis factoring with oblique rotation was performed to explore the interrelationships between scale items and to determine which items should be retained (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995). Oblique rotation was chosen because it allows correlations among scale items (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999).

Qualitative assessments of the magnitude of factor loadings and cross-loadings were considered when determining the factor structure and item selection (Meyers et al., 2013) along with evaluation of conceptual similarity within the factors. Comrey and Lee (1992) contends that a factor loading of .70 is excellent, .63 is very good, .55 is good, .45 is fair, and .32 is close to

minimal. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) also considered .32 the minimum, and very few researchers have recommended going below .30 (Meyers et al., 2013). Given the exploratory nature of this study and guidelines in previous research, .30 was chosen as the cutoff value for factor loadings. Furthermore, it is critical to ensure that an individual item is explicitly defined by only one factor, so cross-loaded items were evaluated to identify one dominant factor based on the context and the reasonableness of the interpretation (Conway & Huffcutt, 2003; Meyers et al., 2013). Finally, Cronbach's alpha coefficients was computed to evaluate the internal consistency of the scale.

Results and Discussion

Characteristics of Interviewees

Twenty-six employees from full-service restaurants participated in individual in-depth interviews, including 13 wait staff, two hosts/hostesses, three line cooks, and eight managers. Interviewing employees from different positions yielded insights from varied perspectives, although this study focused on frontline employees' service sabotage behaviors. It was expected that interviewees who were not frontline employees might share sabotage incidents of frontline employees more freely without feeling judged. Fifteen restaurants were independently owned, and 11 were chain-operated; 24 were casual dining, and two were fine dining restaurants (Table 4.4).

[INSERT TABLE 4.4 HERE]

Analyses of Critical Incidents

The goal of the interviews was to explore specific restaurant service sabotage behaviors and generate an item pool using the critical incident technique (CIT). One advantage of using CIT is that it allows researchers to explore data from the interviewee's perspective without

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preconception (Gremler, 2004). Due to the exploratory nature of this study, the researcher used the targets (i.e., customers [CU], colleagues [CO], and restaurants [RE]) of the sabotage incidents as behavior groups to guide the following analyses because interviewees could always clearly recall the saboteurs and the targets. These three targets inclusively covered the parties involved in the restaurant service sabotage incidents in addition to the saboteurs themselves (Browning, 2008; Harris & Ogbonna, 2002; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). The researcher gradually identified similar or repetitive behaviors after the first 20 interviews, suggesting potential data saturation (Patton, 2015). To confirm the point of data saturation was reached, the researcher continued the interview process to achieve the predetermined goal of 25 interviews and identified more identical behaviors. Therefore, the interview process ceased after the 26 interviews.

The interviews ranged from 13 to 40 minutes; the average length was approximately 22 minutes. Two hundred and forty-three critical incidents (i.e., the unit of analysis) were identified after open-coding. First, the researcher reviewed whether the 243 critical incidents conformed to the operational definition of restaurant service sabotage in this study. Of those, 18 incidents did not pass the review and were excluded because the researcher could not judge if the misbehavior was done deliberately. Second, the remaining 225 incidents were categorized into the three behavior groups based on the target of the sabotage behavior. Third, all qualified critical incidents were further categorized into 28 specific types of sabotage behaviors and rewritten into behavioral items for expert review. Example quotes from the interviews were selected and tabulated in Table 4.5 to illustrate each type of behavior.

[INSERT TABLE 4.5 HERE]

To generate an item pool for scale development, all behavioral items were formatted in the same structure, which started with "I have intentionally…" followed by each behavioral item (e.g., "CU1 Acted rudely toward customers"). Of the 28 types of sabotage behaviors, 13 targeted customers (CU), five targeted colleagues (CO), and 10 targeted the restaurants (RE) where the saboteurs worked at (Table 4.6).

[INSERT TABLE 4.6 HERE]

Expert Panel Review

Table 4.7 summarizes the results of expert panel review. The mean scores of all items in the pool were greater than the predetermined threshold of 3.0 in all three categories. Overall, the mean score (± Standard deviation [SD]) of 28 behavioral items on "fit the operational definition" criteria was 5.57 ± .84, "clear and concise" 6.04 ± .54, and "relevant to the industry" 6.32 ± .49. Even so, "CO2 Completed the bare minimum amount of side jobs" was rated the lowest among all the 28 items with a mean score of 3.67 ± 1.87 on "fit the operational definition." Judges with more work experience in full-service restaurants rated this behavior item more highly than others. One of the judges commented that the impact of this particular item may be indirect on customers but negative and direct on colleagues, harming teamwork. Because not completing side jobs (e.g., filling up salt and pepper, rolling silverware) could be detrimental to colleagues and customer service, it was deemed appropriate to retain this item.

[INSERT TABLE 4.7 HERE]

The judges also provided constructive comments for revising the items, such as appropriate verbiage, succinctness of expression, and identifying the behavior itself instead of motivation. One notable change was the addition of "without authorization" after RE3 and RE6. Giving out free food and/or beverages (RE3) can be part of a marketing promotion in keeping

with restaurant policy. Similarly, simplifying and/or omitting service procedures (RE6) may be simply following the supervisor's instructions, which may not be service sabotage depending on the employee's intention. Furthermore, "CU6 Charged customers the wrong price" was divided into two items based on judges' suggestions: "overcharged customers" and "undercharged customers." Charging customers the wrong price may seem to be the same behavior, but there is an essential difference in the context and the target. Specifically, customers were the victims when "overcharged customers" occurred, regardless of saboteurs' motivations. In contrast, customers received direct monetary benefits, but restaurants became the victims when the server "undercharged customers". In addition, 10 items were included in the questionnaire that were adapted from previously identified service sabotage measures. Therefore, the initial scale to measure restaurant service sabotage behaviors was developed with 39 items in the final pool.

Characteristics of Survey Participants

Approximately 6,000 online panel members who were included in the restaurant employee panel were randomly selected by the partner research company (Qualtrics) to receive survey invitations with a URL linked to the online survey. Of those 3,232 individuals accessed the survey's first page (response rate = 53.9%). Of those, the researcher screened out or excluded 2,813 participants because they (a) did not provide consent to enter the survey ($n = 228$), (b) were under 18 years of age ($n = 9$), (c) were not employed in the U.S. ($n = 719$), (d) did not work as a frontline employee ($n = 709$), (e) had more than 50% managerial responsibilities ($n = 774$), (f) did not work in full-service restaurants ($n = 342$), (g) did not pass the attention check questions ($n = 25$), or (h) never finished the survey ($n = 7$). Therefore, 419 usable responses were included for instrument refinement. Survey participants' characteristics are summarized in Table 4.8. The majority of participants were between 18 and 29 years old ($n = 252$, 60.1%) and female

(n = 355, 84.7%). The ratio of female participants is slightly higher than that reported in the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, where 70.0% of servers and 80.8% of hostesses were female (U.S. Department of Labor, 2016). A vast majority of participants were Caucasian (n = 366, 87.4%), and most had some college education (n = 176, 42.0%). The majority of participants had worked for their current employers for three years or less (n = 281, 67.4%) in casual dining restaurants (n = 325, 77.6%), and more than half worked at chain restaurants (n = 222, 53%). Table 4.8 includes complete demographic characteristics of participants.

[INSERT TABLE 4.8 HERE]

Descriptive Statistics of Restaurant Service Sabotage Behaviors

Means, standard deviations, and participation rates of the 39 restaurant service sabotage behaviors are summarized in Table 4.9. The mean scores of the top 10 most frequent behavioral items ranged from 2.23 to 4.10 on a 7-point behavior frequency scale. Of those, "Complained about customers with colleagues" was rated the highest (4.10 ± 2.07). This behavior initially seems as if it may not directly affect delivery of service. However, a half the interviewees from Phase I (n = 13) recalled a relevant incident clearly, indicating its prevalence in the restaurant industry. Intentionally complaining about customers can cause serious conflicts between the customer and the saboteur if the customer observes the complaint, hurting customer-employee rapport. If someone would record the conflict and share the video on social networking sites, a single incident can devastate the restaurant's reputation (Whitley, 2012). On the other hand, even if a customer is unaware of intentional complaints by the saboteur, this behavior may lead to decreased service quality.

[INSERT TABLE 4.9 HERE]

Recent media coverages of service sabotage (Hilaire, 2017) and a popular television show, "*Mystery Diners*" revealed service sabotage behaviors pertaining to intentional contamination. However, these behaviors occurred much less frequently than other sabotage behaviors. Although Phase I participants reported "Given or served with unclean utensils" ranked 28th among the 39 items, and "Served unsanitary food" ranked 37th. This implies that saboteurs tend to engage in indirect (to customers) and minor restaurant service sabotage behaviors, which is consistent with previous research (Browning, 2008).

A substantial proportion of prevalent restaurant service sabotage behaviors were *passive-aggressive*; that is, an indirect expression of hostility that conveys aggressive feelings through passive means such as malicious compliance (Johnson & Klee, 2007). The specific psychiatric personality disorders underlying passive-aggressive behaviors are beyond the scope of this study. However, several restaurant service sabotage behaviors in this study appeared to fit the description of passive-aggression. Some of these examples are "Completed the bare minimum amount of side jobs," "Withheld some information from customers," "Provided the bare minimum amount of customer service," and "Spent too much time fantasizing, daydreaming, and/or playing with cell phone instead of working."

Another notable indicator of restaurant service sabotage behaviors is the percentage of respondents who indicated that they had participated in the behavior at least once a year (i.e., the participation rate). The participation rates of the top 10 most frequent service sabotage behavior items ranged from 42.7% to 80.4%. The highest was also "Complained about customers with colleagues" (80.4%), and more than half the respondents engaged in the following behaviors (one fifth of all behavioral items) at least once a year: "Completed the bare minimum amount of side jobs" (57%), "Made fun of a customer or group of customers behind their back" (56.2%),

"Lied to customers" (55.4%), "Withheld some information from customers" (52.8%), "Given out free food and/or beverages without authorization" (52%), "Under-charged customers" (51.9%), and "Provided the bare minimum amount of customer service" (51.7%). Compared to Harris and Ogbonna's study (2006), these prevalent restaurant service sabotage behaviors reflect what respondents *have done* rather than what they *have heard*, providing a more precise estimate of the prevalent service sabotage behaviors in the restaurant industry.

Item Selection

Prior to conducting factor analysis, scale items were selected based on two criteria: item-total correlations and item variances. First, each individual item should be highly correlated with the collection of remaining items, if scale developers want to have highly intercorrelated items (DeVellis, 2012). Therefore, items that have high inter-item correlations with the other items that are hypothesized in the same behavioral group were selected to form the subscales. Second, it is desirable that a scale item possesses relatively high variance (DeVellis); if a diverse group rates an item, then the score for the item should be diverse as well. Therefore, 13 items with variances below 1.00 were excluded as shown in Table 4.9, leaving 26 items for further factor analysis.

Preliminary Factor Analysis

A series of principal axis factorings with promax rotation was performed. Twenty-six items were included in the first principal axis factor analysis. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was .92, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2(325) = 3,678.51$, p<.001), supporting the factorability of the data (Kaiser, 1974). There were six factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.00, explaining 47.15% of the variance. However, the scree plot indicated that the first three factors were above the inflection point (i.e., elbow). The pattern matrix was assessed

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according to the extant literature (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Mertler & Vannatta, 2001; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Five items were either cross-loaded ("Treated customers sarcastically," "Told a customer that I fixed something but didn't fix it," and "Not checked a customer's ID when selling alcoholic beverages") or had a factor loading of less than .30 ("Spent too much time fantasizing, daydreaming, and/or playing with cell phone instead of working" and "Stopped serving food earlier than regular hours"). These five scale items were excluded prior to the second principal axis factor analysis, resulting in 21 remaining items.

The results of the second factor analysis showed a KMO value of .92, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2(210) = 3,102.93$, p<.001), indicating good factorability of the data. Four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 were extracted, explaining 44.0% of the variance. Four items were cross-loaded ("Neglected to follow my supervisor's instructions," "Rushed customers," and "Withheld some information from customers") or had low factor loading ("Simplified and/or omitted service procedures without authorization"). These four items were removed, and 17 items remained for the third principal axis factor analysis.

In the third principal axis factor analysis, the KMO value was .91, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2(136) = 2,203.24$, p<.001), showing good factorability of the data. Three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 were extracted, explaining 40.4% of the variance. Three items were removed from further analysis due to low factor loading ("Taken extra time for breaks" and "Ignored customers") or difficulty in interpretation with other items in the same factor ("Used illegal drugs before and/or during shifts"). Although one item had an issue of cross-loading ("Snuck foods and/or beverages out of the restaurant"), its highest factor (.39) was loaded with the other two items associated with personal gain ("Given out free food

and/or beverages without authorization" and "Under-charged customers"), which made this factor logically interpretable. This item was retained, and the remaining14 items were used for the fourth principal axis factor analysis.

The results of the fourth factor analysis showed a KMO value of .91, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2(91) = 1,822.35$, p<.001), supporting good factorability of the data. Three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 were extracted, explaining 43.7% of the variance. Only one cross-loaded item was detected ("Lied to customers") and removed. Thirteen items were included in the fifth principal axis factor analysis.

Table 4.10 displays the results of the fifth, and final principal factor analysis. The KMO value was .89, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2(78) = 1,587.02$, p<.001), indicating good factorability of the data. Three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.00 were extracted, explaining 43.1% of the variance. A three-factor model was identified as derived from the pattern matrix: Factor 1 was related to customer relations or treatment, Factor 2 was related to work or quality standards, and Factor 3 was related to personal gain, both financial and nonfinancial. This three-factor model with 13 items makes both statistical and logical sense to the researchers. In particular, the scale items in Factors 2 and 3 are context specific, showing the characteristics of restaurant operations as compared to existing service sabotage scales (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2008).

[INSERT TABLE 4.10 HERE]

Internal Consistency Assessment

Cronbach's alpha coefficients were computed to evaluate the scale's reliability, with the goal of an alpha greater than .70 (Nunnally, 1978). Results showed that Cronbach's alpha

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coefficients were .75, .74, and .72 for Factors 1, 2, and 3, respectively (Table 4.10), supporting the internal consistency of the scale.

Conclusion and Implications

The purpose of this research was to explore restaurant service sabotage behaviors and develop a reliable scale to measure them. Twenty-eight explicit types of restaurant service sabotage behaviors that target customers, colleagues, and restaurants were identified in individual interviews. After expert panel review, a pool of 39 items was created to form the initial scale, including 10 items extracted from the previous literature.

Descriptive statistics revealed that restaurant service sabotage behaviors, especially passive-aggressive sabotage behaviors were prevalent. The majority (80.0%) of respondents admitted they engaged in one or more restaurant service sabotage behavior at least once a year. A half the respondents confessed that they engaged in at least eight sabotage behaviors from the list.

A three-factor model with 13 items was extracted from the data, explaining 43.1% of the variance. The scale items in Factors 2 and 3 were context specific and showed the characteristics of restaurant operations compared to existing service sabotage scales (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2008). Cronbach's alpha coefficients were all above the threshold of .70, showing the internal consistency of the restaurant service sabotage scale.

Theoretical Implications

This study yields several important insights that advance the relevant theory. First, 28 explicit types of restaurant service sabotage behaviors were identified in in-depth interviews. Researchers know little about the specific types of sabotage behaviors that occur in the restaurant industry because previous studies were conducted in overall hospitality organizations (Harris &

Ogbonna, 2006), call centers (Skarlicki et al., 2008), and hotels (Shao & Skarlicki, 2014). This study identifies sabotage behaviors in the restaurant industry and categorizes them into three major behavioral groups: (a) targeting customers, (b) targeting colleagues, and (c) targeting restaurants.

Second, results from the quantitative data indicate that majority of restaurant service sabotage behaviors are indirect (to customers) and minor, which is consistent with a previous study (Browning, 2008). This type of indirect and minor restaurant service sabotage behavior can also be defined as passive-aggressive. One interviewee described it this way: "*I serve you, but I don't serve you well.*" This is a vivid illustration of passive-aggressive service sabotage behaviors. This finding may lead the restaurant service sabotage research to a new framework that theoretically connects different types of negative workplace behaviors together.

