Hospitality Employees' Affective Experience of Shame, Self-Efficacy Beliefs and Job Behaviors: The Alleviating Role of Error Tolerance

Abstract

Service management researchers have clearly demonstrated that customers experience various emotions in service failure situations. In comparison, hospitality employees' emotional experiences in such situations, are relatively unknown, as they are often required to hide experienced emotions and express emotions in ways consistent with industry standards. To address this gap, we examine the typical emotional experience of shame in the wake of service failure and explain how it influences employees' job behaviors—service recovery performance and organizational citizenship behavior—via self-efficacy beliefs. Furthermore, we draw on social information processing to introduce error tolerance as a social persuasion buffer that mitigates the negative effects of shame on self-efficacy perceptions. Survey data collected from 217 subordinate-supervisor dyads employed in restaurant settings reveal that shame experienced weakened employees' self-efficacy beliefs, and these weakened beliefs were in turn negatively associated with job behaviors. Finally, error tolerance significantly moderated the relationship between shame and self-efficacy.

Key words: shame, self-efficacy, error management, service recovery performance, organizational citizenship behavior

1. Introduction

Like customers, hospitality frontline employees experience various emotions in the wake of job events related to service production and delivery. These experiences constitute event-emotion matrices (Basch and Fisher, 2000). The social and performance-focused nature of the hospitality work setting particularly facilitates employees' experiences of self-conscious emotions. Self-conscious emotions are socially constructed and play a key role in social interactions in which emotions are experienced and expressed (Coté, 2005). One powerful self-conscious emotion that hospitality frontline employees may experience but has long been absent from the hospitality literature is shame, referred to as "an unpleasant emotion that individuals experience when they fail to meet internalized social standards, including standards of morality, competence, or aesthetics" (Orth et al., 2010, p. 1061). One distinctive characteristic of shame compared to other negative emotions is a negative appraisal of self. In this context, the negative appraisal of self specifically illustrates that individuals attribute the negative events (e.g., service failure) to themselves, considering that they caused the negative work outcomes (Bulger, 2013). The affective event theory posits that an emotional experience after an event is triggered by a person's appraisal and interpretation of the event (Basch and Fisher, 2000). De Hooge (2013) identified some types of incidents that may stimulate the experience of shame: unethical job behavior, discrimination, termination, workplace incivility, and counterproductive behaviors. This study posits that service failure is a typical organizational situation in the hospitality sector that commonly leads to the experience of shame and ultimately has negative implications for self-image (Tracy and Robins, 2004).

One fundamental belief closely related to individuals' psychosocial functioning with respect to motivation, coping, self-regulation, self-development, and decision-making is self-efficacy.

According to social cognitive theory, self-efficacy beliefs "determine how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave" (Tahmassian and Moghadam, 2011; p. 91). Such beliefs exert salient impacts on a broad range of key themes, including the ways people think about and interpret life events, causal attributions, persistence in pursuing or the renouncement of goals despite failures, and the capacity to manage emotions and cope with stress (e.g., Maddux and Gosselin, 2012). Existing literature has more focused on one's own mastery or vicarious experience as drivers to develop self-efficacy beliefs. In fact, self-efficacy is also contingent on one's affective state (Bandura, 2010). Hospitality frontline employees experience service failures from time to time, and these experiences inevitably forge their self-judgments of personal competence. This study focuses on one affective response (shame) to service failures and how it influences employees' self-efficacy beliefs. The current research on self-efficacy has a limited understanding of self-efficacy beliefs' precursors and even less knowledge regarding the impacts of emotional experiences on efficacy beliefs.

An individual's self-efficacy beliefs are shaped by their environment. Taking a social information processing perspective (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978), this study argues that the work environment constitutes a social context in which information cues stably and powerfully guide employees in their attentional focus, as well as their adaptive attitudes and behaviors. Salancik and Pfeffer (1978, p. 226) indicated that "the social environment provides cues which individuals use to construct and interpret events." We posit that organizational error tolerance informs employees about the extent to which errors are tolerated, thereby functioning as a form of social persuasion that indicates whether errors/failures should be considered a sign of incompetency. Specifically, we investigate how organizational error tolerance provides information cues that alleviate the tension between hospitality frontline employees' experiences of shame and their

self-efficacy beliefs. In addition, research on shame has examined its behavioral outcomes. Specifically, scholars have found that shame may cause individuals to attack themselves or others, or to engage in avoidance, isolation, escape, or other maladaptive behaviors; however, shame may also cause individuals to demonstrate empathy, apologize, and engage in service recovery efforts (Tangney and Dearing, 2002; Tangney et al., 2007). These inconsistent findings suggest more investigations are necessary to better understand the relationship between shame and behavioral outcomes.

Taken together, this study conceptualizes shame as an aversive emotional experience in the wake of service failure regardless of to whom the failure is attributed. We expect shame to be associated with impaired attitudes and behaviors. The purposes of the current research are threefold: (1) to examine the impacts of restaurant frontline employees' shame on their self-efficacy beliefs; (2) to investigate how experiences of shame influence employees' service recovery performance and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB); and (3) to examine the moderating role of organizational error tolerance between the experience of shame and self-efficacy beliefs. This paper makes several contributions to the literature on self-conscious emotions, self-efficacy, and error management. First, the current study is among the first to shed light on the powerful but understudied self-conscious emotion of shame, examining its generation among and impacts on hospitality frontline employees. Previous studies on shame have mostly centered on shame's behavioral outcomes and resulted in inconsistent findings regarding its adaptive or maladaptive nature. This paper helps clarify the impacts of shame on two key behavioral outcomes in the hospitality work setting: OCB and service recovery performance. With unpredictability and uniqueness of service delivery process, frontline employees often need to handle service failures, and go beyond their own work descriptions to

do extra work to fulfill customer needs (Özduran and Tanova, 2017). Second, this study responds to the call for an exploration of the boundary conditions under which shame leads to withdrawal or reparative behaviors. For the first time, error tolerance is identified to influence the effect of shame on employees' self-efficacy beliefs. Third, research on self-efficacy has rarely considered self-efficacy's main influences and their interactive effects on self-efficacy beliefs. To address this gap, we examine both a negative emotional experience (the experience of shame) and a form of social persuasion (organizational error tolerance) and their collective impacts on self-efficacy beliefs. By doing so, we provide insight into the complex development process of self-efficacy considering both individual and social aspects. Fourth, this study enriches the literature on error management by expanding on error management's relationship with employees' emotions. Although previous research has examined the direct impacts of error management (e.g., error management culture) on employees' emotions (e.g., gratitude, anxiety; Wang et al., 2020a), the current study reveals that error tolerance functions as an organizational contingency which affects employees' attitudinal responses (self-efficacy) to their emotional experiences (experiences of shame). The Figure 1 exhibits the conceptual framework.

