

*Consumers' Reactions to Service Failures:  
The Intervening Roles of Anger and Gender*

**Lucy Makdessian**

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John Molson School of Business

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## **ABSTRACT**

### **Consumers' Reactions to Service Failures: The Intervening Roles of Anger and Gender**

Lucy Makdessian

While Anger is reported to be the dominant affective reaction after a service failure, little research has focused on its potentially damaging effects. To fill this void, the present study examined the impact of anger on customers' evaluations and behaviors following a service failure where blame was laid on the service provider. Gender's mediating role in shaping these consequences was also studied. Scenarios involving service failures in a bank and a retail store were used to collect data from students (N =667). Overall, angry customers were less satisfied, gave lower overall service evaluations, had higher perceptions of injustice, and gave weaker ratings of corporate image. Angry customers were also more likely to complain and engage in third-party action, and were less likely to spread positive word-of-mouth and repurchase from the service firm. Gender of the customer and that of the service employee played only a minimal role in influencing the evaluative and behavioral outcomes. The robust findings regarding anger and the disappointing results concerning gender are discussed in light of their important theoretical and managerial implications.

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# **CHAPTER I**

## **INTRODUCTION**

Although regarded widely as a primary influence on human motivation (Hoffman, 1986), consumer affect has only recently started to receive greater research attention in services marketing (Diaz and Ruiz, 2002). This recent interest in the affective components of consumption experiences reflects a shift in service firms' strategic emphasis away from customer acquisition to customer retention, since in highly competitive markets, the cost of attracting a new customer is five or more times higher than the cost of keeping an old one (Fornell and Wernerfelt, 1987; Hart, Heskett, & Sasser, 1990; Vavra, 1992). Since retaining customers and not merely acquiring new ones, is crucial for the success and survival of service firms, any affective experiences during service encounters that influence key service outcomes need to be examined further (Berry, 1980; Vavra, 1992). "These boundary-closed encounters (Mars and Nicosia, 1984) account for the vast majority of our daily interactions with service providers, and therefore, understanding the role of affect in these types of encounters is of great importance to managers of service operations" (Mattila and Enz, 2002, p. 268).

### **1. 1. Affect in Service Encounters**

The term affect is used to refer to a broad range of emotions, moods, feelings and drives (Batra and Ray, 1986). Past research has focused primarily on the impact of affect on social perception and memory, while regarding affect as a global mood as opposed to a specific affective state (e.g., joy, happiness, anger, pain, sadness) (Bodenhausen, Sheppard, & Kramer, 1994). The assumption being that the overall *valence* of the affective state is of importance in determining the effects of affect on cognition and behavior, and not the individual affective state itself. As such, all bad moods are expected to have similar effects on cognition and behavior. To obtain a better understanding of the

impact of negative affective states on customer beliefs and behaviors, specific affective experiences need to be isolated and studied as opposed to globally measured negative states.

Emotional responses to services have not been researched using the “attribution, affect, behavior” sequence, which is key in examining affective experiences in service encounters (Price, Arnould, & Tierney, 1995). Also, a large number of affective states have usually been lumped together to represent a single global dimension (e.g., Diaz and Ruiz, 2002; Taylor and Claxton, 1994) or dissatisfaction has been regarded as a consequence of other globally considered affective experiences (e.g., Oliver 1989, 1994; Yi, 1990). In other words, “the majority of works examine affect as just one indicator which encompasses multiple emotional reactions” (Diaz and Ruiz, 2002, p. 120). However, Weiner (2000) has proposed a need to distinguish anger from other negative emotional reactions as a fundamental emotional experience that determines social behavior. Various researchers have also found anger to be the dominant affective reaction when a negative event, attributable to a controllable cause, has occurred (Maute and Dubé, 1999; Meyer and Mulherin, 1980; Reisenzein, 1986; Weiner, 1980, 1986). Therefore, service firms need to consider cognitive/evaluative and behavioral consequences that may result from firm-attributable service failures and the ensuing negative affective reactions (e.g., anger) in order to (1) assess the damage, if any, of such affective reactions (2) to customize recovery attempts so as to minimize any damage.

The experiential content of anger based on emotion phenomenology associates anger with the feelings of wanting to explode and being overwhelmed by the affective experience (e.g., Averill, 1982; Berkowitz, 1990; Deffenbacher et al., 1996). For the

purposes of the present study, customer anger experienced during a service encounter will be considered to be these typical anger feelings experienced during a service encounter (i.e., consumption emotion). *Consumption emotions* refer to the set of emotional responses elicited during product usage or consumption experiences (Westbrook and Oliver, 1991). Previous research suggests that the mood that one develops during a service encounter (i.e., a consumption emotion) directly affects the consumer's recall of the service encounter and his/her evaluation of the behaviors exhibited during the service interaction (Gardner, 1985). Other research has also demonstrated that customer's self-declared mood state immediately after the service encounter has a positive relationship with service encounter evaluations, overall assessment of the consumption experience, and overall assessment of the firm (Mattila and Enz, 2002). In other words, a negative consumption emotion has the potential to influence recall and evaluation of a service encounter in a congruently negative direction. Therefore, negative affect, developed during a service encounter, and its potentially damaging effects require greater attention.

## **1. 2. Affective Reactions versus Dis/satisfaction**

Few studies have considered the differential impact of negative affect in service encounters (see for example, Diaz and Ruiz, 2002; Taylor, 1994). An important distinction to make here is the difference between consumer affect (e.g., moods and emotions such as joy, anger, contentment) and consumer dis/satisfaction. Consumer dis/satisfaction has been the focus of a considerable amount of research in services marketing. As can be seen in many studies on service failure and satisfaction evaluations, affect and evaluations of satisfaction are often confounded (Diaz and Ruiz, 2002).

Emotions demonstrated during consumption are believed to leave affective traces in memory; traces that are considered by the consumer in subsequent evaluations of dis/satisfaction (Westbrook and Oliver, 1991). A study by Diaz and Ruiz (2002) proposed a model where a specific affect (i.e., anger) directly influenced dis/satisfaction judgments of the service. This study is an example which indicates the distinction between affect experienced due to service failure separate from customers' overall dis/satisfaction with the service. Using automobile and cable services, Westbrook (1987) found that negative affective responses, more than customer satisfaction and/or cognitions, explained word-of-mouth and complaining behavior. Both negative and positive affective responses influenced word-of-mouth behavior, however, complaining behavior was unique to negative affective experiences. Furthermore, "service encounter dissatisfaction is not directly related to behavioral responses to service failure when anger is controlled for" Bougie, Peiters, & Zeelenberg (2003, p. 378). In other words, negative consumer affect should be regarded as separate from consumer dissatisfaction. Given that consumer dis/satisfaction has been attributed such great importance and focus within the services literature, consumer affect which has been said to contribute to dis/satisfaction evaluations should be attributed equal importance (Westbrook, 1987).

Consumer dis/satisfaction is only one aspect that has been reviewed in the literature. There is considerable research on the residual effects of global positive and negative moods (e.g., Forgas, 1989; Forgas and Moylan, 1987). Positive and negative moods have been shown to influence a wide range of judgments, including personal efficacy and social performance (see Forgas and Bower, 1987 for a review), judgments of satisfaction with consumer items (Isen, Shalke, Clark, & Karp, 1978) as well as political



figures and general life circumstances (Forgas and Moylan, 1987; Keltner, Locke, & Audrain, 1993; Schwarz and Chlore, 1983). However, few studies have concentrated on specific affective states such as joy, anger, and delight as contributors to overall satisfaction evaluations or other service-related cognitions or evaluations and behavioral intentions (Mattila and Wirtz, 2000).

### **1. 3. Why Anger?**

The power of mood in altering our everyday thoughts is well established in the affect literature (e.g., Morris, 1989). In Gardner's (1985) review of the role of mood in consumer behavior, service encounters were identified as one of the key areas of fruitful mood research since positive and negative moods can have such a significant impact on firms' future success. Studies indicate that customers who are upset may tell up to 20 people about their bad experience with a service company (Zemke, 1999). However, such important theoretical findings are not always applied in service firms and industries. Drew and Bolton (1995) suggest that this may be due to the fact that the same service incident may be perceived differently by customers and managers/employees. Further, proper survey development, implementation and interpretation is a difficult task for many service firms (Drew and Bolton, 1995). Therefore, research findings about the nature and consequences of customer anger may help marketers to better understand when and why customers engage in particular post-consumption cognitive or behavioral responses.

Previous research indicates the need to differentiate between negative affective states due to their differential effects on cognitions and behaviors (Bodenhausen et al., 1994; Diaz and Ruiz, 2002; Weiner, 2000). Anger has been shown to have different thoughts and action tendencies associated with it, compared to other negative affective

states such as anxiety, depression, or sadness (e.g., Bodenhausen, Sheppard, Kramer, 1994; Dubé and Maute, 1996). Furthermore, studies show that anger is the dominant emotional reaction resulting from a service failure (Maute and Dubé, 1999; Westbrook and Oliver, 1991). Past research shows that when the cause of the failure rests proportionately on the shoulders of the service firm, this significantly contributes to consumer anger (e.g., Diaz and Ruiz, 2002; Dubé and Menon, 2000; Folkes, 1984). For example, consumer anger will result when customers' appraisal of the service failure is characterized as unfair, with high service provider control over the occurrence of the failure, or the cause of the service failure is stable (Folkes et al., 1987; Ruth, Brunel, & Otnes, 2002; Taylor, 1994). Customer anger has also been shown to negatively impact customers' subsequent service evaluations (Taylor, 1994). Further, Diaz and Ruiz (2002) showed that customer anger not only influenced their satisfaction with the service provided in a negative direction, it also compelled customers to engage in complaining behavior and reluctance to repurchase. Finally, customer anger has been positively linked with the desire to complain to the firm and negatively with repurchase intentions (Folkes, Koletsky, & Graham, 1987). Therefore, it leaves us to suspect that customer anger does have a negative influence on cognitions and behaviors in service encounters and as such deserves more serious consideration.

#### **1. 4. Why Gender?**

Previous research has recognized gender as playing a moderating role in service encounters (e.g., Laufer and Gillespie, 2004; Su and Tippins, 1998) and other consumption situations (e.g., Dubé and Morgan, 1996). For example, research by Dubé and Morgan (1996) found that, women more than men focused and elaborated more on

negative consumption emotions. This was believed to be due to the greater significance of negative emotions since women have been shown to engage in more detailed elaboration of information (e.g., Maheswaran and Meyers-Levy, 1990; Meyers-Levy and Sternthal, 1991). Overall, previous research has found significant differences between men and women concerning processing style as well as retrieval of consumption emotions. Along the same lines, a recent study by Laufer and Gillespie (2004) found that, in a product harm crisis, where consumption of a product inflicts physical harm upon the consumer, women blame the company more than men because they “feel more personally vulnerable to a similar crisis occurring to them” (p. 141). In a similar study by Su and Tippins (1998), females, compared to males, attributed more blame for a product failure on the retailer. The psychology literature has also documented differences between men and women in social behavior that appear in early as childhood and persist well into adulthood (e.g., Eagly, 1987). Regarding anger specifically, significant differences between men and women have also been reported (see Kring, 2000 for review). For example, women generally report experiencing other negative affective states following an anger episode while men generally report other negative consequences such as physical assaults on other and property and even hurting oneself after an anger episode (Deffenbacher et al., 1996). Given the existence of significant differences between men and women, not only in terms of consumption emotions (e.g., Laufer and Gillespie, 2004), but in the expression of anger as well (e.g., Frost and Averill, 1982), gender is expected to play a moderating role on the influence of customer anger on subsequent cognitive evaluations and customer behavioral responses.

## **1. 5. The Present Study**

The present study focuses on consumer anger resulting from service failure which has been attributed to the service firm. Using an anger-provoking service scenario, we measured the effects of customer anger on key evaluative and behavioral consequences. While past research on the evaluative consequences of anger has focused on overall service evaluations (Taylor, 1994) or satisfaction with the service (Diaz and Ruiz, 2002), no studies have considered stereotypical judgments resulting from consumer anger vis-à-vis the service provider or the influence of consumer anger on corporate image or perceptions of justice. Thus, the present study extends previous research regarding customer anger in service encounters by examining the effects of anger on three new evaluations, that is, reliance on stereotypes to evaluate service provider, corporate image evaluations and perceptions of justice. In terms of behavioral consequences, past research has focused on the effects of anger on propensity to complain and repurchase intentions (Bougie, Pieters, & Zeelenberg, 2003; Diaz and Ruiz, 2002; Folkes, Koletsky, & Graham, 1987), and on word-of-mouth behavior or third party action (Bougie, Pieters, & Zeelenberg, 2003). Given the limited research, the present study proposes a model of service failure where the cognitive/evaluative and behavioral consequences of anger are combined for a more complete and thorough understanding of the effects of consumer anger. Furthermore, studies dealing with anger in a service setting have been conducted in an airport where flight delays are at issue (e.g., Diaz and Ruiz, 2002; Folkes, Koletsky, & Graham, 1987). These results are not necessarily generalizable to other industries or to other types of service failures. Thus, the present study attempts to expand these specific findings to other types of industries such as the banking and retail sectors. Further, the present study proposes an anger provoking service failure framework that uses the

“attribution, affect, behavior” sequence that is deemed crucial in research regarding affect in service encounters (Diaz and Ruiz, 2002; Price, Arnould, & Tierney, 1995). Gender differences regarding the experience and expression of anger have been found both in the psychology and in the services literature (e.g., Kring, 2000; Laufer and Gillespie, 2004). Since gender has been found to play a moderating role in shaping cognitions and behaviors relating to service encounters (e.g., Dubé and Morgan, 1996), the present study considers the possible influence of gender as well on evaluative and behavioral consequences of customer anger — an interesting moderating variable that has only recently begun to receive greater attention in the services literature (e.g., Mattila, Grandey, & Fisk, 2003).

In summary, the present study will attempt to answer three major questions. (1) What are the evaluative consequences of anger resulting from service failure? (2) What are the behavioral consequences of anger resulting from service failure? (3) What role does gender play in influencing the evaluative and behavioral consequences of anger? To answer these questions, we will first provide a complete review of the relevant literature and offer a proposed framework. The development of the conceptual framework and hypotheses will be followed by an outline of the methodology used to empirically test the proposed hypotheses. After reporting the results, a discussion of the findings and the implications derived from these findings will follow. The last part of the thesis will cover the study’s limitations and propose directions for future research.

## **CHAPTER II**

### **CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

Using customer anger as the central construct within the proposed framework, this study tests the evaluative/cognitive and behavioral consequences of customer anger in service settings. To better understand the role of anger in a service context, the first three sections of this chapter deal with the definition of customer anger, the types of service failures resulting in customer anger, and the ensuing consequences studied to date. Following this introductory review of the literature, the fourth section presents the proposed framework and the subsequent sections use previous research to develop the hypothesized links between anger and the evaluative/behavioral consequences.

## **2. 1. Anger**

### **2. 1. 1. Definition**

The term “affect” is used to refer to a broad range of emotions, moods, feelings, and drives (Batra and Ray, 1986) that are created as individuals evaluate the meaning, causes, and consequences of events around them (Hoffman, 1986). Affect can be divided into two categories: positive and negative affectivity (George, 1996; Judge, 1992). “Positive affectivity refers to the tendency to experience intense pleasant feelings. At the high pole, enthusiasm and excitement anchor the dimension. Negative affectivity refers to the tendency to experience intense unpleasant feelings. At the high pole, such feelings as anxiety and anger tend to be present” (Cropanzano, Weiss, Hale, Reb, 2003, p.832).

Anger occurs when appraising an event as harmful and frustrating. It can be directed toward another person, an institution, or toward ones self. Anger is distinguishable from other negative affective states by the existence of blame or the belief that one (either self or other) has been wronged unjustifiably. Based on studies of diverse aspects of affective states (e.g., Averill, 1982; Berkowitz, 1990; Davitz, 1969;

Deffenbacher, Oetting, Lynch, & Morris, 1996; Fridja, 1986; Roseman, Weist, & Swartz, 1994), people associate anger with feelings of wanting to explode and of being overwhelmed by their affective state, thoughts such as “thinking of violence toward others” and thoughts of unfairness. Action tendencies associated with anger include “feeling like behaving aggressively,” “letting go,” “saying something nasty,” and “complaining.” Finally, motivational goals associated with anger are “wanting to hurt someone” and “wanting to get back at someone”.

Consumption emotions are specific affective states elicited during product/service consumption (Richins, 1997; Westbrook & Oliver, 1991). Consumption emotions group the various feelings, moods or emotions experienced while using a product or as a service is being provided. Customer anger is a consumption emotion, one that is elicited during a service encounter where there is a core service failure attributed to the service firm or service provider. Other consumption emotions include joy, contempt, disgust, shame, guilt, sadness, fear and surprise, which are positive and negative emotions displayed during consumption experiences but distinct from anger (Izard, 1977). While consumer anger is distinguished from related consumption emotions such as anxiety/worrying (Maute and Dubé, 1999), unpleasant surprise (Westbrook and Oliver, 1991), it is said to be highly correlated to such variables as being upset (Westbrook and Oliver, 1991) and hostile (Maute and Dubé, 1999).

### 2. 1. 2. Anger: Mood or Emotion?

Whether customer anger is regarded as a mood or emotion is a question that has not been addressed clearly in the services literature (e.g., Diaz and Ruiz, 2002; Dubé and Menon, 2000). However, within the present study, its nature will be defined based on definitions from previous research. Moods and emotions (affective states) are closely



related (Weiss, 2002). Both can be viewed as states that describe transient psychological experiences and share a common subjective (or feeling) component. While both states are accompanied by physiological reactions, there is some disagreement about the precise nature of such reactions (see Cropanzano, Weiss, Hale, & Reb, 2003). Moods and emotions are often distinguished by their duration, and/or intensity, moods are defined as milder, more pervasive, and transient than emotions (Batra and Ray, 1986). According to Bagozzi, Gopinath, and Nyer (1999, p. 185), “it’s not specific events or physical circumstances that produce the emotions but rather the unique psychological appraisal made by the person evaluating and interpreting the events and circumstances”. Therefore, anger is an emotion that may arise upon appraisal of a failed service encounter, but it is the subsequent angry mood which will influence the consumer’s upcoming evaluations and behaviors. In the present study at least, consumer anger induced using a fictitious service failure is considered to be a mild negative mood state with a relatively short duration.

## **2. 2. Service Failures Resulting in Customer Anger**

Research in psychology has determined three main causes of anger (Izard, 1977): (1) the feeling of physical or psychological restraint activates the expression of anger (Campos and Stenberg, 1981), (2) blocking or interrupting goal-oriented behavior triggers anger (Izard, 1977), and (3) aversive stimulation causes feelings of anger (Berkowitz, 1990). Applied to a service setting, service failures block or interrupt goal-oriented behavior which should logically result in customer anger. However, not all types of service failure result in customer anger. Service failures can be characterized within three main dimensions. First, process failures vs. outcome failures, second, magnitude of

failures, and third, core vs. non-core failures (Nguyen and McColl-Kennedy, 2003). The outcome dimension of a service encounter refers to what customers actually receive from the service, whereas the process dimension refers to how they receive the service (Mohr and Bitner, 1995; Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985; Smith, Bolton, & Wagner, 1999). The core vs. non-core service failure dimension refers to the mistakes or technical problems with the services (Keaveney, 1995). In other words, “customers view core service failures as big mistakes, and non-core failures as more minor” (Nguyen and McColl-Kennedy, 2003, p.47). Researchers have found that anger is the dominant affective reaction when a negative event is attributed to a controllable cause (Meyer and Mulherin, 1980; Reisenzein, 1986; Weiner, 1980, 1986). Further, Weiner (2000) argued that in service situations one where the negative result is attributed to the firm, the customer’s affective reaction will be anger.

In a study by Maute and Dubé (1999), where participants performed a mental simulation of a core service failure, four different emotional responses (i.e., *calm/tolerant*, *hostile/angry*, *surprised/worried*, and *unemotional*) resulted from such a failure, with the hostile/angry reaction being the most frequent emotional response. In situations of service failure, those who blame another party (i.e., the service firm or service provider), generally feel anger, disgust, or contempt (Godwin, Patterson, & Johnson, 1995; Smith and Ellsworth, 1985). Research suggests that anger, in response to a service failure, occurs when customers appraise an event as unfair, service provider control over the failure is high, and the cause of the service failure is stable (Folkes et al. 1987; Ruth, Brunel, & Otness, 2002; Taylor, 1994). In other words, an unfair event of moderate to high magnitude, where the blame for the failure rests upon the company or

service provider will definitely result in customer anger. Such a service failure was created in this research in order to study respondents' cognitive/evaluative and behavioral reactions.

### **2. 3. Negative Mood States and Service Encounters**

Moods tend to bias perceptions and evaluations in mood-congruent directions (Clark and Isen, 1985). People in a negative mood state have been shown to evaluate stimuli more negatively than individuals in a neutral or positive mood state. This is true whether the stimuli being studied are people (Clore and Byrne, 1974; Forgas and Bower, 1987), consumer goods (Isen et al., 1978; Srull, 1983), life satisfaction (Schwarz and Clore, 1983), or past life events (Clark and Teasdale, 1982).