Third, the initial restaurant service sabotage scale rectifies the lack of a measurement to gauge service sabotage behaviors specifically for the restaurant industry. Service sabotage behaviors are context-specific, and they vary among segments in the service industry. It cannot be assumed that a service sabotage scale can apply to other segments without validation or replication of the study. The 13-item scale developed in this study is reliable and explains a moderate amount of variance in restaurant service sabotage. The scale ought to be applicable in future studies on restaurant service sabotage and related areas, after a proper scale validation process.

Managerial Implications

This study also provides valuable insights for restaurant managers. First, managers can use the 28 explicit types of restaurant service sabotage behaviors to detect and identify potential service sabotage incidents. The major component of service sabotage is the saboteur's intent to

harm a target. It is difficult for managers to ascertain whether a behavior is intentional. However, awareness of these behavior items means that managers will be more aware of service sabotage incidents. Thus, managers can intervene in service sabotage incidents at an earlier stage and prevent subsequent negative influence on customers, other employees, or the restaurant due to service sabotage.

Second, the results show that indirect and minor service sabotage behaviors accounted for the majority of sabotage behaviors in the restaurant industry. This type of sabotage behavior can be passive-aggressive and difficult for managers to detect and distinguish from service failure. Even if managers do recognize the behavior being intentional, it may be challenging to talk to the saboteur about potential punishments, particularly when the turnover rate in the industry is constantly high. Few managers would terminate an employee for minor mistakes. However, this type of restaurant service sabotage behavior is prevalent and detrimental to service quality. When managers spot a potential passive-aggressive service sabotage behavior, they should bear in mind that this could be an intentional act against customers, restaurant staff, or restaurant itself. Identifying and intervening incidents of these indirect and minor service sabotage behaviors may prevent direct and severe sabotage behaviors in the future.

Limitations and Future Research

Restaurant service sabotage is a sensitive topic in the workplace. Past literature cautioned the effect of social desirability bias when studying service sabotage. While one cannot guarantee that data from this study are free from the social desirability bias, the following strategies were adopted to minimize the impact of social desirability bias. First, questions used during interviews were framed in a nonthreatening way to explore restaurant service sabotage behaviors (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006). Instead of requiring respondents to answer questions based on their personal

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behaviors, the interviewees were asked to share restaurant service sabotage incidents according to what they have heard or witnessed in their workplace. Furthermore participants in the quantitative study were recruited from an online panel where they could access the online survey without feeling under supervision. This practice assured participants' anonymity and a less stressful environment when taking the survey.

Data in this study were collected from frontline employees in full-service restaurants in the U.S. where tipping is a social norm. Therefore, the results from this study may not be generalizable to other restaurant segments (e.g., quick service or fast casual restaurants) or to other regions where tipping is not required or expected.

The restaurant service sabotage scale was developed to measure the construct for academic research. Future research may apply Item Response Theory to further reduce the number of items while retaining a similar capacity to measure the construct. Furthermore, future research may use this study as foundation to construct an indirect scale to measure restaurant service sabotage. Such an indirect scale will be useful to gauge sensitive workplace behaviors and minimize social desirability bias and may lead to substantial practical applications (e.g., recruiting and training) in the restaurant industry.

Even though this study generated an internally consistent scale, further efforts need to be addressed to justify the construct validity of the scale in conjunction with previous developed scales. Therefore, future research is encouraged to conduct scale validation for the restaurant service sabotage scale. This way, a validated scale can be attained and applied to further studies.

Acknowledgement

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Table 4.1 Guidelines of Scale Development and Refinement

	DeVellis (2012)	Hinkin et al. (1997)	Churchill (1979)
Step 1	Determine clearly what it is you want to measure	Item generation	Specify domain of construct
Step 2	Generate an item pool	Content adequacy assessment	Generate sample of items
Step 3	Determine the format for measurement	Questionnaire administration	Collect data
Step 4	Have initial item pool reviewed by experts	Factor analysis	Purify measure
Step 5	Administer items to a development sample	Internal consistency assessment	N/A

Table 4.2 Procedure for Developing and Refining Restaurant Service Sabotage Scale

Phase of Study	Procedure	
Phase I	Step 1	Specifying the construct
Scale Development	Step 2	Generating an item pool
	Step 3	Reviewing items
	Step 4	Determining the format for measurement
Phase II	Step 5	Administering the initial scale
Scale Refinement	Step 6	Evaluating the items
	Step 7	Exploratory factor analysis
	Step 8	Assessing internal consistency

Table 4.3 Additional Items Based on Existing Literature

Author	Behavioral Items
Bennett and Robinson (2000)	LI 1. Neglected to follow my supervisor's instructions LI 2. Dragged out work in order to get overtime LI 3. Spent too much time fantasizing, daydreaming, and/or playing with cell phone instead of working
Skarlicki et al. (2008)	LI 4. Hung up on a customer when taking reservations or to-go orders LI 5. Put a customer on hold for a long period of time when taking reservations or to-go orders LI 6. Disconnected a phone call when taking reservations or to-go orders LI 7. Told a customer that I fixed something but didn't fix it
Shao and Skarlicki (2014)	LI 8. Withheld some information from customers LI 9. Asked my colleagues to withdraw from providing high quality service to customers LI 10 Adhered to rules excessively to delay the service to customers

Table 4.4 Characteristics of Restaurants where Interview Participants Work (n = 26)

Characteristic	n	%
Restaurant segment		
Fine dining	2	7.7
Casual dining	24	92.3
Operation type		
Chain restaurant	11	42.3
Independent restaurant	15	57.7
Position		
Waiter/waitress	13	50.0
Host/hostess	2	7.7
Cook	3	11.5
Front of the house manager	3	11.5
Back of the house manager	2	7.7
Manager	3	11.5

Table 4.5 Restaurant Service Sabotage Behaviors and Selected Quotes

Specific Behaviors	Selected Quotes
CU 1. Acted rudely toward customers	*"Sometimes I've seen servers just completely be rude to their customers."* (P11-12-01) *"This one server took care of them for this one time and I remember seeing him just throwing the bread on the table."* (P16-01-29)
CU 2. Served contaminated food	*"They dropped the steak in the kitchen, picked it up, washed it off, put it on the grill for a second and then put it back."* (P04-01-29) *"People would put their fingers in the ice cream or there's a special that our company did where it's a hole in the center of the ice cream, and instead of doing the technique that they showed us how to do it, they would just put their fingers to create the hole in the center to do that."* (P07-01-19)
CU 3. Served contaminated utensils	*"Sometimes they just took the toothpicks and use it and then put it back."* (P03-04-27)
CU 4. Disregarded food and/or beverage quality standards	*"There's one time a server intentionally served a guest a wrong drink. Yeah, serving them a wrong drink trying to piss them off."* (P16-04-32) *"I have seen people send out cold food on purpose. You know that it's cold knowing that those French fries are, you know, an hour old or something and they're not good."* (P11-10-21)
CU 5. Performed the bare minimum customer service standards	*"When I worked at the steak house specifically like you knew someone wasn't going to tip you out, I would essentially just get them the bare minimum amount of service."* (P19-02-04)
CU 6. Charged customers the wrong price	*"So, it could be that they register an extra beer for the customers so they can have one later."* (P01-07-08) *"She raised the price of their ticket so that she would get a higher tip."* (P07-03-01) *"She thought it would be clever to just sneak in enough charge for the type of water that they had rather than just regular water – she wrote down that they have Voss water or [Artisan] water and things like that. I think she also snuck in a bottle of wine to their ticket as well. So, that raised the price of their meal by around $40 of $50."* (P07-04-02)

Note. CU = customers; CO = colleagues; RE = restaurants.

Table 4.5 (Continued) Restaurant Service Sabotage Behaviors and Selected Quotes

Specific Behaviors	Selected Quotes
CU 7. Ignored customers	*"I'm just not going to go back and check on them. I'll drop the check when I'm done and knowing things like that she was refusing to refill their drink, she was refusing to bring them extra condiments and things like that."* (P24-02-13)
CU 8. Lied to customers	*"The servers, yes, sometimes, you know, like if they know that they can't add something, you know, for a good customer, they will not do it in this customer or make it difficult. You know so they would say, oh, you cannot do this, actually they can. For example, they want to add something like milk or something like that and then my server actually said no."* (P03-02-31)
CU 9. Made fun of customers behind their back	*"This customer did this and make fun of them."* (P02-05-43)
CU 10. Rushed customers	*"I'm just going to get you to pay and then I want you to leave as fast as possible, so I'm just going to kind of rush you along."* (P08-02-20) *"Sometimes if you have people that you really want to leave, you'll drop off the check earlier than normal and try to like…Hurry them, yeah. You would try to like hover around them [Laughs] and make them feel like they should leave. Yeah, pressure them to leave."* (P11-11-24)
CU 11. Made customers wait longer	*"So, sometimes you would make the customer wait longer if they're, you know, like if they're rude to you or something and you got – you'll make them your last priority."* (P11-11-22)
CU 12. Treated customers sarcastically	*"A lot of times they would even be like extra charming and sweet if they were trying to be rude to them because then the customer get on maybe they'd say, oh, I'm so sorry blah blah blah…and they'd be super sweet about it...but you could tell that they were like purposely neglecting that customer."* (P06-03-05)
CU 13. Yelled at customers and/or colleagues	*"We had a bartender who would get very frustrated with the servers. If you weren't in the same system as him or you made him mad, he would throw a fit. ...He would scream and yell at other employees. He would scream and yell at customers actually."* (P11-05-15)

Note. CU = customers; CO = colleagues; RE = restaurants.

Table 4.5 (Continued) Restaurant Service Sabotage Behaviors and Selected Quotes

Specific Behaviors	Selected Quotes
CO 1. Created drama about colleagues	*"Sometimes the people who dislike each other would create drama and like spread rumors about each other."* (P06-06-05)
CO 2. Completed the bare minimum amount of side jobs	*"Sometimes like the night crew will just be like, I'm just not going to fill up the salt and pepper, I'm just going to leave it to the morning team to do it."* (P16-07-17)
CO 3. Encouraged other waitstaff to dislike a colleague	*"If somebody was powerful enough like socially, powerful enough social status in their shot, then they could definitely get all the other waiters or waitresses to dislike one of them."* (P06-05-28)
CO 4. Complained about customers with colleagues	*"They're smiling right here and get to the back of the house or something like, Jesus, this customer I can't do it anymore… Yeah, exactly. Tell everybody what the hell is going on and then, you know, come back out, they're still smiling halfway you know."* (P26-02-28)
CO 5. Argued with other waitstaff to serve customers who tip well	*"They would always fight over certain guests because they know they would tip more."* (P13-04-01)
RE 1. Stopped serving food earlier than regular hours	*"I can remember a time we close at 10:00 and so, there was a group of people about ten or eleven-ish that came in at about 9:30 after we were basically shutting everything down and they very much wanted to eat and they are our customers. So, we had one manager who is telling us to keep making food, but then the manager at the front basically told the people that even though we are still open they were not allowed to eat, we already shut everything down and they're like all over the customers and they're like, well, I'm sorry, it's just too late. And the people made a huge scene and they were just being disrespectful about how if you wanted to eat you should have come in earlier like it's not my fault that you didn't come in on time."* (P18-04-08)
RE 2. Not shown up at work without notice	*"Most of us servers, my colleagues and so, people just wouldn't call in and just be like F it, I'm not coming to work."* (P05-02-13)

Note. CU = customers; CO = colleagues; RE = restaurants.

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Table 4.5 (Continued) Restaurant Service Sabotage Behaviors and Selected Quotes

Specific Behaviors	Selected Quotes
RE 3. Given out free food and/or beverages	*"Beer in a tap. There's no count on how many beers you're gonna get. So, even if you serve him a couple of extra beers and you just charge him one and you give him three, no one's gonna notice."* (P01-09-18) *"A lot of time my colleagues would get free drinks and stuff for their buddies instead of charging them."* (P05-01-17)
RE 4. Not checked a customer's ID when selling alcoholic beverages	*"Maybe the dude was underage. A lot of my colleagues would get them beers while they're in the theater and that's obviously illegal and against company policy."* (P05-01-20)
RE 5. Entered wrong orders to eat and/or drink them later	*"He would mess up food on purpose like he would ring it in wrong … sometimes he would ring in like say he'd ring in like a quesadilla wrong on purpose and then after a bit he would go back and have a snack."* (P22-03-29)
RE 6. Simplified and/or omitted service procedures so that it was easier for me	*"The sugar is not – the C-fold is not on the right spot and I'm like, you're just not caring like you're just not doing it right because you just want to get out of here."* (P23-11-11)
RE 7. Snuck foods and/or beverages out of the operation for my personal benefit	*"Servers have snuck out, you know, uncooked steak from the walk-in fridge…snuck out like chocolate milk."* (P25-09-28)
RE 8. Stormed out the restaurant	*"I'm not sure what the circumstances were if a customer was just being rude or she just did not agree with my manager, but she (waitress) just walked out."* (P21-08-18)
RE 9. Used illegal drugs before and/or during shifts	*"Employees in the freezer – the walk-in freezer that were smoking marijuana."* (P07-07-01) *"He would show up to work on numerous occasions intoxicated or under the influence."* (P21-02-22)
RE 10. Taken extra time for breaks	*"He not only just refuses to do things, but he'll go missing for like forty five minutes on like Saturday night rush he'll – and just be on his phone."* (P23-02-17)

Note. CU = customers; CO = colleagues; RE = restaurants.

Table 4.6 Restaurant Service Sabotage Behaviors Identified in Interviews

Behavior Groups	Specific Behaviors
Targeting customers	CU 1. Acted rudely toward customers
	CU 2. Served contaminated food
	CU 3. Served contaminated utensils
	CU 4. Disregarded food and/or beverage quality standards
	CU 5. Performed the bare minimum customer service standards
	CU 6. Charged customers the wrong price
	CU 7. Ignored customers
	CU 8. Lied to customers
	CU 9. Made fun of customers behind their back
	CU 10. Rushed customers
	CU 11. Made customers wait longer
	CU 12. Treated customers sarcastically
	CU 13. Yelled at customers and/or colleagues
Targeting colleagues	CO 1. Created drama about colleagues
	CO 2. Completed the bare minimum amount of side jobs
	CO 3. Encouraged other waitstaff to dislike a colleague
	CO 4. Complained about customers with colleagues
	CO 5. Argued with other waitstaff to serve customers who tip well
Targeting restaurants	RE 1. Stopped serving food earlier than regular hours
	RE 2. Not shown up at work without notice
	RE 3. Given out free food and/or beverages
	RE 4. Not checked a customer's ID when selling alcoholic beverages
	RE 5. Entered wrong orders to eat and/or drink them later
	RE 6. Simplified and/or omitted service procedures so that it was easier for me
	RE 7. Snuck foods and/or beverages out of the operation for my personal benefit
	RE 8. Stormed out the restaurant
	RE 9. Used illegal drugs before and/or during shifts
	RE 10. Taken extra time for breaks

Note. CU = customers; CO = colleagues; RE = restaurants.

