EFFECTS OF TOURIST COMPLAINING CONSTRAINTS ON JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS AND LOYALTY INTENTION: USING CULTURE AND MAGNITUDE AS MODERATORS

EKIZ, HAKTAN ERDOGAN

Ph.D.

THE HONG KONG POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY

2011

THE HONG KONG POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY

SCHOOL OF HOTEL AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT

EFFECTS OF TOURIST COMPLAINING CONSTRAINTS ON JUSTICE PERCEPTIONS AND LOYALTY INTENTION: USING CULTURE AND MAGNITUDE AS MODERATORS

EKIZ, HAKTAN ERDOGAN

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

August, 2011

CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own work and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it reproduces no material previously published or written, nor material that has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.

Ekiz, Haktan Erdogan

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my grandmother - Hacer Ekiz - for her love and continuous support and belief in me. I love you. (Seni cok seviyorum annanelerin en guzeli!)

ABSTRACT

Abstract of thesis entitled 'Effects of Tourist Complaining Constraints on Justice Perceptions and Loyalty Intention: Using Culture and Magnitude as Moderators' submitted by Ekiz, Haktan Erdogan for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at The Hong Kong Polytechnic University in August, 2011.

Receiving complaints is important for service companies in general (Christiansen, & Snepenger, 2002) and for tourism companies in particular (Boksberger, 2008; Ekiz, & Au, 2009). However, the majority of dissatisfied tourists are ready to just walk away and never come back (Cohen, 2004; Witt, & Moutinho, 1994). To prevent this from happening, it is imperative for tourism industry managers to understand the factors that discourage tourists from complaining, in other words, the factors that constrain them from voicing their complaints (Zemke, & Anderson, 2007).

An extensive review of tourism literature reveals that most studies directly applied general consumer behavior theories without considering the unique features of the tourism industry (Hsu, Tsai, & Wu, 2009; Hudson, & Ritchie, 2001; Josiam, Kinley, & Kim, 2005). Tourism present the characteristics of services very much in general (Zeithaml, Bitner & Gremler, 2006) but is also intrinsically a non-ordinary and non-routine experience (Voase, 1995). Tourists have a different mindset (McCabe, & Marson, 2006) and perceive, behave and react 'differently' (Jafari, & Way, 1994; Uriely, 2005) when taking their holidays (Jafari, & Gardner, 1991). Therefore, the intention of this research is to firstly develop a new measurement scale namely tourist complaining constraints (TCC), being tailor-made to incorporate unique features of the tourism industry. Secondly, the objective is to ana-

lyze relationships between the TCC factors and justice perceptions, and finally determine how cultural background and magnitude of failure moderate these relationships. To achieve this, a comprehensive review of consumer and tourist behavior literature was necessary. Results suggested the following constructs as possible TCC factors: limited time, unfamiliarity, limited communication, limited involvement and positive holiday mood. These factors were then evaluated, modified, tested and confirmed through qualitative (interviews) and quantitative (questionnaires) research (DeVellis, 2003; Nunnally, 1978). The following research questions have been proposed to help achieve this:

- How do tourist complaining constraints affect justice perceptions of the efforts of organizations
- How do the justice perceptions of tourists' affect their loyalty to the organization, and
- To what extent does their cultural background and magnitude of failure moderate the relationships between tourist complaining constraints, justice perceptions and loyalty to the organization.

To answer these questions, a review of relevant literature covering consumer complaining behavior and tourist behavior was necessary. Results of this review were used to develop a set of interview questions (TCC dimensions) and questionnaire items (justice and loyalty dimensions). Transcripts created from 15 in-depth interviews with Chinese and American graduate students generated an initial pool of 61 items. Thereafter, through the examination of dimensionality, reliability, factor structure and validity, these items were purified (Hair, Money, Samouel, & Page, 2007; Churchill, 1979). Through judgmental sampling 1,822 respondents from China and America, were recruited for input into the study. These included 884 Chinese and 938 American graduate students. Using a set of multiple-choice questions, the students were asked to read and consider a failure scenario and to provide answers based on a seven-point Likert scale (Likert, 1932). A series of comprehensive data analysis was collected which included descriptive, multivariate and structural equation modeling producing a 15-item TCC scale. Five factors emerged as statistically reliable and valid (Babbie, 2004). Results of the SEM analyses indicated that the hypothesized model fitted the data reasonably well based on several well-accepted indices (Jöreskog, & Sörbom, 1996). Through conducting both exploratory and confirmatory factors analyses and overall factorial structure of five TCC dimensions, three justice perception dimensions and loyalty intention dimensions were thereafter confirmed. Results from the path analysis indicated that in the main hypothesized relationships were supported From the service recovery perspective, it is crucial for tourism managers to know the factors affecting their customers' complaining behaviors (Ekiz, & Au, 2009). Keeping this in mind, the thesis investigated tourist complaining behavior and the effects of national culture and magnitude of failure. Major findings from this research are listed below.

- This thesis developed a tailor-made multiple-item measurement scale, TCC, which contains five factors that constrains tourists complaining behavior.
- Limited time, unfamiliarity, limited communication, limited involvement and being in a positive holiday mood are factors that hinder tourists complaining behavior.
- Cultural background of the respondents affects the perceived importance of these constraining factors.
- The TCC scale fills the gap in tourism literature by highlighting the differences between consumer and tourist complaining behaviors.

- With regard to the relationship between justice perceptions and loyalty intentions to the company, results suggest that hotel guests expect a fair recovery to keep them loyal to the company, regardless of their cultural background.
- The magnitude of failure significantly moderates the relationship from justice perceptions to loyalty intentions in all sub-samples.

Academic and industrial implications, as well as a detailed discussion of each in the light of existing literature, are provided within this thesis. Therefore, findings from this thesis should be interpreted in light of these limitations. The methodology used to manage empirical research may have inherent limitations including the use of a non-probabilistic sampling technique (Schoemaker, 1993), using scenarios (Casado-Diaz et al., 2007) and student respondents (Ekiz et al., 2008). This methodology with similar research steps, has found strong support in consumer behavior studies (Fornell, & Westbrook, 1979; Hess et al., 2003) and tourism literature (Fu, & Mount, 2007; Heung, & Lam, 2003; O'Neill, & Mattila, 2004). Future studies can (i) use one of the probabilistic sampling techniques, (ii) focus on finding and studying real failures and (iii) select actual tourists who are currently having their holidays or leaving at ports of exit after holidays. As a closing note, replication studies using a larger sample size elsewhere with members of different cultures would be fruitful for further generalization of the newly developed TCC scale.

Key Words: Tourist Complaining Constraints, Justice Perceptions, Loyalty intention, Chinese and American Cultures, Magnitude of Failure, Scale Development, SEM

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It is a pleasure for me to thank many people who made this thesis possible. It is difficult to overstate my gratitude to my supervisors, Dr. Norman AU and Prof. Cathy HSU, both of whom I have huge respect. They have taught me various methods of research, enabling management of my thesis successfully and the need to be persistent to achieve any goal. The nature of the PhD study coupled with the events in my life meant that the completion of this thesis took longer than anticipated, but Dr. Au and Prof. Hsu have stood by me, generous with their patience, time, advice and encouragement. I hope that one day I can be as generous (and as productive) as they are. It is safe to say that without their invaluable supervision and constructive comments, all of my efforts would have been shortsighted.

I am also grateful to the wonderful teaching team of the School of Hotel and Tourism Management - The Hong Kong Polytechnic University - for their endless support throughout my studies and my work life. A large part of my knowledge and understanding of hospitality and tourism theories and issues have been obtained from this esteemed School, as the staff and professors are all one of a kind. This School has molded me into the researcher I am today.

I would like to express my appreciation to my family (Hacer, Turkten, Rahmi, Cana and others), for their love, understanding, patience and support during my study. I am forever indebted to my grandmother, Hacer Ekiz. I would like to dedicate this thesis to them as an indication of their significance in my life. This thesis is only a small way for me to give a little bit back to them for everything that they have given me.

I also thank the people I have met in Hong Kong for the wonderful friendship they have offered me. In particular, Patrick, Gloria, Sam, Simon, and Sarah were a real support. Thanks also to my friends from other parts of the world - Bavik, Kashif, Gurcag and others - whose friendship I am most grateful. Without them, it would be almost impossible to go through all the hardships that life brings. I thank Catheryn who helped me to stay centered and reaffirm why I am doing what I am doing. Her immense energy (and threats!) inspired my last push forward. Without the continuous support of my friends, I would have not been able to complete this thesis and grow as much as I have throughout the years that I have known them.

I finish with the humble realization that this thesis represents not only my work but a symbol of love and support from colleagues, family and friends who have been with me throughout this journey - for this, I am most grateful.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the research background and contextualizes the study. Also specified are the main purpose and specific objectives of this study. Thereafter, potential theoretical and practical contributions are discussed. In addition, basic definitions of major terms are provided. The chapter concludes with an outline of the thesis.

1.1 Research Background

Ever-increasing customer expectations are forcing companies to focus their efforts not only on providing exceptional value-for-money services, but also on providing them better than their competitors (Kotler, & Keller, 2008). When the inseparability characteristic and labor-intensive nature of services are taken into account, providing impeccable services with zero defects becomes an uphill and unrealistic target (Hoffman, & Bateson, 2006; Tse, & Ho, 2009). Zemke and Bell (2000) note that in the quest to provide high quality, cutting-edge, customer-pleasing services, mistakes do happen through no fault on the part of either the customer or service provider. While companies may not be able to prevent all mistakes and/or failures, they first need to hear about them and then affect recovery in the most effective way (Hart, Heskett, & Sasser, 1990).

Consumer complaining behavior literature suggests that customer complaints are regarded as opportunities for companies to fix errors in the provision of service (Blodgett, Hill, & Tax, 1997; Davidow, 2003a). For this reason, service companies in general, and hotels in particular, have been increasingly encouraging guests to voice their complaints directly to them (McAlister, & Erffmeyer, 2003). Once guests decide to complain, hoteliers have to be well prepared to offset the guests' negative reactions to the service failure (Ekiz, 2009). To do so, hoteliers should take all necessary actions to move a guest from a state of disappointment to a state of satisfaction (Bell, & Ridge, 1992; Tse, & Ho, 2009).

Tourists' justice evaluations of organizations' recovery efforts on their complaints are important elements of complaint management, which, if well handled, can lead to positive intentions and actions. These include satisfaction with a particular service, overall satisfaction with the holiday experience and an intention to re-patronize, to disseminate positive word-of-mouth (WOM), and become loyal to them (Bach, & Kim, 2012, Blodgett, & Anderson, 2000; Day, Grabicke, Schaetzle, & Staubach, 1981; Hedrick, Beverland, & Minahan, 2007; Higie, Feick, & Price 1987; Kowalski, 1996). This can particularly the case within the tourism industry, whereby the success or failure of the main offering is solely based on tourists' evaluation of efforts made by companies (Pearce, 2005).

Furthermore, tourism has features that differentiate the industry from other service industries. For instance, Voase (1995) argued that sometimes people needed to get away due to their intensive and cellular lifestyles; and when they do get away, 'they act differently to their routine set of behaviors' in the chosen holiday destinations. Similarly, Jafari and Way (1994, p. 76) suggested that 'when tourists are away from home, they tend to behave differently from their normal routine… [they are] usually more relaxed'. McCabe and Marson (2006) added that being in a different place with a different mindset affects how tourists behave, perceive and react. For this reason, their experiences become less ordinary, because tourism is composed of 'non-ordinary' behaviors and experiences (Jafari, & Gardner, 1991). Tourists' non-ordinary behaviors include their service expectations, evaluations and perceptions (Uriely, 2005). Complaining behavior is no exception. This study argues that being a tourist is an important factor that affects tourists' complaining behavior. More precisely, being a tourist creates barriers or constraints that minimize, if not eliminate, complaining behavior as well as how they complain. Moreover, these constraints affect their justice perceptions on service recovery efforts provided by the holiday provider. In the sections to follow, they will be discussed and support these arguments.

Recently, culture has become one of the emerging themes in tourism studies (Crotts, 2004; Litvin, Crotts, & Hefner, 2004). Most available research has mainly focused on culture change and/or shock, (Hottola, 2004; Smith, 2001), information searches (Chen, & Gursoy, 2000; Lo, Cheung, & Law, 2002), service evaluations (Richards, & Wilson, 2003), quality perceptions (Qu, & Im, 2002; Tse, & Ho, 2009), attitudes toward the environment, (Ekiz, & Au, 2011; Hudson, & Ritchie, 2001), guest and host differences (Reisinger, & Turner, 2002), and motivation (Huang, & Hsu, 2010). However, Reisinger and Turner (2003) reported that, regardless of global and local significance to cultural studies, this area has not yet been explored sufficiently.

A number of studies have investigated the relationship between positive service experience and customer loyalty intention to the company (Andreassen, 1999; Buttle, & Burton, 2002; Kotler, & Armstrong, 2006; Nicholls, 2011; Oliver, 1999). More specifically some of these studies suggested that the more consumers receive a fair solution to their service related problems, the more their intention to be loyal to that particular company increases (Hirschman, 1970; Mattila, 2001a). Furthermore, it has been noted that a just fixation of the problem creates customer satisfaction (Robbins, & Miller, 2004; Severt, 2002) and revisit intention (Davidow, 2003a). In this study, consistent with previous research (Blodgett, & Tax, 1993; Grönhaug, & Zaltman, 1981; Smith, 2001), customer loyalty is theorized as a combination of satisfaction and revisit intention (Boshoff, 1999; Malhotra, & McCort, 2001). When customers receive a fair recovery, they tend to not only be loyal to a company but also praise the company and act as volunteer sales representatives (Maxham III, 2001; Richins, 1983). For these reasons, the present research investigated possible links between justice perceptions and loyalty intentions (Mattila, & Patterson, 2004a, 2005b; Singh, 1990a; Wong, 2004).

Furthermore, although there are fundamental differences in the way people express their satisfaction/dissatisfaction (Kanousi, 2005; Sánchez-García, & Currás-Pérez, 2011; Wong A., 2004; Yuksel, Kilinc, & Yuksel, 2006), research on the effects of culture on consumer complaining and justice perception in service recovery in the context of tourism has been limited (Becker, 2000; Dolnicar, Grun, & Le, 2008; Mattila, 1999a; Yuksel, & Yuksel, 2008). These studies concluded that justice perceptions play an important role in tourists' complaining behaviors, particularly when the tourists are from different cultural backgrounds. This research considers these differences and their possible effects on tourists' complaining behaviors.

Finally, present research investigates possible affects of magnitude of failure as a moderator on the investigated relationships. Within relevant literature, it is well established that not all service failures are equal in terms of their importance, some failures can be minor (low magnitude failures) while others are unacceptable (high magnitude failures) (Betts, Wood, & Tadisina, 2011; Kotler, & Keller, 2008; Smith, & Bolton, 1998). Several researchers found that the magnitude of service failure moderates some aspects of CCB (Conlon, & Murray, 1996; Fu, & Mount, 2007; Kasper, 1988; Smith, & Bolton, 1998; 2002; Smith et al., 1999). In line with these findings, the current study investigates the role of magnitude of failure as an important factor that may affect the proposed relationships

1.2 Purpose and Specific Objectives of the Study

The main purpose of this research is to find out how being a tourist affects justice perceptions on service recovery efforts, particularly recognizing the constraints to complain service failures, thereafter to test the possible relationships between justice perceptions and loyalty intention. To do so, this research will firstly develop a measurement scale, being tourist complaining constraints (TCC). TCC is tailor-made to incorporate the unique features of tourists. Secondly, discern the relationships between TCC factors and justice perceptions; justice perception and loyalty, and finally determine how cultural background and magnitude of failure moderate these relationships.

To achieve these aims, the following research objectives have been set:

- Develop a scale that identifies and measures constraining factors on tourists' complaining behavior.
- Find out how tourists' complaining constraints affect justice perceptions of the organizations' service recovery efforts.
- Investigate how tourists' justice perceptions affect their loyalty to the organization.

- Examine to what extent tourists' cultural background moderates the relationships between their complaining constraints and justice perceptions and between justice perception and loyalty to the organization.
- Explore to what extent magnitude of failure moderates the relationships between tourist complaining constraints and justice perceptions, and between justice perceptions and loyalty to the organization.

1.3 Significance of the Study

This study is imperative. Not only does it create knowledge that contributes to theory development in the field of tourism, but also provides implications for academia and industry in many respects. Several scholars argued that there are only a limited number of theories exclusive to tourist behavior (Gilbert, 1991; Jafari, 2001), and have continuously called for further research efforts. Huang (2007) highlighted the need for well-defined conceptual schemes and theory building within tourism literature. Similarly, Pearce (2004, 2005), appealed for more theoretical improvements within the research of tourism, with a particular emphasize being on the Asian context. Furthermore, McCabe (2005) and Yuksel et al. (2006) urged further tourist behavior studies. This research is a response to these calls as it develops a tourist complaining constraints scale that contributes to the expansion of tourist behavior knowledge.

Most, if not all, of previous tourist behavior studies used consumer theories directly without considering unique characteristics of the tourism industry (Hsu et al., 2009; Hudson, & Ritchie, 2001). However, such characteristics, as being an experience-intense consumption (Zeithaml, Bitner, & Gremler, 2006; Xu, & Chan, 2010), an intrinsically non-routine experience (Voase, 1995) in which the participants perceive, behave and react 'differently'

(Jafari, & Way, 1994; Uriely, 2005), affect consumption as well as post-consumption evaluation of tourism services. In this sense, this thesis argues that by being a tourist it is likely that they have a different complaining behavior due to constraining factors in voicing of his/her complaints. Research suggests that while customers faced with a constraint/barrier during and/or after the consumption of product/services, they tend to demand a fair recovery, which is the case while tourists are away from home. Given the importance of hearing from dissatisfied customers, results of this research will be critical for practitioners in understanding their guests' reactions and expectations when they experience a problem (Ekiz, 2010).

The significance of receiving customer complaints is well documented (Day, & Bodur, 1978; Kolodinsky, 1993) and is linked to the likely success of all companies, but particularly those of the tourism industry (Kotler, Bowen, & Makens, 2010; Reisinger, & Turner, 2003). The labor intensive and highly complex nature of services in the tourism industry makes service failures a frequent occurrence (Pearce, 2005). Once service failures occur, companies need to offset customers' negative reactions by providing them a fair recovery (Boshoff, 1999). It has been proven that a fair recovery can turn dissatisfied customers into satisfied and loyal ones (McCollough, & Bharadwaj, 1992; Magnini, & Ford, 2004; Smith, & Bolton, 1998). Thus, learning more about customers' justice perceptions helps companies in providing an effective service recovery that aims to turn them into loyal customers (Gursoy, Ekiz, & Chi, 2007; Zemke, 1995). In this sense, present research contributes to both academia and industry by investigating tourists' justice perceptions and the possible relationships between these perceptions and the factors that constrain their complaining behavior.

Culture, the collective programming of the mind, not only distinguishes members of one group of people from another (Hofstede, 1991), but also affects how these members think, behave and respond to certain stimuli (Hall, 1966, 1980). In particular, during a global phenomenon such as tourism, where its participants are characterized by their widely different cultural backgrounds, it is important to know how these differences in culture will affect their behavior. Existing knowledge suggests that understanding the culture and cultural backgrounds of people can help companies do business with members of particular cultures (Chiu, Tsang, & Yang, 1987; Day, Grabicke, Schaetzle, & Staubach, 1981). Failure to acknowledge cultural differences may result in misunderstandings and/or problems in the provision of services (Kim, Wang, & Mattila, 2010; Pizam, & Sussmann, 1995; Zemke, & Anderson, 2007). Understanding cross-cultural differences in complaining behavior can help companies develop strategies to encourage dissatisfied customers to voice their problems, rather than taking their business to competitors (Wong N.Y., 2004). Nonetheless, few studies have investigated the cultural differences in complaining behavior within the context of tourism and hospitality services (Becker, 2000; Dolnicar et al., 2008; Mattila, 1999a; Pearce, & Moscardo, 1984; Tata, Fu, & Wu, 2003). Given that the majority of international tourists have different cultures, (Pearce, 2005; Reisinger, & Turner, 2003), it becomes even more important to investigate this issue.

It is interesting in that the bulk of available complaints literature, has been mostly explored and produced within the Western societies. Ndubisi and Ling (2005) and Pearce (2004) stressed the need for conducting research in the Asian context to find out how Eastern consumption differs from that of Western. As suggested by Ndubisi and Ling

(2005) and Doran (2002), this research will collect data from both Eastern and Western cultural settings, aiming to fill this gap. Chinese and American cultures are ideal samples of East and West culture clusters (Hofstede, 2001). According to predictions of the World Travel and Tourism Council (2010), outbound tourism from the United States and China is going to be among the top in the world. Thus, by analyzing data collected from Chinese and American tourists and comparing the results will contribute to our understanding of the effects of cultural background within tourist behavior.

This research considers cultural background (Hoppe, 1990) and magnitude of service failure, the severity of the inconvenience (Kerr, 2004) - as important factors affecting tourist complaints (Gursoy et al., 2007; Kowalski, 2002). Relevant literature investigating issues of complaining constraints, justice perceptions and loyalty intention in the tourism context had limited consideration for culture and magnitude of failure (Blodgett, & Anderson, 2000; Jacoby, & Jaccard, 1981; Manrai, & Manrai, 1993). This study attempts to address this gap by using these factors as moderators of the relationships between tourist complaints, justice perceptions and loyalty intention.

1.4 Definition of Terms

1.4.1 Service Failure

As hard as they may try the best service companies cannot eliminate the mistakes and problems (Hart et al., 1990; Karatepe, & Ekiz, 2004). These mistakes, problems or service failures are performances that fall below customers' expectations (Hoffman, & Bateson, 2006).

1.4.2 Consumer Complaining Behavior

The majority of customer complaint research studied formal complaint actions or intentions as the major outcome of an unsatisfactory consumption (Richins, 1982; Singh, 1990b). However, Halstead and Dröge (1991) argued that, limiting the outcome of service failure only by complaints directed to a seller or third party can be overly confining. Therefore, customer complaining behavior (CCB) can be defined as "A set of multiple (behavioral and non-behavioral) responses, some or all of which are triggered by perceived dissatisfaction with a purchase episode" (Singh, 1988, p. 94). Warland, Herrmann and Willits (1975, p. 151) defined complainers as "…those [consumers] who were upset by the way they were treated and did something about it", where 'something' meant actively voicing their complaints.

1.4.3 Service Recovery

When service failures occur, possible remedies are required to recover the harm done (Boshoff, 1999; Namkung, & Jang, 2010). Service recovery is a well-accepted term for when service companies attempt to offset customers' negative reactions to service failures. Grönroos (1990) and, more recently, Sparks and Fredline (2007) defined service recovery as a set of actions taken by organizations in response to a customer's expression of dissatisfaction with some aspects of the service they were offered.

1.4.4 Justice Perceptions

Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter and Ng (2001) stated that the term 'justice' means 'oughtness' or 'righteousness' in psychology literature. Austin (1979, p. 127) defined justice as "…the criterion against which the legitimacy of an act or a social program is judged…it refers to procedures governing human affairs, and/or claims". Building on a general meaning like this, Tax, Brown, and Chandrashekaran (1998) proposed a three-dimensional concept of justice; *distributive/distributional justice* (dealing with decision outcomes), *procedural justice* (dealing with decision-making procedures) and *interactional justice* (dealing with interpersonal behavior in the enactment of procedure and delivery of outcomes).

1.4.5 Loyalty Intention

Oliver (1999, p. 34) defined loyalty as "…a deeply held commitment to re-buy or re-patronize a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behavior". Behavioral aspects of the loyalty construct are characterized within this study in terms of repurchase intentions and recommendations of the organization via positive word-of-mouth communication (Lin, & Mattila, 2006; Wang, 2011; Yi, 1990; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996). *Repurchase Intention* occurs when customers praise the firm and express preference for that company over others; it means that they are likely to repurchase the products or services of the company and/or to increase the volume of their purchases (Zeithaml et al., 1996). *WOM Communication* refers to the informal verbal exchange of positive or negative information about a business's products and/or services.

1.4.6 Consumer Behavior

Schiffman and Kanuk (2004, p. 8) defined consumer behavior as "…the behavior that consumers display when searching for, purchasing, using, evaluating and disposing of products and services that they expect will satisfy their needs". This definition is well accepted, and one which includes the different phases of consumption. For these reasons, Schiffman and Kanuk's (2004) consumer behavior definitions, has been adopted as the basis of this thesis.

1.4.7 Tourist, Tourist Experience and Tourist Complaining Constraints

The term 'tourist' must be defined before investigating any related experience. Given its wide range of acceptance and extensive coverage, this study will use United Nations World Tourism Organization's (UNWTO, 1995, p. 1) definition. Tourists are people whom "travel to and stay in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes".

The 'tourist experience' is a difficult term to define, as tourists vary in their needs, wants, motivations, origins, cultures and demographics as well as their experiences (Mill, 1990). Perhaps for this reason, there are comparatively fewer attempts to define the term (Wood, & House, 1991). Yet Cohen (2004, p. 65) stated that the tourist experience is a "…pseudo-event, trivial, superficial, frivolous pursuit of vicarious, contrived experiences". Moreover, previous scholars mention that limited time, unfamiliarity, limited communication, limited involvement and positive holiday mood are most closely related to the tourist experience (Cohen, 2004; Jafari, 1987; Lundberg, 1990; Olsen, Teare, & Gummesson, 1996; Pearce, 2005; Smith, 1989; Xu, & Chan, 2010). Thus, the tourists experience within this study are defined as incidences of visitors in a holiday destination, which are constrained by available time (time), knowledge (familiarity), and communication skills (communication). In most instances, the experience requires high involvement on the part of the tourist. As 'tourist complaining constraints' is a new construct at this stage, it is proposed to consist of limited time, unfamiliarity, limited communication, limited involvement and positive holiday mood sub-dimensions.

1.4.8 Culture

Culture is a very broad, highly multifaceted phenomenon and its' definition may vary due to different viewpoints of different disciplines. This thesis will adapt Litvin, Crotts and Hefner's (2004) definition, due to the facts that it provides a consistent summary of what is significant for this thesis. According to them culture is "…the accumulation of shared meanings, rituals, norms and traditions among members of an organization or society and is the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes members of one group or society from those of another" (Litvin et al., 2004, p. 30).

1.5 Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is composed of seven chapters. Chapter 1 has presented a general introduction with a focus on the research background, overall purpose, specific objectives and theoretical and practical contributions of the study. It has included brief definitions of the major constructs used throughout this study. Chapter 2 reviews relevant literature regarding service failure, consumer complaining behavior, service recovery, justice perceptions, post-recovery behavior, culture and tourist complaining constraints (TCC) constructs. The interrelationships of these are discussed throughout this chapter. Chapter 3 provides additional support to the material in Chapter 2 through the theoretical framework used in the present study. Research hypotheses to be tested within the current study are presented thereafter. Chapter 4 discusses the methodological steps followed within the study by looking systematically at the research design, measurement of constructs, development of scenarios, sampling, data collection and data analysis. Chapter 5 reports the results of the study following the sequential order in the procedures of data analysis. Chapter 6 further discusses and interprets the findings and their implications. Finally, Chapter 7 concludes the study with a summary of the whole research project and lists the limitations of the study together with some suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of Chapter 2 is to establish a foundation for the thesis. This chapter provides a review of (i) the literature that will form a theoretical background to the study, such as service failure, service recovery, justice and post-recovery behavior, and (ii) literature directly related to constructs used within this study, e.g., TCC, justice perceptions, loyalty, culture, and magnitude of failure.

2.1 Service Failure

In order to acquire and retain a pool of loyal and profitable customers, companies try to provide a flawless high quality service to their customers (Kotler, & Armstrong, 2006; Tse, & Ho, 2009). Nevertheless, as hard as they try, even the best service companies cannot eliminate mistakes and problems totally (Anderson, & Sullivan, 1993; Gursoy, Ekiz, & Chi, 2006; Sajtos, Brodie, & Whittome, 2010; Sparks, & Fredline, 2007). Despite precautions taken in order to minimize mistakes in service encounters, it is unlikely that they can prevent incidents such as occasional late flights, burned steaks, or missed deliveries (Hart et al., 1990). Best and Andreasen (1977) argued that one out of every four purchases resulted in some type of problem.

These failures, in other words breakdown in the delivery of service, take place within service encounters due to the inherent characteristics of services: intangibility, inseparability, heterogeneity, and perishability (Zeithaml, Bitner, & Gremler, 2006). Hess, Ganesan and Klein (2003) support this argument by stating that the labor intensive nature of the services leads to more heterogeneous outcomes, and inseparability of the production and consumption of the services leads to performance variability and the inevitability of problems. Within available related literature, these problems are named as service failures and occur when service performance falls below customers' expectations (Hoffman, & Bateson, 2006; Namkung, & Jang, 2010; Steyn, Mostert, De Meyer, & van Rensburg, 2011).

Service failures can elicit a number of different reactions from customers. These may include affective responses such as satisfaction and anger (Lee, 2003; Nyer, 2000; Oliver, 1987; Sánchez-García, & Currás-Pérez, 2011), cognitive responses such as the following three attributions: causality, quality perception, and disconfirmation (Folkes, Koletsky, & Graham, 1987; Laufer, 2002) and/or behavioral intentions such as intentions to complain, exit, and be loyal (Blodgett, Granbois, & Walters, 1993; Oh, 2004). These consequences examined by previous authors evidently demonstrated the complexity of customers' responses to service failures (Day, 1984). Therefore, to understand this process better, the present study will provide explanations of these responses and intentions in the coming sections.

Failures occur for all kinds of reasons. For example, the service may be unavailable when guaranteed; delivery may be delayed, or sluggish; the outcome may be incorrect or poorly performed; or employees may be rude or uncaring (Luria, Gal, & Yagil, 2009; Zeithaml et al., 2006). We must bear in mind that not all failures result from mistakes made by service companies: the customer or fellow customers can also cause service failures (Grönroos, 2007). In fact, Zemke and Bell (1990) noted that almost one-third of failures reported to companies have been caused by the customers themselves.

No matter what may have caused a service failure, companies need to provide a set of corrective actions. As Hoffman and Bateson (2006) pointed out companies should not give up their recovery efforts and if they do accept such service failures in their daily business routine that may be a 'kiss of death'. Given this significance of service failures, one should realize that not all failures are equal in importance or occur for the same reasons.

2.1.1 Magnitude of Failure

Not all service failures are equal in terms of significance to customers. The inconvenience created by the failure can sometimes be minor, for instance a short delay in serving a dish in a restaurant. They could also be major, for example a food poisoning case due to the use of an expired ingredient. In the earlier case, the guests' loss is comparatively less by only spending an extra ten minutes in the restaurant than the latter, possibly spending the night in a hospital with serious physical inconvenience.

Hess et al. (2003) defined magnitude or severity of failure as the extent of loss that customers experience due to a failure in the initial provision of services and/or products. Such losses can be either tangible, such as monetary loss or a physical problem, or intangible, such as anger or frustration. Severity of the failure directly affects customers' outcomes, an element that Oliver and Swan (1989) found to be critical when customers evaluated service experience. The loss incurred from a severe service failure is greater than the loss from a minor failure. Therefore, a more substantial recovery is required to restore equity that had suffered damage by the failure (Betts et al., 2011; Goodwin, & Ross, 1992; Sajtos et al., 2010).

The magnitude of service failure can be high or low. When it is high (e.g., financial losses, physical or psychological damage) in service encounters, service organizations are likely to have dissatisfied customers and loss of future business if effective recoveries are not provided (Smith, & Bolton, 1998). When the magnitude of failure is low (e.g., missing menu items and inattentive service), service organizations can also lose the existing business if effective service recoveries are not implemented (Smith, & Bolton, 2002).

Smith, Bolton and Wagner (1999) demonstrated that the magnitude of a failed service would moderate some aspects of the service recovery process. In addition, they found that as the magnitude of failure got higher, service recovery tactics were perceived as being less effective, particularly within the hotel context (Smith et al., 1999). Aligned with these findings, marketing literature for services suggests that severity of service failure does make a difference in consumers' perceptions and intentions, such as fairness perceptions and post-recovery behaviors (Chung, & Hoffman, 1998; Fu, & Mount, 2007; Kasper, 1988; Maute, & Forrester, 1993). Conlon and Murray (1996) reported that customers' perceptions of corporate responses to their complaints were negative in high magnitude failures. Likewise, Shapiro (1991) found that recovery actions were perceived to be more effective under conditions of low severity. Thus, he recommended that companies should spend more effort in being perceived as fair, when the failure is severe.

2.1.2 Type of Failure

Service failure can also be investigated through consideration of different types of failure. There are two possible ways to consider the type of failure: 1) grouping as part of a service delivery that failed to meet customers' expectations (process or outcome) or 2) listing their primary causes (lack of a recovery system, failure to provide customers' needs, and inefficiencies of employees).

In the first instance, Hoffman, Kelley and Rotalsky (1995) referred to outcome failures as problems regarding a core service or product. In other words, was there anything wrong in what the customer actually received? For instance, where a customer is issued with a connecting flight ticket where s/he did not have sufficient time to catch the connecting flight, this might be caused by inexperienced staff in the travel agency and can be classified as an outcome failure. On the other hand, a process failure could relate to the manner in which the service is delivered to the customer (Smith et al., 1999). Again, for instance, dissatisfaction caused by inattentive and rude behavior of a front desk employee during the check-in process could be considered a process failure. Even if the guest has been successfully checked-in to his/her room, the manner in which the check-in was performed could be perceived as a failure.

As for the second approach to the study of failure types, Bitner and her colleagues investigated the primary causes of failure and summarized them in their highly cited works (Bitner, Booms, & Tetreault, 1990). Table 2.1 shows their findings by considering primary types and their underlying subgroups.

As can be seen from Table 2.1, four primary types of failure exist. 'Service delivery system failures' are problems that are directly related to the core service of the company (Hoffman, & Bateson, 2006). For instance, this could be when a hotel cannot accommodate its guest with a confirmed reservation or due to a staff shortage, or whereby customers in the restaurant can wait for an unacceptable amount of time for service. ‘Customer needs and requests’ pertain to employee responses by individual customer needs and special requests. These can be in the form of implicit needs (these must be obvious to the service provider) and explicit requests (openly asked for) (Kasper, van Helsdingen, & Gabbott, 2006). For instance, although the instructions are provided on ‘How to use the Hot Water System’ in the shower room, a guest may still have a problem adjusting the water temperature.

Table 2.1 Service Failure Types

Primary Failure Type	Failure Subgroups
Service delivery system failures	Unavailable service Unreasonably slow service Other core service failures
Customer needs and requests	‘Special needs’ customers Customer preferences Admitted customer error Disruptive others
Unprompted/Unsolicited employee attitudes	Level of attention Unusual action Cultural norms Gestalt
Problematic customers	Drunkenness Verbal and physical abuse Breaking company policies Uncooperative customers

Source: Adapted from Bitner et al., 1990.

‘Unprompted/unsolicited employee attitudes’ involves events and employee behaviors, both good and bad, that are not expected by the customer (Lovelock, Wirtz, & Keh, 2002; Luria et al., 2009; Sajtos et al., 2010). For example, when conducting a handshake greeting with a Middle East guest, it is recommended that you use a less firm grip, which is perceived as a polite behavior; however, an American guest may perceive the same hand-shake as insincere (Cohen, 1992). The final primary type of failure involves occurrences where neither the service staff nor the company is at fault for the failed service (Kasper et al., 2006). These failures can be caused by 'problematic customers', of whom may be drunk or abusive towards the service employee and/or other customers. Also, on some occasions guests may refuse to comply with hotel rules, be rude, uncooperative and/or unreasonably demanding (Hoffman, & Bateson, 2006).

Existing literature suggests that understanding the magnitude and type of service failure is a necessity and a precondition to form effective recovery strategies (Hoffman, Kelly, & Rotalsky, 1995; Rust, Inman, Jia, & Zahorik, 1999; Smith et al., 1999; Tse, & Ho, 2009). The magnitude of service failure has been commonly operational in existing literature (Chung, & Hoffman, 1998; Hess et al., 2003; Kasper, 1988; Mattila, 2001a; Maute, & Forrester, 1993; Smith, & Bolton, 2002). It is also argued that investigating the magnitude of a service failure may provide a clearer understanding of customer responses (Fu, & Mount, 2007; Hess et al., 2003). Thus, this study will consider the magnitude of failure as a possible moderating factor in the proposed model.

2.2 Consumer Complaining Behavior

When service failures take place, customers are likely to complain about these incidents. Complaints can be defined as a formal expression of dissatisfaction within many aspects of a service experience (Lovelock, & Wright, 1999). Garrett, Meyers and Camey (1991) have provided a very extensive definition of consumer complaints as "…an action taken by an individual which involves communicating something negative regarding a product or service to either a manufacturing firm or marketing of that product or service, or to some third-party organizational entity" (p. 66). Stauss and Seidel (2004) elaborated this definition and stated that complaints are articulations of dissatisfaction that are expressed towards a company and /or third-party institutions with the aim of making a provider aware of a behavior that is subjectively experienced as harmful, receiving compensation for adverse effects suffered and making a change in criticized behavior.

Research regarding consumer response to dissatisfying consumption experiences intensified in the 1970s, when 'consumer orientation' was first heard (Stephen, & Gwinner, 1998). Studies, particularly published in this era, have established the fundamental basis for our current understanding of consumer complaining behavior (CCB).

One particular publication entitled 'Advances in Consumer Research', founded in 1969 (http://www.acrwebsite.org), published many papers that are considered to be landmarks within CCB literature (e.g., Day, 1984; Day, & Ash, 1979; Day, & Bodur, 1978; Day, & Landon, 1976; Grainer, McEvoy, & King, 1979; Gronhaug, & Arndt, 1980; 1981; Halstead, & Dröge, 1991; Kim, Wang, & Mattila, 2010; Kolondinsky, & Aleong, 1990; Oliver, 1987; Richins, 1982). The section below contains some of the research findings that particularly influenced subsequent studies.

When a service fails to meet customers' expectations, it creates dissatisfaction and on some occasions, complaints (Grainer et al., 1979). However, only a small minority of dissatisfied customers go through the burden of complaining (Best, & Andreasen, 1977; Day, & Ash, 1979; Plymire, 1991). The Majority of customer complaint studies examined formal complaint actions or intentions as the major outcome of an unsatisfactory consumption (Bodey, & Grace, 2007; Chebat, Davidow, & Codjovi, 2005; Ekiz, Khoo-Lattimore, & Memarzadeh, 2011; Richins 1982; Singh, 1990b). However, Halstead and Dröge (1991) argued that by limiting the outcome of service failures only with complaints directed to sellers or third parties could be overly confined. Therefore, customer complaining behavior (CCB) can be defined as "…a set of multiple (behavioral and non-behavioral) responses, some or all of which are triggered by perceived dissatisfaction through a purchase episode" (Singh, 1988, p. 94). CCB actions are conveyed expressions of customer dissatisfaction generally caused by a failure at the service provision stage. These actions include both behavioral (complaints directed to the company, consumer agencies and/or telling friends and family members) and non-behavioral (doing nothing or not to repurchase) actions (Day, & Bodur, 1978; Hirschman, 1970; Kim et al., 2010; McAlister, & Erffmeyer, 2003; Susskind, 2004; Wang, 2011).

Day and Landon (1977), as one of the pioneers in conceptualizing consumer complaining behavior, argued that dissatisfaction is the primary determinant of consumer complaints. They also introduced the generally well-received 'public-private' distinction in complaint response where dissatisfied consumers would either take action or take no action. If action was taken it was labeled as either a public (remedy sought from seller, legal action, third party complaint) or private action (personal boycott of brand, negative word-of-mouth behavior) (Day et al., 1981; Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2009). Best and Andreasen (1977) reported that "when a service related problem is recognized, possible customer responses include inaction, voicing the complaint to a seller, consciously deciding to transfer patronage (exit), and presenting the dispute to a third-party complaint handler" (p. 710). In line with Day and his colleagues' findings (Day, 1984; Day, & Ash, 1979; Day, & Bodur, 1978; Day, & Landon, 1976), Best and Andreasen's (1977) recommendations, the CCB literature revolved around three possible reactions to a dissatisfying service episode: propensity to do nothing, propensity to exit/stop patronizing or propensity to complain/voice. The last item can then be divided into three options; private complaints (those made to friends/family), complaints directed at organizations and third parties (consumer protection agencies or litigation) (Day et al., 1981; Hedrick et al., 2007; Lee, 2003; Kolondinsky, & Aleong, 1990; Singh, 1990a, 1990b). Likewise, Singh (1988) highlighted that intentions towards complaining consist of multiple dimensions. These dimensions include complaining to the service provider in lure of compensation (psychological, financial, or both at the same time), complaining to the external constituencies or close social contact group (negative communication to friends, colleagues, neighbors and relatives) and complaining to a third party (writing complaint letters, contacting customer protection offices, or even taking legal action).

Crie (2003), within his comprehensive study, proposed an integrated framework of various CCB theories leading toward a unified ontology. He urged that existing "…literature does not propose a systematization in the organization of antecedents and determinants of CCB…this deficiency is essentially due to the fact that CCB is regarded as an immediate act and not as a process" (Crie, 2003, p. 64). He further exemplified a model to show the antecedents and determinants of CCB (see Figure 2.1). Crie (2003) and Crie and Ladwein (2002) argued that the main antecedents of CCB can be grouped under three categories, namely 'psychological sphere', 'economic sphere' and 'ethical sphere'. He defined the psychological sphere as "…individual variables reflecting the propensity to CCB" such as socio-cultural factors, attribution and attitude toward complaining. The economic sphere was defined as "…elements of cost and exchange structure", including costs of the complaint and switching barriers. Lastly, ethical sphere was proposed to be "…transaction equity…value link with the company…helpfulness of the information given" (Crie, 2003, p. 66). Although this categorization was comparatively new, previous researchers (such as; Conlon, & Murray, 1996; Kolodinsky, 1995; Stephens, & Gwinner, 1998) also underlined the need for a higher-level order of categorization. The reason for explaining Crie's work in detail is twofold; firstly, it provides a comprehensive picture of the antecedents and determinants of CCB, secondly, some of these antecedents are to be examined in the current study, such as socio-cultural factors, equity and loyalty.

Failures can cause a number of different reactions from customers. These can include affective responses (satisfaction and anger), cognitive responses (attributions of causality, quality perceptions and disconfirmation) and behavioral intentions (intention to complain, exit, repurchase and engage in word-of-mouth communication) (Fletcher, & Ward, 1988; Hess, 1999), yet actual voicing of a complaint is the most investigated response of all (Barlow, & Moller, 1996).

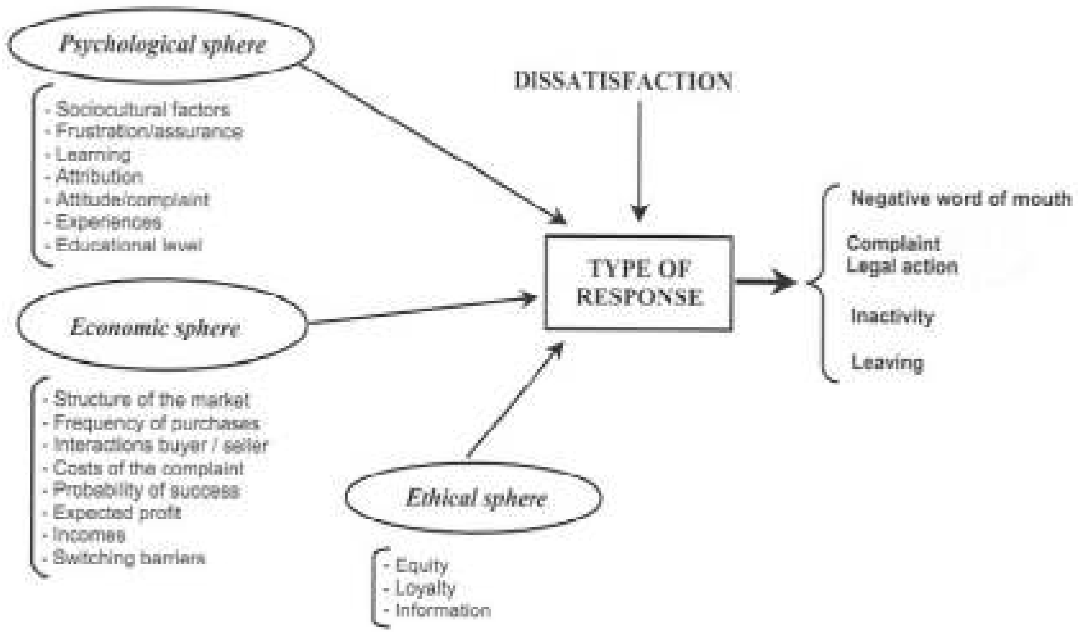

Figure 2.1 Antecedents and Determinants of Consumer Complaining Behavior

Source: Crie, 2003, p. 66.

2.2.1 Review of Consumer Complaining Behavior Studies

Even though the total body of consumer complaining behavior research is quite large and diverse (Anderson, & Sullivan, 1993; Bearden, & Teel, 1983; Folkes, 1984; Fornell, & Westbrook, 1984; Garrett et al., 1991; Gilly, 1987; Kolodinsky, 1995; Sujithamrak, & Lam, 2005; Tax, & Brown, 2000; Yim, Gu, Chan, & Tse, 2003), it can roughly be divided into three main areas:

Antecedent Conditions: Some researchers have been concerned with understanding the circumstances that may eventually result in customer complaints. Researchers either tried to identify complaints by product class, which may cause consumers to complain (Best, & Andreasen, 1977; Chiu, Tsang, & Yang, 1987), or focused on the social, psychological and economic factors that may explain why consumers became dissatisfied and chose to complain (Folkes, 1984; Kolodinsky, 1995).

Procedural Actions: Researchers either analyzed the complaining issue from the consumers' perspective (Bearden, & Oliver, 1985; Lee, 2003; Singh, 1988), or from the organizations' perspective (Davidow, 2003a; Fornell, & Westbrook, 1984; Gilly, & Hansen, 1992).

Outcome Conditions: Some researchers have investigated the outcomes of complaints, both from the consumers' and the organizations' perspectives. From the consumers' perspective, outcomes may be satisfaction/dissatisfaction, loyalty, future consumption decisions, complaining or exit (Dart, & Freeman, 1994; Sánchez-García, & Currás-Pérez, 2011; Singh, & Widing, 1995; Warland et al., 1975). On the other hand, from the organizations' perspective, outcomes may be an effective complaints management system, which can enhance corporate profitability (Barlow, & Moller, 1996; Fornell, & Westbrook, 1984; Stauss, & Seidel, 2004). Garrett et al. (1991) explained that investigation of antecedent conditions, procedural actions and outcome conditions has significantly expanded the knowledge of consumer complaining behavior.

In addition to the three main areas mentioned above, some researchers investigated the issue by considering individual characteristics of consumers, situational and product/service related factors as antecedents of CCB (Kim et al., 2010; Stephens, & Gwinner, 1998).

As to the *individual characteristics of consumers,* previous research has examined characteristics such as demographics (Bearden, & Oliver, 1985; Singh, 1990b; Sujithamrak, & Lam, 2005), personal values (Bodey, & Grace, 2006; Senguder, 2000), and personality factors (Bodey, & Grace, 2007).

Other studies have sought to understand *situational factors* and *product/service related factors* that might play a role in CCB. Service providers' responsiveness has been one of the widely studied issues (Brown, & Beltramini, 1989; Jacoby, & Jaccard, 1981; Richins, 1983). Other areas of study also include: the cost of complaining, (Singh, 1990b; Yavas, Bilgin, & Shemwell, 1997), the price and importance of the product/service to the consumer, (Bearden, & Oliver, 1985; Chebat et al., 2005), consumer experience, (Lee, 2003; Moyer 1984), social climate (Jacoby, & Jaccard, 1981), and attribution of blame, (Boshoff, & Leong, 1998; Fletcher, & Ward, 1988; Folkes et al., 1987). To sum up, through the study of personal, situational and product/service related antecedents of consumer complaining behavior, a great deal has been added to the overall understanding as to why dissatisfied customers behave the way they do (Singh, 1990b). In the case of this thesis and from the factors produced, the service related characteristics found are shown to be relevant. In other words, there are unique characteristics of tourism services argued to have a significant impact on participants complaining behaviors (Ekiz, & Au, 2009a). This issue is discussed in more detail throughout the following sections.

2.2.2 Situational Factors affecting CCB

In real the world, there are numerous events occurring at the same time. Some of these events shape human behaviors and cause them to build sets of reactions, while others create situations where a particular individual changes his/her so called normal behavior and acts according to the situation requirements or how s/he finds it fit for the ongoing situation (Chebat, & Slusarczyk, 2005). The same principle applies to dissatisfactory service encounters. Some of the events or situational factors affect the way consumers behave which involves the decision of responding with an active reaction (e.g., voicing complaint or more passive reaction (e.g., not voicing but changing the service provider) (Day, 1984; Richins, 1985).

During the late 1970's, researchers considered these situational factors to explain different customer responses. The influence of the situational factor recognized an important element in the influence of consumer behavior. For instance, Belk, Wallendorf and Sherry (1989) noted that focusing only on individual consumer characteristics might not be enough to explain all the variations in buyer behavior. He also argued that the particular situation that the consumer was in, could account for a considerable variance in buying and/or complaining behavior (Belk et al., 1989). Research indicates that responses to dissatisfaction could be influenced by situational variables such as importance, usage frequency and the newness and complexity of a product or service (Sparks, & Fredline, 2007). Moreover, Kowalski (1996) argued that both situational and dispositional variables usually moderate the frequency of complaining, and even to an extent, these variables prevent some individuals from complaining.

Richins (1982) conducted a series of interviews with dissatisfied consumers and found that purchased item cost and relative importance are among the situational factors that affect complaining behavior. Similarly, Voorhees and Brady (2005) put forward perceived retailer responsiveness and attitude toward complaining as situational triggers in encounter-specific dissatisfaction responses and underlined that these triggers or factors influence consumers' complaining behavior. Bodey and Grace (2006) posited that complaint behavior had a strong influence through situational factors such as the severity of dissatisfaction or the cost of service failure.

Craighead, Karwan and Miller (2004) examined the type and severity of problems in that the inconvenience of not having the product and business response to complaints as situational factors to be significant determinants of public versus private complaints. Likewise, Richins (1987) considered the severity of product problems and perceptions of the redress environment as situational factors and found that they outweighed personal dispositions in influencing complaining behavior. Hogarth, Hilgert, Kolondinsky and Lee (2001) noted that the degree of dissatisfaction and perceived alternatives are high among the situational factors that influence complaining behaviors. Maxham and Netemeyer (2002) investigated relationships between perceived waiting time and social anxiety (through perceived crowding) as situational factors and shopping behavior in technology-based services. Strong links appeared between them. Mittal and Lee (1989) investigated the effects of several situational factors, namely: product involvement, purchase decision involvement, perceived worthiness of complaining and proximity of other customers. They found that all these factors have a significant impact on complaining behaviors of both Canadian and Singapore customers. Other researchers also advocated the strong link between situational factors and the decision of complaining or not (Bearden, & Teel, 1983; Dröge, & Halstead, 1991; Gursoy, Kim et al., 2010; McCleary, & Lepisto, 2007; Jacoby, & Jaccard, 1981).

Other studies have also sought to understand situational factors that might play a role in consumers' complaining behavior (Stephens, & Gwinner, 1998). Representative work within this area examined such issues as the role of company responsiveness.(Dart, & Freeman, 1994; Jacoby, & Jaccard, 1981; Richins, 1983), the cost of complaining, (Day, 1984; Zeithaml et al., 2006), the price and importance of the goods to the consumer, (Bearden, & Oliver, 1985; Day et al., 1981), consumer experience, (Moyer, 1984; Singh 1990a), frequency of patronizing, (Richins, 1982), social climate, (Jacoby, & Jaccard, 1981) and attribution of blame, (Folkes, 1984; Folkes et al., 1987; Richins, 1983). Overall, the findings of these studies jointly concluded that situational factors have the potential to provide additional insight into explaining the complex nature of CCB.

Although some of these situational factors may affect the possible responses to service failures such as the selection of response channels, present research is only concentrated on specific complaining constraint factors affecting tourists. To this end, the most frequently studied (Kerr, 2004) and approved situational factor (Betts et al., 2011) the magnitude of service failure is proposed to have a moderating effect on Tourist Complaining Constraints (TCC), justice perceptions and loyalty intention (Schoefer, 2010). Given the fact that not all service failures are equal in terms of their significance, companies need to consider the severity of the inconvenience and magnitude of loss caused by these failures in order to provide an appropriate remedy (Namkung, & Jang, 2010; Zemke, & Bell, 2000). Hess et al. (2003) noted that the magnitude of failure is associated with its extent of loss on the customers' account and directly affects customers' outcomes. In line with studies that have considered magnitude of failure as a moderator, this research views it as an important moderator within the proposed model.

2.2.3 Why Consumers Do Not Complain

The above studies and many more published work within CCB literature, consented that customers are reluctant to complain and only a very low percentage of them do so (Ekiz & Arasli, 2007; Yavas et al., 1997). Findings showed that about 60 percent (Andreasen, 2000) or 70 percent (TARP, 1999) of all dissatisfied consumers take no action. In addition, research demonstrated that businesses never hear from 96 percent of their unhappy customers (Plymire, 1991). These low percentages are even more critical when it comes to the tourism and hospitality industry (Ekiz, & Au, 2011; Kim, Wang, & Matilla, 2010; Tripp, & Grégoire, 2011), whereby most of the time companies have only one chance to hear from their unhappy customers/guests (Yuksel, & Yuksel, 2008). For this reason only, investigating possible factors that hinder tourist complaints is valuable and necessary (Ro, & Mattila, 2008; Susskind, 2004).

One potential reason why customers do not report complaints or are reluctant to complain may be the 'high cost of presenting complaints' to service providers and/or to other potential complaint processors. The cost of complaining includes additional effort and investment of time spent filling in a feedback/complaint form or talking to the front office manager of a hotel. Financial investment, such as the need to go back to a travel agency to present their case, along with the psychological burden such as embarrassment (Zeithaml et al., 2006), are among other investments. Lee and Sparks (2007) explored the cultural values that Chinese consumers hold in service failure and recovery occasions. They found that the most important value is 'face protection' in which "…one is concerned with the protection of one's own and other people's reputations" (Lee, & Sparks, 2007, p. 510).

Chinese consumers are rarely encouraged to speak about negative things directly, in this case the problems they experience during their service encounter (Best, & Andreasen, 1977; Lee, Jeon, & Kim, 2011; Li et al., 2011; Stephens, & Gwinner, 1998).

However, this situation should not be interpreted in that they accept the failure and are willing to receive inferior products or services (Kindel, 1983; Ngai, Heung, Wong, & Chan, 2007), rather that they prefer 'voting with their feet' (Hogart et al., 2001), in other words they start patronizing another service provider. While doing this, they are likely to disseminate negative WOM to family and friends (Lee, & Sparks, 2007; Ngai et al., 2007). Similarly, Ekiz (2003) and Karatepe and Ekiz (2004) also found that Turkish hotel guests preferred not to voice their dissatisfaction to hotel employees, but chose not to return to the same hotel.

Specifically, the following reasons may provide further clarification on why the majority of customers do not choose to voice their dissatisfaction to the service provider. Firstly, it may sometimes be difficult to complain. This may be due to the simple fact that customers may not know how to lodge their complaints (Bearden, & Oliver, 1985; Plymire, 1991; Sanes, 1993). Secondly, failure may be perceived as too insignificant to be voiced and/or the loss may be perceived as bearable, thus a dissatisfied customer may think that complaining is not worth his/her effort (Chebat et al., 2005). Xu and Chan (2010) stressed that there is a fundamental relationship between magnitude of their problems with a product or service and their complaining behavior. Thirdly, consumers may think that complaining will do no good. In other words, consumers may feel that their complaint will not change anything or they may not see any benefit in doing so (Ekiz, 2003). Fourth, not all employees and companies want to hear bad news, thus they rarely encourage feedback from their customers (Zemke, 1993; 1995). Finally, customers may think that complaining will make them look despicable. Stephens and Gwinner (1998) conducted a series of in-depth interviews with elderly consumers and reported that the desire not to look ‘cheap’ and ‘rubbish’ are some of the reasons why people avoid confronting service providers, particularly when the problem caused a negligible amount of financial loss.

For several reasons service providers should worry about customers who do not complain to the firm when they are dissatisfied. Firstly, when this happens the company loses the opportunity to remedy the problem and retain a customer (Hirschman, 1970). Additionally, this loss is not only affecting the current business but also any future business from that particular customer. Ford, Scheffman and Weiskopf (2004) depicted a serious picture of the financial impact of defects in service encounters and warned service providers about the financial damage even a single lost customer may create in the long-run. Secondly, the reputation of the company may be harmed through word-of-mouth actions taken by dissatisfied customers resulting in the loss of current and potential customers (Davidow, 2000b; Maxham III, 2001; Susskind, 2002). Thirdly, if a customer leaves without complaining then the company can be deprived of valuable feedback regarding the quality of its products and/or services (Wangenheim, 2005), which may hinder its capability to identify problems that may, and most probably will, affect other customers. Stephens and Gwinner (1998) highlighted if managers want to solve such problems, they need to understand not only the people who complain but also those who do not.

Comprehensively, customer complaints allow an organization to pursue service recovery attempts and an opportunity to reduce customer turnover (Naylor, 2003; Suh, Barker, Pegg, & Kandampully, 2005; Tax et al., 1998). For this reason, practitioners and academicians alike encourage the voicing of dissatisfaction from customers (Ekiz, 2007, 2010). Rosen (1997) argued that customer complaints are wake-up calls and a key to enhance a companies' revenue. Likewise, Bodey and Grace (2006, p. 178) highlighted the advantages of consumer complaints and stated "…complaints provide a mechanism for service providers to understand service failure points, thus offering them the opportunity to improve the quality of the service delivered".

2.2.4 Possible Responses to Service Failures

Bennett, Härtel and McColl-Kennedy (2004) argued that the central approach while studying consumer complaint behavior appears to be cognitive, with the economic cost approach. This approach hypothesizes that consumers undertake a rational cost-benefit analysis of the service failure and decide to either 'take action' or 'do not take action' as a result (Day, & Landon, 1977; Day et al., 1981; Grönhaug, & Zaltman, 1981). According to this approach, consumers are more likely to take action in the form of voicing a complaint to suppliers, family/friends and third parties if the amount of loss at stake is high. On the contrary, if the loss is of low value, it could be deemed seen as not worth the effort (Bennett et al., 2004; Voorhees et al., 2006).

Albert O. Hirschman (1970), one of the pioneers to conceptualize the consequences of deterioration in performance, argued that under ideal market conditions where alternatives for product/service and company are available, dissatisfied consumers have three possible responses to dissatisfying consumption experiences; exit (stop patronizing), voice (complaining) and loyalty (keep patronizing). His conceptualization influenced many researchers who either followed his suggested responses: (Dowding, John, Mergoupis, & Van Vugt, 2000), or derived their own responses based on the above three (Bearden, & Teel, 1983; Bhandari, Tsarenko, & Polonsky, 2007; Boshoff, 1997; Day, & Landon, 1976, 1977; Richins, 1987; Singh, 1988).

Perhaps one of the most influential of these studies is Day and Landon's (1976; 1977), where they classified consumer complaining behavior followed by a dissatisfaction incident as 'take action' and 'take no action' (Figure 2.2). Their two-level hierarchical classification schema of CCB illustrates behavioral (action) and non-behavioral responses (no action), in its first level, with private and public action in its second level (Mattila, & Wirtz, 2004). In their follow-up study, Day et al. (1981) added specific actions to be taken under each private and public action, namely, boycotting the product/service or brand and disseminating negative word-of-mouth (WOM) as private actions and, seeking redress directly from the company, taking legal action and complaining to consumer protection agencies and/or government as public actions. With the exception of minor modifications such as re-labeling, 'seeking redress directly' as 'voice' or 'complaint to the firm', their typology has been used extensively to explain CCB by many researchers (e.g., Crie, 2003; Dowding et al., 2000; Kim et al., 2010; Lovelock, Patterson, & Walker, 2001; Mattila, & Wirtz, 2004).

Crie (2003, p. 61) postulated the reason behind heterogeneity in these response types as "…the cause and intensity of dissatisfaction and…the nature and the importance of product or service of concern". He claimed that one important issue was that dissatisfied consumers could combine or connect several response types to the same dissatisfaction (Crie, 2003; Kolodinsky, 1995). Obviously, this way of thinking escalates the necessity and importance of service recovery efforts. For instance, a guest can voice his/her complaint to the hotel management and while waiting for a solution s/he may share this experience with other guests or family.

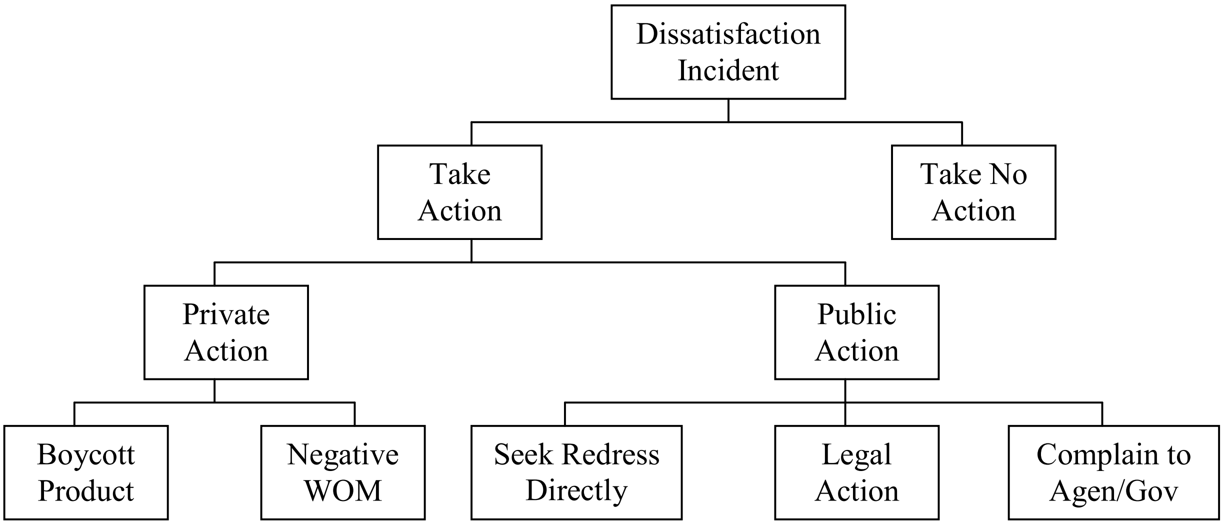

Figure 2.2 Classification of Consumer Complaining Behavior

Source: Adapted from Day and Landon (1977, p. 432) and Day et al. (1981).