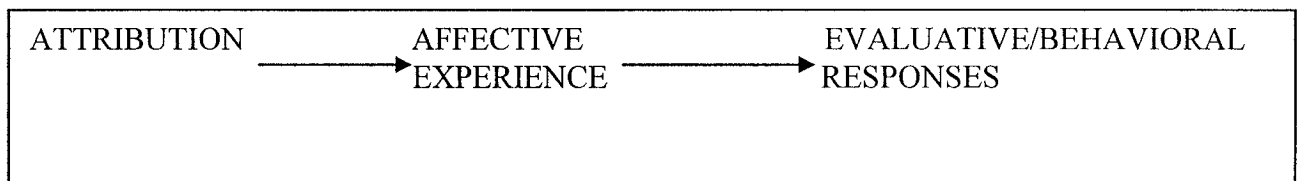
Within the services context, a consumer's mood directly affects his or her recall of the service encounter and directly as well as indirectly influences the evaluation of behaviors exhibited during the service interaction (Gardner, 1985). Moreover, the mood a customer brings or develops during a service encounter has the potential to affect the quantity and nature of the information s/he retrieves concerning the stimuli encountered, the evaluation of the service encounter, and the behavior demonstrated by the service providers (Cunningham, 1979). Therefore, a negative mood state (e.g., anger) induced during a service encounter has the potential to lead customers to evaluate the service offered in a congruently negative fashion.

### **2. 4. Outcomes of Service Failure: The Intervening Roles of Anger and Gender**

The present study proposes a framework of customer anger resulting from firm-attributed service failure, where evaluative and behavioral consequences of anger are highlighted. This framework follows the attribution, affect, behavior sequence which has

not been studied in a service context (Diaz and Ruiz, 2002). However, the behavioral aspect of the sequence is accompanied with cognitive evaluations as well (Figure 1). According to this sequence, a consumer is faced with a situation where the desired service is not provided. S/he diagnoses the underlying causes and depending on the nature of the failure attributes blame to service firm, an affective reaction is triggered (i.e., anger in this study), that influences the customer's cognitive evaluations and behaviors. A graphical representation of the proposed framework is presented in Figure 2, where the link between anger with the evaluative and behavioral consequences are outlined as well as the moderating links shaped by anger. The theoretical foundations of the proposed framework and the resulting hypotheses will be presented in the subsequent sections.

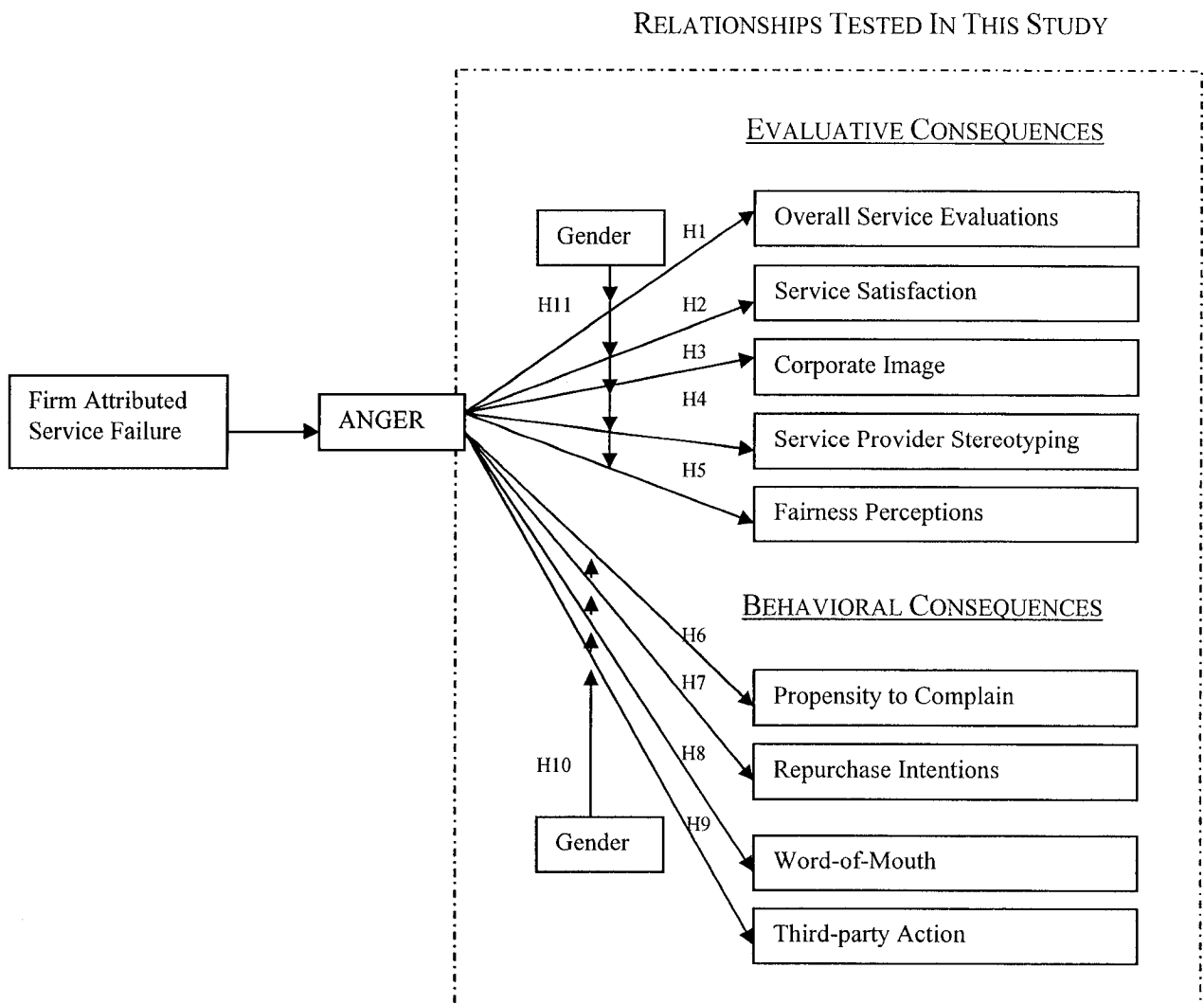
Figure 1: Service encounter sequence



## 2. 5. Evaluative Consequences: Anger and Customer Cognitive Evaluations

Within this section, the literature relating anger to the evaluative consequences will be outlined. Anger was related to five cognitive evaluations that were chosen based on previous research as well as theoretical reasons for a complete understanding of the consequences of anger. Service evaluation and service satisfaction were chosen because of past research concerning anger and because they are the constructs most fundamentally measured within the services literature. Anger's influence on corporate image and service provider stereotyping were chosen because they represent the customers' respective

Figure 2: Outcomes of service failure: The intervening roles of anger and gender



evaluations of the firm and the service employee. Other than the evaluation of the service, the framework would not be complete without an evaluation of the firm providing the service (i.e., corporate image) and the service employee (i.e., service provider stereotyping). Finally, anger's influence on perceptions of justice was deemed important to measure since anger itself is provoked by feelings of unfairness or injustice, and such findings may further help understanding perceptions of customers after an anger provoking service failure encounter.

### 2. 5. 1. Customer Anger and Overall Service Evaluations

Research has shown that affective responses during a service encounter will influence subsequent customer evaluations (e.g., Bless, Bohner, Schwarz, & Strack, 1990; Isen 1987; Mackie and Worth, 1989; Schwarz and Bless, 1991). In the present study, service evaluation refers to perceptions of overall service quality, perception of procedures and policies enforced by the service firm, and the overall evaluation of the outcome of the service itself. In a study by Mattila and Enz (2002), customers' consumption emotions during the service interaction strongly influenced their perceptions and assessment of the service encounter (i.e. overall service evaluation) as well as their perceptions of the service provider (i.e., the organization and the service employee). Furthermore, Dubé and Menon (2000, p. 294-295) proposed that "the experience of other attributed negative emotions like anger induces expectation of more negative events to be caused by these "others" in the future as well." In a service context, "other (i.e., service firm or employee) attributed negative emotions will lead to lower perceptions of subsequent provider performance". In other words, after experiencing firm-attributed service failure, the service customer expects further service failures from the same company.

Research within the airline service industry has shown that anger caused by a core service failure influenced overall service evaluations (e.g., Taylor, 1994). Taylor (1994) proposed a wait experience model where anger caused by a firm attributed service failure played a central and mediating role in terms of the overall service evaluation. Service providers' control over the delay resulted in greater anger and in turn, customer anger resulting from the flight delay influenced study participants' perception of the overall

service. Since anger plays an important role in shaping consumers' evaluations of the service, we propose the following hypothesis,

**H1:** Consumer anger resulting from firm-attributable service failure is expected to be negatively related to overall service evaluation.

### 2. 5. 2. Customer Anger and Service Satisfaction

Within the consumer literature, evidence of a direct link between positive affect and satisfaction has been quite robust (Dubé-Rioux, 1990; Oliver, 1993; Westbrook, 1987). Studies have also found support for a valence-congruent relationship between negative affect and satisfaction (i.e., negative affect leading to lower satisfaction) in response to a service failure (Dubé and Maute, 1996; Folkes et al., 1987; Hui and Tse, 1996; Taylor, 1994). While consumer dis/satisfaction has been the focus of a considerable amount of research in services marketing (Westbrook and Oliver, 1991), affect (i.e., moods and emotions such as joy, happiness, anger, sadness) and satisfaction evaluations are often confounded in the literature (Diaz and Ruiz, 2002). Affect experienced during consumption situations are believed to leave traces in memory; traces that are retrieved by the consumer in subsequent evaluations of dis/satisfaction (Westbrook and Oliver, 1991). Westbrook (1987) argued that dis/satisfaction evaluation incorporate an evaluation of the antecedent affective states elicited during product or service usage. This position was empirically supported by demonstrating that two different product categories distinguished between separate and independent dimensions of positive and negative affect. These product categories underlied discrete emotional responses elicited during consumption such as joy, interest, surprise, anger, disgust, contempt, and that these dimensions contributed significantly to dis/satisfaction

judgments. Therefore, consumer affect during service or product usage is clearly different and distinguishable from the dis/satisfaction evaluations formed about the same service or product experience.

Further support of the qualitative distinction between customer dissatisfaction and anger was presented in a recent study by Bougie, Pieters, & Zeelenberg, (2003), where experiential content analysis of anger and dissatisfaction resulted in a significant difference across the two constructs. Anger and dissatisfaction were reported to have distinctive thoughts, feelings, action tendencies, actions and motivational goals. A second study tested a model where anger directly influenced dis/satisfaction judgments of the service (Diaz and Ruiz, 2002). Early on, Westbrook and Oliver (1991) found that angry/upset customers were the most dissatisfied with the service compared to those who were un/pleasantly surprised, happy/content or unemotional customers. While these findings support the distinction between anger and dissatisfaction, the relationship between negative affect and consumer satisfaction really depends on the perceived cause of the negative feelings. Attributing the negative affective state to the service provider (i.e., other-attributed negative affect, whether employee or firm) leads to this inverse relationship with satisfaction — a robust relationship in the consumer literature (e.g., Folkes et al., 1987; Oliver, 1993; Taylor, 1994). Therefore,

**H2:** Consumer anger resulting from firm-attributable service failure is expected to be negatively related to consumers' service satisfaction evaluations.

### 2. 5. 3. Customer Anger and Corporate Image

Corporate image refers to a set of thoughts and feelings in reference to an object such as a person or a company (Dowling, 1988). According to Ind (1997, p. 48),



corporate image is described as “the picture that an audience has of an organization through the accumulation of all received messages”. Therefore, corporate image refers to “how customers perceive an organization based on accumulated experience or impressions and how these perceptions create a set of associations that contribute to a total picture of the organization” (Andreassen, 2001, p. 41). To the best of our knowledge, previous research has not considered the effects of consumer anger on consumers’ corporate image evaluations — a gap this study will address. Due to the negative affects produced by anger (e.g., mood congruency effects Gardner, 1985), we hypothesize,

**H3:** Consumer anger resulting from firm-attributable service failure is expected to be negatively related to consumers’ assessment of corporate image.

#### 2. 5. 4. Customer Anger and Service Provider Evaluations

It has been hypothesized that different emotional states predispose social perceivers to be more or less systematic in their information-processing strategies (Bodenhausen, Sheppard, Kramer, 1994). Much of this research has focused on happiness, which has been associated with heuristic processing strategies (see Bodenhausen et al., 1994). Happy people compared to sad, depressed or anxious people tend to rely on stereotypes in determining the validity of allegations of guilt (Bodenhausen 1993; Bodenhausen, Kramer, & Süsser, 1994) and to approach problem-solving tasks in a more heuristic fashion (Schwarz and Bless, 1991). On the contrary, sad or mildly depressed people seem to use more systematic, detail-oriented strategies in social perception (e.g., Schaller and Cialdini, 1990; Sinclair, 1988; Weary, 1990).

Positioning affect on a simple negative vs. positive spectrum leads us to think that anger is associated with thoughtful, more systematic information processing. However, studies have shown that angry people are prone to impulsive, ill-considered judgment and action (e.g., Kuhl, 1983). A study by Bodenhausen, Sheppard, & Kramer (1994) found that angry people showed a preference for heuristic strategies when analyzing and evaluating stimuli compared to sad or neutral participants. After the mood inductions, participants read a case of an alleged misconduct on the part of a fellow student and made judgments about the case. Angry participants identified the accused as a member of a social group that is stereotypically associated with the type of offense alleged in the case. Stereotype activation however, had no impact on participants' guilt judgments when they were in the sad or neutral mood conditions.

Heuristic strategies are mental shortcuts used to arrive at decisional or evaluative outcomes. Consistent with the mood congruency effect (Gardner, 1985), when consumers are in a negative mood during a service encounter, they may rely on heuristic strategies, such as, asking themselves how they feel at the moment (or remembering how they felt during the service encounter) in order to evaluate the stimuli presented (e.g., the service provider). However, not all negative moods will result in heuristic processing (Bodenhausen, Sheppard, & Kramer, 1994). This mental shortcut will be observed when consumers are angry about a service failure and not merely when they are sad or indifferent about it (Bodenhausen et al., 1994).

Stereotypes are considered judgmental heuristics used by individuals whenever there is a lack of ability or inclination to think more extensively about the circumstances surrounding situations and events (Bodenhausen, 1988; Bodenhausen and Lichtensein,

1987). Generally, stereotypes are viewed as cognitive economizers (Bodenhausen, 1990). Reliance on a ready stored, accessible information saves cognitive resources compared to separately processing a person's characteristics. Numerous studies support stereotypes as an energy-saving device (e.g, Bodenhausen and Lichtenstein, 1987; Fiske and Pavelchack, 1986; Mackie et al., 1989; Pratto and Bargh 1991). In other words, stereotypes are mental shortcuts used during less systematic processing. According to Fiske and Neuberg (1990), given the appropriate motivation, people may rely less on stereotypes and seek a more data-based judgment, however, even highly motivated individuals may fall back on simpler, heuristic strategies if their capacity to engage in more systematic processing is limited by distraction or cognitive overload (Petty, Wells, & Brock, 1976). Such may be the case with customer anger, where feelings of anger block any kind of systematic processing when evaluating service providers, especially when anger is caused by the service provider or firm in question. Given that stereotypes are mental shortcuts used when more systematic processing is not possible, and that customer anger is expected to lead to less systematic processing (Bodenhausen, Sheppard, & Kramer, 1994), angry customers are expected to rely on stereotypes when evaluating service encounter stimuli such as service employees. Therefore,

**H4:** Consumer anger resulting from firm-attributable service failure is expected to be positively related to service provider stereotyping (i.e., reliance on stereotypes when evaluating service employees).

People commonly form stereotypes on the basis of a target person's age (Brewer, Dull, and Lui, 1981), gender (Hoffman and Hurst, 1990), ethnic orientation (Gilbert and Hixon, 1991), social class (Fiske, 1982), or occupation (Pratto and Bargh, 1991).

Research by Devine (1989) has provided evidence that common stereotypes are automatically activated when members of the stereotyped group are encountered. Given the nature and content of the present study, angry customers are expected to form stereotypes based on the gender and occupation of the service provider since this is the only group-level information available to respondents in this study.

#### 2. 5. 5. Customer Anger and Perceptions of Fairness

The concept of perceived justice has emerged as a major explanatory concept regarding individuals' responses to a variety of situations. Based on equity theory (Adams, 1965), two criteria are used to judge fairness: distributive justice (Homans, 1961) and procedural justice (Lind and Tyler, 1988; Thibaut and Walker, 1975). Distributive justice refers to the perceived fairness of the actual service outcome. In service transactions, customers invest inputs such as money and receive outcomes such as the service or product. Customers are said to compare their own inputs and outputs to those of the other party involved in the exchange. If the outcome to input ratio of the customer is equal to that of the other party involved in the exchange, it is considered to be a fair trade (i.e., perception of fairness exists) (Oliver and DeSarbo, 1988). On the other hand, procedural justice refers to the process used to arrive at the outcome. Most research has focused primarily on distributive and procedural justice (Martinez-Tur et al., 2001). However, a number of researchers have suggested a third criterion for judging fairness: interactional justice (e.g., Bies and Moag, 1986). Interactional justice refers to the manner in which customers are treated during service encounters (Blodgett, Hill, & Tax, 1997).

Justice theories have been especially used in developing service recovery frameworks (e.g., Smith, Bolton, & Wagner, 1999; Sparks and McColl-Kennedey 1998;

Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar, 1998). Within these frameworks, customers' level of satisfaction and loyalty to the organization depend upon whether they felt that they were treated fairly. Many researchers have also recognized the important role played by justice perceptions in the complaining process (e.g., Day et al., 1981; Day and Landon 1976; Hirschman, 1970; Richins, 1987; Singh, 1990). More specifically, research suggests that perceived justice is a major determinant of complaining behavior, repatronage intentions, and negative word-of-mouth behavior (Gilly 1987; Gilly and Gelb, 1982; Goodwin and Ross, 1989; Tax and Chandrashekar, 1992). Likewise, a significant amount of research has focused on perceptions of fairness and satisfaction (e.g., Fisk and Young, 1984; Liechty and Churchill, 1979; Oliver and Swan, 1989; Smith, Bolton, & Wagner, 1999; Swan et al., 1985; Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar, 1998).

Other than a few studies (e.g., McColl-Kennedy and Sparks, 2003), researchers have not really considered the influence of affect prior to forming perceptions of fairness. McColl-Kennedy and Sparks (2003), for example, suggested that a negative emotional experience (experienced due to a negative event) is prior to making evaluations of fairness, but they did not test such propositions empirically. To the best of our knowledge, no published studies have posited a specific affective reaction that influences the formation of justice perceptions. Still, based on equity theory and previously mentioned mood research such as the "how do I feel about it" mood heuristic (Schwarz, 1990; Schwarz and Chlore, 1988), it would intuitively follow that customer anger following a service firm responsible failure would result in perceptions of injustice.

Therefore,

**H5:** Consumer anger resulting from firm-attributable service failure is expected to be negatively related to customers' fairness perceptions.

## **2. 6. Behavioral Consequences: Anger and Customers' Post-Purchase Actions**

Essentially, consumers' post service options reside broadly within four major categories: exit, complaining to the firm, third-party action, and continued patronage (Tax, Brown, & Chandrashekar, 1998). The present paper will thus focus on four main behavioral consequences related to anger: propensity to complain, repurchase intentions, word-of mouth behavior, and third-party action. These specific behaviors were chosen because of their importance in terms of customer recruitment, customer retention and of course, the service firm's long-term success. Since repurchase intentions capture Tax et al.'s (1998) exit and continued patronage behaviors, exit will not be included as a separate behavioral consequence.

### 2. 6. 1. Impact of Customer Anger on Repurchase Intentions and Propensity to Complain

Repurchase intentions refer to customers' intentions to continue doing business with the current service firm or to switch to another service firm offering the same or similar offerings. Propensity to complain, a related construct, refers to customers' intentions to seek redress or voice their negative opinions about the service directly to the service firm. According to Bougie, Pieters, and Zeelenberg (2003, p. 383), complaining behavior refers to "consumer-initiated communications to the service provider to obtain remedy or restitution for problems in particular market transactions". It is interesting to note that complaining appears to be a fairly common response to anger (Roseman, Weist, & Swartz, 1994; Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson, & O'Connor, 1987). However, few

researchers have inquired about the influence of anger upon these behavioral actions (e.g., Diaz and Ruiz, 2002; Folkes et al., 1987, Taylor, 1994). For example, Folkes, Koletsky and Graham (1987) found anger to play a mediating role between attributions made over the stability and control of a flight delay, and airline passengers' desire to complain or their intention to repurchase the service. In other words, anger resulting from service failure caused by the firm increased the desire to complain to the service firm and decreased the intention to repurchase the service. Along the same lines, Diaz and Ruiz (2002) proposed a model whereby anger once again mediated the relationship between attributions of control regarding a flight delay and the propensity to complain and repurchase intentions. In other words, the angrier the customers, the more likely they were to complain and the less likely they were to repurchase. With the use of retrospective experience sampling, a recent study also showed that customer anger was a significant predictor of switching and complaining behavior (Bougie et al., 2003). Finally, Maute and Dubé (1999) showed that angry/hostile customers were the most likely to engage in exit and voice. It is important to point out that once again, the relationship between negative affect (i.e., anger) and consumers' behaviors depended on the attribution of blame for the failure on the service firm. Therefore, based on these findings,

**H6:** Consumer anger resulting from firm-attributable service failure is expected to be negatively related to customers' repurchase intentions.

Furthermore,

**H7:** Consumer anger resulting from firm-attributable service failure is expected to be positively related to customers' propensity to complain to the service firm.

### 2. 6. 2. Customer Anger and Word-of-Mouth Behavior

The role of word-of-mouth communications is well documented in the services literature (Davis et al., 1978; Day, 1980; George and Berry, 1981; Hartline and Jones, 1996; Zeithaml et al., 1985, 1993). Word-of-mouth behavior involves the informal communication of positive or negative information about a service or product usage, characteristics of products and/or sellers from buyers to friends, family, and acquaintances (Westbrook, 1987). Word-of-mouth behavior provides vital information about a service firm to prospective customers that often helps them decide whether to patronize a service firm (Luudeen et al., 1995; Maxham III, 1999; Zeithaml et al., 1993). Some researchers have suggested that consumers are prone to spread negative word-of-mouth when they perceive an unfair response to a service failure (e.g., Blodgett, Granbois, & Walters, 1993; Seiders and Berry, 1998).