2. Literature review and hypothesis development

2.1. Service failure in the hospitality work context

Service failure refers to service performance that falls below customers' expectations (Michel, 2001). Due to the characteristics of the service production, such as simultaneous service production and consumption, customers' co-creation of service product, and long service production chain (Wang et al., 2020b), service failure is not only unavoidable but also frequent. Service failure is prevalent in the hospitality sector (Basso and Pizzutti, 2016) and is detrimental to individual and firm performance (e.g., market share; Norvell et al., 2018). With the

longstanding customer orientation, existing research has mostly focused on customers' emotional reactions to service failures and the ways to help them recover, while ignoring employees' emotional experience in such circumstances (McColl-Kennedy and Smith, 2006; Min and Kim, 2019). First, service failure occurs publicly and is observed by external stakeholders (e.g., customers). Second, service failure goes beyond personal failure by causing adverse consequences to others. According to the affective event theory, the ubiquitous service failure situations should constitute a stable series of affective events that trigger a "regular flow of self-conscious feelings" (Kim, 2016, p. 66) which ultimately become a consistent influence on employees' self-evaluation and self-identity.

Individuals' typical discrete emotional experiences when confronted with failure situations include anger, anxiety, and shame (Balaji et al., 2017; Bonifield and Cole, 2007). In particular, anger is a social emotion that is directed toward the part that is perceived to be unjust and causes unfavorable outcomes (Gray and Wegner, 2011). Gibson and Callister (2010) suggested that work events that involve goal interference (service failure) is one common precursor of anger. Anxiety refers to an emotional state when perceiving a threatening circumstance (Nauman et al., 2018). Anxiety is a core affective demonstration of stress caused by the perceived deviation from one's normal psychological functioning defined by the environment (Motowidlo et al., 1986). Thus, failing in the job tasks is a typical stress-producing situation that induces anxiety (Linden and Muschalla, 2007). As to shame, service failures pose pertinent stimuli to trigger shame experience as they 1) indicate failure in work tasks; 2) harm the interest of significant others; and 3) are often publicly observed and socially judged by customers and colleagues (Kim, 2016).

2.2. Shame in the organizational context

Labelled “the master emotion,” shame is a highly socially constructed emotional experience that influences social bonds and functions as a form of social control (Jacquet, 2015).

Shame is defined as “a painful emotion that arises when an employee evaluates a threat to the self when he or she has fallen short of an important standard tied to a work-related identity” (Daniels and Robinson, 2019, p. 2450). Based upon the process model of self-conscious emotions, events that are relevant to one’s social self and that are internally attributed are likely to elicit self-conscious emotions including shame (Tracy and Robins, 2004). The interpretation of affective events and the subsequent causal attributions result in different emotional outcomes and coping strategies (Menon and Dubé, 2007). Unlike other discrete emotions, shame is particularly capable of giving rise to radical individual changes (Lickel et al., 2014). Two intrapsychic impetuses in the wake of an event result in the generation of shame: an appraisal of one’s deviation from certain standards and a causal attribution to the faulty self (Kim, 2016). When individuals perceive that their actual performance falls short of the standards and attribute this discrepancy to themselves, shame is elicited. This appraisal especially refers to the process through which environmental stimuli (e.g., work events) trigger emotional response. One typical situational impetus that triggers shame for hospitality frontline employees is service failure. Service failure commonly leads to the experience of shame and ultimately has negative implications for self-image (Tracy and Robins, 2004).

Shame is prominent in the hospitality work context. First, as a self-conscious emotion, shame arises along with a self-evaluation that is based on the standards one sets, and it is closely related to the identity the given individual has developed and seeks to maintain in the organization. Second, the hospitality work setting triggers social interactions in which frontline employees’ job behaviors are witnessed by core customers, other customers, employees, and supervisors. As a

result, one's identity does not result purely from internal processing but is also contingent on collective social judgment. Another particularity of shame resides in its varied behavioral outcomes, which may be constructive, withdrawing, or aggressive (Leach and Cidam, 2015). Previous research has revealed a broad range of job behaviors that are positively influenced by shame: job performance (Bagozzi et al., 2003), motivation to change (Lickel et al., 2014), exemplification behaviors (Bonner et al., 2017), withdrawal (Bauer and Spector, 2015), reduced job performance (Daniels, 2015), and counterproductive work behavior (Bauer and Spector, 2015). These inconsistent and even contradictory effects of shame highlight the complex and subtle nature of shame, especially given its intensity. Therefore, it is critical not only to explore how shame influences key job behaviors, but also to understand the contexts in which shame results in various behavioral outcomes.

2.3. Self-efficacy

Derived from social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2010; 2012), self-efficacy is regarded as one of two prominent cognitive forces that drive and initiate one's behavior (the second is outcome expectancy). Self-efficacy is defined as "people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives" (Bandura, 2010, p. 1). Self-efficacy is not a personality trait but rather a self-assessment of one's competency that integrates one's own perception with social information gathered from supervisors and colleagues or across the work environment (Tahmassian and Moghadam, 2011). Therefore, self-efficacy is more of a salient self-belief that is influenced by long-term personal experience and social influence, rather than a goal individuals pursue. In the face of obstacles, individuals with higher self-efficacy remain persistent and optimistic about achieving their goals than those who have only limited self-efficacy (Mache et al., 2014). Existing research has

revealed positive associations between self-efficacy and key work-related outcomes, such as training outcomes (Chiaburu and Lindsay, 2008), job performance (Walumbwa et al., 2011), creativity (Ma et al., 2013), job satisfaction (Liu et al., 2010).

As to the antecedents, self-efficacy mainly develops via four influential sources: mastery experience, vicarious modeling, social persuasion, and emotional state, the last of which involves not only personal cognitions and experiences but also social informational cues (Stajikovic and Luthans, 2003). Social persuasion is an environmental force that boosts one's self-efficacy beliefs by motivating the person to put forth greater effort. The fourth source of influence is one's emotional state. An individual's episodic emotional experiences or general mood can affect their perceived self-efficacy. For example, regardless of their duration, negative emotional experiences (e.g., depression and anxiety) can influence one's self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 2012). Positive emotions tend to boost one's beliefs in self-efficacy through the "broaden-and-build" process (Fredrickson, 2001). As shame is the emotional state most central to self-evaluation and self-development (e.g., Daniels and Robinson, 2019) and self-efficacy represents one's belief in their own fundamental self-worth, it is reasonable to expect that the emotional experience of shame significantly affects self-efficacy perceptions. In particular, the experience of shame implies one's internal attribution of fault for an outcome that falls short of standards, and this feeling of a faulty self naturally casts a shadow over one's perception of their own ability at work. Martens (2005) drew on the social cognitive theory to suggest that shame diminishes confidence (self-efficacy) in one's ability to implement solutions. Taken together, the following hypothesis is formed:

H1: Employees' experiences of shame followed by service failure events are negatively related to the employees' perceived self-efficacy.