By acknowledging the above conceptualization and discussions within CCB literature (Blodgett, & Anderson, 2000; Boshoff, & Allen, 2000; Lovelock et al., 2001), three basic responses have been identified that can be given by customers which are as follows: do nothing, exit and voice. *'Do nothing',* or loyalty, as labeled by Hirschman (1970) has two aspects: constructive and passive. Passive reactions by consumers take little or no action, possibly because of the high cost of complaining, the low perceived change or benefit, or not being willing to face the situation (Kolodinsky, 1995). Singh and Widing (1995) stated that in Hirschman's work, loyalty represents a passive response that involves merely accepting dissatisfaction in the hope that things will improve in the future. On the other hand, in the state of constructive loyalty, consumers are happy with the offerings of the company and are willing to patronize. This is a positive reaction, possibly due to a well-executed service recovery, providing a satisfactory remedy to the initial service failure (Fu, & Mount, 2007; Hart et al., 1990; Mattila, 2001b; Namkung, & Jang, 2010).

Technical Assistance Research Programs (TARP) is an organization founded in 1971 at Harvard University to study customer service in the public sector (1979, 1999) across both manufacturing and service industries. Research by TARP revealed that most customers chose to do nothing about a dissatisfying experience. This was because (i) they believe it is not worth the time and trouble, (ii) they do not know how or where to complain, (iii) they believe that the company will not do anything and (iv), the fear of retribution from environments such as governments or financial services. Best and Andreasen (1977) added two possible reasons why unhappy customers do not act. Firstly, consumers may be discouraged from complaining by others, such as family or friends. Secondly, an intervening factor may cause a delay or the prevention of action, such as leaving town or a family crisis. Similarly, Goodman and Newman (2003) posited that propensity to complain or do nothing is directly proportional to the perceived severity of the failure. In other words, consumers tend not to complain about the problems they perceive as minor inconveniences, such as waiting for a few minutes more than the usual time in a queue. However, if the problem causes major financial loss or hurts the customer's ego the tendency to complain is much higher. (Gilly, & Hansen, 1992; Hedrick et al., 2007; Maheswaran, & Shavitt, 2000; Rust et al., 1999).

When Hirschman (1970) introduced the *'exit'* reaction to CCB literature, he described it as an active effort by the customer to terminate the relationship with the seller or product. For this termination to occur, as stated above, the specific failure should cause a significant monetary loss or should cause serious psychological damage, or both, to consumers (Bhandari et al., 2007; Cranage, Sujan, & Godbey, 2005). If customers do not think that complaining will do any good and/or there are alternative service providers, they tend to discontinue their business with the service provider whom disappointed them (Levesque, & McDougall, 1993; Singh, 1990c; Smith, & Bolton, 2002).

Ford et al. (2004) put forward possible causes to form an exit intention in the consumers' mind. These were if the failure has a high financial loss, if the failure is clearly identified to be the fault of company, if how to complain is not clear, if the customer felt that the company is not welcoming complaints and if changing company is easy to do. When one or more of these causes occur, consumers are more likely to choose the 'exit' rather than voice their dissatisfaction (Ford et al., 2004; Mattila, & Writz, 2004; Stephens, & Gwinner, 1998). Anton, Camarero and Carrero (2007) in their recent study used the existence of switching costs, emotional links created in the relationship and the lack or unawareness of attractive alternatives, as moderators between exit barriers and CCB. They found that cost, emotion and alternatives, significantly moderate the relationships, suggesting additional reasons why customers chose to exit instead of voicing their complaints.

Hirschman (1970) labeled a third consequence as *'voice'* and suggested that it comprised of efforts to maintain the relationship by pressurizing the firm to change its products/services, practices and policies through complaints to sellers, manufacturers and third parties. Karande, Magnini and Tam (2007) stated that past research on CCB conceptualized 'voice' in terms of the customers' opportunity to air complaints or get the dissatisfaction off their chest. The intention to voice a complaint indicates a need to re-gain what was promised by the company but which was not delivered (Hirschman, 1970). Although dissatisfaction is a widely accepted and supported antecedent of propensity to complain (Lee, 2003; Oliver, 1987; Tax et al., 1998; Yi, 1990), Halstead and Dröge (1991) argued that even when a service transaction results in dissatisfaction, consumers' propensity to complain may still be low.

Likewise, Day and Landon (1977) pointed out that a substantial proportion of dissatisfied consumers do not complain, which was also supported by many other researchers empirically. Goodman and Newman (2003) reported that only three dissatisfied customers out of fifty bothered to make a complaint to the company. Similarly, Plymire (1991) postulated that companies never hear from 96 per cent of their unhappy customers. More recently, Chebeat et al. (2005) reported that only one out of their twenty dissatisfied respondents complained to the service provider. These findings are consistent with those of TARP (1979; 1999) and Yavas et al. (1997). These findings are very alarming in how reluctant consumers regard voicing their complaints. In their meta-analytic study, Ford et al. (2004) tabulated the studies that assessed consumers' propensity to complain when they were dissatisfied. Although the percentages varied across different product and service categories, there is enough evidence to conclude that propensity to complain was high when the failure occurred in financial or health care related purchases. This finding supports the link between propensity to complain and value of the product or service (Folkes, & Kotsos, 1986; Richins, 1982; Gilly, & Gelb, 1982; Gursoy, McCleary, & Lepsito, 2007; Stephens, & Gwinner, 1998).

Bodey and Grace (2007) proposed that the propensity to vocalize dissatisfaction depends on the importance of compliant, which is linked to the importance of the product/service itself. In a similar vein, Hirschman (1970) argued that consumers do an overall subjective assessment of ‘‘worthiness’ of the failure situation, which combines costs and benefits from an individual’s perspective. This argument is also supported by Singh (1990a) and Richards and Wilson (2003), who claimed that evaluation of the worthiness of the failure situation plays a key role in the subsequent actions of consumers, such as loyalty. In particular, if the voice is perceived as significantly worthwhile, then dissatisfied consumers may use the voice option and not exit even though alternative products/services may be available (Maute, & Forrester, 1993; Oh, 2004; Singh, 1990c).

2.3 Service Recovery

Problems during interaction between companies and their customers cannot be completely eliminated (Kotler, & Armstrong, 2006; Lovelock, & Wright, 1999). This is particularly true in the service setting where part, if not all, of the transaction requires the co-existence of both parties (service provider and customer) to interact. Boshoff and Leong (1998, p. 24) highlighted this condition and stressed that “…not only service customers are more likely to experience problems…and voice complaints, but they are also less likely to be satisfied with customer complaint handling than customers of goods companies”. Tourism and travel related services are no exception. Witt and Moutinho (1994) argued that it is very likely that customers of tourism and travel organizations experience dissatisfaction more frequently than any other service industry.

Schoefer and Diamantopoulos (2008) insisted that if service failure cannot be wholly eliminated then understanding the processes of service recovery and the way in which consumers respond must be of considerable value in managing organizational performance. Stauss and Seidel (2004) advocated that service recovery and complaint handling should be seen as critical 'moments of truth' for service organizations in their efforts to satisfy and keep customers. Moreover, some researchers claimed that the way that companies handle the failed services is an 'acid test' for the companies' degree of dedication to customer orientation (Andreassen, 2000; Brown, & Beltramini, 1989; Cranage et al., 2005; Mitchell, & Critchlow, 1993; Sabharwal, & Soch, 2011; Susskind, 2010).

In order to deal with failures and resolve customers' complaints, specific action is required. Specifically, there is a need for 'service recovery'. This is a well-accepted term for what service companies attempt to use to offset the customers' negative reaction to the service failures. Zemke (1993, p. 463) defined service recovery as "…a thought-out, preplanned process for returning aggrieved customers to a state of satisfaction with the company or institution after a service has failed to live up to expectations or promised performance". It includes every action taken by companies in order to move a customer from a state of disappointment to a state of satisfaction in a service failure incident (Bell, & Ridge, 1992; Grönroos, 1990; Zeithaml, & Bitner, 2000). In other words, service recovery processes are those activities in which a company engages to address a customer complaint regarding a perceived service failure (Naylor, 2003).

Existing services marketing literature posits that it costs several times as much to find a new customer as it does to keep and satisfy an existing one (Kotler, & Keller, 2008; Lovelock, 2000; Sabharwal, & Soch, 2011; Zeithaml et al., 2006). Smith and Bolton (1998, p. 65) further stressed the importance of service recovery, "…customers need to have as many as twelve positive experiences with a service provider to overcome the negative effects of one bad experience". Not all, if any, service provider has the luxury of having the same customer thirteen times, thus they need to provide an outstanding service recovery, labeled by Zemke and Bell (2000) as 'knock your socks off service recovery'!

2.3.1 Importance of Service Recovery

Unquestionably, CCB literature contains an overwhelming amount of published work that advocates the importance and necessity of service recovery from both customers' and organizations' perspectives (Lovelock et al., 2002; Sparks, & McKoll-Kennedy, 2001; Zemke, & Bell, 1990). The chief benefit of providing an effective and efficient service recovery is the creation of a range of positive customer responses. These could be considered complainant satisfaction, (Hoffman, & Bateson, 2006; Smith, & Bolton, 1998; Stauss, & Seidel, 2004), loyalty and re-patronage intentions, (Grönroos, 2007; Ekiz, & Arasli, 2007; Ekiz, 2009) and the spread of positive WOM, (Hart et al., 1990; Blodgett et al., 1993; Susskind, 2006). Moreover, it has many organizational benefits. These benefits could cover items such as lowering marketing costs, (Ford et al., 2004; Zemke, 1993), regaining the confidence of customers, (Kelley, Hoffman, & Davis, 1993), maintaining customers' perceptions of fairness, (Goodwin, & Ross, 1992; Smith et al., 1999), building up and sustaining company image, (Swarbrooke, & Horner, 1999) and preventing additional costs due to legal procedures, (Brown, & Beltramini, 1989; Fu, & Mount, 2007).

Johnston's (1998) findings are consistent with those mentioned above; furthermore, he postulated that organizations that have well established service recovery practices may well leverage many benefits such as having a pool of loyal customers, lowering marketing costs and improved financial performance. Likewise, Tax and Brown (2000) urged that a successfully implemented service recovery could assist companies in overcoming disappointment and anger of complaining customers' and even salvage the endangered relationship between customer and company. Correspondingly, Mattila (2004) advocated the importance of effective service recovery as she found that post-failure attitudes (following both successful and poor service recovery attempts) play a major role in post-purchase evaluation and re-patronage intentions. In addition, Tax and Brown (2000) and Mattila (2001a) argued that service recovery has been identified as one of the key ingredients to customer loyalty.

2.3.2 Service Recovery Paradox and Double Deviation

Most customers are aware of the fact that up to a certain level mistakes can happen and sometimes they even tolerate the problem to allow the service provider a chance to correct the problem (Grönroos, 1990). However, they expect timely, fair, courteous, clear, efficient and interactive solutions (Choi, & Mattila, 2006; Davidow, 2003a; Gursoy et al., 2007; Lo, Stalcup, & Lee, 2010; Maxham III, 2001). If the service provider can meet their expectations, consequences may surprisingly be positive. Hart et al. (1990, p. 148) stated

"…a good recovery can turn angry, frustrated customers into loyal ones. It can, in fact, create more goodwill than if things had gone smoothly in the first place". Taking this a step further, McCollough and Bharadwaj (1992) labeled this situation, as 'service recovery paradox' in which "…a customer's post-failure satisfaction exceeds pre-failure satisfaction" (p. 119). Later, McCollough (2000) investigated this phenomenon and linked it to customer satisfaction and quality attributes. The conceptualization of the phenomenon has an important effect within marketing literature as it has implications for both industry and academia. McCollough, Berry and Yadav (2000) urged that failure is one of the main determinants of customers' satisfaction, retention and/or WOM behaviors, thus understanding that recovery is of utmost importance. To understand the service recovery and its consequences, many researchers utilized McCollough's service recovery paradox (Liao, 2007; Sabharwal, & Soch, 2011; Smith, & Bolton, 1998).

However, empirical studies investigating the service recovery paradox have produced results that vary considerably in terms of statistical significance, direction, and magnitude (Cranage et al., 2005). Similarly, de Matos, Henrique and Rossi (2007) reported that many examples of empirical research supported service recovery paradox (Magnini, Ford, Markowski, & Honeycutt, 2007), whereas few have not (Smith, & Bolton, 1998). These two meta-analytic papers provided a detailed account of findings from relevant studies. Many of the studies reported results that supported the paradox. These included: (Bitner et al., 1990; Goodwin, & Ross, 1992; Magnini et al., 2007; Maxham III, & Netemeyer, 2002; Michel 2001; Smith, & Bolton, 1998; Smith et al., 1999; TARP, 1979), whereas, some studies failed to support the effects of the service recovery paradox (Andreassen

2001; de Matos et al., 2007; Hocutt, Chakraborty, & Mowen, 1997; Maxham III, 2001; McCollough et al., 2000; Zeithaml et al., 1996).

Some customers who complain may receive dissatisfactory responses and other complainants may receive no responses at all. Hirschman (1970) noted that if a company fails to solve the problem, this leads to further frustration and may actually increase exciting behavior. The unsuccessful or inferior recovery performance can lead to what Bitner et al. (1990) termed a double deviation from customer expectations. Maxham III and Netemeyer (2002) detailed this by stressing the effects of these instances in which service companies fail initially and fail a second time in the recovery effort. Johnston and Fern (1999, p. 70) also defined the phenomenon as "…a situation in which an original service failure that causes a negative customer evaluation is not rectified to the satisfaction of the customer, and therefore the negative evaluation becomes magnified".

In this situation, the company fails to deliver on the initial service and the recovery service, which increases the customer's frustration and results in very negative reactions (Ekiz, 2007). Johnston and Fern (1999) investigated possible service recovery strategies for single and double deviation scenarios in the area of banking services. They found that if the promised service deviated for the second time, the consequences were more severe which leads to higher dissatisfaction, higher quitting intent and a higher likelihood of disseminating negative word-of-mouth (Johnston, & Fern, 1999; Kim et al., 2009; Susskind, 2010). Aligned with this finding, Yim et al. (2003) warned that during the recovery, under-compensating customers could lead into a double deviation/failure effect.

There is a consensus in CCB literature that failure to ensure customer satisfaction, both initially and belatedly through service recovery, may lead to a decline in customer confidence. It can also lead to disloyalty toward the company that will then lead to exit and negative WOM, possible negative publicity and the direct cost of re-performing the service (Boshoff, 1997; Yi, 1990; Zeithaml et al., 1996; Zemke, & Anderson, 2007). Goodman and Newman (2003, p. 55) advocated that "…complainers tend to be the heaviest users of the product or service and represent the potential for most market damage if their loyalty is compromised".

2.3.3 Organizational Responses

Many researchers studied how consumers evaluate a company's response to their complaints in lure of understanding CCB (McCollough et al., 2000; Smith, & Bolton, 2002; Susskind, Borchgrevink, Brymer, & Kacmar, 2000). After careful examination of CCB literature, it suggested that many of the recovery studies have been based upon anecdotal evidence (Karatepe, & Ekiz, 2004; Zemke, & Bell, 1990). Specifically, several studies suggested actions such as, listening, apologizing, providing a speedy solution, keeping promises and providing redress (Boshoff, 1999; Hart et al., 1990).

A synthesis of the related literature shows that there are a number of service recovery attributes or organizational responses. Although organizational responses to service failures vary from company to company and incident to incident, there are some common attributes highlighted within existing literature: redress, facilitation, timeliness, apology, explanation and attentiveness (Blodgett et al., 1997; Chang, Kivela, & Mak, 2011; Davidow, 2000a; 2003a; Wirtz, & Mattila, 2004). Table 2.2 contains definitions of these responses.

Table 2.2 Definition of Organizational Responses

Responses / Attributes	Definitions
Redress / Atonement	"…fair settlement or fix of the problems that arise between company and the customer" (Diener, & Greyser, 1978, p. 28).
Facilitation	"…the policies, procedures, and tools that a service firm has in place to support customer complaints" (Davidow, 2000a, p. 475).
Timeliness / Promptness	"...how quickly the complaint is handled by the company" (Karatepe, & Ekiz, 2004, p. 478).
Apology	"…an acknowledgment by the organization of the complainant's distress" (Davidow, 2003a, p. 232).
Explanation	"…information given by the service provider about why the problem occurred" (Ekiz, 2003, p. 22).
Attentiveness	"...interaction and communication between company staff and the complainant" (Gursoy et al., 2007, p.8).
Facilitation	"…the policies, procedures, and tools that a service firm has in place to support customer complaints" (Davidow, 2000a, p. 475).

Organizational response to customer complaints is an important topic within CCB literature, thus receiving considerable attention resulting in the overwhelming amount of published work (Boshoff, 1999; Day, & Bodur, 1978; Ekiz, Farivarsadri, Arasli, & Bavik, 2005, 2008; Garrett et al., 1991; Hogarth, & English, 2002; Mitchell, & Critchlow, 1993; Tax et al., 1998). The overview results of the above mentioned studies showed a great deal of consistency, with some minor variations, and suggested that organizations should apologize, prove redress, facilitate the recovery process, act fast, explain the problem and be attentive.

2.4 Tourism, Tourist and Complaining Constraints

Human beings are instinctively curious about the world in which they live, thus we desire to know what other places, people, cultures, animals and landforms look like. McIntosh, Goeldner and Ritchie (2006) noted that higher levels of education, increasing technology in transportation and communication, more leisure time and greater awareness motivate travel for longer periods, more frequently and further away destinations.

2.4.1 Tourism and Its Importance

Methaan (2001, p. 1) argued that "tourism has been a significant factor in the developed economies…since the 1950's…yet the development of analytical approaches, which attempt an explanation of this phenomenon, is a more recent concern". Similarly, Burns (1999) claimed that "…we lack a commonly accepted definition of tourism partially because of the complexity of tourist activity and partially because different interests are concerned with different aspects of tourist activity" (p. 25). Methaan (2001, p. 4) defined tourism simply as "…a global process of modification and consumption involving flows of people, capital, images and cultures". Methaan's (2001) definition focused on the consumption, while Pearce (1982a, p. 2-3) defined tourism from an economic perspective as "…the loosely interrelated amalgam of industries which arise from the movement of people, and their stay in various destinations outside of their home areas".

In the second edition of a highly regarded book *Tourist Gaze*, Urry (2002a) listed several characteristics of tourism in respect to post-modernism. Some of his points could be paraphrased as the following:

> Tourism is a leisure activity. Tourism relationships arise from a movement of people to, and their stay in, various destinations. The journey and stay are to, and

in, sites, which are outside the normal places of residence and work. A substantial proportion of the population of modern societies engages in such tourist practices. Places chosen to be gazed upon because there is an anticipation, especially through day-dreaming and fantasy of intense pleasures…anticipation constructed and sustained through a variety of non-tourist practices, such as film, television, literature, magazines, records and videos; an array of tourist professionals develop who attempt to reproduce ever-new objects for the tourist gaze (Urry, 2002a, p. 2-3).

Morley (1990) chose a pretentious title to his paper 'What is Tourism' and attempted to clarify definitional confusions. In the quest to do this, he argued that for a person to be rightly labeled as a tourist, they should satisfy two conditions "…[being] away from home for less than one year…spend money in the place they visit without earning it there" (Morley, 1990, p. 4). The World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2010b) defined tourists "…as people who travel to and stay in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited". Smith (1989, p. 1) provided a simpler definition "…a temporarily leisured person who voluntarily visits a place away from home for the purpose of *experiencing* a change". McIntosh et al. (2006) advocated that people who visit a particular place for sightseeing, visiting friends and relatives, taking a vacation with the aim of participating in various psychic and/or physical experiences, should be considered tourists.

Tourism, being the worlds' largest and the most diverse industry, is acclaimed as a major global economic force (Burns, 1999; Tribe, 2008). According to the World Travel and Tourism Council's (2010, p. 6) figures, tourism generates 7.892 billion US dollars of economic contribution worldwide (9.9% of all earnings) while employing 238.3 million people (8.4 % of total employment) representing one in every 11.9 jobs. Jafari (2001, p. 29) who posited that tourism had made a great improvement from humble figures to leading ones, in particular noted that "…in 1950, 25.3 million international tourists arrivals resulted in $ [US dollar] 2.1 billion receipts…in 1998, 625 million international tourists generated $ 445 billion receipts". This figure reached 846 million international tourists in 2006 creating $ 922 billion receipts, corresponding to an increase of 2.0 per cent during 2007 (Figure 2.2) (World Tourism Organization - UNWTO, 2010a). Figure 2.3 illustrates the rapid increase in tourist arrivals and tourism receipts worldwide.

Moreover, UNWTO predicts that in the year 2020 there will be 1.6 billion international tourist arrivals with a long-term annual forecast growth rate of 4.1 per cent through 2020 (UNWTO, 2010b). Among these 1.6 billion tourists, 1.2 billion will be intra-regional and 378 million will be long-haul travelers. Consequently, the ratio between intra-regional and long haul journeys will shift from around 82:18 in 1995 to close to 76:24 in 2020 (UNWTO, 2010c), meaning that more and more people will be in direct contact with other people from distinctively different cultures. Therefore, understanding different cultures, particularly those significantly different from one's own, will gain even more importance.

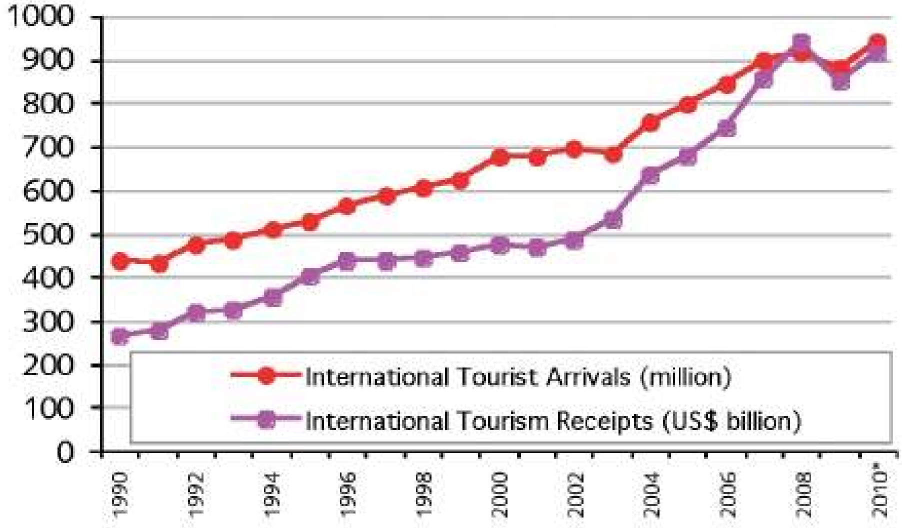

Figure 2.3 Inbound Tourism Arrivals and Generated Receipts (1990-2010)

Source: UNWTO, 2010a, p. 3.

Laws (2004) claimed that although the economic significance of tourism is a sufficient justification to focus on tourism, it should be noted that the importance of tourism is not limited only to its significant economical impact (Coltman, 1989; Tribe, 2008) but also to its enhancement of social, political and cultural ties between nations. For instance, the United Nations Secretary General highlighted the importance of tourism by stating "…tourism is the peoples' building block for global peace and cultural understanding…[and] can drive economic growth and alleviate poverty…[tourism is] one of the leading ways for the least developed countries to increase their participation in the global economy" (Ki-Moon, 2007, p. 4).

2.4.2 Theorization of Tourist Behavior

Tourism is a comparatively new discipline, as available literature is composed of only slightly more than four decades of published work. The acceptance of tourism as an academic discipline is still being debated (Jafari, 2001; Tribe, 2008). In particular, some scholars from the mainstream disciplines argue that tourism research is narrowly scoped and does not have any productive line (Nash, 1996), is limited and uninteresting (Pearce, 1982a) and is fraught with unproven assumptions, ambiguous terminology and contradictory evidence (Gilbert, 1991). In fact, many of the early tourism scholars were or are from other disciplines and so used their backgrounds to generate theories to explain the tourism phenomenon. Perhaps for this reason, Pearce (1982b) categorized tourism studies under five main headings: economic studies (forecasting, contribution and/or multiplier effect calculations), geographical studies (regional and spatial imbalances), anthropological studies (human side of tourism, impact of tourism on host community), sociological studies (reasons for traveling, nature of tourist experience) and other travel literature (travel magazines, glossy journals, journey accounts). Moreover, Pearce (2005) argued that only a small number of true theories of tourist behavior exist.

Consequently, tourism literature in general, and tourist behavior research, in particular, has become a compelling mixture of issues by using theories originating from other disciplines, such as, anthropology, sociology, psychology, and marketing. In particular, marketing literature has been heavily relied upon regarding consumer behavior in the explanation of tourist behavior (Jafari, & Gardner, 1991; Nash, 1996; Tribe, 2008). More recently, Huang (2007, p. 247) noted that "…although some scholars align tourist behavior with consumer behavior or confine the former to the broad scope of inquiry to the latter, it is obvious that tourist behavior differs from other types of consumer behavior...". Although consumer behavior studies have enhanced our understanding of tourist behavior to a large extent, there has been comparatively fewer studies conducted on tourists' purchasing behavior (Becker, Murrmann, Murrman, & Cheung, 1999) and even fewer on tourist complaining behavior (Hui, Ho, & Wan, 2011; Ngai et al., 2007; Pearce, & Moscardo, 1984; Smith, 2001; Tata et al., 2003).

Gilbert (1991, p. 94) noted that Wahab, Crampon and Rothfield's work in 1976 was one of the first attempts to provide some understanding of tourism purchase behavior. Indeed, they are the pioneers (i) to argue that the tourist is a purposeful consumer and (ii) to conceptualize the tourist buying behavior in terms of the uniqueness of the buying decision. Although their model initially focused on the decision-making process before the purchase of any, if not all, components of their holiday, they outlined four unique features that distinguish tourist buying behavior from overall consumer buying behavior [and possibly complaining behavior]. These features are as follows;

- No tangible return on investment
- Considerable expenditure in relation to the earned income
- Purchase is not spontaneous or capricious
- Expenditure involves saving and pre-planning (Wahab et al., 1976).

Gilbert (1991, p. 94) questioned the applicability of overall consumer behavior models to the tourism setting by stating "…while acknowledging that the experiential nature of tourism products make them different from commodity purchases, goes on to question the applicability of general consumer behavior models". McCabe (2005) and Yuksel et al. (2006) also underpinned that conventional ideas of tourist behaviors and attitudes only very recently began to be challenged. In echoing these arguments, the current study attempts to isolate and map out tourist complaining behavior and particularly aims to identify possible constraints that affect tourists' complaining behavior. The following section further elaborates this issue.

2.4.3 Tourist Complaining Constraints

Schoefer and Ennew (2004) emphasized that eliminating service failure is utterly impossible especially in the tourism industry where "…the involvement of a number of different parties in service delivery may increase the potential for failure" (p. 83). Yet, many published papers reported very low percentages of customer complaints (Hedrick et al., 2007; Maheswaran, & Shavitt, 2000). Then, 'why do consumers not complain'? So far, the high cost of complaining is argued to be the leading reason. The cost may be the time required to complain, financial cost of complaining, psychological outlay during the complaining, or any combination of these, is likely to affect responses to service failure encounters (Andreasen, 2000; Stephens, & Gwinner, 1998; Zeithaml et al., 2006).

Some early research highlighted the financial loss to explain why people chose not to voice their dissatisfaction (Diener, & Greyser, 1978; Day, 1984; Gilly, & Gelb, 1982). They concluded that consumers tend to first consider the costs such as time, money, and psychological issues and benefits such as full redress, partial atonement and discount, perform a simple calculation in their mind, and then they make the decision as to whether or not to complain (Richins, 1982; 1985). Moreover, early researchers focused on socio-demographic characteristics of dissatisfied consumers to understand why some unhappy customers do not complain (Bourgeois, & Barnes, 1979). In lure of answering these questions, some researchers considered personal and psychological factors (Grönhaug, & Zaltman, 1981; Halstead, & Dröge, 1991; Jacoby, & Jaccard, 1981). Variations in individual cases made suggestions of implications that make it almost impossible to fit all cases (Singh, 1990a).

Researchers turned their faces to culture as a possible constraint of complaining behavior (Dolnicar et al., 2008; Lee, & Sparks, 2007; Ngai et al., 2007; Reisinger, & Turner, 2003). They argued that consumers' cultural backgrounds might hinder their complaining intentions or affect the way they see complaining as a whole. Some researchers tried to find a link between the industry in which the failure occurred (Day, & Landon, 1976; Grainer et al., 1979) or product type of goods versus services (Day, & Ash, 1979; Grönhaug, & Arndt, 1980) and likelihood of complaint. Their results were inconsistent across industries, and some researchers concluded that complaining behavior may vary for some industries and they called for further investigation (Best, & Andreasen, 1977; Day, & Bodur, 1978; Zemke, 1993). This study, as an answer to this call, examines complaining behavior, more specifically complaining constraints, within the tourism industry.

It has been argued that while most tourist complaining behavior is affected by complaining constraints, it may be more explained by existing theories within CCB literature, yet some factors may not apply. The logic behind this argument is that the unique characteristics of tourism come from both being a service industry and more importantly from its definition, nature and practice. In other words, tourism by nature creates additional constraints for its participants (tourists) and limits their complaining capabilities, perhaps intentions. Most of the constraints discussed in the CCB literature overlap with those within a tourism context, yet there is a possibility that some factors can be different in the case of tourists. These factors are chosen because of their relevance to characteristics of tourists and tourism experiences (Casado-Diaz et al., 2007; Ekiz, & Au, 2009a; Yuksel, & Yuksel, 2008). These factors proposed are; limited time, unfamiliarity, limited communication, limited involvement and positive holiday mood. The following section will focus on explaining and justifying these factors as possible tourist complaining constraints.

2.4.3.1 Limited Time

Morello (2004) argued that there are two types of time available; the first one is clock time or objective time which can be measured with accurate terms (seconds, minutes etc.), the second is mental time or personal time where people use their preferences or experiences as subjective measurement norms. By using the clock, people make time manageable, and it represents the absolute terms. However, in the case of holidays, where there is usually a pre-determined time, people are likely to lose track of time (van der Knaap, 1997). Time, is conceptualized in this study as duration of a period spent at the holiday destination. It can change according to the aim of travel or activities involved, for instance attending a conference may only require a few days, whereby a family vacation after one year of constant work may last a few weeks.

CCB literature explains that having limited time is underlined to be one of the important factors that can affect complaining behavior (Grönhaug, & Zaltman, 1981; Swanson, & Kelly, 2001; TARP, 1999). Swanson and Kelly (2001) further argued that time limitation particularly affects service industries where the co-existence of customer and service provider is generally needed. For instance, Morel, Poiesz and Wilke (1997, p. 467) investigated motivation, capacity and opportunity to complain in the French restaurant setting and used time availability "…having enough time and not in any hurry versus having little time and in a hurry…" as a manipulation check, to create different failure scenarios. They found that time available was closely linked to the probability of complaint behavior (Morel et al., 1997). Furthermore, Kotler, Bowen and Makens (1999) emphasized that time availability may affect consumer behavior (their choices of channels, reactions, and justice perceptions).

By definition, the tourist has limited time available when in a destination, which affects their complaining behaviors. For instance, it is difficult for them to return for an extensive complaint, given that their time is precious. Imagine a tourist staying in a hotel for two days and having a problem with the fridge that is not cooling properly. He/she may think 'I am here for only two nights, why bother myself and complain?' Indeed, Woehler (2004) discussed issues such as 'leisure time' and 'vacation time'. Following, are some of his statements about time in the context of tourism.

> "…vacations are determined by speed and regulations due to the characteristics of the leisure industry and its time regime…time is considered a scarcity during vacations…the effects of lack of time during vacations is experienced as speed…time scarcity during vacations stems from the pressure to consume as many options (offers) as possible in order to find self-fulfillment" (Woehler, 2004, p. 88-90).

Correspondingly, Cohen-Hattab and Kerber (2004) urged that having limited time negatively affects activities that tourists participate in, places they visit and even their overall holiday satisfaction. Yuksel and Yuksel (2007) noted that within the limited time spent in a destination, tourists tend to choose the easiest activities to experience a local culture and to utilize their limited time effectively. McKercher (1998) investigated the effect of market access on destination choice and found that travelers with limited time will tend to (i) drive directly to the destination, (ii) select the more proximate of destinations, and (iii) seek destinations with very strong market access. These findings imply that limited time is a noteworthy issue affecting tourist decisions. Morley (1990) also underlined the time factor and posited that time of tourists is limited, which not only affects their activities, but also the way they behave throughout their holiday. This may affect their behavior, including complaining, during their holiday experience (Ekiz, & Au, 2009a). Thus, this study aims to find out possible relationships between time limitation and tourists' complaining behaviors.

2.4.3.2 Unfamiliarity

Familiarity, as a research topic in consumer behavior, received ample attention as being familiar with a product or service (mostly its brand) increases the probability of purchase. Söderlund (2002) limited his definition of familiarity to the number of product-related experiences accumulated by the customer. Day and Landon (1976, p. 264) argued that "…the less knowledgeable [familiar in this case] consumer will be less able to judge product performance and evaluate the goods and services as he consumes...also he will be unfamiliar with procedures for seeking redress and in registering complaints". They further noted that geographical and ethnic factors could be possible reasons for the disparity of consumers' knowledge (Day, & Landon, 1976). Consistent with their findings, Morel et al. (1997, p. 467) used familiarity, in the meaning of "…having knowledge of and experience with [French] language and customs", as a manipulation check to create different failure scenarios. They found that complaint behavior was significantly associated with being familiar with the circumstances, which the customers are in (Morel et al., 1997). In other words, consumers become more confident in a familiar environment therefore express their satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction to the company.

Söderlund (2002, p. 863) claimed that familiarity brings more elaborated cognitive structure to the purchasing process and "…provides the customer with a different frame of references for evaluations compared to a low level of familiarity". He further stressed that the 'high familiarity customer' tends to accept the extreme, such as high and low performance events, even more so. What Söderlund (2002) possibly meant by 'really low performance event' is high magnitude service failures.

In the tourism context, Wickens (2002) referred to familiarity as the knowledge one has of another social group and its cultural pattern. Familiarity (usually in its negative form as 'unfamiliarity'), is studied as a motivational factor at the opposite end of the 'novelty' continuum. The most famous of these continuums is Cohen's (1979) 'Strangeness-Familiarity Continuum' cited by many researchers while investigating the travel patterns of their respondents (for instance, Smith, 2001; Wickens, 2002; Yiannakis, & Gibson, 1992). Yiannakis and Gibson (1992) advocated that, in this continuum, strangeness implies newness, change and low environmental predictability and requires a variety of coping skills for managing in new and unfamiliar situations.

Currie (1997) claimed that individuals tend to seek activities, which continue their familiar routines thus avoiding the unknown, yet many tourism researchers argued that visiting unfamiliar places and doing something different to daily routines are important reasons that push people to travel (Hsu, & Lam, 2003; Huang, & Hsu, 2005). In addition, Prentice

(2004) highlighted that people travel to experience unfamiliar cultures, stay in unusual places, eat exotic food and participate in different activities. McKercher and Law (2003) found uncertainty, risk and unfamiliarity to be factors that influence the distances people are willing to travel to a destination. On the other hand, tourists are subject more to being in an unfamiliar situation than a general consumer is, because they are at a tourist destination which is most, if not all of the time, unfamiliar to them (Josiam et al., 2005; Kotler, & Armstrong, 2006; McIntosh et al., 2006).

O'Neill and Mattila (2004) drew attention to the familiarity/unfamiliarity issue within service recovery in their attempt to develop a lodging service specific recovery strategy. They stated "…consumer expertise or familiarity with a product category is directly linked to the concept of expectations… [moreover, familiar customers'] perceptions of service failure and recovery outcomes might differ to consumers with relatively low levels of familiarity…" (O'Neill, & Mattila, 2004, p. 53). In the same vein, Cohen (1979) stated that lack of cultural familiarity precludes any meaningful social exchange between tourists and their hosts, thus affecting the tourists' overall holiday experience. In alignment with this, Ryan and Gu (2007) highlighted the importance of cultural familiarity and argued that being familiar with a place requires both a temporal and spatial permanence. However, as discussed above, most of the time tourists do not have enough time to do so.

Findings from the above studies are similar in concluding that being familiar with a destination affects the tourists purchase decision process. However, comparatively less attention has been paid to the possible effects of unfamiliarity to the tourists' buying behavior within the destination (Suvantola, 2002). Furthermore, there has been no study found to focus particularly on the probable link between unfamiliarity and tourist complaining behavior. Thus, in an attempt to fill this gap, the present study intends to create a tourist specific complaining construct (which will include familiarity) and to examine the possible effect of unfamiliarity on tourists' justice perceptions of service recovery efforts.

2.4.3.3 Limited Communication

Communication is an inseparable part of human nature and vitally important to peoples' daily social interaction. Schiffman and Kanuk (2004, p. 293) defined communication as "…the transmission of a message from a sender to a receiver via a medium, or channel, of transmission". Communication can be conveyed via auditory, such as speaking or singing, or by physical means such as sign language, touch, or eye contact. These forms are further classified as verbal communication (communicating by the use of sound, words, speaking and/or language) or non-verbal communication (the act of imparting or interchanging thoughts, posture, opinions or information by using gestures, sign language, facial expressions and body language) (Bonvillain, 2003; Cohen, 1992; Findlay, 1998). Schiffman and Kanuk (2004) highlighted that there are four basic components of effective communication: sender (initiator of the communication), receiver (to whom communication is directed at), message (content of the communication) and medium (channel of communication).

Verbal communication, in the form of language, plays a significant role in human communication. Using interaction and if both parties are capable of understanding each other, this will increase the efficiency of the communication. Language, as a systematic means of communication by the use of sounds or conventional symbols forms the basis of communication between human beings. Bonvillain (2003, p. 7) defined language as "…a communicative system consisting of formal units that are integrated through processes of combining components of sound, structure and meaning".

Pearce (1982b) stated language as a paramount issue where "many tourists find that their inability to communicate with the local people is enormously frustrating, and language difficulties may generate considerable stress…" (p. 214). Kim and Gudykunst (1988) underpinned the importance of language competence and noted "…it increases the individuals' ability to cope with uncertainty during [especially] intercultural encounters" (p. 135) and "…lack of knowledge of the subjective culture of other groups', which includes their language, increases the anxiety associated with interaction with members of those groups" (p. 136). Moreover, Cohen (1979) claimed that the lack of knowledge of foreign languages precludes any meaningful social exchange between tourists and the hosts, including service provision and/or recovery. For this reason, the current study considers language as an important factor of communication between service provider and tourist. This is particularly important in a service failure encounter where both parties need to communicate to either voice their dissatisfaction through complaining or fix the problem through effective recovery. Bonvillain (2003) stressed that people not only communicate by language but also through gestures, facial expressions, body posture and use of space and argued that these aspects of communication are vitally critical in daily interpersonal relationships.

Sayre (2003) investigated the relationship between sign language, as part of non-verbal communication and tourist experience and concluded that it has a considerable effect on tourists' overall experience satisfaction. Leslie and Russell (2006) stressed the importance of having foreign language skills in an empirical research conducted with European tourism graduates and they noted the significance of communication in tourists' overall travel experience. Cohen (1992) also underlined the crucial importance of non-verbal communication especially in inter-cultural service encounters, which most of the tourism experience is all about.

Both verbal and non-verbal communication is vitally important within the tourism setting, as tourists need to communicate with the hosts, service providers and lack of it may affect interaction (Cohen, 1979; Pearce, 1982b). Previous research indicates that given where their experience takes place - most of the time an align environment - tourists are likely to have more communication problems than general consumers, who are used to experiencing these problems in a familiar surrounding (Morel et al., 1997; Reisinger, & Turner, 2003; Smith, & Karwan, 2010; Söderlund, 2002). Thus, this current study will consider limited communication as a potential constraint in tourist complaining behavior.

2.4.3.4 Limited Involvement

'Involvement' received considerable attention in consumer behavior literature. Mittal and Lee (1989, p. 363) argued "…involvement has played an increasingly important role in explaining consumer behavior… [and proven to be significantly related to] extensiveness of the decision-making process and on-going product-related behavior such as word-of-mouth communication". Involvement requires consumers to spend extra psychological and physical effort to understand and be part of the service offered. Mittal and Lee (1989,

p. 364) and Josiam, Kinley and Kim (2005) listed several significant and common characteristics of involvement as follows:

- It reflects the extent of personal relevance of the decision to the individual in terms of their basic values, goals, and self-concept;
- It means personal relevance or importance;
- It indicates the amount of arousal, interest, or drive evoked by a particular stimulus or situation;
- It reveals itself as the level of interest in that object or activity; and
- It can be in the form of product involvement (where consumers are interested in product class) or purchase involvement / brand-decision involvement (where consumers are mainly interested in making a brand selection).

Anton et al. (2007, p. 136) argued that involvement was "…an internal state of arousal, comprising three dimensions, intensity - the level of motivation, direction - the object producing the motivation and persistence - the duration of intensity". Park (1996) found that in general, when consumers are highly involved (whose motivational intensities are high) (i) they tend to react more strongly to certain aspects of the company's behavior. In the case of this research, it is service recovery efforts and (ii) their post purchase (and consumption) behaviors, loyalty and WOM that tend to be stronger. Josiam et al. (2005) investigated the tourists' shopping behavior in malls and concluded that involvement is a significant predictor of overall satisfaction within a shopping center. In the same vein, Havitz and Dimanche (1999) found that limited involvement in planning of the event resulted in just the opposite way. In other words, the respondents who did not participate in arrangement and/or planning of leisure services - whereby having limited involvement -

reported that they would not act on the problems that may arise. Similarly, Altinay (1994) noted that tourists who had limited involvement in their travel arrangements tend to keep their dissatisfaction to themselves rather than voicing it. He pointed out where all-inclusive package tours - whereby almost all decisions are made by the tour company and very limited involvement of participating tourists exists - as likely to cause low complaint intentions (Altinay, 1994).

Tourism literature reflects that there are comparatively fewer studies investigating the possible effects of limited involvement on purchase behavior, except Havitz and Dimanche (1999) and Altinay (1994). More recently, Cai, Feng and Breiter's (2004) investigated tourist purchase decision involvement within the context of tourists' information preferences. They concluded that involvement and limited involvement play noteworthy roles in the 'pre-trip stage' of the decision making process (Cai et al., 2004). Although this finding is an important one, it does not answer how limited involvement affects tourists' behavior, particularly complaining behaviors, while they are at the destination. In this sense, findings from the current study may offer some useful insight into this area.

2.4.3.5 Positive Holiday Mood

Iso-Ahola (1982) noted that the tourists' psychological situation in general and specifically their mood should be taken into consideration when investigating tourists' behavior. Likewise, Lowyck, Van-Langenhove and Bollaert (1992) and Liljander and Mattsson (2002) insisted that a psychological approach is crucial in any attempt to understand tourism consumer behavior. Voase (1995) argued that one of the basic psychological motives behind the travel act is the escape from trying, non-stimulating and routine everyday life. Similarly, Mill (1990) stated that people needed to have at least several days' holiday to wind down from their everyday lives and relax mentally. Cohen (2004, pp. 67-68) stated that people travel to "…temporary reversal of everyday activities - it is a no-work, no-care, no-thrift situation…escape the duties imposed upon them…relief from tensions within their life space…seek recreation". In this vein, Wood and House (1991) asserted that most tourists make up their minds and convince themselves that their holiday will be a positive experience. Likewise, McIntosh et al. (2006) and Pearce (1982b) pointed out that in particular, leisure tourists seek a hassle free experience, so even though problems exist, they tend to stay positive. Yiannakis and Gibson (1992) underlined that "…driving pleasure from the trip is a central and clearly non-instrumental concern for the tourist" (p. 288) and to do so, they "…enjoy taking it easy" (p. 291).

Currie (1997, p. 884) suggested "…tourists' behavior often differ from those in the home environment…individuals remove themselves from their day-to-day environment and place themselves within a tourism environment…" where they behavior differently. One possible explanation to this incident could be their unique psychology, which could be characterized by their changed social role and temporary nature of their stay in the travel destination (Hosany, & Gilbert, 2010; Jafari, 1987; Suvantola, 2002). Furthermore, Iso-Ahola (1982) stated that being in a novel, unfamiliar and foreign environment characterizes some tourist behaviors. More recently, Yagi and Pearce (2007) underscored that tourists' behavior at a destination can diverge from those at home as they see vacation as a time-out in an extraordinary place where they can be playful, relaxed and not constrained by the rules of their home community. This playful, relaxed and non-constrained environment triggers positive emotions and good moods (Hosany, & Gilbert, 2010; Tronvoll, 2011; White, 2005).

Before discussing the effects of emotions and moods of tourists' and therefore their behavior, these terms should be distinguished between each other for definition. Both terms used are to define specific processes of mental feeling. Bagozzi, Gopinath and Nyer (1999, p. 184) defined emotion as "…a mental state of readiness that arises from cognitive appraisal of events or thoughts; has a phenomenological tone; is accompanied by physiological processes; is often expressed physically; and may result in specific actions to affirm or cope with the emotion…". Following are some other definitions of 'emotion' and 'mood'. Luomala, Kumar, Worm and Singh (2004, p. 41-42) defined them as "…affectively charged conscious, stimulus specific, pervasive, relatively enduring and self-informational experiences that have motivational and behavioral implications". Mood is discussed to be "…a mild, transient, and generalized affective state" (Sarikaya, Petrick, & Choi, 2004, p. 520) and "...a state of mind reflecting one's feelings at any particular moment" (Comer 1980, p. 229).

Kowalski (1996; 2002) and Bagozzi et al. (1999) distinguished emotions from moods by stating that moods tend to be lower in intensity than emotions, are generally unintentional, do not have a specific referent and are not as directly coupled with action tendencies as are emotions. De Rojas and Camarero (2008) stressed that moods can be caused by the human system (sickness, fatigue or good health) or pharmacological agents, general conditions of the environment and side effects of activities (heat, noise, changes in surroundings). Correspondingly, Manrai and Gardner (1991) asserted that individuals, in general, treat moods as inputs for making judgments after their consumptions. Hoffman et al. (1995) reported that positive moods, due to one or more of these causes, create a favorable environment, which results in positive evaluations of encounters.

The relationship between one's emotional situation and behavior is well established in psychology and marketing literature (Hosany, & Gilbert, 2010; Smith, & Sherman, 1993; Watson, 2000). On one hand, negative emotion and/or the bad mood of a customer during a transaction was found to be the cause of dissatisfaction, complaint and negative WOM intentions (George, 1989; Mattila, 2000; Susskind, 2004). On the other hand, the same customer with positive emotions and good mood may have a positive behavior toward the company or product/service (George, 1991; Tronvoll, 2011; Westbrook, 1987). Indeed, Josiam, Kinley and Kim (2005) found shoppers who were in a good mood, to be more involved in shopping and judge the shopping experience more favorably.

Forgas (1995) found that a persons' mood significantly influenced cognitive processes relating to their consumption judgment. Similarly, Mattila (2000) reported significant relationships between a guests' mood and post-purchase service evaluation within hospitality service encounters. Wong A. (2004) claimed that emotion changes and mood swings were fundamental attributes in consumer satisfaction and complaints. Voorhees et al. (2006) concluded that feeling bad or being in a bad mood makes people complain more. In the same vein, Bodey and Grace (2006) noted that consumers' moods and feelings affected their complaining behavior. In addition, Zins (2002, p. 3) not only demonstrated that "…attribute based evaluations [emotions and moods] are significant determinants of satisfaction… [but also]…in a multiple-encounter service environment such as tourism, these emotions are antecedent to the final cognitive evaluation of the entire consumption episode". Cohen (2004) argued that consumers' affective responses influenced post-consumption evaluations. Babin, Lee, Kim and Griffin (2005) found that consumers experiencing relatively high positive moods reported increased spending levels compared to those shoppers with substantially less positive moods. Christiansen and Snepenger (2002) also found that a positive mood encouraged tourists to shop more and complain less. More recently, Ro and Mattila (2008) highlighted the link between emotions and tourist complaining behavior. The consumers' mood status not only affects their perceptions on the initial service - that is before the failure, but also their perceptions toward the recovery efforts - after the service failure (Bagozzi et al., 1999; Hosany, & Gilbert, 2010; Zins, 2002). Results of Chebat and Slusarczyk's (2005) research showed that emotions mediated the effects of perceived justice on loyalty in service recovery situations.

Pearce (1981) examined the changes in tourists' moods during the course of their holiday on two small Australian tropical islands and reported significant links between their moods and purchasing behaviors. Particularly, Gnoth, Zins, Lengmueller and Boshoff (2000) investigated the relationships between emotions, mood and travel, and concluded that emotions and mood affect travel related behaviors. Similarly, Sirakaya, Petrick and Choi (2004) examined the role of the mood on tourism product evaluation by using cruise vacationers as samples and found that "…a significant relationship between satisfaction with a product or service and mood states during evaluation…tourists with lower mood evaluations tended to have lower satisfaction levels with the cruise ship and its services" (p. 533). As opposed to Westbrook's (1987) negative affect which he defined as "…consciously experienced subjective state of negative feelings that tend to accompany moods and emotions" (p. 259), some tourism scholars argue that tourists, in general, are motivated with positive feelings (Cohen, 2004; McIntosh et al., 2006; Mill, 1990; Yiannakis, & Gibson, 1992). These positive feelings, labeled 'positive holiday mood' in the current study, are argued to affect the complaining behaviors of tourists.

These positive feelings, positive holiday mood, affect tourists consumption and post-purchase evaluation processes and have been shown to be elicited during satisfaction judgment and complaining behavior (Gnoth et al., 2000; Smith, & Sherman, 1993; Voorhees et al., 2006). Tourists may think that complaining on vacation may ruin the spirit of the mood and atmosphere of their holiday as expected and for which they have paid (Swarbrooke, & Horner, 1999; Ro, & Mattila, 2008; White, 2005; Yagi, & Pearce, 2007). Thus, they may be more tolerant toward service failures and may react differently compared to their responses at home.

2.4.4 Tourist Complaining Constraints and Justice Perceptions

This thesis considers the five dimensions mentioned as possible tourist complaining constraints. Literature suggests that while customers faced with a constraint/barrier during and/or after the consumption of product/services, they tend to demand a fair recovery. In other words, once a tourist perceives that they have limited time, limited communication, scarcity of information (not being familiar), limited involvement and be in a positive holiday mood, they will expect a fairer recovery (Andreassen, 2000; Blodgett et al., 1997; Kau, & Loh, 2006; Martinez-Tur et al., 2006; McCollough et al., 2000; Tax et al., 1998; Yoda, & Kamakura, 2007).

To be more precise, the more tourists regard time as a constraint the more they may be demanding a smooth and personalized recovery action from the hotel (interactional justice). Similarly, the more tourists regard unfamiliarity as a barrier the more they may demand a 'by the book' recovery from the hotel (procedural justice). In the same vein, when a dissatisfied customer is not able to communicate with the hotel representative, s/he may think that the hotel is taking advantage of his/her current situation. The customer consequently demands more interactive and private recovery action from the hotel (interactional and distributive justices). Findings from literature reviews suggests that having a limited involvement in their holiday planning may make tourists less demanding in asking for fair compensation (distributive justice). Finally, tourists may report themselves to be more forgiving and tolerant toward any service failures when they are on holiday. However, they may still demand fair compensation even if they are in a positive holiday mood (interactional justice). To summarize, the proposed TCC factors may have negative relationships with the three justice perceptions (interactional, procedural and distributive). This reasoning is consistent with findings from a limited number of scholars within relevant available literature (Blodgett, & Anderson, 2000; Casado-Diaz et al., 2007; Singh, 1988; Yuksel, & Yuksel, 2008; Zemke, & Bell, 2000).

2.5 Justice Perceptions of Organizational Responses

Before writing about justice and/or fairness, one should be clear on the meaning of the terms. There is different usage of the terms 'justice' and 'fairness' in different contexts of daily life (such as legal, ethical and informal), but their roots can be found in Old French 'j¢stitia', Latin 'justus', Old English 'fæger' and Gothic 'fagrs', meaning 'just', 'suitable', 'right', 'legitimate' and 'reasonable' (Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus, 1992). In many dictionaries, these terms are listed as synonymous to each other. Correspondingly, previous studies in different disciplines, such as CCB literature, used 'fairness' and 'justice' interchangeably with very close, if not exactly the same, meanings (Adams, 1963; Goodwin, & Ross, 1989; Weiner, 2006). Although the term 'justice' will be used mostly in this study, 'fairness' will also be used where appropriate.

Austin (1979, p. 127) defined justice as "…the criterion against which the legitimacy of an act or a social program is judged…it refers to procedures governing human affairs, or to deserts and claims". This perceived justice phenomenon is used extensively to understand customers' satisfaction/dissatisfaction judgments and post-purchase behaviors (Blodgett et al., 1993; Day et al., 1981; Nikbin, Ismail, Marimuthu, & Armesh, 2012; Susskind, 2010; Yi, 1990). Davidow (2003b, p. 69) defined perceived justice as "…a sequence of events in which a procedure generates a process of interaction and decision making through which an outcome is allocated to someone". Perceived justice can be argued to be subjective and sometimes situational, (Day, & Ash, 1979; Diener, & Greyser, 1978), but it has its exclusive place in consumer complaining behavior (Gursoy et al., 2006).

As highlighted by Martinez-Tur, Peiro, Ramos and Moliner (2006) that if the outcomes or procedures related to services are perceived as unfair, customers then engage in negative reactions. If customers do not get a fair resolution to their problems, they may experience further dissatisfaction (double deviation) and educe a desire not to patronize, switch to another company and disseminate negative word-of-mouth (Austin, 1979; Blodgett et al., 1997; Ekiz et al., 2008; Liao, 2007; Sparks, & McColl-Kennedy, 2001). Within CCB literature no single dominant theory exits, instead, there are several theories used by researchers to conceptualize the construct (Adams, 1963; Blau, 1964; Festinger, 1957; Folger, & Cropanzano, 1998). The section below contains a review of these theories in a chronological order and provides findings from influential studies, which utilize these theories as their work basis.

2.5.1 Origins of Justice Theory

Leung (1988) stressed that justice had been the study within many different disciplines such as philosophy, anthropology, sociology, and social psychology, thus the voluminous literature accumulated on the subject. Aligned with this, Clemmer and Schneider (1996, p. 110) argued "…fairness has been a fundamental base against which people judge the nature of relationships between people and between social institutions and individuals". They also stated that behavioral scientists have attempted to develop rigorous theories and tested them empirically (Clemmer, & Schneider, 1996). In the same vein, Tyler (1994) urged that previous researchers have attempted to explain why justice matters in daily transactions and how companies should respond to their consumers' judgment perceptions by developing these theories.

Austin (1979, p. 128) claimed that "...theoretical work on justice has been separated by academic boundaries and fragmented within disciplines…a comprehensive theory of justice does not exist in the social sciences". After twenty years from this claim, Pizam and Ellis (1999), in their meta-analytic paper, reviewed customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction literature and reported the existence of nine theories. These theories are 'expectancy disconfirmation, assimilation or cognitive dissonance, contrast, assimilation-contrast, equity, attribution, comparison-level, generalized negativity and value-precept' (Pizam, & Ellis, 1999, p. 327). Most of these theories have originated in cognitive psychology and some within CCB literature. The next section contains three widely used theories; Equity Theory (Adams, 1963; 1965), Cognitive Dissonance Theory (Festinger, 1957), and Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964). These theories are considered the origins of Justice Theory (Deutsch, 1985; Leventhal, 1976; Folger, & Cropanzano, 2001; Weiner, 2006). In addition to these three fundamental theories, Fairness Theory, a relatively new theory, (Folger, & Cropazano, 1998; 2001), will also be reviewed.

2.5.1.1 Equity Theory

Within his influential study, Adams (1963) advocates that fairness of exchange is not only perceived as an economic matter, but also involves the element of 'relative justice' that supervenes economics and underlines perceptions of equity or inequity. Blodgett et al. (1997, p. 188) accentuated that Adams' equity theory emphasizes the role of equity in shaping subsequent exchanges, where equity principle defined as "…a 'fair exchange' as one in which each party to an exchange receives an outcome in proportion to one's contributions to the exchange". Oliver (1996, p. 196) also defined equity as "…fairness, rightness, or deservingness comparison to other entities, whether real or imaginary, individual or collective, person or non-person".

Roedder (2001) posited that the equity theory provided the theoretical framework for studies that explored customer's evaluation of service recovery efforts. Similarly, Folger and Cropanzano (2001) put forward that the equity theory had been a tremendously influential model within different research areas, including customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction and CCB. Martinez-Tur et al. (2006, p. 103) claimed that "…for a long time, the concept of justice in the study of customer satisfaction has been considered synonymous with equity theory".

Adams' (1963; 1965) equity theory assumes that humans are motivated instrumentally in their relationships with others based on economic gains. To be more specific, this theory asserts that individuals compare their outcome/input ratios with those of others and with whom they are in a relationship (Adams, 1963). The basis for comparison is the degree of equity that customers perceive between what they have received and what the other people have received relative to their respective inputs (Blodgett et al., 1997). According to the theory, satisfaction exists when an individual perceives that the outcome-to-input ratio is fair. Therefore, during the process of service recovery, not only are customers' expectations and needs important, but also their inputs (such as time, cost and effort).

Greenberg (1987), in his taxonomical paper, summarized both empirical and theoretical studies and concluded that equity theory has the explanatory potential in context of consumer satisfaction and complaining. Similarly, Fisher et al. (1999) reported the significance of relationships between equity perceptions, negative WOM communication activities and repeat purchase intentions. Lapidus and Pinkerton (1995) utilized equity theory based upon a sample of students to determine the effects of equity and outcomes in customer complaint situations. The results revealed that equity is a significant determinant of complaining intention and post-recovery satisfaction. Equity theory also became the basis of many doctoral theses, which further confirmed the robustness of the theory and linked it to job satisfaction and intention to leave (Leung, 1988), consumer satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Huang, 1994; Hui et al., 2011) and attitudes and behaviors (Roedder, 2001).

Deutsch (1985) argued that equity is not the only distributive rule that affects peoples' fairness perceptions. He proposed the use of 'need' and 'equality', where 'need' refers to whether the outcome meets the requirements of the recipient, and 'equality' demands that all parties receive the same outcome regardless of contributions. This addition to Adams' theory gained support from many researchers (Folger, & Cropanzano, 2001; Greenberg, 1990; Oliver, & Swan, 1989). Adams' original theory (1963; 1965) and Deutsch's (1985) extended theory, have both been used within the context of CCB and found to be a sound theoretical framework for many studies (Bhandari et al., 2007; Goodwin, & Ross, 1992; Mattila, & Wirtz, 2004).

2.5.1.2 Theory of Cognitive Dissonance

Festinger (1957) first defined dissonance as the psychologically uncomfortable state following the act of choosing between a set of alternatives, each of which has desirable attributes. In other words, dissonance is the doubt and unpleasant state of tension generated after a decision made between alternatives. In a broader sense, the theory argues that when one experiences great discomfort, or when his/her thoughts and actions are not consistent, it is more likely that she/he will do something to eliminate this inconsistency. Cummings and Venkatesan (1976), in their critical review of cognitive dissonance theory, supported this theory in explaining service encounters with high dissonance, such as high financial cost or ego.

There are two assumptions or requirements of this theory whereby it may be necessary to demonstrate that: (a) dissonance could be experienced as a negative and intrapersonal state and (b) this negative intrapersonal state is alleviated on implementation of a reduction strategy (Blau, 1964; Adams, 1965). After meeting these assumptions, Schiffman and Kanuk (2004, p. 280-281) underscored that "…when cognitive dissonance occurs after a purchase, it is called post-purchase dissonance…[in which case]…attitude change is frequently an outcome of an action or behavior". Thus, marketers, in order to reduce dissonance, should design promotional activities that underline the appropriateness of their purchase decision or should offer some stronger guarantees or warranties (Kotler, & Keller, 2008; Solomon, 1992).

In the service failure context, this inconsistency is argued to be disappointment experienced by the customer of which results in a series of actions, or complaining behaviors, to eliminate the inconsistency (Boshoff, & Leong, 1998; McCollough, 2000; Zins, 2002). Cognitive dissonance theory fortifies that "…service failures that are perceived as 'inconsistent' must generate sufficient feelings of discomfort or tension to motivate a consumer to do something about the negative state of affairs" (Solomon, 1992, p. 142). If a disparity exists between service expectations and performance of the service received, in other words a service failure, consumers may try to reduce their psychological tension generated by the feeling of being mistreated and/or hurt, by changing their behavior toward that particular service (O'Neill, & Palmer, 2004).

Yi (1990, p. 85) put forward the main problem with this theory as "…it is difficult to demonstrate that disconfirmation does indeed arouse dissonance…at this point unambiguous evidence of disconfirmation is one necessary condition for the dissonance effect to occur". His doubts were mainly on the investigation of the phenomenon and the validity of the experiments conducted. Whilst criticized because of the methodological issues, many CCB researchers utilized the cognitive dissonance theory as a base for their work (Boshoff, & Leong, 1998; Zins, 2002). Likewise, Durvasula, Lysonski and Mehta (2000, p. 436) insisted that the "…theory of cognitive dissonance allows us to gain a better appreciation of the psychological dynamics that operate when clients are unhappy with service activities".

2.5.1.3 Social Exchange Theory

Baumeister (2005) advocated the well-known cliché 'human is a social animal' and stated that as social creatures we do need each other for physical and psychological reasons. Those reasons can be the needs underpinned by Maslow in his famous 'Hierarchy of Needs', namely physiological, safety and security, social, ego and self-actualization needs (Maslow, 1943). In a human society, to fulfill any of these needs an exchange is required.