Despite the importance of word-of-mouth in services, few researchers have documented the effects of customer anger on word-of-mouth behavior (e.g., Bougie et al., 2003). A study by Maute and Dubé (1999) showed that hostile/angry customers were more likely than any other group to engage in negative word-of-mouth. After mentally simulating a service failure, participants reported their emotional responses and post-purchase cognitions, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions. Results indicated that angry/hostile customers exhibited the most negative behavioral responses, with the angry/hostile group being most likely to engage in negative word-of-mouth behavior. Finally, Bougie et al., (2003) showed that negative word-of-mouth behavior was significantly predicted by customer anger. Based on these findings,



**H8:** Consumer anger resulting from firm-attributable service failure is expected to be negatively related to customers' positive word-of-mouth behavior.

### 2. 6. 3. Customer Anger and Third-Party Action

Third-party action is defined as the act of complaining to formal agencies not involved in the exchange relationship such as a newspaper, a lawyer, or better, a business bureau (Singh, 1990). According to Singh (1988), third-party action is simply another form of complaining. Most research on antecedents to third-party action have focused on consumer's tendency to engage in action when service dissatisfaction has occurred (e.g., Day, 1984; Singh, 1990, 1989; Singh and Howell, 1985). Other than a study by Bougie, Pieters, & Zeelenberg (2003), no research has been conducted on the influence of consumer anger on third-party action. These authors showed that customer anger significantly predicted third-party action. Coupled with this limited research, and the effects of consumer anger on complaining behavior (e.g., Diaz and Ruiz, 2002; Maute and Dubé, 1999),

**H9:** Consumer anger resulting from firm-attributable service failure is expected to be positively related to customers' third-party action.

## **2. 7. The Moderating Role of Gender**

Given the extensive literature between men and women regarding the differences in the experience of affective states (e.g., Zammuner, 2000), gender is naturally expected to play a role in shaping reactions to affective-laden experiences. Based on the research in psychology, which has focused on gender differences and anger (e.g., Allen and Haccoun, 1976; Balswick and Avertt, 1977), the question arises as to whether the gender of the service provider and that of the customer matters. Since distinct differences

between men and women have been highlighted with respect to anger (see Kring, 2000 for review), it would naturally follow that such differences would influence behavioral and evaluative consequences in service encounters.

### 2. 7. 1. Gender Theories

To better understand gender differences as they relate to affect and anger, we turn to social role theory and social identity theory. Social role theory has long documented differences between boys and girls that exist early on in life and persist into adulthood (Eagly, 1987). As well, social identity theory (Tajfel, 1982) has shown that males and females are expected to behave differently due to different category identifications.

#### *Social Role Theory*

A gender belief system is the complete set of ideas that people hold about men and women. Included in these belief systems are stereotypes people have about the characteristics men and women are likely to possess and the attitudes they hold about social roles occupied or that should be occupied by men and women (for a review see Fiske, 1998). According to social role theory (Eagly, 1987), gender differences in emotions as well as social behavior stem from the social roles held by men and women in society (Eagly, 1987; Eagly and Wood, 1991, 1999). This theory states that gender differences in behavior are, in effect, due to society's gender hierarchy and stem from its sex-typed division of labor. Thus, gender differences result from differing demands placed on men and women by their distinct social roles in Western society (Eagly, 1987). Social role theorists state that women's traditional domestic role emphasizes taking care of others and thus demands affiliative and relationally-oriented behaviors (Eagly, 1987; Wood, Rhodes, & Whelan, 1989), while men's traditional roles in the workplace elicit more agentic and instrumental behaviors (Eagly, 1987).

Theorists have suggested that gender-linked differences in social roles promote differences in the expression of emotions (Brody and Hall, 1993; Shields, 1987, 1991). Research shows that gender differences in emotional expressiveness are a function of socialization in accordance to social norms on how, when, and where emotions can be expressed by males and females in any particular culture (see Underwood, Coie, & Herdsman, 1992). These gender norms generally conform to the gender stereotypes that each individual culture holds about emotional expressivity. Parents of preschoolers and young school-aged children, for example, emphasize the expression of sadness and fear by their daughters but not to their sons, and anger to their sons but not to their daughters (Fivush, 1989; 1993; Greif, Alvarez, and Ullmann, 1981; Zahn-Waxler, et al., 1993). Furthermore, studies on gender differences in adulthood have found that the expression of sadness, depression, fear, and dysphoric self-conscious emotions such as shame and embarrassment are viewed as “unmanly,” and men who display such emotions are evaluated more negatively than females (Siegel and Alloy, 1990). On the contrary, the expression of anger and aggression are seen as acceptable for men but not for women (Hart, DeWolf, & Burts, 1993; Serbin, Marchessault, McAffer, Peters, & Schwartzmann, 1993). Women anticipate more negative social consequences for expressing aggression than men do (Eagly and Steffen, 1986; Lerner, 1980; Shields and Koster, 1989) and are concerned that the expression of anger/aggression will disrupt their social relationships (Davis, LaRosa, & Foshee, 1992; Frost and Averill, 1982). Moreover, women are expected to express anger less often than men but to cry more often (LaFrance and Banaji, 1992).

In terms of gender stereotypes, men are generally characterized as independent, assertive, and initiating whereas women are viewed as caring, emotionally expressive and responsive to others (Ashmore, Del Boca, & Wohlers, 1986). According to a study by Eagly and Mladinic (1989), the typical woman is seen as nice but incompetent and the typical man is seen as competent but not so nice. The communal versus agentic dimension has often been used to differentiate between male and female stereotypes (e.g., Bakan, 1966). The communal dimension of gender-stereotypic beliefs is primarily described by a concern with the welfare of other people and is believed to represent feminine characteristics. It includes such traits as affectionate, able to devote self completely to others, eager to soothe feelings, helpful, kind, sympathetic, and loves children (e.g., Bem, 1974; Broverman et al., 1972; Spence and Helmreich, 1978). On the other hand, the agentic dimension of gender stereotypic beliefs are primarily described by assertive and controlling tendencies and is believed to represent masculine characteristics. They include aggressive, ambitious, dominant, forceful, independent, self-reliant, self-confident, feels superior (e.g., Bem, 1974; Broverman et al., 1972; Spence and Helmreich, 1978). Therefore, the presence of gender stereotypes and their effects on evaluations and behaviors is important to consider.

### *Social Identity Theory*

Social identity theory states that belonging to a group creates a psychological state for its group members that confers a collective representation of social identity (Tajfel, 1982; Tajfel and Turner, 1986). This perception of belonging to a group leads members to identify with the group (Bhattacharya, Rao, and Glynn, 1995; Tajfel and Turner, 1979). Here, we draw on an important aspect of social identity theory termed self-

categorization, which is a process that recognizes and emphasizes similarities between members of the same group, as well as differences between members of different groups. For the purposes of this study, we are interested in gender which is one social category to which individuals belong. Self-categorization into the “gender” category causes one to perceive him/herself as similar to other members of the group and involves stereotyping of out-group members (i.e., members of the opposite gender) — also known as out-group bias (Messick and Mackie, 1989). Stereotyping behavior of out-group members involves in-group favoritism, conflict, and affective preference of in-group members over members of the out-group (Ely, 1994; Hogg and Abrams, 1988; Pelled, 1997). Self-categorization takes place during the formation of dyadic relationships (Benkhoff, 1997). Marketing researchers have taken advantage of the dyadic nature of many sales/service encounters to apply social identity theory and self-categorization. One study found that similarity between salespeople and customers influences sale effectiveness (Crosby, Evans, & Cowles, 1990). Salespeople are also primarily attracted to prospective customers who are of the same gender (Dwyer, Richard, & Shepard, 1998). Examining the effects of service provider gender on evaluations of service quality across three different services (i.e., hair styling services, dental services, and fast-food restaurants), the authors proposed that customers would prefer to be served by members of the same gender (Fischer, Gainer, & Bristor, 1997). While statistical analyses did not support this proposition, the authors mentioned that the black and white sketches used to portray a service encounter may not have been realistic enough for participants to elicit in-group biased responses. Fischer and her colleagues (1998) went on to do qualitative work which showed that women (men) prefer female (male)-dominated service environments.

Consistent with social identity theory, there is some empirical support for customer and salesperson preference for others of the same gender (i.e., homophily).

### 2.7.2. Gender Differences

#### *Gender and the Expression of Anger*

A considerable amount of research has been conducted on the differences between men and women regarding anger (see Kring, 2000). Studies have found that women report expressing fear and sadness more often than men do, however, they do not differ in their reports of expressions of anger or joy (e.g., Allen and Haccoun, 1976, Kring and Gordon, 1998). Women also report being more expressive in terms of happiness, love, and sadness than men, but they do not differ in their reports of hate or anger (Balswick and Avertt, 1977). Therefore, men and women report feelings of anger to the same extent, which is not the case for other emotions (e.g., love, sadness), however, they differ upon the means of expressing this anger. This of course relates to social role theory and socialization practices mentioned earlier.

Even though few differences have been found between men and women in terms of the *amount of anger experienced*, differences have been found with respect to the *manner in which anger is expressed*. Whereas women tend to cry more often than men when they are angry (e.g., Frost and Averill, 1982), men physically assault objects and people, and verbally assault others during bouts of anger (Deffenbacher, et al., 1996). Furthermore, women are more likely to express their anger if the object or stimulus of anger and the target of anger are different (e.g., expressing anger about a service failure to a friend) (Timmers et al., 1998). Men, on the other hand, are more likely to express anger when the stimulus and the target of anger are the same (e.g., expressing anger to a

service provider because of a delay). Since men and women have very different ways of expressing their anger, these differences will likely surface when we examine the behavioral consequences of anger in service encounters.

### *Gender and Complaining Behavior*

Research has suggested that women complain more than men (Kowalski, 1993). However, part of this difference in complaining may be due to women's greater willingness to self-disclose negative information than men (Pearson, 1985). Other than the frequency of complaints, men and women have been reported to differ in the manner in which they complain (e.g., Hollandsworth and Wall, 1977). Since men are supposed to be more instrumental and women more expressive (Block, 1973; Brehm, 1992), "men are expected to voice more direct, instrumental complaints, whereas women are expected to express indirect, expressive complaints" (Kowalski, 1996 p.185). Hollandsworth and Wall (1977) also found men to be more assertive in expressing complaints.

### 2. 7. 3. Gender as a Moderator Between Anger and the Evaluative Consequences

Given the research and findings mentioned in the previous sections, gender is expected to play a significant moderating role between anger and its evaluative consequences. Therefore,

**H10:** Gender is expected to moderate the links between anger and the evaluative consequences, that is (a) the link between anger and overall service evaluation, (b) the link between anger and service satisfaction, (c) the link between anger and assessment of corporate image, (d) the link between anger and service provider stereotyping, and e) the link between anger and perceptions of fairness.

Gender is first expected to moderate the relationships between anger and each evaluative consequence. Due to angry customers reliance upon heuristic processing (e.g., stereotyping) (Bodenhausen et al., 1994), the research on similarity attraction theory (Dwyer, Richard, & Shepard, 1998; Fischer, Gainer, & Bristor, 1997), where individuals are more attracted to others that are similar, and social identity theory (Tajfel, 1982), where members of the same group are preferred over those in another group, we expect customer anger to lead to (1) a more negative service evaluation (the influence of gender on H1), (2) less service satisfaction (the influence of gender on H2), (3) a poorer corporate image (the influence of gender on H3), (4) a greater reliance upon gender and occupation stereotypes for service employee evaluations (the influence of gender on H4), and (5) lower perceptions of fairness (the influence of gender on H5) when service provider and customer gender do not match, after an anger-provoking service failure. Table 1 presents the specific moderating influences expected from customer/employee gender combinations on the links of anger on the evaluative consequences.

Table 1: The moderating role of customer and service provider gender on evaluations

<b>Gender Mismatch (MF, FM)</b>	<b>Gender Match (MM, FF)</b>
<b>Evaluative Consequences</b>	
1- Less positive overall service evaluation	1- More positive overall service evaluation
2- Less satisfaction	2- More satisfaction
3- Poorer corporate image	3- Better corporate image
4- More reliance upon stereotypes	4- Less reliance upon stereotypes
5- Lower perceptions of fairness	5- Greater perceptions of fairness

The second moderating role of gender is its differential influence on the consequences themselves, based on the gender of the customer. A recent study by Mattila, Grandey, and Fisk (2003) reported that, in the case of service process failure, men were significantly less satisfied than women. Therefore, we also expect angry male



consumers to be less satisfied and to give a lower rating of the overall service than angry female consumers. Further, research has found that men's satisfaction with an exchange situation is influenced by distributive (i.e. outcome) justice to a greater extent than women's. (Brockner and Adsit, 1986). In a study by Martinez-Tur and his colleagues (2001), distributive justice and customers' satisfaction as well as distributive justice and behavioral intentions were significantly greater for men than for women. For these reasons, we expect angry male customers to have greater perceptions of injustice than angry female customers. With no support from the services literature as to whether men and women differ in terms of perceptions of corporate image, we offer no specific gender direction for this evaluation and our findings are purely exploratory. Table 2 presents the hypothesis directions regarding the moderating role of customer gender on the influence of anger on the evaluative consequences.

Table 2: The moderating role of customer gender on evaluations

Men	Women
<b>Evaluative Consequences</b>	
1- Lower ratings of overall service	1- Higher ratings of overall service
2- Less satisfaction	2- More satisfaction
3- Poorer/Better corporate image?	3- Poorer/Better corporate image?
4- More/Less reliance on stereotypes?	4- More/Less reliance on stereotypes?
5- Greater perceptions of injustice	5- Lower perceptions of injustice

#### 2. 7. 4. Gender as a Moderator Between Anger and the Behavioral Consequences

Given the differences between men and women in terms of the expression of anger, gender is expected to play a significant moderating role in the link between anger and the behavioral consequences. Therefore,

**H11:** Gender is expected to moderate the link between anger and the behavioral consequences, that is (a) the link between anger and propensity to complain, (b) the link between anger and repurchase intentions, (c) the link between anger and word-of-mouth and (d) the link between anger and third-party action.

Once again, gender is first expected to moderate the relationship between anger and each evaluative consequence. Based on the research described earlier (Dwyer, Richard, & Shepard, 1998; Fischer, Gainer, & Bristor, 1997; Tajfel, 1982): we expect customer anger to lead to (1) fewer repurchase intentions (the influence of gender on H6), (2) more complaining behavior (the influence of gender on H7), (3) less positive word-of-mouth behavior (the influence of gender on H8), and (4) more third-party action (the influence of gender on H9), when service provider and customer gender do not match. Table 3 presents the specific moderating influences expected from customer/employee gender combinations on the links of anger on the behavioral consequences.

Table 3: The moderating role of customer and service provider gender on behaviors

<b>Gender Mismatch (MF, FM)</b>	<b>Gender Match (MM, FF)</b>
<b>Behavioral Consequences</b>	
1- Fewer purchase intentions	1- Greater purchase intentions
2- More complaining	2- Less complaining
3- Less positive word-of-mouth	3- More positive word-of-mouth
4- More third-party action	4- Less third-party action

The second moderating role of gender is its differential influence on the consequences themselves, based on the gender of the customer. Angry male customers are expected to be more inclined toward complaining behavior and third-party action than angry female customers, while angry female customers are likely to engage in word-of-

mouth behavior than angry male customers (Hollandsworth and Wall, 1977; Kowalski, 1993; Timmers et al., 1998). Finally, no specific direction is expected with respect to repurchase intentions due to lack of gender research on the subject. However, we are inclined to expect angry male customers to intend to repurchase less than angry female customers due to their assertive nature (Block, 1973; Brehm, 1992; Timmers et al., 1998). Table 4 presents the hypothesis directions regarding the moderating role of customer gender on the influence of anger on the behavioral consequences.

Table 4: The moderating role of customer gender on behaviors

<b>Men</b>	<b>Women</b>
<b>Evaluative Consequences</b>	
1- More/Less repurchase intentions?	1- More/Less repurchase intentions?
2- More direct complaints	2- Less direct complaints
3- Less word-of-mouth behavior	3- More word-of-mouth behavior
4- More third-party action	4- Less third-party action

## **CHAPTER III**

### **METHODOLOGY**

### **3. 1. Sample**

The sample consisted of undergraduate and graduate students at a major North Eastern university. Given the nature of the service situations studied, most undergraduate students will have had experience with the services used (bank and retail) and therefore, represent an appropriate population to sample from. Prior to data collection, the Research Office of the university had granted ethical approval for the study.

Data was collected during class time. A couple of weeks earlier, professors were approached and asked whether it would be possible to visit their class and ask for volunteer respondents. Only those classes where the professor's prior approval was obtained were visited. Students were informed that their participation was strictly voluntary with two \$75 lottery prizes drawn from the pool of participants. Prizes provided a small incentive to ensure students participation.

### **3. 2. Design**

The design was a 2 (mood: angry/neutral) by 2 (customer gender: Male/Female) by 2 (service provider gender: Male/Female) by 2 (service setting: bank/retail) experiment, resulting in a total of sixteen cells. Mood was induced by a mental simulation scenario. The two levels of mood were manipulated with the use of two different versions of the service failure scenario. In one service failure scenario the customer experienced significant financial losses, in the other there was minimal financial loss. The first version was designed to induce anger and the second was used as the control or neutral condition. Customer/service provider gender combinations were manipulated with the use of the said scenario. In other words, the customer's gender was the equivalent to that of the respondent and the scenarios clearly mention the presence of a male or female service

provider within the service encounter. The service scenarios (bank and retail) were chosen because they represent a service situation with which students are familiar with and can imagine themselves in easily. Further, they were chosen because they represent services where service provider contact is frequently encountered with both genders, and where the existence of a gendered servicescape is not present (see Fischier, Gainer, & Bristol, 1997). Finally, the measurement of anger was based on the condition of the scenario provided to the respondent and based on these conditions, respondents were categorized as being angry or neutral. Previous research on anger in service encounters has either used retrospective sampling as a method of anger inducement (e.g., Bougie, Pieters, & Zeelenberg, 2003; Maute and Dubé, 1999; Westbrook and Oliver, 1991) or has tapped anger resulting from flight delays (e.g., Folkes, Koletsky, & Graham, 1987; Taylor, 1994). However, some significant discrepancies were observed between those customers that were significantly angry and those that were not (e.g., business travelers versus pleasure travelers). For example, if pleasure travelers were significantly angrier than business travelers, then results reported may have some extraneous variables inherent in such differences among customers that may influence findings. In light of this observation and the need to compare across conditions, respondents were classified as being in an angry or neutral state based on the scenarios they read.

### **3. 3. Procedure**

The questionnaire was administered by a graduate student from a major North Eastern university. Appendix A contains a copy of the questionnaire with all possible scenarios. The administrator first asked students whether they would like to complete a questionnaire. Participants were also told that all instructions were provided with the

questionnaire and that two draws for \$75 would be conducted after the entire data collection process was complete.

The questionnaire developed was in the following sequence: initial mood check, mood induction followed by an anger mood check, evaluation measures, behavioral measures, a second anger mood check and information concerning demographic variables. We first administered a mood check (Mood Short Form, Peterson and Sauber, 1983), to ensure that respondents did not enter the testing situation in an angry state. After assessing subjects' incoming/initial mood state, we proceeded with the mood induction. This was done using a mental simulation of a service scenario like the ones used in the Hui and Bateson (1991) or Maute and Dubé (1999) studies. These studies used a fictitious service scenario to simulate the desired service encounter as opposed to a lab setting. Research suggests that mental simulation is a valid methodology for theory testing when participants are presented with a realistic situation experienced on a regular basis (Schmitt, Dubé, & Leclerc, 1992; Thaler, 1985). Other researchers have used various methods to induce a negative mood including self-induced sadness (e.g., Rosenhan, Underwood, & Moore, 1974; Underwood and Moore, 1973), bogus negative feedback (e.g., Forgas, 1991; Zillman and Bryant, 1985), sad videotapes (e.g., Cunningham, 1988), and unhappy journal articles (e.g., Gardner and Hill, 1988). For the purposes of the present study, the use of a service scenario was deemed as the best way to mimic reality. While a field experiment could have been used instead, the presence of too many extraneous variables (e.g., prior relationship with the firm or service provider, amount of time spent shopping, and respondents' time constraints among others) may have hindered the results. Since previous research in services have successfully used

service scenarios as a method of mood induction, we deemed this approach as the most appropriate (e.g., Hui and Bateson, 1991; Maute and Dubé, 1999).

Service failure simulations were developed to induce angry or neutral mood states, and to represent the different gender combinations. We created two service scenarios, each with two versions (for the angry and neutral conditions). One scenario created a service failure at a bank where a customer's debit card was used fraudulently to withdraw money from his/her account. The second scenario induced a service failure in a retail store where a damaged article of clothing was not accepted for reimbursement.

Once the angry or neutral mood state had been induced, we then measured anger and related affective states along with the evaluative and behavioral consequences of interest (i.e., stereotyping behavior, overall service evaluation, service satisfaction, corporate image, justice perceptions, complaining behavior, word-of-mouth behavior, repurchase intentions and third-party action). We then performed a mood manipulation check by readministering the anger measure at the very end. This was done in order to ensure that subjects were actually in an angry mood state after reading the service failure scenario and while they were completing the dependent measures. Once the questionnaires were completed, participants were thanked, debriefed, and wished good luck for the draw.

### **3. 4. Measures**

The measures<sup>1</sup> employed are listed in Table 5 for illustrative purposes and will be discussed in detail further on.