2.4. Error tolerance

Zhao and Olivera (2006) defined errors as "individuals' decisions and behaviors that 1) result in an undesirable gap between an expected and real state and 2) may lead to actual or potential negative consequences for organizational functioning that could have been avoided" (p. 1013). Error occurrence is often a byproduct of learning and serves as an important step on the path to self-development (Demetriou, 2011). In spite of the inevitability and ubiquity of errors, organizations habitually hold aversive attitudes toward error occurrence, associating errors with failure, a lack of competence, indifference, disengagement, and untrustworthiness (Wang et al., 2020a). Moreover, as socialization processes long have led errors to be stigmatized as negative events, individuals tend to be intolerant of errors in order to protect their self-esteem (e.g., Martin and Marsh, 2003). Employees are sometimes motivated to be intolerant of others' errors as a way to show their personal commitment to high standards (Wang et al., 2020b). Intolerance of errors is similarly prevalent as errors undermine the organization's control over and guarantee of high quality, especially in the hospitality industry in which the goal is the relentless pursuit of perfection. Zhao (2011) indicated that because reward systems and performance appraisals strongly emphasize perfection, blame is closely associated with error occurrence, rendering error tolerance in the workplace low (Hagen, 2013).

One managerial practice, error management, involves a psychological transformation from a habitual aversive attitude toward errors to a more positive attitude characterized by accepting, tolerating, and understanding the error phenomenon (Frese and Keith, 2015). Weinzimmer and Esken (2017) deemed error tolerance as "the conditions that exist within an organization that allow organizational members to take risks, pursue innovative solutions, and develop superior knowledge without fear of repercussions for making mistakes" (p. 5). Employees who perceive a

high level of error tolerance at work consider their organization to be a setting in which errors are neutrally valenced and unique materials for learning and development, rather than stigmatized (Weinzimmer and Esken, 2017).

Social information processing suggests that the organizational environment is an important source of informational cues that employees use to adjust their attitudes, emotions, and behaviors to the circumstances (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978). Employees often attend to organizational characteristics to guide how they interpret, feel, and behave at work (Schneider et al., 2013). In this regard, employees' perceptions of error tolerance in the organization are likely to strongly influence the employees' self-efficacy beliefs, as error tolerance clearly indicates that errors/failures are not unforgivable. To the extent that errors are tolerated for the sake of learning and development, employees may see service failures not as evidence of their incompetency but rather as learning opportunities. Building upon social cognitive theory, this social information constitutes a powerful form of social persuasion that has been found to be a major influence on self-efficacy beliefs. As such, after service failure events, an error-tolerant organization may provide ashamed employees with (1) reassurance that error occurrence is not stigmatized and (2) enabling circumstances to help the employees maintain their self-beliefs about their work competence. As such, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H2: The relationship between employees' experiences of shame after service failure events and the employees' perceived self-efficacy is less negative when the employees perceive higher levels of error tolerance at work.

2.5. OCB

OCB refers to "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the

organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 4). Employees can choose how they demonstrate citizenship behaviors, unlike performance-related outcomes (Chiniara and Bentein, 2016). OCB can be directed towards other individuals such as coworkers and leaders (OCB-I). OCB-Is depict voluntary cooperation with peers, providing support to others in need (Williams and Anderson, 1991). OCB can also be directed towards organizations (OCB-O), referring to willing compliance with organizational regulations and rules. The current study focuses on OCB-I because (1) OCB-I is more task-oriented and (2) hospitality service deliveries are usually accomplished with collective efforts, thereby rendering OCB-I crucial for organizational effectiveness. Several benefits of performing OCBs have been noted. At the individual level, At the group level, OCBs increase interpersonal coordination, cohesion, and adaptability and help organizations retain high-performing employees (Bolino et al., 2002). At the organizational level, OCBs have been shown to influence organizational performance by increasing revenue, operating efficiency, profitability, and customer satisfaction (Dekas et al., 2013). Because of such benefits to performing OCBs, extensive research has been done to examine OCBs' antecedents. OCBs have been linked with predictors such as individual characteristics (e.g., employee morale, personality, attitude); task characteristics (e.g., feedback, role stressors), organizational characteristics (e.g., fairness, organizational support), and leadership (e.g., transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, servant leadership, supervisor support; Tang and Tsaur, 2016). Although little research exists, scholars have noted the role of emotions at work in predicting OCB (AL-Abrrow et al., 2020). While there is empirical evidence showing the role of positive emotions in enhancing OCB, such evidence is lacking when it comes to demonstrating the influence of negative emotions in decreasing OCB (Ziegler et al., 2012). Shame, as a discrete negative emotion, has never been examined as an antecedent of OCB. In

particular, the study assumes that shame is likely to negatively influence self-efficacy beliefs. Researchers have demonstrated a positive relationship between self-efficacy and employees' tendencies to engage in OCB (Todd and Kent, 2006). That is, employees high in self-efficacy are more likely to engage in OCB because they are confident in their competence (Walumbwa et al., 2010), whereas employees low in self-efficacy are less likely to engage in OCB because of their low self-confidence in their abilities. Taken together, the current study argues that shame is likely to reduce employees' self-efficacy, resulting in reduced OCBs. The following hypothesis is proposed:

H3: The relationship between employees' experiences of shame followed by service failure events and the employees' OCB is mediated by the employees' perceived self-efficacy.

2.6. Service recovery performance

Service recovery involves actions that hospitality organizations and employees take to handle service failures with the purpose of encouraging customers to return (Yao et al., 2019). The effective management of service failures is vital for hospitality organizations as successful service recovery can lead to positive customer outcomes (e.g., positive word-of-mouth) (Guchait et al., 2016). Researchers have noted the important role frontline employees play in service failures and recoveries, putting particular emphasis on service recovery performance (Wang et al., 2020b). Wang et al. (2020a, 2020b, p. 3) posited that "Therefore, service recovery performance constitutes one critical facet of a hospitality employee's job performance". Various antecedents of service recovery performance include (a) leadership (e.g., supervisor support, servant leadership); (b) organizational factors (e.g., perceived organizational support, training, rewards, empowerment, team support); and (c) individual employee characteristics (e.g., emotional exhaustion, self-efficacy, trait competitiveness; Guchait, 2017). While service

recovery performance and its antecedents have been extensively examined, researchers generally have failed to investigate how employees' emotions can influence service recovery performance as a prosocial work behavior. Helping to fill this gap, Wang et al. (2020b) recently demonstrated that positive emotions (e.g., gratitude) can increase and negative emotions (e.g., anxiety) can decrease employees' service recovery performance. The current study proposes the mediating effect of employees' self-efficacy beliefs on the relationship between the experience of shame and service recovery performance, a relationship that can be justified using social cognitive theory (SCT). SCT states that employees' negative emotional experiences caused by failure events negatively influence the employees' self-efficacy beliefs. Individuals' perceived self-efficacy can affect the individuals' behaviors via cognitive, motivational, affective, and selection processes (Bandura, 2013). In particular, employees with lower self-efficacy (1) tend to stay in the "comfort zone" by avoiding exposing themselves to others' job tasks that they perceive as beyond their own ability; (2) are less likely to set goals to engage in others' job tasks; and (3) are less motivated to help colleagues in need as they are not sure about the outcomes of their behavior and the value of doing so. The following hypothesis is proposed:

H4: The relationship between employees' experiences of shame followed by service failure events and the employees' service recovery performance is mediated by the employees' perceived self-efficacy.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants and data collection procedure

The data were collected from frontline employees working in restaurants and their supervisors in Istanbul, Turkey in adopting non-probability convenience sampling. The restaurants are in the same type as they all provide world cuisine, with frontline employees serving at tables. The

selection criterion for survey participation is that participants should be full-time frontline employees. The survey participation was totally voluntary and no compensations or gifts were provided for survey participation. One coauthor personally distributed and collected the completed surveys following the permission of restaurant managers.