In relation to social exchange theory, investigating these exchange processes is one the most influential conceptual paradigms. The theory involves a series of interaction, usually seen as interdependent and contingent on the actions of another person, which generate some obligations (Blau, 1964). The theory also emphasizes that these interdependent transactions have the potential to generate high-quality relationships, although this will only occur under certain circumstances. Patterson and Smith (2003) fortified the theory attempts to account for the emergence, persistence and demise of social relationships. This is whereby people assess their reward/cost ratio when engaging in, and deciding whether or whether not to, maintain a social relationship. Cropanzano, Prehar and Chen

(2002) urged that the explanatory value of the theory be felt in such diverse areas as social power, hence used by various disciplines in studying and analyzing social interaction.

Consumer behavior in general and CCB in particular are no exemptions (Susskind, 2004). For instance, Boshoff and Allen (2000) based their theoretical framework on social exchange theory by examining frontline staffs' perceptions of service recovery performance. They reported that "…the service provider benefits both extrinsically (financial rewards) and intrinsically (job fulfillment) through satisfying the customer and, secondly, that pro-social behavior is more likely to occur when the service provider is in a positive mood" (Boshoff, & Allen, 2000, p. 71).

Smith et al. (1999) stressed that the social exchange theory highlights the role of justice. This is because it relates to the allocation of costs and benefits in achieving equitable exchange relationships, particularly in the case of service failure where the damage has already occurred within the exchange relationship. Mattila (2001b) used social exchange theory to describe service recovery "…as an exchange in which the customer experiences a loss while the service organization tries to make up that loss by a recovery attempt" (p. 587). Correspondingly, Kerr (2004) and Smith et al. (1999) advocated that the magnitude of resources and expectation invested in a service should be in balance with perceived service performance in order to have a smooth running exchange between customer and service provider. In other words, the theory emphasizes the role of distributive or exchange considerations in shaping interpersonal relations (Tax et al., 1998), as well as service encounters. Recommendations by Tax et al. (1998), regarding the relationship between service provider and customer, were also supported by the works of Lawler and Thye (1999) and Lo et al., (2010).

From the three dominant theories in consumer behavior, cognitive dissonance are considered more 'personal' and psychology based where the remaining two are either 'economical' or 'social'. Martinez-Tur et al. (2006, p. 103) highlighted the main difference between equity and social exchange theories as "…interpersonal aspects are relatively neglected in equity theory because they are conceptualized only in outcome oriented terms…in contrast, a more relationship-centered approach to social exchange is present in the concepts of procedural and interactional justice". Thus, a combination of these three theories may enhance the theoretical framework of the present study and provide a broader coverage of relevant literature.

2.5.1.4 Fairness Theory

Folger and Cropanzano (1998, 2001) proposed the fairness theory, derived from referent cognitions theory, as a way of integrating much of the organizational justice research. The theory assumes that consumers, in this case – complainants, engage in an extensive thinking process (a form of cognitive mechanism) following a negative event, such as a service failure encounter (Sparks, & Fredline, 2007). The theory has two assumptions: (i) there must be someone accountable and (ii) people engage in a thinking process. Both accountability and counterfactual thinking play central roles in assessing the perception of fairness in service failure and recovery situations.

For the first assumption, Ok et al. (2005) urged that when unfairness has been perceived, the complainant should seek to determine responsibility for the offense with the motive and intention to find out the wrongdoer. This search for the person accountable is fundamental to the fairness theory as if there is nobody to blame, the hurt party cannot complain. Within the service encounter, it will be the company providing the disappointing service being perceived as the accountable body.

In applying the fairness theory to service failure situations, Folger and Cropanzano (2001) claimed that there are three core interrelated components of accountability for consideration. Firstly, there must be a negative event, (such as a service failure), that does harm to the customer or falls below his/her expectation. Secondly, with regard to the event, there must be an element of perceived volitional control over actions taken (such as the service provider having an alternative action). Thirdly, the actions taken perceived to violate normative or ethical standards (such as discourteousness) (Folger, & Cropanzano, 1998).

The second assumption is the thinking process, labeled as 'counterfactual thinking' or thinking 'what might have been', which plays an important role in finding someone to blame for the things that went wrong (Roese, 2000). The theory suggests that individuals react to failures by forming 'could', 'should' and 'would' counterfactuals, or mental simulations of events contrary to the facts (Colquitt, 2004). For instance, a hotel guest perceiving treatment of impoliteness by the front office employee may think, 'If only the front office employee smiled and treated me politely, I would have felt so much happier'. In this case, the guest considers, in three contrastive actions: "…what *could* have occurred (being served with a smile), what *should* have occurred (being treated politely), and how it *would* have felt had alternative action been taken (feeling happier)…" (McColl-Kennedy, & Sparks, 2003, p. 254).

After the introduction of the fairness theory by Folger and Cropanzano (1998; 2001), several researchers based their studies on the fairness theoretical framework and tested its applicability in different settings (Colquitt, 2004; McColl-Kennedy, & Sparks, 2003; Ok et al., 2005; Shaw, Wild, & Colquitt, 2003). Although some of them found empirical support, others did not. Specifically, Collie, Sparks and Bradley (2000) stated that there is comparatively little empirical evidence directly supporting fairness theory in the relevant literature. Similarly, Sparks and Fredline (2007) reported contradicting results with those of Folger and Cropanizano (1998; 2001). By considering these inconsistencies and lack of empirical support, one should be cautious in basing his/her research solely on the fairness theory. For these reasons, while acknowledging the potential of this theory, the present study will not use the fairness theory to base the theoretical framework on.

2.5.2 Justice Perceptions in Service Failure and CCB Context

Berry, Parasuraman and Zeithaml (1994, p. 40) underlined that "…customers expect service companies to treat them fairly and become resentful and mistrustful when they perceive otherwise". They also argued that intangibility of services heightens customers' sensitivity to fairness issues. Sustaining this argument, Cropanzano et al. (2002) emphasized that understanding customers' justice perceptions are particularly important within the service context and doing so allows companies to strengthen existing relationships with their customers. Similarly, Blodgett and Anderson (2000, p. 322) put forward that "…the subsequent behavior of complainants is dependent mainly on their perceptions of justice, (e.g., their overall evaluation of the retailer's response to complaints)". Customers who perceive that they have received a fair solution, recovery might consequently feel satisfied, increase their re-patronage and engage in positive WOM (Blodgett et al., 1997; Ekiz et al., 2008; Tax et al., 1998; Wang, & Yao, 2011; Yoda, & Kamakura, 2007). Perhaps that is why the above defined fairness theories are repeatedly used as the basis for studies investigating justice perceptions in service failure and CCB contexts (for example, Oliver, & Swan, 1989; Tyler, 1994). Colquitt et al. (2001) stated that the term justice means 'oughtness' or 'righteousness' in psychology literature. Keeping this overall meaning in mind, Davidow (2003b, p. 69) defined perceived recovery justice as "…a sequence of events in which a procedure generates a process of interaction and decision making through which an outcome is allocated to someone".

When a service fails to meet the customers' expectations, dissatisfaction can occur and consumers can feel wrongly treated. In this case, consumers are likely to attribute a degree of responsibility to the organization, leading to feelings of injustice (Bach, & Kim, 2012; Goodwin, & Ross, 1989). Thus, Andreassen (2000) fortified that complainants focused on restoring justice and that his/her judgment of satisfaction was driven by perceived fairness through the outcome of complaining. Schoefer and Ennew (2004, p. 293) claimed that "…in the context of service failure and recovery encounters, perceived justice is increasingly identified as a key cognitive antecedent of satisfaction with service recovery". In fact, an escalating amount of published work provides support to this claim (Blodgett et al., 1997; Gursoy et al., 2007; Kau, & Loh, 2006; Martinez-Tur et al., 2006; Smith et al., 1999, Tax et al., 1998).

Although Martinez-Tur (2006, p. 102) claimed "…there is a lack of empirical studies on the topic [investigation of relationships between justice dimensions and loyalty]". A review of CCB literature showed that researchers frequently used organizational justice as a mediating factor to further explain the relationship between service recovery activities and post-purchase customer behaviors (Davidow, 2000a, 2003a; Ekiz et al., 2005; Mattila, 2001b; McCollough et al., 2000; Schoefer, & Ennew, 2004).

Previous studies suggest that justice perceptions were likely to have a significant influence on customer satisfaction through the complaint handling procedure. This also increases their loyalty to the organization through increasing their re-purchase intensions and actual re-purchases and decreasing their negative WOM communication (Davidow, 2000a; Gilly, 1987; Gilly, & Gelb, 1982; Gursoy et al., 2006; Lovelock, 2000; Mattila, 2001b; Maxham III, & Netemeyer, 2002). For instance, Oliver and Swan (1989) found empirical support to justice and post-recovery behaviors. They found that (i) complainant's loyalty intention was a primary function of justice perceptions, and (ii) justice had a strong role in the formation of intention of future interaction with the company. Other researchers also supported these two important findings (Blodgett, & Anderson, 2000; Gursoy et al., 2007; McColl-Kennedy, & Sparks, 2003).

Furthermore, as the result of fair complaint handling procedures, complainants' were likely to absorb some of the negative emotions arising during the initial failure and have complaint satisfaction (Schoefer, & Ennew, 2005). Thus, some researchers have focused on the relationship between justice perceptions and customers' emotions and the direct and indirect effects on customers' post-recovery behavior (Casado-Diaz, Mas-Ruiz, &

Kasper, 2007; Chebat, & Slusarczyk, 2005; Lo et al., 2010; Schoefer, & Ennew, 2005). Results show that perceived justice has a significant direct and indirect effect on recovery satisfaction, loyalty to the company and re-purchase intentions.

Hoffman et al. (1995) put forward that much of the published CCB literature agreed that while evaluating recovery and formulating justice perceptions, three factors were important. These factors are outcomes of recovery strategy, rules developed to aid the interaction and interpersonal behaviors enacted during the recovery process.

Smith et al. (1999) insisted that the complainants' judgment on fairness was a composite measure of perceived justice, which included the outcome, process and interaction components. Tax et al. (1998), in their frequently cited paper, investigated the existing discussion of justice in different disciplines and proposed a three dimensional concept of justice in the service recovery context. Their dimensions are as follows, distributive justice (dealing with decision outcomes), procedural justice (dealing with decision-making procedures) and interactional justice (dealing with interpersonal behavior in the enactment of procedure and delivery of outcomes). Some researchers argued that the last item can and should be further divided into two sub-dimensions, that being interpersonal and informational justice (Alice, Hon, & Lu, 2011; Colquitt, 2001; Mattila, & Cranage, 2005; Wang, & Mattila, 2011). The section below extends the definitions of these dimensions and provides a thorough review of published work related to these dimensions.

2.5.2.1 Distributive Justice

Tyler (1994) argued that justice research, which began after World War II, had two main waves: researchers first focused on outcomes and their fair distribution (such as Adams, 1963; 1965), and then on the manner in which outcomes were derived (Blau, 1964). Following his argument, this section will first review the existing work on the distributive function of justice, followed by the review of more social aspects of justice such as the process and interaction.

The distributive dimension of justice perceptions has received the most research attention throughout various disciplines. There may be two possible reasons for this. Firstly, in most cases, the complainants go through the actual complaining process unless the loss is significant to them (Kerr, 2004) thus, most of the addressed complaints involved comparatively higher financial loss. For instance, a flight connection missed due to a mistake made by an inexperienced travel consultant may create a situation where the customer needs to extend his/her stay (additional room cost) and buy a new airline ticket (additional ticket cost). The second reason may be the comparative ease of assessing the cost. In other words, when the loss is easier to express (as in the above case), the complainant can add on the additional costs for room, ticket and other items to claim a total sum lost from the irresponsible travel agent.

Austin (1979, p. 130) defined distributive justice as "…the justness of resource distribution between individuals, between groups, within each of these social bonds across time, or across different bonds and time (trans-relational, multi-group, or intergenerational)". Goodwin and Ross (1990, p. 55-56) described distributive justice as "…perceived fairness of resource allocation, such as the relationship between investment and return". Maxham

III and Netemeyer (2002) stressed that, based on equity theories, distributive justice focused on the role of 'equity', whereby individuals assessed the fairness of an exchange by comparing their inputs to outcomes in order to form an equity score. Considering this general theorization, Blodgett and Tax (1993) accentuated that distributive justice referred to the perceived fairness of the redress (e.g., in the form of a refund, free gifts, coupons exchange, discount or repair), offered by the company. In the context of CCB, distributive justice referred to perceived fairness of the recovery provided to complainants in order to offset the losses caused by the failing service (Blodgett et al., 1997; Kau, & Loh, 2006; Kelley et al., 1993).

Previous studies that examined the effects of different components of perceived justice concluded that distributive justice, or perceived fairness to the redress offered, had more influence on immediate cognitive evaluation than other types of justice (Goodwin, & Ross, 1989; Mattila, 2001b; Smith et al., 1999). Consistent with this, Teo and Lim (2001) found distributive justice as the most important predictor of retail satisfaction among Chinese students in Singapore. Yim et al. (2003) concluded that complaining consumers often described distributive justice-related issues such as compensation, as their main concern. Tax et al. (1998) investigated different justice perceptions. They did this by utilizing a series of content analysis of qualitative evaluations of service complaint experiences. From this, they concluded that compensation was the most important recovery dimension associated with customers' perceptions of distributive justice. Davidow's (2003b) findings also supported that out of three justice perceptions distributive justice was the most important dimension affecting complainants' satisfaction, re-purchase and WOM intentions.

Studies suggested that there is a direct positive relationship between perceived distributive justice and satisfaction with complaint handling (Blodgett et al., 1997; Gursoy et al. 2006, 2007; Tax, & Chandrashekaran, 1992; Wirtz, & Mattila, 2004). Goodwin and Ross (1990) showed that compensation, as a form of distributive justice, was a strategy for restoring equity in an exchange relationship, whereby one party was harmed by the other. Mattila (2001b) investigated the effectiveness of service recovery in a multi-industry setting, and concluded similarly that provision of tangible compensation had a strong positive effect on complainants' satisfaction and loyalty ratings. More recently, Martinez-Tur et al. (2006) found distributive justice to be a critical predictor of customer satisfaction within a hotel and restaurant setting in Spain. On the other hand, Blodgett, Wakefield and Barnes's (1995) results revealed that complainants who perceived a lack of distributive justice were much more likely to have engaged in post-redress negative word-of-mouth behavior, and were less likely to re-patronize the seller.

McCollough (2000) stated that distributive justice can be conceptualized with monetary gains (customers' evaluations of how much they are compensated financially) as well as non-monetary, involving such intangibles as emotions (anger and embarrassment), complaining costs (time and effort), and ego. Nonetheless, the main idea behind distributive justice was to compare costs or losses due to the failure, with benefits, or redress given by the company. However, it may not always be possible to have the knowledge to do this comparison. Thus, McColl-Kennedy and Sparks (2003, p. 253) stressed that "…evaluating the fairness of an outcome may be quite difficult, especially when other customers' outcomes for similar scenarios are unknown". Therefore, customers placed great emphasis on perceived procedural and interactional actions in assessing the fairness of a service recovery process.

2.5.2.2 Procedural Justice

Where existing CCB literature focuses on justice, it suggests that complainants are not only concerned with 'what they get', but also heavily consider 'how they get' it. Goodwin and Ross (1990, p. 56) noted "…what should have been pleasure with a completely positive outcome may be overshadowed by discontent with procedures used to arrive at that outcome". In a similar vein, Leventhal (1976) stressed that people mostly believed that fair procedures were necessary pre-conditions for the establishment and maintenance of overall satisfaction, thus he advocated that unless people received fair procedures, they were likely to believe that overall fairness was violated. Sparks and McColl-Kennedy (2001, p. 211) emphasized, "customer satisfaction is not merely based on the ultimate outcome of service recovery but also upon the procedures used to reach an outcome".

Seiders and Berry (1998) investigated justice literature and posited six principles that they argued to be highly applicable to the service failure context, in that they make a procedure just. These principles and their brief explanations are as follows; consistency (same behavior across process and time), bias suppression (prevention of self-interest), accuracy (minimal amount of errors), correction (chance for reversal), representativeness (values reflect all subgroups) and ethicality (consistency with ethical and moral values) (Seiders, & Berry, 1998). These six principles are highly related to recovery actions and received support from other scholars (Blodgett et al., 1995; Colquitt, 2004; Greenberg, 1990; Houston, & Bettencourt, 1999).

Blodgett et al. (1995) stressed that overall fairness perception in a failure encounter was multi-dimensional that required not only the provision of a just outcome but also the manner in which it was provided. In light of the above discussion, Gursoy et al. (2007, p. 5) defined procedural justice as "…perceived fairness of policies, procedures and tools used to handle complaints and the amount of time taken to deal with a complaint". Similarly, McCollough (2000) underscored that procedural justice concerns the perceived fairness of the means used to determine the distribution of output. An example of procedural justice in the hospitality context would be the availability of a hotel's policies on overbooking and recovery.

An investigation into existing CCB literature revealed that procedural justice is an important component of overall justice perception (Collie, Bradley, & Sparks, 2002; Schoefer & Ennew, 2005; Shaw et al., 2003). Studies suggest that perception of procedural justice affected service recovery outcomes (Davidow, 2003b; Maxham III, & Netemeyer, 2002). For instance, Hoffman and Bateson (2006) implied that procedural justice perception was formed based upon processes undertaken to arrive at an outcome. In other words, complainants form their procedural justice perceptions based on their personal experiences with a company's complaint handling procedure. Hoffman and Bateson (2006) and Karande et al. (2007) argued that even though a customer may be satisfied with the type of recovery strategy offered, recovery evaluation could be poor due to the process endured to obtain the recovery outcome.

Although few studies found statistical support for the relationship between procedural justice and post-recovery behaviors (for example Blodgett et al., 1997) found that, in retailing, procedural justice did not affect consumers' re-patronage and negative WOM intentions), the overwhelming majority of the research supported the relationship. In other words, it was argued that, if customers believe that policies, procedures and tools used to handle a complaint are just, they are more likely to be satisfied with the solution and be involved in positive WOM behavior. Therefore, they are less likely to stop using the product (Andreassen, 2000; Bitner et al., 1990; Davidow, 2003a, 2003b; Gursoy et al. 2007; Kelley et al., 1993; Tax et al., 1998). Hocutt et al. (1997) using a scenario based questionnaire with conveniently selected undergraduate students in the United States, found strong positive relationships between procedural justice, recovery satisfaction and intention to spread WOM communication. Similarly, Mattila and Cranage (2005) found procedural justice to be highly linked to post-recovery satisfaction by the use of student sample scenarios. Gursoy et al. (2006) concluded that procedural justice had a significant impact on complainant's satisfaction judgment as well as their re-purchase intentions. Teo and Lim (2001) found procedural justice as the most important predictor of re-patronage intention by using Chinese students in Singapore.

Although justice research focused primarily on distributive and procedural dimensions, individuals facing a problem also consider the fairness of interpersonal treatment they receive while the dispute is being resolved (Martinez-Tur et al., 2006). Procedural justice deals with functional issues such as having the required policies for a just solution, whereby interpersonal justice deals with interpersonal issues. The following section defines and summarizes the interactional aspect of justice perceptions.

2.5.2.3 Interactional Justice

Bies and Moag (1986) were among the first to study the interaction of justice perceptions and label them as ‘interactional justice’. Their work inspired other researchers to investigate processes separately from interpersonal relations. Consistent with their recommendations, Davidow (2003b) defined interactional justice as fairness of interpersonal communications during a complaint handling and recovery process. Customers form interactional justice perceptions based on how they have been treated during a recovery process. This is based upon evaluation of their representative’s courtesy, empathy, politeness, concern and neutrality during their interaction (Mattila, & Patterson, 2004a). McColl-Kennedy and Sparks (2003, p. 253) noted that “…interpersonal sensitivity, treating people with dignity and respect or providing explanations for the events…” are among the elements that form interactional justice.

McCollough (2000) stated that interpersonal aspects of the encounter are the main focal points of this dimension, rather than what was received and under which rules.. Similarly, the interactional aspects include but are not limited to, provision of an explanation and apology, courtesy, empathy, politeness, concern and neutrality, truthfulness, respect, justification for treatment, friendliness, sensitivity, interest, honesty, assurance, directness and concern (Bitner et al., 1990; Blodgett et al., 1995; Karatepe, & Ekiz, 2004; Mattila, & Patterson, 2004b; Smith et al., 1999; Tax et al., 1998; Weiner, 2006).

Studies suggest that customers’ perception of fairness of interactional justice heavily influences customers’ evaluation of service recovery (Blodgett, & Tax, 1993; Maxham III,

& Netemeyer, 2002). Folger and Cropanzano (1998) and Collie et al. (2000) posited that interactional justice proves to be a more important moderator of reaction to unfairness than either procedural or distributive justice is, because greater ambiguity potentially exists here as opposed to the moral accountability of both procedural structures and tangible outcomes. Collie et al. (2000) also argued that perceived fairness of interpersonal treatment during a conflict resolution process was likely to significantly influence customers' satisfaction with complaint handling and convert unhappy customers into loyal ones, thus increasing the probability of those customers' involvement in positive WOM. Sparks and McColl-Kennedy (1998, 2001) concluded that interaction between the company representative and complainant had significant impact on post-purchase behavior such as repatronage and WOM communication. Moreover, Goodwin and Ross (1992), in their highly quoted study, investigated the effects of both procedural and interpersonal justice on complainant satisfaction, suggesting that interactional justice related positively to the satisfaction decision within the service failure encounter. Specifically, when retail personnel apologize for their mistakes, customers end up feeling more satisfied. Yim et al. (2003) in their quest to find antecedents of service recovery expectations gave special emphasis to interactional issues. They reported that related expectations of interaction by complainants closely related to satisfaction with the company and therefore their long-term loyalty assured.

Although the three factor models (distributive, procedural and interactional) of perceived justice received robust theoretical and empirical support, (Ekiz, 2009; Goodwin, & Ross, 1992; Kau, & Loh, 2006; Nikbin et al., 2012; Schoefer, & Ennew, 2004; Smith, & Bolton, 2002; Sparks, & McColl-Kennedy, 2001; Voorhees, & Brady, 2005), some researchers elaborated on interactional justice and further divided it into two sub-dimensions, being interpersonal and informational justice, (Greenberg, 1990, 1993; Wang, & Yao, 2011). Bies and Moag's (1986) proposed four areas of criteria concerning interactional justice, these being justification (explaining reasons), truthfulness (being straightforward), respect (being polite), and propriety (refraining from prejudicial statements), were built on by Greenberg who first classified them under 'explanation' and 'sensitivity' labels (Greenberg, 1990). He then he re-labeled them as 'interactional and informational justice' (Greenberg, 1993). Interactional justice was conceptualized as "…degree to which people are treated with politeness, dignity and respect…" (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001, p. 427). Accordingly, informational justice was defined as "…information about why procedures were used in a certain way or why outcomes were distributed in a certain fashion" (Colquitt et al., 2001, p. 427). Even though this four-factor model was used in recent studies, particularly in the organizational behavior setting (Colquitt, 2001, 2004; Colquitt et al., 2001; Mattila, & Cranage, 2005), it suffered from validity and reliability problems and generated inconsistent results (Colquitt, 2001, 2004).

Nabatchi, Bingham and Good (2007) proposed a six-factor model in perceived justice. They argued that existing, two-factor (distributive - procedural), three-factor (distributive - procedural-interpersonal) and four-factor (distributive - procedural - interpersonal - informational) models failed to differentiate the 'process' and 'mediator' effect of procedural and informational justice dimensions. Thus, they split procedural justice as 'procedural justice - process' and 'procedural justice - mediator' as well as 'interpersonal justice - disputant-disputant' and 'interpersonal justice - disputant-mediator' (Nabatchi et al., 2007).

Based on the review of literature, it is evident that complainants' justice perceptions during a recovery episode have a tremendous impact on their post-recovery behaviors. For this reason, the justice perceptions dimensions (distributive, procedural and interactional) has been used for the main proposed model of this study to link tourist complaint constraints to re-purchase intentions.

2.6 Loyalty Intention

Over the past few decades, there have been tremendous changes in consumerism in both theory and practice. Two major reasons for these changes are (i) ever increasing competition and (ii) raising awareness levels of consumers about their rights, leading firms to invest in increasing quality and satisfying their customers (Anderson, & Sullivan, 1993; Kotler, & Keller, 2008). This focus on customer satisfaction affected the way that businesses operated (Zeithaml, & Bitner, 2000). Academic research has also been affected by this change, with the initial focus in the 1960's and 1970's on quality and quality control. This shifted toward customer satisfaction during the 1980's and 1990's (Berry, Parasuraman, & Zeithaml, 1994; Churchill, & Surprenant, 1982). As Keiningham, Cooil, Aksoy, Andreassen and Weiner (2007, p. 362) stated "…enhancing customer loyalty has become a popular topic [starting from those years] for managers, consultants, and academics". The main reason for the focus was the fact that having a pool of loyal customers is very important for the success of any business. Keiningham et al. (2007, p. 362) further justified this argument by claiming that "...loyal customers are reported to have higher customer retention rates, commit a higher share of their category spending to the firm, and are more likely to recommend others to become customers of the firm".

Most of the early research conceptualized loyalty simply as choosing a particular company and/or brand for repeat business (Grönroos, 1990). Some researchers argued that when a customer is loyal to a company s/he is highly likely to discuss that particular company. This referral/recommendation usually occurs in the form of WOM communication. Thus, Zeithaml et al. (1996) in their highly cited paper conceptualized loyalty as the combination of re-purchase intentions and recommendations of the company via positive WOM. This conceptualization was consistent with previous published work (Hirschman, 1970; Kasper, 1988; Yi, 1990) and got strong theoretical and empirical support from the following studies (Andreassen, 1999; Dowding et al., 2000; Jones, & Farquhar, 2007; Yoo-Kyoung, & Chen, 2011). Mattila (2001a, p. 93) supported this conceptualization of loyalty by arguing that "… [it] is also consistent with relationship marketing… [whose goal]…is to increase future purchases and to spread positive WOM recommendations". … noted that investigating loyalty intentions of the customers provides deeper insight on their overall post-purchase behavior (Andreassen, 1999; Buttle, & Burton, 2002). For these reasons, as consistent with the previous research (Goodman, 2006; Jones, & Farquhar, 2007; Lee, & Back, 2009; Yuksel, & Yuksel, 2007), the present study theorizes loyalty intention to be a function of satisfaction and revisit/repurchase intensions. Moreover, loyalty intention, as a post-recovery behavior, characterizes satisfaction from recovery action, resulting in re-purchase intentions and recommendations of the organization.

Oliver (1999, p. 34) defined loyalty, in detail, as "…a deeply held commitment to re-buy or re-patronize a preferred product/service consistently in the future, thereby causing repetitive same-brand or same brand-set purchasing, despite situational influences and marketing efforts having the potential to cause switching behavior". Loyalty's components of repurchase intention and WOM communication can be defined through the following information. *Repurchase intention* occurs *w*hen customers praise the firm and express preference for that company over others. It means that they are likely to re-purchase the products or services of the company and/or to increase the volume of their purchases (Zeithaml et al., 1996). *Word of mouth (WOM) communication* refers to the informal verbal exchange of positive or negative information about a business's products and/or services. Davidow (2003b, p. 68) differentiated the WOM dissemination between that of "how likely is it that a customer will talk or has talked to other people" and the WOM valance, which refers to the fact that "given that a person has engaged in WOM activity, on the whole, has this communication been mostly positive or mostly negative?".

Buttle and Burton (2002) argued that customer loyalty is, in essence, very similar to 'friendship', where one likes to be around his/her friends, with whom s/he feels happy (satisfied with the product/service). Even when service providers occasionally upset customers (dissatisfied from an encounter) as in friendship; one still forgives the service providers. If service providers make their customers happy (provide satisfactory service or recovery), customers will do their best to return the favor (actually re-purchase your product/service, be willing to pay more, have lower switching intention and disseminate positive WOM) (Andreassen, 1999; Buttle, & Burton, 2002; Goodman, 2006; Lin, & Mattila, 2006; Mattila, 2004).

Robbins and Miller (2004) highlighted that management and marketing literature has extensively covered the concept of customer loyalty, with its importance linked to profitability as being well documented. Some researchers argued that loyalty could be studied as an antecedent, for instance the antecedent of service recovery strategies (Craighead et al., 2004; Robbins, & Miller, 2004). In much of the published work, the consequence of factors was the main study area, such as customer satisfaction (Kasper, 1988; Levesque, & McDougall, 1993; Zeithaml et al., 1996), successful recovery (de Ruyter, & Wetzels, 2000) or justice perceptions (Severt, 2002). As mentioned in the section related to justice, perceived justice is positively related to loyalty intention. In other words, if the complainant perceives the provided recovery activities as just/fair, s/he is more likely to remain loyal to the organization (Blodgett, & Anderson, 2000; Gilly, & Hansen, 1992; Jacoby, & Jaccard, 1981; Singh, 1988). Following the recommendations of researchers, loyalty to the organization was considered an outcome variable within the current study, in other words a consequence of justice perception.

2.7 Culture

This section defines the concept and culture briefly, by using different viewpoints from various disciplines and discusses the different theoretical perspectives of studying culture which will be followed by a review of Hofstede's (1980, 1991, 2001) cultural dimensions. Thereafter, studies that supported as well as criticized his work, are summarized. This section will also provide an extensive review of the use of culture in consumer behavior studies with a special focus on complaining behavior.

2.7.1 Definitional Issues

Reisinger and Turner (2003, p. 4) underlined that culture is a "…complex multi-dimensional phenomenon that is difficult to define, showing hundreds of definitions presented in the literature that reflect this". To handle this challenge they reviewed different disciplines and provided a broad review. Table 2.3 includes definitions drawn from a wide range of disciplines to emphasize that culture has a multifaceted nature. Reisinger and Turner (2003), after studying and summarizing different perspectives, defined culture as:

> "…patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behavior acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiments in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional … ideas and especially their attached values; culture systems may, on the other hand, be considered as pre-cuts of actions, and on the other as conditioning elements of further actions" (Reisinger, & Turner, 2003, p. 11).

This research adopts Reisinger and Turner's (2003) definition as it summarizes the phenomenon from various perspectives and provides a wider scope. After defining 'culture', specific characteristics of culture that affect consumer behavior are explained. Hall (1980), Herbig (1998), Kroeber (1987) and Triandis (1994), put forward characteristics as follows: each culture has a function of providing guidelines (functional), culture results from human interaction (social phenomenon), culture contains regulations (prescriptive), one learns the culture (learned), culture is subject to judgments (arbitrary), culture tells us right and wrong (value laden), culture fosters both verbal and non-verbal communication (facilitates communication), culture constantly changes (dynamic), culture needs thousands of year to be formed (long term) and culture offers directions and guidelines (satisfies needs).

Table 2.3 Definitions of Culture

Perspective	Definition	Source*
Classical	…the complex whole which includes knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, law, customs, and habits acquired by man as a member of society	Tylor (1924, p. 1)
Human origin	…standards for deciding what is…what can be…what one feels about it, what to do about it, and…how to go about doing it	Goodenough (1961, p. 522)
Behavioral anthropology	…observable patterns of behavior associated with particular groups of people	Bagby (1953)
Functional	…set of rules for fitting human beings together into a social system	Radcliffe-Brown (1957, p. 102)
Behavioral and functional	…determines the conditions and circumstances under which the various behaviors occur	No source given
Cognitive anthropology	…system of knowledge, shaped by…the human brain	Keesing (1974, p. 89)
Symbol	…system of symbols and meanings that influence experiences	Schneider (1976)
Perception	…the sum of people's perceptions of themselves and the world	Urriola (1989, p. 66)
Subjective	…characteristic way of perceiving the environment	Triandis (1972)
Differences between people	…differences between groups of people who do things differently and perceive the world differently	Potter (1989)
Information and communication	…an information and communication system	Kluckhohn (1944)
Other	…social interaction, rules about behavior, perceptions, thoughts, language and non-verbal communication	Argyle (1978)

Source: Adopted from Reisinger and Turner, 2003, p. 4-9.

* It should be noted that these sources are those of Reisinger and Turner's (2003), therefore not listed in the References section of this study.

Hofstede (1991, p. 7) defined culture as "…collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another". Hofstede (1980, p. 15) also argued that "…every person's mental programming is partly unique, partly shared with others" and can be distinguished at three levels as shown in Figure 2.3. These three levels can be defined as human nature (what all human beings have in common and inherited with one's genes), culture (common to people belonging to a certain group or category which are learned) and personality (individual's unique personal set of mental programs and partially inherited modified/learned in time) (Hofstede, 1980, 1997).

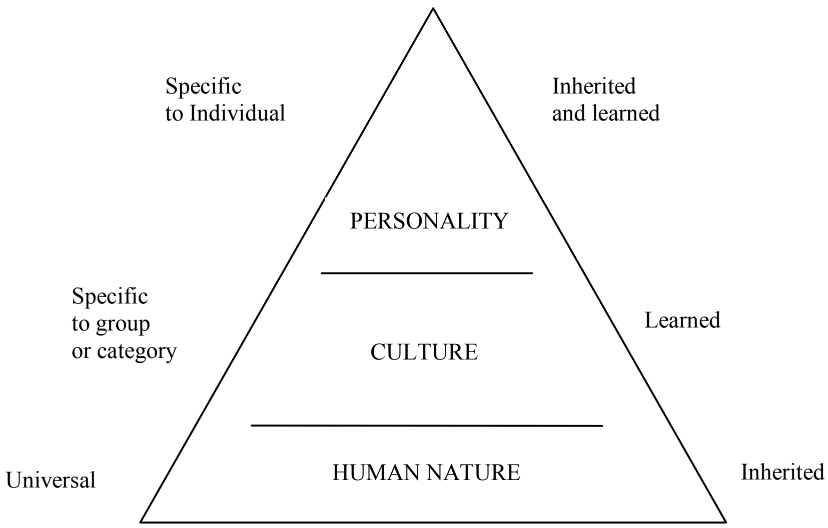

Figure 2.4 Three Levels of Uniqueness in Human Mental Programming

Source: Hofstede, 2001, p. 6.

Hall (1976), argued that 'culture' could also be considered in terms of being either high or low in the context of communication. He noted that:

> "…low context culture clearly displays meanings through direct…tends to use 'logic' to present ideas…tends to develop transitory personal relationships…values individualism" while high context culture "…implicitly embeds meanings at different levels of the socio-cultural context…tends to use more 'feeling' in expression…tends to take time to cultivate and establish a permanent personal relationship…values group sense" (Hall, 1976, p. 108-115).

Within dominant cultures, all members of the group share the same beliefs or norms. Sometimes smaller groups may have minor variations in their customs and behaviors. These groups are so-called sub-cultures (Hall, 1966; Triandis, 1994). However, Reisinger and Turner (2003, p. 297) limited the extent of culture in their study as "…a stable and dominant cultural character of a society shared by most of its individuals and remaining constant over a long period of time…not including sub-cultures of many ethnic groups living in a society…". The necessity to study culture and the importance of understanding cultural differences, are provided in the following section.

2.7.2 Importance of Studying Culture in Customer Complaining Behavior

The amount of cross-cultural contact is increasing at an unprecedented rate. Findlay (1998, p. 91) postulated that inter-cultural relations have become the fact of life "…since the late1960's, after the Western industrial countries began to conduct business in other parts of the world (particularly in Africa and Asia)". Dolnicar et al., 2008; Liu, Warden, Lee, & Huang, 2001) stated that, given the pervasiveness of cross-cultural contact, it is distressing to learn that this process is frequently ruined by conflict and/or misunderstanding. It is believed that a proportion of the problems in cross-national services also arise from differences in customers' cultural orientation which are highlighted by many scholars (Furrer, Liu, & Sudharshan, 2000; Hoare, Butcher, & O'Brien, 2011; Huang, 1994; Ogden, Ogden, & Schau, 2004; Sizoo, Iskat, Plank, & Serrie, 2003; Warden, Liu, Huang, & Lee, 2003). For instance, 'culture is increasingly recognized as a means to conceptualize cross-cultural phenomena, which is considered a fundamental requirement for analyses within different disciplines' (Hofstede, 2001). Hall (1976, 1980) insisted that 'cultural differences may cause serious misunderstandings and must be seriously considered'. Au, Law and Buhalis (2009a) stressed that cultural differences affect how consumers evaluate services and how they respond when services fail to fulfill their expectations. This is particularly so through interaction whereby exchange, in this case exchange of service in return for money, is required between parties.

However, some scholars admitted that they failed to do so. For instance, Hofstede (2001, p. 14), noted that he failed to consider Asian cultural values in his seminal work, when it was first published in 1980. He stated that "…it had not been encountered earlier can be attributed to a cultural bias in the minds of various scholars studying culture, including myself....we all shared a 'Western' way of thinking". Ndubisi and Ling (2005) argued "…most of the [consumer complaining related] studies were conducted in the West, with very little numbers focusing on the Asian context…" (p. 66). Similarly, Weiner (2006), who introduced the attribution theory, confessed that he failed to recognize the diversity within cultures, therefore how it affected one's attitude and behavior. He further stressed that "…antecedents (determinants) of constructs may differ between culture…[and]…a theorist must be alert for differences in culture" (Weiner, 2006, p. 65-68). What Weiner

(2006) stated above has also been stressed by previous researchers who warned both academia and industry to consider cultural differences by conducting research as well as service to a customer or while recovering from a failed service (Hui, & Au, 2001; Leung, & Stephan, 1998; Ngai et al., 2007; Warden et al., 2003). These and many more 'confessions' and/or 'recommendations' are readily available within literature that underpins the importance of studying culture.

Morris and Leung (2000) claimed that general cultural constructs (such as Hofstede's dimensions) are pertinent if the purpose of the study is to engage a broad cross-cultural comparison of customer behaviors especially in different situational contexts. Yet, plenty of theoretical and empirical studies within CCB literature suggest the opposite. For instance, Douglas (1997) underpinned that cultural alignment is the strongest predictor of preferences in a wide variety of fields.

Douglas (1997) and Berger (2007) further argued that knowing one's culture and its' characteristics may provide important implications for any industry serving a variety of customers from different cultural backgrounds. Culture is an important force that influences consumer decision-making (Crotts, 2004). People from different cultures have different preferences and expectations (Yuksel et al., 2006). There are fundamental differences in the way consumers evaluate products and services, as well as how they express (or not) their dissatisfaction (Huang, Huang, & Wu, 1996; Mok, & DeFranco, 1999; Richins, & Verhage, 1985; Watkins, & Liu, 1996). Furthermore, the ways in which consumers deal with dissatisfaction vary from country to country and culture to culture (Day et al., 1981).

Similarly, Huang (1994) and Mattila and Patterson (2004a, 2004b) highlighted that understanding cultural differences is likely to have implications for the globalization of services as well as solving possible problems with minimum loss to the company, particularly in service recovery encounters. Leung and Stephan (1998) also argued that a better understanding of how perceptions of injustice develop is essential for identifying strategies to prevent or reduce inter-cultural conflicts in service encounters.

In the case of service failure, the same service recovery strategy could be evaluated differently across cultures. This difference in perceptions would have a significant impact on customers' justice perceptions, complaint satisfaction and loyalty decisions (Steyn et al., 2011; Wong A., 2004). Weber, Hsu and Sparks (2011) stressed the importance of understanding the influence of culture in implementing effective recovery strategies. Moreover, there is a consensus in extant literature that perceptions of justice are dependent on culture (Hui, & Au, 2001; Mattila & Patterson, 2004a, 2004b). Cross-cultural comparisons help understand complaining or non-complaining behaviors (Kanousi, 2005). Furthermore, research that investigated cultural differences within the context of CCB highlights fundamental differences in the way consumers evaluate products and/or services as well as how they express their satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Becker, 2000; Hoare et al., 2011; Kanousi, 2005; Liu, & McClure, 2001; Ngai et al., 2007; Patterson, Cowley, & Prasongsukarn, 2006; Warden et al., 2003; Yuksel et al., 2006).

'Culture' was also found to be an important predictor of justice perceptions and many scholars advocated the use of culture in better understanding of consumers' justice perceptions (Au, Hui, & Leung, 2001; Hui, & Au, 2001; Lee, & Sparks, 2007; Leung, 1988; Leung, & Lind, 1986; Leung, & Stephan, 1998; Lind, Tyler, & Huo, 1997; Mattila & Patterson, 2004a, 2004b; Tsang, & Ap, 2007b; Weber et al., 2011). Therefore, it is necessary to analyze how customers from different cultural backgrounds behave in service failure encounters and form their justice perceptions and post-recovery decisions such as loyalty to the service provider. Considering all recommendations, the present study investigates the effect of culture on (i) justice perceptions of service recovery efforts and (ii) loyalty intention.

2.7.3 Hofstede's Culture Dimensions

In 1980, Professor Geert Hofstede, a Dutch social psychologist, published the *Culture's Consequences*, "…the book which opened wide the door of comparative cultural analysis in business and elsewhere, as a tool for both academics and practitioners" (Hoppe, 2004, p. 75). During his six-year work experience at the IBM Company, Hofstede was a psychologist, founder and head of the personnel research department, which allowed him access to the data collected in a series of surveys between 1968 and 1972. The main purpose of the surveys was to uncover work related values of 116,000 IBM workers in 40 different countries worldwide (Hofstede, 1980). Hofstede, then, analyzed the data by using mean scores of the following:

> "…identically stratified samples of employees within each of 40 countries for which the number of native employees was judged sufficiently large to allow reliable comparison…In addition, the database contained the results of two successive survey rounds four years apart (1968-1972), and only those questions were retained

for analysis for which the ordering of countries over this period remained significantly constant, eliminating short-term effects (Hofstede, 2007a, p. 17).

Results of his analysis let him develop four dimensions of national culture which later he defined as "…constructs, which have to prove their usefulness by their ability to explain and predict behavior" (Hofstede, 2002a, p. 5). He published his four dimensional model in *Culture's Consequences* (Hofstede, 1980) then updated it by including new findings, his fifth dimension and responses to critics of his work (Hofstede, 2001). By using specific formulas, (what he called 'simple math') to make the results comparable across countries, Hofstede calculated one score for each dimension, ranging from 0 and 100, for each country. His initial four dimensions were 'Power Distance' (PDI) to be large or small, 'Individualism versus Collectivism' (IDV) to be one or the other, 'Uncertainty Avoidance' (UAI) to be strong or weak and 'Masculinity versus Femininity' (MAS) to be one or the other. Hofstede and Bond (1988) introduced the fifth dimension, which is 'Long-Term Orientation or Confucian Dynamism' (LTO) to be high or low. Appendix 1 has the entire list of countries forming the initial studies and others added later.

In the same paper, they also provided responses to the question of 'why develop a set of *dimensions*?' Hofstede and Bond (1988, p. 10) justified the necessity of developing cultural dimensions by stating "…if culture is as important in determining the fate of nations as [Herman] Kahn and others assume it to be, how then do we learn about cultures? Mere description will not do; we need an approach that allows comparisons between countries - that is, an identification of cultural variations". Culture dimensions, by Hofstede (1980, 2001), as reviewed below.

Power Distance (PDI): Power distance indicates "…the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in… [society] is distributed unequally" (Hofstede, 1980, p. 92). The important point here is that those who have power (top level) do not force this inequality but rather members of the group (lower level) accept this without objection. Hofstede (2001) advocated that inequality is available in all societies but he argued that in some cultures these inequalities are more acceptable.

In a society with high power distance (PDI) relationships between service provider and customer, like all phases of social life, it is affected. In a high PDI society, it is difficult to access people in high power. If a customer faces a problem, they most probably will not complain to a higher authority (Lee, & Sparks, 2007). In cases whereby they do complain, they particularly ask a senior person to solve the problem (Mattila, 1999a; Warden et al., 2003). These and other studies posited a strong effect of PDI on CCB particularly, thus this study will further investigate this relationship.

Individualism versus Collectivism (IND): Individualism/collectivism is the major dimension of cultural variability studied by many theorists across disciplines (Hall, 1976; Hofstede, 1980). Individualism stands for "…a preference for a loosely knit social framework in society wherein individuals are supposed to take care of themselves and their immediate family only (Chanchani, & Theivanathampillai, 2002, p. 4). On the other hand, collectivist societies in which people from birth onwards integrate into strong, cohesive in-groups, often extended families (with uncles, aunts and grandparents) from which they continue protecting them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty, (Hofstede, & Hofstede, 2005). Hofstede (1980) underscored some characteristics of individualism (where collectivism is the exact opposite): ‘I’ consciousness holds sway, less attached to others (including product brand) and individual financial securities that are important. These and other characteristics of IND may affect the consumption pattern of members of that particular society.

In large countries, levels of individualism may vary. For instance, Vandello and Cohen (1999) found that patterns of individualism vary across the United States. Nonetheless, the majority of published work supports Hofstede’s theories in that on a national level individualism and collectivism is a strong dimension to differentiate societies. In fact, in many disciplines these findings were supported repeatedly which encouraged researchers to investigate consumers’ individualism levels with purchasing behaviors, consumption patterns and complaining behaviors (Au et al., 2001; Liu, & McClure, 2001; Mattila, & Patterson, 2004b). In alignment with these studies, the present study also proposes the existence of such relationships in the context of tourism.

Uncertainty Avoidance (UAI): Uncertainty avoidance (UAI) deals with a society's tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity (Hofstede, 1980). It indicates to what extent culture programs allow its members to feel either uncomfortable or comfortable in unstructured situations (Hofstede, 2007b). Here, unstructured situations could be considered novel, unknown, surprising and different from the usual or unexpected. Thus, high uncertainty avoiding cultures, try to minimize the possibility of such situations. They also feel higher anxiety and stress when faced with these situations thus need strong consensus and stability.

A service failure is a good example of an unexpected and undesired occurrence. Previous research shows that consumers who are members of high uncertainty avoidance cultures are; (i) less likely to complain, (ii) if they complain they require a fast and fair solution to their complaints, and (iii) once they face up to it they will ask for written rules and regulations that may lower their anxiety (Hui, & Au, 2001; Patterson, & Smith, 2003; Reimann, Lünemann, & Chase, 2008). In echoing the above conditions, the present study aims to provide further support to the relationship between UA and CCB in the context of tourism.

Masculinity versus Femininity (MAS): Masculinity pertains to societies in which social "…gender roles are clearly distinct (men are suggested to be assertive, tough, and focused on material successes whereas women are suggested as being more modest, tender and concerned with the quality of life" (Hofstede, 1980, p. 82). According to Hofstede (2001), these two extreme pools of values represent female and male life. The assertive pole was described as 'masculine' and the modest, caring pole described as 'feminine' (Hofstede, 1991). Some of the characteristics of a masculine society can be the valuation of money and/or items; performance is what counts and the admiration of successful achievers (Hofstede, 1980).

A review of relevant literature showed that these and more features of masculinity versus femininity have the potential to affect consumption episodes. As financial matters are more important to a customer from a masculine society than it is to feminine members, the recovery efforts for these two distinctive groups may be different (Patterson et al., 2006). Likewise, 'results' of the recovery (distributive matters) shall be more important to a masculine customer, whereas ‘how’ the problem is resolved (interactional matters) will have the utmost importance for a feminine customer (Kanousi, 2005; Prasongsukarn, & Patterson, 2001; Wong N.Y., 2004). Consequently, the present study attempts to further link the masculinity and femininity dimension to tourists’ justice perceptions as well as post-recovery behavior.

Long-Term Orientation (LTO): The long-term orientation dimension was added to the original four-dimensional model resulting from of Hofstede and Bond’s collaboration work (Hofstede, & Bond, 1988). Data for this dimension was collected from university students in 23 countries around the world, using a questionnaire designed by Chinese scholars (Hofstede, 2007b). The essence of this dimension lays in the unique and rich Chinese values. These such values being respect for tradition, fulfilling social obligations, and protecting one’s ‘face’. These are based on the teachings of Confucius, the most influential Chinese philosopher who lived around 500 B.C. (Hofstede, 2007a; Hofstede, & Hofstede, 2005).

Being a member of a long-term oriented culture limits the possible dispute between parties while suggesting harmony. In a service failure context, this hinders dissatisfied consumers to voice their complaints (Money, Gilly, & Graham, 1998; Ngai et al., 2007; Warden et al., 2003). Moreover, ‘face’ protection has the utmost importance in social affairs (Kindel, 1983). Similarly, Lee and Sparks (2007) found that Chinese consumers highly value face protection in service failure and service recovery situations. While keeping these in mind the present study aims to investigate the comparatively less studied side of culture (Hoare et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2011; Mattila, & Patterson, 2004b; Ngai et al., 2007).

2.7.4 Cases of Chinese and American Cultures

The inbound and outbound tourism of the United States and China are predicted to be among the top in the world (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2010). Although there is little change in the top ten ranking for 2008, compared to 2007, "China has climbed two places into second position, having overtaken Japan and Germany" (UNWTO, 2010a, p. 7). Moreover, the World Tourism Organization forecasted China to grow its Travel and Tourism Demand four-fold by 2018, to US$2,465 billion, reaching the position behind the United States in absolute volume (UNWTO, 2010a). Chan (2006), in his article entitled 'coming age of Chinese tourists', further stressed the tourism potential of China and provided implications for both academics (studying Chinese consumer behavior) and industry (to tailor made service offerings). More recently, Huang and Hsu (2009) and Li, Lai, Harrill, Kline and Wang (2011) highlighted the importance of understanding Chinese consumers and urged for empirical research (Xu and McGehee, forthcoming). For these reasons, a comparison of tourists from China and the United States may provide very significant implications for both industry practitioners and academics. Moreover, China and the United States are ideal examples of their culture clusters (Hofstede, 1980, 2001), whereby China, being a good example of an Asian culture, with the Unites States, representing the Western culture (Chang et al., 2011). Considering China and United States as representative of their respective culture are common in relevant literature (such as, Doran, 2002; Hoare et al., 2011; Kim, & Lee, 2000; Kindel, 1983; Lee, & Sparks, 2007; Manrai, & Manrai, 1993). For this reason, results from this study could be generalized to other Eastern and Western cultures with similar cultural orientation. Table 2.4 lists the culture scores of China and Unites States.

Table 2.4 Hofstede's Culture Dimensions for China and US

	PDI	IDV	MAS	UAI	LTO
China	80	20	66	30	118
United States	40	91	62	46	29

Source: Adopted from the overall cultural country table, http://www.geert-hofstede.com, November 27, 2010.

Although China was not included in Hofstede's (1980) original study, it was included in more recent ones (Hofstede, 2001, 2007b; Hofstede, & Hofstede, 2005). Hofstede's analysis of China revealed that long-term orientation was the highest-ranking factor (118), which is true for all Asian cultures. This dimension indicates a society's time perspective and an attitude of persevering; that is, overcoming obstacles with time, if not with will and strength (Hofstede, 2007b). China scored 20 in the Individualism dimension, slightly lower than the Asian average of 24. The low Individualism rating is manifested in a close and committed member 'group', be that a family, extended family, or extended relationships. Loyalty in a collectivist culture is paramount. The society fosters strong relationships where everyone takes responsibility for fellow members of their group (Hofstede, 2007b).

China has a high Power Distance score of 80, as is the case with other East Asian countries. This is an indication of high levels of inequality of power and wealth within the society. This is not necessarily a forced situation but rather accepted by the society as their cultural heritage (Hofstede, 2007b). China's culture reflects several values, believed introduced by the ancient Chinese philosopher Confucius (500 BC). These teachings, such as keeping face, respecting traditions, and valuing family and society, are woven into the Chinese way of living at large (Kindel, 1983).

On the other hand, the high Individualism score for the United States (highest score 91) indicates a society with a more individualistic attitude and relatively loose bonds with others (Hofstede, 1991). The populace is more self-reliant and looks out for themselves and their close family members (Hofstede, 2001). The next highest Hofstede dimension for the US is Masculinity with a score of 62, compared to a world average of 50. This indicates the country experiences a higher degree of gender differentiation of roles. The male dominates a significant portion of the society and power structure (Hofstede, 2007a). Figure 2.4 shows the dimension scores in a bar chart to demonstrate the similarities and differences between the US and China visually.

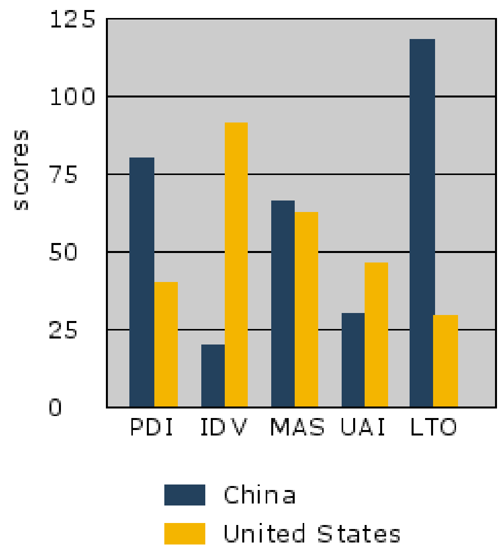

Figure 2.5 Comparisons of Chinese and American Cultures

Source: http://www.geert-hofstede.com, November 27, 2010.
Notes: PDI = Power Distance, IDV = Individualism versus Collectivism, UAI = Uncertainty Avoidance, MAS = Masculinity versus Femininity and LTO = Long-Term Orientation or Confucian Dynamism

The LTO is the lowest dimension for the US at 29, compared to the world average of 45. This low LTO rating is indicative of the societies' belief in meeting its obligations and tends to reflect an appreciation for cultural traditions (Hofstede, 2007b). The dimension with the next lowest score for the United States is Power Distance at 40 compared to the world average of 55. This is indicative of a greater equality between societal levels, including government, organizations, and even within families. The United States scored 46 in Uncertainty Avoidance, which is comparatively lower than the world average of 64. A low score in the Uncertainty Avoidance dimension is indicative of a society that has fewer rules and does not attempt to control all outcomes and results. It also has a greater level of tolerance for a variety of ideas, thoughts, and beliefs.

The differences between Chinese and American cultures investigated in a handful of studies (Kindel, 1983; Lee, & Sparks, 2007; Mok, & DeFranco, 1999; Reisinger, & Crotts, 2010; Reisinger, & Turner, 1998), found to have significant effects on how people behave. For this reason, the current study will investigate these differences from the possible moderating effect point of view.

2.7.5 Support and Criticism of Using Hofstede's Dimensions

"There can be little doubt that the single work mostly influencing the development of research into cross-cultural psychology has been the seminal study… [of Hofstede]" (Smith et al., 2006, p. 33). Hofstede's dimensions received considerable interest from both academia and industry and became pervasive across numerous disciplines. His books (Hofstede, 1980, 1991, 2001; Hofstede, & Hofstede, 2005) translated into over 16 different languages, publishing millions of copies (Hofstede, 2002b, 2007b). Furthermore, Litvin, Crotts and Hefner (2004, p. 30) stressed the wide acceptance of the work of Hofstede and stated that "…it is evidenced by more than 2600 citations noted, from 1980 to 2002, per the Social Sciences Citation Index…In comparison, Edward Hall's (1976) *Beyond Culture,* which represents a rival measure, was cited 94 times between 1976 and 2002". Chandy and Williams (1994) investigated the impact of journals and authors on international business research and found that Hofstede is the third most cited author (after John H. Dunning and Michael Porter) within relevant literature. Hofstede's work received some criticism. It has been collected under five main headings as shown in Table 2.5, and quotes Hofstede's (2002b) justifications.

Chapman (1997, p. 18-19), as one of the strongest supporters of Hofstede's work, wrote a very extensive defense of his work.

> "…Hofstede's work became a dominant influence and set a fruitful agenda. There is perhaps no other contemporary framework in the general field of 'culture and business' that is so general, so broad, so alluring and so inviting to argument and fruitful disagreement…Secondly, although Hofstede's work invites criticism on many levels, one often finds that Hofstede, in self-criticism, has been there first. Thirdly, although Hofstede's work is based on a questionnaire drawn from social psychology that was not expressly designed for the purpose to which it was later put, Hofstede brings to his discussion such a wealth of expertise and erudition from outside the questionnaire that many criticisms of 'narrowness' are withered on the tongue. The works of Hofstede are used and admired at a very high level in general and those who take country scores in various dimensions as given realities, informing or confirming other research, do not typically inquire into the detail of the procedures through which specific empirical data has been generally translated.

Hofstede, of course, provides the entire background one could wish for about these procedures, and that is another reason for admiring his work."

Table 2.5 Criticism and Justification of Hofstede's Work

Criticism	Justifications
Surveys are not a suitable way of measuring cultural differences	They should not be the only way
Nations are not the best units for studying cultures	True, but they are usually the only kind of units available for comparison and better than nothing
A study of the subsidiaries of one company cannot provide information about entire national cultures	That which was measured was differences between national cultures. Any set of functionally equivalent samples from national populations can supply information about such differences. The IBM data consisted of unusually well matched samples for an unusually large number of countries. The extensive validation in the following chapters will show that the country scores obtained correlated highly with all kinds of other data, including results obtained from representative samples of entire national populations
The IBM data are old and therefore obsolete	The dimensions found are assumed to have centuries-old roots; only data which remained stable across two subsequent surveys were maintained; and they have since been validated against all kinds of external measurements; recent replications show no loss of validity
Four or five dimensions are not enough	Additional dimensions should be both conceptually and statistically independent from the five dimensions already defined and they should be validated by significant correlations with conceptually related external measures; candidates are welcome to apply

Source: Hofstede, 2002b, p. 2.

2.7.6 Hofstede's Dimensions in CCB and Justice Literatures

Although Hofstede's (1980, 2001) culture dimensions were adopted and tested in various disciplines, there is only a handful of published work that investigated justice perceptions from the cultural perspective and in the context of tourism (Furrer et al., 2000; Mattila & Patterson, 2004a, 2004b; Ngai et al., 2007; Ogden et al., 2004; Warden et al., 2003). Findings from related studies are as outlined in Table 2.6. This table summarizes the findings of studies which used Hofstede's (1980, 2001) culture dimensions in the context of consumer behavior, particularly complaining behavior, by focusing on how culture affects complaining behavior, recovery expectations, and justice perceptions.

Table 2.6 Tabulated Review of Basic Findings of Studies that Used Hofstede's Dimensions

Study	Dimensions	Compared Cultures	Sample Size	Findings
Kanousi (2005)	(IDV, PDI, UAI, LTO, MAS)	America Europe, Asia, Australia	MBA students n= 200	• Culture has significant impact on service recovery expectations. • Three of the five cultural dimensions (i.e. individualism, masculinity, and long-term orientation) are associated with service recovery expectations. • In particular, individualism is linked to higher expectations about empowerment and lower expectations about explanation. • Masculinity is associated with higher expectations about the need for explanation and tangibles. • Long-term orientation is linked to higher expectations about intangibles.
Watkins, & Liu (1996)	(IDV)	Combined Asians and Europeans	Consumers	• Compared to individualists, collectivist consumers are relatively loyal, and are even less likely to voice complaints when they experience post-purchase problems. • In contrast, they are more likely to engage in negative WOM to in-group members and these negative communications are more likely to be attended to by other members of their in group(s). • When collectivist do exit, it is likely to be particularly difficult for the offending supplier to regain them as customers.
Ngai et al. (2007)	(IDV, PDI, UAI)	Asian Non-Asian	Tourists n= 110, Asians n= 161, Non-Asians	• Asian guests are less likely to complain to the hotel for fear of 'losing face' and are less familiar with the channels for complaints than non-Asian guests are. • They are more likely than non-Asian guests to take private complaint action, such as making negative word-of-mouth comments. • There is a significant relationship between 'complaint encouraging factor' and respondents' nationality and between 'effective complaint handling method' and respondents' nationality.
Litvin et al. (2004)	(UAI)	58 nations	Tourists n= 250, High UAI n= 276, Low UAI	• It was found that visitors from high uncertainty avoidance cultures complain less. • High UAI segment were more likely to voice their dissatisfaction to their friends and relatives than to the company representatives. • High UAI respondents reported purchasing significantly more pre-packaged travel packages to avoid facing possible service failures alone.
Hui, & Au (2001)	(IDV)	PRC Canada	Students n= 89+86 PRC n= 160 Canada	• Voice had a stronger effect on Chinese customers than Canadian customers did. • The results can be attributed to psychological determinants, including face, harmony, social status, and conflict avoidance implied by the cultural values of individualism /collectivism and consumption values.

Liu, & McClure (2001)	(IDV)	US South Korea	Consumer n= 198, East n= 176, West	• Voice responses: The US respondents voiced their dissatisfaction to the firm significantly more frequently than the South Korean respondents did. • Private responses: Although two-thirds of the US respondents did speak to their friends and relatives about their bad experience, only one third of them reported that they convinced their friends and relatives not to do business with that firm. • Third-party responses: It was far less frequent than either voice or private behavior in both cultures. • US consumers had significantly higher means on voice intentions and significantly lower means on private intentions.
Patterson et al. (2006)	(IDV, PDI, UAI)	Thailand Australia	Students n= 46, Thailand n= 241, Australia	• The results reveal that cultural values of individual Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance and Collectivism do indeed interact with a firm's recovery tactics to influence perceptions of fairness (justice).
Warden et al. (2003)	(IDV, PDI)	Combined Asian and Western	393 service providers n= 271,Asian n= 122, Western	• The apparent reduction in inter-cultural failure seriousness can be attributed not to the error itself, but to increased acceptance of the recovery strategy.
Wong N.Y. (2004)	(IDV, PDI, UAI, MAS)	US Singapore Australia	Students n= 253, USA n= 192, Australia n= 71, Singapore	• Compensation is found to improve customers' assessment of the service encounter in all three countries, but positive effects on repurchase intention and word of mouth. • Apology is found to improve satisfaction in Singapore and Australia but not in the United States. • *Power distance:* Although Singapore has the highest latent mean in satisfaction, it is possible that apology is particularly effective in improving satisfaction in high power distance culture as it is more public. • *Individualism:* there is only directional support for this cultural dimension between Singapore and the American samples but not the Australian sample. • *Masculinity:* there is only partial support for this cultural dimension. • *Uncertainty avoidance:* uncertainty avoidance only seems to have the hypothesized effect on repurchase intention in the compensation condition but not the apology condition.
Au et al. (2001)	(IDV)	China Canada	Students n= 81, China n= 87, Canada	• Collectivists were more likely than individualists to blame the service provider. • When voice was offered by the service provider, Canadians were less likely to attribute the responsibility to themselves than were Chinese.
Mattila, & Patterson (2004b)	(IDV)	USA-Malaysia-Thailand –	Students n= 150, USA n= 132, Thai, n= 130, Malay	• Explanation had a positive impact on distributive justice ratings in both cultures. • Compensation had a stronger positive impact on perceptions of distributive justice between U.S. customers than their East Asian counterparts. • When an explanation for service failure is offered, East Asian consumers will have higher perceptions of interactional justice than their US counterparts. • Perceived fairness (distributive and interactional) will predict post-recovery satisfaction across cultural boundaries.