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<sup>1</sup> Reliance on stereotypes for service provider evaluation is excluded in this list and is described in detail in the 10<sup>th</sup> part of this section (i.e., Section 3. 4. 10: Service Provider Stereotyping).



Table 5: List of measures used in the present study

Variables	Items <sup>2</sup>
Initial Mood (7-point scale, strongly disagree/strongly agree).	(1) Currently, I am in a good mood. (2) As I answer these questions, I feel cheerful. (3) For some reason, I am very comfortable right now. (4) At this moment, I do not feel edgy or irritable.
Blame for Failure (7-point scale, not at all/ completely)	(1) To what extent was the bank responsible for the problem that you experienced? (2) To what extent was the problem that you encountered the bank's fault? (3) To what extent do you blame the bank for this problem?
Anger (7-point scale, very weak/ very strong)	(1) Irritated (2) Annoyed (3) Angry (4) Frustrated (5) Upset (6) Hostile (7) Distressed (8) Mad (9) Contemptful (10) Disgusted (11) Enraged
Overall Service Evaluation (7-point scale, extremely poor/ extremely good)	(1) How would you rate the quality of the service provided by this bank? (2) How would you rate the procedures used by the bank to resolve your problem? (3) How would you rate the policies used by the bank to resolve your problem? (4) Overall, how would you rate the service provided at this bank?
Service Satisfaction (7-point scale, strongly disagree/strongly agree)	(1) I am satisfied with the service provided by this bank. (2) In my opinion, this bank provides satisfactory banking services. (3) As a whole, I am satisfied with this bank. (4) Overall, I am satisfied with the quality of the banking services.

<sup>2</sup> Items presented are those relating to the bank. For the retail store, the word "bank" was replaced by "store".

Table 5: List of measures used in the present study

Variables	Items
Corporate Image (7-point scale, extremely poor/ extremely good)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(1) Rate your overall opinion of the bank.</li> <li>(2) Rate your opinion of the bank's contribution to society.</li> <li>(3) Rate your liking of the bank.</li> <li>(4) Rate your perception of the bank being customer-oriented.</li> <li>(5) Rate your perception of other bank customers' overall opinion of the bank.</li> </ul>
Perceptions of Fairness (7-point scale, strongly disagree/strongly agree)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(1) The outcome I received was fair.</li> <li>(2) I did get what I deserved.</li> <li>(3) In resolving the problem, the bank gave me what I needed.</li> <li>(4) The outcome I received was right.</li> </ul>
Propensity to complain (7-point scale, extremely unlikely/ extremely likely)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(1) I would complain to the head office of the bank.</li> <li>(2) I would complain to the teller directly.</li> <li>(3) I would complain to the branch manager directly.</li> <li>(4) I would fill out a complaint report.</li> </ul>
Negative Repurchase Intentions (7-point scale, strongly disagree/strongly agree)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(1) In the near future, I intend to intensify my efforts to find a better bank.</li> <li>(2) I have decided to do less business with this bank in the future.</li> <li>(3) I have decided to switch to another bank that offers better service.</li> <li>(4) In the future, I do not intend to use banking services from this bank.</li> </ul>
Positive Word-of-Mouth (7-point scale, extremely unlikely/ extremely likely)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(1) I would recommend this bank to my friends and acquaintances.</li> <li>(2) I would encourage friends and acquaintances to do business with this bank.</li> <li>(3) If my friends and acquaintances were looking for banking services, I would tell them to try this bank.</li> <li>(4) Given my most recent experience with the bank, I would recommend their services to my friends and acquaintances.</li> </ul>
Third-party Action (7-point scale, extremely unlikely/ extremely likely)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>(1) Write a letter to the local newspaper about your bad experience.</li> <li>(2) Report to a third party so that they can warn other consumers.</li> <li>(3) Complain to a consumer protection agency and ask them to make the bank take care of your problem.</li> <li>(4) Take some legal action against the bank.</li> </ul>

### 3. 4. 1. Initial Mood.

Several scales exist for gauging subjects' mood states: (1) the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (hereafter, PANAS), developed by Watson, Clark, & Tellegen (1988), (2) the global measure of mood developed by Swinyard (1993), and (3) the Mood Short Form (hereafter, MSF) developed by Peterson and Sauber (1983). The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) consists of ten negative and ten positive affective states, assessed with five-point scales. Since anger is not included as one of the ten negative states, it would be necessary to modify the measure in order to include this mood state. Further, the PANAS scale is a very long measure, which is not suitable for collecting classroom data. Therefore, this measure was eliminated as an appropriate measure of initial mood. The global measure of mood measures mood at a particular point in time on a simple good/bad continuum was also considered. Given its global nature, it was not deemed appropriate for our purposes. Instead, we used the MSF to assess participants' initial mood state. The MSF is a four-item scale composed of 5-point Likert scales. These scales range from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Item ratings are summed to provide a unidimensional MSF score. This measure is based on items drawn from Mehrabian's (1972) non-verbal communication scale and the Mood Adjective Check List (Nowlis, 1965). Coefficient alphas ranging from .74 to .78 have been reported for this measure (Peterson and Sauber, 1983). It is important to note that we extended this 5-point scale to a 7-point scale for purposes of consistency.

### 3. 4. 2. Anger.

Traditional measures of consumers' responses to service failures do not include a specific measure of anger. A 10-item measure comprising primary emotions is frequently

reported in studies of consumer responses to service problems (adapted from Bitner, 1990; Schmitt et al., 1992 and used in a study by Maute and Dubé, 1999). This measure or one very similar to it is often used in marketing research to gauge consumption emotions (e.g., Mano and Oliver, 1993; Westbrook and Oliver, 1991). The measure captures participants' responses to the service failure with each of the 10 emotions (i.e., hostile, aggressive, outrage, surprise, calm, distress, tolerant, irritable, anxious, and relaxed) using a 9-point scale anchored by "highly unlikely to highly likely." However, as mentioned earlier the measure does not ask about anger directly, and therefore, an additional consumption emotion would need to be added to the measure to include anger. Coefficient alphas reported for this scale range from .73 to .91 (Westbrook and Oliver, 1991).

Izard (1977) developed a measure to tap respondents' angry state and to assess their experience with anger-related emotions (i.e., enraged, angry and mad). This measure uses a 3-item, five-point summated rating scale, ranging from very weak to very strong, and can be worded so as to measure the intensity of respondents' current emotional state. Coefficient alphas of .89 and .92 were reported for this scale by Allen, Machleit, & Kleine (1992) and Westbrook and Oliver (1991) respectively (Bruner II and Hensel, 1996). Taylor (1994) also used a short scale to measure anger, adapting it from a number of different scales (e.g., Batra and Ray, 1986; Edell and Burke, 1987; Holbrook and Batra, 1987). This measure is a 4-item, 7-point scale, ranging from not at all to very where respondents are asked to rate how much they feel "irritated," "frustrated," "angry," and "annoyed." This scale's Coefficient alpha was reported as .92 in Taylor's study (1994). Finally, Westbrook and Oliver (1991) adopted Izard's measure to represent respondents' multiple emotional reactions. This measure contains ten 5-point subscales, ranging from

almost never to very often, representing the frequency with which subjects experience each of the positive (i.e., interest, joy) and negative affective states (i.e., anger, contempt, disgust, shame, guilt, sadness, fear and surprise). Substantial evidence has been provided for the validity of this measure and its applicability to consumption settings (see Westbrook, 1987).

Given the nature of this study, a measure of anger was developed combining the different approaches developed by Taylor (1994), Izard (1977), Maute and Dubé (1999), and Westbrook and Oliver (1991). This 11-item scale includes only those items that relate to anger. All items were measured using 7-point Likert scales ranging from very weak to very strong.

#### 3. 4. 3. Overall Service Evaluation.

A service evaluation measure was developed with items measuring the quality of the service provided, the procedures and policies surrounding the service as well as an overall evaluation of service. This measure is composed of 4-item 7-point scales, ranging from very poor to very good. In this study, Cronbach alpha for the overall sample was .91.

#### 3. 4. 4. Service Satisfaction.

A service satisfaction measure adapted from the Maxham III and Netemeyer (2002) and Maxham III (2001) studies was used. These authors measure consumer service satisfaction with bank services when service failure has occurred. Cronbach alphas reported for this measure range from .83 to .96 (Maxham III and Netemeyer, 2002; Maxham III, 2001). The measure used in the present study consists of a 4-item 7-point scale with strongly disagree and strongly agree as the anchor points.

#### 3. 4. 5. Justice Perceptions.

Smith, Bolton, & Wagner (1999) used three different subscales to measure each type of justice, that is distributive, procedural and interactional. Given the nature of the present study, distributive justice was the only type of justice which was measured. The 4-item measure used in this study consisted of 7-point Likert scales ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. These same items were used by Smith, Bolton, & Wagner (1999) in their distributive justice subscale. Reliabilities for this scale were not reported by Smith, Bolton, & Wagner (1999), but the Cronbach alpha reported for this study was .89.

#### 3. 4. 6. Corporate Image.

Corporate image was measured with the same 3-item measure used by Andreassen and Lindestad (1988). For the purposes of consistency, it was modified from its original 10-point range to a 7-point range with extremely poor to extremely good as the end points. Cronbach alphas reported for this measure range between .57 and .67 (Andreassen and Lindestad, 1988). Given these low reported alphas, Andreassen's (2001) definition of corporate image was used to add two more items to this measure to create a 5-item 7-point scale, ranging from extremely poor to extremely good. The Cronbach alpha for this new measure for the complete sample of the present study was .89.

#### 3. 4. 7. Propensity to Complain.

A 4-item measure was developed representing possible direct complaints to the firm itself. Each item was measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from extremely likely to extremely unlikely. The coefficient alphas for the overall sample was .78.

#### 3. 4. 8. Repurchase Intentions and Word-of-Mouth.

In terms of measuring complaining behavior, word-of-mouth behavior, and repurchase intentions in relation to anger, past research has largely focused on single-item scales (e.g., Blodgett, Granbois, & Walters, 1993; Diaz and Ruiz, 2002; Folkes, Koletsky and Graham, 1987). Multi-item scales would yield more reliable results (Churchill, 1979), and thus, portray a more accurate and holistic picture of the behavioral consequences of anger in service settings. Based on multi-item scales used in past research (see Athanassopolos, 2001; Maxham and Netemeyer, 2002; Maxham III, 2001), we developed measures to assess word-of-mouth behavior and repurchase intentions. Alphas for positive word-of-mouth and repurchase intentions reported by Maxham III (1999) are in the range of .96 to .97. Similarly, the Maxham III and Netemeyer (2002) study reported alphas ranging from .83 to .97 for positive word-of-mouth and repurchase intentions. Finally, the Athanassopoulos (2001) study reported an alpha of .77 for repurchase intentions and an alpha of .87 for word-of-mouth communications.

#### 3. 4. 9. Third-party Action.

Third-party action was measured with a scale previously used by Singh (1989) and adapted from Day, Gabricke, Schaetzle, & Stanbach (1981). This measure asks respondents to report the likelihood of taking each of four different actions with end points ranging from very likely to very unlikely. The composite reliability reported for this measure is .85 (Singh, 1989). For consistency purposes, this measure was modified from a 6-point to a 7-point scale.

### 3. 4. 10. Service Provider Stereotyping.

Stereotyping of service providers can be measured in many different ways. The Katz and Braly (1933) checklist procedure has been extensively used in past research to assess stereotypes. This measure provides respondents with a list of traits and asks them to check the five traits most typical of a particular group. Because this measure provides information about only a group-average stereotype (McCauley and Stitt, 1978), it cannot be used to assess individual differences in degree of stereotyping (Martin, 1987) and hence, would not be appropriate for this study. Developed by Gardner, Kirby, Gorospe, & Villamin (1972), a Stereotype Differential Measure has also been used to assess stereotypes. This measure asks respondents to rate a particular group on a number of bipolar trait scales, which makes it a more quantitative measure as compared to the Katz and Braly's (1933) checklist. However, this measure still depends on group consensus to define stereotypes (McCauley and Stitt, 1978) and would also not be appropriate for this study.

In order to overcome the limitations of the checklist procedure, Brigham (1971) developed a stereotype measuring method where respondents are asked to estimate the percentage of members of the target group with particular characteristics. The utility of such percentage estimates was proven when McCauley and Stitt (1978) used a ratio approach to define and measure stereotypes. This measure has been used to assess the stereotypes that are common for certain groups of people. The ratio measure of a stereotype is calculated by dividing the estimated incident of the attribute in the target group by the incident of that attribute in the population. Martin (1987) used the ratio method developed by McCauley and Stitt (1978) to develop a ratio measure of *gender* stereotyping. The items



within this measure are based on the 40 attributes of the Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire (hereafter, EPAQ) originally developed by Spence, Helmreich, & Kolahan (1979). The EPAQ is a 40-item scale used to assess an individual's typically masculine and feminine traits. Using a 5-point scale ranging from "very" to "not at all," it asks respondents to rate the extent to which the person in question possesses the 40 attributes.

A shorter version of Martin's (1987) ratio measure of sex stereotyping was used in this study to measure stereotypes of service providers as well as the role played by gender on such stereotypes. Those 20 items retained from the original 40-item measure were based on the relevancy to the occupations depicted in the scenarios based on results of a small pretest conducted for questionnaire development purposes prior to data collection. This measure simply asked respondents to estimate the percentage of bank or retail service providers that possess 20 attributes from the EPAQ and then to rate, on a 7-point scale ranging from very to not at all, the extent to which the service provider from the scenario possessed these attributes. Four attributes were retained from each subcategory, that is four masculine positive traits, four masculine negative traits, four feminine positive traits, four feminine negative traits, and four neutral traits (Table 6). The five ratio measures of stereotyping were calculated in a similar manner. The overall ratio measure of stereotyping was measured by converting all EPAQ responses concerning the service employee in the scenario into their respective percentages. The mean of these percentages was then divided by the mean percentage scores reported for these traits for service providers in the general population, resulting in an individual index score of stereotyping. The five subcategory ratio measures were calculated in the exact same way except that only masculine positive traits were considered for the masculine positive index of stereotyping, only masculine

Table 6: List of traits used to measure service provider stereotyping

<b>Masculine Positive</b>
Self-confident
Stands up under pressure
Makes decisions easily
Feels superior
<b>Masculine Negative</b>
Hostile
Arrogant
Dictatorial
Unprincipled
<b>Feminine Positive</b>
Helpful
Aware of other's feelings
Kind
Understanding
<b>Feminine Negative</b>
Spineless
Gullible
Servile
Subordinates self to others
<b>Neutral</b>
Sincere
Reliable
Unhappy
Moody

negative traits for the masculine negative index of stereotyping, feminine positive traits for the feminine index of stereotyping, feminine negative traits for the feminine negative index of stereotyping, and of course, neutral traits for the neutral index of stereotyping. An index of less than one indicates a smaller degree of reliance on stereotyping and an index greater than one indicates a larger degree of reliance on stereotyping.

# **CHAPTER IV**

## **RESULTS**

Before testing the hypotheses, we first performed various preliminary analyses—a summary of which follows. We conducted initial tests (see sections 4.2 to 4.4) to ensure that (1) participants did not enter the testing situation in a preexisting negative mood, (2) respondents did in fact blame the service firm after reading their respective scenarios, and (3) the mood induction was indeed successful. Following these three tests, we conducted factor analyses on the measures of anger, and the evaluative and behavioral consequences (see sections 4.5 and 4.6). Prior to testing the hypotheses (see section 4.8), we carried out a last check to make sure the anger experienced initially did not dissipate during completion of the dependent measures (see section 4.7). We finally performed post hoc tests with respect to the differential impact of anger and anger-related items on the evaluative and behavioral consequences (see section 4.9).

#### **4. 1. Sample**

Six hundred and ninety-seven questionnaires were distributed and collected. Thirty questionnaires were rejected due to incomplete information. The final sample consisted of 667 undergraduate/graduate students from a major North American university. Ninety eight percent of these students were pursuing undergraduate degrees and one percent were pursuing graduate/professional degrees. The sample consisted of 369 (55%) females and 298 (45%) males, where 12% were less than 19 years of age, 73% between 20 and 24, 9.2 % between 25 and 29, 3.4 % between 30 and 34, .7% between 35 and 39 and less than 1% were over 40. Fifty-seven percent were working part-time, 17% were working full-time and 26% were unemployed. Ninety-two percent were single, 6% married, 5.8% were living with a partner and less than 1% were separated, divorced, or widowed. Finally, 35.8% reported a household income of less than \$20,000, 11% between

\$20,000 and \$29,999, 14% between \$30,000 and \$49,000, 11.5% between \$50,000 and \$69,000, 9.6% between \$70,000 and \$89,000 and 18% reported a household income greater than \$90,000.

#### 4. 2. Initial Mood Check

The means (SD) of respondents' initial mood were 4.82 (1.13), 4.88 (1.08), and 4.75 (1.18) respectively for the complete sample, and the bank and retail subsamples, which will be further discussed in section 6 of the present chapter. These results indicate that respondents were in a neutral initial affective state. In other words, respondents did not enter the testing situation in an extremely negative or positive mood. Moreover, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed no significant differences at  $p < .05$  among any of the 8 major conditions regarding respondents' initial mood (i.e. before exposure to the service scenario) ( $F(7,664) = 1.89$ ,  $MS = 2.40$ ,  $p = .07$ ). Table 7 presents the mean of respondents' initial mood based on the various conditions.

Table 7: Mean of initial mood based on condition

CONDITIONS	N	Initial Mood (Std. Dev.)
<b>Bank</b>	330	4.88 (1.08)
Angry-Female Provider	78	5.12 (.97)
Angry-Male Provider	82	4.77 (1.13)
Neutral-Female Provider	87	5.04 (.89)
Neutral-Male Provider	83	4.62 (1.25)
<b>Retail</b>	337	4.75 (1.18)
Angry-Female Provider	83	4.84 (1.23)
Angry-Male Provider	85	4.73 (1.08)
Neutral-Female Provider	84	4.72 (1.32)
Neutral-Male Provider	85	4.71 (1.19)

### 4. 3. Attribution of Blame for Failure

After reading the hypothetical scenarios, the mean for “blame” or the degree to which respondents attribute responsibility for the service failure to the service firm were as follows: 5.41(1.43), 4.94 (1.53), 5.87 (1.14) for the complete sample, and the bank and retail subsamples respectively (see section 4. 6, Table 15). These results indicate that, in general, respondents tended to attribute the blame for the service failure to the service firm.

However, one-way ANOVAs revealed some significant differences at  $p < .01$  among the of the 8 conditions regarding respondents’ attribution of blame for the service failure ( $F(7,665) = 13.48$ ,  $MS = 24.23$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Table 8 presents the mean of respondents’ initial mood based on the various conditions. Post hoc tests (Appendix B, Table 9) reveal that there are differences across the bank and retail conditions. In general, respondents in the retail condition blame the service firm for the service failure significantly more than the respondents in the bank condition. It is important to point out that angry and neutral respondents blame the service firm equally in both the conditions.

Table 8: Mean of blame based on condition

CONDITIONS	N	Blame (Std. Dev.)
<b>Bank</b>	330	4.94 (1.53)
Angry-Female Provider	78	5.31 (1.46)
Angry-Male Provider	82	5.05 (1.57)
Neutral-Female Provider	87	4.66 (1.45)
Neutral-Male Provider	83	4.78 (1.60)
<b>Retail</b>	337	5.87 (1.14)
Angry-Female Provider	83	6.06 (1.04)
Angry-Male Provider	85	5.85 (1.17)
Neutral-Female Provider	84	5.66 (1.27)
Neutral-Male Provider	85	5.89 (1.04)

#### 4. 4. Manipulation Check

We conducted one-way ANOVAs on the means of all anger and anger-related items based on the various conditions in order to determine whether the manipulation was successful (i.e., if the respondents in the anger-inducing condition were significantly angrier than those in the neutral condition). The anger and anger-related items tested were split into five groups. The first group consisted of the mean of all the anger and anger-related items measured. This initial grouping provided an overall view of anger and its associated variables. The second group consisted of the mean of the four items used by Taylor (1994) to measure anger (i.e. irritated, annoyed, angry, and frustrated). This group was used as an exact replicate of the anger measure used by Taylor (1994). The third group consisted of the mean of all hostility-related items (i.e., upset, hostile, distressed, and mad) reflecting the measure used by Izard (1977). The fourth group consisted of the mean of those variables related to disgust (i.e., contemptful, disgusted, and enraged), which characterize negative aspects of disgust and which was used by Westbrook and Oliver (1991) as part of their measure of anger. Finally, the fifth group consisted of the mean of the anger measure identified using factor analysis (see complete description in Section 4. 5). The means of anger experienced for the complete sample, and the bank and retail subsamples based on the different groupings are represented in Table 10.