Table 4.7 Results of Expert Review (n = 9)

Behavioral Items	Fit Operational Definition	Clear and Concise	Relevant to the Industry
CU1. Acted rudely toward customers	6.89	6.67	7.00
CU2. Served contaminated food	6.11	5.89	6.67
CU3. Served with contaminated utensils	6.00	5.44	6.67
CU4. Disregarded food and/or beverage quality standards	6.11	6.00	6.89
CU5. Performed the bare minimum customer service standards	6.22	6.11	6.33
CU6. Charged customers the wrong price	6.78	6.67	6.89
CU7. Ignored customers	6.89	6.89	6.89
CU8. Lied to customers	5.56	6.56	6.00
CU9. Made fun of customers behind the customers' back	5.33	6.78	6.56
CU10. Rushed customers	6.00	6.56	6.67
CU11. Made customers wait longer	6.22	6.22	6.78
CU12. Treated customers sarcastically	5.67	6.11	6.22
CU13. Yelled at customers and/or colleagues	6.78	6.44	6.78
CO1. Created drama about colleagues	5.11	5.22	5.67
CO2. Completed the bare minimum amount of side jobs	3.67	4.67	5.22
CO3. Encouraged other waitstaff to dislike a colleague	4.89	5.89	5.67
CO4. Complained about customers with colleagues	5.11	6.33	5.89
CO5. Argued with other waitstaff to serve customers who tip well	4.56	5.33	5.67
RE1. Stopped serving food earlier than regular hours	6.11	5.67	6.56
RE2. Not shown up at work without notice	5.89	6.67	6.56
RE3. Given out free food and/or beverages	5.00	5.67	6.56
RE4. Not checked a customer's ID when selling alcoholic beverages	4.33	5.78	6.11
RE5. Entered wrong orders to eat and/or drink them later	5.78	6.11	6.44

Table 4.7 (Continued) Results of Expert Review (n = 9)

Behavioral Items		Fit Operational Definition	Clear and Concise	Relevant to the Industry
RE6.	Simplified and/or omitted service procedures so that it was easier for me	5.67	6.44	6.56
RE7.	Snuck foods and/or beverages out of the operation for my personal benefit	5.11	5.89	6.22
RE8.	Stormed out the restaurant	4.44	5.22	5.67
RE9.	Used illegal drugs before and/or during shifts	4.33	5.89	5.56
RE10.	Taken extra time for breaks	5.33	6.11	6.11

Note. Response ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Table 4.8 Characteristics of Survey Participants (n = 419)

Characteristic	n	%
Age		
18 – 29 years	252	60.1
30 – 39 years	98	23.4
40 – 49 years	45	10.7
50 – 59 years	19	4.5
60 years or older	5	1.2
Gender		
Female	355	84.7
Male	61	14.6
Prefer not to disclose	3	0.7
Ethnicity[a]		
White / Caucasian	366	87.4
African American	25	6.0
Hispanic	24	5.7
Asian	12	2.9
Native American	13	3.1
Pacific Islander	3	0.7
Other	4	1.0
Education		
Less than high school degree	5	1.2
High school diploma or GED	112	26.7
Some college	176	42.0
Associate's degree	53	12.6
Bachelor's degree	65	15.5
Advanced or professional degree beyond college degree	8	1.9
Years with current employer[b]		
3 or less	281	67.4
4 – 6 years	85	20.4
7 – 9 years	22	5.3
10 – 12 years	16	3.8
13 years or more	13	3.1
Restaurant segment		
Fine dining	94	22.4
Casual dining	325	77.6

Table 4.8 (Continued) Characteristics of Survey Participants (n = 419)

Characteristic	n	%
Operation type		
Chain restaurant	222	53.0
Independent restaurant	178	42.5
Other	19	4.5
Position		
Waiter/waitress	318	75.9
Bartender	53	12.6
Host/hostess	18	4.3
Other	30	7.2
Average amount of tips received		
10% or less	58	13.8
11% − 15%	106	25.3
16% − 20%	190	45.3
21% − 25%	48	11.5
26% or more	6	1.4
Other	11	2.6
Hours of working every week		
10 hours or less	10	2.4
11 − 20 hours	69	16.5
21 − 30 hours	171	40.8
31 − 40 hours	152	36.3
41 hours or more	17	4.1

Note. [a] The total number of responses exceeds (n = 419) due to multiple responses. [b] The total number of responses falls behind (n = 419) due to two missing values.

Table 4.9 Means, Standard Deviations, Variances, Item-Total Correlations, and Participation Rates of Restaurant Service Sabotage Behaviors (n = 419)

Item		*M*	*SD*	Variance	Item-Total Correlation	Participation Rate[a]
CO	Complained about customers with colleagues	4.10	2.07	4.28	.65	80.4
CU	Made fun of a customer or group of customers behind their back	2.79	1.95	3.80	.69	56.2
CU	Lied to customers	2.52	1.66	2.76	.69	55.4
CO	Completed the bare minimum amount of side jobs	2.50	1.62	2.62	.61	57.0
LI	Withheld some information from customers	2.40	1.62	2.62	.61	52.8
CU	Under-charged customers[b]	2.32	1.57	2.46	.54	51.9
CU	Rushed customers	2.31	1.65	2.72	.68	47.6
RE	Given out free food and/or beverages without authorization	2.28	1.51	2.28	.62	52.0
CU	Provided the bare minimum amount of customer service	2.24	1.50	2.25	.62	51.7
LI	Spent too much time fantasizing, daydreaming, and/or playing with cell phone instead of working	2.23	1.72	2.96	.50	42.7
CU	Treated customers sarcastically	2.07	1.55	2.40	.49	41.8
RE	Not checked a customer's ID when selling alcoholic beverages	1.91	1.54	2.37	.48	32.4
RE	Snuck foods and/or beverages out of the restaurant	1.88	1.50	2.25	.57	32.1
LI	Neglected to follow my supervisor's instructions	1.87	1.31	1.72	.71	37.6
RE	Simplified and/or omitted service procedures without authorization	1.85	1.44	2.07	.63	33.6
RE	Taken extra time for breaks	1.84	1.42	2.02	.45	32.1
LI	Told a customer that I fixed something but didn't fix it	1.84	1.27	1.61	.65	37.9
CU	Acted rudely toward customers	1.76	1.21	1.46	.52	36.4
CU	Made customers wait longer than usual	1.73	1.26	1.59	.52	31.8

Table 4.9 (Continued) Means, Standard Deviations, Variances, Item-Total Correlations, and Participation Rates of Restaurant Service Sabotage Behaviors (n = 419)

Item		*M*	*SD*	Variance	Item-Total Correlation	Participation Rate[a]
CU	Ignored customers	1.68	1.22	1.49	.66	30.4
LI	Put a customer on hold for a long period of time when taking reservations or to-go orders	1.64	1.23	1.51	.45	29.2
CO	Created drama about colleagues	1.57	1.09	1.19	.40	29.2
CU	Disregarded food and/or beverage quality standards	1.54	1.21	1.46	.56	22.1
RE	Used illegal drugs before and/or during shifts	1.54	1.42	2.02	.34	15.8
LI	Dragged out work in order to get overtime	1.48	1.09	1.19	.41	20.2
RE	Stopped serving food earlier than regular hours	1.47	1.07	1.14	.22	20.7
CU	Yelled at customers and/or colleagues	1.42	.90	.81[x]	.47	23.3
CU	Given or served with unclean utensils	1.33	.96	.92[x]	.51	13.9
CO	Encouraged other employees to dislike a colleague	1.32	.89	.79[x]	.43	15.2
CO	Argued with other waitstaff to serve customers who tip well	1.31	.88	.77[x]	.35	14.2
LI	Adhered to rules excessively to delay the service to customers	1.27	.80	.64[x]	.46	13.6
RE	Entered wrong orders to eat and/or drink them later	1.25	.84	.71[x]	.24	11.1
LI	Hung up on a customer when taking reservations or to-go orders	1.21	.80	.64[x]	.34	8.5
LI	Disconnected a phone call when taking reservations or to-go orders	1.20	.70	.49[x]	.37	10.1
RE	Stormed out the restaurant	1.19	.59	.35[x]	.25	12.6
RE	Not shown up at work without notice (i.e., no call, no show)	1.15	.45	.20[x]	.01	12.5
CU	Served unsanitary food	1.14	.63	.40[x]	.39	5.8

Table 4.9 (Continued) Means, Standard Deviations, Variances, Item-Total Correlations, and Participation Rates of Restaurant Service Sabotage Behaviors (n = 419)

Item		*M*	*SD*	Variance	Item-Total Correlation	Participation Rate[a]
CU	Over-charged customers[b]	1.13	.54	.29[x]	.22	8.0
LI	Asked my colleagues to withdraw from providing high quality service to customers	1.10	.55	.30[x]	.34	4.5

Note. Response ranged from 1 (never) to 7 (daily). [a] Percentage of respondents who indicated that they had participated in the behavior at least once a year.
[b] Revised from "charged customers the wrong price" based on experts' comments. [x] Thirteen items removed from the initial list of 39.

Table 4.10 Principal Axis Factor Analysis (Promax with Kaiser Normalization)

Item	Factor Loadings		
	Factor 1	**Factor 2**	**Factor 3**
1. Made fun of a customer or group of customers behind their back	**.83**	-.03	.03
2. Complained about customers with colleagues	**.63**	.07	.08
3. Created drama about colleagues	**.53**	-.01	-.14
4. Acted rudely toward customers	**.51**	.05	.05
5. Made customers wait longer than usual	**.39**	-.04	.22
6. Provided the bare minimum amount of customer service	.01	**.79**	-.04
7. Completed the bare minimum amount of side jobs	.09	**.73**	-.07
8. Put a customer on hold for a long period of time when taking reservations or to-go orders	-.12	**.43**	.18
9. Spent too much time fantasizing, daydreaming, and/or playing with cell phone instead of working	.20	**.39**	.03
10. Disregarded food and/or beverage quality standards	.20	**.31**	.10
11. Given out free food and/or beverages without authorization	-.02	-.04	**.90**
12. Under-charged customers	.00	.07	**.64**
13. Snuck foods and/or beverages out of the restaurant	-.05	.34	**.36**
Eigenvalue	5.08	1.10	1.01
% variance explained (unrotated factors)	39.11	8.46	7.78
% variance explained (rotated factors)	35.14	4.47	3.51
Cronbach's alpha	.75	.74	.72

Note. KMO=.89; Bartlett's test: $\chi^2(78)=1587.02$ (p<.001). Rotation converged in 5 iterations. Numbers in boldface indicate dominant factor loadings.

Chapter 5 - Restaurant Service Sabotage Scale: Initial Validation

Abstract

The purpose of the study was to provide initial support to the reliability and construct validity of a restaurant service sabotage scale developed in a previous study. Guided by literature pertaining to scale validation, a quantitative approach using an online survey was applied to validate the scale. Non-managerial frontline employees in full-service restaurants were recruited from an online panel, and 463 usable responses were collected for data analyses. Confirmatory factor analyses (CFA), chi-square difference tests, bivariate correlation analyses, and simple linear regressions were used for data analyses using Amos and SPSS. Results of the CFA indicated a good model fit of the three-factor model, $x^2/df = 3.15$, GFI = .96, CFI = .97, NFI = .95, and RMSEA = .07 by reducing the scale items from 13 to 10 while supporting the scale's dimensionality. The chi-square difference tests also showed that the three-factor model fit significantly better than the alternative models (p < .05). Reliability tests showed acceptable internal consistency of the three factors in the scale (α ranged from .73 to .79). Results showed that convergent, discriminant, and criterion-related validity of the scale was fully supported (p < .05). This psychometrically valid and conceptually sound scale may be applied in future restaurant service sabotage research and may stimulate additional studies to advance the theory and explore the criterion network. This study also provides managerial implications for restaurant managers and owners in hiring and training. Limitations and suggestions for future research are discussed.

Keywords: restaurant service sabotage, scale validation, frontline employees

Introduction

In recent years, service sabotage, employees' intentional actions against the delivery of service or service standards (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002), has caught researcher's attention because of its high prevalence and considerable cost. Specifically, nearly 100% of frontline employees had observed service sabotage behaviors in the workplace (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002), and service sabotage costs U.S. firms billions of dollars annually (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fagbohungbe, Akinbode, & Ayodeji, 2012; Murphy, 1993). Furthermore, service sabotage significantly exacerbates service quality (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006). Because of these profound negative impact, several researchers had developed service sabotage scales in various segments of the service industry to explore its relationship with variables of interest (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki, van Jaarsveld, & Walker, 2008).

One major reason researchers needed to develop their own scales to measure service sabotage in different segments of the service industry may be because service sabotage is context-specific. In particular, in a call center setting, it only requires verbal communication between the service provider and the customers; however, both verbal and face-to-face communications are needed in a restaurant setting. Moreover, prolonged service contacts increase the likelihood of service sabotage (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). Given that the length of service contacts may vary greatly depending on the nature of the business (e.g., a service phone call may take a few minutes, but serving a table may take more than an hour), service saboteurs have developed different behaviors to sabotage service as espoused in previous research (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Harris & Ogbonna, 2006; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2008).

Although researchers have developed measures to gauge service sabotage in the overall hospitality industry (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006), the call center industry (Skarlicki et al., 2008),

and the lodging industry (Shao & Skarlicki, 2014), no such scale is available specifically for the restaurant industry. Considering the continuously growing restaurant industry, the uniqueness of restaurant service which is perishable and inseparable from service providers, and the extensive direct interactions between frontline employees and customers, there may be an urgent need to better understand and manage restaurant service sabotage. To bridge this gap, a restaurant service sabotage scale was developed, refined, and used to collect current status of restaurant service sabotage (unpublished data). However, to date, none of these scales have provided evidence for scale validation in publications. Therefore, the validity of the aforementioned measures is questionable.

The quality of research depends heavily on the tools that researchers develop to measure the construct (Churchill, 1979). To develop a reliable and valid restaurant service sabotage scale, the purpose of the study was to assess and establish reliability and construct validity of newly refined service sabotage scale. Two specific objectives were to:

1. validate the refined service sabotage scale (unpublished data) and

2. establish evidence for convergent, discriminant, and criterion-related validity.

The following review of literature consists of two parts. The first part focuses on the discussion of current measures related to service sabotage. The second part outlines the guidelines of the scale validation procedure. Implications and suggestions for future research are discussed and provided at the end of the paper.

Literature Review

Current Measures Related to Service Sabotage

One of the first scales related to service sabotage is the workplace deviance scale (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Although service sabotage and workplace deviance are

conceptually different wherein sabotage explicitly is targeted causing harm and deviance focuses on violating norms (Ambrose, Seabright, & Schminke, 2002), there are overlapping areas in the concepts, such as the voluntary nature of both behaviors and the negative impact of such misbehaviors. Therefore, it is insightful to take a closer look at workplace deviance scale (Bennett & Robinson).

Workplace deviance behavior scales contains 19 items anchoring on two dimensions: interpersonal deviance and organizational deviance. The workplace deviance measure was intended to be applicable to various industries, including service, manufacturing, government, and education.

It is notable that Robinson and Bennett (1995) categorized sabotage behaviors under property deviance, focusing on sabotage of physical equipment in the organization. However, the products offered in the restaurant industry include both tangible (e.g., food) and intangible (e.g., service) aspects, and therefore, property deviance cannot capture the full range of sabotage behaviors including service sabotage toward restaurant customers. Other than that, the workplace deviance scale covered a wide range of misbehaviors targeting members in the organization and the organization itself which is considered to be inclusive and detailed.

Unlike the multidimensional workplace deviance scale (Bennett & Robinson, 2000), the service sabotage scale is a unidimensional scale with nine items (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006). Harris and Ogbonna (2006) aimed to develop a measure to gauge service sabotage in the service industry, and they chose to conduct the study in the hospitality context (i.e., hotels, restaurants, and bars) because of the frequent service contacts between the customers and the employees. The intent was to capture misbehavior that disrupts service or service standards.

It is evident that Harris and Ogbonna (2006) recognized the critical role of customers during service encounters, because seven out of the nine behavioral items were explicitly targeting customers. Overall, their scale was pertaining to revenging on customers, changing the speed of service, breaking service standards, and saboteur's intention of engaging in such misbehaviors. While this scale focused on capturing the conceptual meaning of service sabotage, the scale items were neither specific nor contextualized for the restaurant industry.

Although Harris and Ogbonna (2006) used the scale to explore the relationships between service sabotage and other variables, the scale drew criticism for its ability to be applied to different segments in the service industries (e.g., Lee & Ok, 2014), contradicting to their original intent. In other words, the lack of specificity can be a potential drawback when using the service sabotage scale developed by Harris and Ogbonna.

Another service sabotage scale was developed based on applied critical incident technique and the guidelines for scale development to construct a customer-directed service sabotage scale in the call center context (Skarlicki et al., 2008). Similar to the scale developed by Harris and Ogbonna (2006), their scale also focused on the interactions between the customers and customer service representatives in call centers. Because of the unique characteristics of call centers where there are no way to measure service sabotage toward colleagues or the call center property, the application of this scale to the restaurant context is limited. In short, the scale developed by Skarlicki et al. is specific and contextualized, which is applicable to research in the call center context, but is not appropriate for other settings.