Leung, & Stephan (1998)	(IDV)	Spain Japan	Students n= 59, Spain n= 116, Japan	• Consistent with the individualism collectivism framework, results indicated that the procedural preferences of these two cultural groups were quite similar. • Expectancies based on fairness and favorability was found to be culture-specific, as were their relationships with procedural preference. • Results implied that cultural femininity was not related to procedural preference.
Prasongsukarn, & Patterson (2001)	(IDV, PDI, UAI, LTO, MAS)	Combined Asian and Western	Students (nationalities are not mentioned)	• A formal apology from a service provider of high position/status will have a greater effect on perceptions of distributive justice to customers from a high power distance culture. • When interacting with an employee concerning dissatisfactory service provision, customers from a high power distance culture prefer to deal with front-line employees of high status compared to customers from low power distance cultures. • When interacting with a service employee concerning dissatisfactory service, customers from a high power distance culture are more likely to associate the provider's politeness with formality attributes. • In the case of service provision failure, customers from a collectivist culture are more likely to attribute the blame to external causes i.e. the service provider. • Concerning the policy and rules that form the recovery process, customers from a collectivist culture place a higher value on an organization-initiated recovery (and thus interactional justice), than do customer from individualist culture. • Customers from a high uncertainty avoidance culture will perceive higher distributive justice when a compensation offer for a service failure is explicitly stated (or guaranteed), than are customer from a low uncertainty avoidance culture. • Concerning procedural justice, customers from a high uncertainty culture place a higher value on given cognitive control (reliable follow-up) over the situation rather than customers from a low uncertainty avoidance culture.

2.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter provided an inclusive and extensive review of literature relevant to major research constructs within the present study. Firstly, previous studies were reviewed thoroughly in relation to service failure. It was particularly important to classify the magnitude and type of failures as they have been proven to have a direct effect on consumer complaining intention. Secondly, the consumer complaining behavior construct was defined. This research gave special focus to reviewing major studies within the literature available, followed by the explanation of why consumers do not complain (complaining constraints). To answer this question thoroughly, factors affecting CCB were reviewed carefully. Thirdly, possible responses to failure encounter were discussed of which the responses were 'do nothing', 'exit' and 'voice'.

Once the failure has occurred and the customer decides to complain, it becomes the companies' responsibility to make sure the provided recovery solves the problem effectively. Thus, the importance of recovery and its components (in the form of organizational responses), were carefully reviewed (Gelbrich, & Roschk, 2011). The next sequential stage to follow recovery is that of consumer perceptions. In other words, how 'just' consumers perceived the provided recovery efforts. To do this effectively, major theories were comprehensively reviewed (equity, cognitive dissonance, social exchange and fairness). From there, possible post-recovery behaviors namely repurchase intention and WOM communication under the loyalty framework was reviewed (Wang, 2011). The present study argues that overall consumer complaining behavior may not fully cover those of tourist complaining behavior. That is, inherent to tourism's nature, some constraints can be different, if not entirely new. From this logic, it asserted that limited time, unfamiliarity, limited communication, limited involvement and a positive holiday mood are possible differentiating points. Therefore, it was vital that these points were explored and examined for the purpose of the study.

This study attempts to provide a brief review of ‘culture’ as being one of its constructs within the model. To do so, culture and the related concepts were defined, from which Hofstede’s (1980, 1991) seminal cultural dimensions were introduced with a special focus on Chinese and American cultures. Criticism and support was also provided in the use of Hofstede’s dimensions. Lastly, studies using Hofstede’s dimensions within CCB literature, were reviewed.

CHAPTER 3. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESES

This chapter discusses the theoretical framework used within the present study and stipulates the research hypotheses driven from this theoretical framework. The constructs forming the theoretical framework were reviewed, with particular emphasis on the causal relationships between them. In view of the overall research, these relationships are explained and formalized accordingly.

3.1 Theoretical Framework

The main aim of this study was to develop a new scale to measure specific tourist complaining constraints (TCC). It also sets out to examine the relationships between TCC factors and justice perceptions, between justice perceptions and loyalty intention, and to determine how cultural background and magnitude of failure moderate these relationships (Schoefer, 2010). To achieve these aims, the following theoretical framework, developed and based upon extensive literature reviews, was presented in Chapter 2. The main constructs of the theoretical framework included tourist complaining constraints (TCC), justice perceptions and loyalty intention.

TCC and justice perceptions have five and three sub-dimensions respectively. The TCC dimensions formed are limited time, unfamiliarity, limited communication, limited involvement and a positive holiday mood. Interactional, procedural and distributive dimensions fall under the justice perceptions construct. In the proposed model, TCC sub-dimensions are designated as exogenous variables, whereas justice perceptions are both treated as endogenous (while investigating possible effects of TCC) and exogenous variables (while testing their relationships with loyalty intention).

The loyalty intention construct is an endogenous variable. This study also utilizes magnitude of service failure and cultural background as moderating constructs to uncover the effects, if any, of these constructs on the relationships between TCC and justice perceptions and between justice perceptions and loyalty intention. For the purpose of clarity, the proposed model, presented in Figure 3.1, (illustrates hypotheses 1 to 8) and Figure 3.2 (depicts hypotheses 9 to 12).

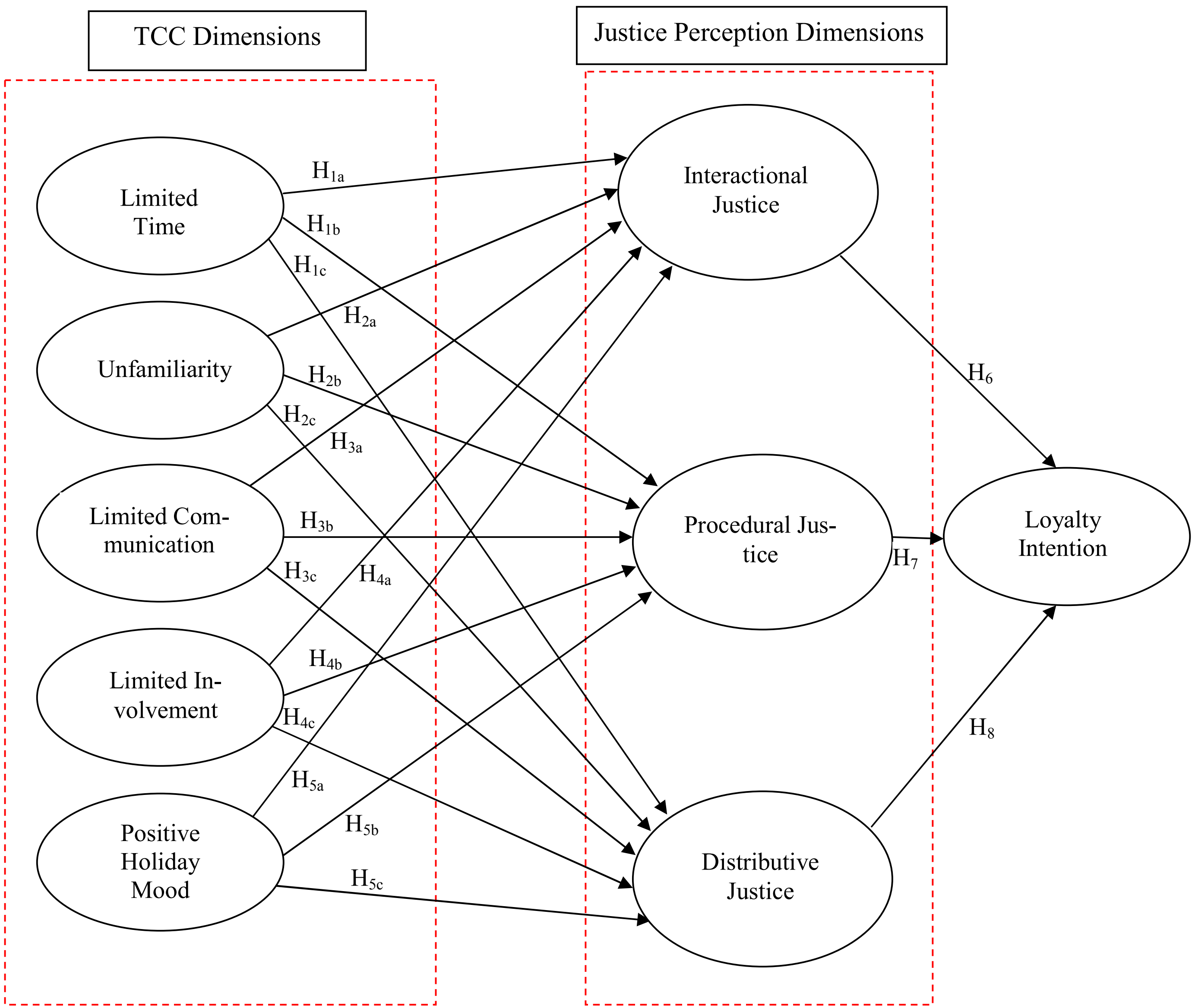

Figure 3.1 Hypothetical Model for the Study

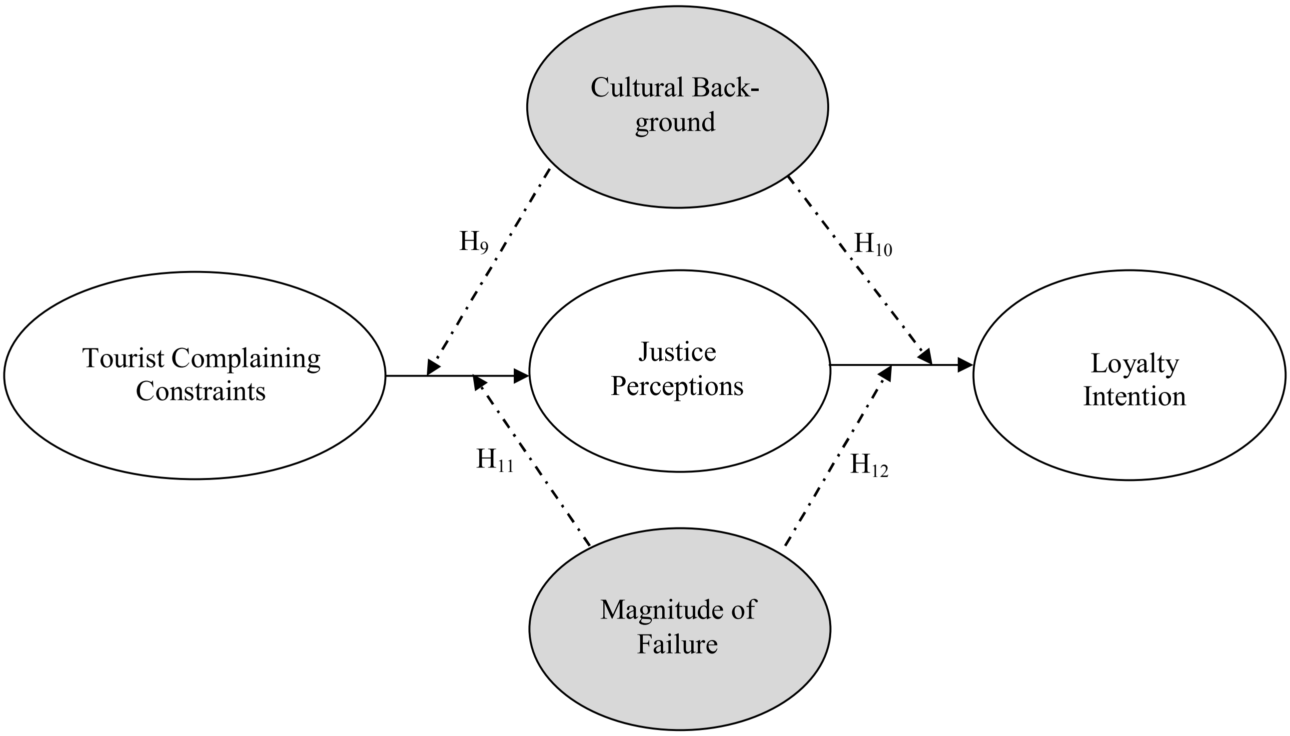

Figure 3.2 Simplified Model for the Study Showing Moderating Effects

Note: —— represents direct effect, where ----- represents moderating effect.

Inter-relationships described between the study constructs are as follows:

(1) tourist complaining constraints - five sub-dimensions - have direct effects on three justice perceptions

(2) justice perceptions have direct effects on loyalty intention

(3) cultural background of the respondents moderates the above relationships significantly (Schoefer, 2010),

(4) magnitude of failure - being high or low in terms of severity of the loss/dissatisfaction - also moderates these relationships significantly.

Huang (2007) and Kaplan (2000) suggested that after identifying the structure of the theoretical framework, researchers should explore how the exogenous variables in the proposed model might influence endogenous variables. This required the decision as to whether the effect of one construct upon another to become positive or negative, can be hypothesized. Only then, through observed data at a later stage, can these effects be tested (Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2006). The following section details the development of the hypotheses tested in this study.

3.2 Hypotheses

3.2.1 Effects of TCC on Justice Perceptions

A review of tourism literature reveals that most studies relied on general consumer behavior theories to explain tourist behaviors without considering the unique characteristics of the tourism industry (Hudson, & Ritchie, 2001; Pearce, 2005). Not only does tourism present the characteristics of services in general - inseparability, heterogeneity, perishability and intangibility (Lovelock, & Wright, 1999; Zeithaml et al., 2006), but is tourism also an inherently non-routine experience (Kotler et al., 1999; McIntosh et al., 2006; Voase, 1995). Indeed, tourists have a different mindset (McCabe, & Marson, 2006) and perceive, behave, and react 'differently' at the destination they visit (Jafari, & Way, 1994; Pearce, 2005; Uriely, 2005). For these reasons, this study argues that there are additional challenges, not only on the provision of tourism services, but also on the evaluation of this service by the customers, that is the tourists. More precisely, this study proposes that the very nature of being a tourist creates auxiliary constraints on complaining behavior which cannot be fully explained by existing complaining barriers within CCB literature (Ekiz, & Au, 2009a). Therefore, this thesis has proposed a new construct 'tourist complaining constraints'. This new construct is composed of five possible barriers that affect a tourist more than a consumer of daily products/services. These proposed barriers consist of limited time, unfamiliarity, limited communication, limited involvement, and a positive holiday mood. The following paragraphs provide relevant arguments on the possible relationships between these factors and tourists' justice perceptions.

Within CCB literature, having limited time is one of the important factors to affect complaining behavior (Grönhaug, & Zaltman, 1981; TARP, 1999). Swanson and Kelly (2001) underlined that time limitation is particularly influential in service industries where the co-existence of customer and service provider is required generally. Time availability has been linked to the propensity to complain (Morel et al., 1997), choice of channels (Kotler et al., 2010) and perceptions of justice (Tata et al., 2003; Woehler, 2004). By definition, a tourist has limited time available to spend at a destination. This may affect his/her complaining behavior in the sense that s/he may simply not have the free time beyond pre-planned activities to initiate a complaint or wait for a solution to the problem. Indeed, Cohen-Hattab and Kerber (2004) proposed that limitations on time negatively affect the activities tourists participate in, places they visit and even their overall holiday satisfaction. Morley (1990) emphasized that time restrictions during the holiday experience may affect tourists' complaining behavior. More recently, Ekiz and Au (2009a) suggested a possible relationship between time limitation and justice perceptions of tourists. Thus, the present research argues that limited time as a possible barrier affects tourists' recovery perceptions and expectations from the hotel. In the light of this discussion, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 1a. Limited time, as a constraint on complaining behavior, negatively affects tourists' interactional justice perceptions.

Hypothesis 1b. Limited time, as a constraint on complaining behavior, negatively affects tourists' procedural justice perceptions.

Hypothesis 1c. Limited time, as a constraint on complaining behavior, negatively affects tourists' distributive justice perceptions.

'Familiarity', considered as having an amount of product/service-related experiences (Söderlund, 2002) or accumulated knowledge (Day, & Landon, 1976).Unfamiliarity is the opposite of this. In the context of tourism, Wickens (2002) described familiarity as the knowledge one has of other social groups' customs, norms and practices, and argued that unfamiliarity significantly affects tourists' behavior. Many tourism researchers noted that visiting unfamiliar places, or doing something different from the daily routine, are important reasons in motivating people to travel (Hsu, & Lam, 2003). However, when a consumer is not familiar with the purchased product/service, s/he is less likely to be able to evaluate its performance (Zeithaml et al., 2006) and will be less likely to be familiar with the procedures for seeking redress and registering complaints (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). Morel et al. (1997) found that complaint behavior is associated with familiarity. In other words, if a customer is familiar with the rules and procedures in action, s/he becomes more comfortable and confident about expressing his/her dissatisfaction. In contrast, being unfamiliar with the rules and procedures makes customers/guests reluctant to complain (O'Neill & Mattila, 2004; Smith, & Karwan, 2010; Söderlund, 2002).

Given that tourists are mostly unfamiliar with complaining procedures (Stauss, & Seidel, 2004), do not know where and how to complain (Yuksel, & Yuksel, 2007) and are not sure when to expect redress and in what form (Voorhees et al., 2006), their complaining behavior is likely to be negatively affected. This thesis has argued that the more tourists regard unfamiliarity as a constraint, the more they will expect pleasant interaction, standards and appropriate handling procedures with fair compensation, simply because their lack of familiarity will make them more demanding and distrustful on recovery actions being provided (Sparks, & Browning, 2011; Söderlund, 2002). This discussion leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2a. Unfamiliarity, as a constraint on complaining behavior, negatively affects tourists' interactional justice perceptions.

Hypothesis 2b. Unfamiliarity, as a constraint on complaining behavior, negatively affects tourists' procedural justice perceptions.

Hypothesis 2c. Unfamiliarity, as a constraint on complaining behavior, negatively affects tourists' distributive justice perceptions.

Being able to communicate increases the individuals' ability to cope with uncertainty (such as a failed service), especially during inter-cultural encounters (Kim, & Gudykunst, 1988). Cohen (1979) claimed that limited communication precludes any meaningful social exchange between tourists and hosts, including service provision and recovery of failure. For this reason, in service failure encounters, where both parties need to communicate to voice their dissatisfaction through complaining or to fix the problem through effective recovery, communication becomes even more important (Cohen, 1992; Findlay, 1998). Therefore, by not having the ability to communicate with the host when there is a need to convey a dissatisfying experience, creates a natural barrier between the tourist and the host (Pearce, 1982b; Sayre, 2003).

Although limited communication can possibly be a constraint for general consumers in their everyday shopping, the problem is more evident in the context of tourism due to the difficulties in language communication in most international travel experiences (Crotts, 2004). Even though in the cases of other native English or Mandarin speaking countries, such as Canada and UK and Taiwan, limited communication might not seem a major barrier yet. According to the UNWTO predictions long-haul travel will increase which means more and more people will be traveling to areas where other languages are spoken (UNWTO, 2010c). For these reasons, this study suggests that the more tourists consider limited communication as a constraint, the more they will be demanding the service provider to go the extra mile and provide an interactive, 'by-the-book' and fair redress. Accordingly, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 3a. Limited communication, as a constraint on complaining behavior, negatively affects tourists' interactional justice perceptions.

Hypothesis 3b. Limited communication, as a constraint on complaining behavior, negatively affects tourists' procedural justice perceptions.

Hypothesis 3c. Limited communication, as a constraint on complaining behavior, negatively affects tourists' distributive justice perceptions.

Involvement has played an increasingly important role in explaining consumer behavior and has been proven to be significantly related to the extent of the decision-making process (Mittal, & Lee, 1989), product evaluation (Lovelock et al., 2002) and perception building about products and/or services (Kotler, & Armstrong, 2006). A high involvement within the service expects to generate strong feelings and trigger strong reactions (Mittal, & Lee, 1989), whereas limited/low involvement has the opposite effect (Cai et al., 2004; Havitz, & Dimanche, 1999). When consumers have limited involvement, they tend to lower their interaction with the company (Park, 1996) and are more tolerant when faced with problems (Josiam et al., 2005). They also tend to perceive recovery efforts differently (Havitz, & Dimanche, 1999).

In that respect, the present study argues that limited involvement creates low numbers of complaints, hence should be considered a constraint that can affect tourists' complaining behavior. This study also argues that the more tourists perceive limited involvement as a constraint, the more they will demand a personalized recovery action accompanied by fair and appropriate compensation from the service provider. Based on the above discussion, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 4a. Limited involvement, as a constraint on complaining behavior, negatively affects tourists' interactional justice perceptions.

Hypothesis 4b. Limited involvement, as a constraint on complaining behavior, negatively affects tourists' procedural justice perceptions.

Hypothesis 4c. Limited involvement, as a constraint on complaining behavior, negatively affects tourists' distributive justice perceptions.

As previously discussed, the tourists' psychological situation not only affects their activities during holidays but also their consumption and complaining behaviors (Iso-Ahola, 1982; Lowyck et al., 1992). A review of tourism literature revealed that most tourists are determined to have a positive (Liljander, & Mattsson, 2002) and hassle-free (Wood & House, 1991) experience. Similarly, it has been noted that tourists tend to stay positive (McIntosh et al., 2006), playful, relaxed and unconstrained by the rules of their home country (Yagi, & Pearce, 2007; Yiannakis, & Gibson, 1992) and be tolerant of service failures (White, 2005). In other words, if tourists face a problem they may be more forgiving (Ekiz, & Au, 2009a), evaluate the encounter positively (Hoffman et al., 1995) and may not complain or be more constructive even if they do complain.

This discussion therefore calls for the consideration of a positive holiday mood as a possible constraint on tourists' complaining behavior. However, this does not mean that tourists will be pleased to receive an unfair recovery, just because they are on holiday. In fact, this study argues that the tourists' positive holiday mood will affect their justice perceptions, especially the type(s) of justice they will expect. In other words, if tourists consider being in a positive holiday mood as a constraint, they will demand an interactive, 'by-the-book' and fair compensation. From these consequences, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 5a. Being in a positive holiday mood, as a constraint on complaining behavior, negatively affects tourists' interactional justice perceptions.

Hypothesis 5b. Being in a positive holiday mood, as a constraint on complaining behavior, negatively affects tourists' procedural justice perceptions.

Hypothesis 5c. Being in a positive holiday mood, as a constraint on complaining behavior, negatively affects tourists' distributive justice perceptions.

3.2.2 Effects of Justice Perceptions on Loyalty Intention

Relationships between justice and post-recovery behavior have been investigated extensively within CCB literature. With few exceptions, all researchers agree that customers expect to initially receive fair service and in the case of service failure a fair solution to their problems (Andreassen, 2000; Berry et al., 1994; Blodgett et al., 1997; Cropanzano et al., 2002; Ekiz et al., 2005, 2008; Goodwin, & Ross, 1989; Tax et al., 1998; Zemke, 1993). Customers who perceive that they have received a fair solution may consequently feel satisfied, increase their re-patronage and engage in positive WOM (Gursoy et al., 2006; Oliver, & Swan, 1989; Tyler, 1994; Yoda, & Kamakura, 2007).

A review of CCB literature shows that justice perception significantly influences the customer's satisfaction with a complaint handling procedure and increases re-purchase intensions, actual re-purchase and decreases negative WOM behaviors (Davidow, 2000a; Gilly, & Gelb, 1982; Lovelock, 2000; Mattila, 2001b; Maxham III, & Netemeyer, 2002). It argued that justice perception significantly has a direct and indirect effect on recovery satisfaction, loyalty to the company and repurchase intentions.

Tax et al. (1998) provided an extensive review of justice literature and concluded that all three dimensions of justice (distributive, procedural and interactional) have a significant impact on complainants' post-recovery behaviors, particularly their loyalty intention to the company. These findings are supported by many complainant satisfaction scholars, (Goodwin, & Ross, 1990; Gursoy et al., 2007; Tax, & Chandrashekaran, 1992; Wirtz, & Mattila, 2004) and word-of-mouth communication (Collie et al., 2002; Ekiz, & Arasli, 2007; Higie et al., 1987; Kau, & Loh, 2006; Zemke, & Anderson, 2007). In light of this significant evidence within CCB literature, listed are the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 6. Interactional justice perception positively relates to tourists' loyalty intention.

Hypothesis 7. Procedural justice perception positively relate to tourists' loyalty intention.

Hypothesis 8. Distributive justice perception positively relates to a tourists' loyalty intention.

3.2.3 Moderating Effect of Culture

Blocks of values and norms, concerning what is right and wrong, form culture (Triandis, 1994). These values and norms affect peoples' judgment on fairness in their daily activities. On the other hand, justice perception is a cognitive and subjective evaluation of the failure situation whereby the customer uses his/her accumulated values and norms to make a judgment as to whether he/she is treated fairly (Herbig, 1998; Kroeber, 1987; Mattila, & Patterson, 2004a, 2004b; Reisinger, & Turner, 1997, 1998).

To elaborate on this, Hofstede's (1980; 1991) dimensions were found to be ideal (Litvin et al., 2004; Patterson et al., 2006; Prasongsukarn, & Patterson, 2001). Kanousi (2005) found individualism to be highly associated with service recovery expectations. For members of an individual nation full redress (distributive justice) is more important than it is for collective nations, who value the process of recovery (interactional justice). Prasongsukarn and Patterson (2001) argued that complainants from cultures with a high power distance prefer to deal with employees of high status, a supervisor or manager. Ngai et al. (2007) and Reimann et al. (2008) found uncertainty avoidance to be influential in fairness perceptions. Wong N.Y. (2004) stated that customers from more masculine cultures are highly motivated by financial compensation (distributive justice). Lee and Sparks (2007) and Li, Lai, Harrill, Kline and Wang (2011) concluded that Chinese tourists (with a long-term oriented culture), are more tolerant to service providers with whom they have long lasting interaction (interactional justice).

As highlighted in literature reviewed, culture is found to be an important predictor of justice perceptions through organizational responses (Au et al., 2001; Gelbrich, & Roschk, 2011; Hui, & Au, 2001; Lee, & Sparks, 2007).

Many scholars have advocated the use of culture to understand consumers' reactions to organizations' recovery efforts within the justice framework (Leung, 1988; Leung, & Lind, 1986; Leung, & Stephan, 1998; Lind et al., 1997). Hence, it is important to analyze how customers from different cultural backgrounds form their justice perceptions, which leads to the formation of the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 9. Culture moderates relationships between the TCC dimensions and justice perceptions.

Culture has a significant impact on how human beings behave (Hofstede, 1980). This impact on members' behaviors and attitudes can be conscious or unconscious as well as strong or weak (Hall, 2001; Kroeber, 1987; Triandis, 1994). Culture also sets a series of criteria on its members' quality perceptions, in turn used for the evaluation of satisfaction of a product and/or service (Hirschman, 1970; Hoppe, 1990; Jacoby, & Jaccard, 1981; Kasper et al., 2006; Tse, & Ho, 2009; Yi, 1990).

Prior research on consumer behavior has shown that culture affects consumers' behaviors in general and post-recovery behaviors in particular (Mattila, & Patterson, 2004a, 2004b). Au et al. (2001) concluded that members of a collective culture are more likely to blame the service provider and become less satisfied, and loyal, if only offered financial compensation. Similarly, Wong N.Y. (2004) stated that customers from masculine cultures are highly motivated by financial compensation to remain loyal to the service provider. Lee and Sparks (2007) stressed that members of a long-term oriented culture value relationships in life (including the service provider) and tend not to voice their complaints directly to the company.

Kindel (1983) noted that culture moderates how members of a particular culture will perceive fairness. Similarly, Hui and Au (2001) and, Ngai et al. (2007) found that being a member of a collective culture affects how consumers address justice perceptions and their post purchase behavior. Similarly, Patterson et al. (2006) argued that the complainants' cultural background influences their fairness perceptions and loyalty intention toward an organization. Therefore, in the light of findings sourced from existing literature, the following hypothesis has been formed.

Hypothesis 10. Culture moderates the relationships between justice perceptions and loyalty intention.

3.2.4 Moderating Effect of Magnitude of Failure

Given that not all service failures are equal in terms of their significance, companies need to consider this in their recovery efforts. In other words, inconvenience caused by failures can sometimes be minor (e.g., a short delay in service provision) or major (e.g., not being able to provide the core service), which creates different sets of responses in the customers' mind (Betts et al., 2011; Kotler, & Keller, 2008; Wu, & Wang, 2012; Zemke, & Bell, 2000). Oliver and Swan (1989) and Hess et al. (2003) noted that the magnitude of a failure is associated with its extent of loss on customers and directly affects customers' outcomes.

Arguments found within CCB literature question the magnitude of service failure, (being high or low) and moderates some aspects of CCB. These aspects are complaining intension, channel chosen, justice perceptions and post-recovery behavior

(Chung, & Hoffman, 1998; Conlon, & Murray, 1996; Fu, & Mount, 2007; Kasper, 1988; Kim et al., 2010; Maute, & Forrester, 1993; Shapiro, 1991; Smith, & Bolton, 1998; 2002; Smith et al., 1999). Echoing the findings of these studies, this study has considered the magnitude of failure as an important factor that may affect the proposed relationships. Subsequently, the following hypotheses are developed:

Hypothesis 11. Magnitude of failure will moderate relationships between the TCC dimensions and justice perceptions.

Hypothesis 12. Magnitude of failure will moderate relationships between justice perceptions and loyalty intention.

3.3 Summary

This chapter presented the theoretical framework of the study and the inter-relationships between research constructs. The theoretical framework emphasized the structural relationships between the study constructs, namely tourist complaining constraints, justice perceptions and loyalty intention. In light of the extensive literature review and the given framework, 18 hypotheses were developed. This study tested these hypotheses via structural equation modeling using a large data set.

CHAPTER 4. METHODOLOGY

Methodological issues addressed in this chapter, concern data collection and statistical analyses. Firstly, the research design provides an outline of the research. Secondly, the development of a research instrument is described explaining scale development and use of existing scales, which are included in the study questionnaire. Thirdly, procedures in relation to sampling, data collection, manipulation checks and analysis of data are explained. This chapter also discusses some of the difficulties encountered during the research and its limitations.

4.1 Research Design

Many scholars proposed certain steps to follow while conducting scientific research (Babbie, 2004; Johns, & Lee-Ross, 1998; Zikmund, 1994). Their proposed steps vary slightly. In this study, as illustrated in Figure 4.1, a fusion of these steps are proposed and illustrated. The first steps are explained within the literature review section where constructs have been defined in detail. Steps two and three are explained in Chapter 3, whereby the research model and underlying hypotheses are presented. This chapter deals with steps four to eight and covers the research design plans. The remaining steps, nine and ten, will be covered in the following chapters: 'Analyze Data', 'Evaluating Findings and Conclusion' Findings.

Scientific research can have a qualitative, quantitative or a hybrid approach. Walle (1997) highlighted that using both approaches are beneficial and necessary in social sciences but more specifically in tourism studies as tourism scholars and practitioners deal with complex phenomena. In this sense, although this study mainly uses the quantitative data collection methodology, namely a questionnaire, in-depth interviews, (see Appendix 2 for interview questions), as a qualitative method and utilized as part of the scale development process. By doing so, the researcher maintains the advantages of both quantitative (collecting data from large samples, expressing research findings in numerical terms and being more objective) and qualitative methods (exploring the research topic in greater depth, getting the bigger picture of reality and being more familiar with the subject area) (Cooper, & Schindler, 2006).

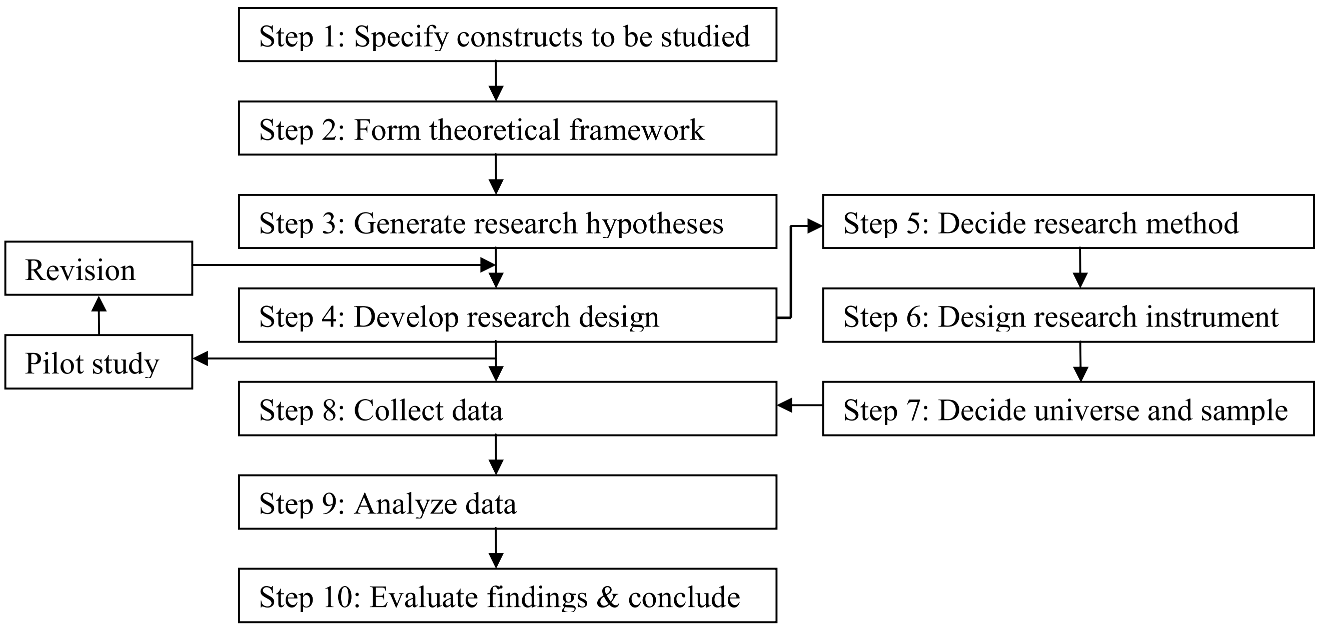

Figure 4.1 Research Process of the Present Study

Source: Babbie (2004), Cooper and Schindler (2006), Johns and Lee-Ross (1998)

Determining the research approach is another important step in research design. This thesis has aimed to use both exploratory and causal/explanatory research simultaneously. Exploratory research is conducted when "…very little or no data exists on the phenomenon being investigated…[most of the time involves]…a qualitative methodology" (Jennings, 2001, p. 17). Where causal research "…tries to find out whether or not some event causes another…tries to answer the questions 'how' and 'why'…involves pre-determined hypotheses" (Hair, Babin, Money, & Samouel, 2003, p. 64). This study is exploratory because it aimed at developing a new scale that may reveal unique tourist complaint constructs, (this new scale -never explored until this date). It is explanatory because its aims are that of finding 'how' the constructs derived from the qualitative approach and how they affect each other in the proposed model. To utilize these research approaches this study has used both qualitative and quantitative methods.

Once chosen, the research approach and methodology was to choose the unit of analysis, in other words, what or who, to be studied. The choice could have been any of the following five levels: individuals, groups, organizations, industries and countries (Cooper, & Schindler, 2006). Within social sciences, the most typical units of analysis are individuals (Babbie, 2004). Given that the present study is focusing on tourist complaining constraints, the unit of analysis was decided upon as the individual level.

Another issue that needed addressing in the research design was the time dimension. The question was whether to conduct the research at either one single time (cross-sectional), or over a longer period (longitudinal) (Babbie, 2004). Both types of studies have their inherent advantages and disadvantages, along with their different uses. The present study proposed to be cross-sectional.

According to Michel (2001), despite growing interest in service recovery, methodological problems regarding the measurement of service recovery antecedents, processes, and outcomes remain evident. He further argued that most empirical work favored one of the following three methods, being, (1) collecting actual critical incidents from respondents (Kelley et al., 1993; Sundaram et al., 1998; Swanson, & Kelly, 2001), (2) describing hypothetical scenarios to respondents (Kelley, & Davis, 1994; Mattila, 1999a, 1999b, 2001a, 2001b, 2004; Smith &, Bolton, 1998) or (3) using written complaints (Tax et al., 1998). The table below shows the possible advantages and disadvantages of these methods.

Table 4.1 Evaluation of Three Data Collection Techniques

Method	Advantage	Disadvantage
Critical incident technique	- widely used - practical	- flawed by recall bias - re-interpretation bias - demand effect
Experimental design (scenario)	- widely used - internal validity - minimizes memory-bias - enhance the variability in complainants' responses - reduces problems in personal situations to research context - ecological validity	- external validity - not realistic
Actual written complaints	- potentially large sample	- minority actually complain

"Given that service recovery experience is not a common phenomenon, a simple random sample of the general population would typically result in only a small number of respondents with direct complaint-handling experience, hence the common practice of using scenarios" (Schoefer, & Ennew, 2005, p. 264). Within CCB literature, several scholars used the scenario method as an experimental design in their investigations (Bitner, 1990; Mattila, 1999a, 1999b, 2001a, 2001b, 2004; Mattila, & Cranage, 2005; McCollough et al., 2000; Smith, & Bolton, 1998, 2002; Smith et al., 1999; Tax, & Chandrashekaran, 1992; Wirtz, & Mattila, 2004). As opposed to other methods, the use of a scenario has disadvantages: (i) respondents may not fully experience the failure therefore the results may not be realistic and (ii) the method suffers from external validity problems so that the results are less likely to be generalized. Yet, through the scenario there can be superior points over other methods. These include, (i) high internal consistency, (ii) better control over situations with more manipulation, (iii) minimizing memory-bias, which is common in self-reporting cases, (iv) reducing problems involving individual differences to responses and personal circumstances, in context of the research, (v) ecological validity in service encounter research, and (vi) if realistically designed, providing high congruency with respondents real-life experiences given the strong attitude and behavior link (Doorn et al., 2007; Oh, & Hsu, 2001). Considering the advantages, while keeping the disadvantages as limitations, the present study used scenario techniques at the data collection phase.

4.1.1 Scenario Development

This research examined the consumer complaining behavior in a cross-cultural context. Thus, the key agenda was to identify a scenario that would be equally dissatisfying to respondents from different cultures. To do so, recommended guidelines and samples within existing CCB literature were reviewed (Morel et al., 1997; Mattila,

& Cranage, 2005; Maxham III, 2001). Tax and Chandrashekaran (1992) suggested that the scenario should involve a 'familiar' case, should have a degree of 'significance' and should be 'realistic'. To fulfill the unfamiliarity requirement, a hotel reservation incident was chosen, because the majority of tourists used hotel accommodation during their holiday stay (Swanson, & Kelly, 2001). For this reason, any possible problem through accommodation services would have a significant effect on their overall travel evaluation. As for being realistic, the scenario is in relation to an incident whereby respondents may have either already experienced, or would perhaps experience, during future vacations.

Schoemaker (1993) noted that an effective scenario should: (i) define the main situation, in this case service failure; (ii) identify the actors and their influence plainly. In the case of the present research, actors were stated clearly, including receptionists, managers and other guests, and (iii) uncertainties and remedy actions were explicitly spelled out. Bearing in mind these recommendations, two almost identical versions of failure scenarios were thereafter, created. The difference between these two scenarios was in the 'waiting time' required to fix the hypothetical problem. Within CCB literature, 'waiting time' is used to indicate/create the severity of the service problem (for instance; Eroglu, 1987; Johns, & Lee-Ross, 1998; Kotler et al., 1999; McQuilken, 2010).

CCB researchers argued that if the problem was resolved within a relatively short time - yet there is no consensus on the exact time - complainants would feel the problem to be less severe, in other words of 'low magnitude'. This argument received considerable support within CCB literature (Brennan, & Douglas, 2002; Gilly, & Gelb, 1982; Gursoy et al., 2007; Heffes, 1998; Rosen, 1997; Yim et al., 2003; Zemke, 1993; Zemke, & Bell, 2000). In light of the overwhelming evidence, the present study differentiates a low magnitude scenario from a high magnitude scenario by altering recovery time from twenty minutes to four hours or more.

Four conveniently selected faculty members and six graduate students evaluated the scenario and commented on the appropriateness of the description of the failure incident, language used, realism of the incident and manipulation of severity in the two versions of the scenario. Their comments were mainly with regard to shortening the length of the scenario and editing the use of the English language. Scenario revisions of were made based on their input. An initial scenario, developed in English, then translated to Simplified Chinese by following the steps of back-translation was produced (Brislin, Lonner and Thorndike, 1973; McGorry, 2000). Details of the translation process are discussed in the following section along with other equivalence measures.

Once created, the next step for the scenario was to assess its realness (be perceived as a realistic failure) and its significance (how important would the failure be). To do so, the development of five items through review of existing CCB literature, were developed (Bitner, 1990; Mattila, 2001b; Maxham III, 2001; Smith et al., 1999).

Three of these items were to assess the realism of the failure incident, whereas the remaining two were to assess the perceived significance of the failure on a seven-point Likert scale: (Likert, 1932), 1 = strongly disagree and 7 = strongly agree. Although there is no consensus on the ideal number of Likert scale points, studies show that more than seven points on a scale were too many for respondents to place their opinions (Colman, Norris, & Perston, 1997). The seven-point Likert scale, which provided a wider range of alternatives, was found to be suitable and working well in the Chinese setting (Hsu, Tsai, & Wu, 2009; Huang, 2007; Yoo, 2005). See Appendix 3 for the English and Chinese versions of the scenario. A further assessment was conducted, that of manipulation within the pilot study.

4.1.2 Issues Concerning Cross-Cultural Research

Due to an ever-advancing technology and amplifying globalization, cross-cultural contact is increasing at an exceptional rate. Parallel to this increase, research in many aspects of cross-cultural contact has become a hot issue in many disciplines. CCB is having its fair share as more and more contacts, frequently marked by conflict and misunderstanding, are to be seen (Chen, & Gursoy, 2000). Thus, cross-cultural research, particularly within CCB literature, has received considerable attention during the last decades (Friedman, Olekalns, & Oh, 2011; Litvin, Crotts, & Hefner, 2004). However, Malhotra, Agarwal and Peterson (1996, p. 7-8) argued that cross-cultural research "…is being hampered by a methodological problem…methodologies have generally tended to lag behind…not following appropriate procedures and suffer from not being well understood". Similarly, Cheung, Murrmann, Murrmann and Becker (2004) urged that understanding and appropriate application of methodological practices is essential to the development of sound multi-cultural theory and research.

Simple reasoning suggests that if any comparison is to be made between two issues, ideas or cultures, (i) there should be a common ground; in other words, some existing criteria to do this comparison, and (ii) extra attention should be paid to avoid possible problems. These two important issues are referred to as, ‘equivalence/uniformity’ and ‘bias’ in cross-cultural research (Malhotra, & McCort, 2001). Van de Vijver and Leung (1997) noted that “…from a theoretical point of view, the two concepts are the opposite of each other; scores are equivalent when they are unbiased” (p. 7). However, Brislin et al. (1973) underlined that they are associated with different aspects of cross-cultural comparisons. Commonly, equivalence is more associated with measurement related issues where existence of bias challenges the validity of comparisons. Equivalence and bias are important issues that require addressing prior to meaningful cross-cultural comparisons (Friedman et al., 2011; van de Vijver, & Leung, 1997). To do so, several researchers investigated bias and equivalence concepts and cautioned researchers, who are planning to carry out cross-cultural research, about these to pay extra attention during the data collection and analysis (Brislin et al., 1973; Frijda, & Jahoda, 1966; Singh, 1995; Triandis, 1976; van de Vijver, & Tanzer, 2004).

4.1.2.1 Equivalence in Cross-Cultural Research

Within cross-cultural research, 'equivalence' refers to how similar concepts, techniques and questions within the settings of comparisons, could be more utilized. Salzberger, Sinkovics and Schlegelmilch (1999, p. 24), argued that when crossing cultural borders, the very meaning of a scale may change and classical quality indicators, such as reliability and validity, may be strongly influenced by cultural factors such that the researcher should make appropriate equivalence checks. In a worst-case scenario, not doing these checks correctly may severely diminish the usefulness of the findings rendering results that are very meaningless (Salzberger et al., 1999). Peng, Nisbett and Wong (1997) advocated that if the equivalence in cross-cultural research comparisons is neglected the resulting comparable differences in measured behavior could be misleading. Considering this potential peril, any research attempting to conduct any level of cross-national or cross-cultural comparison should be aware of the different types of equivalence measures (Malhotra, Agarwal, & Peterson, 1996).

'Equivalence' is mostly treated from a measurement perspective (Brislin, 1976). The present study followed this perspective and adopted the levels of equivalence proposed by Van de Vijver and Leung (1997) and Van de Vijver and Tanzer (2004). These are namely, construct/structural/functional, measurement unit, and scalar/full scale equivalences. The level and effort spent in maximizing their effects on the present research, presented in the definitions below.

The first level is *construct equivalence,* which is also known as structural or functional equivalence. "The same construct is measured…even though not necessarily operational in the same way across cultures" (van de Vijver, & Leung, 1997, p. 8). Prior to initiating any cross-cultural research effort, researchers should (i) question the very existence of the main constructs in target cultures and (ii) test whether the members of the target cultures perceive these constructs similarly (Frijda, & Jahoda, 1966). To maximize the construct equivalence, Brislin (1976) suggested a series of investigations with members of local cultures, focusing on the existence of the studied constructs. Therefore, requests were made to five faculty members and sixteen graduate students, to provide their comments on the existence of the study constructs (justice, culture, loyalty and tourist complaining constraints). They reported that these concepts represented behaviors that were observable in their culture and have similar meanings and functions within their cultures (Singh, 1995). Relying on the responses of twenty-one informants may cause the question of 'representativeness' to arise. However, this investigation was carried out to confirm the existence of these constructs, most of which were already well supported by published work in both locations (Gursoy et al., 2007; Heung et al., 2007; Mattila, & Wirtz, 2004; Ngai et al., 2007; Reisinger, & Turner, 2003).

The next level of equivalence is *measurement unit equivalence.* This occurs when the psychometric properties of data sets from different cultural groups exhibit the same coherence or structure (Malhotra et al., 1996). The measurement unit, being identical in both cultures is a powerful assumption, but very few researchers can claim strong measurement unit equivalence (van de Vijver, 2001).

Brislin (1976, p. 107) noted "…given that human behavior is so complex…especially when cultures are compared, arguments for metric equivalence should be made only when researchers have extensive evidence to support their claims". However, through some measures, researchers do try to enhance the equivalence of their measurement units such as providing a sufficient explanation regarding the aim of their research, placing demographic questions to the end of the survey, or avoiding sensitive questions such as political and religious views or salary (Stening, & Zhang, 2007). Both the pilot and the main studies of the present research, follow these measures.

The next level of equivalence, *scalar equivalence* or full-scale equivalence, "…can be obtained when two metric measures have the same measurement unit and same origin" (van de Vijver, & Tanzer, 2004, p. 122). Using hours, minutes and seconds as a time measurement scale in any two locations can be an example of this type of equivalence. Malhotra et al. (1996) recommended that specific scales or scoring procedures used to establish the measurement should be equivalent. Following this recommendation, the same measurement scale, used in both the Chinese and English versions of the questionnaire was the 7-point Likert scale (Likert, 1932).

Apart from the above-mentioned main equivalence measures, there exists another very critical issue: *translational* or *linguistic equivalence*. As cross-cultural research frequently involves the use of instruments that are developed for a single language and cultural setting (van de Vijver, & Leung, 1997; McGorry, 2000), there is always the need for translation.

There are four procedures recommended for the translation of an instrument: one-way translation, double/back translation, translation by committee and decentering. One-way translation occurs when a translator translates an instrument from one language to another (McGorry, 2000). It is simple and fast but suffers serious validity problems. Translation by committee is by a group of bi-lingual translators, who expect to have consensus on translated items. Whilst it produces reliable results, it is none-the-less criticized for having 'courtesy bias' and difficulty in gathering such a team (van de Vijver, 2001). Decentering involves an ongoing process of updating the research instrument by modifying its linguistic structure. Although it is considered to have a greater linguistic capability, it is however a costly and time-consuming procedure (Brislin et al., 1973).

Van de Vijver (2001, p. 3002) stressed that "…because linguistic equivalence is not always guaranteed by a literal translation, it has become increasingly popular to utilize adaptations…[where]…parts are changed (instead of literally translated) with the aim of improving an instrument's suitability for a target group". Back translation is adaption based. This is whereby the translation is through a bi-lingual translator whose native language is the language into which the item is translated. Thereafter, this version is re-translated back into the original language by a bi-lingual who is of the original language (Werner, & Campbell, 1970). Comparison of the two versions can easily identify problematic items Malhotra et al. (1996) recommended several repeat translations and back-translations to develop equivalent questionnaires. On the one hand, this process may be expensive and may require more time.

On the other, it is an effective and efficient process as it gives a good deal of control over the development effort of the questionnaire, adding/dropping during the process and making the final questionnaire academic/culturally specific. Numerous researchers (McGorry, 2000; Stening, & Zhang, 2007; Werner, & Campbell, 1970) have successfully adopted the back-translation procedure.

Following Werner and Campbell's (1970) recommendation, current research utilized the back-translation procedure while developing and modifying the research questionnaire. To be more specific, original versions of both the newly developed construct (tourists' complaining constraints) and existing ones (justice and loyalty), were translated by a first translator into the target language, being Simplified Chinese. A second independent translator took those results and independently translated the instrument back into English. The process, repeated twice to ensure consistency, had both resulting instruments crosschecked as recommended by Brislin (1976). The researcher compared the two versions of the instrument in the English language for any inconsistencies, mistranslations, meaning, cultural gaps and/or lost words or phrases (McGorry, 2000). There were some minor variations, of which required consultation with the translators to find out why this occurred and/or how to revise the instrument. Three culture-related questions, in the first part of the instrument, were particularly sensitive. These questions were 'willingness to subordinate oneself for a purpose is normal', 'people are identified independently of the groups they belong to' and 'other members in exchange for loyalty should protect an 'extended family member'. The expressions 'subordinate oneself ', 'groups they belong to' and extended family member' were not matching.

Thereafter, those questions were consequently modified in light of the recommendations given by two bi-lingual faculty members, those members being -native Chinese speakers and having had experience living in the United States. Moreover, results of the pilot study did not indicate any linguistic problems. By following the recommended steps, the researcher deemed that this translation process enhanced the linguistic equivalence of the instrument.

4.1.2.2 Bias in Cross-Cultural Research

The bias, in other words, nuisance factor, threatens the validity of cross-cultural score comparisons, thus should be minimized (van de Vijver, & Leung, 1997). Construct bias, method bias and item bias/differential item functioning are three types of bias identified in relevant literature. The following section looks at the definitions of these types of bias and explains the efforts spent to minimize their effects on the present research.

Construct bias occurs "…if the construct measured is not identical across cultural groups" (van de Vijver, & Tanzer, 2004, p. 120). Van de Vijver and Leung's (1997) specification of theoretical conceptualization underlying the measure, is suggested as the easiest solution. In relation to CCB, justice perceptions, customer loyalty and culture, the present research examined related literature and provided a comprehensive review of the concepts. The above-mentioned constructs have been studied in their respective settings by both Chinese and American scholars (Chan, 2006; Kindel, 1983; Lee, & Sparks, 2007) (Mattila, & Patterson, 2004a; Money et al., 1998; Vandello, & Cohen, 1999) resulting in consistent findings, apart from the newly developed TCC construct within this study.

As the name implies, *method bias* occurs when a problem arises during the application of methodological steps/processes. There are three types of method bias, namely sample, instrument and administration bias. *Sample bias* happens when investigated samples are incompatible (van de Vijver, 2001). To minimize this bias the present study targeted the same groups of respondents in both locations, graduate students having either Chinese or American nationality. *Instrument bias* includes problems driven from instrument characteristics such as clarity of response, scales used in the questionnaire or unfamiliarity of the respondents with the procedure. The 7-point Likert scale, which was successfully used by previous scholars in both locations (Choi, & Mattila, 2006; Heung & Lam, 2003; Kanousi, 2005), is adopted in this study. Moreover, respondents who were graduate students verified the unfamiliarity criterion, as they may use similar types of instruments in their own thesis and/or dissertation projects. The final type of method bias is the *administration bias,* which occurs due to communication problems between interviewers and interviewees. Frijda and Jahoda (1966) considered 'tester and interviewer effect', and 'mode of administration' as part of this type of bias. In order to minimize this bias, the following measures were adopted: (i) data was collected in similar conditions - on campus or classroom settings, (ii) instructions were written at the beginning of the research instrument using the respondents' native language, (iii) the majority of the questionnaires were distributed by experienced academic staff - apart from one case, whereby from a graduate student in China, (iv) respondents were assured of the non-existence of any hidden agenda, and (v) participation in the research was discretionary.

The final type of bias is *item bias* or *differential item function* and it refers to the distortions at item level. More specifically these biased items have different psychological meanings across cultures (Triandis, 1994). Item bias is mostly caused by poor item translation, ambiguities in the original item and low familiarity/appropriateness of the item content and wording (van de Vijver, & Tanzer, 2004). To minimize item bias, this study followed a previously recommended method of translation, namely 'back-translation' (McGorry, 2000; Werner, & Campbell, 1970).

4.2 Research Instrument

This section is composed of two main parts. The first part elaborates on the development of a new construct - tourist complaining constraint (TCC) - whereas the second justifies the use of the remaining constructs, adopted from CCB literature.

4.2.1 Scale Development: TCC Construct

Tourists are, by definition, away from their usual physical and social environments, thus their expected behavior appears different (Cohen, 2004; Jafari, 1987; Lundberg, 1990; Olsen, Teare, & Gummesson, 1996; Pearce, 2005; Smith, 1989). Complaining is no exception. An extensive examination of CCB literature in general and tourist behavior in particular, revealed that there is little knowledge regarding the tourist complaining process (Pearce, & Moscardo, 1984). Due to a lack of comprehensive information on tourist complaining (Reisinger, & Turner, 2003), the need arose to develop a measurement scale to find out the factors that may differentiate tourist complaining behavior from general consumer complaining behavior. Subsequently, the primary objectives of this research were to develop a new measurement scale - a valid and reliable one, to find out how these constraining factors affect justice perceptions of service recovery, to determine how cultural background and magnitude of failure moderate these relationships.

A measurement scale is "…an instrument that is a collection of items combined into a composite score and intended to reveal levels of theoretical variables not readily observable by direct means" (DeVellis, 2003, p. 8-9). The success of any empirical research lies in the effectiveness of the measurement scale. This is because, from data collected, the research conclusion will be driven by use of the measurement scale. Existing literature can be very helpful in identifying reliable and valid methodologies (techniques as well as measurement scales) previously used. Indeed, Hair et al. (2007) highlighted the benefit of using existing literature as a starting point and noted that there is no need to re-invent what may already proven to be of use in the past. While recommending this, they also warned about the possible need to update and revise, therefore specifically urging that an entirely new scale was in need of development if there was no existing one available (Gerbing, & Anderson, 1988; Hair et al., 2007; Jennings, 2001). DeVellis (2003) argued that sometimes no existing scale appears to be suitable in precisely the way researchers want and, developing their own scale appears the only remaining option. Ozer (1999) recommended the development of industry specific scales for a better fit to the nature of that particular industry. In line with both recommendations, Churchill and Surprenant (1982) concluded that development of valid measures is a never-ending process and a better measurement can only increase the quality of research and theory development.

Echoing the above suggestions and by considering the paucity of previously developed scales, to develop a measurement scale in the exclusive context of tourist complaining, deemed to be of value. To do so, guidelines set by Churchill (1979) are taken as the basis, since his ‘eight-step scale development procedure’ is found to be useful and adopted in various studies (Chu, & Murrmann, 2006; Millan, & Esteban, 2004; Yoo, 2005). The eight steps as shown in Figure 4.2.

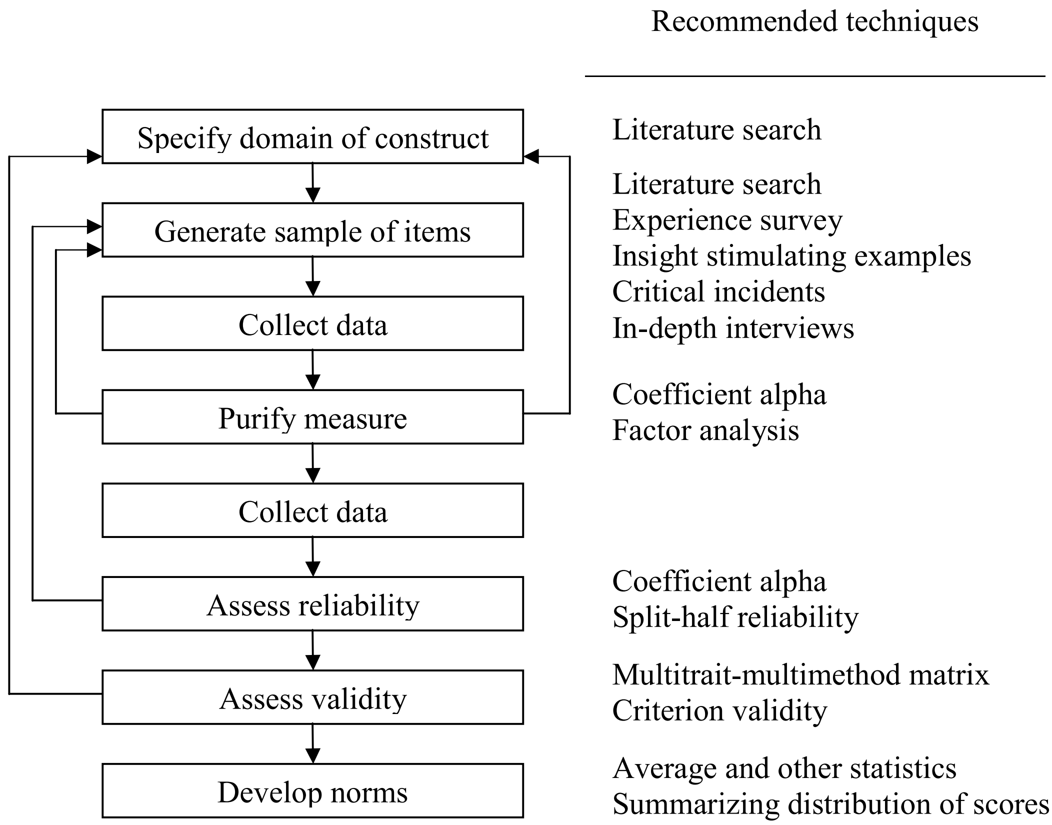

Figure 4.2 Steps of Scale Development Procedure

Source: Churchill, 1979, p. 66.

By keeping the essence of the eight-step approach and guidelines suggested by Hinkin (1995), DeVellis (2003) and Netemeyer, Bearden and Sharma (2003), this study followed a *four-stage procedure* in scale development, namely (1) item generation, (2) first stage purification, (3) second stage purification and (4) finalizing the measurement. Yoo (2005) carried out her research by following a similar procedure. An outline of the stages and procedures followed in the scale development, are as shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Steps of Scale Development Procedure

Stages	**Followed Steps and Procedures**
Stage 1: Item Generation	Step 1-1: Literature Review and In-depth Interviews • Identifying constructs / possible constraints of complaining • Generating items to represent the constructs Step 1-2: Translation (Content and Face) Validity Check • Evaluating the preliminary items by panel of judges • Refining, changing or/and removing unclear items Step 1-3: Pre-test • Translating items by using back-translation method • Analyzing initial items by experts • Revising items as suggested
Stage 2: First Stage Purifica-tion	Step 2-1: Pilot Data Collection • Checking content and face validities • Performing exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and omitting non-fitting items • Computing Cronbach's alpha coefficient and item-to-total correlation scores
Stage 3: Second Stage Purification	Step 3-1: Main Data Collection • Collecting data from Chinese and American respondents • Inputting data • Splitting data in to two halves Step 3-2: Purification of the Scale • Testing reliability • Analyzing factorial structures - EFA • Removing problematic items to obtain non-trivial factors

Stage 4: Finalizing TCC Scale	Step 4: Finalization of the Scale Representing the TCC • Assessing reliability and validity for the final scale • Performing confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) • Testing the theoretical factor structure and model specification • Examining overall fit and parameter fit on the modified scale

Source: Adopted from Churchill (1979), Yoo (2005) and Netemeyer et al. (2003)

4.2.1.1 Stage 1: Item Generation

There are two basic approaches to generate items. Hinkin (1995) noted these two approaches as (i) 'deductive' also known as 'logical partitioning' or 'classification from above' and (ii) 'inductive' or 'grouping' / 'classification from below'. Deductive item generation utilizes existing literature to define constructs, in some cases even the items representing these constructs (DeVellis, 2003). On the other hand, inductive item generation is preferred "…when there is often little theory involved at the outset as one attempts to identify constructs to generate measures from individual responses" (Hinkin, 1995, p. 969). In light of these definitions, the research fits both approaches, as some of the constructs, - limited time, limited involvement, limited communication and unfamiliarity - were very relevant (deductive approach). However, items under these constructs were found missing, thus the need to be developed inductively by asking respondents (inductive approach). Moreover, interview results generated a new construct, 'positive holiday mood', thereafter reviewed and added to the study.

A well-grounded theory begins with conceptualizations based on a detailed review of relevant literature. Thus, the first step of the item generation stage began with an extensive review of CCB and tourist behavior literature to find constructs that may have use within this study. Results of the review revealed that there was no published instrument specifically designed for measuring tourist complaints. Existing instruments, such as the ones developed and/or used by Mattila and Writz (2004), Singh (1990c), Smith and Bolton (2002) and Tax et al. (1998), are generic in nature and may not reflect the conditions that affect tourists' complaining behaviors. Due to a lack of comprehensive information on this particular issue, a need arose to develop a measurement scale to assess the constraints that may affect tourists' complaining behaviors (DeVellis, 2003). To do so, a pool of possible scale items required generating. Churchill (1979) recommended that you conduct interviews with subjects who are directly involved in the investigated phenomenon or 'judged' to be experts of the phenomenon.