Results of the ANOVAs for all subgroups were identical, revealing a significant difference in the amount of anger experienced based on the scenario condition ( $F(7, 666) = 24.56$ ,  $MS = 33.88$ ,  $p < .01$  for all anger and anger-related items,  $F(7, 666) = 12.55$ ,  $MS = 15.21$ ,  $p < .01$  for Taylor's (1994) items,  $F(7, 666) = 24.82$ ,  $MS = 44.65$ ,  $p < .01$  for hostility-related items, and  $F(7, 666) = 22.16$ ,  $MS = 53.99$ ,

Table 10: Mean of anger and anger-related items based on condition

CONDITIONS	N	All Anger Items (Std. Dev.)	Taylor's Items (Std. Dev.)	Hostility Group (Std. Dev.)	Disgusted Group (Std. Dev.)	Anger* (Std. Dev.)
<b>Bank</b>	330					
Angry-Female Provider	78	5.99 (1.03)	6.45 (.87)	5.98 (1.14)	5.39 (1.58)	5.84 (1.17)
Angry-Male Provider	82	5.85 (1.05)	6.23 (.95)	5.82 (1.20)	5.38 (1.41)	5.74 (1.15)
Neutral-Female Provider	87	4.50 (1.38)	5.42 (1.30)	4.27 (1.59)	3.57 (1.69)	4.10 (1.53)
Neutral-Male Provider	83	4.65 (1.39)	5.46 (1.30)	4.42 (1.57)	3.89 (1.68)	4.33 (1.52)
<b>Retail</b>	337					
Angry-Female Provider	83	5.63 (1.00)	6.20 (.98)	5.53 (1.14)	5.00 (1.45)	5.44 (1.09)
Angry-Male Provider	85	5.87 (.90)	6.32 (.78)	5.81 (1.04)	5.37 (1.41)	5.73 (1.04)
Neutral-Female Provider	84	4.67 (1.32)	5.50 (1.35)	4.47 (1.46)	3.82 (1.62)	4.34 (1.44)
Neutral-Male Provider	85	4.86 (1.21)	5.76 (1.11)	4.63 (1.46)	3.97 (1.60)	4.48 (1.39)

\* Note: This is the mean of all anger and anger-related items except for frustrated, annoyed, and irritated (see section 4.5).

$p < .01$  for Westbrook and Oliver's (1991) disgust-related items. Given these results, post hoc tests were conducted in order to determine which of the 8 major conditions (both genders included) differed from each other. For three out of the four groups, post hoc tests revealed identical results. For the mean of all anger items, mean of the hostility-related items, and the mean of disgust-related items, the anger-inducing conditions differed significantly from all the neutral conditions and did not differ significantly from any other anger-inducing condition. Similarly, neutral conditions did not significantly differ from other neutral conditions. However, this was not the case with Taylor's (1994) items where post hoc tests revealed that the retail-neutral-male service provider condition did not significantly differ from any other conditions except for the bank-angry-female service provider condition. Given these results, a final one-way ANOVA was conducted on the mean of anger and anger-related items excluding "frustrated", "annoyed", and "irritated" (Taylor's (1994) anger-related items). Once again, we found significant differences in the anger experienced based on the scenario condition,  $(F(7, 659) = 27.53, MS = 47.08,$



$p < .01$ ). Post hoc tests presented in Table 11 reveal that anger-inducing conditions differed significantly from all neutral conditions and did not differ significantly from any other anger-inducing condition. Similarly, neutral conditions did not significantly differ from other neutral conditions. Overall, the manipulation was successful with respondents in the angry conditions being significantly angrier than those in the neutral conditions.

Table 11: Post hoc tests for anger based on condition

Conditions	Mean Difference (Standard Error) *							
	B-A-F	B-A-M	B-N-F	B-N-M	R-A-F	R-A-M	R-N-F	R-N-M
Bank-Angry-Female Provider (B-A-F)	—	.10 (.21)	1.74 (.20)*	1.51 (.21)*	.40 (.21)	.11 (.21)	1.50 (.21)*	1.36 (.21)*
Bank-Angry-Male Provider (B-A-M)	-.10 (.21)	—	1.64 (.20)*	1.41 (.20)*	.30 (.20)	.01 (.20)	1.40 (.20)*	1.26 (.20)*
Bank-Neutral-Female Provider (B-N-F)	-1.74 (.20)*	-1.64 (.20)*	—	-.23 (.20)	-1.34 (.20)*	-1.63 (.20)*	-.24 (.20)	-.38 (.20)
Bank-Neutral-Male Provider (B-N-M)	-1.51 (.21)*	-1.41 (.20)*	.23 (.20)	—	-1.12 (.20)*	-1.40 (.20)*	-.008 (.20)	-.15 (.20)
Retail-Angry-Female Provider (R-A-F)	-.40 (.21)	-.30 (.20)	1.34 (.20)*	1.12 (.20)*	—	-.29 (.20)	1.11 (.20)*	.96 (.21)*
Retail-Angry-Male Provider (R-A-M)	-.11 (.20)	-.01 (.20)	1.63 (.20)*	1.40 (.20)*	.29 (.20)	—	1.39 (.20)*	1.25 (.21)*
Retail-Neutral-Female Provider (R-N-F)	-1.50 (.20)*	-1.40 (.20)*	.24 (.20)	.008 (.20)	-1.11 (.20)*	-1.93 (.20)*	—	-.14 (.21)
Retail-Neutral-Male Provider (R-N-M)	1.36 (.20)*	-1.26 (.20)*	.38 (.20)	.15 (.20)	-.96 (.20)*	-1.25 (.20)*	.14 (.20)	—

Note: The dependent variable of anger was measured as the mean of all anger and anger-related items except Irritated, Annoyed, Frustrated. \*  $p < .01$

#### 4. 5. Factor Analysis: Anger and Anger-related Items

We conducted principal component factor analyses with oblimin rotation on all anger and anger-related items for the complete sample, as well as the bank and retail subsamples. In all cases, two factors emerged with most of the variance explained by the first factor. However, two items, “annoyed” and “irritated” (i.e., those items used by Taylor (1994)) consistently loaded onto the second factor and one item, “frustrated” loaded onto factor one in the bank subsample and factor two in the retail subsample.

Given this pattern of results, Taylor's (1994) three anger-related items (irritated, frustrated, and annoyed) were removed from further analysis.

Factor analyses were then conducted on the anger and anger-related items, excluding irritated, frustrated and annoyed. Factor loadings for the complete sample, and the bank and the retail subsamples respectively are presented in tables 12.1, 12.2, and 12.3 (Appendix B). In this case, one factor emerged with loadings  $> .70$  noted among the overall sample and the subsamples.

#### **4. 6. Factor Analysis: Evaluative and Behavioral Consequences**

A principal component factor analysis was conducted with oblimin rotation on all the evaluative<sup>3</sup> and behavioral consequences for the complete sample as well as for the bank and retail subsamples. Examining the results of this initial factor analysis for the complete sample, two items measuring corporate image yielded low factor loadings. These items were overall opinion of the bank/store (with a .45 loading) and perception of bank being customer-oriented (with a .46 loading). For this reason, these two items were removed and a second factor analysis was conducted. Table 13 presents the factor loadings for the evaluative and behavioral consequences, which yielded a seven factor pattern.

All service evaluation and service satisfaction items loaded onto one factor, which is not surprising since service satisfaction and overall service evaluation are related (41.64% of the total variance explained). Justice items loaded onto a second factor (5.27% of the total variance explained). All items for corporate image loaded onto a third factor (3.42% of the total variance explained). Items from each behavioral

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<sup>3</sup> Ratio measures of stereotyping were excluded due to the nature of the data collected and the manner of calculations of all ratios.

Table 13: Factor loadings and Cronbach alphas for evaluative and behavioral consequences

	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's alpha		
		Full	Bank	Retail
<b>Factor 1</b>				
Overall Service Evaluation				
(1) How would you rate the quality of the service provided by this bank?	.82	.91	.91	.89
(2) How would you rate the procedures used by the bank to resolve your problem?	.70			
(3) How would you rate the policies used by the bank to resolve your problem?	.67			
(4) Overall, how would you rate the service provided at this bank?	.87			
Service Satisfaction				
(1) I am satisfied with the service provided by this bank.	.78	.93	.94	.89
(2) In my opinion, this bank provides satisfactory banking services.	.76			
(3) As a whole, I am satisfied with this bank.	.67			
(4) Overall, I am satisfied with the quality of the banking services.	.66			
<b>Factor 2</b>				
Third-party Action				
(1) Write a letter to the local newspaper about your bad experience.	.84	.85	.87	.82
(2) Report to a third party so that they can warn other consumers.	.63			
(3) Complain to a consumer protection agency and ask them to make the bank take care of your problem.	.85			
(4) Take some legal action against the bank.	.83			
<b>Factor 3</b>				
Positive Word-of-Mouth				
(1) I would recommend this bank to my friends and acquaintances.	.91	.95	.96	.92
(2) I would encourage friends and acquaintances to do business with this bank.	.91			
(3) If my friends and acquaintances were looking for banking services, I would tell them to try this bank.	.82			
(4) Given my most recent experience with the bank, I would recommend their services to my friends and acquaintances.	.82			
<b>Factor 4</b>				
Perceptions of Justice				
(1) The outcome I received was fair.	.73	.89	.91	.83
(2) I did get what I deserved.	.88			
(3) In resolving the problem, the bank gave me what I needed.	.66			
(4) The outcome I received was right.	.79			

Table 13: Factor loadings and Cronbach alphas for evaluative and behavioral consequences

	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's alpha		
		Full	Bank	Retail
<b>Factor 5</b>				
Repurchase Intentions				
(1) In the near future, I intend to intensify my efforts to find a better bank.	.79	.92	.92	.90
(2) I have decided to do less business with this bank in the future.	.82			
(3) I have decided to switch to another bank that offers better service.	.77			
(4) In the future, I do not intend to use banking services from this bank.	.81			
<b>Factor 6</b>				
Propensity to complain				
(1) I would complain to the head office of the bank.	.68	.78	.82	.75
(2) I would complain to the teller directly.	.65			
(3) I would complain to the branch manager directly.	.80			
(4) I would fill out a complaint report.	.67			
<b>Factor 7</b>				
Corporate Image				
(2) Rate your opinion of the bank's contribution to society.	.72	.89	.91	.86
(3) Rate your liking of the bank.	.52			
(5) Rate your perception of other bank customers' overall opinion of the bank.	.79			

consequence (i.e., propensity to complain, positive word-of-mouth, repurchase intentions, and third-party action) loaded onto their separate factors. Propensity to complain explained 3.90% of the total variance, positive word-of-mouth explained 6.95% of the total variance, repurchase intentions explained 4.21% of the total variance, and third-party action explained 9.98% of the total variance. Overall, the factor analysis indicated that each evaluative/behavioral consequence (except for service satisfaction and evaluation) differed from the other consequences. Even though overall service evaluation and service satisfaction were found to be one factor in the factor analysis reported, they were still treated as separate for two reasons. First, previous research in the anger literature has

always considered service evaluation and service satisfaction as separate and have not combined both cognitive evaluations in a single framework. Second, it is important to examine individual differences for each construct since we have hypothesized gender's moderating role and would like to examine such effects on each construct individually.

Given the nature of the ratio measure of service provider stereotyping, a separate factor analysis was conducted for this measure. The ratio measure of service provider stereotyping was divided into one overall measure and five submeasures. The overall ratio measure of stereotyping was measured with all the 20 items of the Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire. All ratio measures were calculated in a similar manner. The 7-point scale responses of the extent each attribute was possessed by the service employee in the scenario was transformed into a percentage score based on equal division of 100 by seven sections. These scores were then calculated as a mean and this mean was divided by the mean percentages reported for service employees in general by the respondent. This allowed for a ratio measure of stereotyping for each individual respondent. The five submeasures were based on the masculine negative, masculine positive, feminine negative, feminine positive, and neutral traits relied upon by customers in making stereotypic evaluations.

Principal component factor analysis with oblimin rotation was conducted for the five subcategories of service provider stereotyping indices, resulting in a two-factor solution for the complete sample as well as for the bank and retail subsamples (Tables 14.1, 14.2, 14.3, Appendix B). For the complete sample and the bank subsample, the masculine positive and masculine negative ratios form one factor, whereas the feminine

Table 15: Mean of all variables for the full sample, and the bank and retail subsamples

<b>VARIABLES</b>	Full (Std. Dev.) N=667	Bank (Std. Dev.) N=330	Retail (Std. Dev.) N=337	Angry Respondents (Std. Dev.) N= 328	Neutral Respondents (St. Dev.) N= 339
Initial mood	4.82 (1.13)	4.88 (1.08)	4.75 (1.18)	4.86 (1.11)	4.78 (1.15)
Blame for Service failure	5.41 (1.43)	4.94 (1.53)	5.87 (1.14)	5.56 (1.38)	5.25 (1.45)
Anger	5.24 (1.31)	5.23 (1.40)	5.26 (1.22)	5.83 (1.00)	4.68 (1.33)
Anger at end	3.73 (1.73)	3.73 (1.78)	3.74 (1.68)	4.14 (1.79)	3.34 (1.58)
<b>Evaluative Consequences</b>					
Overall service evaluation	2.01 (1.03)	2.28 (1.10)	1.76 (.88)	1.80 (.86)	2.21(1.13)
Service satisfaction	2.13 (1.11)	2.38 (1.22)	1.89 (.94)	1.88 (.92)	2.37 (1.23)
Corporate image	2.41 (1.08)	2.58 (1.16)	2.24 (.96)	2.21 (.96)	2.60 (1.15)
Justice Perceptions	2.43 (.81)	2.55 (.85)	2.32 (.75)	2.31 (.71)	2.56 (.87)
Ratio measure of stereotyping	.92 (.45)	.95 (.51)	.89 (.38)	.90 (.38)	.94 (.50)
Ratio masculine positive	1.00 (.69)	1.01 (.61)	.99 (.76)	.98 (.53)	1.02 (.82)
Ratio masculine negative	1.65 (2.52)	1.79 (3.08)	1.52 (1.83)	1.63 (1.80)	1.61(2.86)
Ratio feminine positive	.80 (1.13)	.87 (1.08)	.74 (1.19)	.72 (1.10)	.89 (1.16)
Ratio feminine negative	1.22 (1.21)	1.22 (1.10)	1.21 (1.31)	1.21 (1.23)	1.22 (1.19)
Ratio neutral	.99 (.79)	.95 (.70)	1.05 (.87)	.97 (.66)	1.03 (.90)
<b>Behavioral Consequences</b>					
Propensity to complain	5.55 (1.40)	5.58 (1.45)	5.52 (1.36)	6.10 (1.07)	5.02 (1.48)
Negative Repurchase intentions	5.68 (1.41)	5.40 (1.54)	5.95 (1.21)	5.99 (1.31)	5.38 (1.44)
Positive word-of-mouth	1.65 (1.02)	1.77 (1.14)	1.53 (.87)	1.42 (.88)	1.87 (1.09)
Third-party action	3.29 (1.69)	3.49 (1.80)	3.09 (1.55)	3.99 (1.65)	2.61 (1.43)

positive, feminine negative, and neutral ones form a second factor. For the retail subsample, the two factors are divided into positive and negative traits where masculine positive, feminine positive, and neutral ratios form one factor and masculine negative and feminine negative ratios form a second factor. Irrespective of these results, hypothesis testing was conducted on the respective subcategories, as is common practice in psychology (Cota, Reid, & Dion, 1991; Spence, Helmreich, & Holahan, 1979).

Table 15 displays the mean of all variables included in this study for the complete sample, and the bank and retail subsamples. These means were calculated based on the results of the factor analyses. By mere observation of means, in general, it seems that neutral participants have more positive evaluations and behaviors than angry respondents,

whereas between the bank and retail subsamples, even though the differences are small, retail participants, in general, seem to have slightly more negative evaluations and behaviors. Possible reasons are discussed later on.

#### **4. 7. Test to Ensure Anger Did Not Dissipate**

A paired sample t-test was run in order to ensure that anger experienced right after exposure to the service scenario was still felt at the end of the questionnaire completion process. For the complete sample, the difference between the mean of all the anger and anger-related items at the start and at the end of the manipulation was significant (mean difference = 1.47,  $t(665) = 24.10$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and so was the difference between the single item measuring anger at the beginning and at the end of the questionnaire (mean difference = 1.88,  $t(660) = 23.80$ ,  $p < .01$ ). For the bank subsample, the same tests were significant (mean difference = 1.44,  $t(328) = 16.89$ ,  $p < .01$  for all items and mean difference = 1.88  $t(325) = 16.71$ ,  $p < .01$  for anger alone). The same results were also obtained for the retail subsample, (mean difference = 1.50,  $t(336) = 17.17$ ,  $p < .01$  for all items and 1.88,  $t(334) = 16.92$ ,  $p < .01$  for anger alone). These tests are expected to be significant since anger experienced after having vented frustrations (i.e., completing a long questionnaire) should diminish respondents' angered state. However, looking at the means, it is clear that respondents are still angry at the end of the questionnaire and were angry during its completion (angry item at start = 5.88, 5.84, 5.92 for the complete sample, and the bank and retail subsamples respectively, and angry item at end = 4.00, 3.96, 4.04 for the complete sample, and the bank and retail subsamples respectively). Given the scenario-driven nature of this study, the induction of a strong angry mood was unlikely from the get-go. Still, to explain the differences between the initial and final

mood manipulation checks, we turn to Forgas' Affect Infusion Model (2000) where mood-congruent recall takes place when the negative mood state is first experienced and then after a certain threshold, mood-incongruent recall follows. Since the initial angry state was not that strong to begin with and the questionnaire was quite lengthy, affect infusion probably lasted for a short while following which subjects tried to regulate their negative mood state by engaging in mood incongruent recall.

## 4. 8. Hypothesis Testing

### 4. 8. 1. Evaluative Consequences

Multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVAs) were conducted for all evaluative consequences as the dependent variables (i.e., overall service evaluation, service satisfaction, service provider stereotyping index and submeasures of stereotyping, justice perception, and corporate image) based on the gender of the customer, the gender of the service provider, and the mood condition (i.e., angry vs. neutral) as the independent variables. Analyses were repeated for the complete sample, and the bank and retail subsamples.

Table 16.1: Complete sample: MANOVA F values for evaluative consequences

Source	df	Ov. Service Evaluation	Service Satisfaction	Corporate Image	Fairness Perceptions
Mood Condition (Anger vs. Neutral)	1	20.74**	27.79**	15.94**	9.99*
Customer Gender (CG)	1	.50	.57	.59	.16
Service Provider Gender (SPG)	1	1.90	.78	.86	.04
Condition X CG	1	.07	1.43	.01	.06
Condition X SPG	1	7.80**	3.95*	.30	3.29
CG X SPG	1	1.48	3.29	3.99*	1.17
Condition X CG X SPG	1	3.70 <sup>1</sup>	1.95	.97	1.44

Note: \* = significant at the  $p < .05$

\*\* = significant at  $p < .01$

<sup>1</sup> = marginally significant at  $p = .055$



Table 16.2: Complete sample: MANOVA F values for stereotyping ratios

Source	df	Overall	Masc. Pos.	Masc. Neg.	Fem. Pos.	Fem. Neg.	Neutral
Mood Condition (Anger vs. Neutral)	1	.90	.005	.05	1.06	.89	.92
Customer Gender (CG)	1	3.81 <sup>1</sup>	.79	.005	4.53*	1.81	.75
Service Provider Gender (SPG)	1	1.31	.06	.61	.26	.41	.91
Condition X CG	1	.05	.51	.26	1.06	1.50	.10
Condition X SPG	1	4.02*	.60	4.54*	1.45	1.63	2.91
CG X SPG	1	1.76	1.16	.02	.04	1.33	1.47
Condition X CG X SPG	1	2.36	.66	.83	1.00	.07	2.34

Note: \* = significant at the  $p < .05$

\*\* = significant at  $p < .01$

<sup>1</sup> = marginally significant at  $p = .052$

In general, H1, H3, H4 and H5 are supported, while H2 is not supported. For the complete sample, significant main effects were found for condition type for all evaluative consequences except for service provider stereotyping, ( $F(1,632) = 20.74$ ,  $MS = 19.75$ ,  $p < .01$  for overall service evaluation,  $F(1,632) = 27.79$ ,  $MS = 31.15$ ,  $p < .01$  for service satisfaction,  $F(1,632) = 15.94$ ,  $MS = 16.94$ ,  $p < .01$  for corporate image,  $F(1,632) = 9.99$ ,  $MS = 9.29$ ,  $p < .01$  for perceptions of justice, and  $F(1,632) = .90$ ,  $MS = .18$ , NS for gender stereotyping) (Table 16.1 and 16.2). Therefore, angry respondents evaluate the service as being inferior (1.78 for angry respondents vs. 2.21 for neutral respondents), are less satisfied (1.87 for angry respondents vs. 2.36 for neutral respondents), rate corporate image as being inferior (2.18 for angry respondents vs. 2.59 for neutral respondents), and perceive less fairness as to the outcome (2.29 for angry respondents vs. 2.55 for neutral respondents) than neutral respondents (Appendix B, Table 17.1). However, respondents in the angry and neutral conditions do not differ in the extent to which they engage in service provider stereotyping.

Table 16.3: Bank subsample: MANOVA F values for evaluative consequences

Source	df	Ov. Service Evaluation	Service Satisfaction	Corporate Image	Fairness Perceptions
Mood Condition (Anger vs. Neutral)	1	18.96**	20.22**	6.64*	6.60*
Customer Gender (CG)	1	1.11	.37	.46	.43
Service Provider Gender (SPG)	1	1.20	4.34*	1.58	.07
Condition X CG	1	.58	1.23	.96	.28
Condition X SPG	1	1.77	2.92	1.02	.90
CG X SPG	1	.62	.16	.71	.31
Condition X CG X SPG	1	.06	2.06	1.02	< .001

Note: \* = significant at the  $p < .05$   
 \*\* = significant at  $p < .01$   
 1 = marginally significant at  $p = .055$

Table 16.4: Bank subsample: MANOVA F values for stereotyping ratios

Source	df	Overall	Masc. Pos.	Masc. Neg.	Fem. Pos.	Fem. Neg.	Neutral
Mood Condition (Anger vs. Neutral)	1	1.62	3.69 <sup>1</sup>	.54	.77	.61	1.03
Customer Gender (CG)	1	3.43	.75	.80	4.07*	1.75	3.07
Service Provider Gender (SPG)	1	.85	1.68*	1.31	.13	<.001	.01
Condition X CG	1	.46	.11	.12	3.63 <sup>2</sup>	2.90	.28
Condition X SPG	1	.64	.37	7.84**	.07	1.38	.005
CG X SPG	1	.004	.56	.03	.53	1.76	.08
Condition X CG X SPG	1	.82	.23	1.61	1.60	<.001	.10

Note: \* = significant at the  $p < .05$   
 \*\* = significant at  $p < .01$   
 1 = marginally significant at  $p = .056$   
 2 = marginally significant at  $p = .058$

The same evaluations are significant for the bank subsample, and in the same direction ( $F(1,301) = 18.96$ ,  $MS = 20.59$ ,  $p < .01$  for overall service evaluation,  $F(1,301) = 20.22$ ,  $MS = 26.31$ ,  $p < .01$  for service satisfaction,  $F(1,301) = 6.64$ ,  $MS = 8.14$ ,  $p = .01$  for corporate image,  $F(1,301) = 6.60$ ,  $MS = 6.66$ ,  $p = .01$  for perceptions of justice, and  $F(1,301) = .162$ ,  $MS = .42$ , NS for gender stereotyping) (Table 16.3 and 16.4). For this sample, stereotyping of the service provider for masculine positive traits is marginally significant ( $F(1,301) = 1.36$ ,  $MS = 1.36$ ,  $p = .056$ ). In other words, angry

respondents in the bank scenarios rated the service provider as significantly inferior on masculine positive traits (.89 for angry respondents vs. 1.07 for neutral respondents) (Appendix B, Table 17.2).