The last service sabotage scale that may be applied in hospitality context is the three-item scale developed by Shao and Skarlicki (2014) based on responses of service staff who was mistreated by customers in the hotel context. Initially, focus group yielded 17 behavior items, but

only three survived after the expert review and statistical procedure for scale development. Although the content validity of the three-item scale was established, it is questionable how much variance and how many types of hotel service sabotage can be explained by such a limited number of items.

The restaurant industry is unique that it requires extensive direct interactions between the frontline employees and the customers. Although the work environment can be unfavorable with relatively little pay, restaurant frontline employees are expected to smile and provide attentive service to the customers (i.e., they are the face of the restaurants). Moreover, it was found that suppressing true feelings may cause emotional dissonance which leads to service sabotage (Lee & Ok, 2014). Considering its characteristics, none of the previously mentioned organizational misbehavior or service sabotage scales are adequate for the restaurant industry. Therefore, there is an urgent need for developing a context-specific scale to gauge service sabotage in the restaurant industry.

To sum up, the general context assumption may contradict the nature of service sabotage, in which misbehaviors vary greatly in different segments in the service industry as discussed above. This may be the reason why researchers preferred to construct their own scales to gauge service sabotage instead of adapting currently available scales (e.g., Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2008). Therefore, developing a restaurant service sabotage scale that is context specific is a viable solution to advance and stimulate research in restaurant service sabotage. However, this effort requires following rigorous steps, including development, refinement, and validation of a scale. Although the restaurant service sabotage scale has been developed and refined, it is critical to validate the scale to construct reliability and validity of the scale.

The Guidelines of Scale Validation

Table 5.1 summarizes the guidelines of scale validation (Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 2012; Hinkin, Tracy, & Enz, 1997). Overall, both the guidelines of scale validation suggested by DeVellis and Hinkin et al. are similar to Churchill's work. Based on previous research, the critical procedures for scale validation involved administering the refined scale to a new sample, followed by evaluating reliability and validity. Previous researchers cautioned scale developers to pay attention to the number of items included in the scale because it may inflate the reliability of the scale (i.e., more items tend to increase the reliability).

[INSERT TABLE 5.1 HERE]

However, there should be a balance between high reliability and parsimony of the scale, which helps scale developers to make better decisions in dropping or retaining scale items. Furthermore, scale validation is a continuous process that may require several replications of the study to provide sufficient evidence of a scale's reliability and validity. Therefore, this study was developed to begin the validation procedures for the restaurant service sabotage scale (unpublished data).

Methodology

The goal of the study was to provide initial support to establish reliability and construct validity of the restaurant service sabotage scale developed in a previous study (unpublished data). Dimensionality as well as convergent, discriminant, and criterion-related validity were assessed guided by previous literature pertaining to scale validation (Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 2012; Hinkin et al., 1997). This study used the following procedure to validate the refined scale: (a) administering the refined scale, (b) conducting confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), (c) assessing convergent and discriminant validity, and (d) assessing criterion-related validity.

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Sample Selection

The target population was non-managerial frontline employees who work in full-service restaurants in the U.S. which was consistent with the population used to develop and refine the initial restaurant service sabotage scale. Employees working in limited-service restaurants were excluded from the sample because the interactions between employees and customers were limited. To maintain the level of factorability and an adequate sample size to perform CFA, the sample size was determined to be 300 or more (Comrey & Lee, 1992; Meyers, Gamst, & Guarino, 2013). Due to extra funding available, it was determined to recruit 400 participants to ensure that the amount of responses was sufficient for scale validation.

Instrument Development

Table 5.2 summarizes the scales and questions used to develop the survey instrument. The first part was screening questions to ensure respondents' eligibility to participate in the research. The second part asked about work characteristics followed by the main scale of interest, the restaurant service sabotage behavior scale.

[INSERT TABLE 5.2 HERE]

Previous literature cautioned for social desirability bias in behavioral research (DeVellis, 2012). To control for this bias, revised Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Reynolds, 1982) was included in the fourth section of the instrument. This scale was found reliable and valid with approximately one third of the items in the original scale (e.g., I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me).

To establish evidence for a scale's convergent and discriminant validity, the following measures were included in parts five to seven of the instrument: workplace deviance as similar behaviors to service sabotage behaviors (e.g., played a mean prank on someone at work)

(Bennett & Robinson, 2000); customer mistreatment as theoretically related behaviors (e.g., [the customer] criticized you in front of your colleagues or supervisors) (Shao & Skarlicki, 2014); employee voice as the dissimilar behaviors (e.g., I speak up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures) (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).

To assess criterion-related validity, four measures were included in parts eight to 11 of the instrument. They are employee self-esteem (e.g., I have a great deal of self-respect) (Oliver & Bearden, 1985), perception of team spirit (e.g., working at my work is like being part of a big family) (Jaworski & Kohki, 1993), perception of employee–customer rapport (e.g., I have harmonious relationship with customers) (Gremler & Gwinner, 2000), and perception of functional quality (e.g., employees at my work go out of their way to reduce inconvenience for customers) (Lytle, Hom, & Mokwa, 1998).

Finally, questions inquiring respondents' demographics were added in the last part of the instrument. All measures were rated on a 7-point Liker-type scale, except for customer mistreatment (5-point Likert-type scale) and social desirability measurements (yes/no questions). This design served as a procedural remedy to reduce the influence of common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) due to self-administered survey.

The survey instrument was revised and converted to online format using the Qualtrics survey system after expert review to ensure content validity. Prior to formal data collection, 30 non-managerial frontline employees in full-service restaurants were recruited from an online panel for pilot-testing. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients of all measures used in the survey instrument were greater than .70 (Nunnally, 1978), showing the instrument's reliability and usability.

Data Collection

For the purpose of scale validation, it is critical to gather a new set of samples (Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 2012; Hinkin et al., 1997). Therefore, participants were recruited from an online panel by using Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). It is notable that each researcher using MTurk has access to a pool of approximately 7,300 respondents (Stewart et al., 2015). The researchers posted the information about the online survey on the MTurk marketplace, such as purpose and length of the survey, and the amount of compensation. Interested panel members were directed to the online survey if they accepted the research invitation. Those who completed the survey were given a unique 7-digit code at the end of the survey to receive compensation through MTurk.

To ensure data quality, three attention check questions were included in the middle of the survey. Respondents who failed to pass the attention check questions were not able to complete the survey and their data were excluded from the sample. Furthermore, screening questions and completion time control (i.e., responses finished in less than 1/3 of average time for completing the pilot study were removed) were employed in the data collection process. Formal data collection was conducted between June 19 and July 4, 2017 and was completed when the target of 400 completed survey responses were collected.

Data Analysis

CFA was performed using IBM SPSS Amos Version 22 to evaluate the fitness of the measurement model and dimensionality of the validating scale (DeVellis, 2012; Hinkin et al., 1997). Specifically, model fit was evaluated based on the computation of fit indices, including the ratio between x^2 and df, comparative fit index (CFI), normed fit index (NFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and goodness of fit index (GFI) (Meyers et al., 2013).

To ensure that the model structure in the validating scale fit better than the alternative models, the chi-square difference tests were conducted to provide support.

Reliability and construct validity was assessed using IBM SPSS Version 24. To assess convergent and discriminant validity of the validating scale, bivariate correlation analyses between restaurant service sabotage, workplace deviance, customer mistreatment, and employee voice were conducted (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). The correlation between the validating scale and workplace deviance should be significant and strong. The correlation between the validating scale and customer mistreatment should be significant and moderate. In contrast, the correlation between the validating scale and employee voice should be insignificant and weak, as conceptually, there is no anticipated correlation between these two constructs. Furthermore, average variance extracted values for restaurant service sabotage, workplace deviance, customer mistreatment, and employee voice were computed to verify convergent and discriminant validity (Fornell & Larker, 1981).

To provide support for criterion-related validity, four simple linear regression models were developed. Empirical evidence suggested that service sabotage had a significant influence on frontline employees' self-esteem, perceived team spirit, perceived employee-customer rapport, and perceived functional quality (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006). Therefore, the aforementioned four variables were used as dependent variables, and restaurant service sabotage was entered as the independent variable to show predictability. Each dependent variable was expected to be significantly predicted by the restaurant service sabotage scale; if so, the restaurant service sabotage scale is a valid measure to gauge the construct, and the scale's criterion-related validity is supported (Schwab, 2005).

Results and Discussion

A total of 1,491 participants entered the first page of the online survey. Of those, the researcher screened out or excluded 1,028 participants because each individual (a) did not provide consent to enter the survey (n = 5), (b) was under 18 years of age (n = 1), (c) was not employed in the U.S. (n = 481), (d) did not work as a frontline employee (n = 35), (e) had more than 50% managerial responsibilities (n = 321), (f) did not work in full-service restaurants (n = 47), (g) did not pass the attention check questions (n = 16), (h) completed the survey in less than 1/3 of the average time for completing the pilot study (n =4), or (i) never finished the survey (n = 118). A total 463 usable responses (31.1%) were included in statistical analyses.

Participant Profile

Survey participants' characteristics are summarized in Table 5.3. Most participants were between 18 and 29 years old (n = 239, 51.6%). A vast majority of participants were Caucasian (n = 362, 76.4%), and most had a bachelor's degree (n = 193, 41.7%). Most participants had worked for their current employers for three years or less (n = 293, 63.4%), 357 (77.1%) worked in casual dining restaurants, and 258 (55.7%) worked at chain restaurants. The majority of participants were wait staff (n = 329, 71.1%) received tips of 16%–20% of the check (n = 212, 45.8%), and worked 31–40 hours per week (n = 182, 39.3%).

[INSERT TABLE 5.3 HERE]

Harman's Single-Factor Test

Due to the sensitive nature of this study, the survey was self-administered online to ensure anonymity. However, the potential drawback was the common method bias because responses were collected from the same source (Podsakoff et al., 2003). To ensure that the study results were not significantly influenced by common method variance (CMV), Harman's single-

factor test was performed prior to the main analyses. Results revealed that one single factor did not explain most of the variance (37.42%), indicating that study samples were not significantly affected by CMV.

Descriptive Statistics of Restaurant Service Sabotage Behaviors

Means, standard deviations, and participation rates for the 13 restaurant service sabotage behavioral items are provided in Table 5.4. The mean scores of all items ranged from 1.75 to 3.64 on a 7-point behavior frequency scale. Seven were targeting customers, three targeting colleagues, and another three targeting restaurants. "Complained about customers with colleagues" was occurred most frequently with the highest mean scores ($M = 3.64$, $SD = 2.17$), followed by "Completed the bare minimum amount of side jobs" ($M = 2.97$, $SD = 1.74$), and "Made fun of a customer or group of customers behind their back" ($M = 2.97$, $SD = 1.94$). The top five most prevalent sabotage behaviors affected all usual targets of sabotage behaviors (i.e., customers, colleagues, and restaurants). These results show that, managers and owners need to be vigilant when managing restaurant service sabotage. It may not be sufficient to focus on only one type of sabotage behaviors, and it may be necessary and wise for managers to have a holistic view of restaurant service sabotage behaviors from multiple angles.

[INSERT TABLE 5.4 HERE]

The percentage of respondents who indicated that they had participated in restaurant service sabotage behavior at least once a year (i.e., participation rate) ranged from 30% to 69.3% for all items. More than half of the participants admitted to engaging in seven of the 13 sabotage behaviors, with the highest being "Complained about customers with colleagues" (69.3%).

Dimensionality and Reliability Assessment

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to assess the dimensionality of the three-factor, 13-item restaurant service sabotage scale. The CFA results showed a moderate fit for the three-factor model, $x^2/df = 5.21$, GFI = .88, CFI = .89, NFI = .87, and RMSEA = .10 (Meyers et al., 2013). However, the factor loadings, the modification indices, and standardized residuals suggested that a better fit could be obtained by excluding three problematic items. Thus, "Created drama about colleagues" in Factor 1, and "Disregarded food and/or beverage quality standards" and "Put a customer on hold for a long period of time when taking reservations or to-go orders" in Factor 2 were deleted. Removing these three items improved the model fit indices, $x^2/df = 3.15$, GFI = .96, CFI = .97, NFI = .95, and RMSEA = .07, indicating a good model fit to the data (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The improved CFA model is shown in Figure 5.1. Factor 1 was labeled as "customer relations/treatment," Factor 2 as "passive aggression," and Factor 3 as "personal gain." The three factors showed acceptable internal consistency, with Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .75, .79, and .73 for factors 1 through 3, respectively (Nunnally, 1978).

[INSERT FIGURE 5.1 HERE]

To ensure that the three-factor model better represents the restaurant service sabotage scale, the researcher compared the three-factor model with the alternative models. As shown in Table 5.5, fit indices in alternative models were worse than in the three-factor model. Furthermore, chi-square difference tests suggested the three-factor model fit significantly better than the two-factor model, $\Delta x^2(\Delta df) = 80.86(4)$, and the one-factor model, $\Delta x^2(\Delta df) = 181.27(7)$ when p = .05. Therefore, the three-factor model was deemed appropriate and preferred.

[INSERT TABLE 5.5 HERE]

Convergent and Discriminant Validity Assessment

Means, standard deviations, bivariate correlations between the study variables, and Cronbach's alphas are provided in Table 5.6. Following Bennett and Robinson's (2000) approach to establishing evidence for convergent and discriminant validity for the validating scale, the correlation between restaurant service sabotage and workplace deviance (i.e., similar behavior) was strong and significant ($r =. 81$, $p < .01$), supporting convergent validity because the two scales were measuring a similar construct. Furthermore, the correlation between restaurant service sabotage and customer mistreatment (i.e., theoretically related behavior) was moderate and significant ($r = .44$, $p < .01$). In comparison, the correlation between restaurant service sabotage and employee voice (i.e., dissimilar behavior) was weak and not significant ($r = -.06$, $p = .25$), providing support for discriminant validity. Average variance extracted (AVE) was calculated to verify results derived from bivariate correlation analyses. AVE values were .80, .50, .64, and .75 for restaurant service sabotage, workplace deviance, customer mistreatment, and employee voice respectively, all of which reached the threshold of .50, confirming convergent and discriminant validity (Fornell & Larker, 1981).

[INSERT TABLE 5.6 HERE]

Criterion-Related Validity Assessment

As shown in Table 5.7, criterion-related validity was supported because the associations between restaurant service sabotage and criterion-related variables were all significant (self-esteem: $\beta = -.21$, $p < .01$; team spirit: $\beta = -.21$, $p < .01$; employee-customer rapport: $\beta = -.29$, $p < .01$; functional quality: $\beta = -.31$, $p < .01$).

[INSERT TABLE 5.7 HERE]

Conclusion and Implications

The purpose of the study was to validate the restaurant service sabotage scale (unpublished data). Specifically, this study aimed to provide initial support for the scale's reliability, and construct validity. Results from the CFA verified the scale's dimensionality and reduced scale items from 13 to 10. Chi-square difference tests also provided support for the structure of the CFA model. Fit indices were all above the conventional cutoff criteria, showing good model fit. Therefore, the dimensionality of the restaurant service sabotage scale was supported.

Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the three factors in the scale were all above the cutoff point of .70, showing the scale's internal consistency. Thus, the scale's reliability was supported. Furthermore, the scale's convergent and discriminant validity were supported by computing bivariate correlations and average variance extracted values. Finally, the restaurant service sabotage scale significantly predicted four criterion-related variables, validating its criterion-related validity.

Theoretical Implications

This study yields important theoretical implications for scholars. First, this study provides initial validation for the restaurant service sabotage scale, which can be applied to future sabotage studies in the restaurant industry. This work represents one of the first attempts to develop and validate a service sabotage scale specifically for the restaurant industry, echoing that service sabotage behaviors are context-specific, as espoused in previous studies (Lee & Ok, 2014; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2008). It is expected that this psychometrically valid scale can stimulate additional studies to advance the theory of service sabotage and explore the criterion network.

Second, this validated scale is a multidimensional scale with three factors, which is more likely to yield rich insights in explaining restaurant service sabotage behaviors. Given that all currently available service sabotage scales are unidimensional (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2008), this multidimensional scale provides a clear path leading to three important categories of restaurant service sabotage behaviors. Moreover, scale items in Factor 2 (passive-aggression) and Factor 3 (personal gain) are very relevant to restaurant operations. Thus, these two factors may gauge well the service sabotage that only occurs in the restaurant industry.