A few procedural steps were implemented in order to lower the threat of common-method variance. First, the measures of independent, moderating, mediating, and outcome variables were placed separately in the survey (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Second, the data were obtained from both restaurant employees and their supervisors (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Third, participants were told in the beginning that their data would be anonymous and confidential to reduce the social desirability (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Drawn on existing approach to studying shame (Bagozzi et al., 2003), we first introduced a general service failure context to serve as a shame-eliciting statement. After the description "During service delivery process, it sometimes happens that the customer found out that the service delivery is a failure because you made a mistake. At such moments.", respondents answered survey questions measuring shame. In total, the survey instrument was distributed to 224 employees, and 217 valid surveys were returned. 34.6% of the sample were females. 63.1% of participants were between 21 and 30 years old. 49.3% of the employees had worked in the restaurant for more than one year. 81.6% of the participants had a high school degree or above. Table 1 presents the details of the respondents' profile.

3.2. Measures

Responses were based on a seven-point Likert scale from 1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree for constructs of shame, self-efficacy, OCB, error tolerance, and service recovery performance. Specifically, employees reported the shame, self-efficacy, OCB and error tolerance

while their corresponding supervisors were asked to assess employees' service recovery performance.

Shame: A four-item scale adopted from Bonner et al. (2017) was used. One sample item is "I feel disgusted with self".

Self-efficacy: An eight-item measure developed by Chen et al. (2001) was adopted. One sample item is "I am able to successfully overcome many challenges".

OCB: A six-item scale from Ma and Qu (2011) was used to measure OCB. One sample item is "I go out of my way to help new coworkers".

Service recovery performance: Supervisors of participants evaluated employees' service recovery performance adopting Lin (2010)'s study. One sample item is "The customers for whom this employee handled service recovery come back for more services now than ever".

Error tolerance: A five-item scale by Weinzimmer and Esken (2017) was used. A sample item from this scale is "Managers are generally accepting of errors".

Control variable. Prior literature has controlled for age when studying OCB as well as service recovery performance (Ashill et al., 2008; Cohen et al., 2012), hence we included age and treated it as a control variable in our model.

4. **Results**

4.1. Common-method variance

Following Harman's one-factor approach (Podsakoff et al., 2012), we first performed an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) on all the instruments using the principal axis factoring (PAF) extraction (Fabrigar et al., 1999) to determine the number of unrotated factors which could explain the data variance. This EFA did not unveil any single factor but rather at least six factors whose

eigenvalues above 1.0 emerged from this EFA and the largest single factor could only explain 26.49% variance. Given an increased criticism of the Harman's single-factor method (Hulland et al., 2017), we then took two additional tests. First, we utilized the Amos in order to test a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) that connected all instruments to a single factor (Podsakoff et al., 2003), this model led to considerably lower factor loadings and unacceptable fit ($\chi^2 = 2026.671$, df = 377, $p < 0.001$, $\chi^2/df = 5.376 > 3$, CFI = 0.466, IFI = 0.476, RMSEA = 0.142). Second, we employed single-method-factor strategy by loading all instruments on both their corresponding theoretical construct and a new mutual first-order factor concurrently (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Accordingly, the proportion of total squared item-loadings to all instruments demonstrated that this mutual factor could only account for 22.5% of total variance (e.g., Ray et al., 2014). Moreover, following Kock's (2015) recommendation for PLS-SEM, we further used VIF to evaluate the common-method bias. According to the final right column in Table 3, since VIF values were all below 3.3, it can be concluded that common-method bias was absent in our data. Taken together, common-method variance was not a big issue in our data.

4.2. Measurement model

Partial least squares (PLS), namely SmartPLS 3, was used to examine both measurement model and structural model since PLS-SEM method allows dealing with non-normal data and especially small sample size better than covariance-based SEM (Hair et al., 2011). Results in Figure 2 indicated that all the items whose factor loading above 0.50 (Costello and Osborne, 2005), hence we retained all items for further analyses. The next step was to evaluate the reliability and validity of our measurement scales. Thereby, composite reliability (CR) and coefficient omega (ω) for all scales surpassed the benchmark of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978), which implies that our scales were internally consistent. Given the growing concern about Cronbach alpha, we computed coefficient

omega as an alternative more accurate indicator to estimate the scale reliability (Hayes and Coutts, 2020; McNeish, 2018). Also, the average variance extracted (AVE) for all scales was higher than the cut-off of 0.50 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981), convergent validity was therefore established. Meanwhile, all the inter-correlations were lower than the square of AVEs, discriminant validity was thus reached (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Also, the heterotrait-monotrait ratio of correlations (HTTM), as a stricter criterion for the discriminant validity (Franke and Sarstedt, 2019; Hair et al., 2017), were smaller than the threshold of 0.85 (see Table 2, Voorhees et al., 2016). This complimented the discriminant validity for our scales. In addition, since the variance inflation factor (VIF) was consistently under the recommended cut-off of 5 (see Table 3, Petter et al., 2007), the problem of multicollinearity seemed not to exist in the model.

4.3. Structural model

Bootstrapping process with 5,000 iterations was subsequently performed to test our hypotheses. Structural model results as shown in Figure 3 exhibited that the association between service failure-driven experience of shame and self-efficacy was significant and negative ($\beta = -0.362$, $p < 0.001$), H1 was therefore accepted. Meanwhile, the moderating role of error tolerance in the association between shame and self-efficacy was also significant with positive beta coefficient ($\beta = 0.150$, $p < 0.01$), H2 was thus supported. In order to visually interpret this moderation, an interactive plot is presented in Figure 4 in accordance with the simple-slopes or spotlight approach (Aiken and West, 1991), this plot illustrates how the impacts of shame on self-efficacy is moderated by error tolerance. At high level of error tolerance ($\beta = -0.28$, $p < 0.01$), the slope for this linear regression between shame and self-efficacy is relatively flat. At low level of error tolerance ($\beta = -0.46$, $p < 0.001$), this slope is steeper. As such, the negative relationship between shame and self-efficacy is attenuated when perceived error tolerance increases. On the other hand,

the only consideration to corroborate a mediation is that the indirect effect is statistically significant (Zhao et al., 2010). Accordingly, the indirect effect of shame on OCB through self-efficacy was statistically significant ($\beta = -0.212$, $p < 0.001$), hence supporting H3. Likewise, the indirect effect of shame on service recovery performance via self-efficacy was also statistically significant ($\beta = -0.119$, $p < 0.001$), providing evidence for supporting H4 as well (see Table 4). In addition, as a control variable, age had a significant and positive impact on self-efficacy. However, the removal of this control factor only led to a marginal change in adjusted R^2 (0.227 → 0.213 for self-efficacy, 0.336 → 0.339 for OCB, 0.099 → 0.103 for service recovery performance).