Table 16.5: MANOVA: F values for evaluative consequences (retail subsample)

Source	df	Ov. Service Evaluation	Service Satisfaction	Corporate Image	Fairness Perceptions
Mood Condition (Anger vs. Neutral)	1	3.64 <sup>1</sup>	6.86**	7.25**	3.07
Customer Gender (CG)	1	.07	.28	.37	<.001
Service Provider Gender (SPG)	1	.21	2.24	.07	.40
Condition X CG	1	.15	.18	1.21	.21
Condition X SPG	1	5.79*	.59	.12	2.05
CG X SPG	1	1.77	6.95**	5.05*	.98
Condition X CG X SPG	1	5.82*	.03	.15	2.77

Note: \* = significant at the  $p < .05$   
 \*\* = significant at  $p < .01$   
 1 = marginally significant at  $p = .057$

Table 16.6: MANOVA: F values for stereotyping ratios (retail subsample)

Source	df	Overall	Masc. Pos.	Masc. Neg.	Fem. Pos.	Fem. Neg.	Neutral
Mood Condition (Anger Vs. Neutral)	1	.10	1.82	1.97	.18	2.66	.08
Customer Gender (CG)	1	.54	.23	1.47	1.02	.18	.001
Service Provider Gender (SPG)	1	.31	.46	.07	.21	.82	.86
Condition X CG	1	2.00	.94	.51	.12	8.09**	.67
Condition X SPG	1	5.23*	.37	.05	1.94	.97	4.20*
CG X SPG	1	4.63*	.88	.05	.73	.11	2.64
Condition X CG X SPG	1	1.73	.64	.02	.01	.47	2.51

Note: \* = significant at the  $p < .05$   
 \*\* = significant at  $p < .01$

For the retail subsample, the main effect of condition type was significant for service satisfaction ( $F(1, 323) = 6.86$ ,  $MS = 5.63$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and corporate image ( $F(1, 323) = 7.25$ ,  $MS = 6.24$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and was marginally significant for overall service evaluation ( $F(1, 323) = 3.64$ ,  $MS = 2.56$ ,  $p = .057$ ) (Tables 16.5 and 16.6). None of the ratio measures of stereotyping were significant for retail respondents based on condition type.

Main effects for the complete sample reveal that gender of the customer has no effect on overall service evaluation, service satisfaction, corporate image, perceptions of justice, and most stereotyping ratio measures. However, customer gender does have a significant effect on overall service provider stereotyping ( $F(1,632) = 3.81$ ,  $MS = .76$ ,  $p < .052$ ) and on feminine positive traits ( $F(1,632) = 4.53$ ,  $MS = .591$ ,  $p < .03$ ). Means indicate that female customers are less likely to rely on stereotypes than male customers (.84 for female customers and .94 for male customers), with male customers more on feminine positive stereotypes than female customers (.60 for female customers and .84 for male customers). Similar results are obtained for the bank subsample except for a non significant effect for overall service provider stereotyping. Finally, none of the customer gender effects were significant for the retail subsample. In other words, for retail respondents, gender of the customer had no significant effect on any of the evaluative consequences.

Analyses of main effects for the complete sample and the retail subsample reveal that the gender of the service provider had no significant effect on any of the evaluative consequences. The same results were obtained for the bank subsample except that the gender of the service provider becomes significant when evaluating service satisfaction for bank respondents ( $F(1,301) = 4.34$ ,  $MS = 5.65$ ,  $p = .04$ ). Despite the service failure, customers are more satisfied when being served by a female service provider as opposed to a male service provider (2.56 for female service providers and 2.20 for male service providers).

As expected, some interaction effects were significant for the complete sample. The interaction between the gender of the service provider and the condition type was

significant for overall service evaluation ( $F(1,632) = 7.80$ ,  $MS = 7.43$ ,  $p = .01$ ), for service satisfaction ( $F(1,632) = 3.95$ ,  $MS = 4.42$ ,  $p = .05$ ), for overall stereotyping ( $F(1,632) = 4.02$ ,  $MS = .81$ ,  $p = .05$ ), for ratio stereotyping of masculine negative traits ( $F(1,632) = 4.54$ ,  $MS = 27.69$ ,  $p = .03$ ), and the interaction between gender of the customer, gender of the service provider, and condition type was marginally significant for overall service evaluation ( $F(1,632) = 3.69$ ,  $MS = 3.51$ ,  $p = .055$ ). Looking at the means (Table 17.1), in the angry condition, female service providers were evaluated as providing poorer and less satisfying service, however, in the neutral condition, male service providers were rated worse providing less satisfying service than female service providers. For overall stereotyping, angry customers relied less on stereotypes for male service providers, while neutral customers relied more on stereotypes for male service providers. Finally, angry customers relied more on masculine negative traits for evaluating female service providers, while neutral respondents relied more on masculine negative traits when evaluating male service providers. These results lead us to conclude that H10 was only partially supported.

For the bank subsample, only two interaction effects were significant. The interaction between gender of the customer and condition type was marginally significant for stereotyping of feminine positive traits ( $F(1,301) = 3.63$ ,  $MS = 4.19$ ,  $p = .058$ ). Again looking at the means (Table 17.2), we see that female customers were more likely to rely on feminine positive traits when in the angry condition and male customers were more likely to rely on feminine positive traits when in the neutral condition. The interaction between the gender of the service provider and condition type was also significant for stereotyping of masculine negative traits ( $F(1,301) = 7.84$ ,  $MS = 69.29$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Means

indicate that female service providers were evaluated using masculine negative traits when customers were angry, but male service providers were evaluated with masculine negative traits when customers were in the neutral condition.

The largest number of significant interaction effects were found for the retail subsample. First, the interaction between gender of the service provider and gender of the customer was significant for service satisfaction  $F(1,323) = 6.95$ ,  $MS = 5.70$ ,  $p < .01$ , for corporate image  $F(1,323) = 5.05$ ,  $MS = 4.35$ ,  $p = .03$ , and for overall stereotyping  $F(1,323) = 4.63$ ,  $MS = .65$ ,  $p = .03$ . Examining the means (Table 17.3), female customers were more satisfied and rated corporate image as higher when served by a male provider and male customers were more satisfied and rated corporate image as higher when served by a female provider. In terms of overall stereotyping, female customers were more likely to rely on stereotypes when evaluating male service providers, and male customers were more likely to rely on stereotypes when evaluating female service providers. Next, the interaction between gender of the customer and condition type was significant for stereotyping of feminine negative traits ( $F(1,323) = 8.09$ ,  $MS = 13.82$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Female customers were less likely to rely on feminine negative traits while they were angry, while male customers were more likely to rely on feminine negative traits when they were angry. Finally, the interaction between the gender of the service provider and condition type was significant for overall service evaluation  $F(1,323) = 5.79$ ,  $MS = 4.07$ ,  $p = .02$ , for overall stereotyping behavior  $F(1,323) = 5.23$ ,  $MS = .73$ ,  $p = .02$ , and stereotyping with neutral traits  $F(1,323) = 4.20$ ,  $MS = 3.18$ ,  $p = .04$ . Angry customers give a more positive evaluation of the service provided by a male employee, while neutral customers give a more positive evaluation of the service provided by a female employee. Further,

angry customers rely more on stereotypes when evaluating female service providers, while those in the neutral condition rely more on stereotypes when evaluating male service providers. However, angry customers rely more on neutral traits when evaluating female employees and those in the neutral condition rely on neutral traits when evaluating male employees.

Table 18: Evaluative Consequences: Summary of hypothesis testing

	<b>Complete Sample</b>	<b>Bank Sub-sample</b>	<b>Retail Sub-sample</b>
H1: Consumer anger resulting from service failure will be negatively related to overall service evaluation.	<i>Supported</i>	<i>Supported</i>	<i>Marginally Supported</i>
H2: Consumer anger resulting from service failure will be positively related to service provider stereotyping.	Not Supported	<i>Partially Supported</i>	Not Supported
H3: Consumer anger resulting from service failure will be negatively related to consumers' service satisfaction evaluations.	<i>Supported</i>	<i>Supported</i>	<i>Supported</i>
H4: Consumer anger resulting from service failure will be negatively related to consumers' assessment of corporate image.	<i>Supported</i>	<i>Supported</i>	<i>Supported</i>
H5: Consumer anger resulting from service failure will be negatively related to consumers' justice/fairness perceptions.	<i>Supported</i>	<i>Supported</i>	Not Supported
H10: Gender will moderate the link between anger and the evaluative consequences	<i>Partially Supported</i>	<i>Partially Supported</i>	<i>Partially Supported</i>

#### 4. 8. 2. Behavioral Consequences

Once again, we conducted MANOVAs with each of the behavioral consequences as the dependent variables (i.e., propensity to complain, positive word-of-mouth, repurchase intentions, and third-party action) and gender of the customer, gender of the service provider, and the condition (i.e., angry versus neutral) as the independent variables. This was once again performed for the complete sample, the bank subsample, and the retail subsample. Tables 19.1, 19.2 and 19.3 represent the F-values for all behavioral consequences for the full sample, as well the bank and retail subsamples.

Table 19.1: Complete sample: MANOVA F values for behavioral consequences

Source	df	Propensity to Complain	Repurchase Intentions	Positive word-of-mouth	Third-party action
Mood Condition (Anger vs. Neutral)	1	74.00**	22.14**	20.33**	70.51**
Customer Gender (CG)	1	<.001	1.20	.02	1.35
Service Provider Gender (SPG)	1	.68	2.58	.46	.43
Condition X CG	1	.001	.02	.13	2.89
Condition X SPG	1	2.17	6.16*	3.00	.25
CG X SPG	1	.25	1.71	1.62	.41
Condition X CG X SPG	1	.85	5.36*	2.98	.13

Note: \* = significant at the  $p < .05$

\*\* = significant at  $p < .01$

For all the samples, H6, H7, H8 and H9 are supported. For the complete sample, the condition type (angry versus neutral) had a significant main effect on all behavioral consequences ( $F(1,659) = 74.00$ ,  $MS = 124.34$ ,  $p < .01$  for propensity to complain,  $F(1,659) = 22.14$ ,  $MS = 40.99$ ,  $p < .01$  for repurchase intentions,  $F(1,659) = 20.33$ ,  $MS = 19.87$ ,  $p < .01$  for positive word-of-mouth, and  $F(1,659) = 70.51$ ,  $MS = 166.35$ ,  $p < .01$  for third-party action). In other words, respondents in the angry condition were more likely to engage in complaining behavior (6.10 for the anger condition and 5.02 for the neutral condition), more likely to switch service firms (5.95 for the anger condition and 5.33 for the neutral condition), less likely to spread positive word-of-mouth (1.44 for the anger condition and 1.87 for the neutral condition), and more likely to engage in third-party action (3.87 for the anger condition and 2.62 for the neutral condition) than those in the neutral condition (Appendix B, Tables 20.1, 20.2, and 20.3)



Table 19.2: Bank subsample: MANOVA: F values for behavioral consequences

Source	df	Propensity to Complain	Repurchase Intentions	Positive word-of-mouth	Third-party action
Mood Condition (Anger vs. Neutral)	1	41.67**	14.56**	4.80**	43.14**
Customer Gender (CG)	1	.07	1.99	.02	.40
Service Provider Gender (SPG)	1	2.30	.32	.04	.001
Condition X CG	1	.48	.05	1.92	.41
Condition X SPG	1	4.32*	4.23*	2.97	.43
CG X SPG	1	1.49	3.53	.64	.06
Condition X CG X SPG	1	3.75 <sup>1</sup>	5.38*	2.14	2.60

Note: \* = significant at the  $p < .05$

\*\* = significant at  $p < .01$

1 = marginally significant at  $p = .054$

Table 19.3: Retail subsample: MANOVA F values for behavioral consequences

Source	df	Propensity to Complain	Repurchase Intentions	Positive word-of-mouth	Third-party action
Mood Condition (Anger vs. Neutral)	1	30.02**	7.71**	18.99**	28.80**
Customer Gender (CG)	1	.22	.11	.35	.63
Service Provider Gender (SPG)	1	.11	2.33	.76	.89
Condition X CG	1	.26	<.001	1.28	3.29
Condition X SPG	1	.008	1.77	.47	1.80
CG X SPG	1	.22	.02	1.16	1.41
Condition X CG X SPG	1	.34	.53	1.08	1.32

Note: \*\* = significant at  $p < .01$

The exact same effects were found for the bank and retail subsamples, and in the same direction. All behavioral consequences were significant for the bank subsample, ( $F(1, 322) = 41.67$ ,  $MS = 69.87$ ,  $p < .01$  for propensity to complain,  $F(1, 322) = 14.56$ ,  $MS = 31.29$ ,  $p > .01$  for repurchase intentions,  $F(1, 322) = 4.80$ ,  $MS = 5.94$ ,  $p = .03$  for positive word-of-mouth, and  $F(1, 322) = 43.14$ ,  $MS = 112.62$ ,  $p < .01$  for third-party action). Similarly, all behavioral consequences were significant for the retail subsample ( $F(1, 329) = 30.03$ ,  $MS = 50.10$ ,  $p < .01$  for propensity to complain,  $F(1, 329) = 7.71$ ,  $MS = 10.91$ ,  $p < .01$  for repurchase intentions,  $F(1, 329) = 18.99$ ,  $MS = 13.39$ ,  $p = .01$  for

positive word-of-mouth, and  $F(1, 329) = 28.80$ ,  $MS = 58.40$ ,  $p < .01$  for third-party action).

Main effects of customer gender or service provider gender were not significant for any of the behavioral consequences. This was the case for the complete sample as well as for the bank and retail subsamples. In other words, male and female customers do not behave differently after an anger-provoking service failure regardless of the gender of the service provider.

Overall, very few interaction effects were significant for the behavioral consequences. For the complete sample, the interaction between the gender of the service provider and the condition type was significant for repurchase intentions ( $F(1, 659) = 6.16$ ,  $MS = 11.41$ ,  $p = .01$ ) and the interaction between the gender of the customer, the gender of the service provider, and the condition type was significant for repurchase intentions ( $F(1, 659) = 5.36$ ,  $MS = 9.93$ ,  $p = .02$ ). Examining the means (Table 20.1), angry customers were less likely to repurchase when served by a female employee and those in the neutral condition were less likely to repurchase when served by a male employee. In the retail subsample, no interaction effects were significant for any of the behavioral consequences, however, for the bank subsample, the interaction between the gender of the service provider and condition type was significant for both propensity to complain ( $F(1, 322) = 4.32$ ,  $MS = 7.24$ ,  $p = .04$ ) and repurchase intentions ( $F(1, 322) = 4.23$ ,  $MS = 9.10$ ,  $p = .04$ ). For the bank subsample, the interaction between the gender of the customer, the gender of the service provider, and the condition type was also significant for both propensity to complain ( $F(1, 322) = 3.75$ ,  $MS = 6.28$ ,  $p = .05$ ) and repurchase intentions ( $F(1, 322) = 5.38$ ,  $MS = 11.56$ ,  $p = .02$ ). Therefore, angry

customers were more likely to complain and less likely to repurchase when served by a female employee, while those in the neutral condition were more likely to complain and less likely to repurchase when served by a male employee (See table 20.2 for means).

Table 21: Behavioral Consequences: Summary of hypothesis testing

	Complete Sample	Bank Sub-sample	Retail Sub-sample
H6: Consumer anger resulting from service failure will be positively related to customers' propensity to complain to the service firm.	<i>Supported</i>	<i>Supported</i>	<i>Supported</i>
H7: Consumer anger resulting from service failure will be negatively related to customers' repurchase intentions.	<i>Supported</i>	<i>Supported</i>	<i>Supported</i>
H8: Consumer anger resulting from service failure will be negatively related to customers' positive word-of-mouth behavior.	<i>Supported</i>	<i>Supported</i>	<i>Supported</i>
H9: Consumer anger resulting from service failure will be positively related to customers' third-party action.	<i>Supported</i>	<i>Supported</i>	<i>Supported</i>
H11: Gender will moderate the link between anger and the behavioral consequences	<i>Partially Supported</i>	<i>Partially Supported</i>	Not Supported

#### 4. 9. Impact of Anger-related Items on Evaluative and Behavioral Consequences

Even though it was not formally hypothesized, anger-related items, which are correlated with anger, were expected to have some differential effects upon the evaluative and behavioral consequences since different negative affective states do not always result in identical consequences (Bodenhausen et al., 1994). Given the exploratory nature of these analyses, stepwise linear regressions were conducted with each evaluative/behavioral consequence as the dependent variable and the eight anger and anger-related items as the independent variables. Tables 22.1, 22.2, and 22.3 (Appendix B) present our findings for the complete sample, and the bank and retail subsamples. For the entire sample (Table 22.1) anger was found to be the most important explanatory

variable except when considering propensity to complain and third-party action where enraged became the most important predictor. Similar results were obtained for the bank subsample (Table 21.2), where anger was once again found to be the most important explanatory variable except when considering propensity to complain and third-party action where enraged became the most important predictor. Still, anger had a significant positive effect on propensity to complain and third-party action. For the retail subsample (Table 22.3), enraged was the most important explanatory variable except when considering perceptions of justice and negative repurchase intentions where anger became the most important predictor.

# **CHAPTER V**

## **DISCUSSION**

## **5. 1. Service Failures: The Role of Anger**

It has been suggested that a better understanding of consumption-related affective reactions may enable service organizations to alter customers' perceptions without altering the service delivery process itself (Hoffman, 1992). The present study tried to answer three questions: (1) What are the evaluative consequences of anger resulting from service failure? (2) What are the behavioral consequences of anger resulting from service failure? (3) What role does gender play in influencing the evaluative and behavioral consequences of anger? The research showed that customer anger resulting from firm-attributed service failure significantly influenced subsequent customers' cognitions/evaluations and behaviors, however, gender had a small moderating influence on such evaluations and behaviors after an anger-provoking service failure.

### 5. 1. 1. Evaluative Consequences

The present study is the first study to show that different service-related evaluative consequences are all affected simultaneously when customer anger results from firm-attributed service failure. As shown, angry customers a) evaluate the service as poorer, b) are less satisfied, c) have greater perceptions of injustice, and d) evaluate the firm's corporate image as weaker. Since customer anger negatively affects several key evaluative consequences, service firms should try to prevent such damage or rectify the situation once it has occurred.

Unfortunately, there was not much evidence of customers relying upon stereotypes when making service provider evaluations. Overall, it would appear that customers evaluate the service firm and the service provided as opposed to the individual service employee. This effect could be unique to the bank and retail settings used, where

customers might believe that these industries already have policies in place and service providers are simply following the rules. In cases where service providers have more decision making power and greater flexibility (e.g., dentist), reliance upon stereotypes might play a more important role.

The bank and retail subsamples exhibited very similar results in terms of the evaluative consequences, which helps support generalizability of our findings to other service industries. With a few differences, all evaluative consequences were biased in the same negative direction. In terms of amount of blame attributed to the service firm, retail customers blamed the firm significantly more than bank customers. This effect may be due to the intangible nature of banking as opposed to retailing where items are more easily returned when not used. Further, given that respondents may be more used to “impersonal” banking services (e.g., phone banking, online banking, ATMs), they may be less prone to blame the service provider. Other differences were observed between bank and retail respondents in terms of customers’ service employee evaluations. For the bank subsample, service providers were rated as more inferior on masculine traits such as self-confidence, standing up under pressure, making decisions easily, and feeling superior. This may be an indication that these traits are considered to be most important for bank tellers and should be considered in training and development of staff. Ultimately, this sensitivity may result in more positive overall evaluations by customers (i.e., greater satisfaction, more positive evaluation, greater perceptions of justice, and better corporate image) even in the face of service failure and ensuing anger. Since no such traits emerged for retail salespeople, future research may want to consider the possibility that, depending

on the service industry, certain service employee traits will have more or less impact on customer evaluations.

### 5. 1. 2. Behavioral Consequences

Other than Bougie et al.'s (2003) recent work, this study is the only one in the services literature which relates anger to key behavioral consequences. Further, it is the first study to empirically test affect in service encounters using the recommended "attribution, affect, behaviors" sequence." Even though behaviors were accompanied by evaluations as well, the use of this sequence has proved to be most useful and reliable.