Managerial Implications

This study also provides managerial implications for restaurant managers and owners. The 10 items included in the final restaurant service sabotage scale are the most representable indicators predicting restaurant service sabotage. Managers can use these behavioral items as an informative reference to train supervisors, team leaders, and frontline employees to look for restaurant service sabotage so that managers may manage early before more damages occur. It is notable that restaurant service sabotage not only targets customers, but colleagues and the restaurant itself can also become the victim of such misbehaviors. Therefore, the scale may raise the awareness of restaurant service sabotage. Managing restaurant service sabotage early may greatly help managers save time and resources, reducing the cost of service sabotage.

The three-factor model generates insights in training. In particular, managers may initiate training programs and/or responding plans toward customer relations/treatment, passive aggression, and personal gain. Different sabotage behavior groups may have different causes and motives, and restaurant service sabotage behaviors are heterogeneous. Restaurant managers should aim to recognize the variation of sabotage behaviors and try to differentiate them to

effectively manage such negative employee behaviors. This scale can be a more accurate assessment tool for detecting restaurant sabotage behaviors.

Limitations and Future Research

Although stringent research protocols were followed for instrument validation, several limitations should be addressed that also provide opportunities for future research. The generalizability of this scale can be limited because this study focused on service sabotage in full-service restaurants. The scale and the study results may not be applicable to other restaurant segments, such as fast-casual or quick service restaurants where server-client interactions are limited. Furthermore, all data were collected in the U.S., where tipping is a norm, targeting frontline employees. Therefore, the study results may not be generalized to other countries or cultural contexts, and the scale may not be applicable in other countries/regions.

This study collected data online to ensure participants' anonymity so they could answer sensitive questions more freely in a less stressful environment. However, online data collection also excluded potential participants who may not be online from taking the survey. Future research may also incorporate paper-based survey to increase the participant base.

Furthermore, this study used a cross-sectional design and collected all data at the same time point. Future research may collect time-lagged data to determine if the relationships between restaurant service sabotage and its criterion-related variables change overtime.

Finally, the study provided initial support for instrument validation. Further research is needed for the continuous validation assessment of the restaurant service sabotage scale by examining the scale's ability to explain other criterion-related variables and to ensure and/or improve the generalizability of the factor identification with new samples and settings.

Acknowledgement

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Table 5.1 Guidelines for Scale Validation

	DeVellis (2012)	Hinkin et al. (1997)	Churchill (1979)
Step 1	Administer items to a new sample	Internal consistency assessment	Collect data
Step 2	Evaluate the items	Construct validity	Assess reliability
Step 3	Optimize scale length	Replication	Assess validity
Step 4	N/A	N/A	Develop norms

Table 5.2 Structure of Online Survey

Purposes	Questions / Scales
Screening and background information	1. Screening questions
	2. Work characteristics
Main scale of interest	3. Restaurant service sabotage
Scales for constructing convergent and discriminant validity	4. Social desirability (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960)
	5. Workplace deviance (Bennett & Robinson, 2000)
	6. Customer mistreatment (Shao & Skarlicki, 2014)
	7. Employee voice behavior (Van Dyne & LePine, 1998).
Scales for establishing criterion-related validity	8. Employees' self-esteem (Oliver & Bearden, 1985)
	9. Employees' perception of team spirit (Jaworski & Kohki, 1993)
	10. Employees' perception of employee-customer rapport (Gremler & Gwinner, 2000)
	11. Employees' perception of functional quality (Lytle et al. 1998)
Background information	12. Personal demographic information

Table 5.3 Characteristics of Survey Participants (n = 463)

Characteristic	n	%
Age		
18 – 29 years	239	51.6
30 – 39 years	165	35.6
40 – 49 years	34	7.3
50 – 59 years	18	3.9
60 years or older	7	1.5
Gender		
Female	229	49.5
Male	233	50.3
Prefer not to disclose	1	0.2
Ethnicity[a]		
White / Caucasian	362	76.4
African American	43	9.1
Hispanic	29	6.1
Asian	28	5.9
Native American	5	1.1
Other	7	1.5
Education		
High school diploma or GED	49	10.6
Some college	149	32.2
Associate's degree	45	9.7
Bachelor's degree	193	41.7
Advanced or professional degree beyond college degree	27	5.8
Years with current employer[b]		
3 or less	293	63.4
4 – 6 years	120	26.0
7 – 9 years	27	5.8
10 – 12 years	15	3.2
13 years or more	7	1.5
Restaurant segment		
Fine dining	106	22.9
Casual dining	357	77.1

Table 5.3 (Continued) Characteristics of Survey Participants (n = 463)

Characteristic	n	%
Operation type		
Chain restaurant	258	55.7
Independent restaurant	204	44.1
Other	1	0.2
Position		
Waiter/waitress	329	71.1
Bartender	91	19.7
Host/hostess	3	0.6
Other	40	8.6
Average amount of tips received		
10% or less	48	10.4
11% − 15%	132	28.5
16% − 20%	212	45.8
21% − 25%	54	11.7
26% − 30%	10	2.2
31% or more	1	0.2
Other	6	1.3
Hours of working every week		
10 hours or less	17	3.7
11 − 20 hours	89	19.2
21 − 30 hours	126	27.2
31 − 40 hours	182	39.3
41 hours or more	49	10.6

Note. [a] The total number of responses exceeds (n = 463) due to multiple responses. [b] The total number of responses falls behind (n = 463) due to one missing value.

Table 5.4 Means, Standard Deviations, and Participation Rates of Restaurant Service Sabotage Behaviors (n = 404)

Item		M	SD	Participation Rate[a]
CO.	Complained about customers with colleagues	3.64	2.17	69.3
CO.	Completed the bare minimum amount of side jobs	2.97	1.74	66.5
CU.	Provided the bare minimum amount of customer service	2.77	1.61	66.1
CU.	Made fun of a customer or group of customers behind their back	2.97	1.94	61.6
RE.	Given out free food and/or beverages without authorization	2.63	1.62	60.0
LI.	Spent too much time fantasizing, daydreaming, and/or playing with cell phone instead of working	2.60	1.80	54.0
CU.	Acted rudely toward customers	2.12	1.37	50.8
CU.	Under-charged customers	2.37	1.63	48.8
CU.	Made customers wait longer than usual	2.09	1.54	41.3
RE.	Snuck foods and/or beverages out of the restaurant	2.15	1.68	39.3
LI.	Put a customer on hold for a long period of time when taking reservations or to-go orders	2.00	1.51	36.3
CO.	Created drama about colleagues	1.75	1.28	34.1
CU.	Disregarded food and/or beverage quality standards	1.75	1.34	30.0

Note. Response ranged from 1 (*never*) to 7 (*daily*). [a] Percentage of respondents who indicated that they had participated in the behavior at least once a year. CO=targeting colleagues; CU=targeting customers; RE=targeting restaurants; LI=derived from extant literature.

Table 5.5 Model Comparisons for Dimensionality

Models	x^2	df	x^2/df	$\Delta x^2(\Delta df)$	GFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA
Three-factor model (confirmatory)	88.13	28	3.15	-	.96	.97	.95	.07
Two-factor model	168.99	32	5.28	80.86(4)[*]	.92	.93	.91	.10
One-factor model	269.95	35	7.71	181.82(7)[*]	.88	.87	.86	.13

Note. GFI = goodness of fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; NFI = normed fit index; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation. [*] Significant at the .05 level.

Table 5.6 Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Correlations (n = 404).

Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Control Variable												
1 Social desirability	.56	.30	(.76)									
2 Service Sabotage	3.16	1.14	.37**	(.85)								
Main Variable												
3 Restaurant Service Sabotage	2.61	1.20	.45**	.47**	(.89)							
Similar Behavior												
4 Workplace Deviance	2.01	.99	.44**	.53**	.81**	(.93)						
Theoretically Related Behavior												
5 Customer Mistreatment	2.37	.95	.27**	.39**	.44**	.42**	(.89)					
Dissimilar Behavior												
6 Employee Voice	4.62	1.37	-.09	-.19**	-.06	-.09	.06	(.94)				
Criterion-Related Variable												
7 Self-Esteem	5.11	1.21	-.27**	-.40**	-.21**	-.29**	-.10*	.35**	(.84)			
8 Team Spirit	4.61	1.23	-.18**	-.43**	-.21**	-.24**	-.12**	.47**	.45**	(.89)		
9 Employee-Customer Rapport	5.07	1.11	-.27**	-.44**	-.29**	-.29**	-.17**	.46**	.55**	.55**	(.88)	
10 Functional Quality	4.79	1.22	-.18**	-.50**	-.31**	-.27**	-.20**	.39**	.43**	.65**	.60**	(.86)

Note: Variables were measured on a 7-point Likert-type scale, except customer mistreatment was measured on a 5-point scale and social desirability was measured using yes (1) or no (0) questions. Coefficient alphas are reported along the diagonal in parentheses. *M* = mean; *SD* = standard deviation. ** p<.01 (2-tailed).

Table 5.7 Simple Linear Regression Models (n = 404)

	Criterion-related Variables			
	Self-Esteem	Team Spirit	Employee-Customer Rapport	Functional Quality
Restaurant Service Sabotage	-.21**	-.21**	-.29**	-.31**
R^2	.05	.04	.08	.10

Note. Beta presented in the table are standardized coefficients. ** $p<.01$.

Figure 5.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Made fun of a customer or group of customers behind their back	.70
Complained about customers with colleagues	.64
Acted rudely toward customers	.64
Made customers wait longer than usual	.57
Provided the bare minimum amount of customer service	.90
Completed the bare minimum amount of side jobs	.83
Spent too much time fantasizing, daydreaming, and/or playing with cell phone instead of working	.65
Given out free food and/or beverages without authorization	.85
Under-charged customers	.70
Snuck foods and/or beverages out of the restaurant	.60

Customer Relations/ Treatment

Passive Aggression

Personal Gain

.93

.74

.78

Chapter 6 - Summary and Conclusions

The purpose of this dissertation was to develop a reliable and valid scale to measure restaurant service sabotage behaviors. A mixed methods research design was applied, consisting of three phases: instrument development, instrument refinement, and instrument validation. A qualitative study (i.e., restaurant employee interviews) was conducted to explore restaurant service sabotage behaviors, followed by two quantitative studies (i.e., online surveys) with two different groups of non-managerial frontline employees working in full service restaurants in the U.S. to refine and validate the scale. This chapter summarizes the important findings identified in each phase of the study, discusses theoretical and practical implications, points out the limitations, and provides suggestions for future research.

Summary of Research

Service sabotage, employees' intentional actions that negatively influence service or service standards (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002), has caught researchers' attention in recent years because of its prevalence, cost, and impact on the service industry. Nearly 100% of frontline employees had witnessed service sabotage in the workplace, and 85% admitted that they had engaged in such misbehaviors (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). It was estimated that service sabotage costs U.S. firms billions of dollars every year (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fagbohungbe, Akinbode, & Ayodeji, 2012; Murphy, 1993). Furthermore, service sabotage had significantly diminishes service quality (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006).

Over time, researchers have developed different scales to gauge service sabotage in various segments of the service industry, including overall hospitality organizations (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002), call centers (Skarlicki, van Jaarsveld, & Walker, 2008), and hotels (Shao & Skarlicki, 2014). Service sabotage behaviors are context-specific and vary greatly depending on

the nature of the business. For example, the form of employee-customer interactions (e.g., face-to-face or verbal only), the length of the service contacts (e.g., limited or prolonged), and the nature of the products (e.g., tangible, intangible, or both) may make differences when identifying specific service sabotage behaviors.

To date, none of the aforementioned measures were developed specifically for the restaurant industry, and little has been discovered pertaining to restaurant service sabotage behaviors. Given the profound negative impact of service sabotage on the service industry, it is imperative to explore service sabotage behaviors in the restaurant industry and to develop a measure to gauge these behaviors. Therefore, the purpose of the study was to develop a reliable and valid scale to measure restaurant service sabotage behaviors by conducting in-depth interviews with employees in full-service restaurants (n = 26) and two self-administered surveys with non-managerial frontline employees in full-service restaurants for scale refinement (n = 419) and validation (n = 463).

The specific objectives for restaurant employee interviews (Phase I: instrument development) were to (a) explore explicit types of service sabotage behaviors in the restaurant industry and (b) generate an item pool to form the initial restaurant service sabotage instrument. The specific objectives for the first restaurant non-managerial frontline employee survey (Phase II: instrument refinement) were to (a) evaluate the performance of the initial sabotage behavior instrument and (b) refine the initial instrument into a multidimensional service sabotage scale. Finally, the specific objectives for the second restaurant non-managerial frontline employee survey (Phase III: instrument validation) were to (a) validate the refined service sabotage scale and (b) establish evidence for convergent, discriminant, and criterion-related validity of the

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service sabotage scale. Summaries of important findings in the qualitative and quantitative studies are presented below.

Qualitative Study: Restaurant Employee Interviews

In-depth interviews with employees in full-service restaurants were conducted between February and March, 2017 to explore restaurant service sabotages. Thirteen wait staff, two hosts/hostesses, three line cooks, and eight managers from both chain-operated and independently-owned restaurants were interviewed. The interviews ranged from 13 to 40 minutes (average length = 22.3 minutes). The following section summarizes the major findings to answer research questions.

Research Question 1: Who are the targets of the service sabotage behaviors?

When interviewees were asked to recall a colleague who engaged in service sabotage in the restaurants, they could always clearly point out the saboteurs and the target of their misbehavior. The targets that the interviewees shared were the customers, the colleagues, and the restaurants that they work for. These three targets inclusively covered the parties involved in the restaurant service sabotage incidents in addition to the saboteurs themselves which is consistent with previous research (Browning, 2008; Harris & Ogbonna, 2002; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Of all 28 types of restaurant service sabotage behaviors identified in the qualitative study, 13 targeted the customers (46.4%), five targeted the colleagues (17.9%), and 10 targeted the restaurants (35.7%).

Research Question 2: What are the explicit types of service sabotage behaviors in the restaurant industry?

The data analysis was guided by critical incident technique (CIT). A total of 243 critical incidents were identified after open-coding, and 18 incidents did not pass the researcher's review

(e.g., could not judge if the misbehavior was done deliberately) and was excluded from further

analysis. As a result, 225 remaining critical incidents were categorized into 28 specific types of

restaurant service sabotage behaviors and rewritten into behavioral items. Because the study's

purpose was to develop a scale, all behavioral items were formatted in the same structure: "I

have intentionally…" followed by each behavioral item (Table 6.1).

Table 6.1 Types of Restaurant Service Sabotage Behaviors

Behavior Groups	Specific Behaviors
Targeting customers	1. Acted rudely toward customers
	2. Served contaminated food
	3. Served contaminated utensils
	4. Disregarded food and/or beverage quality standards
	5. Performed the bare minimum customer service standards
	6. Charged customers the wrong price
	7. Ignored customers
	8. Lied to customers
	9. Made fun of customers behind their back
	10. Rushed customers
	11. Made customers wait longer
	12. Treated customers sarcastically
	13. Yelled at customers and/or colleagues
Targeting colleagues	14. Created drama about colleagues
	15. Completed the bare minimum amount of side jobs
	16. Encouraged other waitstaff to dislike a colleague
	17. Complained about customers with colleagues
	18. Argued with other waitstaff to serve customers who tip well

Table 6.1 (Continued) Types of Restaurant Service Sabotage Behaviors

Behavior Groups	Specific Behaviors
Targeting restaurants	19. Stopped serving food earlier than regular hours
	20. Not shown up at work without notice
	21. Given out free food and/or beverages
	22. Not checked a customer's ID when selling alcoholic beverages
	23. Entered wrong orders to eat and/or drink them later
	24. Simplified and/or omitted service procedures so that it was easier for me
	25. Snuck foods and/or beverages out of the operation for my personal benefit
	26. Stormed out the restaurant
	27. Used illegal drugs before and/or during shifts
	28. Taken extra time for breaks

Quantitative Study: Restaurant Non-Managerial Frontline Employee Surveys

The target population was non-managerial frontline employees in full-service restaurants in the U.S. Two bouts of data collection were conducted to refine and validate the restaurant service sabotage scale. Specifically, the first data collection (n = 419) was completed between May 31 and June 8, 2017 by hiring a professional research company, Qualtrics; the second data collection (n = 463) was completed between June 19 and July 4, 2017 by using Amazon Mechanical Turk. Participants of both quantitative surveys were mostly representative of the frontline restaurant staff.