According to Davis (1992) panel reviews provide opportunities for researchers to secure valuable expert consultation from both the industry members (in the case of the present research, hoteliers) and academics (who have a record of accomplishment of research and publication on the investigated area). There is no pre-set 'expertise level', it varies from investigated projects, to available scholar and/or industry members (Millan, & Esteban, 2004). However, subjectively researchers are free to focus on either industry experts or academy experts. This research employed both scholars (lecturers of Hong Kong Polytechnic University) and industry members (hotel managers kindly invited them to their tables). This procedure, frequently used by scholars, is carried out through exploratory investigations on issues about which little is known (Gerbing, & Anderson, 1988; Nyer, 2000; Chu, & Murrmann, 2006).

At this stage of the item generation process, fifteen in-depth interviews, enabling the generation of statements that could be used as items to represent constructs proposed in the study model, were performed. Interview subjects, chosen conveniently among students who attended a workshop specifically designed for graduate students in a local university, consisted of eight Chinese and seven Americans. Interviews took place during August 2008. Subjects had international travel experience and had holidayed abroad within the previous two years; a majority had some type of dissatisfying incident happen to them during their holidays. Each semi-structured interview lasted approximately 25 to 45 minutes and the interview process was audio recorded. Apart from the open-ended questions regarding constructs generated from the literature research, probing questions put forward were to further the detail within the answers given (Maxwell, 1996). Further questions developed were (i) whether factors examined - limited time, limited involvement, limited communication and unfamiliarity - were relevant constraints that may affect their complaining process, and (ii) what other factors may affect their complaining behavior when faced with a problem during their holidays. Their responses indicated that the constructs identified were highly relevant to their complaining process making the acceptance that the initial indicator held content validity (Netemeyer et al., 2003).

The content analytic approach employed, enabled coding of the qualitative data (Maxwell, 1996). After listening to the recordings, the researcher transcribed the interviews. Thereafter, the researcher reviewed these transcripts by picking the appropriate and deleting the irrelevant, redundant, ambiguous, and misleading content

(Gerbing, & Anderson, 1988). During this stage, the researcher's supervisor acted as an independent coder and vetted this process to reduce research bias. This process resulted in the generation of 46 statements. As recommended by Yoo (2005), three judges, selected as panel members based on their previous research and consulting activities within the field of consumer behavior, were asked to evaluate the statements. The judges, through randomly ordered statements, were requested to classify each one independently within the five categories, that being - limited time, limited involvement, limited communication, unfamiliarity and other. Previous scholars recommended the inclusion of the 'other' category (McAlister, & Erffmeyer, 2003) in case of the emergence of a construct that did not come out as a deductive approach (Shea, Enghagen, & Khullar, 2004). This was the case here, whereby some judges grouped statements under the 'other' category. After reviewing statements in the 'other' category and with the consent of scholars, this construct labeled as 'positive holiday mood'.

The second step of the item generation stage involves examination of translation validity, which has two sub-types, namely 'content validity' and 'face validity' (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) stressed that *content validity* occurs when an item of measure is a proper sample of the theoretical domain of the construct. While confirming the content validity, the use of two spate criteria took place. The first criterion, those statements assigned to the proper priority category by the majority of the judges (2 out of 3 as a decision rule), was retained (Yoo, 2005).

The second criterion was the judges' recommendation on clarity, specificity, consistency and the likelihood of the statements/items being overlapping and ambiguous to the respondents. The judges were requested to identify items that needed to be refined, changed or omitted from the statements. Hinkin (1995) strongly suggested this process as an effective way of increasing the content validity of a newly developed scale as "…[this process] will serve as a pre-test. It permits the deletion of items deemed conceptually inconsistent" (p. 970). By considering these criteria, 11 of 46 items were omitted. The inter-judge reliability coefficient, calculated to be 0.90, was considered as additional evidence to content validity.

Face validity implies that an instrument in a practical situation should appear practical, pertinent and related to the purpose of the research. In other words, it should not only be valid, but also appear valid to respondents (Netemeyer et al., 2003). To ensure face validity, 'respondent friendliness', from the TCC instrument was pre-tested with 20 conveniently selected graduate students. Their overall comments about this version of the instrument were that it had a proper reading level, clear and easy to read instructions and an easy-to-use response format. The only negative comment was regarding the length of the instrument. They noted that the instrument was slightly too long, taking approximately 20-30 minutes to complete. The focus of these two steps was to fine-tune the newly emerging scale in terms of coverage and user-friendliness.

Both content and face validity exercises led to the identification and labeling of 35 items under the five dimensions of tourist complaining constraints (TTC), limited time (eight items), limited involvement (six items), limited communication (seven items), unfamiliarity (seven items) and positive holiday mood (seven items). Appendix 4 presents a listing of these items.

The final step prior to pilot data collection was translation of the instrument from English to Simplified Chinese. As discussed in the equivalence section, the back-translation method (Werner, & Campbell, 1970) was chosen over alternative methods, (one-way translation, translation by committee and de-centering), for the translation process. The concern, at this stage, was not about translating the content literally but rather generating the correct meaning, being as similar as possible to the original English version (Karatepe, & Ekiz, 2004). To achieve this, the first translator translated the original version to Simplified Chinese. Thereafter, the second translator, who did not see the original version, translated the instrument back to English. To ensure consistency the process was repeated twice, with the two resulting instruments being crosschecked, as recommended by Werner and Campbell (1970) and Brislin (1976). Subsequently, the researcher compared the two English versions of the instrument for inconsistencies, mistranslations, meaning, cultural gaps and/or lost words or phrases (McGorry, 2000). There were no major discrepancies therefore, it was deemed appropriate, to use the Simplified Chinese version within the pilot study.

4.2.1.2 Stage 2: Initial Purification

A pilot test, conducted to create a more compact measurement scale, (Churchill, 1979), was to obtain additional support for content and face validities (Hinkin, 1995). Additionally, the pilot test provided support for construct validity as it allows the deletion of items that may be conceptually inconsistent (Loevinger, 1957; Schwab, 1980).

Distribution of the pilot questionnaire was to students listed in the Chinese Mainland Student Association and Student Exchange Office emailing lists. An electronic mail containing an invitation letter explained the aim of the research, along with an attachment of the pilot questionnaire in both simplified Chinese and English, disseminated to Chinese and American students respectively. See Appendix 5 for invitation letters, and Appendices 6 and 7 for the pilot questionnaire in English and Chinese respectively. A lucky draw for a $300 HK shopping voucher at a local supermarket was actioned, in order to increase the return rate and show appreciation.

For reasons of confidentiality, the number of members receiving the email is unavailable. After two follow up e-mails and personal contact with several potential respondents, 167 responses eventually arrived. Among these, 12 cases had missing values and multiple markings. For these reasons, they were not included in further analyses. As a rule of thumb, running a factor analysis requires a sample size of at least five times the number of scale items (Hair et al., 2007). Thus, running a factor analysis on the 35-item TCC scale required at least 175 cases. The remaining 155 cases that corresponded were slightly below the minimum recommended level and deemed adequate as a pilot testing sample size (Hair et al, 2003; Zikmund, 1994).

The 155 cases composed of 134 Chinese and 21 American respondents. This uneven number of distribution can be explained by the fact that there was a comparatively fewer number of American graduate students studying in Hong Kong in general, in particular at The Hong Kong Polytechnic University. The majority of respondents were males (51.6 %), in the age bracket of 21-28 (61.9 %), master degree students (57.4 %) and had travelled abroad between 1-4 times in during the previous 2 years (60.7 %). Apart from the origin of respondents, there were no other demographic characteristics showing possible bias (Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2006).

Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988) and Netemeyer et al. (2003) suggested that the purification of a scale begins with the computation of Cronbach's alpha coefficient, item-to-total correlation and exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Similarly, DeVellis (2003) noted that EFA is an appropriate tool to eliminate items with loadings below 0.40 and/or conceptually miss-fitting items. Churchill (1979) recommended the removal of items that possess near zero correlations or produce a substantial drop in the item-to-total correlations. Similarly, Nunnally (1978) recommended deletion of items with low corrected item-to-total correlations (<0.30). In light of this recommendation, certain items were accordingly removed from the TCC scale. The resulting corrected-item-total correlations were found to be above the recommended cut-off value as (Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994), see Table 4.3.

The initial values of the coefficient alpha ranged from .543 to .821 for the five factors, which necessitated the removal of some items to improve the alpha values (Cronbach, 1951). Factor loadings, obtained by the principal component method with Varimax rotation, were considered further to eliminate poor performing items. Factors with values higher than 1.0 were selected to remain. Items with factor loadings lower than .50, items with .50 or higher loadings on two or more factors and trivial items were deleted one by one (Jennings, 2001; Nunnally, 1978). As suggested by Chu and Murrmann (2006, p. 1183) after each deletion "…alpha values were re-computed for the remaining items and the new corrected correlations were evaluated for further deletion of items". After each item deletion, a new factor analysis ran on the remaining items. This process continued until no more items were eligible for removal (Huang, 2007). Using this procedure, a relatively stable factorial structure emerged after eleven rounds of factor analysis. In total, there were thirteen items deleted from the instrument (see Table 4.3 for results of the pilot study).

Table 4.3 Results of Pilot Study: Scale Items, Correlations, Factor Loadings and Alpha Scores (n=155)

TCC Items	ITTC*	Factor loadings				
		F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
Fami1. As a tourist, I feel safer expressing my complaints, if I am in a familiar destination.	.510	.850				
Fami2. When faced with a problem during my holiday, I will be more likely to complain if I know how my complaint will be handled.	.683	.762				
Fami5. Having knowledge about the destination makes me more confident in conveying my unsatisfactory experience(s).	.443	.755				
Fami3. I believe that the lack of knowledge on local policies and procedures concerning complaint handling makes complaining more difficult.	.434	.717				
Fami7. If I know how the service provider will handle my complaint, my confidence in the resolution process will increase.	.362	.709				
Holi2. During my holiday, I usually forgive service providers when they fail.	.532		.826			
Holi3. Most of the time, I choose not to complain when I am on holiday.	.517		.754			
Holi6. I consider myself very forgiving throughout my holiday.	.485		.741			
Holi7. When faced with a problem during my holiday, I prefer not to complain.	.426		.702			
Time5. If I feel that resolving the problem will take a long time, I will sometimes choose not to complain.	.542			.815		
Time3. If I have a limited amount of time to explain my case to the service provider, I usually prefer not to complain.	.490			.773		
Time1. I think finding the right contact person to voice dissatisfaction to takes a lot of time. For this reason, I usually choose not to complain during my vacation.	.474			.759		
Time8. If I have limited time during my holiday, there is not much I can do to solve a problem.	.390			.727		
Time2. While I am on holiday, the amount of time needed to complain is not an issue when I decide to complain. (R)	.331			.700		
Invo5. The more involved I am with the planning of my vacation, the more short-tempered I will be when things go wrong during the trip.	.512				.811	
Invo1. I tend to complain more if I am highly involved in my vacation planning.	.467				.794	
Invo3. The more money I spend on my vacation, the more likely I am to complain when an issue arises.	.430				.783	
Invo2. If I spend a lot of effort in planning my holiday, I am more likely to complain if anything goes wrong.	.321				.722	
	.544					.804

Comm2. I feel more confident in expressing my concerns if the employee(s) can speak my language.						
Comm3. It becomes frustrating if the employee(s) cannot understand me while I am complaining.	.496					.771
Comm5. I expect the service provider to demonstrate excellent communication skills when handling my complaint.	.473					.735
Comm4. If there is a communication barrier between the service provider and myself, this decreases my intention to voice any complaints.	.395					.694
Cronbach's α		.825	.803	.768	.740	.715
Variance explained (%)		17.96	15.37	9.79	8.33	6.12
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.741				
Bartlett's test of Sphericity		χ^2 = 552.20		df = 136		Sig= <.000
Eigenvalue		3.053	2.61	1.66	1.41	1.04

Notes: * Item-to-total correlations, Overall Cronbach's α = .831, total variance explained = 64.90 %, F1 = unfamiliarity, F2 = positive holiday mood, F3 = limited time, F4 = limited involvement, F5 = limited communication.

The remaining 22 items under the five factors collectively explained 64.90 percent of the variance, considered acceptable in social sciences research (Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994). Factors (item numbers and explained variances) of TCC scale at this stage were as follows: unfamiliarity (five items explaining 17.96 %), positive holiday mood (four items explaining 15.37 %), limited time (five items explaining 9.79 %), limited involvement (four items explaining 8.33 %) and limited communication (four items explaining 6.12 %).

After necessary deletions, the overall Cronbach alpha (α) was .831, where reliability coefficient scores for five factors were as follows: unfamiliarity (α = .825), positive holiday mood (α = .803), limited time (α = .768), limited involvement (α = .740) and limited communication (α = .715). These results did not necessitate the removal of any items to improve the alpha scores (Cronbach, 1951). Factorial structures of the initially generated five TCC factors, confirmed through the pilot data. Both Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity indicated that the data matrix had sufficient inter-correlations to justify the application of factor analysis (Hair et al., 2007). The KMO index ranges between 0 and 1, where higher values show better justification. The KMO result was .741, which was higher than the recommended index of .60 (Garson, 2001). The approximate Chi-square value (χ^2) for Barlett's Test of Sphericity was 552.20 (df=136), significant at the level of .001 which indicated that the sample inter-correlation matrix did not come from a population in which the inter-correlation matrix is an identity matrix (Zikmund, 1994). Overall, these results show no indication of any factorial structure or reliability problem, thus the 22-item TCC scale was ready for testing for further purification.

4.2.1.3 Stage 3: Second Stage Purification

The further purification of a newly developed scale suggests testing of the reliability and factorial structure with a new data set (DeVellis, 2003). The 22-item TCC scale of data collection was used for this purpose. The samples of this study consist conveniently of selected Chinese and American graduate students studying in China and America. In order to reach these target samples, various faculty members of The School of Hotel and Tourism Management of Hong Kong Polytechnic University, offered to name a few scholars, who could help distribute questionnaires to their own students in both locations. After several rounds of email exchanges, eleven scholars - seven from America and four from China - agreed to assist in the data collection.

By considering the sample size calculation recommended (Zikmund, 1994) and approximate number of questionnaires, these scholars suggested that they could collect, so eleven packages containing 2,400 questionnaires were sent (1,400 to US and 1,000 to China), with English versions being sent to the US and simplified Chinese to China. After excluding questionnaires with missing and/or multiple responses, 938 questionnaires from America and 884 from China were found useful and had return rates of 67.0 % and 88.4 % respectively. This stage of data collection took three months (October to December 2008) to complete.

To perform the second stage of purification analysis, the collected data was split randomly into two halves to accomplish two factor analyses for further development of the TCC scale (Yoo, 2005). 'Splitting' is, achieved by the use of SPSS software following the criterion of ‘odd vs. even numbers’. The first half of the data *(n* = 911) was used to perform exploratory factor analysis for the purification of the scale, and subsequently the second half of the data *(n* = 911) was used to conduct confirmatory factor analysis for the finalization of the scale (Sabharwal, & Soch, 2011). Doing so had at least two advantages: (i) minimization of the risk of the chance factor, because the analysis results may be driven by the characteristics of the particular sample and (ii) checking the robustness of the factorial structure of the newly developed measurement model (Kinnear, & Gray, 2008; Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994).

At this stage of purification, similar steps were followed, mainly the computation of Cronbach's alpha coefficient, item-to-total correlation and exploratory factor analysis (Parasuraman et al., 1988; Netemeyer et al., 2003). The following criteria were adhered to while fine-tuning the TCC scale: eliminate items with loadings below 0.50 and/or conceptually miss-fitting (DeVellis, 2003), delete items which possessed near zero correlations or produced a substantial drop in the item-to-total correlations (Churchill, 1979) and remove items with low corrected item-to-total correlations, <0.30 (Nunnally, 1978). The resulting corrected-item-total correlations, found to be above the recommended cut-off value (Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994), can be seen Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Results of First Half of the Main Data: Scale Items, Corrected Item-to-Total Correlations, Factor Loadings and Cronbach Alpha Scores (n=911)

TCC Items	ITTC*	Factor loadings				
		F1	F2	F3	F4	F5
Fami1. As a tourist, I feel safer expressing my complaints, if I am in a familiar destination.	.543	.831				
Fami2. When faced with a problem during my holiday, I will be more likely to complain if I know how my complaint will be handled.	.519	.794				
Fami5. Having knowledge about the destination makes me more confident in conveying my unsatisfactory experience(s).	.505	.786				
Fami3. I believe that the lack of knowledge on local policies and procedures concerning complaint handling makes complaining more difficult.	.483	.738				
Time3. If I have a limited amount of time to explain my case to the service provider, I will usually prefer not to complain.	.551		.823			
Time1. I think finding the right contact person to voice dissatisfaction takes a lot of time. For this reason, I usually choose not to complain during my vacation.	.518		.791			
Time5. If I feel that resolving the problem will take a long time, I will sometimes choose not to complain.	.495		.767			
Holi2. During my holiday, I usually forgive service providers when they fail.	.542			.830		
Holi6. I consider myself very forgiving throughout my holiday.	.527			.764		
Holi3. Most of the time, I choose not to complain when I am on holiday.	.491			.755		
Invo3. The more money I spend on my vacation, the more likely I am to complain when an issue arises.	.524				.823	
Invo2. If I spend a lot of effort in planning my holiday, I am more likely to complain if anything goes wrong.	.496				.804	
Invo5. The more involved I am with the planning of my vacation, the more short-tempered I will be when things go wrong during the trip.	.447				.793	
Invo1. I tend to complain more if I am highly involved in my vacation planning.	.359				.741	
Comm3. It becomes frustrating if the employee(s) cannot understand me while I am complaining.	.550					.831
Comm2. I feel more confident in expressing my concerns if the employee(s) can speak my language.	.504					.781
Comm5. I expect the service provider to demonstrate excellent communication skills when handling my complaint.	.497					.742
Cronbach's α		.851	.836	.824	.797	.758
Variance explained (%)		24.70	12.34	6.94	6.15	5.23
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.853				
Bartlett's test of Sphericity		χ^2 = 3112.21		df = 136		Sig= <.000
Eigenvalue		4.20	3.69	2.98	2.41	1.87

Notes: * Item-to-total correlations, Overall Cronbach's α = .845, total variance explained = 55.36 %, F1 = unfamiliarity, F2 = limited time, F3 = positive holiday mood, F4 = limited involvement, F5 = limited communication.

Reliability and factor structure of the 22-item TCC scale were tested by using the first half of the data. Although the initial values were not problematic, there was room for improvement. Coefficient alphas ranged from .693 to .837 for the five factors (Cronbach, 1951). Factor loadings were considered further to test the factors and eliminate poor performing items. A relatively stable factorial structure emerged after five rounds of factor analysis. In total, five items were deleted from the instrument. These were 'Fami7. If I know how the service provider will handle my complaint, my confidence in the resolution process will increase', 'Holi7.

When I am faced with a problem during my holiday, I prefer not to complain', 'Time8. If I have limited time during my holiday, there is usually not much I can do to solve a problem', 'Time2. While I am on holiday, the amount of time needed to complain is not an issue when I decide to complain' and 'Comm4. If there is a communication barrier between the service provider and myself, this decreases my intention to voice any complaints'. The remaining 17 items under five factors collectively explained 55.36 percent of the variance, considered acceptable in social sciences research (Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994). Factors (item numbers and explained variances) of the TCC scale at this stage were as follows: unfamiliarity (four items explaining 24.70 %), limited time (three items explaining 12.34 %), positive holiday mood three items explaining 6.94 %), limited involvement (four items explaining 6.15 %), limited communication (three items explaining 5.23 %).

The overall Cronbach alpha was (α), found to be .845 where reliability coefficient scores for the five factors were: unfamiliarity (α = .851), limited time (α = .836), positive holiday mood (α = .824), limited involvement (α = .797) and limited communication (α = .758). These results did not necessitate any further removal as (Nunnally, 1978) indicated, as the factorial structure of the five TCC factors was confirmed within the first half of the data. Both Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity figures were higher than the recommended cut-off values (Garson, 2001; Jennings, 2001). KMO was calculated to be .853 where the approximate Chi-square value (χ^2) for the Barlett's Test of Sphericity was 3112.21 (df=136), significant at the level of .001. These results indicated that the sample inter-correlation matrix did not come from a population in which the inter-correlation matrix is an identity matrix (Zikmund, 1994). Overall, these results showed no indication of any factorial structure or reliability problem, thus the refined 17-item TCC scale was ready for testing for confirmatory factor analysis and finalized.

4.2.1.4 Stage 4: Finalizing TCC Scale

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the second half of data collected *(n* = 911) was conducted. Netemeyer et al. (2003) stated the purpose of CFA for scale development is to confirm priori hypotheses about the relationships of a set of measurement items to their respective factors. The covariance matrix used as input data and having the maximum likelihood method of estimation, employed by using the LISREL 8.70 package by (Jöreskog, & Sörbom, 1996).

The overall Cronbach alpha (α) was .788 whereby reliability coefficient scores for the five factors ranged from .743 to .808. According to the results of the completely standardized factor loadings (CSL), one item was lower than the recommended .40 cut-off value (Nunnally, 1978) thus removed from the TCC scale. The item was 'Fami7 = If I know how the service provider will handle my complaint, my confidence in the resolution process will increase', with CSL = .34. Table 4.5 lists the measurement error, t-values and coefficient of determination (R^2) scores. Millan and Esteban (2004) reported R^2 scores as a relative measure of fit for each structural equation. Similarly, Hair et al. (2007) recommended the deletion of items whose R^2 scores are lower than .40. In echoing Hair et al.'s (2007) recommendation the following item was deleted, 'Invo5 = the more involved I am with the planning of my vacation, the more short-tempered I will be when things go wrong during the trip', with R^2 = .38. After these two deletions, the final version of the TCC scale contained five factors with 15 items, whereby each factor being measured with three items.

Table 4.5 Results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis

TCC Factors and items	CSL λ_i	t	Measurement error E_i	t	R^2	α
Unfamiliarity (FAMI)						.743
1. As a tourist, I feel safer expressing my complaints, if I am in a familiar destination.	.76	15.36	1.48	19.14	.48	
2. When faced with a problem during my holiday, I will be more likely to complain if I know how my complaint will be handled.	.85	18.30	1.18	17.74	.58	
5. Having knowledge about the destination makes me more confident in conveying my unsatisfactory experience(s).	.73	16.66	1.12	18.61	.52	
Limited time (TIME)						.783
3. If I have a limited amount of time to explain my case to the service provider, I will usually prefer not to complain.	.81	13.67	1.47	15.67	.51	
1. I think finding the right contact person to voice dissatisfaction takes a lot of time. For this reason, I usually choose not to complain during my vacation.	.74	10.15	2.38	19.01	.47	
5. If I feel that resolving the problem will take a long time, I will sometimes choose not to complain.	.71	12.52	1.49	17.21	.45	
Positive holiday mood (HOLI)						.808
2. During my holiday, I usually forgive service providers when they fail.	.78	14.76	1.29	16.29	.52	
6. I consider myself very forgiving throughout my holiday.	.77	14.37	1.33	16.68	.46	
3. Most of the time, I choose not to complain when I am on holiday.	.95	16.24	1.39	14.42	.42	
Limited involvement (INVO)						.801
3. The more money I spend on my vacation, the more likely I am to complain when an issue arises.	.87	20.34	1.00	12.07	.53	
2. If I spend a lot of effort in planning my holiday, I am more likely to complain if anything goes wrong.	.86	16.41	1.43	17.29	.49	
1. I tend to complain more if I am highly involved in my vacation planning.	.71	11.37	2.16	19.74	.44	
Limited communication (COMM)						.772
3. It becomes frustrating if the employee(s) cannot understand me while I am complaining.	.92	19.05	1.28	17.71	.50	
2. I feel more confident in expressing my concerns if the employee(s) can speak my language.	.88	19.64	1.07	17.33	.43	
5. I expect the service provider to demonstrate excellent communication skills when handling my complaint.	.90	18.92	1.24	17.80	.40	
Fit indices						
χ^2 / df	= 2.76					
GFI (goodness of fit index)	= .97					
AGFI (adjusted goodness of fit index)	= .95					
CFI (comparative fit index)	= .97					
NNFI (non-normed fit index)	= .96					
RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation)	= .044					
RMR (root mean square residual)	= .075					

Notes: CSL = completely standardized loadings, Overall Cronbach's α = .788, All loadings are significant at $p < .01$.

Initially, results of the CFA indicated a reasonable fit of the five-factor model to the data based on a number of fit statistics (such as; χ^2/df = 3.20, GFI = .93, AGFI = .91, CFI = .92, NNFI =.94, RMSEA = .06 and RMR = .089). Through the removal of the two items these fit indices improved further (χ^2/df = 2.76, GFI = .97, AGFI = .95, CFI = .97, NNFI = .96, RMSEA = .04 and RMR = .075) (Anderson, & Gerbing, 1988; Diamantopoulos, & Siguaw, 2005). Although χ^2/df value is one of the most important fit indices, there is no consensus on the acceptable level. For instance, Byrne (1998) argued that the value should be low and supported a rather conservative 'less-than-two criterion', whereas Marsh and Hocevar (1985) and Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) noted that any value between 2 to 5 is an acceptable level. Thus, 2.76 could be considered an indication of a good fit. Compared to the 17-item version, the 15-item version produced a clearer factor structure and improvement in all the fit indices (Jöreskog, & Sörbom, 1996; Kelloway, 1998). This therefore, leads to the conclusion that the final measurement scale with the five constructs and fifteen items is appropriate in describing the collected data and acceptable as a well-fitting scale for this study (Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994).

In order to provide support for discriminant validity, Pearson product-moment correlations were computed through the TCC factors. For this purpose, composite scores for each factor were calculated by averaging item scores of the actual factor. Table 4.6 shows the significant correlations among the factors. The highest correlation occurred between 'limited communication' and 'unfamiliarity' factors (0.49), and the lowest found between 'unfamiliarity' and 'limited time' (0.19).

Bauer, Falk and Hammerschmidt (2006) highlighted the need for utilizing rather conservative Fornell/Larcker tests while assessing the discriminant validity of newly developed scales. The average variance extracted estimate (AVE) calculated to explain the overall amount of variance in the indicators accounted for by the respective construct (Fornell, & Larcker, 1981). For a newly developed scale, values near 0.50 (> 0.45) are viewed as reasonable (Netemeyer et al., 2003). For the final TCC scale, the AVE for all five factors ranged from 0.47 to 0.62, which exceeded the threshold level of 0.45 (Fornell, & Larcker, 1981).

Construct validity is disclosed through tests of convergent validity and discriminant validity (Loevinger, 1957; Schwab, 1980). Convergent validity demonstrates as to whether items are able to measure the construct that they are supposed to and which can be detected from the t-value of each indicator (Hair et al., 2007). Table 4.6 shows that all indicators of the final scale have a significant t-value at the level of .01 (± 1.96), and 15 indicators of completely standardized factor loadings range between .71 and .95. Based on these estimates the convergent validity of the measurement scale was established (Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994). Overall, these results indicated good fit of data, with each indicator showing convergent and discriminant validity and reliability within their respective constructs. This therefore provided additional support for the applicability of the newly developed TCC scale (Anderson, & Gerbing, 1988; Bauer et al., 2006; Loevinger, 1957). The results enabled the researcher to go ahead with testing the hypothesized relationships between TCC and other study variables.

Table 4.6 Construct Correlation Matrix (Φ), AVE, Means and Standard Deviations of the TCC Scale

Factors	TIME	INVO	COMM	FAMI	HOLI
Limited Time (TIME)	1.00				
Limited Involvement (INVO)	.33 (.06) 5.88	1.00			
Limited Communication (COMM)	.45 (.05) 8.63	.22 (.03) 24.13	1.00		
Unfamiliarity (FAMI)	.19 (.05) 9.11	.36 (.04) 20.92	.49 (.03) 34.38	1.00	
Positive Holiday Mood (HOLI)	.39 (.05) 17.03	.41 (.05) 4.44	.37 (.05) 6.05	.43 (.05) 7.66	1.00
AVE	.56	.47	.55	.62	.51
Means	4.04	4.44	4.22	4.54	3.98
Standard Deviations	.77	.62	.61	.57	.72

Notes: In a table cell, the first figure denotes correlation coefficient; the second figure in bracket is the standard error; and the third figure is the t value. Composite scores are calculated by averaging the items representing that factor. Responses range from 1 to 7 and higher scores indicate favorable responses. All correlations are significant at the $p < .001$.

4.2.2 Measurement of Other Constructs

4.2.2.1 Justice Perception and Loyalty

Many scholars developed items to measure justice perception (Bies, & Moag, 1986; Blodgett et al., 1997; Blodgett et al., 1993; Smith et al., 1999; Tyler, 1994; Yim et al., 2003) and loyalty, as seen within CCB literature. (Blodgett, & Tax, 1993; Brown, & Beltramini, 1989; Buttle, & Burton, 2002; Davidow, 2000a, 2003a; Day et al., 1981; Higie et al. 1987; Mattila, 2001a, 2004; Zeithaml et al., 1996).

Keeping this variety and inconsistency in mind, Ekiz et al. (2005) and Gursoy et al. (2006, 2007) adopted various items from these scholars (Blodgett et al., 1997; Blodgett et al., 1993; Smith et al., 1999; Davidow, 2000a; McCollough et al., 2000; Zeithaml et al., 1996) and tested them in higher education, hospitality and travel industries. They produced sound statistical results to show that existing justice perception and loyalty to the organization dimensions are reliable and valid. Furthermore, the pilot data collected was used for testing the applicability of these dimensions.

The pilot data composed of 155 respondents who tested the reliability and factor structure of the 9-item justice dimensions and the 5-item loyalty dimension. A similar series of analyses using the same judgmental criteria and was conducted to test the factorial structure of the justice and loyalty dimensions. To be more specific, Cronbach's alpha coefficients, item-to-total correlations and exploratory factor analysis, were implemented (Hair et al., 2007).

The results of the initial analyses showed that the factorial structure related statistics of both justice and loyalty dimensions were above the recommended values. Coefficient alpha ranged from .767 to .914 for four factors (Cronbach, 1951). Factor loadings and Eigen values were applied further as criterion to check the necessity of deleting any items in fine-tuning the dimensions (Hair et al., 2007; Nunnally, 1978). After two factor analyses only one item was found to be performing poorly, thus 'PROJUST1: I felt that hotel policies allowed for flexibility in taking care of my complaint' was removed from the scale. The remaining 13 items under four factors collectively explained 72.49 percent of the variance (Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994). Item numbers and explained variances of justice and loyalty dimensions were as follows: interactional justice three items explaining 34.21 %), distributional justice (three items explaining 17.63 %), procedural two items explaining 11.07 %) and loyalty five items explaining 9.58 %). Table 4.7 shows the results.

After deleting one item, the overall Cronbach alpha (α) was .925 where reliability coefficient scores for four dimensions were: interactional justice (α = .861), distributional justice (α = .857), procedural justice (α = .767) and loyalty (α = .914). These results did not necessitate any further item removal (Nunnally, 1978) indicating that the factorial structure of justice and loyalty dimensions had been confirmed through the pilot data. Both KMO and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity figures were higher than the recommended cut-off values (Hair et al., 2007). KMO was .859 where the approximate Chi-square value (χ^2) for the Barlett's Test of Sphericity was 674.775 (df=38), significant at the level of .001. These results indicated that the sample inter-correlation matrix did not come from a population in which the inter-correlation matrix is an identity matrix (Zikmund, 1994).

Table 4.7 Pilot Data Results for Justice and Loyalty Items: Scale Items, Correlations, Factor Loadings and Alpha Scores (n=155)

Justice and Loyalty Items	ITTC*	Factor loadings			
		F1	F2	F3	F4
INTJUST3. I felt like the representative really cared about me.	.516	.889			
INTJUST1. I felt that the representative was very courteous.	.502	.859			
INTJUST2. I felt that the concern shown by the representative was sincere.	.607	.757			
DISJUST1. I am fairly happy with what the hotel gave me.	.726		.873		
DISJUST3. I think that the result I got from the hotel was appropriate.	.734		.765		
DISJUST2. I thought that the hotel solution was definitely acceptable.	.804		.749		
PROJUST3. I believe that the hotel guidelines for listening to and handling complaints are fair.	.609			.820	
PROJUST2. I felt that the guidelines, used by the hotel to process my complaint, were fair.	.626			.810	
LOYAL3. I will encourage my friends and relatives to stay in this hotel.	.780				.928
LOYAL2. I will recommend this hotel to someone who seeks my advice.	.788				.919
LOYAL4. I will consider this hotel as my first choice to buy accommodation services.	.729				.896
LOYAL5. I am more likely to patronize this hotel in the future.	.678				.873
LOYAL1. I will say positive things about this hotel to other people.	.705				.762
Cronbach's α		.861	.857	.767	.914
Variance explained (%)		34.21	17.63	11.07	9.58
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.859			
Bartlett's test of Sphericity	χ^2 = 674.775 df = 38 Sig= <.000				
Eigenvalue		4.58	3.45	1.49	3.86

Notes: * Item-to-total correlations, Overall Cronbach's α = .925, total variance explained = 72.49 %, F1 / INTJUST = Interactional Justice, F2 / DISJUST = Distributional Justice, F3 / PROJUST = Procedural Justice, F4 / LOYAL = Loyalty.

Overall, these results showed no indication of any factorial structure or reliability problem. Consequently, the refined 8-item justice scale and 5-item loyalty scale were ready for testing through confirmatory factor analysis with the main data. These items, mixed together, became Part 4 of the final questionnaire (see Appendix 8 for English, Appendix 9 for Chinese versions of the final questionnaire).

4.2.2.2 Demographic Characteristics

The last part of the questionnaire contained demographic questions. As the target sample was composed of university students, the questions in this section were tailor made to fit their profile. The following five questions were included; age, gender, enrolled university program, their year of study and nationality. Furthermore, respondents were asked two filtering questions at the beginning of the questionnaire. These questions were as follows: 'Were you born in the USA or China?' in addition, 'Have you traveled outside USA/China before?' Only respondents whose responses were 'yes' to both questions were requested to read and complete the rest of the questionnaire. The logic behind asking these two filtering questions was simply to eliminate other cultures and inexperienced travelers from the sampling framework.

4.2.3 Pre-Testing the Instrument and Pilot Study

The questionnaire items were originally prepared in English and then translated into Simplified Chinese by using the back-translation method (McGorry, 2000; Werner, & Campbell, 1970). From the section on equivalence and scale development, the back-translation procedure is highlighted an important part of the overall equivalence effort (Singh, 1995). Three judges, being faculty members of a Chinese university and fluent in both languages, further tested the cross-linguistic comparability of the instrument. This was necessary to pre-test the instrument for understandability.

This step was followed by a pilot study fine-tune the research instrument further. Results of the pilot study are given and discussed in the 'Findings' section. Conducting a pilot test was particularly important and needed for the current study because it contained a set of newly developed measurement items.

4.3 Data Collection

The term ‘data collection’ covers both secondary data (already available data collected for some other purpose) and primary data (collected for the purpose at hand). Within consumer behavior research, the collection of primary data is to examine socioeconomic and psychological characteristic, attitudes, awareness, intentions and motivations of the responding party (Hair et al., 2003). Mail survey, telephone survey, face-to-face interview and Internet survey are among some of the primary data collection techniques.

After considering its advantages (finding qualified respondents, minimizing misunderstanding, probing additional questions, and involving respondents) and disadvantages (potential existence of interview bias, costly and poor turnaround time), current research utilized face-to-face interview techniques in the collection of primary data (Churchill, & Iacobucci, 2002). However, it should be noted that data was collected by teachers from graduate students, who were volunteer academics in China and America, but not known by the researcher personally.

A mix of methodology was used in the present research study. To be more specific, in-depth interviews were conducted during the scale development process. Thereafter, a questionnaire containing a developed scenario, items related to the constructs in the model as well as demographic questions, were used during collection of survey data. Data collection was conducted in two different locations, China and the United States. To collect the data required, academic staff from the School of Hotel and Tourism Management of The Hong Kong Polytechnic University was requested to name any scholars who could help to distribute questionnaires to their own students, in both locations. After several rounds of email exchanges, eleven scholars agreed to assist data collection. The involvement of these scholars was limited only to distributing and collecting the questionnaires. Due to the limitations of the researcher, data was collected by these 11 scholars - seven from America and four from China in both locations. Table 4.8 lists the universities that participated in data collection and the return rates.

Table 4.8 List of the Universities' Participation in Data Collection

Name of the University	Questionnaires Sent	Questionnaires Returned	Usable Questionnaires	Return Rate %
America				
Georgia Southern University	200	133	126	63.0
University of Louisiana	200	134	130	65.0
Washington State University	200	181	177	88.5
VirginiaTech University	200	117	110	55.0
University of Arkansas	200	120	112	56.0
University of Houston	200	141	139	69.5
University of Nevada	200	145	144	72.0
Total	**1,400**	**971**	**938**	**67.0**
China				
Qingdao University	250	216	211	84.4
Dongbei University	250	227	223	89.2
Sun Yat-Sen University	250	241	237	94.8
Yunnan University	250	218	213	85.2
Total	**1,000**	**902**	**884**	**88.4**

The present research investigates the possible moderating effect of the magnitude of failure on the study model. To achieve this, two different scenarios with high and low magnitude failure incidents were developed. During distribution of the questionnaires to the respondents in classrooms, scholars were instructed to assign one questionnaire with a high magnitude failure scenario after issuing one of low magnitude. By doing so, the researcher attempted to balance the numbers of the high and low magnitude questionnaires.

4.3.1 Population and Sampling Design

4.3.1.1 Population

Population/universe, within academic research, refers to the total of all elements that share a common set of characteristics. It is the aggregation of elements in any research study. As the opportunity to collect data from the entire population is almost impossible, researchers instead, aim to reach a representative sample, a small subset of the population, to derive conclusions about the characteristics of the population (Hair et al., 2007). Samples are required for three reasons: cost saving (time and/or money), feasibility (practical, adequate) and quality of data (concentration of effort). If samples are incorrectly designed then they would not represent the population or would not be appropriate in the aim of the research; in which case sampling may cause subjectivity and bias in results found (Zikmund, 1994).

The population for this study was composed of Chinese and American graduate students. China and America were chosen as the target audience because of being ideal examples of their culture clusters (Hofstede, 1980, 2001) whereby China, being a good example of an Asian culture and likewise, America for the Western culture. In addition, they are and/or will be important tourist generating countries of the future (UNWTO, 2010a). World Travel and the Tourism Council (2007, p. 10-11) conducted economic research on travel and tourism whereby they predicted that the

United States, followed by China, will be the top two spenders on both personal travel (approximately, 1.440 million and 509 million US dollars respectively) and business travel (approximately, 303 million and 176 million US dollars respectively) in 2017. These predictions, made by UNWTO (2007c) highlight the importance of these two countries as the biggest tourist generating regions. Understanding American and Chinese cultures in general, complaining behavior in particular, would be of vital information to businesses operating in the tourism industry. This research has focused on these two countries / cultures and aims to provide useful guidelines for industry practitioners.

4.3.1.2 Sampling Design

When the challenge of having equal choice in the selection of the target population of Chinese and Americans and the limitations of the research (time and resources) were considered, this current research utilized a non-probability sampling (Sekaran, 1992). More specifically, the present research used a judgmental / purposeful sampling method whereby the judgment of Chinese and Americans significantly represented different cultures (Hofstede, 2001) and graduate student travelers demonstrated similar shopping behaviors to other tourists (Becker et al., 1999). Judd, Smith and Kidder (1991, p. 136) defined judgmental sampling as "…picking cases that are judged to be typical of the population in which we are interested, assuming that errors of judgment in the selection will tend to counterbalance one another".

Once the population is determined, the next important decision is setting boundaries on the said population. These boundaries create a sampling frame - a more manageable group judged as representative of the population (Hair et al., 2003). In this research, the population of interest refers to all citizens of China and America; the sampling frame includes only those who satisfy the following conditions: (i) being natives, born and living in China/America, (ii) being a current graduate student in his/her own country, and (iii) having traveled abroad during the previous two years. As a limitation, the sampling frame did not cover the remainder of the non-confirming population.

The aim of the present study was to find out the effect of TTC on justice perceptions and that of justice perceptions on loyalty by using evidence from China and America. To do so, the unit of analysis was determined at the individual level with special focus on university graduate students. Within CCB literature, it is common practice to use student sampling, those being university students in general (Goodwin, & Ross, 1992; Malhotra, & McCort, 2001; McCollough, 2000; O'Neill, & Mattila, 2004; Smith, & Bolton, 2002) and post-graduate students in particular (Becker et al., 1999; Kanousi, 2005; Leong, Kim, & Ham, 2002; Richins, 1983). There are some studies that used students to explore general complaining behavior (Smith, & Bolton, 1998; Su, & Tippins, 1998), while others are more specific to the tourism industry (Mattila, & Patterson, 2004b; Patterson et al., 2006; Prasongsukarn, & Patterson, 2001).

There are several reasons behind the choice of graduate students as respondents for this study. Firstly, it is argued "…universities generally contain a balanced mix of students from different social, economic and political backgrounds and therefore provide a reasonable representation of the general buying public" (Bodey, & Grace, 2006, p. 181). Secondly, Malhotra and McCort (2001) argued that using graduate students from each culture allowed them to maintain equivalence on key demographic variables of age, educational status, and occupational pursuit. These demographic variables played an important role in affecting consumer behavior in general (Kotler, & Keller, 2008; Lovelock, 2000) and complaining behavior in particular (Kolodinsky, 1995; Patterson et al., 2006). Thirdly, sample equivalence is one of the most critical issues in cross-cultural research, given that alternative explanations for the results may be attributable to sampling variability (Green, Deschamps, & Paez, 2005). In addition, it is particularly important within cross-cultural study to have seemingly homogeneous groups (Au et al., 2001; Green et al., 2005).

Sample equivalence is a critical issue in cross-cultural research, so by using a student sample in both locations may limit the variations in answers due to sampling variability (Hui, & Au, 2001; Mattila, & Patterson, 2004b). Fourth and last, postgraduate students tend to be older than their undergraduate counterparts are, so indicating that they are more likely to have traveling experience. They also tend to be more flexible as they are likely to be economically independent (Becker et al., 1999).

Su and Tippins (1998) recommended the use of university student samples and argued that choosing products and/or services in which students have knowledge and/or interest could minimize the common criticism of proper 'generalization'. In this study, tourism students having had the interest and experience of travel were therefore, selected. A Similar screening process initiated by Boshoff and Leong (1998), was whereby they screened all respondents prior to the experiment.

For these reasons, numerous studies chose to use university students as their respondents (cf. O'Neill, & Mattila, 2004; Wong A., 2004). For instance, Patterson and Smith (2003) used Australian and Thai college students in their cross-cultural study to represent eastern and western cultures. Becker et al. (1999) as well as Malhotra and McCort (2001) tested their research models by using university students from the United States and Hong Kong, to characterize eastern and western cultures. Mattila and Patterson (2004a, 2004b) used American, Thai and Malay university students while investigating justice perceptions in service failure cases as an alternative to actual tourists. Mattila (2004) and more recently Casado-Diaz et al. (2007) conducted their studies using graduate student samples representing tourists.

These and many more studies collectively supported the use of graduate students from each of the cultures under scrutiny. For these reasons, data collected from graduate students from both locations, were used for the purpose of this study. The use of graduate students has proven to assist in maintaining equivalence on key demographic variables of age, educational status, and occupational pursuit. These have a significant role on consumer behavior (Bourgeois, & Barnes, 1979; Grönhaug, & Zaltman, 1981).

4.3.1.3 Sample Size

Another important issue is determining the sample size, that is, how many questionnaires are required for the purpose of the study. The determination of sample size largely depends on what types of analyses are required to achieve the aims of any research. For instance, for both exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis techniques, the number of respondents required would depend on the number of items that were to be included in the research instrument (Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994). In this sense, Nunnally (1978) suggested that a sample of at least five respondents per item is necessary to conduct factor analysis in order to reduce sample error. Given that approximately 80 items were available in the final questionnaire, a minimum of 400 respondents were required. Tabachnick and Fidell (2006) advocated that as a general rule of thumb of factor analysis, this figure was above the suggested minimum number of 300 cases.

As for the structural equation modeling (SEM), although there is no generally accepted figure for sample size in the absolute sense, larger samples are always preferable (Hair et al., 2007). Bearden and Teel (1983) stressed the need to reduce the risk of drawing erroneous conclusions from the SEM analysis in that researchers should use samples of more than 200. Hair et al. (2007) argued that a minimum of 200 cases are required, to obtain accurate conclusions in model testing analysis with the use of LISREL. Zikmund (1994) noted that the size of a sample, or the number of observations or cases could be specified by, (i), the estimated variance of the population, (ii) the magnitude of the acceptable error, and (iii) the confidence interval. To determine the minimum sample size, the following formula is recommended, Zikmund (1994).

$$n = \frac{Z^2 \times [p \times (1-p)]}{E^2}$$

where

n = required sample size

Z = confidence level in standard error units

p = estimated distribution of attributes in the population

E = accepted error / confidence interval

The level of confidence (Z) adopted is 95 %, of which tabularized standard value is 1.96. The estimated distribution of attributes in the population (p) is .3, which is frequently used in social science research (Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2006); and the acceptable error (E) is ± set to 5 % which is .05 which is deemed acceptable and recommended by several scholars (Babbie, 2004; Churchill, & Iacobucci, 2002; Hair et al., 2007). Substituting these values into the formula above, the minimum required sample is calculated as 323.

$$n = \frac{1.96^2 \times .3(1-.3)}{.05^2}$$

$$n = 322.72 \sim 323$$

By keeping both the rule of thumb figures and the calculated minimum number in mind, the minimum sample size required for this research was around 400 for each population. This meant that in total, 800 usable responses were required. As a precaution against non-responses and non-usable responses - due to missing or problematic answers, the dispatch of 2,400 questionnaires evolved. While deciding this number, the approximate number of questionnaires the scholars mentioned that they could collect, also became a consideration.

4.4 Data Analysis

4.4.1 Data Screening

Data screening is an imperative step before most, if not all, statistical analysis. As the quality of the results are directly related to the quality of the raw data, any attempt to drive conclusions from a biased, partial, non-checked data set would be futile (Hair et al., 2007). More particularly, SEM analyses, which are sensitive, require appropriate data (e.g., normal distribution) that do not violate the assumptions of SEM significantly. In this sense, Tabachnick and Fidell (2006) proposed a four-point checklist in screening the data prior to formal analysis.

Firstly, 'accuracy of the data file' is required. To do so, both the pilot and main data were proof read against hard copies completed by the respondents. Someone other than the researcher carried out this check. Secondly, within the checklist comes the control of 'missing data'. In the case of missing data from the questionnaires, under no circumstances were those questionnaires included in the study, and to this end, managed very stringently. As a result, through this strict criterion, 33 and 18 questionnaires collected in America and China respectively were not included in the main data set. As all analyses based in correlations (e.g., regression, factor analysis, SEM) are very vulnerable to outliers (Nunnally, 1978), the next point in the checklist was to control the 'outliers'. It is necessary to check for both *univariate outliers*, scores on a single item that are very unusual or very far from the mean value, and *multivariate outliers*, cases where there is an unusual combination of values on two or more of the items (Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2006). To check for univariate outliers, histograms, box plots and normal probability plots, data was calculated through the use of SPSS version 16.0. The results of these descriptive statistics indicated no evidence for univariate outliers (Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994). Regarding the multivariate outliers, relevant literature suggested running a Mahalanobis distance test, also known as a generalized squared inter-point distance test. This test measures the geometric distance between two random vectors in relation to a central point, also known as the centroid. The investigation of the results indicated that there were only a few items for consideration as multivariate outliers. However, the overall results indicated that the data did not suffer from multivariate outlier effects (Penny, 1996).

The fourth point on the data-screening checklist is ‘normality’. As the data needs to follow a normal distribution in order for most analyses to work accurately, the major purpose of any data screening process is to examine the univariate and multivariate normality displayed by the data set (Hair et al., 2003; Zikmund, 1994). There are two aspects to univariate normality of a distribution, skewness and kurtosis, with both requiring testing before normality is established. *Skewness*, often caused by outliers, describes how unevenly data is distributed. This indicates the majority of scores piled up on one side of the distribution and a few stragglers off in one tail of the distribution (Penny, 1996). While *Kurtosis* describes how peaked or flat a distribution is, the extreme of both cases is not required in any research. For a perfect univariate, normality would have a zero value for indices of both skewness and kurtosis. According to Bollen (1989) and Kline (1998), data sets with absolute values for the univariate skewness index greater than 3.0 can be described as ‘extremely’ skewed, while absolute values of the univariate kurtosis index from 8.0 to over 20.0 have been described as indicating ‘extreme’ kurtosis (Huang, 2007). By using these criteria, results of univariate and multivariate normality tests provided by PRELIS 2.70 program (Jöreskog, & Sörbom, 1996) were adapted for this study.

4.4.2 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive analyses were used to describe the basic features of data on hand. Their function is to present simple summaries about the sample and the measures in order to understand phenomena and make intelligent decisions (Hair et al., 2003). In its simplest form, this study employed the analysis of means and standard deviations as part of the descriptive analyses. Frequency analysis, to determine the respondents' profile on each of the socio-demographic questions as presented in the last section of the study questionnaire, was conducted.

4.4.3 Reliability and Validity Tests

Churchill (1979) recommended that after the descriptive analyses, reliability and validity must be tested by any research instrument/scale. By the use of a non-reliable and non-valid scale, these issues must be addressed to avoid the risk of driving any conclusions. In assessing the reliability of the scale, calculating composite reliability is the most frequent method used within relevant literature. Composite reliability refers to a measure of the internal consistency of indicators to the construct, depicting the degree to which they indicate the corresponding latent construct (Netemeyer et al., 2003). The generally agreed lower limit for an acceptable level of composite reliability ranges from 0.60 (Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994) to 0.70 (Hair et al., 2007). Apart from composite reliability, DeVellis (2003) noted that eliminating items with factor loadings below 0.40 and/or conceptually being a misfit must be considered as initial steps to create a reliable instrument. Hair et al. (2007) suggested the use of a 0.40 loading criterion and further advocated the removal of items with near zero correlations as they produce a substantial drop in the item-to-total correlations. Nunnally (1978) recommended the deletion of items with low corrected item-to-total correlations (<0.30) to achieve a reliable scale. Another analytical approach involves the average variance extracted estimate (AVE), which assesses the amount of variance captured by a set of items in a scale relative to measurement error (Kelloway, 1998). A rigorous level of 0.50 or above is advocated for AVE, yet Netemeyer et al. (2003) argued that values near 0.50 thresholds could still be accepted if it is a newly developed scale.

While reliability indicates how consistent a set of items are, validity is associated with whether a particular construct is the underlying cause of item covariation (DeVellis, 2003). For this study, the empirical evidence of validity established, was through content, face, convergent and discriminant validities. Initially, content was the most important validity, as should the researcher fail to ensure the content validity of his/her scale, the findings would naturally be misleading (Zikmund, 1994). Face validity implies how practical an instrument is in action. Proper scale development steps and pilot study could provide strong support for both content and face validity of the research instrument (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Convergent validity can be achieved, but only if indicators specified to measure a common underlying factor have relatively high loadings on that factor (Anderson, & Gerbing, 1988). Finally, in order to provide support for discriminant validity, Pearson product-moment correlations among all the factors, were computed. While assessing the discriminant validity scales used in this research, Fornell/Larckers' test was applied.

4.4.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is a widely utilized and broadly applied statistical technique within social sciences and used to explore the underlying structure of a collection of observed variables (Marsh, & Hocevar, 1985). In the case of this research, EFA was necessary, as TCC is a newly introduced scale. EFA was therefore conducted as part of the scale development process to ensure the optimum fit of the items to their underlying dimensions.

The principal component method was VARIMAX rotation and therefore used for this research. Following Nunnally and Bernstein's (1994) recommendations, items not meeting any of the following criteria were eliminated in order to obtain theoretically meaningful factors or dimensions. Items having a factor loading of lower than 0.50, and items loading on more than one factor with a loading score equal to or greater than 0.50 on each factor (DeVellis, 2003) were subject to removal. Cronbach (1951) advocated the use of coefficient alpha values (0.60 for newly developed scales and 0.70 for existing scales) in the decision to either retain or delete items to increase internal consistency. Finally, 'Eigenvalue-greater-than-1' rule was adapted to decide the number of factors to extract, in other words, a factor with an Eigen value less than 1.00 was not considered meaningful (Nunnally, 1978). By following these criteria, EFA analysis was conducted on both pilot and main data to reduce items and assess the factorial structure of study dimensions.

4.4.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a statistical technique used to verify the factor structure of a set of observed variables. CFA allows the researcher to test the hypothesis that a relationship between observed variables and their underlying latent constructs exists (Hair et al., 2007). CFA was therefore applied to test the proposed theoretical relationships and to 'confirm' the existence of the proposed structure. For this reason, CFA was used as a validity procedure in measurement research. CFA differs from EFA in that for confirmatory analysis, items are hypothesized to load under given factors, and the aim is to test to what extent they are statistically meaningful and confirmed under these factors (Zikmund, 1994).

Results obtained from EFA formed a basis for the structural relationships between the study dimensions and items loaded under these dimensions. At this stage, the function of the CFA was to validate these structural relationships. To do so, the method of estimation employed was Maximum Likelihood (ML), which is the most widely used estimation that demonstrates robustness against moderate violation of normality (Hair et al., 2003). The values of parameter estimates generated by ML are relatively robust against non-normality (Bollen, 1989). In processing CFA, the covariance matrix was used as input data.

Along with its advantages and wide use, when dealing with a structural model, CFA cannot provide a solution to all research problems. For this reason, the integration with path analysis techniques is required. Path analysis is an approach to modeling explanatory relationships between observed variables (Raykov, & Marcoulides, 2006) and contributes to the identification of direct and indirect effects by calculating the magnitude of these effects between variables in the model (Jöreskog, & Sörbom, 1996). Contrary to regression analysis, path analysis can simultaneously estimate all path coefficients in the model from the observed data, which makes it more preferable for complicated model testing (Hayduk, 1996). To overcome the methodological limitations of both factor analyses (EFA and CFA) and path analysis, SEM uses both techniques simultaneously (Yoo, 2005). By doing so, SEM provides a useful analytical tool for understanding relationships between several latent variables.

4.4.6 Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

The current study used structural equation modeling (SEM), which is a statistical technique for testing and estimating causal relationships using a combination of statistical data and qualitative causal assumptions (Fornell, & Larcker, 1981), with the use of LISREL statistical analysis program, version 8.70 (Jöreskog, & Sörbom, 1996).

Kaplan (2000) defined SEM as a class of methodologies that seeks to represent hypotheses about the means, variances, and covariance of observed data in terms of a smaller number of structural parameters defined by a hypothesized underlying model.

SEM serves purposes similar to multiple regression, but in a more powerful way which takes into account the modeling of interactions, nonlinearities, correlated independents, measurement error, correlated error terms, multiple latent independents each measured by multiple indicators, and one or more latent dependents each also with multiple indicators (Schumacker, & Lomax, 2004). As SEM has the strength to combine several analyses, it is being used as a more powerful alternative to solitary use of multiple regression, path analysis, factor analysis, time series analysis, and analysis of covariance (Bollen, 1989). In this study, data processing was by PRELIS and LISREL with the use of interactive windows (Jöreskog, & Sörbom, 1996).

SEM is very popular in model testing as it encourages confirmatory rather than exploratory modeling. Among its strengths is the ability to model constructs as latent variables, which allows the researcher to capture explicitly the unreliability of measurement in the model (Diamantopoulos, & Siguaw, 2005). Moreover, SEM is very useful in understanding relational data in multivariate systems. Its ability to distinguish between indirect and direct relationships between variables and to analyze relationships between latent variables without random error differentiates SEM from other simpler, relational modeling processes (Anderson, & Gerbing, 1988). Moreover, compared to multiple-regression, SEM included flexible assumptions, therefore allowing interpretation, even in the face of multicollinearity (Hayduk, 1996). SEM uses confirmatory factor analysis to reduce measurement error by having multiple indicators per latent variable (Hayduk, 1996). SEM has several other abilities over traditional types of analysis including testing models overall rather than coefficients individually, modeling mediating variables rather than be restricted to an additive, modeling error terms, testing coefficients across multiple between-subjects groups and handling difficult data, such as time series, non-normal data, and incomplete data (Fornell, & Larcker 1981; Jöreskog, & Sörbom, 1996; Kelloway, 1998). Moreover, where regression is highly susceptible to error of interpretation by non-specification, the SEM strategy of comparing alternative models to assess relative model fit makes it more robust (Bollen, 1989).

Despite its long list of advantages, even though it has been accepted as a frequently used advanced statistical method, SEM is far from perfection. Its most important disadvantage is that there are more than two dozen model fit indices but none of them has been widely accepted as being able to evaluate the overall model fit (Kaplan, 2000). Moreover, SEM is sensitive to sample size and requires large sample sizes, which makes it demanding in terms of the number of observations required to run effectively (Hayduk, 1996). In addition, SEM is considered complex due to the vast link of parameters involved. Yet, the advantages of using it overweigh its disadvantages. Consequently, the decision was made to use SEM in analyzing the hypothetical relationships of this study.

4.4.7 Criteria of Goodness-of-Fit Indices

A 'Good-fitting model' is a pre-requisite for SEM analyses. However, there are literally hundreds of measures of fit and little consistency on the best indicators (Bollen, 1989). As a solution, researchers generally use multiple indices to evaluate whether there is an acceptable fit between the research model and the data. Goodness-of-fit measures can be classified into absolute fit measures and incremental fit measures (Jöreskog, 1999). Absolute fit measures assess the overall model fit for both structural and measurement models collectively (Bollen, 1989). Frequently used absolute fit measures are the chi square (χ^2) statistic, the ratio of chi-square to degrees of freedom (χ^2/df), goodness of fit index (GFI), the adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). On the other hand, incremental fit measures compare the proposed model to another model, most often defined as a baseline model in which all latent variables are assumed uncorrelated (Kelloway, 1998; Steenkamp, & Baumgartner, 1998). Often reported incremental fit indices are the comparative fit index (CFI), normed fit index (NFI) and non-normed fit index (NNFI/TLI) (Byrne 1998; Nunnally, 1978; Schumacker, & Lomax, 2004).

Regardless of which fit indices are chosen, the researcher requires certain pre-determined levels, cut-off criteria, to be used as a base for good or bad fit decision. There is also much debate going on in current relevant literature about cut-off values (Hayduk, 1996; Schermelleh-Engel, & Moosbrugger, 2003). The following is a list of model fit indices and their cut-off levels, commonly accepted by academic researchers, and used in the present research.

Chi Square: The Chi square (χ^2) statistic is one of the most commonly used measures and indicates whether or not observed and implied variance/covariance matrices differ. A non-significant χ^2 value points out that two matrices are similar. In other words, the theoretical model significantly reproduces the sample variance/covariance relationships within the matrix (Kelloway, 1998). The researcher is thus interested in obtaining a non-significant χ^2 with associated degrees of freedom, which indicates good fit. Nonetheless, χ^2 model fit criterion is sensitive to sample size because as sample size increases (generally above 200), criterion has the tendency to indicate significant probability level (Schumachker, & Lomax, 2004). For this reason, χ^2 value has always been reported with other fit indices. Alternatively, it is recommended calculating the ratio of χ^2 value to its degrees of freedom where 3:1 is a fitting ratio (Jöreskog, & Sörbom, 1996).

GFI and AGFI: The goodness of fit index (GFI) is a measure of proportion of variance and covariance that the proposed model explains, similar to R^2 in a regression analysis (Raykov, & Marcoulides, 2006). GFI estimates the relative amount of variances accounted for by the model. If the number of parameters is also taken into account in computing this measure, the resulting index is called the Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI). In other words, AGFI adjusts GFI by the degrees of freedom in the specified model (Jöreskog, 1993). The descriptive fit measures both indices, and ranges from zero to 1.00, with values close to 1.00, indicating a reasonably good approximation of the data. A value of between .90 and 1.00 is considered acceptable as a good fit for both indices (Kelloway, 1998). GFI tends to be larger as sample size increases; correspondingly, AGFI has the tendency to under-estimate fit for small sample sizes (Bollen, 1989).

NFI and NNFI: The normal fit index (NFI) and non-normal fit index (NNFI), also known as Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), are based upon the idea of comparing the proposed model to a model in which absolutely no inter-relationships are assumed among any of the variables. This is also known as null model or independence model (Aaker, & Bagozzi, 1979). NFI is computed by relating the difference χ^2 value for the proposed model to the χ^2 value for the null model. NNFI differs to NFI by taking into account the degrees of freedom of the proposed model. Like GFI and AGFI, values range from zero to 1.00 and models with NFI and NNFI values close to 1.00 are considered to be a more plausible means of describing the data than models with values lower than .90 (Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994).

CFI: Comparative fit index (CFI), also known as Bentler CFI, compares the covariance matrix of the existing model to observed covariance matrix to measure the percent of lack of fit, which is accounted for by going from the null model to the researcher's model (Hayduk, 1996). CFI is similar in meaning to NFI, but is penalized through sample size, thus it is considered one of the measures least affected by sample size. CFI varies from zero to 1.00 and values close to 1.00 indicate a very good fit. CFI values should be greater than .90, indicating that 90 per cent of co-variation within the data can be reproduced by the given model (Kaplan, 2000).

PNFI: The parsimony normed fit index (PNFI) is equal to parsimony ratio times NFI value and used to evaluate the issue of parsimony within SEM models (Jöreskog, & Sörbom, 1996). When comparing nested models, the model with the higher PNFI value is better. Moreover, by arbitrary convention, PNFI values greater than .60 indicates good parsimonious fit (Byrne, 1998).

RMSEA and SRMR: The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) takes into account the model complexity while reporting model error / discrepancy per degree of freedom (Schumacker, & Lomax, 2004). RMSEA is based on the non-centrality parameter and signals a very good model fit if the value is less than or equal to .05, while values between .05 and .08 are considered an indication of adequate fit (Byrne, 1998). On the other hand, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) measures the standardized difference between the observed covariance and the predicted covariance where a value of zero indicated perfect fit (Aaker, & Bagozzi, 1979). SRMR fixes the sample size and parameter number sensitivity of RMR by measuring fitted residuals divided by their estimated standard errors (Diamantopoulos, & Siguaw, 2005). A SRMR value less than .08, indicating good fit.