In terms of consumer behaviors, angry customers are a) more likely to complain to the manager or service provider, b) less likely to engage in positive word-of-mouth, c) less likely to repurchase, and d) more likely to engage in third-party action. As expected, the results were identical in both the banking and retail sectors. Therefore, not only are evaluative consequences negatively affected, but so are crucial behaviors that are key to the success of service firms (i.e., repurchase intentions and positive word-of-mouth propagation). Since the cost of acquiring new customers is five times greater than keeping existing ones (Hart et al., 1990), losing customers to other service providers or warding off potential customers through negative word-of-mouth propagation is definitely not beneficial for service firms in the long-run. Even complaint to a third-party that may go public can be very detrimental to a service firm. Once a customer has voiced his/her complaint, the service firm has the opportunity to control the damage by dealing directly with the source of unhappiness. However, if the complaint is left unattended and customer anger ensues, this may have an even greater negative effect both in the short term and the long term.



## **5. 2. Gender: The Moderating Role**

In general, the gender of the customer and that of service provider did not have a very powerful effect on the evaluative consequences. That said, there was a slight difference between male and female customers with males relying more on stereotypes when evaluating service providers than females as well relying upon female positive traits (e.g., awareness of other's feelings, kindness, helping, and understanding). The fact that male customers show a greater reliance on stereotypes is an indication that men enter service situations with more defined scripts, and therefore, are more inclined to evaluate service providers based on these preformed expectations. Further research would shed more light on this proposition. Similarly, gender of the service provider did not influence any of the evaluative consequences except for service satisfaction for bank customers. It seems angry customers were more satisfied in the presence of a female teller as opposed to a male teller. This finding may reflect reality as women are more likely to be frontline service providers who assist the customer (Hochschild, 1983). However, negative masculine traits were used by angry customers to evaluate female employees, while these same traits were used by those in the neutral condition to rate male employees. In service failure situations where customers are angered, women service employees seemed to be judged more harshly than male service employees.

Interestingly, analyses did not reveal similar findings for service satisfaction and service evaluation upon examining the interaction effects. For example, in the retail sector, female customers provided a better overall service evaluation when served by a male employee while male customers provided better overall evaluations when serviced by a female employee. While contradicting our expectations as well as those found in

other studies (e.g., Fischer et al., 1997), this unexpected finding may be indicating that in some service sectors, (i.e., retail), opposites do attract. Following evolutionary psychology, intrasexual competition may be at play here.

Surprisingly, the gender of the customer and that of the service provider did not have a significant influence on behavioral consequences, despite the large differences between men and women in the expression of anger (see Kring, 2000). The disappointing findings reported in this study deserve serious consideration. In a service setting, differences in the expression of anger may not be as intense as in other social and personal situations (e.g., between friends, in couples, etc.) (Kring, 2000). Further, Laufer and Gillespie (2004, p. 142) suggested that “a product harm crisis is more serious than a product failure for a company due to the highly publicized nature of the crisis and the greater degree of harm incurred by consumers”. The same should hold true for service failures of the type studied here. A service failure with only monetary consequences may not be strong enough for differences between men and women to emerge. Such may not be the case in situations where serious harm may result from the service failure. In this case, Laufer and Gillespie (2004) suggest that women will overreact as compared to men. Another plausible explanation may be that gender effects may emerge using other methodologies (e.g., field settings). We believe gender influences on evaluative and behavioral consequences may still be important for services and should not be dismissed due to the disappointing results of the present study.

### **5. 3. Anger Related Aspects**

Unlike previous research in the services literature, the present study measured anger and anger-related affective states using scales documented in the psychology and

services literature. Findings from the present study show that customer anger and its related states are indeed varied, ranging from mild customer anger to extreme in form. It is interesting to note that each anger-related aspect influences certain evaluative/behavioral consequences but not others. However, one thing is clear, customer anger affects negatively the majority of consequences in the overall sample. Likewise, the negative effects of anger are widespread in the bank subsample. Customers' feelings of being enraged have a greater negative effect on the majority of consequences in the retail subsample.

Based on our findings, it seems that anger lies along a continuum with stronger (e.g., hostility) and milder (e.g., upset) feelings on either end. The milder and more extreme forms of anger did not necessarily influence each evaluative and behavioral consequence. Instead, the more extreme negative feelings led customers to engage in more effortful actions. In other words, customers' propensity to engage in third-party action was greater when they were enraged. Milder negative states, including anger, were more likely to predict customers' likelihood of engaging in more typical actions (e.g., negative repurchase intentions). Therefore, anger influences all consequences, however, the anger-related aspects will have differential influences upon customers' evaluations and behaviors.

Our findings thus highlight the need for service firms to be alarmed when even the mildest forms of anger are exhibited, since even these can have very damaging effects on the service firm. Part of the reason why some unsatisfied customers do not complain (e.g., Singh, 1990) may be that they have not reached a "critical boiling point."

#### **5. 4. Managerial Implications**

Overall, anger led to lower service evaluations, lower satisfaction, a weaker corporate image, greater perceptions of injustice, greater propensity to complain, weaker intentions to repurchase, less propagation of positive word-of-mouth, and greater third-party action. In term of customer and employee gender, they influenced in certain cases, service evaluation, service satisfaction, reliance on stereotypes, corporate image, repurchase intentions, and propensity to complain. A study by Dubé and Morgan (1996) found that the more negative emotions became during a service experience, the more negative were consumers' retrospective reports and vice versa with increasing positive emotions. Past research has also indicated that negative information is more diagnostic than positive information and is therefore, given more importance or "weight" (see Fiske, 1980; Skowrouski and Carlston, 1989). As such, findings from the present study must not be disregarded by service firms since even one negative experience may lead to the unwanted consequences.

While it would be ideal if customers were always satisfied, reality suggests that service failures are inevitable. The problem with many service firms is that they do not have the policies and procedures in place in order to ensure that such failures are kept to a minimum or that when such failures do occur, customer anger and related negative feelings are attended to. Furthermore, many service firms do not even consider providing employee training for special cases where customer anger erupts and anger management may prove helpful. Since evaluative/behavioral consequences do have major implications for service firms, there is a definite need to invest in preemptive measures (e.g., training) to minimize service failures and customer anger. We can only speculate that the damage

caused by customer anger would be even greater in real settings, thus making the need to invest in preventative measures even more important.

Even if previous experiences with a service firm have generally been positive, managers need to be especially careful when dealing with angry customers because the negative experience will predominate in customers' memory and become the most salient experience retrieved when evaluating the firm or when considering repurchase. Taking steps towards dampening customers' negative mood during a core service failure may help "soften the blow." As suggested by Dubé and Morgan (1996, p.161) "in-process emotions, more than post-consumption judgments are what firms have the responsibility and opportunity to manage." Future research may consider how to control or influence in-process consumption emotions as a way to minimize the harm caused by failures. Such research findings "should help service marketers find innovative ways to manage consumers' emotional experience during the service process" (Dubé and Morgan, 1996, p. 161).

Given that it is impossible to completely eradicate service failure and customer anger, it would behoove managers to implement service recovery strategies that best suit the needs of the customer and of course, diminish customer anger. This is an area of future research that has already received some attention in the literature, but only as a way to cater to customer dissatisfaction and not necessarily customer anger (e.g., Smith and Bolton 2002). Catering to customers needs has been said to be a smart offensive versus defensive strategy (Maute and Dubé, 1999). Armed with the knowledge of how customers are likely to think and act in the aftermath of an anger-producing service failure,

managers can focus their retention and policy efforts on minimizing or catering to those evaluations or behaviors that they deem most important.

Past research has indicated that customers want flexibility and customization in service deliver encounters (e.g., Bettencourt and Gwinner, 1996; Bitner, Booms, & Tetrault, 1990). Successful customization has been suggested to require frontline employees to actively recognize cues from customers and adapt the delivery accordingly (Bitner, Brown, & Menter, 2000). Research shows that moderate to high service recovery efforts significantly increase satisfaction, purchase intentions, and positive word-of-mouth (Maxham III, 2001). However, research has also shown that customers who feel anger as a result of a service failure require the service provider to “jump through more hoops than customers who merely feel annoyed or slightly aggrieved (Mattila, 2001, p. 596). Dubé and Menon (2000, p. 299) have suggested that “communication and provider response strategies have to be designed to shape consumer emotions, both as the various episodes unfold and at the post-purchase stage as well.” The bottom line is that the best strategy for dealing with anger-provoking service failures is to minimize in-process emotions or risk facing the consequences.

The present study suggested gender as a moderating variable in service encounters. Our findings may be used to help managers customize service deliver based on what preferences exist within groups of customers. For example, a study by Mattila, Grandey, and Fisk (2003), revealed that men were less satisfied than women in a service failure situation when negative affective displays were exhibited by the service employee. In another recent study, female customers’ level of satisfaction and repurchase intentions were greater when service recovery processes included voice (McColl-Kennedy, Duas,

Sparks, 2003). Therefore, customization preferences in regards to service failures may help employees deal with differing male and female customer expectations.

### **5. 5. Limitations and Future Research**

One limitation of the present study is the use of scenarios to capture service failures. The use of scenarios may have led to some non significant results effect sizes. For example, reliance upon stereotypes for evaluating service providers (H4) may have been significant if not for this limitation. Customers may need to interact with real service providers in order for the use of stereotypes to occur or the effects of gender to emerge. Furthermore, it may be possible that the level of anger induced in these simulations may not have been strong enough in order to trigger stereotypic evaluations. Future research may use a methodology which simulates real service situations more closely in order to test whether gender stereotyping does indeed occur.

The sample used was comprised of students rather than actual consumers of varying ages and occupations. Our results are therefore not generalizable to the entire population. However, given the service industries chosen (which are commonly used by students as well as other members of society), the effects observed might prove to be even more robust with a more experienced, older sample. Future research may want to expand present findings to other industries as well as other age groups, occupations, and cultures. Different cultures and subcultures are expected to not only interpret situations differently, but to react differently, especially when expressing a negative affective state such as anger. For example, Scandinavians will likely be more reserved than Southern Europeans when it comes to expressing anger. This type of research may help improve not only service delivery processes and customization, but recovery attempts as well.

While the anger experienced by the respondents was based on the manipulation of scenarios, individual differences in terms of the intensity of the anger experienced (i.e., state anger) and the predisposition to become angry when treated unfairly (i.e., trait anger) were not tested. With the goal of helping service providers further customize their response to angry customers, these and other personality differences (e.g., inward suppression of anger versus outward expression of anger) could be examined in the future using the State-Trait Anger Expression Inventory (Spielberger et al., 1999).

The present model proposes an attribution→affect→evaluation/behavior sequence. The next step would be to test the interrelationships between the evaluative and behavioral consequences. While past research has indicated that cognitions and behaviors are linked (e.g., Athanassopoulos, 2001; Blodgett et al., 1995; Maxham III and Netemeyer, 2002), certain cognitive evaluations may play a significant role in shaping subsequent behaviors. For example, consumer satisfaction may help explain the likelihood that consumers will repurchase the service (Szymanski and Henard, 2001). Furthermore, it is possible for some evaluations to have a greater effect on certain behaviors than others or for certain behaviors to be more or less linked. Future research may need to consider such associations in order to help managers realize that some consequences cannot be addressed without taking certain others into consideration.



## **CHAPTER VI**

### **REFERENCES**

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# **CHAPTER VII**

## **APPENDIX**

## APPENDIX A

### Questionnaire with all possible scenarios

**Dear participant, we value your responses to this questionnaire. As such, we hope you will answer all questions as fully as you are comfortable. If at any time you do not know the exact answer, please provide your best estimate. Please note that there are no right or wrong answers. We thank you for your cooperation.**

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**Rate the extent to which you agree with the following statements.**

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
Currently, I am in a good mood.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
As I answer these questions, I feel cheerful.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
For some reason, I am very comfortable right now.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
At this moment, I do not feel edgy or irritable.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	

**Read the following story and using the space provided below, briefly explain how you would feel in this situation.**

Pat is a typical undergraduate student, much like you. For the past year, Pat has been a loyal customer at a nearby bank, where the service provided is comparable to that of any other bank. Pat has a checking account with this bank along with a debit card from the same account. Pat has almost always kept a checking account balance of more than \$500 and has never overdrawn funds from the account.

Recently, Pat noticed a **\$500** withdrawal from the checking account. The **\$500** had been withdrawn using Pat's debit card, a transaction Pat was neither aware of nor authorized. As a precaution against fraud and/or theft, Pat had informed the bank to only allow transactions of less than \$500 within a 24-hour period. Given the unauthorized transaction, Pat figured the bank had made a very serious mistake.

After informing Cindy (the teller at the local branch) about the missing funds, Pat waited for her to investigate the matter. Following a discussion with the branch manager, Cindy told Pat that the transaction was traced back to Pat's checking account. The transaction in question was actually processed by a well-known travel agency, one with which the bank had never had a case of fraud. Given the circumstances, Cindy explained that the **\$500** would not be credited back into Pat's account.

Pat, being a twenty-one year old full-time student, does not have the means to repay **\$500**. Pat will have to decrease spending on purchases in order to make up for the loss. Even with a new budget, it will take Pat about six months to save **\$500** and return to a normal spending routine.

Imagine you were in Pat's place, having to pay **\$500** for a vacation that you never purchased nor enjoyed, briefly explain how you would feel in this situation.

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**Read the following story and using the space provided below, briefly explain how you would feel in this situation.**

Pat is a typical undergraduate student, much like you. For the past year, Pat has been a loyal customer at a nearby clothing store, where the service provided is comparable to that of any other clothing store. Pat regularly buys clothes from this store and has never had problems with items purchased or returned.

Recently, Pat bought a **\$500** suit in preparation for upcoming job interviews. After trying on the suit at home, Pat noticed a stain on the sleeve. Deciding the suit was not wearable in its present state, Pat returned it to the clothing store.

After informing Cindy (the salesperson at the clothing store) about the stain on the suit, Pat waited for her to resolve the matter. Following a discussion with the store manager, Cindy told Pat that the **\$500** suit could not be returned. Expecting an exchange, a full refund, or a credit note, Pat found it odd that none of these options were made available, especially since the store's return policy was fairly flexible. In the end, Cindy made it clear that Pat could not return the **\$500** suit.

Pat, being a twenty-one year old full-time student, does not have the means to buy another **\$500** suit. Pat will have to decrease spending on purchases in order to make up for the loss. Even with a new budget, it will take Pat about six months to save **\$500** and return to a normal spending routine.

Imagine you were in Pat's place, having to pay **\$500** for a suit that you never got to wear, briefly explain how you would feel in this situation.

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**Read the following story and using the space provided below, briefly explain how you would feel in this situation.**

Pat is a typical undergraduate student, much like you. For the past year, Pat has been a loyal customer at a nearby bank, where the service provided is comparable to that of any other bank. Pat has a checking account with this bank along with a debit card from the same account. Pat has almost always kept a checking account balance of more than \$500 and has never overdrawn funds from the account.

Recently, Pat noticed a **\$10** withdrawal from the checking account. The **\$10** had been withdrawn using Pat's debit card, a transaction Pat was neither aware of nor authorized. As a precaution against fraud and/or theft, Pat had informed the bank to only allow transactions of less than \$500 within a 24-hour period. Given the unauthorized transaction, Pat figured the bank had made a very serious mistake.

After informing Cindy (the teller at the local branch) about the missing funds, Pat waited for her to investigate the matter. Following a discussion with the branch manager, Cindy told Pat that the transaction was traced back to Pat's checking account. The transaction in question was actually processed by a well-known grocery store, one with which the bank had never had a case of fraud. Given the circumstances, Cindy explained that the **\$10** would not be credited back into Pat's account.

Pat, being a twenty-one year old full-time student, does have the means to repay **\$10**. Pat will not have to decrease spending on purchases in order to make up for the loss. Aside from this temporary annoyance, the **\$10** loss will not alter Pat's lifestyle in any significant way.

Imagine you were in Pat's place, having to pay **\$10** for groceries that you never purchased nor enjoyed, briefly explain how you would feel in this situation.

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**Read the following story and using the space provided below, briefly explain how you would feel in this situation.**

Pat is a typical undergraduate student, much like you. For the past three years, Pat has been a loyal customer at a nearby clothing store, where the service provided is comparable to that of any other clothing store. Pat regularly buys clothes from this store and has never had problems with items purchased or returned.

Recently, Pat bought a **\$10** shirt in preparation for upcoming job interviews. After trying on the shirt at home, Pat noticed a stain on the sleeve. Deciding the shirt was not wearable in its present state, Pat returned it to the clothing store.

After informing Cindy (the salesperson at the clothing store) about the stain on the shirt, Pat waited for her to resolve the matter. Following a discussion with the store manager, Cindy told Pat that the **\$10** shirt could not be returned. Expecting an exchange, a full refund, or a credit note, Pat found it odd that none of these options were made available, especially since the store's return policy was fairly flexible. In the end, Cindy made it clear that Pat could not return the **\$10** shirt.

Pat, being a twenty-one year old full-time student, does have the means to buy another **\$10** shirt. Pat will not have to decrease spending on purchases in order to make up for the loss. Aside from this temporary annoyance, the **\$10** loss will not alter Pat's lifestyle in any significant way.

Imagine you were in Pat's place, having to pay **\$10** for a shirt that you never got to wear, briefly explain how you would feel in this situation.

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**Answer the following questions supposing that Pat's experience at the bank<sup>4</sup> was your own.**

	Not at all	Completely
To what extent was the bank responsible for the problem that you experienced?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
To what extent was the problem that you encountered the bank's fault?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
To what extent do you blame the bank for this problem?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	

**If you were in Pat's situation, indicate the extent to which you would feel each of the following.**

	Very Weak	Very Strong
IRRITATED	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
ANNOYED	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
ANGRY	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
FRUSTRATED	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
UPSET	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
HOSTILE	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
DISTRESSED	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
MAD	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
CONTEMPTFUL	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
DISGUSTED	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
ENRAGED	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	

<sup>4</sup> Questions presented throughout this questionnaire are those used in the bank scenario. For the retail store, the word "bank" was replaced with "store".

**Answer the following questions supposing that Pat's experience at the bank was your own.**

	<b>Extremely Poor</b>	<b>Extremely Good</b>
How would you rate the quality of the service provided by this bank?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
How would you rate the procedures used by the bank to resolve your problem?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
How would you rate the policies used by the bank to resolve your problem?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Overall, how would you rate the service provided at this bank?	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	

**If you were in Pat's situation, indicate the extent to which you would agree with each of the following statements.**

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
I am satisfied with the service provided by this bank.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
In my opinion, this bank provides satisfactory banking services.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
As a whole, I am satisfied with this bank.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Overall, I am satisfied with the quality of the banking services.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	

**If you were in Pat's situation, indicate the extent to which you would agree with the following statements.**

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
The outcome I received was fair.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
I did get what I deserved.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
In resolving the problem, the bank gave me what I needed.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
The outcome I received was right.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	

**Answer the following questions supposing that Pat's experience at the bank was your own.**

	<b>Extremely Poor</b>	<b>Extremely Good</b>
Rate your overall opinion of the bank.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Rate your opinion of the bank's contribution to society.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Rate your liking of the bank.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Rate your perception of the bank being customer-oriented.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Rate your perception of other bank customers' overall opinion of the bank.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	

**Estimate the percentage (from 0% to 100%) of bank service providers (tellers) that you believe have the following characteristics.**

Self-confident \_\_\_\_\_  
Stands up under pressure \_\_\_\_\_  
Makes decisions easily \_\_\_\_\_  
Feels superior \_\_\_\_\_  
Hostile \_\_\_\_\_

Arrogant \_\_\_\_\_  
Dictatorial \_\_\_\_\_  
Unprincipled \_\_\_\_\_  
Helpful \_\_\_\_\_  
Aware of other's feelings \_\_\_\_\_

Kind \_\_\_\_\_  
Understanding \_\_\_\_\_  
Spineless \_\_\_\_\_  
Gullible \_\_\_\_\_  
Servile \_\_\_\_\_

Subordinates self to others \_\_\_\_\_  
Sincere \_\_\_\_\_  
Reliable \_\_\_\_\_  
Unhappy \_\_\_\_\_  
Moody \_\_\_\_\_

**Estimate the extent to which you believe that the bank teller (Cindy or Paul) in the story was...**

	Not at all	Very
Self-confident	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Stands up under pressure	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Makes decisions easily	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Feels superior	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Hostile	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
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Arrogant	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Dictatorial	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Unprincipled	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Helpful	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Aware of other's feelings	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
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Kind	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Understanding	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Spineless	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Gullible	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Servile	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
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Subordinates self to others	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Sincere	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Reliable	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Unhappy	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Moody	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	

**If you were in Pat's situation, please indicate the likelihood that you would do the following.**

	<b>Extremely Unlikely</b>	<b>Extremely Likely</b>
I would complain to the head office of the bank.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
I would complain to the teller directly.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
I would complain to the branch manager directly.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
I would fill out a complaint report.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	

**If you were in Pat's situation, please indicate the likelihood that you would do the following.**

	<b>Extremely Unlikely</b>	<b>Extremely Likely</b>
I would recommend this bank to my friends and acquaintances.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
I would encourage friends and acquaintances to do business with this bank.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
If my friends and acquaintances were looking for banking services, I would tell them to try this bank.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Given my most recent experience with the bank, I would recommend their services to my friends and acquaintances.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	



**If you were in Pat's situation, indicate the extent to which you would agree with each of the following statements.**

	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
In the near future, I intend to intensify my efforts to find a better bank.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
I have decided to do less business with this bank in the future.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
I have decided to switch to another bank that offers better service.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
In the future, I do not intend to use banking services from this bank.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	

**If you were in Pat's situation, please indicate the likelihood that you would do the following.**

	<b>Extremely Unlikely</b>	<b>Extremely Likely</b>
Write a letter to the local newspaper about your bad experience.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Report to a third party so that they can warn other consumers.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Complain to a consumer protection agency and ask them to make the bank take care of your problem.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
Take some legal action against the bank.	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	

Having read Pat's situation, rate to what extent you feel each of the following at the present time.