5. Discussion

With the emerging evidence of important roles played by hospitality employees' emotional experience (e.g., Wang et al., 2020a), there is a dearth of research on understanding discrete self-conscious emotions, their impacts, and boundary conditions. The social attributes of service production and delivery mean that frontline employees work in an environment that triggers not only basic but also self-conscious emotions (Tangney, 2012). The current research focalizes understudied self-conscious emotion of shame among frontline employees in restaurant settings. We argue that shame is one powerful emotion for restaurant frontline employees, that influences their key attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. We hypothesized that shame is a powerful emotion after service failure events which in turn jeopardizes employees' self-efficacy beliefs, in turn influencing key job behaviors. Meanwhile, error tolerance provides social informational cues that impact the relationship between shame and perceived self-efficacy. Data from 217 subordinates-supervisor dyads supported two major findings. First, we found that employees experiencing shame elicited by service failures reported reduced perceived self-efficacy, which subsequently negatively influenced their OCB and service recovery performance. Second, employees'

perceptions of error tolerance in the work place effectively alleviated the negative impacts of shame on the employees' self-efficacy beliefs. Therefore, the current study identifies a ubiquitous situation (service failure)—emotion (shame)—attitude (self-efficacy)—response (OCB and service recovery performance) dynamic that is a common but overlooked mechanism for understanding restaurant employees' work behaviors. Moreover, the results reveal the influence of organizational error tolerance on the impacts of shame and in turn self-efficacy perceptions via social information processing and social persuasion. The findings not only highlight the role of long-neglected emotion of shame that is particularly relevant to the hospitality work setting by exploring its outcomes, but also corroborate the organizational factor of error tolerance that moderates the impacts of shame experience. In addition, we uncovered that age, as a control factor, significantly and positively affected self-efficacy. This implies that older frontline workers are more confident in their abilities to overcome challenges and execute assigned tasks well to optimize the job performance. This is consistent with previous literature that supports the positive relationship between age and development of self-efficacy for career (Bausch et al., 2014). This high level of self-confidence might be accounted by the fact that older restaurant employees are more experienced than younger counterparts and thus more confident in their job performance.

5.1. Theoretical implications

With few exceptions (e.g., Du et al., 2011; Fernandes et al., 2018), research on service management has centered upon customers' emotional experiences (e.g., anger, discontent, disappointment, self-pity, anxiety) in service failure situations (e.g., McColl-Kennedy and Smith, 2006). At the same time, it has overlooked frontline employees' affective experience in these commonly occurring failure circumstances even though employees' emotions clearly influence their job attitudes and behaviors, especially their efforts toward service recovery. Understanding

employees' emotional experiences is important because service encounters involve dynamic emotional exchange spirals between customers and employees that ultimately determine not only customers' evaluations of service quality, but also employees' key job attitudes and behaviors (Groth and Grandey, 2012). Previous literature has put more emphasis on basic rather than self-conscious emotions, the latter of which are socially constructed and closely contingent on external circumstances. The existing work on self-conscious emotions is either conceptually oriented or focused on self-conscious emotions in general instead of discrete emotions (e.g., Salvador et al., 2012). Responding to the call for research on discrete self-conscious emotions in the workplace (Bulger, 2013), this study identifies the discrete self-conscious emotion of shame as one of employees' emotional responses to service failures; it also elucidates the relationship among shame, individual outcomes, and organizational factors. Drawing on the appraisal-based model of self-conscious emotions, shame represents one negative-valenced emotion derived from internal, global, and uncontrollable attributions (Tracy and Robins, 2004). We hypothesized that shame is a typical emotional experience in the wake of service failure, as service failure implies that the outcomes in question have fallen short of the standards. Previous research on shame has emphasized externally attributed sources of shame, such as performance appraisals, discrimination, employment termination, bullying, and harassment (De Hooge, 2013). This study helps to fill the research gap by focusing on internally attributed shame-eliciting events (i.e., service failure events), as shame is also elicited by the perception that others are adversely impacted by one's behavior. Employees' internal attributions of service failure are highly likely to be enhanced in the hospitality context due to asymmetrical relations of power between customers and employees (e.g., the customer is always right; Kim and Baker, 2020).

The current literature on shame has called for the exploration of other job behavioral outcomes (De Hooge et al., 2018). The appraisal theories of emotion reveal individuals' behavioral responses to emotions with the purpose of demonstrating how individuals are able to adjust their behaviors to achieve their goals (Moors et al., 2013). In particular, individuals develop three main coping strategies to resolve unpleasant or stressful events: they confront the aversive situation, reinterpret the event, or withdraw from the circumstances (Kim, 2016). Existing empirical findings indicate inconsistent and contradictory behavioral reactions to experience of shame. On the one hand, avoidance- and withdrawal-oriented behavioral tendencies have been found following the experience of shame. These tendencies lead individuals to extract themselves from the shame-eliciting situation, engage in resistance, or reduce their engagement (e.g., Cohen et al., 2011; Tangney et al., 2007). On the other hand, shame may be positively associated with goal-congruent reparative or prosocial behaviors (e.g., De Hooge et al., 2010; Keltner and Beer, 2005). For example, Kim et al. (2020) found that the shame elicited by abusive supervision motivated employees' exemplification. Similarly, Bonner et al. (2017) indicated that moral violations triggered employees' shame, which subsequently led the employees to engage in exemplification to restore their self-image. We contribute to the literature by placing shame in the hospitality context and examining its impacts on two key job behaviors for hospitality employees: OCB and service recovery performance. Because shame implies the undermining and weakening of self, we argue that employees react to shame by cogitating on their self-efficacy beliefs, and these beliefs in turn influence their job behaviors. The results confirm the importance of the "social self" and self-identity in the experience of shame, as shame showed a strong association with another key attitudinal self-concept: self-efficacy beliefs. Leach et al. (2007) posited that competence and sociability are two major sources of self-judgment. The

experience of shame often motivates individuals to perform reparative and prosocial behaviors to improve shame-eliciting situations (Gelbrich, 2010). However, the current research found that shame cast doubt on individuals' self-efficacy beliefs, which then resulted in reduced job performance. Taken together, this study clarifies the adaptive and maladaptive behavioral tendencies associated with shame. In particular, the findings corroborate the compass of shame theory (Elison et al., 2006), in that shame leads to withdrawal behavioral tendencies (e.g., Dickerson et al., 2004).