ECVI, AIC and CAIC: The Expected cross-validation index (ECVI) represents a measure of the degree to which one would expect a proposed model to replicate in another sample from the same population (Raykov, & Marcoulides, 2006). Models with a smaller value indicate a better fit and a reasonable approximation to the population. Correspondingly, Akaike's information criterion (AIC) and consistent version of AIC (CAIC) take into account both the measure of fit and the model complexity used in model comparison (Byrne, 1998). Between two values, the smaller one represents a better fit of the hypothesized model to the data at hand (Hayduk, 1996). ECVI, AIC and CAIC are popular fit indices in SEM applications, particularly for examining competing models.

Although choosing which indices to use is a matter of dispute among methodologists, there is nevertheless agreement that one should avoid the shotgun approach of reporting all of them, as it would imply the researcher is on a fishing expedition (Kelloway, 1998; Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994). Above are some of the commonly used fit indices used in SEM analysis. Researchers vigorously suggest the use of multiple criteria when judging the overall fit of a model (Jöreskog, 1993). In fact, Kaplan (2000) recommended the use of at least four fit tests to reflect diverse criteria. Similarly, Diamantopoulos and Siguaw (2005) suggested using the chi-square test in conjunction with the RMSEA, ECVI, SRMR, GFI and CFI indices. In line with their suggestions, the researcher adopted χ^2, ratio of χ^2 to degrees of freedom, RMSEA, SRMR, GFI, NFI, and CFI as multiple model fit criteria. ECVI, AIC and CAIC were adopted to test the SEM models' potential to cross-validate across samples of equal size from the same population (Huang, 2007).

4.5 Summary

Methodological issues of the present study were elaborated and discussed in this chapter, Initially research design was presented which included the research context, major issues concerning scenario development and cross-cultural research. Secondly, creation of the research instrument was elaborated in detail, whereby development of new measurement scales, TCC, and use of existing constructs were justified. This was followed by provision of information regarding data collection. Finally, the process of data analysis was reported along with rationale for the analyses used, their descriptions and justifications. The criteria adopted for data analyzing, was also presented in this section.

CHAPTER 5. RESULTS

This chapter starts with a description of respondent profiles followed by a report on the results of reliability analysis for all measurement scales. The results of the EFA and CFA tests, applied to individual measurement models of tourist complaining constraints, justice perceptions and loyalty intention, are presented, these followed by the results of the equivalence tests. Results of the overall measurement models for Chinese and American data, are, in turn, reported for high and low magnitude of failure scenarios. This chapter closes with the SEM results of four measurement models together with hypotheses testing.

5.1 Demographic Profile of Respondents

From the dispatch of 2,400 questionnaires (1,400 to America and 1,000 to China), 971 and 902 were completed and returned by respondents (from America and China respectively). After the initial questionnaire screening, 51 questionnaires (33 from America and 18 from China) were excluded due to missing and/or multiple responses, see Table 4.8. Consequently, 938 questionnaires from America and 884 from China were found to be useful, with the return rates of 67.0 % and 88.4 % respectively. The respondents' demographic data was analyzed thereafter, by descriptive statistics using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16.0. Table 5.1 shows the demographic profile of respondents. Characteristics of the respondents are as follows: a majority of the total American respondents (n=938) were females (56.9 %), between the ages of 21-28 (70.2 %), were master's degree students (74.1 %) and had travelled abroad between 3-6 times in the previous two years

(55.8 %). The majority of these results were coherent with those of the Chinese respondents. Most of the Chinese respondents (n=884) were males (51.9 %), between the ages of 21-28 (77.1 %), master's degree students (73.9 %) and had travelled abroad between 1-4 times in the previous two years (81.0 %). As seen from these figures, respondents in both locations were reported to be in the same age bracket and were mostly master's degree students. The proportion of gender was slightly different: there were more female respondents from America. Finally, the results revealed that American respondents were composed of more-experienced travelers.

Table 5.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

	Chinese *(n=884)*		**American** *(n=938)*	
	F	**%**	**F**	**%**
Age				
21-24	425	48.1	347	37.0
25-28	256	29.0	311	33.2
29-32	162	18.3	181	19.3
33 and above	41	4.6	99	10.5
Gender				
Female	425	48.1	534	56.9
Male	459	51.9	404	43.1
Program of study				
Masters	653	73.9	695	74.1
Doctorate	231	26.1	243	25.9
Travel experience				
1-2	468	52.9	131	14.0
3-4	248	28.1	260	27.7
5-6	95	10.7	264	28.1
or more	73	8.3	283	30.2

5.2 Examination of Data Normality

SEM is quite sensitive to distributional characteristics of the data, particularly the departure from multivariate normality (van de Vijver, & Tanzer, 2004). A lack of multivariate normality is troublesome because it inflates the chi-square statistic, creates upward bias in critical values for determining coefficient significance, and affects standard errors (Babbie, 2004; Bollen, 1989; Hair et al., 2007). To ensure the distributional assumptions of maximum likelihood estimation were met univariate and multivariate skewness and kurtosis statistics were computed for the within-sample item distribution. In order to perform tests of normality based on the skewness and kurtosis of the observed variables PRELIS 2.70 was used (Jöreskog, & Sörbom, 1996).

Overall, the results revealed a slight kurtosis and skewness for most of the observed variables. To be more specific, the univariate skewness and kurtosis values were -1.236 and -1.481 respectively and relative multivariate kurtosis value was 1.803. None of these absolute values of skewness exceeded 2.00, while the absolute values of kurtosis did not exceed 3.00, indicating the data did not appear to deviate 'extremely' from a normal distribution (Huang, 2007; Jöreskog, 1993; Kline, 1998; Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994).

Table 5.2 Univariate and Multivariate Normality Test Results (2 items, n=1,822)

Item	Brief Description	Skewness	Kurtosis	Skewness & Kurtosis χ^2	P-Value
FAMI1.	As a tourist, I feel safer expressing my complaints, if…	-.288	-.658	11.278	.003
FAMI2.	When faced with a problem during my holiday, I will…	-.984	-1.293	19.748	.000
FAMI5.	Having knowledge about the destination makes me…	-.126	-.734	9.986	.001
FAMI3.	I believe that the lack of knowledge on local policies…	-.322	-.541	8.785	.002
FAMI7.	If I know how the service provider will handle my complaint…	-.558	-.881	9.986	.001
HOLI2.	During my holiday, I usually forgive service providers…	-.787	-1.359	8.227	.002
HOLI3.	Most of the time, I choose not to complain when I am on...	-1.175	-.526	17.163	.000
HOLI6.	I consider myself very forgiving throughout my holiday.	-.995	-1.883	12.287	.002
HOLI7.	When I am faced with a problem during my holiday, I prefer...	-.681	-1.245	10.912	.002
TIME1.	I think finding the right contact person to voice...	-.414	-1.814	14.718	.001
TIME3.	If I have a limited amount of time to explain my case…	-.377	-.946	7.345	.002
TIME5.	If I feel that resolving the problem will take a long time…	-.540	-.443	6.547	.003
TIME8.	If I have limited time during my holiday, there is usually not…	-.888	-.764	5.123	.002
TIME2.	While I am on holiday, the amount of time needed to complain…	-.839	-.658	4.471	.002
INVO1.	I tend to complain more if I am highly involved in my…	-1.141	-1.214	11.768	.003
INVO2.	If I spend a lot of effort in planning my holiday, I am more…	-.859	-.928	8.758	.002
INVO3.	The more money I spend on my vacation, the more likely…	-1.092	-.564	22.598	.000
INVO5.	The more involved I am with the planning of my vacation…	-.973	-.796	18.812	.000
COMM2.	I feel more confident in expressing my concerns if the…	-1.253	-1.432	32.697	.000
COMM3.	It becomes frustrating if the employee(s) cannot understand…	-.510	-.995	28.275	.000
COMM5.	I expect the service provider to demonstrate excellent…	-.907	-1.243	33.268	.000
COMM4.	If there is a communication barrier between the service…	-.751	-1.197	27.412	.000
INTJUST1.	I felt that the representative was very courteous.	-.374	-.633	47.771	.001
INTJUST2.	I felt that the concern shown by the representative…	-.295	-374	21.192	.000
INTJUST3.	I felt like the representative really cared about me.	-.117	-.769	11.278	.000
DISJUST1.	I am fairly happy with what the hotel gave me.	-.243	-.551	41.284	.001
DISJUST2.	I thought that the hotel solution was definitely acceptable.	-.375	-.492	31.660	.002
DISJUST3.	I think that the result I got from the hotel was appropriate.	-.481	-.613	13.983	.000
PROJUST2.	I felt that the guidelines, used by the hotel to process…	.415	-1.421	14.652	.000
PROJUST3.	I believe that the hotel guidelines for listening to and…	-.339	-.714	8.052	.001

LOYAL1. I will say positive things about this hotel to other people.	-.167	-.536	9.904	.000
LOYAL2. I will recommend this hotel to someone who seeks my advice.	.301	-.839	24.812	.000
LOYAL3. I will encourage my friends and relatives to stay in this hotel.	-.673	-.711	17.664	.002
LOYAL4. I will consider this hotel as my first choice to buy…	-.552	-1.24	43.172	.000
LOYAL5. I am more likely to patronize this hotel in the future.	-.748	-.665	31.284	.000

Summary of Multivariate Normality Test

Relative Multivariate Kurtosis: 1.803

Skewness			**Kurtosis**			**Skewness & Kurtosis**	
Value	Z-Score	P-Value	Value	Z-Score	P-Value	χ^2	P-Value
255.088	41.985	.001	729.163	21.662	.001	133.754	.001

As indicated in Table 5.2, all chi-squares associated with overall skewness, kurtosis tests for the 35 items exhibited values significant at the .005 level (Kaplan, 2000), and the multivariate normality test showed a significant χ^2 at the .001 level. These results suggested that the data might have violated the assumption of multivariate normality. The results should therefore, be interpreted with caution (Kelloway, 1998; Zikmund, 1994). However, it should be noted that results of χ^2 significance test for normality are highly dependent on sample size, which possibly explain these significant values (Huang, 2007; Jöreskog, 1999).

In the current research, sample sizes (884 Chinese and 938 American respondents), were considered large enough to enable partial compensation for the existing kurtosis, reducing possible biases in parameter estimates (Bollen, 1989; Nunnally, 1978; Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2006). The large sample size may have inflated χ^2 values of the normality test and the absolute values of both univariate and multivariate skewness and kurtosis did not exceed accepted thresholds in the relevant literature (Babbie, 2004; Jöreskog, 1993; Kline, 1998) Therefore, it can be concluded that the assumptions of both univariate and multivariate normality were not extremely violated. Although data was slightly skewed from normality, the robustness of the Maximum Likelihood Estimation method adopted in this study largely offsets the effects of non-normality on the final results (Huang, 2007; Jöreskog, 1999). For this reason, collected data was not modified or transformed to minimize the possible effects of existing slight kurtosis or skewness, and the original data set was used for subsequent analysis. It is argued that, by doing so, it would avoid additional problems that could alter the meaning of actual responses (van de Vijver, & Tanzer, 2004).

5.3 Assessment of Failure Scenarios

Using the scenario is a common practice in marketing literature (Bitner, 1990; Maxham III, 2001; Smith et al., 1999). As it gives researchers the advantage of firm control over collected data, the scenario is a well-accepted practice in service failure research (Mattila, 2001b; Mattila, & Cranage, 2005). An effective service failure scenario should present a significant failure - significant enough to create a reaction in the respondents' mind - and should be realistic - real enough to be considered as a probable incident (Eroglu, 1987; Heffes, 1998; Schoemaker, 1993).

Perceived realness and significance of the scenarios were measured using five items developed from the review of existing CCB literature (Bitner, 1990; Mattila, 2001b; Maxham III, 2001; Smith et al., 1999). Three items were designed to assess the perceived realness of the failure incident, whilst the remaining two were to assess the perceived significance of the failure. Table 5.3 shows results of the mean scores of the two dimensions in relation to two sample groups. Results indicate that a combined data pool of 1,822 respondents perceived the failure scenarios to be real ($\bar{x}_{Combined} = 5.78$) and failure incidents significant ($\bar{x}_{Combined} = 4.07$) on a seven-point Likert scale (Likert, 1932). When the two sample groups were compared, the results revealed that Chinese respondents perceived failure scenarios to be less realistic than their American counterparts did ($\bar{x}_{China} = 5.35 < \bar{x}_{America} = 6.17$). Conversely, American respondents found the failure incident to be less significant than Chinese respondents did ($\bar{x}_{America} = 3.68 < \bar{x}_{China} = 4.48$). These differences in perception scores are found to be statistically significant at .001 level.

Table 5.3 Mean Score Differences of Failure Scenario – Chinese versus American

Failure scenario	**Combined**		**Chinese**		**American**			
	Mean	*SD*	*Mean*	*SD*[a]	*Mean*	*SD*	*t*[b]	*Sig.*[c]
Perceived Significance	4.07	1.767	4.48	1.603	3.68	1.827	9.901	.01
Perceived Realism	5.78	1.035	5.35	1.126	6.17	.749	18.364	.01

Notes: [a] SD = Standard Deviation, [c] T-value, [c]p < .01 level.

Finding the effects of magnitude of service failure on TCC through justice perceptions and loyalty intention, are one of the objectives of this thesis. To this end, two almost identical versions of a service failure scenario were developed through a difference in 'waiting time' required for the hypothetical 'problem' to be resolved. This study differentiates between a low and high magnitude scenario by altering the recovery time needed from 'twenty minutes' for the low magnitude failure scenario to 'four hours or more' for the high magnitude failure scenario.

Table 5.4 shows distribution of the failure scenarios and the cultural background of the respondents. Slightly more than half (n=954, 52.4 %) of the total scenarios involved, reported a low magnitude failure incident. This overall proportion of high to low magnitude failure of scenarios is similar when each culture is analyzed individually. That is, the number of low magnitude failure incidents for Chinese respondents was 470 (53.2 % of Chinese data) and 484 (51.6 % of American data) for American respondents. These results indicated that the magnitude of failure is, for each culture as well as in the combined data, almost evenly distributed.

Table 5.4 Number of Observations - China versus America / High versus Low

Severity of Failure	China		America	
	F	%	F	%
High Magnitude Failure (n=868 - 47.6 %)	414	46.8	454	48.4
Low Magnitude Failure (n=954 - 52.4 %)	470	53.2	484	51.6
Total (n=1,822)	**884**		**938**	

5.4 Assessment of Measurement Invariance

One of the most significant challenges in cross-cultural research is determining whether measures developed in one culture will be applicable in another (Singh, 1995). The question is as to whether test scores obtained in different cultural populations can be interpreted in the same way across these populations, must be addressed (van de Vijver, & Tanzer, 2004). The Multi-group CFA is a robust technique, of which can be used to assess the cross-cultural measurement invariance (Brislin et al., 1973; Frijda, & Jahoda, 1966). Several forms of measurement invariance are identified including, configurable, metric, scalar, factor covariance, factor variance, and error variance (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). Among these forms, configurable and metric invariance are the most popular and frequently used (Malhotra et al., 1996; Salzberger et al., 1999; van de Vijver, & Leung, 1997; van de Vijver, & Tanzer, 2004). This study therefore investigated these two invariances, in the context of Chinese and American respondents.

The identification of conceptual models is a pre-requisite, not only for configurable invariance but also for other forms of invariance (Singh, 1995). It is important to first identify a statistically significant model that can accurately represent the conceptual framework within different cultural groups (Cheung, & Rensvold, 2002;

Peng et al., 1997). Results of the EFA and CFA analyses reported previously, indicated that all study constructs have been found to be statistically significant (Cronbach, 1951; Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2006).

Configurable invariance implied that both groups, in this case China and America, associated the same subsets of items with the same constructs. In other words, the models exhibited the same pattern of factor loadings across different groups (Cheung, & Rensvold, 2002). Configurable invariance is established when the CFA yields a measurement model with an acceptable fit where all salient factor loadings are significantly different from zero in both cultural groups and constructs exhibit discriminant validity (Chelminski, 2003; Loevinger, 1957; Steenkamp, & Baumgartner, 1998). In Table 5.5, the present study model exhibits configurable invariance: all the loadings are statistically significant (Babbie, 2004) and the model has an acceptable fit (Kelloway, 1998). CFA results indicated a reasonable fit of the unconstrained measurement model to the data based on a number of fit statistics (such as; χ^2 = 105.75, χ^2/df = 2.25, GFI = .92, AGFI = .90, CFI = .91, NNFI = .92, RMSEA = .05 and SRMR = .071). These fit statistics provide a baseline against which invariance are tested (Salzberger et al., 1999). As for existence of discriminant validity condition to configurable invariance (See Table 4.7) all correlations between the latent constructs are below .50, indicating evidence for discriminate validity between the constructs (Nunnally, 1978). Moreover, the calculated AVE scores ranged from .47 to .65. They exceeded the threshold level of .45 and thus indicated that all study constructs passed the Fornell/Larcker test of discriminant validity (Fornell, & Larcker, 1981).

Table 5.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Unconstrained Measurement Model and Test for Invariance

Factors	Items	China	America	$^{c}\ \Delta\chi^2$
Unfamiliarity	FAMI1	1.00[a]	1.00[a]	-
	FAMI2	1.39	1.51	1.79
	FAMI5	.91	1.44	4.07[b]
Positive Holiday Mood	HOLI2	1.00[a]	1.00[a]	-
	HOLI3	.77	.98	1.50
	HOLI6	1.03	1.49	3.78[b]
Limited Time	TIME1	1.00[a]	1.00[a]	-
	TIME3	.64	1.03	5.21[b]
	TIME5	1.09	.92	.57
Limited Involvement	INVO1	1.00[a]	1.00[a]	-
	INVO2	.83	1.28	4.62[b]
	INVO3	1.25	1.04	1.13
Limited Communication	COMM2	1.00[a]	1.00[a]	-
	COMM3	.67	.78	.29
	COMM5	.83	1.21	3.55[b]
Interactional Justice	INTJUST1	1.00[a]	1.00[a]	-
	INTJUST2	1.16	.70	2.71[b]
	INTJUST3	.92	.71	.84
Distributional Justice	DISJUST1	1.00[a]	1.00[a]	-
	DISJUST2	.69	1.18	3.44[b]
	DISJUST3	.90	.94	.08
Procedural Justice	PROJUST2	1.00[a]	1.00[a]	-
	PROJUST3	.81	.87	.14
Loyalty intention	LOYAL1	1.00[a]	1.00[a]	-
	LOYAL2	1.52	.94	4.27[b]
	LOYAL3	1.17	1.05	.73
	LOYAL4	1.63	1.11	4.05[b]
	LOYAL5	.97	1.42	3.82[b]

Notes: All loadings are statistically significant at .05 level. [a] Factor loadings fixed at 1.00 for identification purposes. [b] Factor loadings statistically invariant between the two cultural groups when factors are constrained to be equal at .05 level. [c] Chi-square difference ($>\Delta\chi^2 = \chi^2_{constrained} - \chi^2_{baseline}$).

Although configurable invariance is important in the overall assessment of the measurement invariance, it does not indicate that people in different cultural groups respond to the items in the same way. Therefore, the obtained ratings may be meaningfully compared across differing cultures (Steenkamp, & Baumgartner, 1998).

As metric invariance comprises of scale intervals across groups, it is considered to be a robust test of invariance and an additional evidence of measurement equivalence (Chelminski, 2003; Lee, & Back, 2009; Salzberger et al., 1999). Having metric invariance is necessary when the study goal is to examine relationships between constructs in a cross-cultural setting, as is the case of the present study. The metric invariance is tested by constraining each factor loading to be equal across countries. This is achieved by examining whether the fit of the equal factors model differs significantly from the fit of the baseline model, with all factor loadings set free (Diamantopoulos, & Siguaw, 2005; Vandenberg, & Lance, 2000). A Chi-square difference test was used to assess the relative fit of the more restricted models. A non-significant result indicated that factor loadings were invariant in both cultural groups (Bollen, 1989). Although full metric invariance is rarely evident in cross-cultural studies (Chelminski, 2003; Malhotra et al., 1996; Vandenberg, & Lance, 2000), at least partial metric invariance is desirable (Singh, 1995). Partial metric invariance is established by testing whether at least one of the items (as well as the item chosen for identification purposes which should also have invariant loadings) measuring the latent construct is invariant (Steenkamp, & Baumgartner, 1998; Vandenberg, & Lance, 2000).

In order to assess measurement invariance, all factors were constrained to be equal between the two cultural groups. The fit of the constrained measurement model was measured by the χ^2 difference test and the results indicated differences in factor loadings between the two national cultures, with χ^2 being increased dramatically from 105.75 to 871.21 (df = 94, p = .01). Several iterations of the measurement model, applied by constraining one of the factors at a time to be equal between the two cultures, were processed. This was necessary to determine which particular factors were likely to remain invariant by examining the change in fit of the measurement model (Singh, 1995). Based on the analyses, 10 of the 19 items (excluding the identification items) were invariant (see Table 5.5). Thereafter, a measurement model, with the 10 items constrained to be equal, was compared to the unconstrained model. The fit of the constrained model did not worsen significantly ($\Delta\chi^2 = 22.73$, df = 16, p = .05) indicating that the factors constrained to be equal were indeed statistically invariant between the two samples (Bollen, 1989; Byrne, 1998; Cheung et al., 2004).

A detailed investigation of Table 5.5 indicated that all constructs failed to exhibit a full metric invariance because not all items under these constructs were statistically invariant between the two cultural groups (Lee, & Back, 2009). However, partial metric invariance was evident for all constructs, given that they contained statistically invariant items other than the 'procedural justice' construct. Partial metric invariance for the procedural justice construct could not be established, because the second factor of the two-item measure remained statistically different between Chinese and American samples. The remaining constructs were found to have a partial metric invariance: loyalty (three of four factor loadings were invariant) and the remainder, one invariant item of the two. Given the difficulty of attaining full metric invariance in cross-cultural studies (Chelminski, 2003; Malhotra et al., 1996), the partial metric invariance obtained for eight of the nine constructs, was acceptable (Cheung, &

Rensvold, 2002; Marsh, & Hocevar, 1985; Singh, 1995; Vandenberg, & Lance, 2000).

Overall, these results indicated that (i) there was evidence of data equivalence; (ii) the measurement model is partially invariant across China and America; and (iii) further analyses, such as SEM, latent mean comparison, and hypothesis testing, can be conducted by using this data set (Byrne, 1998; Cheung et al., 2004; Steenkamp, & Baumgartner, 1998; Vandenberg, & Lance, 2000).

5.5 SEM Analysis of the Measurement Model

It is suggested that evaluation of any measurement model should start with an inspection of 'offending estimates' (Kelloway, 1998). These are estimated coefficients, within either the structural or the measurement models, seen to exceed acceptable limits (Kaplan, 2000). Examples are negative error variances, standardized coefficients exceeding or very close to 1.0, or very large standard errors associated with any estimated coefficient (Byrne, 1998; Hair et al. 2007; Jöreskog, & Sörbom, 1996). Much effort spent in eliminating such offending estimates in the present research were carried out through benchmarking successful practices and following well-accepted standards in SEM analysis (Anderson, & Gerbing, 1988; Bollen 1989; Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994).

Once the model was free from offending estimates, the next step was to assess the overall goodness-of-fit (Aaker, & Bagozzi, 1979). The present research used the following absolute and incremental fit indices: χ^2, χ^2/df, RMSEA, SRMR, GFI, AGFI, NNFI and CFI (Diamantopoulos, & Siguaw, 2005; Jöreskog, 1999; Nunnally, 1978).

5.5.1 Measurement Model Assessment

In order to assess the measurement model and to examine the psychometric properties of the scales, a series of confirmatory factor analysis of items to measure the nine constructs incorporated in the hypothesized model, was conducted. Tables 5.6 to 5.10 reports the results of measurement models related to Chinese and American samples in terms of the composite reliabilities of all constructs, the loadings of all construct items, the mean scores of all items and constructs, and the correlations of all latent constructs. The quality of each measurement model assessed on unidimensionality, convergent validity, reliability, and discriminant validity, was across the Chinese and American samples, as well as in the pooled sample.

Unidimensionality occurs when a single latent factor accounts for all common variance between item responses. In other words, only one factor accounts for the covariance between items (Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2006). The use of Cronbach alpha as a reliability measure to provide evidence of unidimensionality is common practice (Cronbach, 1951). To this end, a series of principal component analysis was performed on all items. Results showed that all items were loaded on unique components, underlining the unidimensionality of all constructs and indicating that unidimensionality for each of the constructs had been obtained.

Convergent validity demonstrates whether items are able to measure the construct that they are supposed to measure, (Babbie, 2004), and can be detected from the significant t-value (± 1.96) of each indicator (Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994). Additionally, the goodness of overall model fit and significant loadings, are considered as supplementary support for the existence of convergent validity. Overall, results of the relevant analyses showed that all the values were significant ($t \geq \pm 1.96$); all factor loadings were statistically significant ($p < .01$), and the measurement model produced reasonable fit indices ($\chi^2/df = 2.66$, RMSEA = .051, SRMR = .060, GFI = .94). These results indicated a strong convergent validity of the constructs.

With unidimensionality and convergent validity confirmed, the next issue was the assessment of instrument *reliability*, that is, how accurately and consistently an instrument actually measures the investigated phenomenon (Vandenberg, & Lance, 2000). To do so, Cronbach alpha values of both items and latent variables were analyzed (Hair et al., 2003). The results indicated that (see Tables 5.6 and 5.8) all values were above the recommended cut-off value of .70 (Churchill, & Iacobucci, 2002). As a result, it is concluded that all constructs yielded high reliabilities.

After confirming the reliability, the final issue concerning psychometric properties of the constructs, was to test the discriminate validity. *Discriminant validity* dictates that a construct should not be highly correlated with other constructs, those designed to measure theoretically different concepts (Loevinger, 1957). In order to provide evidence for discriminate validity, it requires two steps. First, a series of nested confirmatory factor model comparisons from each sample assessed whether differences existed within model performance by constraining correlations between latent constructs to 1.00 (Bollen, 1989; Kaplan, 2000).

Overall, estimation results of several alternative models for both Chinese and American samples produced statistically significant Chi-square difference scores ($>\Delta\chi^2 = \chi^2_{constrained} - \chi^2_{baseline}$) at .01 level, indicating discriminant validity (Byrne, 1998). Secondly, to provide further support for discriminate validity, Fornell/Larckers' test was carried out by computing Pearson product-moment correlations and AVE scores. Results satisfied Fornell and Larcker's (1981) suggestions, particularly AVE being higher than .50 level (see Tables 5.7 and 5.9). This indicated that the measurement model supported a sufficient level of discriminate validity between the constructs (Marsh, & Hocevar, 1985; Vandenberg, & Lance, 2000). In conclusion, the constructs in this study demonstrated strong evidence of unidimensionality, convergent validity, reliability and discriminate validity, all considered as necessary preconditions before proceeding to the structural model evaluation (Bollen, 1989; Jöreskog, & Sörbom, 1996; Schumacker, & Lomax, 2004).

5.5.1.1 CFA of TCC constructs

The five-factor structure of TCC identified by EFA was examined by a CFA with the pooled data set (n=1,822) as well as with Chinese and American sub-samples (n=884 and n=938, respectively). These factors, designated as latent variables with the items loaded on them were treated as observed variables, designed to measure the latent variables (Huang, 2007).

Table 5.6 shows completely standardized factor loadings (λ), their corresponding t-values in the CFA model and the model fit indices. As can be seen from the table, all fit indices indicated an acceptable fit between the CFA model and the observed data sets. These were pooled (χ^2/df = 2.37, RMSEA = .065, SRMR = .067, GFI = .94, AGFI = .93, NNFI = .94, CFI = .93), Chinese (χ^2/df = 2.55, RMSEA = .069, SRMR = .069, GFI = .93, AGFI = .91, NNFI = .92, CFI = .91) and American (χ^2/df = 2.16, RMSEA = .063, SRMR = .067, GFI = .95, AGFI = .94, NNFI = .92, CFI = .96). It is worth noting that the SRMR values were slightly higher than the agreed level of .05 and yet lower than the recommended .08 threshold level (Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994). Once the model fitted the data on hand, factor loadings and their t-values were reviewed. All factor loadings in both CFA models were aligned to the combined EFA loadings, (EFA scores were calculated by using pooled data, and 1,822 responses in total- see Table 4.6). There were no marginal differences between EFA and CFA loadings, which indicated a high degree of replication of the underlying structure between the split-half and main data sets. All t-values associated with CFA loadings were above the 1.96 level, indicating that the items had adequate validity to measure their respective latent factors (Diamantopoulos, & Siguaw, 2005). The resulting t-values also indicated that all loading coefficients were statistically significant, at .01 level (Zikmund, 1994). Consequently, the underlying five-factor and 15-item TCC structure identified by EFA, was generally confirmed with both pooled data and the Chinese and American data sets.

Table 5.6 Results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis: TCC

Factors and items	Pooled				Chinese				American			
	λ [a]	t [b]	$\bar{x}$ [c]	α [d]	λ [a]	t [b]	$\bar{x}$ [c]	α [d]	λ_i [a]	t [b]	$\bar{x}$ [c]	α [d]
Unfamiliarity (FAMI)				.761				.726				.823
1. As a tourist, I feel safer expressing my complaints, if I am in a familiar destination.	.79	14.6	4.96		.77	16.77	5.20		.80	12.43	4.72	
2. When faced with a problem during my holiday, I will be more likely to complain if I…	.83	17.53	5.18		.82	18.88	5.30		.84	16.17	5.06	
5. Having knowledge about the destination makes me more confident in conveying my...	.75	15.99	5.04		.74	16.79	5.06		.76	15.18	5.02	
Limited time (TIME)				.823				.792				.844
1. I think finding the right contact person to voice dissatisfaction takes a lot of time. For…	.74	10.22	4.42		.75	10.93	3.88		.74	9.51	4.95	
3. If I have a limited amount of time to explain my case to the service provider, I...	.83	13.67	5.14		.82	13.54	4.74		.83	13.80	5.54	
5. If I feel that resolving the problem will take a long time, I will sometimes choose not...	.74	12.43	5.23		.73	13.31	4.83		.75	11.54	5.62	
Positive Holiday Mood (HOLI)				.845				.732				.902
2. During my holiday, I usually forgive service providers when they fail.	.82	15.45	4.87		.81	12.43	4.94		.84	18.47	4.80	
3. Most of the time, I choose not to complain when I am on holiday.	.89	16.11	4.84		.90	14.44	4.83		.89	17.77	4.85	
6. I consider myself very forgiving throughout my holiday.	.81	14.53	4.92		.82	12.77	4.72		.80	16.29	5.11	
Limited Involvement (INVO)				.830				.816				.870
1. I tend to complain more if I am highly involved in my vacation planning.	.75	11.60	4.51		.74	14.40	4.81		.76	8.80	4.21	
2. If I spend a lot of effort in planning my holiday, I am more likely to complain if…	.86	15.63	4.83		.87	14.51	4.98		.85	16.75	4.67	
3. The more money I spend on my vacation, the more likely I am to complain when an...	.89	19.89	5.17		.88	18.83	5.26		.90	20.95	5.07	

Limited Communication (COMM)				.859				.831				.875
2. I feel more confident in expressing my concerns if the employee(s) can speak my…	.91	19.87	5.43		.89	19.86	5.36		.92	19.88	5.49	
3. It becomes frustrating if the employee(s) cannot understand me while I am complaining.	.93	18.40	5.20		.91	15.54	5.21		.94	21.26	5.19	
5. I expect the service provider to demonstrate excellent communication skills when…	.92	18.16	5.33		.93	18.14	5.53		.92	18.18	5.12	
Fit indices: χ^2 / df												
GFI (goodness of fit index)	= 2.37				= 2.55				= 2.16			
AGFI (adjusted goodness of fit index)	= .94				= .93				= .95			
CFI (comparative fit index)	= .93				= .90				= .94			
NNFI (non-normed fit index)	= .94				= .91				= .96			
RMSEA (root mean square error of ap-	= .93				= .92				= .92			
proximation)	= .065				= .072				= .063			
SRMR (standardized root mean square	= .067				= .069				= .067			
residual)												

Notes: [a] refers to completely standardized loadings. [b] refers to T-values. [c] refers to mean scores of each item. [d] refers to Cronbach alpha scores of particular dimension for each culture. All loadings are significant at $p < .01$. Items are measured on a seven-point Likert scale where 1 = 'strongly disagree' to 7 = 'strongly agree' (Likert, 1932). Overall α for Pool = .842 - Chinese = .805 - American = .874.

As can be seen from Table 5.6, the values of the coefficient alpha ranged from .76 to .86 in the pooled data set. Similar values ranged from .72 to .83 in the Chinese sample and .82 to .90 in the American sample for five factors, which are above the recommended cut-off value of .70 (Judd et al., 1991). These results indicated that TCC fulfilled the required standards of convergent validity (Saxe, & Weitz, 1982). When all TCC factors were considered, coefficient alpha scores were found to be .842, .805 and .874 for the pooled, Chinese and American data respectively. Table 5.6 also presents the mean scores of each item in the TCC scale. Answers from respondents were recorded on a seven-point Likert scale where 1 = ‘strongly disagree’ to 7 = ‘strongly agree’ (Likert, 1932). An examination of the results showed that all calculated mean scores were above mid-point ($\bar{x} = 3.50$) indicating that the respondents agreed with the given items of complaining constraints. A comparison of the composite mean scores for all study constructs through Chinese and American data sets are given in Table 5.10.

An additional assessment was undertaken, namely an analysis of bivariate correlations, to provide evidence for validity using the composite scores of five latent variables of TCC. As a rule, low correlations among latent variables are preferred in providing evidence of discriminant validity (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Table 5.7 shows the construct correlation matrix with means, standard deviation and average variance extracted estimate (AVE) scores, from the Chinese, American and combined/pooled data sets. The results of this analysis revealed that all correlations between the study dimensions were significant at the .01 level (Hair et al., 2007).

Table 5.7 Construct Correlation Matrix (Φ), AVE, Means and Standard Deviations of the TCC Scale

Factors	FAMI			HOLI			TIME			INVO			COMM		
	Pool	CHN	USA	Pool	CHN	USA	Pool	CHN	USA	Pool	CHN	USA	Pool	CHN	USA
FAMI	1.00	1.00	1.00												
HOLI	.27	.26	.27	1.00	1.00	1.00									
TIME	.24	.31	.20	.41	.46	.25	1.00	1.00	1.00						
INVO	.46	.47	.43	.29	.28	.41	.27	.23	.31	1.00	1.00	1.00			
COMM	.49	.46	.34	.25	.30	.43	.21	.32	.24	.49	.40	.48	1.00	1.00	1.00
AVE	.50	.53	.52.	.61	.63	.59	.56	.55	.59	.53	.57	.51	.62	.62	.65
Means	5.06	5.19	4.43	4.87	4.83	4.92	4.43	4.49	4.07	4.83	5.02	4.65	5.32	5.37	5.17
SD	1.00	.98	.99	1.05	.95	1.13	1.06	1.08	1.03	1.12	1.07	1.13	1.07	1.01	1.12

Notes: Composite scores are calculated by averaging items representing that factor. Responses range from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree, higher scores indicate favorable responses. SD = standard deviation. All correlations are significant at the $p < .001$.

The Chinese data correlations ranged from .23 (limited time - limited involvement) to .47 (unfamiliarity - limited involvement), whereas American data ranged from .20 (limited time - unfamiliarity) to .48 (limited involvement - limited communication). Regarding the pooled data, the lowest correlation was between limited time and unfamiliarity at the .21 level, whereas the highest correlation was between unfamiliarity and limited communication at the .49 level. Moreover, the calculated AVE for all five factors ranged from .50 to .65 which exceeded the threshold level of .45 (Fornell, & Larcker, 1981). Overall, these correlation figures - moderate to low in value - and AVE scores - below the cut-off value, provided additional support for the discriminant validity of the TCC scale (Hair et al., 2003; Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2006).

5.5.1.2 CFA of Justice Perception and Loyalty intention

In order to verify the EFA results a series of confirmatory factor analysis was applied to explore the dimensional structure of justice perception constructs, namely interactional, procedural and distributional justice, and loyalty intention toward the company. Three dimensions of justice, along with one loyalty dimension were examined through CFAs from the pooled data set, as well as the Chinese and American sub-samples.

Table 5.8 presents completely standardized factor loadings (λ), their corresponding t-values in the CFA models and the model fit indices. Results of the fit indices, indicated an acceptable fit between the CFA model and the observed data, more specifically the pooled data (χ^2/df = 2.44, RMSEA = .055, SRMR = .068, GFI = .96, AGFI = .94, NNFI = .92, CFI = .93). The Chinese data equated to (χ^2/df = 2.76, RMSEA = .064, SRMR = .071, GFI = .95, AGFI = .93, NNFI = .91, CFI = .90) and the American data (χ^2/df = 2.11, RMSEA = .053, SRMR = .067, GFI = .96, AGFI = .94, NNFI = .94, CFI = .95). All factor loadings in both the Chinese and American CFA models were parallel to the combined EFA loadings. No marginal discrepancies between the EFA and CFA loadings were found, which indicated a high degree of replication of the underlying structure between the pilot and main data sets. All t-values associated with the CFA loadings were above the threshold level pointing to the validity of measuring latent factors at the .01 level (Kelloway, 1998). These results indicated that, as identified by EFA, the factor structure of justice perception and the constructs of loyalty intention were equal to the pooled data as well as the Chinese and American data sets.

Table 5.8 Results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Justice Perceptions and Loyalty Intention

Factors and items	**Pooled**				**Chinese**				**American**			
	λ[a]	**t**[b]	x̄[c]	**α**[d]	**λ**[a]	**t**[b]	x̄[c]	**α**[d]	**λ**[a]	**t**[b]	x̄[c]	**α**[d]
Interactional Justice (INTJUST)				.805				.771				.847
1. I felt that the representative was very courteous.	.87	23.63	5.41		.85	20.47	5.29		.88	26.79	5.52	
2. I felt that the concern shown by the representative was sincere.	.79	29.96	5.37		.77	25.94	5.18		.80	33.98	5.55	
3. I felt like the representative really cared about me.	.90	23.89	5.23		.89	22.87	5.00		.91	24.91	5.46	
Distributional Justice (DISJUST)				.866				.858				.872
1. I am fairly happy with what the hotel gave me.	.88	28.58	5.33		.86	27.18	4.97		.89	29.97	5.69	
2. I thought that the hotel solution was definitely acceptable.	.80	31.83	5.47		.78	30.43	5.18		.82	33.23	5.75	
3. I think that the result I got from the hotel was appropriate.	.76	26.83	5.45		.74	26.62	5.17		.77	27.04	5.73	
Procedural Justice (PROJUST)				.872				.783				.901
2. I felt that the guidelines, used by the hotel to process my complaint…	.84	27.33	5.12		.83	25.43	4.93		.85	29.22	5.31	
3. I believe that the hotel guidelines for listening to and handling…	.82	27.15	5.28		.80	23.18	5.15		.83	31.11	5.41	
Loyalty Intention (LOYAL)				.919				.890				.926
1. I will say positive things about this hotel to other people.	.79	24.78	5.09		.78	19.51	4.23		.80	30.05	5.94	
2. I will recommend this hotel to someone who seeks my advice.	.91	31.08	4.88		.92	29.64	3.82		.90	32.51	5.94	
3. I will encourage my friends and relatives to stay in this hotel.	.92	33.00	4.81		.90	32.50	3.63		.94	33.49	5.98	
4. I will consider this hotel as my first choice to buy accommodation…	.92	31.41	4.77		.91	30.39	3.56		.92	32.43	5.98	
5. I am more likely to patronize this hotel in the future.	.90	28.35	4.87		.88	25.77	3.80		.91	30.92	5.94	
Fit indices:												

χ^2 / df	= 2.44	= 2.76	= 2.11
GFI (goodness of fit index)	= .96	= .95	= .96
AGFI (adjusted goodness of fit index)	= .94	= .93	= .94
CFI (comparative fit index)	= .93	= .90	= .95
NNFI (non-normed fit index)	= .92	= .91	= .94
RMSEA (root mean square error of approximation)	= .055	= .064	= .053
SRMR (standardized root mean square residual)	= .068	= .071	= .067

Notes: [a] refers to completely standardized loadings. [b] refers to T-values. [c] refers to mean scores of each item. [d] refers to Cronbach alpha scores of particular dimension for each culture. All loadings are significant at $p < .01$. Items are measured on a seven-point Likert scale where 1 = 'strongly disagree' to 7 = 'strongly agree' (Likert, 1932). Overall α for Pool = .852 - Chinese = .845 - American = .854.

Table 5.8 reveals that the values of the coefficient alpha ranged from .80 to .92 within the pooled data. Similarly, the alpha scores ranged from .77 to .89 in the Chinese sample and .84 to .92 in the American sample for the four factors, above the recommended cut-off value of .70 (Hair et al., 2003). Results indicated that both justice and loyalty dimensions met the standards of convergent validity (Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2006). The coefficient alpha scores were .852, .845 and .854 for the pooled, Chinese and American data respectively. Table 5.8 also presents the mean scores recorded on a seven-point Likert scale. An overview of the results showed that all calculated mean scores were above mid-point, indicating the agreement of respondents with these items.

Table 5.9 Construct Correlation Matrix (Φ), AVE, Means and Standard

Factors	**INTJUST**			**PROJUST**			**DISJUST**			**LOYAL**		
	Pool	CHN	USA	Pool	CHN	USA	Pool	CHN	USA	Pool	CHN	USA
INTJUST	1.00	1.00	1.00									
PROJUST	.34	.43	.23	1.00	1.00	1.00						
DISJUST	.35	.45	.35	.37	.44	.39	1.00	1.00	1.00			
LOYAL	.27	.48	.31	.23	.21	.36	.41	.29	.47	1.00	1.00	1.00
AVE	.63	.62	.65	.68	.67	.70	.56	.54	.56	.53	.57	.51
Means	5.34	5.16	5.51	5.20	5.04	5.36	5.42	5.11	5.72	4.40	3.81	4.96
SD	.99	1.04	.92	1.16	1.17	1.13	1.22	1.29	1.06	1.37	1.28	1.22

Notes: Composite scores are calculated by averaging items representing that factor. Responses range from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree, higher scores indicate favorable responses. SD = standard deviation. All correlations are significant at the $p < .01$.

Table 5.9 presents the results of bivariate correlation analysis using the composite scores of latent variables. This was undertaken to provide additional evidence for discriminant validity (DeVellis, 2003). Table 5.9 also shows the construct correlation matrix with means, standard deviation, AVE scores of the Chinese, American and pooled data sets. All correlations under investigation were significant at the .01 level (Nunnally, 1978).

Within the Chinese data, correlations ranged from .21 (procedural justice - loyalty) to .48 (interactional justice - loyalty), while in the American data they ranged from .23 (procedural justice - interactional justice) to .47 (distributive justice - loyalty). Regarding the pooled data, the lowest correlation was between procedural justice and loyalty at .23, whereas the highest correlation was between distributive justice and loyalty at the .41 level. Moreover, the calculated AVE for the four factors ranged from .51 to .70, which exceeded the recommended level of .45 (Fornell, & Larcker, 1981). All these correlation figures - moderate to low in value - and AVE scores - below the cut-off value, provided additional support for the discriminant validity of the justice and loyalty constructs (Hair et al., 2007; Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994; Zikmund, 1994).

5.5.1.3 Latent Mean Score Differences: Comparing Chinese and Americans

In order to get a clearer picture of mean differences, the composite scores for each variable, was calculated by averaging scores that represented the nine factors as previously discussed (Bollen, 1989). Thereafter, an independent sample t-test to confirm the significance of the differences in mean scores between Chinese and American data, was implemented. Results of this analysis are as presented in Table 5.10.

Moderate levels of standard deviation scores indicated that there were no major differences which might affect resulting mean scores (Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2006). Mean scores of the pooled data ranged from 4.15 (loyalty) to 5.42 (distributive justice). When the pooled data was analyzed in terms of cultural background, the results showed that figures ranged from 4.07 (limited time) to 5.72 (distributive justice) for Americans and 3.81 (loyalty) to 5.37 (limited communication) for Chinese respondents.

Table 5.10 Mean Score Differences - Chinese versus American

Factors	Pooled		Chinese		American				
	Mean	*SD*[a]	*Mean*	*SD*[a]	*Mean*	*SD*[a]	*Gap*	t	*Sig.*
Unfamiliarity *(FAMI)*	4.81	.97	5.19	.98	4.43	.95	.76[b] *(.03)*[c]	5.49 *(.78)*	.00** *(ns)*
Limited Time *(TIME)*	4.28	1.06	4.49	1.08	4.07	1.03	.42 *(.05)*	2.35 *(.87)*	.00** *(ns)*
Positive Holiday Mood *(HOLI)*	4.88	1.04	4.83	.95	4.92	1.13	-.09 *(-.18)*	-1.79 *(-1.24)*	ns *(ns)*
Limited Involvement *(INVO)*	4.84	1.10	5.02	1.07	4.65	1.13	.37 *(-.06)*	7.05 *(-.92)*	.00** (ns)
Limited Communication *(COMM)*	5.27	1.07	5.37	1.01	5.17	1.12	.20 *(-.11)*	2.13 *(-1.06)*	.00** (ns)
Interactional Justice *(INTJUST)*	5.34	.98	5.16	1.04	5.51	.92	-.35 *(.12)*	7.63 *(1.09)*	.00** (ns)
Distributive Justice *(DISJUST)*	5.42	1.18	5.11	1.29	5.72	1.06	-.61 *(.23)*	11.14 *(1.42)*	.00** (ns)
Procedural Justice *(PROJUST)*	5.20	1.15	5.04	1.17	5.36	1.13	-.32 *(.04)*	5.98 *(.82)*	.00** (ns)
Loyalty Intention *(LOYAL)*	4.15	1.25	3.81	1.28	4.49	1.22	-.68 *(.06)*	19.58 *(.92)*	.00** (ns)

Notes: [a] SD = Standard Deviation, [b] Gap = Chinese mean score - American mean score, [c] = values in parentheses represent difference between the standard deviation scores of Chinese and American respondents, t-values and significance levels, **p < .01 level, ns = not statistically significant.

Between-country t-test analyses of mean scores revealed that Chinese and American respondents differed on several of the variables in the model. The gaps between Chinese and American mean scores were calculated and listed in Table 5.10. A careful analysis of the figures showed that all mean score differences were statistically significant at the .01 level and t-values are greater than ± 1.96 except for one factor, 'positive holiday mood'. The largest gap score was in the 'unfamiliarity' construct with the value of .76, indicating that unfamiliarity is a more important constraint for Chinese respondents. On the other hand, the lowest calculated gap score belonged to the 'positive holiday mood' construct with the value of -.09. This score, not being statistically significant, indicated that respondents in both locations see a positive holiday mood as a constraint on complaining. In order to taste if there is a bias the way Chinese and American students answer the questions (a possible tendency that my affect the results if the t-value of this difference is found to be statistically significant at .05 level). A careful review of the table indicates that all standard deviation gap scores are in significant, indicating that the data was not suffering from a possible response tendency problem (Nunnally, 1978). Chapter 6 presents a detailed discussion of these results.

5.5.2 Overall Measurement Model Test

After individual measurement models of the research constructs - TCC, justice perceptions and loyalty intention - were identified, and all results were established as statistically significant, these models were combined to form an overall measurement model (see Figure 5.1). Latent variables were assumed freely correlated with each other, within the overall measurement model (Huang, 2007). Each of these latent variables had their measurement items previously identified and tested as indicators. The overall measurement model was tested using all observed cases within the Chinese (n=884) and American (n=938) data sets. The model fits the data reasonably well (see Table 5.11). All fit indices indicated a satisfactory fit between the overall measurement model with both the Chinese and American data (χ^2/df = 2.67, RMSEA = .054, SRMR = .061, GFI = .96, AGFI = .95, NNFI = .95, CFI = .93) and the American data (χ^2/df = 2.31, RMSEA = .049, SRMR = .050, GFI = .97, AGFI = .95, NNFI = .96, CFI = .94). Table 5.11 shows that all standard factor loadings were found to be well above the recommended .70 level (Churchill, & Iacobucci, 2002) with their associated t-values above the generally accepted cut-off value, ±1.96 (Hair et al., 2007). Moreover, all loadings were significant at the .01 level (Jöreskog, 1999). When factor loadings of this combined model compared to those of the individual measurement models, results revealed that all factor loadings were stable. Most factor loadings in the overall measurement model were found statistically better (≥ .70 and closer to .95).

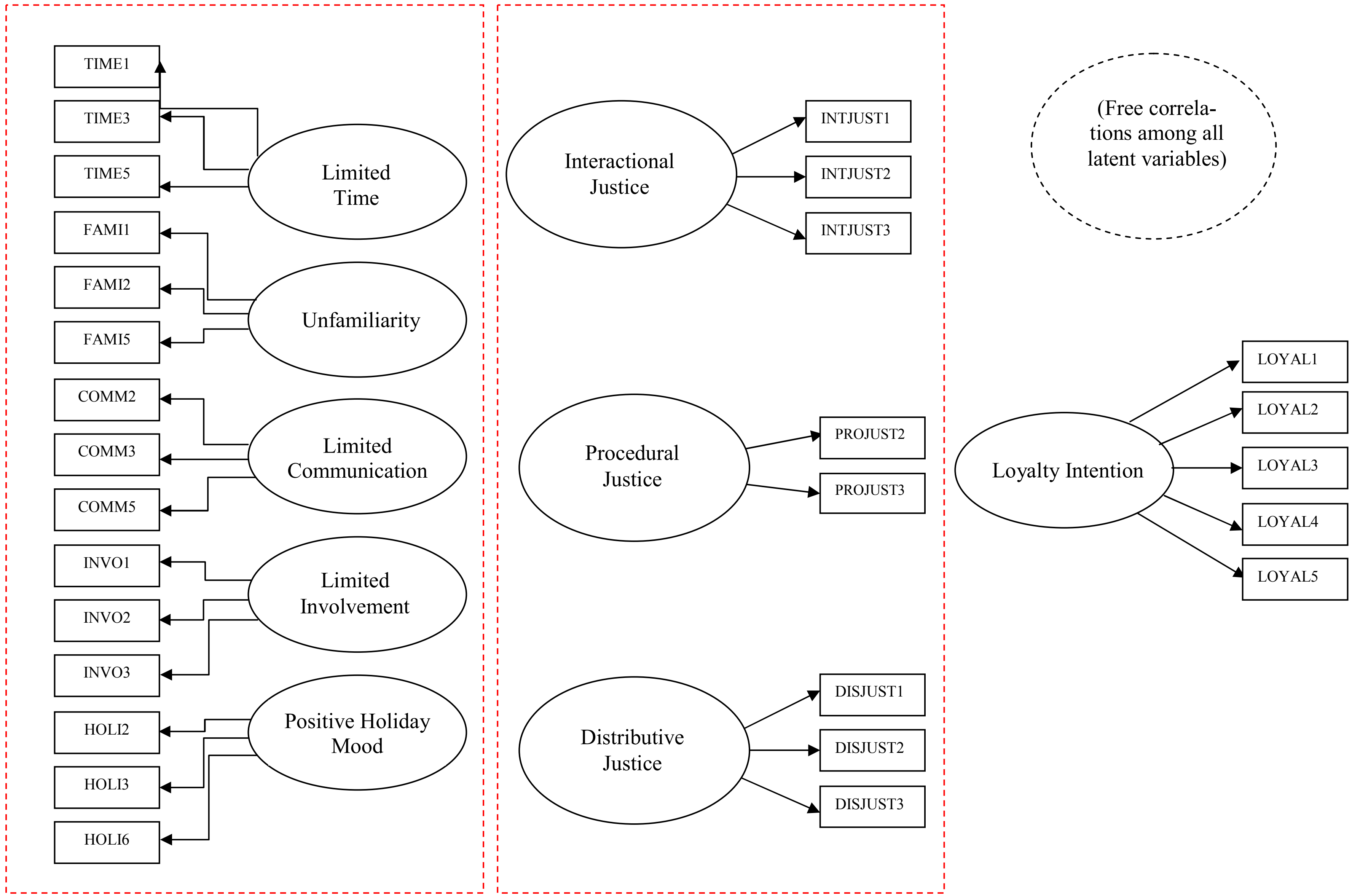

Figure 5.1 Overall Measurement Model

Table 5.11 Overall Measurement Model Fit

Factor/Item	CHINA (n=884) CSL		Measurement error				AMERICA (n=938) CSL		Measurement error			
	λ_i [a]	t [b]	E_i	t [b]	R^{2c}	α [d]	λ_i [a]	t [b]	E_i	t [b]	R^{2c}	α [d]
Unfamiliarity						.759						.844
FAMI1	.79	17.23	1.49	19.16	.51		.84	12.76	1.43	19.21	.58	
FAMI2	.84	18.92	1.22	18.04	.62		.86	16.59	1.12	17.89	.52	
FAMI5	.75	17.29	1.17	18.77	.55		.77	15.92	1.16	18.92	.54	
Limited Time						.812						.837
TIME1	.77	11.31	1.51	16.21	.59		.78	12.54	1.51	16.55	.62	
TIME3	.86	13.63	1.40	19.46	.60		.86	14.20	1.46	19.43	.60	
TIME5	.75	15.41	1.55	17.37	.53		.79	11.93	1.13	17.52	.55	
Positive Holiday Mood						.795						.828
HOLI2	.83	14.53	1.33	16.55	.55		.88	19.37	1.47	16.63	.63	
HOLI3	.91	16.91	1.38	16.72	.51		.91	18.44	1.39	16.82	.56	
HOLI6	.84	13.87	1.42	14.81	.50		.84	17.41	1.45	15.15	.51	
Limited In-volvement						.856						.915
INVO1	.77	15.02	1.08	12.48	.58		.79	10.85	1.09	12.73	.57	
INVO2	.89	14.78	1.49	17.71	.53		.90	17.89	1.52	17.66	.53	
INVO3	.91	19.32	1.28	20.14	.49		.93	21.23	1.12	19.81	.48	
Limited Communication						.843						.926
COMM2	.92	21.81	1.45	18.65	.54		.93	20.28	1.33	18.22	.59	
COMM3	.93	22.07	1.11	18.73	.47		.95	21.97	1.17	17.54	.56	
COMM5	.95	20.14	1.35	18.02	.45		.94	20.11	1.34	18.41	.53	
Interactional Justice						.827						882
INTJUST1	.88	21.70	1.57	19.47	.53		.90	28.09	1.50	19.72	.62	
INTJUST2	.79	20.13	1.26	18.03	.48		.84	34.41	1.26	18.20	.56	
INTJUST3	.90	23.22	1.20	19.41	.51		.92	26.15	1.18	18.31	.48	
Procedural Jus-tice						.821						.915
PROJUST2	.81	26.46	1.22	19.89	.57		.84	35.24	1.52	19.57	.52	
PROJUST3	.90	27.85	1.34	18.93	.52		.92	25.81	1.30	18.40	.49	
Distributive Justice						.867						.891
DISJUST1	.88	28.78	1.41	19.66	.59		.92	31.17	1.22	19.32	.54	
DISJUST2	.79	32.83	1.06	18.08	.46		.87	34.26	1.31	18.14	.50	
DISJUST3	.77	27.67	1.18	19.31	.45		.80	27.89	1.09	19.15	.47	
Loyalty						.911						.935
LOYAL1	.85	20.53	1.15	19.67	.54		.83	32.16	1.57	19.73	.61	
LOYAL2	.93	30.69	1.07	18.45	.47		.92	33.99	1.45	18.31	.63	
LOYAL3	.91	35.55	1.32	18.82	.44		.95	34.71	1.37	18.48	.60	
LOYAL4	.93	32.94	1.21	19.39	.62		.94	33.53	1.48	19.69	.57	
LOYAL5	.90	26.09	1.27	18.24	.51		.95	32.21	1.65	18.38	.55	

Fit indices	χ^2 / df = 2.67 GFI = .96 AGFI = .95 CFI = .93 NNFI = .95 RMSEA = .054 RMR = .061	χ^2 / df = 2.31 GFI = .97 AGFI = .95 CFI = .94 NNFI = .96 RMSEA = .049 RMR = .050

Notes: [a] refers to completely standardized loadings. [b] refers to T-values. [c] refers to coefficient of determination, [d] refers to Cronbach alpha scores of particular dimension for each culture. All loadings are significant at $p < .01$. Overall α China = .849 - America = .916.

Variations between the standardized values of the combined/overall models and the individual measurement model were found negligible (Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994). Moreover, comparisons revealed that all t-values in the overall model were higher than corresponding values in the individual models (see Tables 5.6 and 5.8).

Table 5.11 represents the coefficient alpha values of the nine latent variables ranging from .759 to .911 within the Chinese sample and .828 to .935 in the American sample, both being well above the recommended cut-off value of .70 (Nunnally, 1978). The Cronbach alpha values for the Chinese and American data were found to be .849 and .916, respectively. Although Cronbach alpha values for both latent variables and the overall model were statistically significant and comparatively high, they did not vary significantly. (Kelloway, 1998) However, it should be noted that all values in the overall measurement model were found to be higher.

Table 5.12 Correlation matrix (Φ) of Latent Variables in the Overall Measurement Model

	FAMI		HOLI		TIME		INVO		COMM		INTJUST		PROJUST		DISJUST		LOYAL	
Factors	CHN	USA	CHN	USA	CHN	USA	CHN	USA	CHN	USA	CHN	USA	CHN	USA	CHN	USA	CHN	USA
FAMI	1.00	1.00																
HOLI	.26	.27	1.00	1.00														
TIME	.31	.20	.46	.25	1.00	1.00												
INVO	.47	.43	.28	.41	.23	.31	1.00	1.00										
COMM	.46	.34	.30	.43	.32	.24	.40	.48	1.00	1.00								
INTJUST	-.51	-.45	-.35	-.31	-.54	-.46	-.48	-.53	-.58	-.59	1.00	1.00						
PROJUST	-.55	-.46	-.22	-.24	-.41	-.37	-.35	-.47	-.49	-.51	.43	.23	1.00	1.00				
DISJUST	-.41	-.38	-.31	-.33	-.35	-.28	-.40	-.34	-.42	-.42	.45	.35	.44	.39	1.00	1.00		
LOYAL	-.42	-.43	-.36	-.30	-.46	-.46	-.51	-.45	-.46	-.40	.48	.31	.42	.36	.29	.47	1.00	1.00
AVE	.53	.53.	.62	.60	.56	.59	.57	.52	.62	.66	.62	.65	.67	.70	.55	.56	.58	.53
Means	5.19	4.43	4.83	4.92	4.49	4.07	5.02	4.65	5.37	5.17	5.16	5.51	5.04	5.36	5.11	5.72	3.81	4.96
SD	.98	.99	.95	1.13	1.08	1.03	1.07	1.13	1.01	1.12	1.04	.92	1.17	1.13	1.29	1.06	1.28	1.22

Notes: Composite scores are calculated by averaging items representing that factor. Responses range from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree, higher scores indicate favorable responses. SD = standard deviation. All correlations are significant at the *p* < .01.

Table 5.11 also lists the measurement error (*E*), t-values (t) and coefficient of determination (R^2) scores. Millan and Esteban (2004) reported R^2 scores as relative measure of fit for each structural equation. Similarly, Hair et al. (2007) recommended the deletion of items where R^2 scores were lower than .40. The results indicated that all R^2 scores were above the cut-off value. There was therefore no need to delete any item from either of the data sets. A review of the measurement error and their respective t-values revealed that the resulting values were within the recommended limits, $E \leq 2.00$ and $t \geq \pm 1.96$, indicating that there was no need to remove any items from the model (Kinnear, & Gray, 2008; Raykov, & Marcoulides, 2006; Zikmund, 1994).

Table 5.12 presents the correlation matrix among the latent variables in the overall measurement model of Chinese and American data. The table also shows the respective means, standard deviation and AVE scores to provide additional evidence for validity (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Results of this analysis revealed that all correlations between the study dimensions were significant at the .01 level (Hair et al., 2007). Within the Chinese data, correlations ranged from -.23 (positive holiday mood - procedural justice) to -.58 (limited communication - interactional justice), whereas in the American data they ranged from .20 (limited time - unfamiliarity) to .48 (limited involvement - limited communication). Moreover, the calculated AVE for all nine factors ranged from .53 to .67 in the Chinese data set and from .52 to .70 in the American data set, which exceeded the threshold level of .45 (Fornell, & Larcker, 1981). All these correlation figures - moderate to low in value - and AVE scores - below the cut-off value, provided support for the discriminant validity of all latent variables (Nunnally, 1978; Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2006).

5.5.3 Structural Model Assessment

Results from the previous section demonstrated that the overall measurement model fits well to both the Chinese and American data given acceptable fit indices and parameter estimates (Kelloway, 1998). The next step in the SEM analysis was to test the structural model by using the Chinese and American sub-samples, as well as the pooled data (n=1,822). Structural relations between exogenous and endogenous variables by testing the structural model were estimated (Jöreskog, & Sörbom, 1996).

As proposed in the conceptual framework of this study, the structural relations included what effects the five dimensions of tourist complaining constraints had upon the three dimensions of justice perceptions and the effects of the three dimensions of justice perceptions upon the loyalty intention dimension. As demonstrated in Figure 5.2, the structural relationships illustrated are by 18 one-way arrows from exogenous to endogenous variables and from the three endogenous variables (justice perceptions) to another endogenous variable (loyalty intention).

The graphical representation of the model reflects all the relationships included in Figure 5.2. The hypotheses in this study were tested using the structural equation modeling approach (LISREL 8.70) at both the pan-country and intra-country levels (Craig, & Douglas, 2005). The pan-cultural approach involves pooling all subjects together and analyzing relationships with the individual subject regardless of the subject's cultural background, as the unit of analysis (Kaplan, 2000; Schumacker, & Lomax, 2004). The inferences reflect the entire sample and may provide a basis of comparison as well as an overview of the structural relationships. Yet, they do not elaborate on the differences across any specific culture (Bollen, 1989; Craig, & Douglas, 2005). On the other hand, intra-country analysis allows for an examination of relationships in each of the countries under investigation (Hair et al., 2003; Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2006). SEM is particularly well suited for this purpose because it allows for simultaneous analysis in both cultural groups by using the multi-group model (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Zikmund, 1994). The current study reports its SEM results based on the pan-cultural (using pooled data, n=1,822) and the intra-country (using multi-group model, n_{China}=884 - $n_{America}$=938) analysis. Results of the intra-country analysis were used to test hypotheses 9 and 10, which argued the possible effects of cultural background on the relationships between TCC, justice perceptions and loyalty intention.