Research Question 3: How often do restaurant service sabotage behaviors occur?

The restaurant service sabotage behaviors were rated on a 7-point behavior frequency scale, 1 (*never*), 2 (*once a year*), 3 (*twice a year*), 4 (*several times a year*), 5 (*monthly*), 6 (*weekly*), and 7 (*daily*). In the first survey, the mean scores of the top 10 most frequent behavioral items ranged from 2.23 to 4.10 whereas the top 10 mean scores ranged from 2.15 to

3.64 in the second survey. In other words, on average, most prevalent restaurant service sabotage behaviors took place once to twice a year. Of those, "complained about customers with colleagues" was the most prevalent service sabotage behavior in both surveys (First survey: 4.10±2.07; second survey: 3.64±2.17), indicating it occurred almost several times a year. It is notable that even one single restaurant service sabotage event can significantly hurt a restaurant if disclosed by media (e.g., the Domino's Pizza crisis) (Clifford, 2009). Even though on average, the service sabotage behaviors do not occur very frequently, the negative impact of restaurant service sabotage cannot be overlooked. It is also noteworthy that 80.4% of first survey respondents and 69.3% of second survey respondents have engaged in at least one service sabotage behavior, and more than 50% of first survey respondents admitted to conduct eight different types of service sabotage behaviors every year where as 50% of second survey respondents confessed to engage in seven service sabotage behaviors annually.

Research Question 4: What are the dimensions of the restaurant service sabotage scale?

Three dimensions of the restaurant sabotage scale were identified. Ten restaurant sabotage behaviors were grouped into "customer relations/treatment," the second "passive aggression," and the third "personal gain" related. The summary of procedures followed when identifying these three dimensions are described below.

A series of principal axis factorings with promax rotation was performed (wave one data) to explore the data structure and refine the scale. All Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin values exceeded .89, and Bartlett's tests of sphericity were significant ($p < .001$) in all five exploratory factor analysis (EFA), indicating good factorability of the data. A three-factor model with 13 items was extracted from the data in the fifth EFA, explaining 43.1% of the variance. Eigenvalues of the three factors were all greater than one, and the scree plot also showed that the three factors were

above the inflection point (i.e., elbow), supporting the representativeness and appropriateness of the three-factor model.

Confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) with maximum likelihood estimation were conducted using a new set of sample (wave two data) to verify the data structure and validate the scale's dimensionality. Results from the first and second CFAs culminated to three factor scale with 10 items. All criteria for model fit were adequately met according to Meyers, Gamst, and Guarino (2013). The model fit was improved for the second CFA after excluding three items according to the results of the factor loadings, the modification indices, and standardized residuals in the first CFA. The factor loadings of the remaining 10 items ranged from .57 to .90, all exceeding the .50 threshold (Kline, 2011). Based on the content of questions, Factor 1 was labeled as "customer relations/treatment," Factor 2 as "passive aggression," and Factor 3 as "personal gain" to represent the items in each of the three factors. The items in Factor 2 and Factor 3 were context-specific and relevant to restaurant operations compared to existing service sabotage scales (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2008).

To ensure that the three-factor model was significantly better than the alternative models, chi-square difference tests were conducted. Results indicated that the three-factor model fit the data better than the two-factor model ($\Delta x^2 (\Delta df) = 80.86(4)$, p < .05) and the single-factor model ($\Delta x^2 (\Delta df) = 181.27(7)$, p = .05). Therefore, the dimensionality (i.e., three dimensions with 10 items) of the restaurant service sabotage scale was confirmed and supported (Figure 6.1)

Figure 6.1 Dimensionality of the Restaurant Service Sabotage Scale
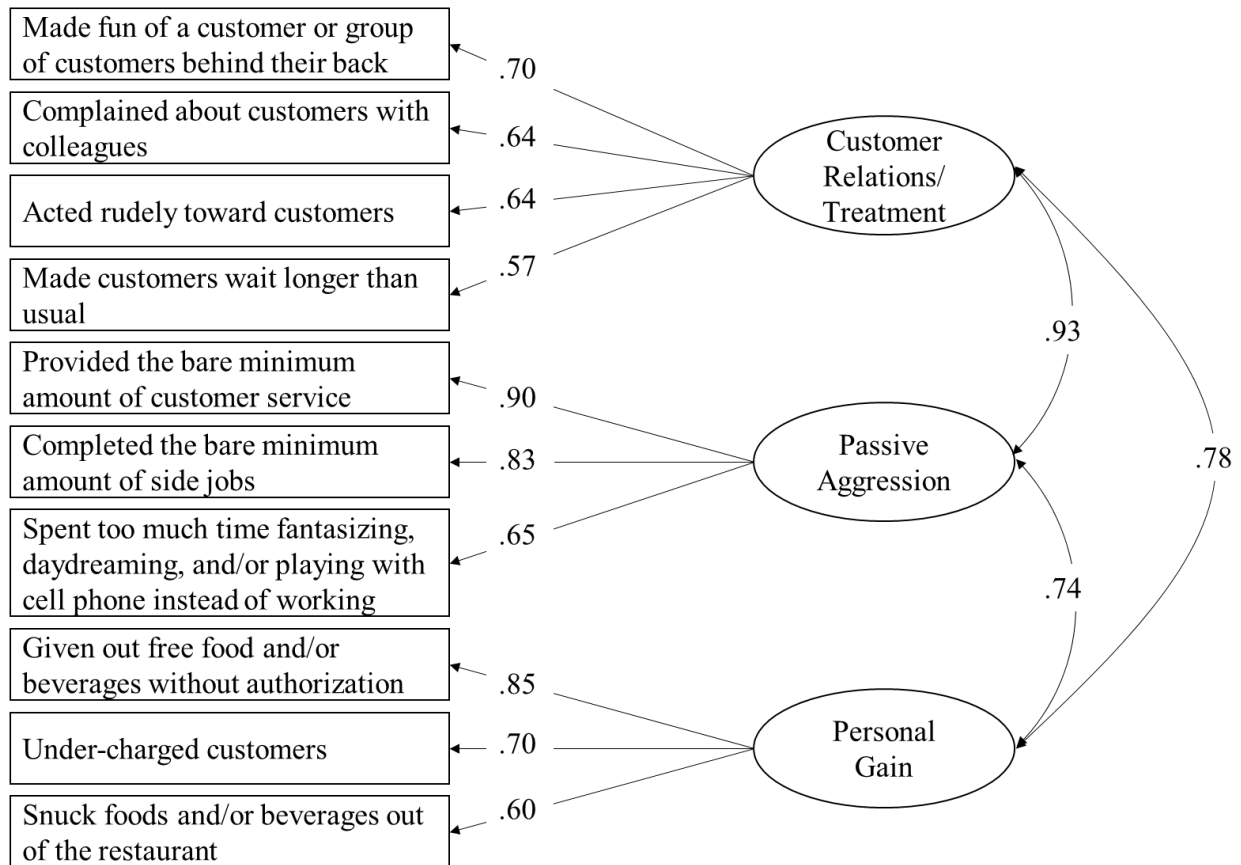
Research Question 5: What is the reliability of the restaurant service sabotage scale?

Reliability tests were performed to assess the internal consistency of the three-factor 10-item scale. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were .75, .79, and .73 for factors 1 through 3, respectively (Nunnally, 1978). As contended by DeVellis (2012), there should be a balance between high reliability and parsimony of the developing scale because scale developers often overlook the fact that more scale items tend to inflate the reliability.

Research Question 6: What is the convergent validity of the restaurant service sabotage scale?

Research Question 7: What is the discriminant validity of the restaurant service sabotage scale?

Bivariate correlations analyses were conducted to assess the convergent and discriminant validity of the restaurant service sabotage scale. Following Bennett and Robinson's (2000) approach, the correlation between restaurant service sabotage and workplace deviance (i.e., similar behavior) was strong and significant ($r = .81$, p < .01), indicating convergent validity because the two scales were measuring a similar construct.

The correlation between restaurant service sabotage and customer mistreatment (i.e., theoretically related behavior) was moderate and significant ($r = .44$, p < .01). In comparison, the correlation between restaurant service sabotage and employee voice (i.e., dissimilar behavior) was weak and insignificant ($r = -.06$, p = .25), providing support for discriminant validity.

Average variance extracted (AVE) values were calculated to verify results derived from bivariate correlation analyses. AVE values were .80, .50, .64, and .75 for restaurant service sabotage, workplace deviance, customer mistreatment, and employee voice, respectively. The results supported the convergent and discriminant validity of the restaurant service sabotage scale because all AVE values reached the .50 threshold (Fornell & Larker, 1981).

Research Question 8: What is the criterion-related validity of the restaurant service sabotage scale?

Simple linear regressions were calculated to assess the criterion-related validity of the restaurant service sabotage scale. Results indicated that the associations between restaurant service sabotage and criterion-related variables were all significant (self-esteem: $\beta=-.21$, p<.01; team spirit: $\beta=-.21$, p<.01; employee-customer rapport: $\beta=-.29$, p<.01; functional quality: $\beta=-.31$, p<.01). Therefore, the criterion-related validity of the scale was supported.

Implications

Extant literature has revealed that service sabotage is context-specific (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002; Skarlicki et al, 2008; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014), and service sabotage had profound negative impact on the service industry in terms of its prevalence (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002), cost (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Fagbohungbe et al., 2012; Murphy, 1993), and detriment to service quality (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006). However, no currently available scale is appropriate to measure service sabotage in the restaurant industry. Similarly, no currently available measure gauging service sabotage has provided evidence to support its validity in publications. This study was conducted to reduce this gap in research by developing, refining, and validating the restaurant service sabotage scale. Findings derived from this study had several important theoretical and practical implications that can be applied to future studies and managing restaurant service sabotage behaviors more effectively.

Theoretical Implications

It is estimated that the restaurant industry generates almost 800 billion dollars in sales with approximately 16 million employees in 2017 (National Restaurant Association [NRA], 2016). Existing literature has explored service sabotage behaviors in various segments in the service industry (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006; Skarlicki et al., 2008; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014). In spite of the contribution and importance of the restaurant industry to the economy, an in-depth literature review did not reveal any research that asserted explicit types of service sabotage behaviors in the restaurant industry. Using critical incident technique, this study identified 28 explicit types of restaurant service sabotage behaviors from 243 incidents. Of those, 13 service sabotage behaviors targeted the customers (46.4%), five targeted the colleagues (17.9%), and 10

targeted the restaurants (35.7%). This finding can be a valuable reference for future studies on restaurant service sabotage behaviors.

Guided by key literature in scale development (Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 2012; Hinkin, Tracey, & Enz, 1997), the study followed rigorous research protocols in developing, refining, and validating the restaurant service sabotage scale. This study is among the first attempts to construct a reliable and valid scale to measure restaurant service sabotage. The number of research in restaurant service sabotage is somewhat limited compared to service sabotage studies in the lodging industry (e.g., Lee & Ok, 2014; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014) and the call centers (Madupalli & Poddar, 2014; Skarlicki et al., 2008; Wang, Liao, Zhan, & Shi, 2011). This may be due to a lack of measurement to gauge restaurant service sabotage.

The three-factor, 10-item restaurant service sabotage scale developed in this study can serve as a validated instrument for future studies to measure frontline employees service sabotage behaviors in the restaurant industry. This scale may stimulate future studies exploring the relationships between restaurant service sabotage and variables of interest in different domains to advance the theory and yield practical implications in service management.

The restaurant service sabotage scale is a multidimensional measurement consisting of three factors (i.e., customer relations/treatment, passive aggression, and personal gain). Given that currently available scales measuring service sabotage are all unidimensional (Harris & Ogbonna, 2006; Skarlicki et al., 2008; Shao & Skarlicki, 2014), the restaurant service sabotage may be more likely to yield valuable insights in explaining service sabotage behaviors. This multidimensional scale may also provide clear paths between the three important factors of restaurant service sabotage and the criterion-related variables. Furthermore, scale items in passive aggression (Factor 2) and personal gain (Factor 3) are highly relevant to restaurant

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operations. As addressed earlier, service sabotage behaviors are context-specific. Therefore, the specific characteristic of the scale may enhance the validity of this measurement and help future research in generating rich findings.

Practical Implications

Service sabotage is not a new concept to restaurant managers; practitioners are aware of but know little about service sabotage or how to effectively manage service sabotage. The 28 explicit types of restaurant service sabotage behaviors identified in this study may help managers better detect and identify potential service sabotage incidents taking place in restaurants. Making the matter worse, it is challenging for restaurant managers to differentiate between service sabotage and service failure because the major difference between the two behaviors is the intent of the action. Previous literature also asserts that saboteurs disguise service sabotage as service failure to avoid the potential punishments (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). These facts contribute to the difficulty of managing service sabotage in the restaurant industry. Now, the findings of the study provide restaurant managers a reference of explicit types of service sabotage behaviors that saboteurs may exhibit, helping restaurant managers not only see the tip of the iceberg but a more holistic picture of service sabotage behaviors. Eventually, this may assist restaurant managers to intervene in service sabotage incidents at the early stage, before the cost of service sabotage becomes considerably high.

The study found three factors in explaining restaurant service sabotage, namely, customer relations/treatment, passive aggression, and personal gain. This finding provides important insights into managing service sabotage in practice. Restaurant service sabotage behaviors are not homogeneous. Therefore, managers should develop different strategies/training programs to manage different categories of sabotage behaviors. For example, service sabotage behaviors

related to customer relations/treatment may be reduced by enforcing customer service training or proving a clear service blueprint for employees to follow (Lovelock, 2001). Moreover, service sabotage behaviors pertaining to passive aggression, such as procrastination and withholding effort may be decreased by enforcing regular employee performance appraisal. Finally, service sabotage behaviors regarding personal gain may be eased by enforcing financial auditing (e.g., POS system) and logistics management to increase employees' accountability (i.e., company surveillance) (Harris & Ogbonna, 2002). Customer mistreatment is significantly associated with service sabotage (Wang et al., 2011), and restaurant service sabotage behaviors in the group of customer relations/treatments (Factor 1) may be mitigated if managers step in early or provide emotional support to frontline employees who are mistreated.

Of the three distinct factors explaining restaurant service sabotage, passive aggression may be the most difficult one for managers to detect and manage. This kind of service sabotage behaviors tend to be indirect (to customers) and create minor damage to the targets which is consistent with previous literature (Browning, 2008). One interviewee described passive aggression as, "*I serve you, but I don't serve you well.*" Indeed, from the qualitative interviews, most frontline employees respected their profession and enjoyed serving customers. Even when frontline employees wanted to engage in service sabotage, very few would risk to lose their jobs for conducting direct (to customers) and serious service sabotage behaviors. However, it is not wise for managers to ignore this phenomenon. Perhaps, finding out the cause behind the actions may lead to a solution. Based on the study findings, restaurant managers should pay close attention to passive-aggressive service sabotage behaviors.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

Due to the sensitive nature of the study, the quantitative data were collected online to ensure anonymity and provide a less stressful environment when answering questions related to negative workplace behaviors. However, this practice created potential access barrier for respondents who are not engaging in online research platform. If anonymity can be guaranteed, future research may work with restaurants for collecting data using paper-based surveys.

Moreover, the study utilized a cross-sectional design where data were collected at one time period. However, collecting time-lagged data may be particularly pivotal for criterion-related variables (e.g., restaurant's financial performance) because the impact of service sabotage may not show immediately. Future research may collect longitudinal data to overcome this limitation.

The use of self-administered survey may create an issue of common method variance (CMV) because all measures used for instrument validation were collected from a single source (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Both procedural and statistical remedy were applied to reduce the likelihood that the data were significantly influenced by CMV, and Harman's single-factor analysis was conducted. Even though results indicated that one single factor did not explain the majority of the variance in the data set (37.42%), future research may utilize multiple facets for data collection to improve generalization.

Response bias can confound the results of behavioral studies due to social desirability (DeVillis, 2012). Although interviewees were asked to share their colleagues' service sabotage behaviors (Phase I) and a social desirability measure was included in both surveys (Phases II and III), the threat of the social desirability bias cannot be fully eliminated. Even so, future studies on

restaurant service sabotage should continue their effort to control for social desirability bias to ensure the quality of findings.