By considering the moderating effect of organizational error tolerance, the current study also contributes to the literature on self-efficacy and its determinants via social information processing. Self-identity is partially determined by an individual's environment as the social environment conveys informational cues that guide how one thinks and behaves (e.g., Chen et al., 2013). As a result, one's attitudes and behaviors reflect their environment. For example, Boekhorst (2015) revealed how authentic leaders enhanced employees' inclusion of a diverse workforce through role modeling, which served as a form of social information. In this study, we argue that employees develop perceptions about the extent to which errors are tolerated at work, and these perceptions deliver cues regarding how errors should be treated. Service failures, which may trigger the emotion of shame that in turn undermines employees' self-efficacy beliefs, help reveal the depth of organizational error tolerance. In addition, as one precursor of self-efficacy beliefs lies in social persuasion, we contend that perceived error tolerance is a consistent and stable way for employees to realize that errors or failures are accepted and considered as necessary to the process of self-development (Weinzimmer and Esken, 2017). Specifically, high organizational error tolerance alleviates employees' self-doubt about their capabilities resulting from shame due to service failure events. To the best of our knowledge, no

empirical research to date has specifically examined the moderating role of error tolerance in the relationship between shame and self-efficacy beliefs. The findings show that contextual factors are important variables to consider in research on shame, as these factors may help explain the inconsistent findings regarding behavioral responses to shame. Namely, depending on the social informational cues that the environment communicates, the person who experiences shame may exhibit various behavioral outcomes.

5.2. Practical implications

Kim (2016) suggested that shame is elicited with particular ease when an individual (1) fails in work tasks; (2) causes inconvenience or harm to significant individuals; or (3) is publicly seen and socially judged for their failure. The unavoidable and frequent service failures common to the hospitality industry fit all three aforementioned criteria, rendering frontline employees' shame an emotion with which to be reckoned. However, very little is known about restaurant frontline employees' experiences of shame and behavioral responses in the aftermath of service failure events. Organizations have long emphasized understanding customers' emotional fluctuations and finding ways to turn negative emotions into positive ones in the course of service failure (e.g., Balaji et al., 2017). Managers tend to overlook employees' emotional experiences, however, focusing only on the employees' positive emotional expressions rather than their genuinely experienced emotions (Yagil and Medler-Liraz, 2014).

Shame is a powerful self-conscious emotion as it touches the very core of self (e.g., self-identity, self-value) by associating self-concept with socially structured standards and judgments (Sedikides et al., 2011). Meanwhile, employees strive to protect and elevate their social selves in the workplace. The current study shows that despite their different emotion regulation strategies, employees responded to service failure situations with shame, which in turn reduced their self-

efficacy beliefs. Shame is generally associated with withdrawal behavioral tendencies, including the reduced citizenship behavior and service recovery performance highlighted in this study. In the hospitality work setting, employees are to adopt emotion suppression whenever necessary to maintain the required positive emotional expression and behave in ways consistent with organizational expectations. However, emotion suppression efforts have been found to create a sense of incongruence, resulting in negative feelings, social avoidance, and reduced well-being (Benita et al., 2020). Therefore, overlooking employees' genuine emotions is similar to the neglect of "hidden wounds" that bring about negative effects if not treated and healed (Gross, 2013). As service failures are inevitable, managers should address the potential negative effects of shame and emotion suppression with their employees. For example, frontline employees should receive reminders about perspective-taking that encourage them to think and interpret situations from their customers' perspectives. In this way, an employee may switch their emotion regulation strategy from emotion suppression to emotion reappraisal, the latter of which has been found to be more effective and healthier wholesome (Gross, 2013).

Managers should also realize the importance of self-efficacy beliefs and find ways to protect, maintain, and restore employees' self-efficacy, especially following service failure situations. The current findings suggest that organizational error tolerance can alleviate the negative effects of shame on employees' self-efficacy beliefs as it constitutes an effective form of social persuasion. Leaders should work to reexamine error occurrence and adopt more positive views of errors by considering them byproducts of learning or creativity. The creation of an error-tolerant work environment should be initiated by leaders who can then affect subordinates' attitudes and behaviors through social information processing (Boekhorst, 2015). Other approaches to reinforce self-efficacy should also be considered. Mastery experience and vicarious modeling

may be among the most effective ways to restore employees' confidence in their abilities. Periodic meetings could be held during which frontline employees focus on learning and intelligence sharing in the service failure and recovery domain. By engaging in such meetings, employees would not only learn new service recovery strategies (mastery experience), but also see others successfully handling service failures (vicarious modeling), thereby enhancing employees' self-efficacy beliefs.

5.3. Limitation and future studies

The current study draws hospitality researchers' attention to a powerful and understudied emotional experience among hospitality frontline employees: shame. In spite of the interesting findings, some limitations warrant mention. These limitations open up several possibilities for future research on employees' self-conscious emotions, especially shame.

First, the current study followed Bagozzi et al.'s (2003) study by presenting general service failure scenarios as elicitors of shame. However, shame may be dependent on the severity or type of the given service failure, as well as causal attribution (e.g., Tangney and Dearing, 2002). For example, employees are more likely to feel shame when they attribute the failure to their ability instead of their effort because ability is considered an uncontrollable and stable factor (Tracy and Robins, 2006). Future studies should design experimental studies with real-life setting by considering more specific service failure situations in relation to severity and attribution in order to uncover how episodic shame can be differently formed in various service failure situations. Moreover, retrospective experience sampling or critical incidents methods are also recommended methods to trigger experience of shame (e.g., Harrison-Walker, 2012, 2019).

Second, the current study identified error tolerance as a moderator that influences attitudinal and behavioral responses to shame. As shame is strongly connected to the "social self," environmental factors that may influence employees' behavioral reactions to shame through social information processing, such as leadership styles and organizational culture, merit further examination (Lord and Maher, 2002). Furthermore, personal traits may influence employees' reactions to shame. One such trait is proneness to shame, referring to an individual's general tendency to experience shame (Tangney et al., 2007). Third, the current findings are based on a Turkish sample. Previous research has suggested that shame can vary across cultural contexts (e.g., Boiger et al., 2013). For example, Japan is considered to have a "shame" culture (Boiger et al., 2014). This deserves additional studies to determine whether this study's findings can be replicated in other cultural contexts and to provide points of cross-cultural comparison. Forth, future studies should identify other underlying mechanisms that help explain how the experience of shame leads to different behavioral tendencies. For example, shame has been suggested to trigger the emotional experience of anger, leading to the "shame-rage spiral" (Hejdenberg and Andrews, 2011) that in turn influences behavioral outcomes. Fifth, the current research focused only on employees' emotional experience following service failure, future studies could consider the social interactions between customers and employees during the service delivery process, thereby examining the emotional interactions between customers and employees and subsequent outcomes. Last, previous literature has identified some other factors that might be relevant to our model. For instance, gender difference has been found to associate with emotional regulation (McRae et al., 2008), suggesting that male and female employees might respond differently to shame experience. Also, Smrtnik Vitulić and Prosen (2016) unveiled that educational background is a crucial factor that determines how individuals cope and regulate their emotional

experience, implying the potential influence of educational background on one's responses to shame. Future research could consider controlling for gender and educational level when studying shame.