	Very Weak	Very Strong
IRRITATED	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
ANNOYED	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
ANGRY	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
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FRUSTRATED	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
UPSET	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
HOSTILE	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
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DISTRESSED	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
MAD	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
CONTEMPTFUL	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
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DISGUSTED	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	
ENRAGED	1.....2.....3.....4.....5.....6.....7	

**Gender:** Female  Male

**Age:** ≤19  20-24  25-29  30-34  35-39  40-44   
45-49  ≥ 50

**Highest educational level attained:**

Currently pursuing undergraduate degree   
Currently pursuing graduate/professional degree

**Employment:** Full-time  Part-time  Not currently employed

**Household Income:** Under \$20,000  \$20,000-\$29,999  \$30,000-\$49,999   
\$50,000-\$69,999  \$70,000-\$89,999  \$90,000+

**Marital Status:** Single  Married  Living together   
Separated/Divorced/Widowed

THANK YOU!

## APPENDIX B

Tables not presented in text

**Table 9: Post hoc tests for blame based on condition**

Conditions	Mean Difference (Standard Error) *							
	B-A-F	B-A-M	B-N-F	B-N-M	R-A-F	R-A-M	R-N-F	R-N-M
Bank-Angry-Female Provider (B-A-F)	–	.26 (.21)	.65 (.21)	.53 (.21)	-.75 (.21)	-.53 (.21)	-.35 (.21)	.58 (.21)
Bank-Angry-Male Provider (B-A-M)	-.26 (.21)	–	.40 (.21)	.28 (.21)	-1.00 (.21)*	-.79 (.21)*	-.61 (.21)	-.84 (.21)*
Bank-Neutral-Female Provider (B-N-F)	-.65 (.21)	-.40 (.21)	–	-.12 (.21)	-1.40 (.21)*	-1.19 (.21)*	-1.01 (.21)*	-1.23 (.20)*
Bank-Neutral-Male Provider (B-N-M)	-.53 (.21)	-.28 (.21)	.12 (.21)	–	-1.28 (.21)*	-1.07 (.21)*	-.89 (.21)*	-1.11 (.21)*
Retail-Angry-Female Provider (R-A-F)	.75 (.21)	1.00 (.21)*	1.40 (.21)*	1.28 (.21)*	–	.21 (.21)	.39 (.21)	.17 (.21)
Retail-Angry-Male Provider (R-A-M)	.54 (.21)	.79 (.21)*	1.19 (.21)*	1.07 (.21)*	-.21 (.21)	–	.18 (.21)	-.004 (.21)
Retail-Neutral-Female Provider (R-N-F)	.35 (.21)	.61 (.21)	1.01 (.21)*	.89 (.21)*	-.39 (.21)	-.18 (.20)	–	-.23 (.21)
Retail-Neutral-Male Provider (R-N-M)	.58 (.21)	.84 (.21)*	1.23 (.20)*	1.11 (.21)*	-.17 (.21)	.004 (.21)	.23 (.21)	–

\* = significant at < .05

**Tables 12.1, 12.2, 12.3: Factor analysis: Anger and anger-related**

Table 12.1: Factor analysis: Anger and anger-related items (complete sample)

Items	Loadings
Mad	.87
Enraged	.86
Hostile	.82
Angry	.81
Upset	.79
Distressed	.79
Contemptful	.78
Disgusted	.75

Table 12.2: Factor analysis: Anger and anger-related items (bank subsample)

Items	Loadings
Mad	.89
Enraged	.88
Hostile	.83
Angry	.83
Upset	.82
Distressed	.83
Contemptful	.82
Disgusted	.79

Table 12.3: Factor analysis: Anger and anger-related items (retail subsample)

Items	Loadings
Mad	.85
Enraged	.80
Hostile	.81
Angry	.79
Upset	.75
Distressed	.75
Contemptful	.72
Disgusted	.70

**Tables 14.1, 14.2, 14.3: Factor analysis: Ratio measures of stereotyping**

Table 14.1: Ratio measures of stereotyping sub-categories (complete sample)

	<b>Factors</b>	
	1: Feminine/Neutral	2: Masculine
Ratio Feminine Positive	.83	
Ratio Neutral	.74	
Ratio Feminine Negative	.44	
Ratio Masculine Negative		.91
Ratio Masculine Positive		.59

Table 14.2: Ratio measures of stereotyping sub-categories (bank subsample)

	<b>Factors</b>	
	1: Feminine/Neutral	2: Masculine
Ratio Neutral	.80	
Ratio Feminine Positive	.79	
Ratio Feminine Negative	.64	
Ratio Masculine Negative		.92
Ratio Masculine Positive		.70

Table 14.3: Ratio measures of stereotyping sub-categories (retail subsample)

	<b>Factors</b>	
	1: Positive	2: Negative
Ratio Feminine Positive	.85	
Ratio Neutral	.54	
Ratio Masculine Positive	.49	
Ratio Masculine Negative		-.84
Ratio Feminine Negative		-.63

**Tables 17.1, 17.2, 17.3: Cell means and standard error for evaluative consequences**

Table 17.1: Cell means and standard error for evaluative variables (complete sample)

Dependent Variables		
<b>Overall Service Evaluation</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	1.59 (.17)	1.86 (.09)
Angry-Male Provider	2.04 (.19)	1.69 (.09)
Neutral-Female Provider	2.52 (.17)	2.36 (.09)
Neutral-Male Provider	2.05 (.17)	2.02 (.09)
<b>Service Satisfaction</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	1.61 (.19)	2.00 (.10)
Angry-Male Provider	2.07 (.20)	1.77 (.09)
Neutral-Female Provider	2.65 (.18)	2.49 (.09)
Neutral-Male Provider	2.39 (.19)	2.14 (.09)
<b>Corporate Image</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	2.11 (.18)	2.35 (.09)
Angry-Male Provider	2.37 (.20)	2.00 (.09)
Neutral-Female Provider	2.69 (.17)	2.70 (.09)
Neutral-Male Provider	2.64 (.18)	2.44 (.09)
<b>Fairness Perceptions</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	1.38 (.17)	1.54 (.09)
Angry-Male Provider	1.79 (.19)	1.52 (.09)
Neutral-Female Provider	1.96 (.16)	1.92 (.08)
Neutral-Male Provider	1.79 (.17)	1.77 (.09)

Table 17.1 (Continued)

Dependent Variables		
Overall Stereotyping		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	.85 (.08)	.94 (.04)
Angry-Male Provider	.80 (.09)	.91 (.04)
Neutral-Female Provider	.74 (.08)	.95 (.04)
Neutral-Male Provider	1.01 (.08)	.96 (.04)
<b>Masculine Positive</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	.98 (.12)	1.01 (.06)
Angry-Male Provider	.96 (.13)	.95 (.06)
Neutral-Female Provider	.82 (.12)	1.06 (.06)
Neutral-Male Provider	1.02 (.12)	1.00 (.06)
<b>Masculine Negative</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	1.86 (.44)	1.81 (.22)
Angry-Male Provider	1.33 (.48)	1.67 (.22)
Neutral-Female Provider	1.18 (.42)	1.33 (.22)
Neutral-Male Provider	2.16 (.44)	1.79 (.22)
<b>Feminine Positive</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	.75 (.20)	.78 (.10)
Angry-Male Provider	.46 (.22)	.68 (.10)
Neutral-Female Provider	.50 (.19)	.99 (.10)
Neutral-Male Provider	.71 (.20)	.94 (.10)
<b>Feminine Negative</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	.82 (.21)	1.30 (.11)
Angry-Male Provider	1.07 (.23)	1.20 (.11)
Neutral-Female Provider	1.26 (.20)	1.38 (.11)
Neutral-Male Provider	1.14 (.21)	1.05 (.11)
<b>Neutral</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	.94 (.14)	1.01 (.07)
Angry-Male Provider	.85 (.15)	1.04 (.07)
Neutral-Female Provider	.78 (.14)	.97 (.07)
Neutral-Male Provider	1.21 (.14)	1.04 (.07)

Table 17.2: Cell means and standard error for evaluative variables (bank subsample)

Dependent Variables		
Overall Service Evaluation		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	1.88 (.28)	1.99 (.13)
Angry-Male Provider	2.08 (.33)	1.87 (.13)
Neutral-Female Provider	2.93 (.25)	2.73 (.13)
Neutral-Male Provider	2.64 (.29)	2.26 (.13)
Service Satisfaction		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	1.82 (.31)	2.23 (.15)
Angry-Male Provider	2.08 (.36)	1.84 (.15)
Neutral-Female Provider	3.33 (.27)	2.86 (.14)
Neutral-Male Provider	2.50 (.32)	2.38 (.14)
Corporate Image		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	2.37 (.30)	2.40 (.14)
Angry-Male Provider	2.64 (.35)	2.05 (.14)
Neutral-Female Provider	2.98 (.26)	3.00 (.14)
Neutral-Male Provider	2.57 (.31)	2.65 (.14)
Fairness Perceptions		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	1.59 (.27)	1.49 (.13)
Angry-Male Provider	1.78 (.32)	1.51 (.13)
Neutral-Female Provider	2.04 (.24)	2.11 (.13)
Neutral-Male Provider	1.94 (.28)	1.84 (.13)



Table 17.2 (Continued)

Dependent Variables		
Overall Stereotyping		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	.84 (.14)	.87 (.07)
Angry-Male Provider	.79 (.16)	.94 (.07)
Neutral-Female Provider	.76 (.12)	1.03 (.06)
Neutral-Male Provider	.96 (.14)	1.08 (.07)
<b>Masculine Positive</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	.79 (.16)	.93 (.08)
Angry-Male Provider	.88 (.19)	.97 (.08)
Neutral-Female Provider	.90 (.14)	1.06 (.08)
Neutral-Male Provider	1.19 (.17)	1.12 (.08)
<b>Masculine Negative</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	2.49 (.80)	1.74 (.38)
Angry-Male Provider	1.24 (.94)	1.49 (.38)
Neutral-Female Provider	1.14 (.70)	1.23 (.37)
Neutral-Male Provider	3.56 (.83)	2.36 (.37)
<b>Feminine Positive</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	.89 (.29)	.59 (.14)
Angry-Male Provider	.47 (.34)	1.20 (.13)
Neutral-Female Provider	.48 (.25)	.81 (.14)
Neutral-Male Provider	.55 (.30)	1.10 (.13)
<b>Feminine Negative</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	1.03 (.28)	1.18 (.14)
Angry-Male Provider	1.43 (.33)	1.16 (.13)
Neutral-Female Provider	.82 (.25)	1.51 (.13)
Neutral-Male Provider	.84 (.29)	1.11 (.13)
<b>Neutral</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	.80 (.19)	.87 (.09)
Angry-Male Provider	.74 (.23)	.94 (.09)
Neutral-Female Provider	.81 (.17)	1.06 (.09)
Neutral-Male Provider	.83 (.20)	1.08 (.09)

Table 17.3: Cell means and standard error for evaluative variables (retail subsample)

Dependent Variables		
Overall Service Evaluation		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	1.38 (.20)	1.72 (.11)
Angry-Male Provider	2.02 (.20)	1.52 (.10)
Neutral-Female Provider	2.09 (.20)	1.98 (.10)
Neutral-Male Provider	1.65 (.19)	1.78 (.10)
<b>Service Satisfaction</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	1.44 (.21)	1.77 (.11)
Angry-Male Provider	2.06 (.22)	1.71 (.11)
Neutral-Female Provider	1.93 (.22)	2.11 (.11)
Neutral-Male Provider	2.32 (.21)	1.90 (.11)
<b>Corporate Image</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	1.90 (.22)	2.29 (.12)
Angry-Male Provider	2.22 (.23)	1.95 (.11)
Neutral-Female Provider	2.38 (.23)	2.40 (.12)
Neutral-Male Provider	2.68 (.21)	2.24 (.12)
<b>Fairness Perceptions</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	1.21 (.22)	1.60 (.12)
Angry-Male Provider	1.79 (.23)	1.52 (.11)
Neutral-Female Provider	1.87 (.23)	1.73 (.12)
Neutral-Male Provider	1.68 (.21)	1.71 (.12)

Table 17.3 (Continued)

Dependent Variables		
Overall Stereotyping		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	.85 (.09)	1.00 (.05)
Angry-Male Provider	.81 (.09)	.87 (.05)
Neutral-Female Provider	.73 (.09)	.87 (.05)
Neutral-Male Provider	1.04 (.09)	.83 (.05)
<b>Masculine Positive</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	1.12 (.18)	1.09 (.10)
Angry-Male Provider	1.01 (.18)	.94 (.09)
Neutral-Female Provider	.74 (.18)	1.07 (.09)
Neutral-Male Provider	.91 (.17)	.88 (.09)
<b>Masculine Negative</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	1.37 (.43)	1.87 (.23)
Angry-Male Provider	1.39 (.45)	1.83 (.23)
Neutral-Female Provider	1.23 (.45)	1.44 (.23)
Neutral-Male Provider	1.19 (.42)	1.23 (.23)
<b>Feminine Positive</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	.64 (.28)	.97 (.15)
Angry-Male Provider	.46 (.29)	.56 (.15)
Neutral-Female Provider	.52 (.29)	.78 (.15)
Neutral-Male Provider	.82 (.27)	.77 (.15)
<b>Feminine Negative</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	.66 (.31)	1.41 (.17)
Angry-Male Provider	.85 (.32)	1.25 (.16)
Neutral-Female Provider	1.74 (.32)	1.25 (.16)
Neutral-Male Provider	1.34 (.30)	.98 (.16)
<b>Neutral</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	1.04 (.21)	1.14 (.11)
Angry-Male Provider	.92 (.21)	1.00 (.11)
Neutral-Female Provider	.75 (.21)	1.02 (.11)
Neutral-Male Provider	1.47 (.20)	1.00 (.11)

**Tables 20.1, 20.2, 20.3: Cell means and standard error for behavioral consequences**

Table 20.1: Cell means and standard error for behavioral variables (full sample)

Dependent Variables		
Propensity to Complain		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	6.17 (.23)	6.12 (.12)
Angry-Male Provider	6.03 (.23)	6.09 (.11)
Neutral-Female Provider	4.79 (.21)	4.96 (.11)
Neutral-Male Provider	5.26 (.23)	5.07 (.11)
<b>Negative Rep. Intentions</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	6.18 (.24)	5.83 (.12)
Angry-Male Provider	5.59 (.24)	6.19 (.12)
Neutral-Female Provider	4.91 (.22)	5.21 (.12)
Neutral-Male Provider	5.58 (.24)	5.61 (.12)
<b>Positive Word-of-Mouth</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	1.27 (.17)	1.50 (.09)
Angry-Male Provider	1.65 (.18)	1.32 (.09)
Neutral-Female Provider	1.99 (.16)	1.97 (.09)
Neutral-Male Provider	1.72 (.17)	1.78 (.09)
<b>Third-party Action</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	3.55 (.27)	4.02 (.14)
Angry-Male Provider	3.77 (.28)	4.15 (.13)
Neutral-Female Provider	2.58 (.25)	2.65 (.13)
Neutral-Male Provider	2.75 (.27)	2.52 (.13)

Table 20.2: Cell means and standard error for behavioral variables (bank subsample)

Dependent Variables		
Propensity to Complain		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	6.22 (.33)	6.26 (.16)
Angry-Male Provider	5.98 (.35)	6.29 (.16)
Neutral-Female Provider	4.42 (.30)	4.92 (.16)
Neutral-Male Provider	5.66 (.35)	5.00 (.16)
Negative Rep. Intentions		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	6.18 (.38)	5.56 (.19)
Angry-Male Provider	5.00 (.39)	6.12 (.18)
Neutral-Female Provider	4.43 (.34)	4.86 (.18)
Neutral-Male Provider	5.07 (.39)	5.32 (.18)
Positive Word-of-Mouth		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	1.38 (.29)	1.55 (.14)
Angry-Male Provider	1.98 (.30)	1.43 (.14)
Neutral-Female Provider	2.01 (.26)	2.15 (.14)
Neutral-Male Provider	1.61 (.30)	1.95 (.13)
Third-party Action		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	4.37 (.42)	4.23 (.20)
Angry-Male Provider	3.79 (.43)	4.50 (.20)
Neutral-Female Provider	2.49 (.37)	2.80 (.20)
Neutral-Male Provider	2.95 (.43)	2.63 (.20)

Table 20.3: Cell means and standard error for behavioral variables (retail subsample)

Dependent Variables		
Propensity to Complain		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	6.13 (.30)	5.98 (.16)
Angry-Male Provider	6.07 (.31)	5.89 (.16)
Neutral-Female Provider	5.18 (.30)	5.01 (.16)
Neutral-Male Provider	4.96 (.30)	5.15 (.16)
<b>Negative Rep. Intentions</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	6.18 (.28)	6.10 (.15)
Angry-Male Provider	6.07 (.29)	6.27 (.14)
Neutral-Female Provider	5.42 (.28)	5.56 (.15)
Neutral-Male Provider	5.96 (.27)	5.92 (.15)
<b>Positive Word-of-Mouth</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	1.17 (.20)	1.46 (.10)
Angry-Male Provider	1.38 (.20)	1.21 (.10)
Neutral-Female Provider	1.97 (.20)	1.78 (.10)
Neutral-Male Provider	1.80 (.19)	1.61 (.10)
<b>Third-party Action</b>		
	Female Customer	Male Customer
Angry-Female Provider	2.88 (.34)	3.81 (.18)
Angry-Male Provider	3.75 (.35)	3.80 (.17)
Neutral-Female Provider	2.67 (.34)	2.49 (.18)
Neutral-Male Provider	2.61 (.33)	2.41 (.18)

**Tables 22.1, 22.2, 22.3: Stepwise regressions of anger based on service consequences**

Table 22.1: Anger and anger-related items retained for service consequences (full sample)

<b>Dependent Variable</b>	<b>Retained Items</b>	<b>Standardized Beta</b>	<b>t-value</b>	<b>p</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>
Overall service evaluation	Angry	<b>-.23</b>	-4.60	.00	<b>.13</b>
	Disgusted	-.15	-2.95	.03	
	Distressed	.19	3.88	.00	
	Enraged	-.17	-2.84	.005	
Service satisfaction	Angry	<b>-.23</b>	-4.67	.00	<b>.15</b>
	Disgusted	-.18	-3.68	.00	
	Distressed	.16	3.35	.001	
	Enraged	-.15	-2.50	.013	
Corporate image	Disgusted	<b>-.22</b>	-5.20	.00	<b>.12</b>
	Angry	-.19	-4.56	.00	
Justice perceptions	Angry	<b>-.28</b>	-7.53	.00	<b>.08</b>
Propensity to complain	Mad	.16	2.86	.004	<b>.26</b>
	Enraged	<b>.23</b>	4.65	.00	
	Upset	.19	4.20	.00	
Negative rep. intentions	Angry	<b>.31</b>	7.51	.00	<b>.15</b>
	Disgusted	.14	3.51	.00	
Positive word-of-mouth	Angry	<b>-.22</b>	-5.15	.00	<b>.09</b>
	Disgusted	-.14	-3.40	.00	
Third-party action	Enraged	<b>.33</b>	6.72	.00	<b>.19</b>
	Hostile	.14	2.81	.005	

Table 22.2: Anger and anger-related items retained for service consequences (bank subsample)

<b>Dependent Variable</b>	<b>Retained Items</b>	<b>Standardized Beta</b>	<b>t-value</b>	<b>p</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>
Overall service evaluation	Angry	<b>-.26</b>	-4.12	.00	<b>.15</b>
	Disgusted	-.19	-2.98	.003	
Service satisfaction	Angry	<b>-.24</b>	-3.97	.00	<b>.17</b>
	Disgusted	-.23	-3.69	.00	
Corporate image	Angry	<b>-.22</b>	-3.49	.001	<b>.14</b>
	Disgusted	-.21	-3.37	.001	
Justice perceptions	Angry	<b>-.31</b>	-5.89	.00	<b>.10</b>
Propensity to complain	Angry	.19	2.47	.014	<b>.33</b>
	Enraged	<b>.26</b>	4.08	.00	
	Upset	.19	2.68	.008	
Negative rep. intentions	Angry	<b>.22</b>	2.75	.006	<b>.22</b>
	Disgusted	.17	2.79	.006	
	Upset	.16	2.01	.046	
Positive word-of-mouth	Angry	<b>-.23</b>	-3.62	.00	<b>.11</b>
	Disgusted	-.16	-2.47	.015	
Third-party action	Enraged	<b>.35</b>	5.27	.00	<b>.24</b>
	Angry	.19	2.79	.006	



Table 22.3: Anger and anger-related items retained for service consequences (retail subsample)

<b>Dependent Variable</b>	<b>Retained Items</b>	<b>Standardized Beta</b>	<b>t-value</b>	<b>p</b>	<b>R<sup>2</sup></b>
Overall service evaluation	Enraged	<b>-.29</b>	-5.43	.00	<b>.08</b>
Service satisfaction	Enraged	<b>-.31</b>	-4.33	.00	<b>.12</b>
	Distressed	.15	2.45	.015	
	Angry	-.15	-2.27	.024	
Corporate image	Enraged	<b>-.18</b>	-2.76	.006	<b>.09</b>
	Disgusted	-.16	-2.49	.013	
Justice perceptions	Angry	<b>-.25</b>	-4.69	.00	<b>.06</b>
Propensity to complain	Mad	<b>.21</b>	2.78	.006	<b>.21</b>
	Enraged	.19	2.74	.007	
	Upset	.13	2.08	.039	
Negative rep. intentions	Angry	<b>.24</b>	4.27	.000	<b>.11</b>
	Contemptful	.15	2.62	.009	
Positive word-of-mouth	Enraged	<b>-.26</b>	-4.92	.00	<b>.07</b>
Third-party action	Enraged	<b>.26</b>	3.88	.00	<b>.15</b>
	Hostile	.16	2.42	.016	