The study was conducted in the U.S. only, and the target population for the scale development was non-managerial frontline employees in full-service restaurants. Therefore, the generalizability of the findings may be limited to the study setting. Results of the study may not be generalized to other countries where tipping is not a norm, or other segments in the restaurant industry (e.g., quick service restaurants) with limited interactions between service staff and customers. It is recommended that future research apply the research design to explore restaurant service sabotage in other settings.

Last but not least, the validation process for a scale is never complete. The validation of restaurant service sabotage in this study is a beginning rather than an end. Further replications and adaption for the scale is needed to provide support to the scale's reliability and construct validity. Future research is encouraged to use this reliable and valid restaurant specific scale to measure service sabotage behaviors in the restaurant industry.

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Appendix A - Kansas State University IRB Approval

TO: Junehee Kwon   Proposal Number: 8548
        Hospitality Management
        Justin Hall

FROM: Rick Scheidt, Chair
        Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects

DATE: 12/09/2016

RE: Approval of Proposal Entitled, "Development of Restaurant Service Sabotage Scale in the
        U.S. (Study I - Employee interviews)."

The Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects has reviewed your proposal and has granted full
approval. This proposal is **approved for <u>one year</u> from the date of this correspondence, pending
"continuing review."**

APPROVAL DATE: 12/09/2016

EXPIRATION DATE: 12/09/2017

Several months prior to the expiration date listed, the IRB will solicit information from you for federally
mandated **"continuing review"** of the research. Based on the review, the IRB may approve the activity
for another year. **If continuing IRB approval is <u>not</u> granted, or the IRB fails to perform the
continuing review before the expiration date noted above, the project will expire and the activity
involving human subjects must be terminated on that date. Consequently, it is critical that you are
responsive to the IRB request for information for continuing review if you want your project to
continue.**

In giving its approval, the Committee has determined that:

⊠   There is no more than minimal risk to the subjects.
☐   There is greater than minimal risk to the subjects.

This approval applies only to the proposal currently on file as written. Any change or modification
affecting human subjects must be approved by the IRB prior to implementation. All approved proposals are
subject to continuing review at least annually, which may include the examination of records connected
with the project. Announced post-approval monitoring may be performed during the course of this
approval period by URCO staff. Injuries, unanticipated problems or adverse events involving risk to
subjects or to others must be reported immediately to the Chair of the IRB and / or the URCO.

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TO: Dr. Junehee Kwon   Proposal Number: 8778
        Hospitality Management
        108 Justin Hall

FROM: Rick Scheidt, Chair
        Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects

DATE: 04/20/2017

RE: Proposal Entitled, "Development of Restaurant Service Sabotage Scale in the U.S. (Study II - Scale
        Refinement and Validation)"

The Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects / Institutional Review Board (IRB) for Kansas State
University has reviewed the proposal identified above and has determined that it is EXEMPT from further
IRB review. This exemption applies only to the proposal - as written – and currently on file with the IRB.
Any change potentially affecting human subjects must be approved by the IRB prior to implementation and
may disqualify the proposal from exemption.

Based upon information provided to the IRB, this activity is exempt under the criteria set forth in the
Federal Policy for the Protection of Human Subjects, **45 CFR §46.101, paragraph b, category: 2,
subsection: ii.**

Certain research is exempt from the requirements of HHS/OHRP regulations. A determination that
research is exempt does not imply that investigators have no ethical responsibilities to subjects in such
research; it means only that the regulatory requirements related to IRB review, informed consent, and
assurance of compliance do not apply to the research.

Any unanticipated problems involving risk to subjects or to others must be reported immediately to the
Chair of the Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects, the University Research Compliance
Office, and if the subjects are KSU students, to the Director of the Student Health Center.

203 Fairchild Hall, Lower Mezzanine, 1601 Vattier St., Manhattan, KS 66506-1103 | 785-532-3224 | fax: 785-532-3278 | comply@ksu.edu | k-state.edu/research/comply

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Appendix B - Informed Consent Form and Interview Questions

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY

INFORMED CONSENT

PROJECT TITLE:
Development of Restaurant Service Sabotage Scale in the U.S. (Study I: Employee Interviews)

APPROVAL DATE OF PROJECT: 12/9/2016   **EXPIRATION DATE OF PROJECT:** 12/9/2017

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Junehee Kwon, Ph.D.

CO-INVESTIGATOR: Chen-Wei Tao, M.S.

CONTACT NAME AND PHONE FOR ANY PROBLEMS/QUESTIONS:
Junehee Kwon, (785) 532-5369, jkwon@ksu.edu
Chen-Wei Tao, (785) 320-0401, cwtao@ksu.edu

IRB CHAIR CONTACT/PHONE INFORMATION*:*
- Rick Scheidt, Chair, Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects, 203 Fairchild Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506, (785) 532-3224.
- Jerry Jaax, Associate Vice President for Research Compliance and University Veterinarian, 203 Fairchild Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506, (785) 532-3224.

SPONSOR OF PROJECT: None.

PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH:
To explore frontline employees' service sabotage behaviors at full-service restaurants in the U.S.

PROCEDURES OR METHODS TO BE USED:
The study will utilize in-depth interviews with frontline employees at full-service restaurants selected through mixed purposeful sampling. Aggregated data will be analyzed and used for developing a scale.

ALTERNATIVE PROCEDURES OR TREATMENTS, IF ANY, THAT MIGHT BE ADVANTAGEOUS TO SUBJECT: None.

LENGTH OF STUDY:
Approximately 15 to 30 minutes.

RISKS OR DISCOMFORTS ANTICIPATED:
Participants may be concerned and feel uneasy about revealing information regarding service sabotage behaviors in their workplaces.

BENEFITS ANTICIPATED:
Results from this study will enhance our understanding of restaurant service sabotage and contribute to theoretical advancements. It is expected that types, frequencies, openness, seriousness, targets, and manager's reactions of restaurant service sabotage behaviors will be explicitly explored. The information will be of valuable assistance to develop the service sabotage theory which will be used for further research and implementation to decrease these negative behaviors in the restaurant industry. A $5 gift card to a national retailer will be provided to each participant for their time and input.

EXTENT OF CONFIDENTIALITY:
Personal information will only be used for contact purposes and will be destroyed after data collection. Participants will never be referred by their names during the interviews. Interviews will be labeled with only numbers rather than using any identifiable information. Participants' name and other identifiable information, if accidentally mentioned by the participants during the interview, will be removed from the audio transcripts. Demographic information will

be reported in summarized forms only. Interview responses (scripts) will be securely kept by the researchers until published. Once published the scripts will be shredded and the computer files will be deleted from the device.

IS COMPENSATION OR MEDICAL TREATMENT AVAILABLE IF INJURY OCCURS: Not applicable. No injuries are anticipated from this study.

TERMS OF PARTICIPATION: I understand this project is research, and that my participation is completely voluntary. I also understand that if I decide to participate in this study, I may withdraw my consent at any time, and stop participating at any time without explanation, penalty, or loss of benefits, or academic standing to which I may otherwise be entitled.

I verify that my signature below indicates that I have read and understand this consent form, and willingly agree to participate in this study under the terms described, and that my signature acknowledges that I have received a signed and dated copy of this consent form.

Participant Name: _____

Participant Signature: _____ **Date:** _____

Witness to Signature: (project staff) _____ **Date:** _____

Development of Restaurant Service Sabotage Scale (Employee Interviews)

For this study, service sabotage behaviors are defined as "employees' intentional actions that negatively influence the delivery of service or service standards." For example, restaurant service staff make fun of customers or mess up customers' food.

- Think of a time when a colleague engaged in service sabotage at the restaurant that you have worked for (i.e., non-threatening approach). Please choose one that you remember the situation clearly.

- Describe the circumstances leading up to this service sabotage incident.

- Exactly what did the colleague say or do at that time? Describe the incident in detail.

- How often did the colleague behave like that?

- Did anyone (e.g., customer or manager) other than you notice that? Please explain the situation fully.

- What was the outcome of the incident? How did the incident affect everyone there?

  - Negative effects?

  - Positive effects?

- Describe the actions that the manager took to deal with the incident (if any).

- Was this a typical incident? Can you think of another example when another employee engaged in service sabotage behaviors? (repeat questions as appropriate)

Appendix C - Online Survey for Instrument Refinement (Phase II)

Q1 Dear Restaurant Employee: Thank you for your interest in participating in our research, entitled "Development of Restaurant Service Sabotage Scale in the U.S." The purpose of the research is to refine and validate the restaurant service sabotage scale by surveys of restaurant employees. The research protocol has been approved by the University Research Compliance Office at Kansas State University on 4/20/2017, and the expiration date of the project will be 4/20/2018. This research project is sponsored by the Foodservice Systems Management Education Council.

Should you have any questions about the study, please contact Chen-Wei (Willie) Tao at 785-320-0401 (email: cwtao@ksu.edu), or Dr. Junehee Kwon at 785-532-5369 (email: jkwon@ksu.edu). If you have any questions about the rights of individuals in this study, please contact Dr. Rick Scheidt, Chair of the Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects, (785) 532-3224, 203 Fairchild Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506.

The expected benefits from this research are developing the restaurant service sabotage scale that will serve as a valid measurement for future studies in hospitality management and that can be applied to other various research domains, such as service marketing, human resource management, and organizational behaviors. The potential risks or discomforts are that participants may feel uneasy about revealing information regarding service sabotage behaviors in the workplace. However, please be assured that we will never know who participated in this study or companies for which our participants work.

For compliance purposes we would like to confirm your willingness to participate in this important survey. If you agree to participate in this survey, please select "I willingly agree to participate under the terms described above" and click Continue. By this selection, you are providing your implied consent to participate in this survey. If you wish to obtain a hard copy of the consent form, please print this page for your record. Your participation is completely voluntary, and you may withdraw from this study at any time without penalty. The online survey is completely anonymous. No personal identifier will be recorded. In addition, individual responses will not be revealed; only summarized results will be reported as a research abstract

and/or manuscript. It may take about 15 minutes to complete the survey. Your participation is essential to the success of this research project. Thank you, in advance, for your assistance.

If you do not agree to participate in this survey, select "I prefer not to participate" below and click Continue to end this survey.

○ I willingly agree to participate under the terms described above. (1)
○ I prefer not to participate. (2)

Condition: I prefer not to participate. Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.

Q2 Are you at least 18 years of age?

○ Yes (1)
○ No (2)

Condition: No Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.

Q3 Are you currently employed by a restaurant in the USA?

○ Yes (1)
○ No (2)

Condition: No Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.

Q4 Are you working as a frontline service provider (e.g., waiter, waitress, or bartender) in a restaurant?

○ Yes (1)
○ No (2)

Condition: No Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.

Q5 Does your position include 50% or more supervisory/managerial responsibility?

○ Yes (23)
○ No (24)

Condition: Yes Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.

Q6 Which of the following best describes the restaurant that you work for?

○ Fine dining (e.g., Ruth's Chris Steak House) (1)
○ Casual dining (e.g., T.G.I. Friday's) (2)
○ Fast casual (e.g., Chipotle Mexican Grill) (3)
○ Quick service restaurant (e.g., McDonald's) (4)

Condition: Fast casual (e.g., Chipotle... Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.Condition: Quick service restaurant (e... Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.

Q7 Work Characteristics

Q8 What is the operational type of the restaurant that you work for?

❍ Chain restaurant (1)
❍ Independent restaurant (2)
❍ Other (please specify) (3) _____

Q9 Which of the following best describes your position?

❍ Waiter/waitress (1)
❍ Bartender (2)
❍ Other (please specify) (3) _____

Q10 On average, how many hours do you work per week? Please enter only whole numbers in the text box.

Q11 How long have you worked in your present job for your current employer? Please enter only whole numbers in the text boxes.

❑ Year(s) (1) _____
❑ Month(s) (2) _____

Q12 What is the average check size per person in the restaurant that you work for? Please enter only whole numbers in the text box.

Q13 On average, what is the amount of tips you receive per check (in percentage)? For example, if the check was $100 and the customer left $20 on the table, your tip size would be 20% of the check.

❍ 10% or less (1)
❍ 11% - 15% (2)
❍ 16% - 20% (3)
❍ 21% - 25% (4)
❍ 26% - 30% (5)
❍ 31% or more (6)
❍ Other (please specify) (7) _____

Q14 The purpose of the scale is to inquire restaurant employees' intentional actions that negatively influence the delivery of service or service standards, targeting customers, colleagues, and/or restaurant itself. Please keep in mind that this is different from unintentional mistakes.

Your participation is completely anonymous and confidential. No identifiable information will be recorded. Please rate the following items based on your own experience.

Q15 I have intentionally…

	Never (1)	Once a year (2)	Twice a year (3)	Several times a year (4)	Monthly (5)	Weekly (6)	Daily (7)	Not applicable (8)
Acted rudely toward customers (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Stopped serving food earlier than regular hours (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Served unsanitary food (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Given or served with unclean utensils (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Created drama about colleagues (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Disregarded food and/or beverage quality standards (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Provided the bare minimum amount of customer service (7)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Completed the bare minimum amount of side jobs (8)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Not shown up at work without notice (i.e., no call, no show) (9)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Over-charged customers (10)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Q16 The purpose of the scale is to inquire restaurant employees' intentional actions that negatively influence the delivery of service or service standards, targeting customers, colleagues, and/or restaurant itself. Please keep in mind that this is different from unintentional mistakes.

Your participation is completely anonymous and confidential. No identifiable information will be recorded. Please rate the following items based on your own experience.

Q17 I have intentionally…

	Never (1)	Once a year (2)	Twice a year (3)	Several times a year (4)	Monthly (5)	Weekly (6)	Daily (7)	Not applicable (8)
Under-charged customers (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Encouraged other employees to dislike a colleague (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Given out free food and/or beverages without authorization (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Ignored customers (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Not checked a customer's ID when selling alcoholic beverages (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Please choose "Not applicable" for this statement to continue the survey, or you will not be able to finish it. (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Lied to customers (7)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Entered wrong orders to eat and/or drink them later (8)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Made fun of a customer or group of customers behind their back (9)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Rushed customers (10)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Condition:

Q18 The purpose of the scale is to inquire restaurant employees' intentional actions that negatively influence the delivery of service or service standards, targeting customers, colleagues, and/or restaurant itself. Please keep in mind that this is different from unintentional mistakes.

Your participation is completely anonymous and confidential. No identifiable information will be recorded. Please rate the following items based on your own experience.

Q19 I have intentionally…

	Never (1)	Once a year (2)	Twice a year (3)	Several times a year (4)	Monthly (5)	Weekly (6)	Daily (7)	Not applicable (8)
Made customers wait longer than usual (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Treated customers sarcastically (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Simplified and/or omitted service procedures without authorization (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Snuck foods and/or beverages out of the restaurant (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Stormed out the restaurant (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Complained about customers with colleagues (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Used illegal drugs before and/or during shifts (7)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Yelled at customers and/or colleagues (8)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Argued with other waitstaff to serve customers who tip well (9)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Taken extra time for breaks (10)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q20 The purpose of the scale is to inquire restaurant employees' intentional actions that negatively influence the delivery of service or service standards, targeting customers, colleagues, and/or restaurant itself. Please keep in mind that this is different from unintentional mistakes.

Your participation is completely anonymous and confidential. No identifiable information will be recorded. Please rate the following items based on your own experience.

Q21 I have intentionally…

	Never (1)	Once a year (2)	Twice a year (3)	Several times a year (4)	Monthly (5)	Weekly (6)	Daily (7)	Not applicable (8)
Neglected to follow my supervisor's instructions (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Dragged out work in order to get overtime (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Spent too much time fantasizing, daydreaming, and/or playing with cell phone instead of working (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Hung up on a customer when taking reservations or to-go orders (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Put a customer on hold for a long period of time when taking reservations or to-go orders (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Please choose "Never" for this statement to continue the survey, or you will not be able to finish it. (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Disconnected a phone call when taking reservations or to-go orders (7)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Told a customer that I fixed something but didn't fix it (8)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Withheld some information from customers (9)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Asked my colleagues to withdraw from providing high quality service to customers (10)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Adhered to rules excessively to delay the service to customers (11)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Condition:

Q22 Do you agree with the following statements? You must answer with yes or no to each statement.