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Tables and Figures

Table 1. Respondents' profile.

Characteristic	Classification	Frequency	Percentile (%)
Gender	Male	142	65.4
	Female	75	34.6
Age group	18-20	16	7.4
	21-25	87	40.1
	26-30	50	23.0
	31-35	24	11.1
	36-40	24	11.1
	41-50	15	6.9
	Above 50	1	0.5
Educational background	Primary school	15	6.9
	Middle school	25	11.5
	High school	101	46.5
	Vocational school	29	13.4

	University	46	21.2
	Graduate degree	1	0.5
Hospitality tenure	Less than 6 months	18	8.3
	6 months-1 year	24	11.1
	1-2 years	29	13.4
	2-4 years	58	26.7
	4-8 years	40	18.4
	More than 8 years	48	22.1
Restaurant tenure	Less than 6 months	46	21.2
	6 months-1 year	64	29.5
	1-2 years	37	17.1
	2-4 years	36	16.6
	4-8 years	20	9.2
	More than 8 years	14	6.5

Table 2. Statistical results for reliability and validity.

	M	SD	X1	X2	X3	X4	X5	AVE	ω	CR
Experience of shame (X1)	2.29	1.48	**.83**	.21	.45	.17	.35	.69	.85	.90
Error tolerance (X2)	4.37	1.39	-.17	**.76**	.24	.32	.26	.58	.83	.87
Self-efficacy (X3)	5.89	1.05	-.40	.20	**.79**	.62	.35	.62	.91	.93
Organizational citizenship behavior (X4)	5.35	1.12	-.07	.26	.52	**.72**	.28	.53	.81	.87
Service recovery performance (X5)	5.52	1.04	-.28	.21	.30	.20	**.72**	.52	.81	.87

Note: M = mean, SD = standard deviation, AVE = average variance extracted, ω = omega coefficient, CR = composite reliability, square root of AVE is on the diagonal, inter-correlations are below the diagonal, HTTMs are above the diagonal.

Table 3. Factor loadings and VIF values.

Construct	Item	Factor loading	VIF
Shame	S1: I feel ashamed.	0.852	2.079
	S2: I feel disgusted with self.	0.829	1.790
	S3: I feel angry at self.	0.787	1.704
	S4: I feel dissatisfied with self.	0.843	2.122
Error tolerance	ET1: Managers are generally accepting of errors.	0.786	1.536
	ET2: Employees are allowed to take risks.	0.634	1.444
	ET3: Managers are tolerant of errors when employees pursue innovative solutions.	0.842	1.755
	ET4: The company understands that making errors is part of taking risk.	0.844	2.591
	ET5: Risk taking is encouraged without the fear of punishment.	0.675	1.989
Self-efficacy	SE1: I am able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.	0.806	2.623
	SE2: When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.	0.825	3.003
	SE3: In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.	0.665	2.079
	SE4: I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.	0.748	2.272
	SE5: I am able to successfully overcome many challenges.	0.789	2.386
	SE6: I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.	0.801	2.645
	SE7: Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.	0.851	2.978
	SE8: Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.	0.783	2.339
Organizational citizenship behavior	OCB1: I help my coworkers when their workload is heavy.	0.791	2.111
	OCB2: I help my coworkers who have been absent to finish their work.	0.863	2.689
	OCB3: I take time to listen to my coworkers' problems and worries.	0.807	2.232
	OCB4: I go out of my way to help new coworkers.	0.532	1.676
	OCB5: I take personal interest in my coworkers.	0.609	1.644
	OCB6: I pass along notices and news to my coworkers.	0.687	1.513
Service recovery performance	LSRP1: This employee is able to properly handle dissatisfied customers.	0.836	2.435
	LSRP2: This employee can often manage well service recovery.	0.844	2.506
	LSRP3: This employee does not panic or become helpless in service recovery.	0.608	1.557
	LSRP4: Among all the customers for whom this employee handled service recovery, nobody has ever left with problems unresolved	0.685	1.694
	LSRP5: The customers for whom this employee handled service recovery come back for more services now than ever.	0.593	1.244

	LSRP6: This employee is more than happy to handle the complaints filed by consumers regarding services.	0.736	1.523

Table 4. Hypotheses testing.

Path	Beta	T-Value	Sig	Decision
H1: Shame → Self-efficacy	-0.362	6.364	0.000	Supported
H2: Interaction between shame and error tolerance → Self-efficacy	0.150	2.690	0.007	Supported
H3: Shame → Organizational citizenship behavior	-0.212	6.040	0.000	Supported
H4: Shame → Service recovery performance	-0.119	3.782	0.000	Supported