Moreover, to assess the generalization of the results and test hypotheses 11 and 12 (possible effect of magnitude of failure on the relationships between TCC, justice perceptions and loyalty intention), the model was tested across both scenarios (high and low magnitude service failures).

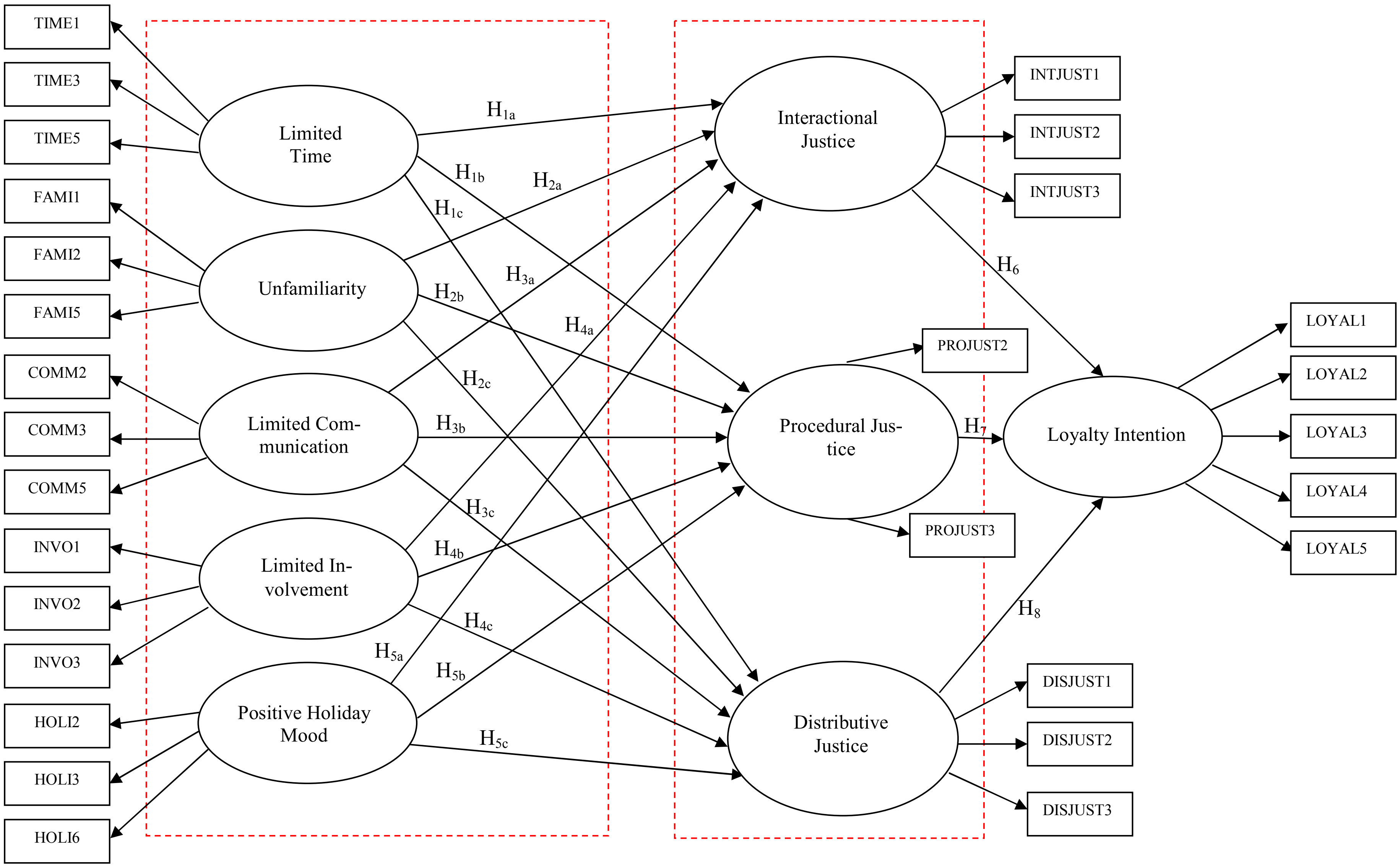

Figure 5.2 Initial Structural Model

Table 5.13 Results of the Structural Model Fit

Factor/Item	POOLED (n=1,822) SFL[a]	t [b]	R^{2c}	CHINA (n=884) SFL[a]	t [b]	R^{2c}	AMERICA (n=938) SFL[a]	t [b]	R^{2c}
Unfamiliarity									
FAMI1	.80	18.21	.53	.82	19.33	.51	.84	19.22	.59
FAMI2	.85	19.23	.60	.85	19.41	.62	.87	17.92	.54
FAMI5	.77	18.29	.52	.76	17.89	.51	.78	18.99	.54
Limited time									
TIME1	.78	12.31	.60	.77	12.94	.59	.79	16.61	.63
TIME3	.87	14.60	.62	.87	14.40	.61	.89	19.55	.62
TIME5	.79	16.09	.54	.78	17.07	.53	.80	17.87	.56
Positive Holiday Mood									
HOLI2	.85	15.50	.55	.85	15.03	.55	.87	16.81	.66
HOLI3	.91	17.71	.52	.92	18.51	.51	.91	16.83	.57
HOLI6	.85	14.80	.53	.86	14.37	.50	.84	15.32	.54
Limited Involvement									
INVO1	.79	15.45	.59	.79	15.72	.58	.80	12.88	.58
INVO2	.91	15.28	.56	.90	15.65	.57	.92	17.75	.55
INVO3	.93	20.12	.51	.91	20.65	.52	.93	19.89	.49
Limited Communication									
COMM2	.93	22.86	.56	.92	22.12	.54	.93	18.30	.60
COMM3	.94	22.57	.50	.92	22.90	.51	.95	17.55	.57
COMM5	.93	20.64	.47	.93	21.84	.44	.94	18.44	.54
Interactional Justice									
INTJUST1	.89	22.70	.54	.90	22.05	.50	.90	19.73	.62
INTJUST2	.81	20.16	.49	.81	20.68	.44	.82	18.21	.57
INTJUST3	.91	23.57	.52	.90	23.99	.53	.92	18.33	.51
Procedural Justice									
PROJUST2	.82	27.56	.58	.82	27.60	.59	.84	19.61	.53
PROJUST3	.91	29.15	.53	.90	29.44	.54	.92	18.43	.50
Distributive Justice									
DISJUST1	.89	30.28	.61	.89	30.77	.60	.91	29.38	.55
DISJUST2	.82	24.13	.49	.79	26.83	.50	.87	18.22	.51
DISJUST3	.79	28.62	.47	.78	30.67	.49	.80	19.19	.48
Loyalty									
LOYAL1	.85	21.53	.55	.86	23.34	.58	.83	19.82	.62
LOYAL2	.93	32.19	.49	.93	35.91	.57	.92	18.33	.65
LOYAL3	.93	36.55	.46	.92	37.11	.54	.95	18.61	.62
LOYAL4	.94	25.34	.63	.93	30.14	.64	.94	19.80	.58
LOYAL5	.92	27.09	.54	.91	30.39	.52	.93	18.42	.56
Fit indices	χ^2 / df = 2.51			χ^2 / df = 2.58			χ^2 / df = 2.44		
	GFI = .95			GFI = .94			GFI = .96		
	AGFI = .94			AGFI = .93			AGFI = .94		
	CFI = .93			CFI = .92			CFI = .93		
	NNFI = .93			NNFI = .94			NNFI = .92		
	RMSEA = .055			RMSEA = .058			RMSEA = .051		
	SRMR = .059			SRMR = .063			SRMR = .055		

Notes: [a] refers to standardized factor loadings. [b] refers to T-values. [c] refers to squared multiple correlation, All loadings are significant at $p < .01$. Overall α China = .887 - America = .934.

Overall, the model fit indices indicated a reasonable fit to the three data sets. These being namely, pooled (χ^2/df = 2.51, RMSEA = .055, SRMR = .059, GFI = .95, AGFI = .94, NNFI = .93, CFI = .93), Chinese (χ^2/df = 2.58, RMSEA = .058, SRMR = .063, GFI = .94, AGFI = .93, NNFI = .94, CFI = .92) and American (χ^2/df = 2.44, RMSEA = .051, SRMR = .055, GFI = .96, AGFI = .94, NNFI = .92, CFI = .93). Moreover, an overview of the modification indices provided in the LISREL output suggested no major model modifications (Jöreskog, & Sörbom, 1996). In addition, the values of standardized factor loadings, t-values, and R^2 were almost identical to the values in the overall measurement model, implying that the measurement of each latent variable in the structural model was quite robust (Jöreskog, 1999; Kaplan, 2000; Schumacker, & Lomax, 2004). Given the acceptance of the structural model fit, the path coefficients (γ - β), were consequently examined. Table 5.14 lists all the γ's and β's estimated in the structural model.

5.5.4 Hypothesis Testing

The structural paths of the hypothesized model presented in Chapter 3 were initially evaluated within this Section. Secondly, performance of a rival model was tested to assess whether the hypothesized model was robust against alternative formulations of structural paths (Kline, 1998).

Although the hypotheses were tested using the estimated structural paths of the complete model (n = 1,822), to further investigate the effects of the magnitude of failure and cultural background in similar relationships they were tested using six sub-samples. The six sub-samples were composed of the following: Respondents given the high magnitude failure scenario, (HM pool - n = 868) and low magnitude failure scenario, (LM pool - n =

954). Chinese respondents were given the HM failure scenario, (CH - n = 414); and the LM failure scenario (CL - n = 470). American respondents were given the HM failure scenario (AH - n = 454) along with the LM failure scenario (AL- n = 484).

Each model, visualized in Figures 5.3 to 5.9, show the hypothesized relationships between latent constructs and their corresponding standardized and non-standardized path coefficients (Hair et al., 2007). The reason for presenting both standardized and non-standardized coefficients is simply their different functions. In other words, non-standardized coefficients were used to compare the relative strength of path coefficients between different samples. Their uses in cross-cultural comparisons is advocated, given that path coefficients have not been adjusted for the within-group variability, which made them ideal for multi-group comparisons (Chelminski, 2003; Craig, & Douglas, 2005; Luomala et al., 2004; Singh, 1995).

Such adjustments, reflected in the standardized coefficients, take away the effect of cross-cultural differences stemming from dissimilarity of within-group variances (Craig, & Douglas, 2005; Reisinger, & Turner, 2003). On the other hand, several researchers warned not to use the non-standardized coefficients to compare the structural paths within a national/cultural sample (Chelminski, 2003; Nunnally, 1978; Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2006). Standardized coefficients adjust/standardize the dissimilarities in variances and make it possible to compare the relative strength of paths within one group (Hair et al., 2003; Kelloway, 1998; Zikmund, 1994). For these reasons, both types of coefficient scores are presented. Significant path coefficients are shown with solid lines, where statistically insignificant ones are illustrated with dash lines in each figure.

A first evaluation of the structural model involves checking whether all significant path coefficients are in the hypothesized direction (Nunnally, 1978). For the complete data set and each of the sub-samples, all significant relationships between latent constructs show in the hypothesized direction, providing strong support for the conceptual model and its related hypotheses (Bollen, 1989; Zikmund, 1994).

A second evaluation of the structural model was related to the testing of each hypotheses formulated in chapter three. Results of the hypothesized relationships, between TCC dimensions and justice perceptions and between justice perceptions and loyalty intention, are presented in Table 5.14, being illustrated in Figure 5.3. Results provided evidence that all TCC dimensions had significant negative relationships with justice perceptions, except for the relationship between the 'positive holiday mood' dimension of TCC and 'distributive justice' perception. Thus, all hypotheses, except H_{5c}, were accepted. Furthermore, the analysis of pooled data showed that TCC dimensions collectively explained 64.3 %, 61.2 % and 58.5 % of variances in interactional, procedural and distributive justice perceptions, respectively. Likewise, interactional, procedural and distributive justice dimensions jointly explained 75.7 % of variance within loyalty intention. A detailed discussion and implications of these results are presented in the next chapter.

Table 5.14 Evaluation of Hypotheses by using Complete Data Set (n=1,822)

Hypotheses - Path	β/γ	t-value	Results
H_{1a}: TIME → INTJUST	-.36	-15.1**	Supported
H_{1b}: TIME → PROJUST	-.23	-6.3*	Supported
H_{1c}: TIME → DISJUST	-.20	-4.4*	Supported
H_{2a}: FAMI → INTJUST	-.22	-5.9*	Supported
H_{2b}: FAMI → PROJUST	-.29	-12.2**	Supported
H_{2c}: FAMI → DISJUST	-.21	-4.6*	Supported
H_{3a}: COMM → INTJUST	-.45	-23.5**	Supported
H_{3b}: COMM → PROJUST	-.20	-4.2*	Supported
H_{3c}: COMM → DISJUST	-.27	11.7**	Supported
H_{4a}: INVO → INTJUST	-.30	-13.8**	Supported
H_{4b}: INVO → PROJUST	-.24	-7.0*	Supported
H_{4c}: INVO → DISJUST	-.19	-2.3*	Supported
H_{5a}: HOLI → INTJUST	-.26	-10.4**	Supported
H_{5b}: HOLI → PROJUST	-.21	-4.5*	Supported
H_{5c}: HOLI → DISJUST	-.18	-1.5^{ns}	Rejected
H_6: INTJUST → LOYAL	.57	30.9**	Supported
H_7: PROJUST → LOYAL	.50	27.1**	Supported
H_8: DISJUST → LOYAL	.61	33.2**	Supported
	χ^2 / df = 2.51 GFI = .95 AGFI = .94 CFI = .93 NNFI = .93 RMSEA = .055 SRMR = .059		

Notes: Shaded cells indicate statistically significant paths. *p < .05, **p < .01 level, ns = not significant

An overview of the strength of standardized path coefficients between latent constructs, as a final means of examining the structural model, revealed that there was no high-valued coefficient, which may be indicative of multicollinearity problems (Hair et al., 2007; Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994). Firstly examined was the strength of the path coefficients between exogenous and endogenous constructs (from γ_{11} to γ_{15}). Although no limit is set that determines when a path coefficient is considered high, values exceeding .90 are considered indicative of multicollinearity problems (Bollen, 1989). All standardized path coefficients between exogenous and endogenous constructs were below .61 in pooled data and .71 in the sub-samples (see Tables 5.15 and 5.16 as well as Figures 5.4 to 5.9).

Secondly, path coefficients between endogenous constructs (from β_{21} to β_{23}), were checked against the level of .90 (Brislin, 1976). Path coefficients, ranged from .18 to .61 between TCC dimensions, justice perceptions and loyalty intention, indicating a low risk multicollinearity problem (Churchill, & Iacobucci, 2002). These findings, consistent with figures in Table 5.12, demonstrated that there exists sufficient discriminant validity between research constructs (Loevinger, 1957; Raykov, & Marcoulides, 2006). Tables 5.14 to 5.16 provided overall support for each of the hypotheses not only by using the pooled data but also six sub-samples, representing two different failure levels and two different cultural backgrounds. The shaded cells in the tables refer to the standardized path coefficients that are significant and in the hypothesized direction.

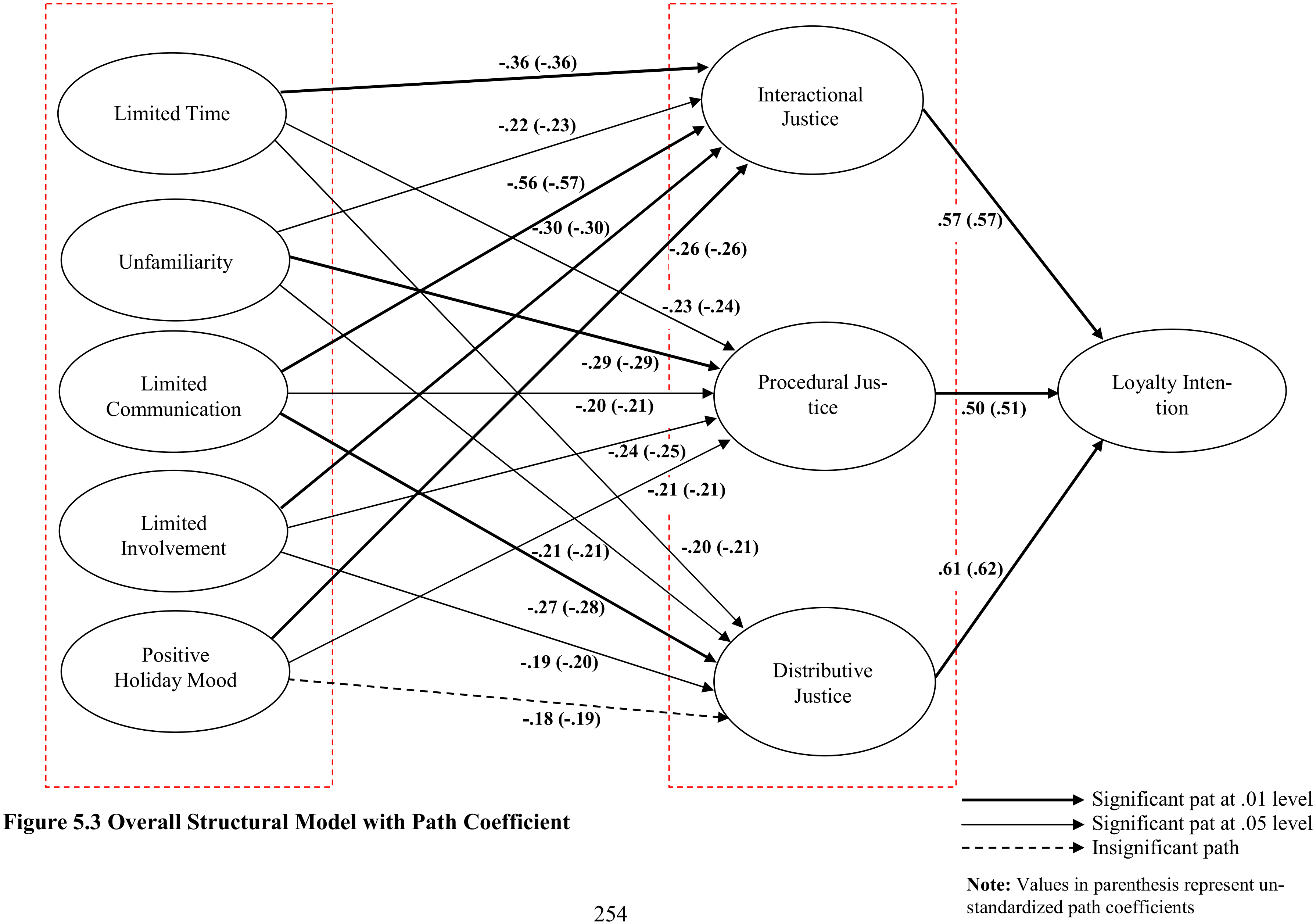

Figure 5.3 Overall Structural Model with Path Coefficient

The analysis HM data shows that TCC dimensions collectively explained 67.1 %, 63.8 % and 60.1 % of variances in interactional, procedural and distributive justice perceptions, correspondingly. Similarly, interactional, procedural and distributive justice dimensions jointly explained 76.2 % of variance in loyalty intention. On the other hand, these figures were slightly lower in LM data. Specifically, TCC dimensions collectively explained 60.2 %, 58.6 % and 55.7 % of variances in interactional, procedural and distributive justice perceptions, respectively.

Table 5.15 Evaluation of Hypotheses - Comparing Pooled High and Low Magnitude Failure Data

Hypotheses - Path	High Magnitude (n=868)		Low Magnitude (n=954)		Results
	β/γ	t-value	β/γ	t-value	
H_{1a}: TIME → INTJUST	-.36	-17.2**	-.22	-9.2*	Supported
H_{1b}: TIME → PROJUST	-.26	-4.3*	-.20	-2.4*	Supported
H_{1c}: TIME → DISJUST	-.18	-1.8^{ns}	-.22	-2.5*	Partially supported
H_{2a}: FAMI → INTJUST	-.20	-2.3*	-.17	-1.8^{ns}	Partially supported
H_{2b}: FAMI → PROJUST	-.29	-5.2*	-.24	-6.7*	Supported
H_{2c}: FAMI → DISJUST	-.21	-3.6*	-.19	-1.8^{ns}	Partially supported
H_{3a}: COMM → INTJUST	-.52	-23.5**	-.33	-14.5**	Supported
H_{3b}: COMM → PROJUST	-.21	-3.6*	-.19	-1.9^{ns}	Partially supported
H_{3c}: COMM → DISJUST	-.35	-19.7**	-.15	-1.8^{ns}	Partially supported
H_{4a}: INVO → INTJUST	-.46	-24.3**	-.21	-2.2*	Supported
H_{4b}: INVO → PROJUST	-.22	-5.4*	-.18	-1.6^{ns}	Partially supported
H_{4c}: INVO → DISJUST	-.22	-5.4*	-.16	-1.4^{ns}	Partially supported
H_{5a}: HOLI → INTJUST	-.30	-13.2**	-.23	-8.4*	Supported
H_{5b}: HOLI → PROJUST	-.23	-3.9*	-.20	-2.2*	Supported
H_{5c}: HOLI → DISJUST	-.19	-1.9^{ns}	-.13	-1.1^{ns}	Rejected
H_6: INTJUST → LOYAL	.58	30.8**	.52	27.9**	Supported
H_7: PROJUST → LOYAL	.51	21.1**	.41	19.2**	Supported
H_8: DISJUST → LOYAL	.64	35.9**	.43	20.3**	Supported
	χ^2 / df = 2.58 GFI = .94 AGFI = .93 CFI = .93 NNFI = .94 RMSEA = .058 SRMR = .063		χ^2 / df = 2.44 GFI = .96 AGFI = .94 CFI = .92 NNFI = .92 RMSEA = .051 SRMR = .055		

Notes: Shaded cells indicate statistically significant paths. *p < .05, **p < .01 level, ns = not significant

Likewise, interactional, procedural and distributive justice dimensions jointly explained 69.8 % of variance in loyalty intention. To summarize, these results provided support for most of the hypothesized main effects. The overwhelming majority of structural paths were stable within the pooled data (17 out of 18 - 94.4 %), and sub-groups, namely across failure types (27 out of 36 - 75.0 %) and across cultures (59 out of 72 - 81.9 %) (as illustrated in Tables 5.14 to 5.16).

Further investigation of the tested hypotheses was by breaking the effects into groups of pooled failure magnitude types (Table 5.15), and cultural backgrounds combined with failure magnitude types (Table 5.16). An overview of Table 5.15 indicated that seven of the hypotheses received partial support. Yet, the relationship between positive holiday mood and distributive justice (H_{5c}) was insignificant. As for results of the combined effects of cultural background and failure magnitudes, only seven of the ten supported hypotheses were found statistically significant (see Table 5.16). As for the relationships between justice perceptions and loyalty intention, all paths were significant and positive in all sub-samples. Thus, hypotheses H_6, H_7 and H_8 were accepted. Additionally, the analysis of CHM data showed that TCC dimensions collectively explained 62.0 %, 60.9 % and 58.6 % of variances in interactional, procedural and distributive justice perceptions, correspondingly. Interactional, procedural and distributive justice dimensions jointly explained 73.5 % of variance in loyalty intention. Whilst the same figures were found to be slightly lower in CLM data: TCC dimensions jointly explained 59.2 %, 57.3 % and 55.1 % of variances in interactional, procedural and distributive justice perceptions, correspondingly. Interactional, procedural and distributive justice dimensions jointly explained 62.1 % of variance in loyalty intention with the CLM data. On the other hand, analyses of the American data generated the following results in high and low magnitude failure situations: TCC dimensions collectively explained 60.6 %, 57.9 % and 54.3 % of variance in interactional, procedural and distributive justice perceptions in the AHM data, respectively. This jointly explained 55.1 %, 52.3 % and 51.9 % of variances in interactional, procedural and distributive justice perceptions within the ALM data, correspondingly. Likewise, interactional, procedural and distributive justice dimensions jointly explained 69.2 % and 64.4 % of variance in loyalty intention within AHM and ALM respectively.

Table 5.16 Evaluation of Hypotheses - Comparing Chinese and American Responses

	Chinese Respondents				American Respondents				
Hypotheses - Path	**High** (n=414) β/γ	t-value	**Low** (n=470) β/γ	t-value	**High** (n=454) β/γ	t-value	**Low** (n=484) β/γ	t-value	**Results**
H_{1a}: TIME → INTJUST	-.35	-16.7**	-.26	-9.7*	-.38	-19.4**	-.20	-6.7*	Supported
H_{1b}: TIME → PROJUST	-.25	-4.1*	-.12	1.2^{ns}	-.28	-8.1*	-.21	-4.6*	Partially supported
H_{1c}: TIME → DISJUST	-.28	-8.9*	-.25	-7.0*	-.24	-4.3*	-.16	-1.8^{ns}	Partially supported
H_{2a}: FAMI → INTJUST	-.30	-13.5**	-.24	-6.9*	-.16	-1.7^{ns}	-.13	-1.1^{ns}	Partially supported
H_{2b}: FAMI → PROJUST	-.31	-13.8**	-.27	-9.4*	-.29	-5.4*	-.21	-4.4*	Supported
H_{2c}: FAMI → DISJUST	-.27	-6.3*	-.22	-5.8*	-.22	-3.3*	-.18	-1.5^{ns}	Partially supported
H_{3a}: COMM → INTJUST	-.56	-27.7**	-.36	-22.6**	-.51	-25.1**	-.32	-14.5**	Supported
H_{3b}: COMM → PROJUST	-.26	-4.5*	-.23	-7.7*	-.17	-1.8^{ns}	-.20	-6.6*	Partially supported
H_{3c}: COMM → DISJUST	-.34	-18.6**	-.21	-6.4*	-.38	21.9**	-.13	-1.1^{ns}	Partially supported
H_{4a}: INVO → INTJUST	-.40	-20.7**	-.17	-1.8^{ns}	-.51	-25.1**	-.25	-9.1*	Partially supported
H_{4b}: INVO → PROJUST	-.20	-3.1*	-.24	-9.2*	-.24	-8.0*	-.09	-1.0^{ns}	Partially supported
H_{4c}: INVO → DISJUST	-.22	-3.2*	-.05	$-.7^{ns}$	-.27	-9.3*	-.26	-7.2*	Partially supported
H_{5a}: HOLI → INTJUST	-.33	-14.9**	-.20	-6.1*	-.29	-12.4**	-.25	-9.6*	Supported
H_{5b}: HOLI → PROJUST	-.17	-1.8^{ns}	-.15	-1.5^{ns}	-.25	-4.6*	-.22	-2.7*	Partially supported
H_{5c}: HOLI → DISJUST	-.21	-4.4*	-.11	$.9^{ns}$	-.23	-5.2*	-.14	-1.3^{ns}	Partially supported
H_6: INTJUST → LOYAL	.58	30.4**	.57	32.3**	.60	31.9**	.44	22.1**	Supported
H_7: PROJUST → LOYAL	.46	21.3**	.40	19.6**	.57	28.2**	.43	20.0**	Supported
H_8: DISJUST → LOYAL	.64	34.1**	.41	19.7**	.71	36.8**	.56	29.5**	Supported
	χ^2 / df = 2.63 GFI = .93 AGFI = .92 CFI = .91 NNFI = .90 RMSEA = .062 SRMR = .069				χ^2 / df = 2.77 GFI = .92 AGFI = .91 CFI = .90 NNFI = .90 RMSEA = .064 SRMR = .071				

Notes: Shaded cells indicate statistically significant paths. *p < .05, **p < .01 level, ns = not significant

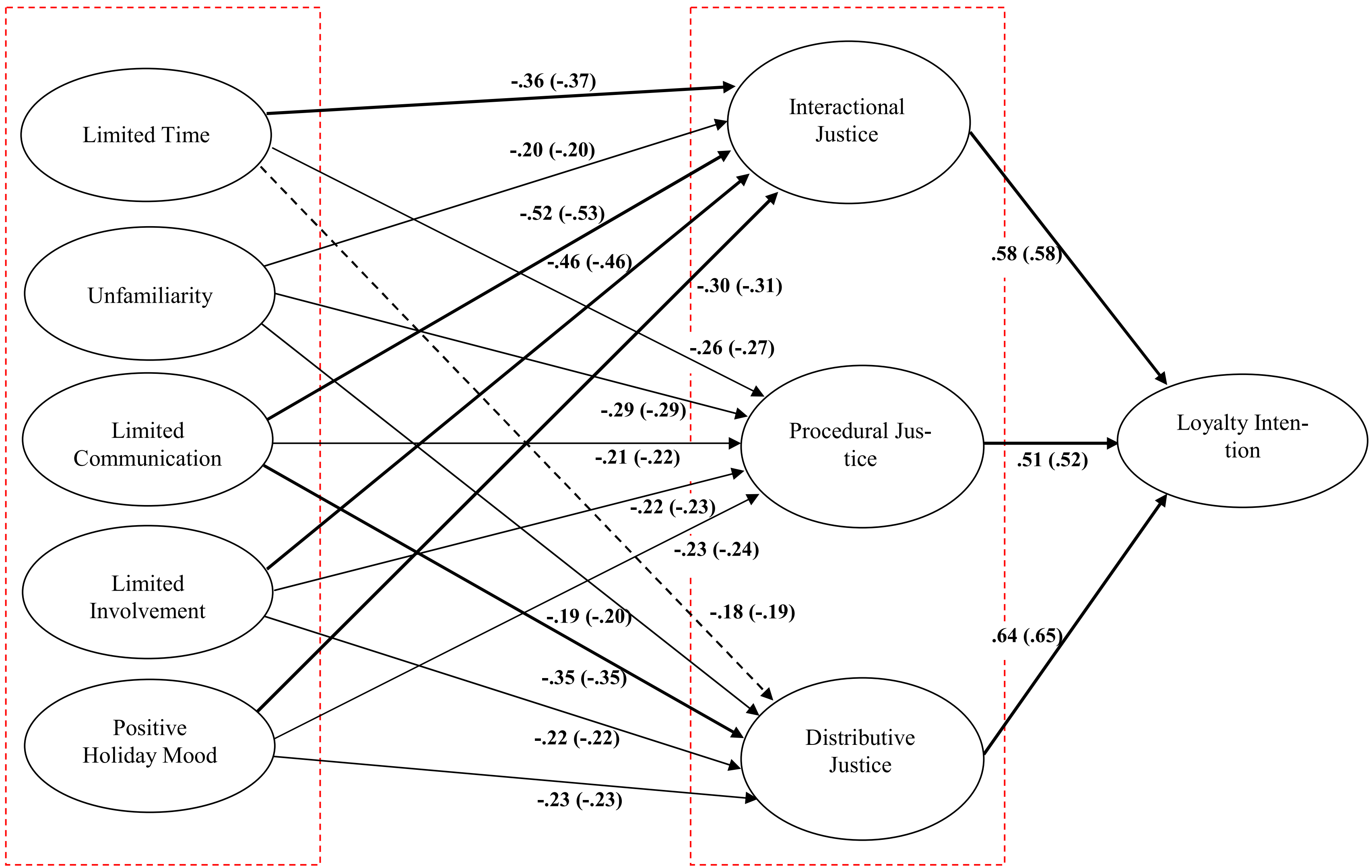

Figure 5.4 Structural Model for Pooled High Magnitude Failure

Note: Values in parenthesis represent un-standardized path coefficients

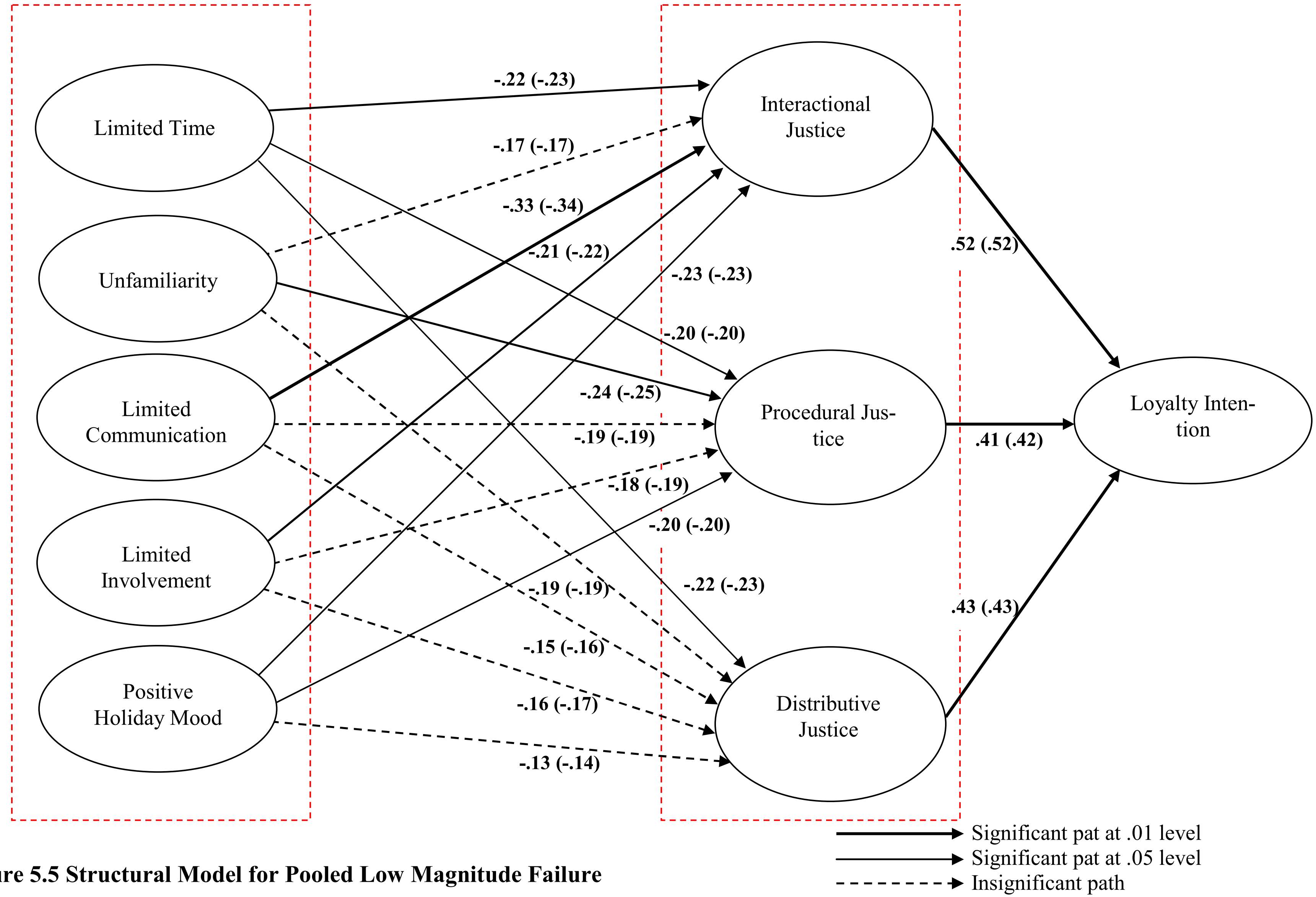

Figure 5.5 Structural Model for Pooled Low Magnitude Failure

Note: Values in parenthesis represent un-standardized path coefficients

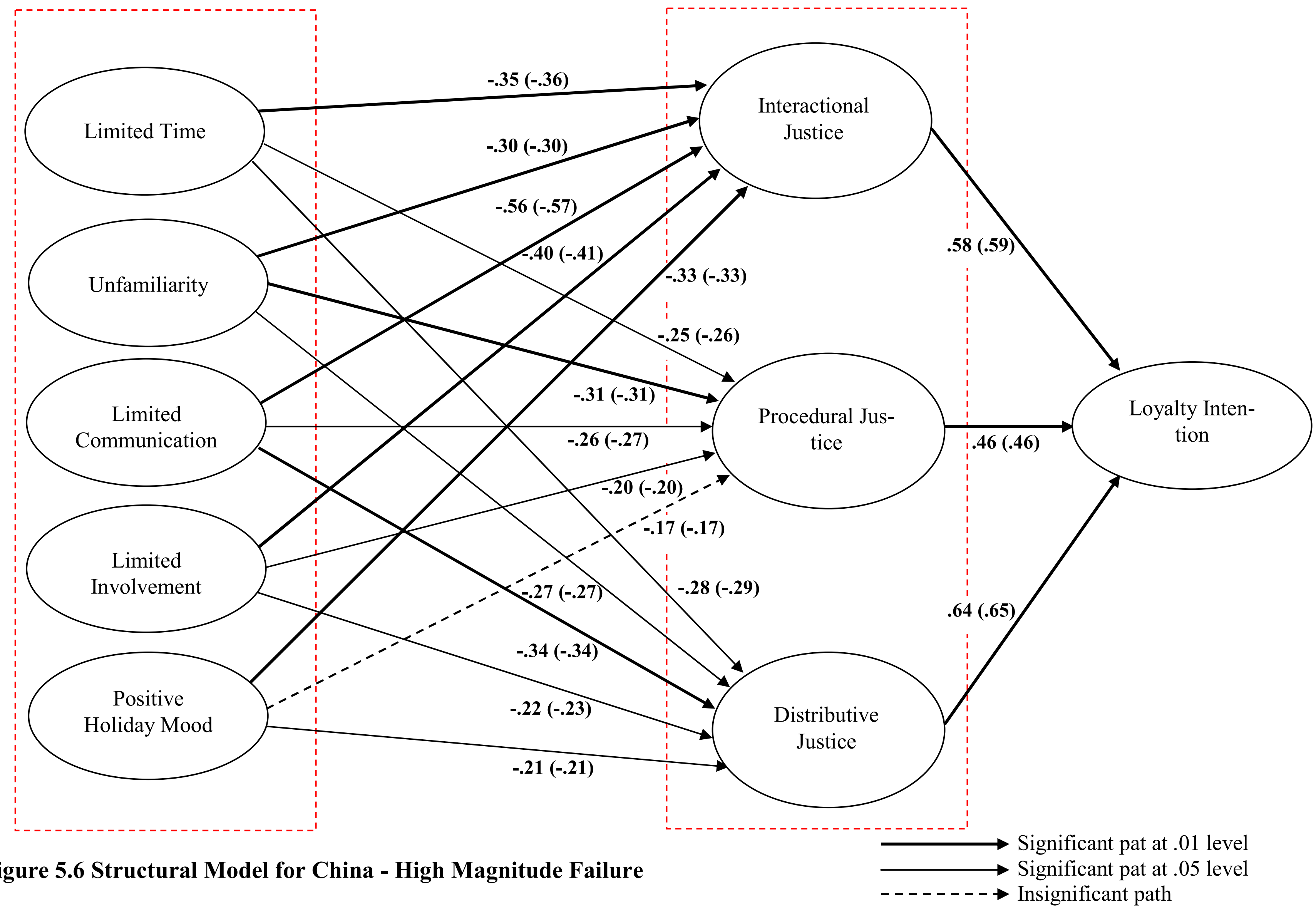

Figure 5.6 Structural Model for China - High Magnitude Failure

Note: Values in parenthesis represent unstandardized path coefficients

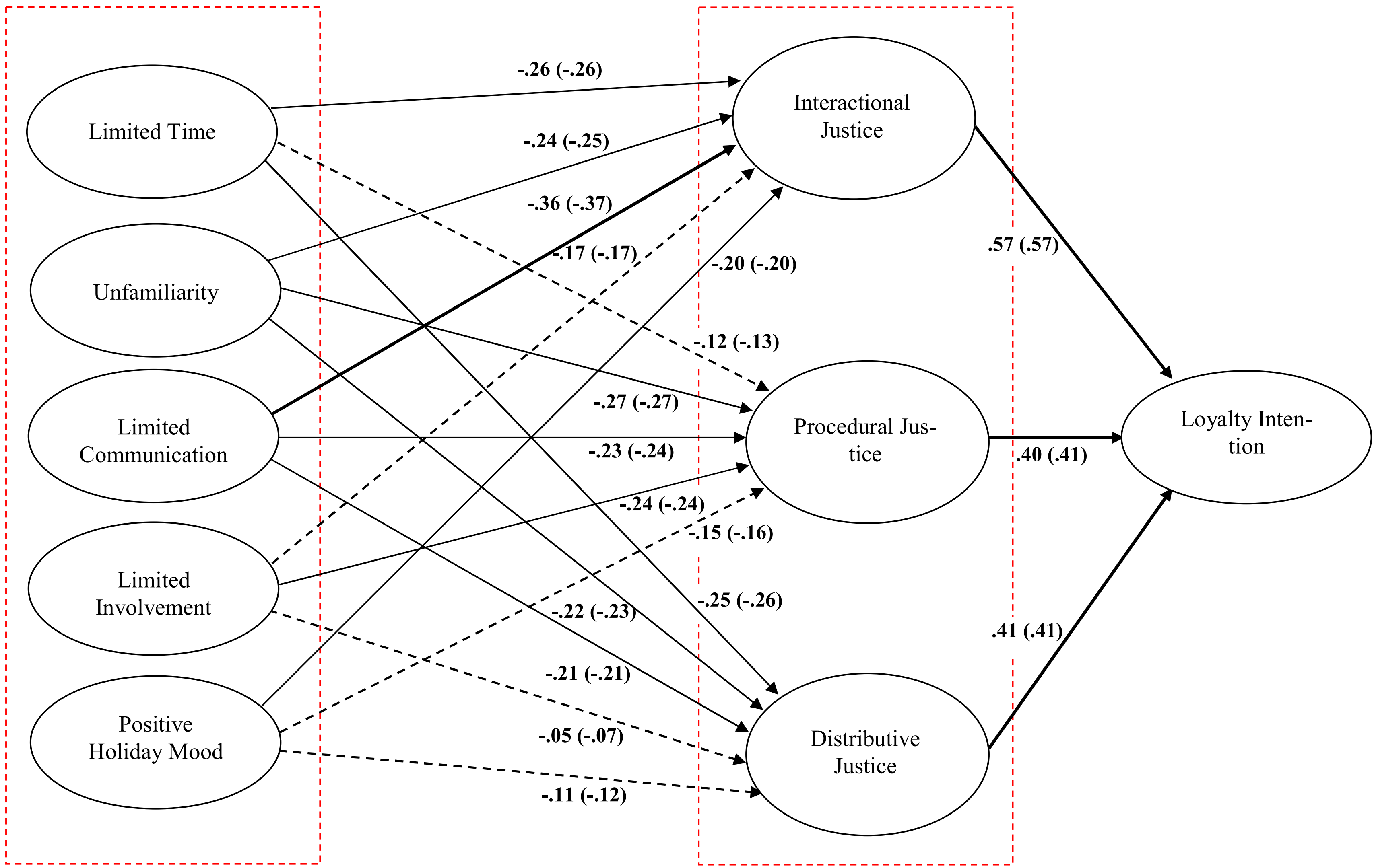

Figure 5.7 Structural Model for China - Low Magnitude Failure

Significant pat at .01 level
Significant pat at .05 level
Insignificant path

Note: Values in parenthesis represent un-standardized path coefficients

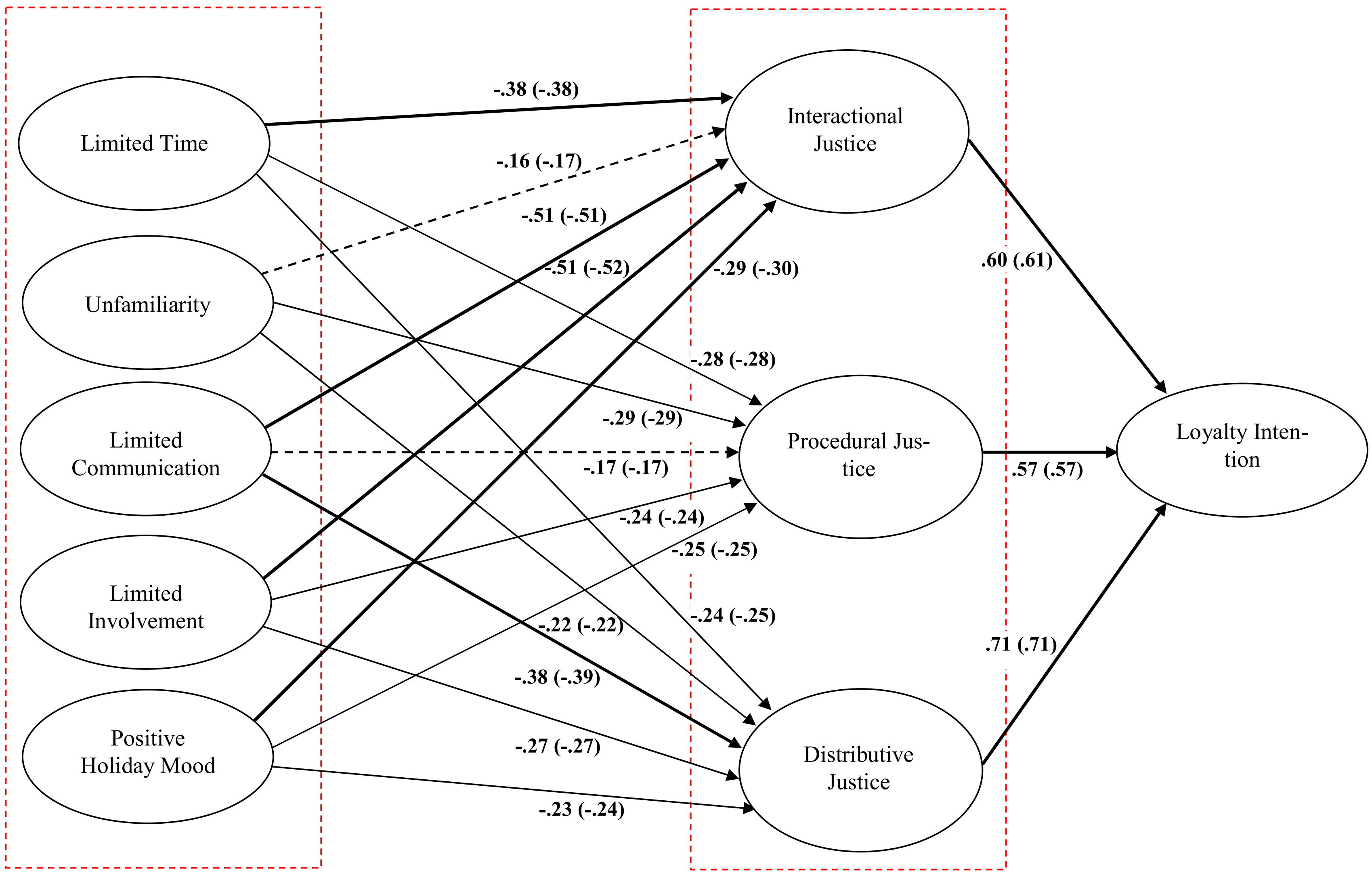

Figure 5.8 Structural Model for America - High Magnitude Failure

Significant pat at .01 level
Significant pat at .05 level
Insignificant path

Note: Values in parenthesis represent un-standardized path coefficients

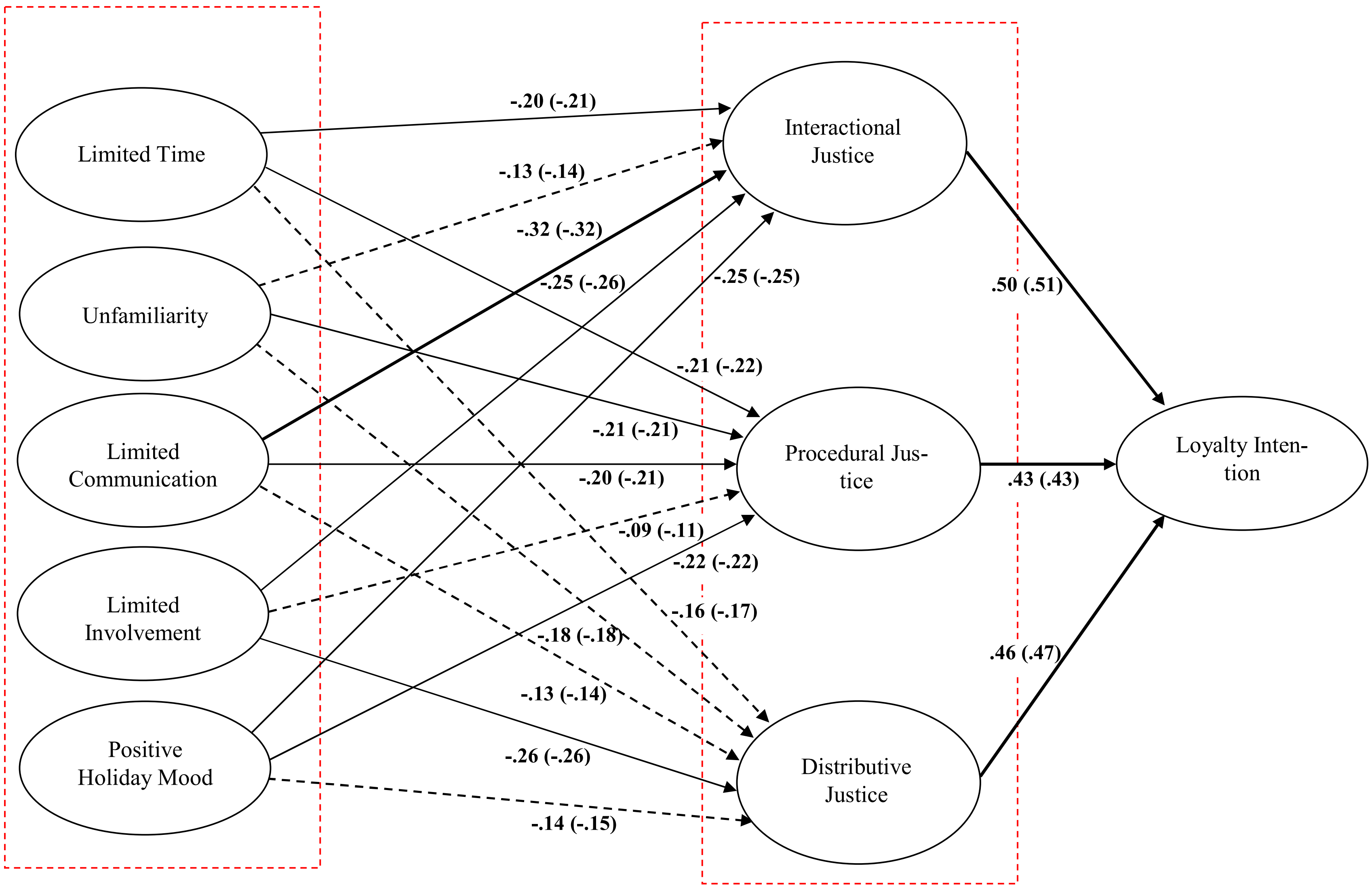

Figure 5.9 Structural Model for America - Low Magnitude Failure

Significant pat at .01 level
Significant pat at .05 level
Insignificant path

Note: Values in parenthesis represent unstandardized path coefficients

Table 5.17 Decomposition of Structural Effects (Chinese Sub-sample)

	High Magnitude			Low Magnitude		
	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total
Effect on Interactional Justice						
Limited time	-.35**	-	-.35**	-.26*	-	-.26*
Unfamiliarity	-.30**	-	-.30**	-.24*	-	-.24*
Limited communication	-.56**	-	-.56**	-.36**	-	-.36**
Limited involvement	-.40**	-	-.40**	-.17 ns	-	-.17 ns
Positive Holiday Mood	-.33**	-	-.33**	-.20*	-	-.20*
Effect on Procedural Justice						
Limited time	-.25*	-	-.25*	-.12 ns	-	-.12 ns
Unfamiliarity	-.31**	-	-.31**	-.27*	-	-.27*
Limited communication	-.26*	-	-.26*	-.23*	-	-.23*
Limited involvement	-.20*	-	-.20*	-.24*	-	-.24*
Positive Holiday Mood	-.17 ns	-	-.17 ns	-.15 ns	-	-.15 ns
Effect on Distributive Justice						
Limited time	-.28*	-	-.28*	-.25*	-	-.25*
Unfamiliarity	-.27*	-	-.27*	-.22*	-	-.22*
Limited communication	-.34**	-	-.34**	-.21*	-	-.21*
Limited involvement	-.20*	-	-.20*	-.05 ns	-	-.05 ns
Positive Holiday Mood	-.21*	-	-.21*	-.11 ns	-	-.11 ns
Effect on Loyalty						
Limited time	-	-.06*	-.06*	-	-.04*	-.04*
Unfamiliarity	-	-.04*	-.04*	-	-.03*	-.03*
Limited communication	-	-.04*	-.04*	-	-.02 ns	-.02 ns
Limited involvement	-	-.01 ns	-.01 ns	-	-	-
Positive Holiday Mood	-	-.02 ns	-.02 ns	-	-.01 ns	-.01 ns
Interactional Justice	.58**	-	.58**	.57**	-	.58**
Procedural Justice	.46**	-	.46**	.40**	-	.46**
Distributive Justice	.62**	-	.62**	.41**	-	.62**

Notes: *p < .05 and **p <.01, ns = not significant

An effects analysis conducted was to gain better insight into the decomposition of structural effects. Tables 5.17 and 5.18 report the direct, indirect, and total effects between constructs for high and low magnitude of failures within the Chinese and American study samples. The tables show overall, that in addition to the previously reported direct effects, few significant indirect effects existed. To be more specific, indirect effects were applicable only to relations between the TCC dimensions and loyalty intention.

As revealed in Table 5.17, limited time and unfamiliarity had significant (p<.05) indirect effects on loyalty in both high and low magnitude failure of the Chinese data set (ranged from -.06 to -.03). Moreover, limited communication had significant (p<.05) indirect effects on loyalty within the high magnitude failure data set (-.04). With regard to the American data set, once more, limited time and unfamiliarity had a significant (p<.05) indirect effect on loyalty in both high and low magnitude failure data sets, ranging from -.04 to -.03.

Table 5.18 Decomposition of Structural Effects (American Sub-sample)

	High Magnitude			**Low Magnitude**		
	Direct	Indirect	Total	Direct	Indirect	Total
Effect on Interactional Justice						
Limited time	-.38**	-	-.38**	-.20*	-	-.20*
Unfamiliarity	-.16 ns	-	-.16 ns	-.13 ns	-	-.13 ns
Limited communication	-.51**	-	-.51**	-.32**	-	-.32**
Limited involvement	-.51**	-	-.51**	-.25*	-	-.25*
Positive Holiday Mood	-.29**	-	-.29**	-.25*	-	-.25*
Effect on Procedural Justice						
Limited time	-.28*	-	-.28*	-.21*	-	-.21*
Unfamiliarity	-.29*	-	-.29*	-.21*	-	-.21*
Limited communication	-.17 ns	-	-.17 ns	-.20*	-	-.20*
Limited involvement	-.24*	-	-.24*	-.09 ns	-	-.09 ns
Positive Holiday Mood	-.25*	-	-.25*	-.22*	-	-.22*
Effect on Distributive Justice						
Limited time	-.24*	-	-.24*	-.16 ns	-	-.16 ns
Unfamiliarity	-.22*	-	-.22*	-.18 ns	-	-.18 ns
Limited communication	-.38**	-	-.38**	-.13 ns	-	-.13 ns
Limited involvement	-.27*	-	-.27*	-.26*	-	-.26*
Positive Holiday Mood	-.23*	-	-.23*	-.14 ns	-	-.14 ns
Effect on Loyalty						
Limited time	-	-.07*	-.07*	-	-.04*	-.04*
Unfamiliarity	-	-.02 ns	-.02 ns	-	-.02 ns	-.02 ns
Limited communication	-	-.05*	-.05*	-	-.03*	-.03*
Limited involvement	-	-.02 ns	-.02 ns	-	-.02 ns	-.02 ns
Positive Holiday Mood	-	-.03 ns	-.03 ns	-	-	-
Interactional Justice	.60**	-	.58**	.50**	-	.50**
Procedural Justice	.57**	-	.46**	.43**	-	.43**
Distributive Justice	.71**	-	.62**	.46**	-	.46**

Notes: *p < .05 and **p <.01, ns = not significant

To compare the unconstraint path coefficients across groups, recommendations suggested checking of structural paths for any invariance between the two samples (Byrne, 1998; Chelminski, 2003). In order to do so, the χ^2 difference tests between the unconstrained default model and a series of constrained models, in which each path was constrained as equal between the two samples, were performed (Bollen, 1989; Brislin, 1976; Craig, & Douglas, 2005). A non-significant χ^2 is indicative of a lack of significant deterioration in the fit of the constrained model pointing to invariance of the constrained paths between the two groups (Kaplan, 2000; Kline, 1998). The multi-group analyses of a series of constrained models using the χ^2 difference test indicated that all the paths were statistically invariant across Chinese and American data (Kelloway, 1998). This finding suggested no problem in making comparisons between the non-standardized coefficient scores obtained from the Chinese and American samples (Chelminski, 2003; Singh, 1995) and reported in Table 5.16.

LISREL provided modification indices suggesting potential improvements to the fit of the model and strongly suggested these modifications only after obtaining sound theoretical justification should they be considered (Hair et al., 2007; Schermelleh-Engel, & Moosbrugger, 2003). However, there was no sound evidence found to suggest any changes on the basic structure of the present model. An examination of the proposed modifications revealed different modification suggestions for each four samples (Chinese and American, high and low magnitude failures).

As no theoretical basis existed for changing the model structure and proposed modifications were not coherent across samples, the original structure of the model was not modified (Cheung, & Rensvold, 2002; Hayduk, 1996). However, as suggested by Nunnally (1978), in order to assess the robustness of the hypothesized model, an alternative estimated model suggested for each sample, in which non-significant paths had no estimation. This did not strongly influence the significance and values of the path coefficients (Babbie, 2004) presented in Figures 5.6 to 5.9. Moreover, an additional means for assessing the robustness of the hypothesized model is to compare the existing model to a rival model. The following section presents the results of such a comparison.

5.5.5 Evaluation of a Rival Model

Several scholars agreed that researchers should compare rival models and not just test the performance of a proposed model (Bollen, 1989; Jöreskog, & Sörbom, 1996; Kaplan, 2000; Schumacker, & Lomax, 2004). The model hypothesized in Chapter 3 is comparatively parsimonious, as it permits no direct paths from any TCC dimensions (unfamiliarity, limited time, limited involvement, limited communication and positive holiday mood) to the loyalty intention. In order to assess the robustness of the hypothesized model a less parsimonious rival model that posits direct relationships from the TCC dimensions to loyalty intention should be formulated (Jöreskog, 1999). In alignment with the suggestions of relevant literature, this model was conceptually a rival to the study model (Kaplan, 2000; Schumacker, & Lomax, 2004). Although being of no support for these additional paths, this rival model, not suggested in available literature, was necessary for testing purposes (Diamantopoulos, & Siguaw, 2005; Jöreskog, 1993; Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994).

In line with Morgan and Hunt's (1994) suggestions, comparison of the hypothesized model to the rival model was based on the following criteria: (1) overall fit of both models as measured by CFI, (2) parsimony of both models, and (3) percentage of both models' hypothesized parameters that are statistically significant. With respect to the overall fit of both models, the average CFI for the rival model was slightly lower than the average CFI for the hypothesized model across samples (.93 and .92 in high and low magnitudes versus .91 and .90 in high and low magnitudes respectively). The five additional paths decreased the CFI level by .02 in both samples in the rival model and reduced the model's parsimony (Kelloway, 1998). Moreover, only 74.2 % of the paths (57 out 77) in the rival model were significant as opposed to 80.6 % (58 out of 72 paths) in the hypothesized model. Finally, given that all significant effects in the rival model were equally significant to the hypothesized model, this provided additional support for the robustness of the hypothesized model (Bollen, 1989; Morgan, & Hunt, 1994).

5.5.6 Analyses of Moderating Effects

In general, a moderator affects the direction and/or strength of the relations between an independent/predictor variable and a dependent/criterion variable (Lee, & Back, 2009). This research provides an analysis of the possible effects of cultural background and failure magnitude on the strength of relationships between TCC, justice perceptions and loyalty intention. As suggested (Nunnally, 1978), the composite scores of TCC dimensions and justice perceptions were calculated. Table 5.19 presents the coefficient and t-values of the investigated relationships as: (1) model fits considerably well to the data of four sub-samples, and (2) all paths are statistically significant, $p < .01$ and .05 levels (Jöreskog, 1993; Diamantopoulos, & Siguaw, 2005).

Table 5.19 Combined Latent Variables - China versus America / High versus Low

Paths	China				America			
	High		Low		High		Low	
	β	t	β	t	β	t	β	t
TCC => Justice	-.29	-13.8**	-.20	-4.3*	-.28	-11.4**	-.21	-.52*
Justice => Loyalty	.55	27.6**	.46	21.4**	.63	35.2**	.44	20.5**
	χ^2 / df = 2.30 GFI = .93 AGFI = .91 CFI = .92 NNFI = .92 RMSEA = .063 SRMR = .070		χ^2 / df = 2.66 GFI = .92 AGFI = .90 CFI = .91 NNFI = .90 RMSEA = .066 SRMR = .072		χ^2 / df = 2.51 GFI = .94 AGFI = .92 CFI = .93 NNFI = .93 RMSEA = .060 SRMR = .069		χ^2 / df = 2.62 GFI = .93 AGFI = .91 CFI = .92 NNFI = .91 RMSEA = .064 SRMR = .074	

Notes: *p < .05 and **p <.01

It is a commonly accepted practice to assess the existence of moderating effects by means of multi-group analysis (Anton et al., 2007; Karande et al., 2007; Lee, & Back, 2009; Mattila, 2004; Wu, & Wang, 2012). The total sample was divided into two sub-samples according to the cultural background (Chinese versus American) and magnitude of failure (high versus low). This ensured a high level of within-group homogeneity and a high level of between-group heterogeneity (Patterson et al., 2006). The sizes of various sub-samples are as described in Table 5.4. Figure 3.2 visually depicts the moderating effects of cultural background and magnitude of failure on the relationships from the TCC dimensions to justice perceptions and from justice perceptions to loyalty intention.