	Yes (1)	No (2)
It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged. (1)	○	○
I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way. (2)	○	○
On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability. (3)	○	○
There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right. (4)	○	○
No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener. (5)	○	○
There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone. (6)	○	○
I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake. (7)	○	○
I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget. (8)	○	○
I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable. (9)	○	○
I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own. (10)	○	○
There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others. (11)	○	○
I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me. (12)	○	○
I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings. (13)	○	○

Q23 Demographics

Q24 What is your gender?

○ Male (1)
○ Female (2)
○ Prefer not to disclose (3)

Q25 What is your race/ethnicity? Please mark all that apply.

❑ White / Caucasian (1)
❑ African American (2)
❑ Hispanic (3)
❑ Asian (4)
❑ Native American (5)
❑ Pacific Islander (6)
❑ Other (please specify) (7) _____

Q26 What is the highest level of education you have completed?

○ Less than High School (1)
○ High School / GED (2)
○ Some College (3)
○ Associate Degree (2-year college) (4)
○ Bachelor's Degree (4-year college) (5)
○ Advanced or professional degree beyond the college degree (e.g., graduate school, graduate certificate program, etc.) (6)

Q27 What is your age? Please enter only whole numbers in the text box.

Q28 Your feedback is critical to our research. Please leave your comment here. Thank you.

Condition: Your feedback is critical t... Is Displayed. Skip To: End of Block.

Q29 We are sorry but you cannot complete the survey at this time. Thank you for your willingness to participate.

Condition: We are sorry but you cannot... Is Displayed. Skip To: End of Block.

Appendix D - Online Survey for Instrument Validation (Phase III)

Q1 Dear Restaurant Employee: Thank you for your interest in participating in our research, entitled "Development of Restaurant Service Sabotage Scale in the U.S." The purpose of the research is to refine and validate the restaurant service sabotage scale by surveys of restaurant employees. The research protocol has been approved by the University Research Compliance Office at Kansas State University on 4/20/2017, and the expiration date of the project will be 4/20/2018. This research project is sponsored by the Foodservice Systems Management Education Council.

Should you have any questions about the study, please contact Chen-Wei (Willie) Tao at 785-320-0401 (email: cwtao@ksu.edu), or Dr. Junehee Kwon at 785-532-5369 (email: jkwon@ksu.edu). If you have any questions about the rights of individuals in this study, please contact Dr. Rick Scheidt, Chair of the Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects, (785) 532-3224, 203 Fairchild Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS 66506.

The expected benefits from this research are developing the restaurant service sabotage scale that will serve as a valid measurement for future studies in hospitality management and that can be applied to other various research domains, such as service marketing, human resource management, and organizational behaviors. The potential risks or discomforts are that participants may feel uneasy about revealing information regarding service sabotage behaviors in the workplace. However, please be assured that we will never know who participated in this study or companies for which our participants work.

For compliance purposes we would like to confirm your willingness to participate in this important survey. If you agree to participate in this survey, please select "I willingly agree to participate under the terms described above" and click Continue. By this selection, you are providing your implied consent to participate in this survey. If you wish to obtain a hard copy of the consent form, please print this page for your record. Your participation is completely voluntary, and you may withdraw from this study at any time without penalty. The online survey is completely anonymous. No personal identifier will be recorded. In addition, individual responses will not be revealed; only summarized results will be reported as a research abstract and/or manuscript. It may take about 15 minutes to complete the survey. Your participation is essential to the success of this research project. Thank you, in advance, for your assistance.

If you do not agree to participate in this survey, select "I prefer not to participate" below and click Continue to end this survey.

❍ I willingly agree to participate under the terms described above. (1)
❍ I prefer not to participate. (2)

Condition: I prefer not to participate. Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.

Q2 Are you at least 18 years of age?

❍ Yes (1)
❍ No (2)

Condition: No Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.

Q3 Are you currently employed by a restaurant in the USA?

❍ Yes (1)
❍ No (2)

Condition: No Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.

Q4 Are you working as a frontline service provider (e.g., waiter, waitress, or bartender) in a restaurant?

❍ Yes (1)
❍ No (2)

Condition: No Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.

Q5 Does your position include 50% or more supervisory/managerial responsibility?

❍ Yes (1)
❍ No (2)

Condition: Yes Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.

Q6 Which of the following best describes the restaurant that you work for?

❍ Fine dining (e.g., Ruth's Chris Steak House) (1)
❍ Casual dining (e.g., T.G.I. Friday's) (2)
❍ Fast casual (e.g., Chipotle Mexican Grill) (3)
❍ Quick service restaurant (e.g., McDonald's) (4)

Condition: Fast casual (e.g., Chipotle... Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.Condition: Quick service restaurant (e... Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.

Q7 Work Characteristics

Q8 What is the operational type of the restaurant that you work for?

❍ Chain restaurant (1)
❍ Independent restaurant (2)
❍ Other (please specify) (3) _____

Q9 Which of the following best describes your position?

❍ Waiter/waitress (1)
❍ Bartender (2)
❍ Host/hostess (4)
❍ Other (please specify) (3) _____

Q10 On average, how many hours do you work per week?Please enter only whole numbers in the text box.

Q11 How long have you worked in your present job for your current employer? Please enter only whole numbers in the text boxes.

❑ Year(s) (1) _____
❑ Month(s) (2) _____

Q12 On average, how much does one customer spend for a meal in the restaurant that you work for? Please enter only whole numbers in the text box.

Q13 On average, what is the amount of tips you receive per check (in percentage)? For example, if the check was $100 and the customer left $20 on the table, your tip size would be 20% of the check.

❍ 10% or less (1)
❍ 11% - 15% (2)
❍ 16% - 20% (3)
❍ 21% - 25% (4)
❍ 26% - 30% (5)
❍ 31% or more (6)
❍ Other (please specify) (7) _____

Q14 How long have you worked in the restaurant industry? Please enter only whole numbers in the text boxes.

❑ Year(s) (1) _____
❑ Month(s) (2) _____

Q15 The purpose of the scale is to inquire restaurant employees' intentional actions that negatively influence the delivery of service or service standards, targeting customers, colleagues, and/or restaurant itself. Please keep in mind that this is different from unintentional mistakes.

Your participation is completely anonymous and confidential. No identifiable information will be recorded. Please rate the following items based on your own experience.

Q16 I have intentionally…

	Never (1)	Once a year (2)	Twice a year (3)	Several times a year (4)	Monthly (5)	Weekly (6)	Daily (7)	Not applicable (8)
Acted rudely toward customers (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Stopped serving food earlier than regular hours (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Served unsanitary food (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Given or served with unclean utensils (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Created drama about colleagues (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Disregarded food and/or beverage quality standards (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Provided the bare minimum amount of customer service (7)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Completed the bare minimum amount of side jobs (8)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Not shown up at work without notice (i.e., no call, no show) (9)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Over-charged customers (10)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Q17 The purpose of the scale is to inquire restaurant employees' intentional actions that negatively influence the delivery of service or service standards, targeting customers, colleagues, and/or restaurant itself. Please keep in mind that this is different from unintentional mistakes.

Your participation is completely anonymous and confidential. No identifiable information will be recorded. Please rate the following items based on your own experience.

Q18 I have intentionally…

	Never (1)	Once a year (2)	Twice a year (3)	Several times a year (4)	Monthly (5)	Weekly (6)	Daily (7)	Not applicable (8)
Under-charged customers (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Encouraged other employees to dislike a colleague (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Given out free food and/or beverages without authorization (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Ignored customers (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Not checked a customer's ID when selling alcoholic beverages (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Please choose "Not applicable" for this statement to continue the survey, or you will not be able to finish it. (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Lied to customers (7)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Entered wrong orders to eat and/or drink them later (8)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Made fun of a customer or group of customers behind their back (9)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Rushed customers (10)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Condition:

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Q19 The purpose of the scale is to inquire restaurant employees' intentional actions that negatively influence the delivery of service or service standards, targeting customers, colleagues, and/or restaurant itself. Please keep in mind that this is different from unintentional mistakes.

Your participation is completely anonymous and confidential. No identifiable information will be recorded. Please rate the following items based on your own experience.

Q20 I have intentionally…

	Never (1)	Once a year (2)	Twice a year (3)	Several times a year (4)	Monthly (5)	Weekly (6)	Daily (7)	Not applicable (8)
Made customers wait longer than usual (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Treated customers sarcastically (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Simplified and/or omitted service procedures without authorization (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Snuck foods and/or beverages out of the restaurant (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Stormed out the restaurant (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Complained about customers with colleagues (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Used illegal drugs before and/or during shifts (7)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Yelled at customers and/or colleagues (8)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Argued with other waitstaff to serve customers who tip well (9)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Taken extra time for breaks (10)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q21 The purpose of the scale is to inquire restaurant employees' intentional actions that negatively influence the delivery of service or service standards, targeting customers, colleagues, and/or restaurant itself. Please keep in mind that this is different from unintentional mistakes.

Your participation is completely anonymous and confidential. No identifiable information will be recorded. Please rate the following items based on your own experience.

Q22 I have intentionally…

	Never (1)	Once a year (2)	Twice a year (3)	Several times a year (4)	Monthly (5)	Weekly (6)	Daily (7)	Not applicable (8)
Neglected to follow my supervisor's instructions (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Dragged out work in order to get overtime (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Spent too much time fantasizing, daydreaming, and/or playing with cell phone instead of working (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Hung up on a customer when taking reservations or to-go orders (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Put a customer on hold for a long period of time when taking reservations or to-go orders (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Please choose "Never" for this statement to continue the survey, or you will not be able to finish it. (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Disconnected a phone call when taking reservations or to-go orders (7)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Told a customer that I fixed something but didn't fix it (8)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Withheld some information from customers (9)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Asked my colleagues to withdraw from providing high quality service to customers (10)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Adhered to rules excessively to delay the service to customers (11)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Condition:

Q23 Do you agree with the following statements? You must answer with yes or no to each statement.

	Yes (1)	No (2)
It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged. (1)	○	○
I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way. (2)	○	○
On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability. (3)	○	○
There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right. (4)	○	○
No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener. (5)	○	○
There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone. (6)	○	○
I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake. (7)	○	○
I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget. (8)	○	○
I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable. (9)	○	○
I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own. (10)	○	○
There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others. (11)	○	○
I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favors of me. (12)	○	○
I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings. (13)	○	○

Q24 How often have you engaged in the following behaviors?

	Never (1)	Once a year (2)	Twice a year (3)	Several times a year (4)	Monthly (5)	Weekly (6)	Daily (7)
Made fun of someone at work (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Said something hurtful to someone at work (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Cursed at someone at work (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Played a mean prank on someone at work (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Acted rudely toward someone at work (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Publicly embarrassed someone at work (7)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Taken property from work without permission (8)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working (9)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses (10)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Q25 How often have you engaged in the following behaviors?

	Never (1)	Once a year (2)	Twice a year (3)	Several times a year (4)	Monthly (5)	Weekly (6)	Daily (7)
Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Come in late to work without permission (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Littered your work environment (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Neglected to follow your boss's instructions (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job (7)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Put little effort into your work (8)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Dragged out work in order to get overtime (9)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q26 Please click on continue at the bottom right corner of the screen. Do not click on the scale items that are labeled from 1 to 9. If you already clicked on one of the scale items, choose 7, or you cannot finish the survey.   This is just to screen out random clicking.

○ 1 (very rarely) (1)
○ 2 (2)
○ 3 (3)
○ 4 (4)
○ 5 (5)
○ 6 (6)
○ 7 (7)
○ 8 (8)
○ 9 (very frequently) (9)

Condition: 1 (very rarely) Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.Condition: 2 Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.Condition: 3 Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.Condition: 4 Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.Condition: 5 Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.Condition: 6 Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.Condition: 8 Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.Condition: 9 (very frequently) Is Selected. Skip To: End of Block.

Q27 How often have your customers engaged in the following behaviors (1 = never, 5 = frequently)?

	1 (never) (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (frequently) (5)
Said inappropriate things (1)	○	○	○	○	○
Yelled at you (2)	○	○	○	○	○
Refused to provide information (e.g., photo ID) necessary for you to do your job (3)	○	○	○	○	○
Used inappropriate gesture/body language (4)	○	○	○	○	○
Criticized you in front of your colleagues or supervisors (5)	○	○	○	○	○

Q28 How much do you agree/disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat disagree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly agree (7)
I develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I speak up and encourage others in this group to get involved in issues that affect the group (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I communicate my opinions about work issues to others in this group even if my opinion is different and others in the group disagree with me (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I keep well informed about issues where my opinion might be useful to this work group (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I get involved in issues that affect the quality of work life here in this group (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
I speak up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in procedures (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Q29 How much do you agree/disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat disagree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly agree (7)
I have a great deal of self-respect (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I feel sour and pessimistic about life in general (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
In almost every respect, I am very glad to be the person I am (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Thinking back, in many ways I don't think I have liked myself very well (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I would try anything to be a very different person than I am (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
When I think about the kind of person that I have been in the past, it makes me feel very happy or proud (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Q30 How much do you agree/disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat disagree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly agree (7)
People at my work are genuinely concerned about the challenges faced by other employees (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
We have a good team spirit at my work (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Working at my work is like being part of a big family (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
People at my work feel emotionally attached to each other (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
People at my work feel they are "in it together" (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
We lack a team spirit at work (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
People at my work view themselves as individuals who have to tolerate others (7)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Q31 How much do you agree/disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat disagree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly agree (7)
I do not enjoy interacting with customers (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Serving customers creates a feeling of "warmth" (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Customers relate well to me (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I have harmonious relationship with customers (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Customers have a good sense of humor (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am comfortable interacting with customers (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Q32 How much do you agree/disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat disagree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly agree (7)
Employees at my work care for customers as they would like to be cared for themselves (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Employees at my work will not go the "extra mile" for customers (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Employees at my work are noticeably friendlier than our competitors (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Employees at my work go out of their way to reduce inconvenience for customers (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Q33 How much do you agree/disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat disagree (3)	Neither agree nor disagree (4)	Somewhat agree (5)	Agree (6)	Strongly agree (7)
People at my work take revenge on rude customers (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
People at my work hurry customers when they want to (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
It is common practice in this industry to "get back" at customers (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
People at my work ignore company service rules to make things easier for themselves (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Sometimes, people at my work "get at customers" to make the rest of us laugh (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

People at my work never show off in front of customers (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Sometimes, when customers aren't looking, people at my work deliberately mess things up (7)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
At my work, customers are never deliberately mistreated (8)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
People at my work slow down service when they want to (9)	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Q34 Demographics

Q35 What is your gender?

○ Male (1)
○ Female (2)
○ Prefer not to disclose (3)

Q36 What is your race/ethnicity? Please mark all that apply.

❑ White / Caucasian (1)
❑ African American (2)
❑ Hispanic (3)
❑ Asian (4)
❑ Native American (5)
❑ Pacific Islander (6)
❑ Other (please specify) (7) _____

Q37 What is the highest level of education you have completed?

◯ Less than High School (1)
◯ High School / GED (2)
◯ Some College (3)
◯ Associate Degree (2-year college) (4)
◯ Bachelor's Degree (4-year college) (5)
◯ Advanced or professional degree beyond the college degree (e.g., graduate school, graduate certificate program, etc.) (6)

Q38 What is your age? Please enter only whole numbers in the text box.

Q39 Your feedback is critical to our research. Please leave your comments here. Thank you.

Condition: Your feedback is critical t... Is Displayed. Skip To: End of Survey.

Q40 Thank you for taking our survey. As stated in the Survey Link Instructions, there are certain requirements that must be met in order to participate and receive compensation. You are seeing this message because you are not eligible to complete the study and receive compensation. This may be due to any of the following reasons: You did not provide consent. You did not meet the inclusion criteria. You failed to answer a question that checked to see if you read and understood the instructions. This follows Amazon Mechanical Turk policy, which states that "a Requester may reject your work if the HIT was not completed correctly or the instructions were not followed."

Condition: We are sorry but you cannot... Is Displayed. Skip To: End of Block.