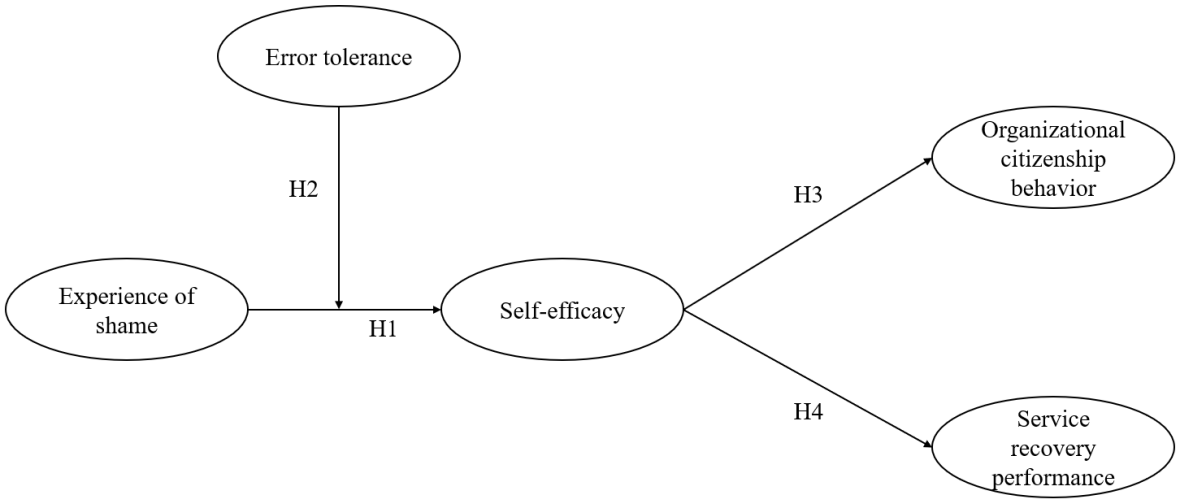
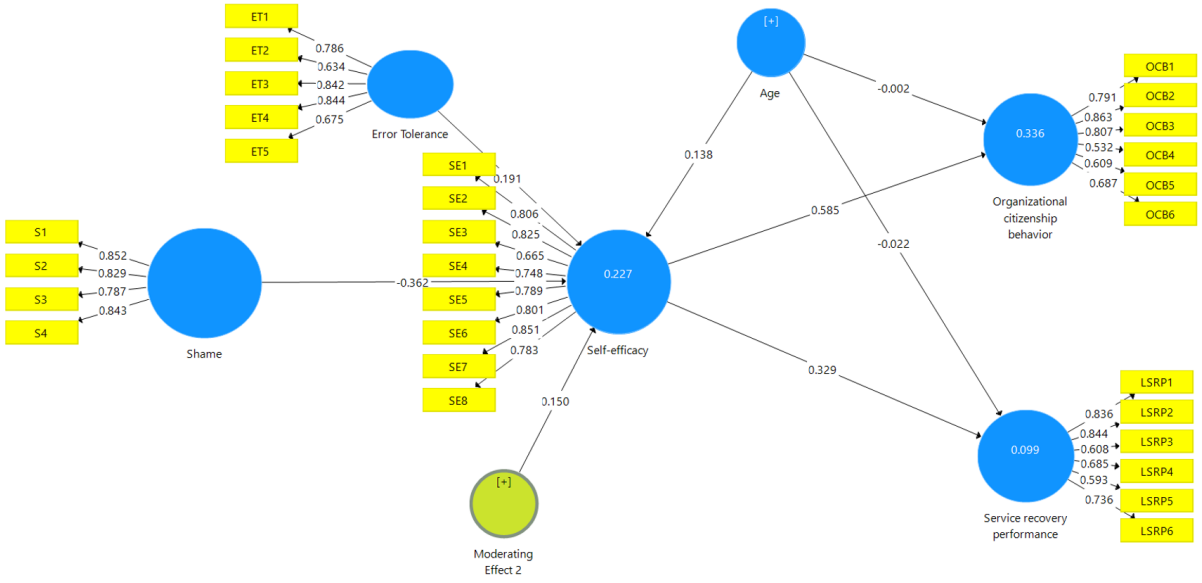
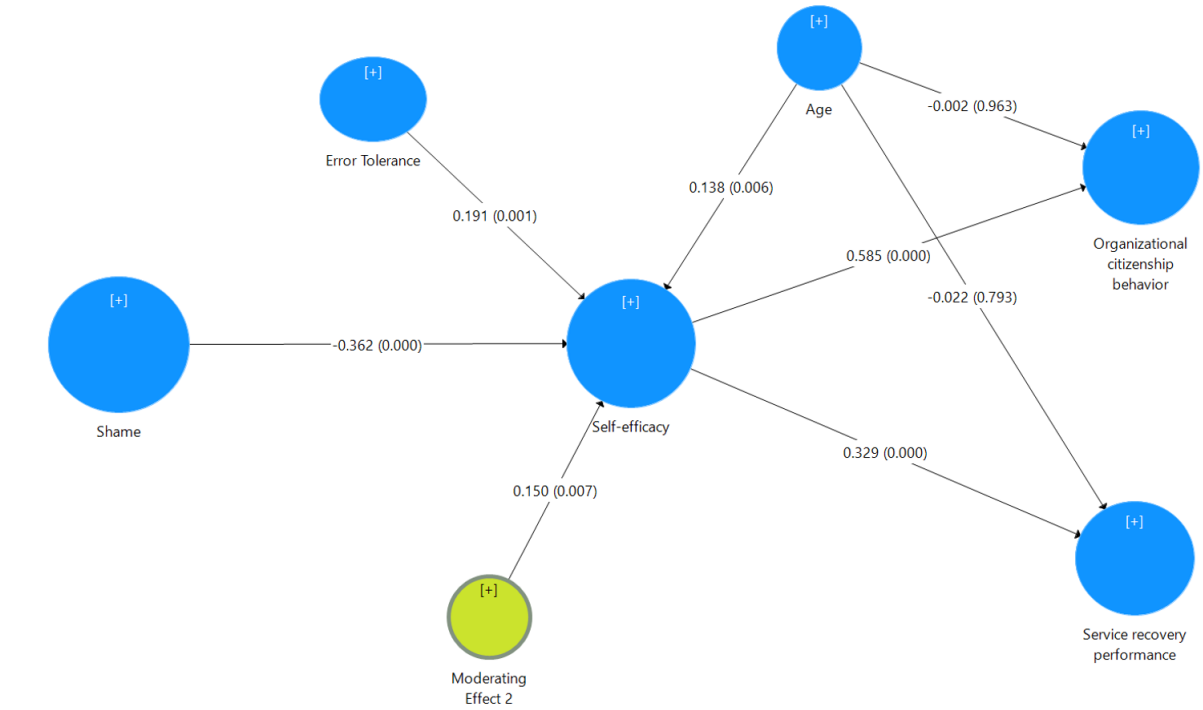


Fig. 1. Conceptual model.



Note: age used as control variable in this model

Fig. 2. Measurement model with factor loadings and adjusted R^2.



Note: age used as control variable in this model

Fig. 3. Structural model results.

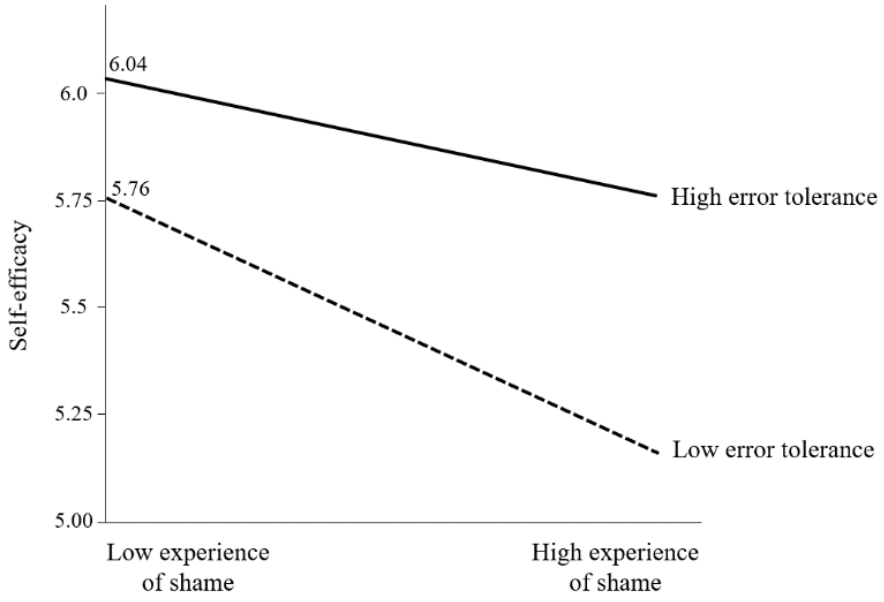


Fig. 4. Interaction effect of error tolerance on the relationship between shame and self-efficacy.