5.5.6.1 Moderating Effects of Magnitude of Failure

Table 5.20 displays the results of 12 separate structural model estimations (two cultures - Chinese and American - x two failures - high and low magnitude - x three models) in terms of degrees of freedom and χ^2 generated. In the equal models, all paths of the structural model as visualized in Figure 3.2, were set equal across the high and low magnitude of failure sub-samples. Within the ‘TCC-Justice free’ models, all paths were constrained to be equal across the high and low magnitude of failure sub-samples, apart from the TCC dimensions to justice perceptions. Similarly, in the 'Justice-Loyalty free' models, all paths were constrained to be equal across the high and low magnitude of failure sub-samples, apart from the path from justice perceptions to loyalty intention.

Table 5.20 Moderating Effects of Magnitude of Failure

	China				America			
	High		Low		High		Low	
Models	χ^2	df	χ^2	df	χ^2	df	χ^2	df
Equal model	740.59	322	856.52	322	808.22	322	843.64	322
TCC - Justice free	727.13	321	853.86	321	793.01	321	841.02	321
Justice - Loyalty free	723.14	321	849.01	321	788.35	321	835.31	321
Model differences								
Equal versus TCC - Justice free	13.46**	1	2.66^{ns}	1	15.21**	1	2.62^{ns}	1
Equal versus Justice - Loyalty free	17.44**	1	7.51*	1	19.87**	1	8.33*	1

Notes: *p < .05 and **p <.01, ns = not significant

In Table 5.20, the differences in χ^2 values between models served as a basis as to whether the magnitude of failure acted as a moderating variable (Byrne, 1998). A significant decrease in χ^2 from the equal model to one in which one relationship is set free, implies that the moderator variable has a significant influence on that relationship (Jöreskog, & Sörbom, 1996; Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2006). The results showed that the magnitude of failure significantly moderated the relationship from justice perceptions to loyalty intention in four samples (China high - low and America high - low). As for the relationship of the TCC dimensions to justice perceptions, magnitude of failure significantly moderated this relationship within the Chinese sample (both in high and low magnitudes), also the American high magnitude failure sample. However, the relevant figure was not significant within the American low magnitude sample.

Table 5.21 Change in Path Coefficients Based on Magnitude of Failure

	Within-group path coefficient		Change in coefficients
Path from TCC-Justice	Low Magnitude	High Magnitude	
China	-.20	-.29	+.09*
America	-.21	-.28	+.07
Path from Justice-Loyalty			
China	.46	.55	+.09*
America	.44	.63	+.19**

Notes: *p < .05 and **p <.01

Table 5.21 reports the differences in within-group path coefficients between the sub-samples. As hypothesized, significant differences between the path coefficients appear consistently lower in the low-magnitude sub-samples than in the high-magnitude sub-samples (Hair et al., 2007). This implies that the effects of TCC dimensions upon justice perceptions and justice perceptions on loyalty intention were stronger in high magnitude failure situations. In conclusion, the magnitude of failure acted as a moderator variable in all samples examined, apart from TCC - justice relationship in the American and Chinese low-magnitude samples, providing partial support for H_{11} and full support for H_{12}.

5.5.6.2 Moderating Effects of Cultural Background

Similar steps were followed by the testing of moderating effects of cultural background on the relationships between TCC, justice perception and loyalty intention. Table 5.22 displays the results of 12 separate structural model estimations (2 cultures x 2 failures x 3 models) in terms of degrees of freedom and χ^2 generated. In the equal models, all paths of the structural model, visualized in Figure 3.2, were set equal across the Chinese and American sub-samples. Within the ‘TCC-Justice free’ models, all paths were constrained to be equal across the Chinese and American sub-samples, apart from the path from the TCC dimensions to justice perceptions. Similarly, in the ‘Justice-Loyalty free’ models, all paths were constrained to be equal across the Chinese and American sub-samples, apart from that of justice perceptions to loyalty intention.

Table 5.22 Moderating Effects of Cultural Background

	China				America			
	High		Low		High		Low	
Models	χ^2	df	χ^2	df	χ^2	df	χ^2	df
Equal model	740.59	322	856.52	322	808.22	322	843.64	322
TCC - Justice free	723.36	321	847.35	321	785.39	321	834.62	321
Justice - Loyalty free	719.55	321	843.66	321	783.31	321	832.90	321
Model differences								
Equal versus TCC - Justice free	17.23**	1	9.17*	1	22.83**	1	9.02*	1
Equal versus Justice - Loyalty free	21.04**	1	12.86**	1	24.91**	1	10.74**	1

Notes: *p < .05 and **p <.01, ns = not significant

As Table 5.22 shows, differences in χ^2 values between models, served as a basis in deciding whether cultural background acted as a moderating variable. As in the case of magnitude of failure, a significant decrease in χ^2 value indicates that the cultural background has a significant influence on that relationship (Kaplan, 2000; Nunnally, 1978). Figures in Table 5.23, shows that cultural background significantly moderates all relationships between the TCC dimensions, justice perceptions and loyalty intention within four samples.

Table 5.23 Change in Path Coefficients Based on Cultural Background

	Within-group path coefficient		Change in coefficients
Path from TCC-Justice	China	America	
High Magnitude	-.26	-.37	+.11**
Low Magnitude	-.22	-.28	+.09*
Path from Justice-Loyalty			
High Magnitude	.48	.58	+.10**
Low Magnitude	.42	.63	+.21**

Notes: *p < .05 and **p <.01

Table 5.23 reports differences across within-group path coefficients between sub-samples. As hypothesized, the significant difference between path coefficients, were consistently different between Chinese and American sub-samples. This result implies that the effects of TCC dimensions on justice perceptions and justice perceptions on loyalty intention were significantly different between both countries. In other words, the cultural background acted as a moderator variable in all of the samples examined, providing full support for H_9 and H_{10}.

5.6 Summary

This chapter presented study results systematically. As a first step, respondent profiles, described through statistical analysis of demographic variables, are put forward. Prior to formal model testing, univariate and multivariate normality were examined as part of the data screening process. Model testing began with individual measurement models for the major research constructs, to find accountable individual measurement models for the constructs proposed in the theoretical framework. After testing the measurement models, the fit of the structural model was tested for different cultures and failure magnitude levels. The hypothetical relationships proposed in Chapter 3 were thereafter, tested through various SEM analyses. The following chapter discusses the above findings in view of existing theories in tourism and consumer behavior studies.

CHAPTER 6. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The previous chapter presented the results of data analyses. This chapter presents a discussion based on these findings, thereafter linking it to relevant literature based upon consumer complaining behavior and tourist behavior. Moreover, this chapter identifies major implications of these findings for theory and practice.

6.1 Measurement of Tourist Complaining Constraints

Tourism is considered to be a complex and multi-faceted industry that depends heavily on human involvement (McIntosh et al., 2006). This increases the likelihood of the tourist experiencing problems during their holiday experiences (Witt, & Moutinho, 1994). For these reasons, to eliminate service failure completely is impossible within the tourism industry (Schoefer, & Ennew, 2004). Of the numerous failures that plague the industry, only a very low percentages are heard by companies via consumer complaints (Hedrick et al., 2007; Plymire, 1991). A large percentage of dissatisfied tourists walk away and never come back (Cohen, 2004; Ekiz, 2003). If a tourist leaves the hotel before a problem is resolved, the hotel will; (i), miss the chance to remedy the problem (Bodey, & Grace, 2006), (ii), lose current and future business (Kotler et al., 2010), (iii) miss valuable feedback about its service quality (Gilly, & Gelb, 1982), (iv) become the object of negative word of mouth (Nyer, 2000), and (v) face possible lawsuits and risks harming the reputation of the hotel (Susskind, 2002).

In order to avoid these negative outcomes, it is crucial for companies within the tourism industry to learn the factors that prevent tourists from voicing their complaints (Ekiz, 2010). By getting to know these constraining factors, companies can encourage customers to voice their dissatisfaction, which in turn could help the organization increase overall service quality and to formulate appropriate recovery actions (Berry et al., 1994; Qu, & Im, 2002) and enhance their customers' satisfaction (Boshoff, & Allen, 2000; Pizam, & Ellis, 1999). Only then can tourism companies grasp the competitive edge they vie for (Andreassen, 2000; Kowalski, 1996; Zemke, & Anderson, 2007).

To explore possible constraining factors, CCB literature and tourist behavior was examined. Results revealed that not only have many scholars directly applied general consumer behavior theories without considering the unique features of the tourism industry (Pearce, 2005), but that they did not also consider tourist complaining behavior to be different from overall consumer complaining behavior (Ekiz, 2010; Pearce, & Moscardo, 1984; Schoefer, & Ennew, 2004). It is argued in this study that, the unique characteristics of tourism adds more constraints to those already discussed within CCB literature, including the cost of complaining (Best, & Andreasen, 1977; Chebat et al., 2005), the negative attitude towards complaining (Ekiz, & Au, 2009b; Richins, & Verhage, 1985), the significance of problems, (Fu, & Mount, 2007; Smith, & Bolton, 1998) and the unwelcoming attitude of the company toward complaints (Bodey, & Grace, 2007; Zemke, 1993). In order to find these additional constraints and develop a new measurement scale the following steps were taken (Churchill, 1979; Netemeyer et al., 2003).

Firstly, relevant literature on consumer complaining behavior and tourist behavior was reviewed. Results of the review revealed that (i) there is a lack of comprehensive information on tourist complaining behavior (Pearce, & Moscardo, 1984; Reisinger, & Turner, 2003; Schoefer, & Ennew, 2004) and that there is no published instrument specifically designed for measuring tourists' complaining (Ekiz, & Au, 2009a). However, these same results also indicated some promising constraint factors such as time limitation (Morel et al., 1997) or communication barriers (Pearce, 1982b). Secondly, rigorous scale development steps, described in previous sections, were followed to develop the TCC scale (Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 2003; Netemeyer et al., 2003). Thirdly, by purifying the newly developed multi-item measurement scale further, its dimensionality, reliability, factor structure and validity were evaluated by using a sample of 1,822 respondents (Hair et al., 2007; Churchill, 1979). The psychometric properties of the TCC scale were tested by the use of SEM analysis in both measurement and structure levels (Jöreskog, & Sörbom, 1996; Kaplan, 2000).

Overall, results established support for statistical reliability and validity of the newly developed 15-item TCC scale with its five factors - namely limited time, limited involvement, limited communication, unfamiliarity and positive holiday mood. The following sections highlight the findings across particular factors and discuss them within the framework of CCB and tourist behavior literature.

6.1.1 Limited Time as a Constraint

Within CCB literature, having limited time is underlined to be one of the important factors that affect complaining behavior (TARP, 1999), particularly in service industries (Swanson, & Kelly, 2001). Results of the descriptive analyses provided strong support for 'limited time' as being a constraint for tourist complaining behavior. More specifically, as can be seen from Table 5.10 which presents combined mean scores of TCC dimensions, respondents agree that having limited time affects their complaining behavior, (overall $\bar{x}_{Pooled} = 4.28$). Although some researchers investigated the relationship between limited time and complaining behavior within CCB literature (Grönhaug, & Zaltman, 1981; Swanson, & Kelly, 2001), it has not, been researched within tourist behavior literature (Ekiz, & Au, 2009a). For this reason, findings from this research purport to contribute to tourism literature by presenting empirical evidence on the relationship between having limited time and tourist complaining behavior.

Moreover, reviewing the breakdown of items representing the limited time dimension as presented in Table 5.6, was deemed necessary to further understand this relationship. The overall results indicated that: (i) respondents choose not to complain if they feel that resolving the problem will take a long time ($\bar{x}_{Pooled} = 5.23$), (ii) instead of explaining their case to the service provider, they usually prefer not to complain in a time-scarce situation ($\bar{x}_{Pooled} = 5.14$), and (iii) finding the right contact person to voice their dissatisfaction takes a lot of time, therefore they usually choose not to complain during their holiday ($\bar{x}_{Pooled} = 4.42$, see Table 5.6). These results mainly showed that respondents perceived that having limited time was related to their complaining behavior.

6.1.2 Unfamiliarity as a Constraint

Having limited knowledge/experience about, or not being familiar with a product, affects not only the purchase decision but also performance evaluation of that product (Kotler, & Keller, 2008; Lovelock, 2000). This is also valid for complaining behavior (Day, & Landon, 1976), in that having limited knowledge of where and how to complain is considered a potential barrier (Colquitt, 2004). Initial results of the analyses showed that a lack of familiarity was perceived as a constraint for tourist complaining behavior. In particular, as can be seen from Table 5.10, respondents agreed that being unfamiliar with a destination affects their complaining behavior, (overall $\bar{x}_{Pooled} = 4.81$ on a 7-point Likert scale). This finding matches results of other researchers throughout CCB literature (Day, & Landon, 1976; Söderlund, 2002), stressing the importance of knowledge and previous experience on consumption behavior (Huang, & Hsu, 2010; Xu, & Chan, 2010). However, the link between unfamiliarity and tourist complaining behavior received comparatively less attention (Ekiz, 2010; O'Neill, & Mattila, 2004). In this sense, findings revealed through this thesis aims to fill this gap.

Respondents stated that (i) when faced with a problem during their holiday, they are more likely to complain if they know how it is going to be handled ($\bar{x}_{Pooled} = 5.18$), (ii) having knowledge of the destination makes them more confident in conveying their unsatisfactory experiences ($\bar{x}_{Pooled} = 5.04$), and (iii) as tourists, they feel safer expressing their complaints in a familiar destination ($\bar{x}_{Pooled} = 4.96$; see Table 5.6). Results indicated that being unfamiliar with a destination is a significant factor of tourist complaining behavior.

6.1.3 Limited Communication as a Constraint

Communication is an inseparable part of modern life and it helps in all kinds of interaction, including interaction between sellers and buyers during pre-purchases and post-purchases (Schiffman, & Kanuk, 2004). Being able to communicate plays an essential role when conveying a dissatisfying experience (Cohen, 1979). The significance of this role increases in tourism settings where most participants experience some kind of communication barrier, such as not being able to speak the local language of the destination they visit (Leslie, & Russell, 2006; Pearce, 1982a, 1982b). Similarly, results of the descriptive analyses indicated that the lack of and/or limited communication was perceived as a constraint for tourist complaining behavior. As can be seen from Table 5.10, respondents agreed that not being able to communicate is the next significant constraint on their complaining behavior (overall $\bar{x}_{Pooled} = 5.27$). Although several scholars stressed the importance of communication in marketing activities (Kotler, & Keller, 2008) and in complaint handling (Sundaram et al., 1998), comparatively less effort was spent investigating the relationship between limited communication and complaining behavior within the tourism industry (Ekiz, 2010).

A careful review of items representing the limited communication dimension, as presented in Table 5.6, indicated that: (i) respondents feel more confident in expressing their concerns if staff can speak their language ($\bar{x}_{Pooled} = 5.43$), (ii) they expect the service provider to demonstrate excellent communication skills when handling their complaints ($\bar{x}_{Pooled} = 5.33$), and (iii) respondents find it frustrating when the staff cannot understand them while they are complaining ($\bar{x}_{Pooled} = 5.20$, see Table 5.6). These results showed that respondents perceived limited communication as relating to their complaining behavior. Aligned with these results, Pearce (1982b) and Sayre (2003) concluded that limited communication has a considerable effect on tourists' overall experience. In this sense, given that complaining is part of the overall tourism experience, results from the present research provides further support to their conclusions by stressing the significance of limited communication within tourist complaining behavior.

6.1.4 Limited Involvement as a Constraint

Involvement received considerable attention in consumer behavior literature, where the extent of consumer involvement is found to be associated with decision-making and product evaluation processes (Josiam et al., 2005; Mittal, & Lee, 1989; Park, 1996). Havitz and Dimanche (1999) noted that the level of involvement is highly related to purchase, participation and evaluation of leisure services. In tourism literature, there are comparatively fewer studies investigating the possible effects of involvement on purchase behavior (Cai et al., 2004) and even fewer on complaining behavior (Ekiz, & Au, 2009a). To fill this gap, this research considered limited involvement as a constraint on complaining behavior. Results of the descriptive analyses showed that limited involvement is perceived as a constraint on tourist complaining behavior. In particular, as can be seen from Table 5.10, respondents agreed that their involvement level affected their complaining behavior, (overall $\bar{x}_{Pooled}$ = 4.84). This result is in accordance with results of other researchers as reviewed within CCB literature (Park, 1996; Havitz, & Dimanche, 1999), stating that the level of involvement affects post-purchase behaviors of consumers. Nonetheless, to date, the level of involvement has not been associated with tourists' complaining behavior (Altinay, 1994; Ekiz, 2010).

Results in Table 5.6 indicated that (i) the more money respondents spend - taken as an indication of high involvement as suggested by Berger (2007) - on their vacation, the more likely they are to complain when they are faced with a problem ($\bar{x}_{Pooled}$ = 5.17), (ii) they are less likely to complain if anything goes wrong on a vacation where they have spent less effort planning ($\bar{x}_{Pooled}$ = 4.83), and (iii) respondents tend to complain more if they are highly involved in their vacation ($\bar{x}_{Pooled}$ = 4.51). Overall, these results showed that respondents perceived limited involvement as being related to their complaining behavior.

6.1.5 Positive Holiday Mood as a Constraint

The relationship between one's emotional state and consumption behavior is well established in psychology and marketing literature (Srull, 1990). Indeed, consumers who are in a good mood judge the shopping experience more favorably (Josiam et al., 2005), avoid actions that result in opposition (Forgas, 1995) and disseminate negative word of mouth less (Bodey, & Grace, 2006). Results of the descriptive analyses extended this list by adding 'tendency to complain less'. As seen in Table 5.10, respondents agreed that being in a holiday mood (mostly positive and forgiving) was a significant constraint on their complaining behavior, (overall $\bar{x}_{Pooled} = 4.88$). Although some CCB literature scholars noted that whilst consumers may be more tolerant when evaluating a service performance (Voorhees et al., 2006), only a handful of researchers theorized the negative relationship between being in a positive/forgiving mood and complaining behavior (Christiansen, & Snepenger, 2002; Sirakaya et al., 2004). Additionally, there was no research conducted in a tourism industry setting that investigated this relationship (Ekiz, & Au, 2009a).

A review of the items representing the positive holiday mood dimension indicated that (i) respondents consider themselves very forgiving throughout their holidays ($\bar{x}_{Pooled} = 4.92$), (ii) during holidays, they usually forgive service providers when they fail ($\bar{x}_{Pooled} = 4.87$), and (iii) most of the time, they choose not to complain when on holiday ($\bar{x}_{Pooled} = 4.84$). These results showed that respondents reported themselves to be more forgiving and tolerant toward service failure when they are on holiday. Thus, being in a positive holiday mood was perceived as a constraint on tourist complaining behavior.

To summarize, the above-mentioned five sub-dimensions of TCC - limited time, unfamiliarity, limited communication, limited involvement and positive holiday mood - were perceived as constraints on tourists' complaining behavior. The following sections provide results from further investigations as to how the dimensions of this newly developed TCC scale interact with the rest of the study dimensions, namely procedural, interactional and distributive justice perceptions.

6.2 Measurement of the Complete Model with Pooled Data

Results of an extensive literature review on consumer complaining behavior, tourist behavior, customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction and justice perceptions presents evidence to support possible relationships between tourist complaining constraints and justice perceptions, (Cohen-Hattab, & Kerber, 2004; Havitz, & Dimanche, 1999; Pearce, 2005, 1982b; Sayre, 2003; Yagi, & Pearce, 2007) also between justice perceptions and loyalty intention (Davidow, 2000a; Gilly, & Gelb, 1982; Gursoy et al., 2007; Mattila, 2001b; Maxham III, & Netemeyer, 2002). The current research aim was to prove the existence and extent of these relationships.

Overall, results of the hypothesized relationships between the TCC dimensions and justice perceptions (hypotheses 1 to 5) and with justice perceptions and loyalty intention (hypotheses 6 to 8) presented in Table 5.14. Figure 5.3 illustrates these hypotheses and their corresponding standardized and non-standardized path coefficients. The evaluation of this table and figure provided evidence that all TCC dimensions had significant negative relationships with justice perceptions, apart from the relationship between the 'positive holiday mood' dimension of TCC and the 'distributive justice' perception. Thus, all hypotheses, apart from H_{5c}, were accepted. A detailed discussion and the implications of these results are presented below.

6.2.1 Limited Time Affecting Justice Perceptions

Review of literature indicated the possible link between time limitation and justice perceptions (Morel et al., 1997; TARP, 1999). To be more specific, it was suggested that consumers perceived time as a significant constraint on their complaining behavior, and tended to be more demanding in assessing the recovery efforts made by the company (Pearce, 2005). In particular, it was noted that customers became sensitive when evaluating a recovery effort within a time-limited situation (Cropanzano et al., 2002; Yoda, & Kamakura, 2007). This research tested the link by analyzing data collected from Chinese and American graduate students.

When the combined data (n = 1,822) was analyzed, the results provided significant empirical evidence for the relationship between limited time and interactional justice ($\gamma = -.36$, $t = -15.1$), limited time and procedural justice ($\gamma = -.23$, $t = -6.3$) and limited time and distributive justice ($\gamma = -.20$, $t = -4.4$). Thus, hypotheses H_{1a}, H_{1b} and H_{1c} were supported, with the link between limited time and justice perceptions was being proven statistically significant. This result indicated that respondents demand fair compensation, particularly when feeling they have limited time. Already in a restrained condition - having limited time - makes them more demanding, in other words makes them expect a fair recovery

(Ekiz, 2010). This result is coherent with researchers' findings within justice literature. For instance, customers who feel forced, under pressure and/or treated wrongly, demand an absolute fair recovery (Goodwin, & Ross, 1989; Tyler, 1994). In this context, 'absolute fair' recovery is composed of smooth interaction (interactional justice), well-established procedures (procedural justice) and full redress (distributive justice) (Blodgett, & Anderson, 2000).

Between these three, the relationship between limited time and interactional justice was the strongest, at $p < .01$ level (Hayduk, 1996). This result indicated that the more respondents regarded time as a constraint, the more they would demand a smooth and personalized recovery action from the hotel. In other words, they expected the hotel representative to take care of them, be very courteous and show sincere concern. This result indicated that hotel guests who had problems but not much time to solve them, did not want to be treated any differently or any less importantly than guests staying longer, or those having ample time to wait while the hotel delivered the recovery action.

This result is consistent with those of McColl-Kennedy and Sparks (2003) and Bies and Moag's (1986), who underlined the importance of interpersonal sensitivity, treating people with dignity, regardless of the volume of business they provide. Interactional justice is followed by procedural and distributive justice, which were both found to be statistically significant at $p < .05$ level (Hair et al., 2007). These results indicated that respondents expected hotels to recover the failure, not only via smooth interaction but also by following established procedures and guidelines (Houston, & Bettencourt, 1999; Seiders, &

Berry, 1998; Smith, & Karwan, 2010) and by providing full redress (Blodgett, & Tax, 1993; Kau, & Loh, 2006), particularly when time was an issue for them.

6.2.2 Unfamiliarity Affecting Justice Perceptions

A consumer not familiar with policies and procedures concerning complaint handling is less likely to evaluate service performance properly (Kotler et al., 2010). Most, if not all tourists are unfamiliar with complaining procedures (Stauss, & Seidel, 2004), where/how to complain (Yuksel, & Yuksel, 2007) and when to expect redress and in what form (Voorhees et al., 2006). Not having answers to these questions affects tourists' complaining behavior by creating a barrier, either to the launch of a complaint or the way they channel their dissatisfaction (Ekiz, 2010). In this sense, a literature review indicated a potential link between unfamiliarity and justice perceptions (Morel et al., 1997; O'Neill, & Mattila, 2004). In particular, customers who perceived unfamiliarity as a significant constraint on their complaining behavior, tended to be more sensitive and demanding on recovery efforts offered by the company (Pearce, 1982a), mainly while they evaluated these efforts in terms of fairness (Choi, & Mattila, 2006; Goodwin, & Ross, 1989).

Results of the data analysis provided significant empirical evidence for the relationship between unfamiliarity and procedural justice ($\gamma = -.29$, $t = -12.2$), interactional justice ($\gamma = -.22$, $t = -5.9$) and distributive justice ($\gamma = -.21$, $t = -4.6$). Thus, hypotheses H_{2a}, H_{2b} and H_{2c} were supported. These results showed that the link between unfamiliarity and justice perceptions was statistically significant. They also indicated that respondents demanded fair compensation, particularly when perceived as being unfamiliar to the destination and/or company as a constraint. Not knowing the procedures or not being familiar with the practices carried out by the hotel causes respondents to demand a fair recovery (Ekiz, 2010). This result finds support within relevant CCB literature (Hocutt et al., 1997; Maxham III, & Netemeyer, 2002; Prentice, 2004).

The link between unfamiliarity and procedural justice was found to be the strongest at $p < .01$ level (Nunnally, 1978). This result indicated that the more respondents regarded unfamiliarity as a constraint the more they demanded a 'by the book' recovery action from the hotel. In other words, they first expected the hotel to have pre-established guidelines that regulated recovery efforts and secondly, expected the hotel representative to follow those guidelines (Bearden, & Oliver, 1985; Kelley et al., 1993). This result indicated that hotel guests relied on hotel guidelines and tried to compensate their lack of knowledge and/or experience by demanding that the hotel follow standard and appropriate procedures that are set. This result is similar to those of Teo and Lim (2001) and Mattila and Cranage (2005) who emphasized the benefits of having and following predetermined company rules and regulations. Procedural justice is followed by interactional and distributive justice perceptions, which were both statistically significant at $p < .05$ level (Kaplan, 2000). These results indicated that respondents expected the hotel to recover the failure by not only following guidelines but also doing it with a pleasant attitude (Karatepe, & Ekiz, 2004; Mattila & Patterson, 2004b) and by covering what had been lost and/or damaged completely (Goodwin, & Ross, 1990; Kerr, 2004), particularly when unfamiliar with the destination.

6.2.3 Limited Communication Affecting Justice Perceptions

Communication plays an irreplaceable role in conveying a dissatisfying experience (Cohen, 1979), particularly in the case of the tourism industry (Pearce, 1982a). If the service provider and customer were unable to communicate, this situation jeopardizes not only the business transaction but also the chance of getting valuable feedback (Leslie, & Russell, 2006). Moreover, Pearce (1982b) and Sayre (2003) further underlined the significance of having a healthy two-way communication, particularly if one tries to convey a dissatisfying experience. In this sense, current research theorized a significant link between limited communication and justice dimensions.

Results of the data analyses provided empirical evidence for the relationships between limited communication and interactional justice ($\gamma = -.45$, $t = -23.5$), distributive justice ($\gamma = -.27$, $t = -11.7$) and procedural justice ($\gamma = -.20$, $t = -4.2$). Thus, hypotheses H_{3a}, H_{3b} and H_{3c} were supported. These results showed that the link between limited communication and justice perceptions was statistically significant, which indicated that respondents demanded fair compensation primarily when they were faced with a communication problem while trying to voice their complaints.

In other words, when a dissatisfied customer is unable to communicate with the company representative, s/he may think that the company is taking advantage of his/her current situation, thus s/he becomes more demanding (Kim, & Gudykunst, 1988). In this case, the customer becomes less tolerant and increases their expectation regarding fair recovery (Ekiz, 2010). This result is comparable to similar research findings within communication and justice literature. For instance, customers who feel communication is biased or distorted, will assume the worse-case scenario and take action accordingly (Cohen, 1992;

Innis, 1949). In this context, assuming the worse-case scenario, a mean thinking company is not handling the complaint fairly (Bonvillain, 2003).

The link between limited communication and interactional justice was the strongest, at $p < .01$ level. This result indicated that, the more respondents regarded limited communication as a constraint, the more they demanded an interactive, personal recovery action from the company. In other words, they expected the hotel representative to go the extra mile, spend considerable effort to find a way of communication and be very courteous (Ekiz, 2009). This result indicated that hotel guests, who had difficulties in communicating their problems, expected the hotel to tear down the communication barriers. This result overlaps with those of Innis (1949) and Kim and Gudykunst (1988) who warned about the dangerous pitfalls of limited communication. Distributive justice ($p < .01$ level) and procedural justice ($p < .05$ level) followed interactional justice.

This result suggested that customers expected the hotel to fix the problem not only by trying to communicate but also by following established procedures and guidelines, which in the end makes communication easier (Greenberg, 1990; Sparks, & McColl-Kennedy, 2001) and by providing full payment (Adams, 1963; Yim et al., 2003), particularly when the communication is limited.

6.2.4 Limited Involvement Affecting Justice Perceptions

Within consumer behavior literature, the level of involvement found was associated with decision-making on consumption (Mittal, & Lee, 1989; Weiner, 2006), actual purchase (Park, 1996; Schiffman, & Kanuk, 2004) and evaluation processes after purchase (Josiam et al., 2005; Swarbrooke, & Horner, 1999). However, comparatively less attention is paid to the investigation on the possible effects of involvement on purchase behavior (Cai et al., 2004) and even fewer on complaining behavior (Ekiz, & Au, 2011). For this reason, the present research tested this link.

Results of the analyses showed significant empirical evidence to support the relationship between limited involvement and interactional justice ($\gamma = -.30$, $t = -13.8$, $p < .01$), procedural justice ($\gamma = -.24$, $t = -7.0$, $p < .05$) and distributive justice ($\gamma = -.19$, $t = -2.3$, $p < .05$). The results thus supported hypotheses H_{4a}, H_{4b} and H_{4c}. These results showed that the link between limited involvement and justice perceptions was statistically significant, which indicated that hotel guests demanded fair compensation, even if they were not highly involved in planning their holidays. In other words, having limited involvement does not make them less demanding in asking for fair compensation (Ekiz, 2010). This result is according to those of Park (1996), and Havitz and Dimanche (1999) where they noted that expecting fairness during any failure recovery were common. So far, the level of involvement has not been associated to tourists' complaining behavior (Ekiz, & Au, 2009a).

The link between limited involvement and interactional justice was found to be the strongest. This result indicated that the more respondents regarded limited involvement as a constraint, the more they demanded a personalized recovery action from the company. This is perhaps because limited involvement may come with low familiarity, thus they expected the hotel representative to care for them and show sincere concern. This result indicated that hotel guests who experienced problems but had not been involved in planning the holiday arrangements, did not want to be treated any differently or less importantly than those more highly involved at the holiday planning stage. This result was coherent with those of Anton et al. (2007) and Berger (2007) who noted that regardless of their involvement levels consumers desire the best product/service and, in this case of current research, fair recovery. Interactional justice is followed by procedural and distributive justice, both being statistically significant. This result indicated that respondents want hotels to fix their problems by following established procedures (Colquitt, 2004; Gursoy et al., 2007), giving full compensation (Blau, 1964; Kerr, 2004), and doing it in a friendly and respectful manner (Ekiz, & Arasli, 2007).

6.2.5 Positive Holiday Mood Affecting Justice Perceptions

This research considers 'holiday mood' to be a positive, constructive and forgiving state of mind. There is overwhelming support in both leisure and tourism literature to support this consideration, (Christiansen, & Snepenger, 2002; Cohen, 2004; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Pearce, 1981; Sirakaya et al., 2004; Yagi, & Pearce, 2007). This research further argues that most tourists traveling for leisure purposes were in a positive holiday mood and such that when they faced an unpleasant event such as service failure, tend not to complain and create further discomfort (Dolnicar et al., 2008). Results of the initial tests show that respondents reported themselves to be more forgiving and tolerant toward service failure when they were on holiday. Being in a positive holiday mood was thus perceived as a constraint on tourist complaining behavior.

Results of the data analyses provided empirical evidence for the relationships between positive holiday mood and interactional justice (γ = -.26, t = -10.4) and procedural justice

(γ = -.21, t = -4.5). However, the relationship between positive holiday mood and distributive justice was below the recommended cut-off value (γ = -.18, t = -1.5) and therefore statistically insignificant. This result supported the hypotheses H_{5a} and H_{5b} and rejected H_{5c}. These results indicated that hotel guests demanded just compensation primarily when they were in a positive holiday mood. If they were in a positive mood and anticipated everything to go smoothly, they also expected hotel representatives to be in a similar mood, whereby they could recover any service failure with a big smile on their faces (McIntosh et al., 2006).

The link between positive holiday mood and interactional justice was the strongest, at $p < .01$ level. This result indicated that the more hotel guests saw being in a positive holiday mood as a constraint the more they demanded interactive and personal recovery action from the company. In other words, they expected the hotel representative to be very courteous and spend considerable effort to find a fix to any problem that may have occurred (Ekiz, & Au, 2009a). This result indicated that hotel guests, particularly traveling for leisure and relaxation purposes, expected their hotels to be on alert to recover any problem instantly so that they did not even realize the existence of the problem. This result is coherent with those of Cohen (2004) and Mill (1990) who noted that leisure tourists expected to have a relaxing, carefree environment without any problems during their holidays. Interactional justice was followed by procedural justice ($p < .05$ level), which indicated that guests expected the hotel to fix the problem, not only by finding temporary solutions as failure occurred but that the hotel follow established procedures and guidelines (Sparks, & McColl-Kennedy, 2001).

6.2.6 Justice Perceptions Affecting Loyalty Intention

Customers expect service providers to treat them fairly at all times, particularly when these companies fail to deliver a satisfactory service (Berry et al., 1994). Given the strong link between justice perceptions and loyalty intention (Mattila, 2001b; Zemke, & Anderson, 2007), companies need to be more sensitive about fairness of their recovery efforts if they want to avoid losing their customers (Davidow, 2000a; McColl-Kennedy, & Sparks, 2003). Existing literature suggests that justice perceptions are likely to have a significant influence on the customers' satisfaction with complaint handling procedures and increase their loyalty to the company through increasing their repurchase intentions and decreasing their negative WOM communication (Gilly, & Gelb, 1982; Gursoy et al., 2007; Oliver, & Swan, 1989). In light of these findings, present research hypothesized that the more respondents perceived a fair recovery, the more loyal they would be to that company.

Results of the analyses showed significant empirical evidence to support the overall relationship between justice perceptions and loyalty intention. More specifically, results indicated a positive significant relationship between loyalty and interactional justice ($\beta = .57$, $t = 30.9$, $p < .01$), procedural justice ($\beta = .50$, $t = 27.1$, $p < .01$) and distributive justice ($\beta = .61$, $t = 33.2$, $p < .01$). Hypotheses H_6, H_7 and H_8 were thus supported. These results showed that relationships between three types of justice perceptions and loyalty intention were not only statistically significant but also strong. This result indicated that when faced with a service failure, respondents demanded a fair recovery to keep them loyal to the company. This result aligns itself with the findings of several scholars within the reviewed justice literature (Casado-Diaz et al., 2007; Ekiz et al., 2008; Gursoy et al., 2007; Schoefer, & Ennew, 2005; Zeithaml et al., 1996).

According to these results, the link between distributive justice and loyalty intention appears to be the strongest. It indicated that fair compensation of what had been lost during the failure was the most important expectation of hotel guests. This result is consistent with those of Teo and Lim (2001) and Tax et al. (1998) who reported distributive justice-related issues such as compensation, as the most important justice dimension affecting post-recovery intentions. Distributive justice is followed by interactional and procedural justice respectively, which shows that guests want hotels to recover their service failures not only by providing full compensation (Chebat, & Slusarczyk, 2005), but also by following established procedures in a respectful, sincere and empathetic manner (Blodgett, & Anderson, 2000; de Ruyter, & Wetzels, 2000; Severt, 2002).

6.3 Measurement of the Complete Model with Sub-Samples

The previous section presented test results of the study hypotheses by using the estimated structural paths of the complete model with the pooled data. Although these results provided valuable contributions, the present research takes these results one step further. This was achieved by testing the possible effects of magnitude of failure and cultural backgrounds of the respondents by using six sub-samples; high magnitude, low magnitude, Chinese high magnitude, Chinese low magnitude, American high magnitude and American low magnitude.

The literature review on consumer complaining behavior and tourist behavior presented evidence in support of the existence of such effects (Hess et al., 2003; Mattila, 2001a; Reisinger, & Turner, 1997). More explicitly, the significance of the failure - ranging from critically severe to tolerable (Kasper, 1988; Maute, & Forrester, 1993) - and the mindset of the parties involved in the failure incident - being of high uncertainty avoidant collectivist culture to short-term oriented culture valuing low power distance - (Hofstede, 2001; Prasongsukarn, & Patterson, 2001; Reimann et al., 2008) may affect consumers' complaining behavior. The following section firstly presents the effects of magnitude of failure by splitting the data into two subgroups, these being high and low magnitude failure groups. The next section will present the combined effects of magnitude of failure and cultural background by dividing the data into four subgroups, namely Chinese High, Chinese Low, American High and American Low. To test these possible effects, the present study used the model hypothesized and tested in the previous chapter. By doing so, this research investigated how 18 hypotheses were affected in each situation.

6.3.1 Testing the Effects of Magnitude of Failure

Not all service failures are equal in terms of how significant they are for customers. The magnitude of failure refers to the extent of loss that customers experience (Zemke, 1995). CCB literature revealed that the magnitude or severity of the failure mostly studied were high magnitude (e.g., considerable monetary loss) or low magnitude (e.g., a slight delay in service) (Hess et al., 2003). In this sense, the severity of failure was considered critical for customers while evaluating the effectiveness of service recovery efforts (Craighead et al., 2004; McQuilken, 2010; Oliver, & Swan, 1989; Xu, & Chan, 2010). The loss due to high magnitude service failure is greater than that of low magnitude failure, thus its effect on consumers' post-purchase behavior varies significantly (Fu, & Mount, 2007; Kasper, 1988; Smith, & Bolton, 1998). In other words, severity of service failure does make a difference in consumers' perceptions and intentions such as fairness perceptions (Chung, & Hoffman, 1998; Goodwin, & Ross, 1992) and post-recovery behaviors (Maute, & Forrester, 1993; Smith et al., 1999). Review of relevant literature led this research to investigate the possible effects of magnitude of failure on hypothesized relationships.

To do so, two data sets, namely high magnitude failure (n=868) and low magnitude failure (n=954) were analyzed. As shown in Table 5.4, the proportion of high magnitude to low magnitude failure scenarios was almost the same in Chinese (HM n=414, LM n=470) and American (HM n=454, LM n=484) samples. This suggests a minimized potential bias when comparing results from different groups (Hair et al., 2007; Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2006). The distinction between high and low magnitude failures were made at the scenario development stage by changing the time required to fix the problem from 20 minutes (low failure scenario) to four hours or more (high failure scenario). Waiting time is commonly used within CCB literature, to indicate the severity of the service problem (Eroglu, 1987; Johns, & Lee-Ross, 1998). More specifically, it is accepted that if the problem is solved within a short period of time complainants feel the problem to be less severe (Brennan, & Douglas, 2002; Estelami, 2000; Heffes, 1998; Yim et al., 2003; Zemke, & Bell, 2000).

As can be seen from Table 5.14, 17 out of the 18 hypotheses were accepted, with the exception of H_{5c} by using the pooled data. An overview of Table 5.15 indicated that 10 of these 17 accepted hypotheses were also supported with HM and LM subgroups. However, the remaining seven previously supported relationships had received partial support only when the magnitude of failure was taken into account. These findings indicated partial support to H_{11} and H_{12}, with magnitude of failure moderating the relationships between TCC dimensions and justice perceptions and justice perceptions and loyalty intention, respectively. A discussion of these discrepancies, as well as supporting consistencies, is provided in the following sections.

6.3.1.1 High Magnitude Failure

This section presents findings from a series of path analyses conducted by using the high magnitude failure data. Results of all hypotheses were virtually similar to those of pooled data, with the exception of the relationship between limited time and distributive justice perception. The following sections provide a detailed discussion on results concerning relationships between TCC dimensions, justice perceptions and loyalty intention.

Limited Time: The analysis of the non-standardized path coefficients of HM data revealed that results obtained were similar to those of the pooled data, apart from the relationship between limited time and distributive justice (see Figure 5.4). More specifically, as in the case of the pooled data, the relationship between limited time and interactional justice was the strongest (γ = -.36, t = -17.2), followed by limited time and procedural justice (γ = -.26, t = -4.3). However, the coefficient score for the relationship between limited time and distributive justice (γ = -.18, t = -1.8) was slightly below the recommended cut-off value. Consequently, this relationship was statistically insignificant within the HM data (Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994). These findings thus supported hypotheses H_{1a} and H_{1b} and rejected hypothesis H_{1c}. The results indicated that in a high magnitude failure situation, the more respondents regarded limited time as a constraint, the more they demanded a smooth and personalized recovery action from the hotel. This finding contradicts those of Wirtz and Mattila (2004) who noted distributive justice in getting financial compensation as the first expectation in severe failure incidents. However, according to Conlon and Murray (1996), Folger and Cropanzano (1998) and Collie et al. (2000) interactional justice was the most important dimension, even in cases of high magnitude failures. For this thesis, high magnitude service failure was represented by a scenario of having four hours or more waiting time. This much time deemed to be a considerable amount of discomfort and thus a high magnitude service failure (Craighead et al., 2004).

Unfamiliarity: Figure 5.4 showed that the unfamiliarity constraint had significant negative relationships with justice dimensions, and was consistent with those of the pooled data. Non-standardized path coefficient results indicated similarities to those of the pooled data (see Figure 5.3 for comparison). Results of the data analysis showed that the link between unfamiliarity and procedural justice (γ = -.29, t = -5.2), interactional justice (γ = -.20, t = -2.3) and distributive justice (γ = -.21, t = -4.6) was statistically significant. The findings supported hypotheses H_{2a}, H_{2b} and H_{2c} with HM data. These results showed that the more respondents perceived unfamiliarity as a constraint on their complaining, the higher their justice expectations would be. In other words, all respondents expected a completely fair 'by the book' recovery, particularly when they had limited knowledge in a high magnitude failure situation. This result was consistent with those of Colquitt (2001), Mattila and Cranage (2005) who reported that when the loss to customers was significant in a failure incident, they demanded an all-around fair solution. In other words, they demanded a smooth interaction with the hotel representative following related procedures and a fair redress provided by the company.

Limited Communication: The analysis of the path coefficients revealed that results obtained were slightly higher than, but overall similar to, those of the pooled data. As was the case in the pooled data, the relationship between limited communication and interactional justice was the strongest ($\gamma = -.52$, $t = -23.5$), followed by limited communication and distributive justice ($\gamma = -.35$, $t = -19.7$) limited communication and procedural justice ($\gamma = -.21$, $t = -3.6$). These findings thus supported hypotheses H_{3a}, H_{3b} and H_{3c} with HM data. These results indicated that respondents perceived limited communication to be a significant barrier on complaining behavior, particularly when the magnitude of failure was high. Results also showed that the more respondents perceived communication as a constraint, the more they would expect a fair recovery. These results were consistent with those of Bies and Moag (1986) who concluded that communication had a considerable effect on the tourists' overall experience. More recently, Leslie and Russell (2006) highlighted communication as an important criterion for fairness perceptions in general and for interactional justice in particular. Results also suggested that when the service failure was significant communication becomes even more important in building any level of justice perception.

Limited Involvement: Path coefficient analysis of the HM data demonstrated similar results to those of the pooled data, apart from a slight drop (from .24 to .22) in the link between limited involvement and procedural justice. The relationship between limited involvement and interactional justice was found to be the strongest ($\gamma = -.46$, $t = -24.3$), followed by distributive justice and procedural justice ($\gamma = -.22$, $t = -5.4$) with the same score. These results led to the confirmation of hypothesized relationships, H_{4a}, H_{4b} and H_{4c}. These results also indicated that, particularly in a severe failure incident, having limited involvement in planning of holidays does not necessarily make tourists less demanding in asking for fair compensation. In contrast, they demanded more personal recovery action from the hotel, as well as a properly handled fair settlement. These findings match those of Josiam et al. (2005) who also pointed out that involvement was a significant predictor of overall satisfaction.

Positive Holiday Mood: Results of the HM data analyses provided further evidence of relationships between positive holiday mood and interactional justice ($\gamma = -.30$, $t = -13.2$) and procedural justice ($\gamma = -.23$, $t = -3.9$). Even though there was a slight increase in the path coefficient (from $\gamma = -.18$, $t = -1.5$ to $\gamma = -.19$, $t = -1.9$) on the relationship between positive holiday mood and distributive justice, it was still below the recommended cut-off value of $\pm$ 2.00 to be statically significant (Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994). According to these results, hypotheses H_{5a} and H_{5b} received further support, whereas H_{5c} was still unsupported. This result indicated that the more hotel guests saw being in a positive holiday mood as a constraint, the more they demanded interactive, personal and ‘by the book’ recovery actions from the hotel, particularly within a severe failure situation. In other words, they expected the hotel representative to, not only follow the appropriate procedures while fixing their problems, but to also be extra courteous. These results showed that receiving fair compensation was important to tourists even if they were in a positive holiday mood. This finding is consistent with those of Chebat and Slusarczyk (2005) who concluded that, even though emotions are important determinants in service recovery situations, consumers have some basic recovery expectations from service providers that will not change regardless of their emotional situations. Although the relationship between positive holiday mood and distributive justice was found to be statistically insignificant, the values were close to the threshold figures (Nunnally, 1978), which indicated that respondents still demanded fair compensation even if they were in a positive holiday mood. This result was also consistent with the findings of Ro and Mattila (2008).

Loyalty Intention: Results of the analyses demonstrated similarities with those obtained from the pooled data. More specifically, the relationships between loyalty and interactional justice ($\beta = .58$, $t = 30.8$), procedural justice ($\beta = .51$, $t = 21.1$) and distributive justice ($\beta = .64$, $t = 31.9$) were significant. Consequently, hypotheses H_6, H_7 and H_8 received further support. These results showed that the relationships between three types of justice perceptions and loyalty intention were not only statistically more significant but also stronger within HM data. This result indicated that when faced with a severe service failure, in order to remain loyal to the hotel, respondents expected fair recovery in terms of outcome, procedure and interaction. This result was consistent with review findings within CCB literature (Casado-Diaz et al., 2007; Goodman, 2006; Jones, & Farquhar, 2007) as well as tourism literature (Cranage et al., 2005; Gursoy et al., 2007; Schoefer, & Ennew, 2005). Moreover, similarly to the pooled data, the link between distributive justice and loyalty intention was also the strongest in a high magnitude failure situation. This result, consistent with Tax et al. (1998) and Teo and Lim's (2001), indicated that fair compensation of what had been lost during the service failure was what hotel guests mostly anticipated.

6.3.1.2 Low Magnitude Failure

The following sections present the findings of path analyses conducted by using the low magnitude failure data. Results showed notable discrepancies from pooled and HM data results. The sections below provide a detailed discussion of results regarding relationships between TCC dimensions, justice perceptions and loyalty intention, by highlighting these discrepancies as well as consistencies.

Limited Time: Results of the analysis of the non-standardized path coefficients of LM data showed similarities and differences between those of the pooled data. More specifically, all relationships between limited time and justice perceptions were statistically significant, as was the case with the pooled data; but the values were lower than those of the pooled data. In particular, the relationships between limited time and interactional justice (γ = -.22, t = -9.2), limited time and procedural justice (γ = -.20, t = -2.4) and limited time and distributive justice (γ = -.22, t = -2.5) were significant. Accordingly, these figures supported hypotheses H_{1a}, H_{1b} and H_{1c} with LM data. These results indicated that even in a low magnitude failure situation, respondents regarded time limitation as an important factor affecting their complaining behavior. Results also indicated that the more respondents perceived time as a constraint, the more they demanded a courteous, timely and full redress from the hotel. This finding is consistent with those of Davidow (2000a) who advocated the importance of timely recovery in increasing justice perceptions of the recovery. Similarly, Liao (2007) stressed that the amount of time spent during recovery is negatively correlated to the positive evaluation of a particular failure.

Unfamiliarity: Results of path analysis posited that the unfamiliarity constraint had a significant negative relationship only with the procedural justice dimension (γ = -.24, t = -

6.7). As opposed to the situation of pooled data, the links between unfamiliarity and interactional justice (γ = -.17, t = -1.8) and distributive justice (γ = -.19, t = -1.8) perceptions were statistically insignificant. These results led to the acceptance of hypothesis H_{2b} and rejection of hypotheses H_{2a} and H_{2c} using LM data. Results indicated that the more respondents perceived unfamiliarity as a constraint on their complaining, the higher their justice expectations were on procedure-related issues. In other words, hotel guests, who were unfamiliar with the hotel's procedures concerning guest complaints, would rely on hotel guidelines and standard operating procedures. They try to compensate their lack of knowledge and/or experience by demanding the hotel abide by the appropriate procedures. This finding is consistent with those of Tata et al. (2003) and Blodgett et al. (1997) who underlined the significance of having and applying a set of guidelines and/or procedures to handle guest complaints. In line with these studies, Collie et al. (2002) recommended that managers inform customers of the procedures used to handle customers' complaints. Results showed that the relationships between unfamiliarity and interactional and distributive justice perceptions were consistent with the hypothesized directions, only slightly below the recommended threshold levels (Nunnally, 1978). Keeping this and the low magnitude nature of given failure scenario in mind, it would not be foolhardy to recommend that managers provide courteous and fair recovery to their guests' complaints (Day et al., 1981; Kelley et al., 1993; Maxham III, & Netemeyer, 2002).

Limited Communication: Analysis of path coefficient scores of the LM data showed that the limited communication constraint had a significant negative relationship with interactional justice (γ = -.33, t = -14.5) only. The remaining relationships, procedural justice (γ = -.19, t = -1.9) and distributive justice (γ = -.15, t = -1.8), were statistically insignificant at the .05 level (Hair et al., 2007). Results obtained from analyses of the LM data supported hypothesis H_{3a} and rejected hypotheses H_{3b} and H_{3c}. These results confirmed that the more respondents perceived limited communication as a constraint, the higher their interactional justice expectations were. This finding suggested that, even in low magnitude failure situations, should hotel guests be unable to communicate with hotel staff to express their problems, they would need a recovery whereby the hotel representative could converse and interact with them. Only then would they perceive the hotels' recovery effort as fair. This finding is consistent with those of Cohen (1992) and Kim and Gudykunst (1988) who stressed the importance of language competence in uncertain situations (of which complaining and recovery were good examples), particularly during intercultural encounters. Similarly, Leslie and Russell (2006) highlighted the significance of proper communication in the tourists' overall travel experience. Results showed that relationships between limited communication and procedural and distributive justice dimensions do not find statistical support with the low magnitude failure data. Given that their values were faintly below the recommended level, it would not be wise to overlook the possible constructive effect that a well-managed and fair recovery can have on a failure situation due to a communication problem.

Limited Involvement: Analyses of path coefficients obtained from the LM data produced a significant negative relationship between limited involvement and interactional justice perception (γ = -.21, t = -2.2), whereas relationships between limited involvement and procedural justice (γ = -.18, t = -1.6) and limited involvement and distributive justice (γ = -.16, t = -1.4) were statistically insignificant. The results supported hypothesis H_{4a} and rejected hypotheses H_{4b} and H_{4c}, contrary to the results from pooled data. These results indicated that even in the case of a low magnitude failure, the more respondents perceived a lack of involvement as a constraint on their complaining, the higher their interactional justice expectations were. In other words, having limited involvement in planning of holidays does not cause tourists to demand a less personal recovery action from the hotel. This finding corroborates those of Cai et al. (2004) who stressed the importance of involvement not only on tourist purchases but also on post-purchase evaluation of the service (including satisfaction and justice perceptions). Similarly, Havitz and Dimanche (1999) highlighted the significance of involvement on the perception of leisure services. Meanwhile, the same results also showed that relationships between limited involvement and procedural and distributive justice perceptions did not find statistical support within the LM scenario.

Positive Holiday Mood: Analyses of LM data provided further evidence for the relationships between positive holiday mood and interactional justice ($\gamma = -.23$, $t = -8.4$) and positive holiday mood and procedural justice ($\gamma = -.20$, $t = -2.2$). In the case of distributive justice, path coefficient scores obtained from the LM data were lower than those obtained from pooled data (from $\gamma = -.18$, $t = -1.5$ to $\gamma = -.13$, $t = -1.1$). According to these results, hypotheses H_{5a} and H_{5b} received further support whereas H_{5c} was still unsupported with low magnitude failure data. These results indicated that the more hotel guests saw being in a positive holiday mood a constraint the more they would demand interactive, personal and 'by the book' recovery actions from the hotel, even if they faced a comparatively smaller problem. Likewise, de Rojas and Camarero (2008) stressed that even minor problems could affect visitors' moods and overall satisfaction. For this reason, they expected the hotel's representative to not only be considerate of their needs but also follow the appropriate procedures while recovering the service failure. The relationship between positive holiday mood and distributive justice was statistically insignificant, consistent with the pooled and high magnitude failure data. This result may indicate that hotel guests, when in a positive holiday mood, primarily want hotel representatives to handle their complaints appropriately and follow the hotel procedures strictly while doing so. The actual outcomes of the recovery were less of a concern. Babin et al. (2005) reported similar findings in the case of tourists' gift shopping experiences. These results pointed out that, tourists may be more tolerant (especially low magnitude) toward failures when they were on holiday, yet they would still require fair treatment from the service provider.

Loyalty Intention: Although path coefficient figures, obtained from the LM data, were lower than those of the pooled data they were within a statistically acceptable level (Nunnally, & Bernstein, 1994). More specifically, the relationship between loyalty and interactional justice ($\beta = .52$, $t = 27.9$), procedural justice ($\beta = .41$, $t = 19.2$) and distributive justice ($\beta = .43$, $t = 20.3$) were found to be significant. As a result, hypotheses H_6, H_7 and H_8 received further support, even with low magnitude failure data. This result indicated that respondents expected a fair resolution of their problems in terms of outcome, procedure and interaction in order to remain loyal to the hotel. In other words, even if facing a minor problem, they expected the hotel be fair in their recovery attempts. This result is in line with the findings of a number of scholars within both CCB and tourism literature (Andreassen, 1999; Mattila, 2001a; Robbins, & Miller, 2004; Severt, 2002). Furthermore, results indicated that the link between interactional justice and loyalty intention to be the strongest. This result both confirmed and contradicted previous research findings. To be more specific, it contradicted those of Tax et al. (1998) and Teo and Lim

(2001), who reported distributive justice as the most influential determinant of loyalty intention. On the other hand, it confirmed the results of Folger and Cropanzano (1998) and Collie et al. (2000), in that interactional justice was a more significant predictor of loyalty than those of procedural or distributive justice. This result was not surprising considering the low magnitude nature of the failure. In other words, respondents reported that when facing a minor problem they preferred recovery that involved proper interaction to lengthy procedures, therefore just receiving their money back. Bies and Moag (1986) made a similar conclusion for less critical failure incidences.

6.3.1.3 High vs. Low Magnitude Failures

As reported there are several discrepancies and consistencies between pooled data, there are also discrepancies between high magnitude and low magnitude data. Overall, path analyses results indicated full support for most of the (10 out of 17) tested hypotheses. Moreover, path coefficient results of HM were significantly higher than those obtained from LM data. As Table 5.15 reveals, seven discrepancies existed between the two sets of data collected when using high and low magnitude failure scenarios. The researcher considered these discrepancies supportive to some extent, of results obtained from the pooled data (see Table 5.15 for a detailed illustration). More specifically, most of these discrepancies occurred in the LM data, other than the one between limited time and distributive justice within the HM data.

The importance of severity of failure was extensively researched and discussed in both CCB and tourism literature (Chung, & Hoffman, 1998; Craighead et al., 2004; Fu, & Mount, 2007; Goodwin, & Ross, 1992; Oliver, & Swan, 1989; Smith, & Bolton, 1998).

For instance, Oliver and Swan (1989), and more recently Fu and Mount (2007), noted that the severity of the failure directly affected customers' evaluation of the incident. The loss incurred from a severe service failure is greater than the loss from a minor failure therefore a more substantial recovery is required to restore equity (Goodwin, & Ross, 1992). Furthermore, Smith et al. (1999) demonstrated that the magnitude of a failed service moderates the service recovery process. Conlon and Murray (1996) reported that customers' perceptions of corporate responses to their complaints were negative within high magnitude failures. In addition, Shapiro (1991) found that recovery actions were perceived to be more effective under conditions of low severity. Findings of this research provided further support to the significance of investigating the magnitude of failure as severity of service failure, making a difference to consumers' perceptions and intentions.

6.3.2 Testing the Effects of Cultural Background

Intercultural relationships have become a fact of everyday life (Findlay, 1998). Given the pervasiveness of cross-cultural contacts, it is upsetting to know that this process is so frequently marked by conflict and/or misunderstanding (Furrer et al., 2000; Ogden et al., 2004; Yuksel et al., 2006). Numerous theoretical and empirical studies point out the differences in customers' cultural backgrounds as the most important cause for these conflicts (Crotts, 2004; Dolnicar et al., 2008; Mattila, & Patterson, 2004a, 2004b; Ngai et al., 2007; Warden et al., 2003). For instance, Kanousi (2005) and Mattila and Patterson (2004b) highlighted the importance of understanding cultural differences in service recovery instances. Similarly, Weber et al. (2011) pointed out that only recently had researchers started to focus on the possible impact of culture on service evaluations and how this impact should be considered when developing effective recovery strategies.

Leung and Stephan (1998) and Wong A. (2004) concluded that companies, particularly those doing business with other companies from different cultures, should have a better understanding of how customers build their justice perceptions. Keeping this in mind, this thesis aimed to explore as to what extent cultural background moderates relationships between TCC, justice perceptions and loyalty to the organization, in the context of tourism services.

To achieve this aim, empirical data was collected from both Chinese (n=884) and American (n=938) respondents. CCB literature research suggested the frequent use of these two cultures as target respondents (Doran, 2002; Huang, & Hsu, 2005; Josiam et al., 2005; Lee, & Sparks, 2007; Manrai, & Manrai, 1993; Mok, & DeFranco, 1999; Ryan, & Gu, 2007) as they represent two distinctively different culture clusters (Alden, Stayman, & Hoyer, 1994; Hofstede, 2001; Kim, & Lee, 2000; Pizam, & Sussmann, 1995; Poon, Hui, & Au, 2004).

After confirming the measurement invariance of the proposed model, being partially invariant (Singh, 1995), path analysis was tested by using the two data sets (Hair et al., 2003). Table 5.16 reveals that seven of the 17 previously supported hypotheses received full support in both sub-samples. The remaining ten hypotheses however, received only partial support when testing the Chinese and American samples separately. The relationship between positive holiday mood and distributive justice - H_{5c}, which was previously insignificant, showed an improvement. More specifically, H_{5c} received partial support when dividing the data into sub-samples. These findings indicated partial support to H_9 and H_{10} and cultural background moderates the relationships between TCC dimensions and justice perceptions and justice perceptions and loyalty intention, respectively. The following sections provide a discussion of these discrepancies as well as consistencies.

6.3.2.1 Chinese Cultural Background

Chan (2006) not only pointed out the tourism potential of China but also strongly encouraged any investigation that would provide invaluable implications for both academics and practitioners. A growing number of scholars provided similar suggestions (Heung, Ekiz, & Ling, 2007; Lee, & Sparks, 2007; Magnini, & Ford, 2004; Poon et al., 2004; Ryan, & Gu, 2007; Xu, & McGehee, forthcoming; Weber et al., 2011). In line with these recommendations, this thesis investigated Chinese tourist complaining constraints, justice perceptions and loyalty intention. This section presents the findings from a series of path analyses conducted by using data from Chinese respondents. An overwhelming majority (34 of 36 relationships, representing 94.4 %) of the hypotheses performed similarly as in the pooled data with two exceptions: the relationship between unfamiliarity and interactional justice and limited communication and procedural justice perceptions (in the low magnitude).

Chinese High Magnitude: The non-standardized path coefficients of Chinese high magnitude (CHM) data strongly supported results obtained from the pooled data. More specifically, results supported the same 17 hypotheses with similar coefficient values. Out of the 18 coefficient values depicted with path arrows in Figure 5.6, only five (H_{1a}, H_{4b}, H_{4c}, H_{5b} and H_7) were lower than values of the pooled data (See Tables 5.14 and 5.16 for comparisons). The following paragraphs first elaborate upon the similarities and differences between results obtained from the pooled and CHM data. Thereafter, follows a discussion of these differences within the broader field of culture, consumer and tourist behavior research.

Relationships between *limited time* and interactional justice were the strongest (γ = -.35, t = -16.7), as was in the case of pooled data. This was followed by relationships between limited time and procedural justice (γ = -.25, t = -4.1) and distributive justice (γ = -.28, t = -8.9). In light of these findings, the hypotheses H_{1a}, H_{1b} and H_{1c} received further support from CHM data. The results indicated that in a high magnitude failure situation, the more Chinese respondents regarded limited time as a constraint the more they demanded a smooth, custom-made recovery action from the hotel. This result contradicted those of Patterson et al. (2006) and Ngai et al. (2007) who noted that dissatisfied Chinese consumers tended to avoid facing service providers seen as authority figures and to be avoided. This difference can be justified by the inherent advantages of personal interaction during a recovery procedure, such as giving both parties a chance to deal with the problem (Bies, & Moag, 1986) and/or saving considerable time by speeding up the process (Blodgett, & Tax, 1993). Moreover, Craighead et al. (2004) emphasized that if the customers' loss was comparatively high (in the case of this subsample), regardless of cultural background, they voiced their complaints and expected fair compensation. It was perhaps for this reason, that Chinese respondents rated interactional justice as more important in a time-limited high magnitude failure situation.

Non-standardized path coefficient results obtained from Chinese respondents indicated that the *unfamiliarity* constraint had significant negative relationships with justice dimensions and was consistent with those of the pooled data. Results showed that the link between unfamiliarity and procedural justice (γ = -.31, t = -13.5), interactional justice (γ = -.30, t = -13.5) and distributive justice (γ = -.27, t = -6.3) were statistically significant. These findings supported hypotheses H_{2a}, H_{2b} and H_{2c} using the CHM data. The results showed that the more the Chinese respondents perceived unfamiliarity as a constraint, the higher their justice expectations. Therefore, if Chinese respondents had limited knowledge, they expected to receive a 'by the book' recovery, particularly when experiencing a high magnitude failure. This result suggested that hoteliers should not only have a well prepared and fair recovery management system but also needed to make it accessible to their guests. This finding is consistent with those of previous research on service recovery which highlighted the importance of keeping customers informed during service recovery, especially members of high uncertainty avoidance cultures such as Chinese (Hofstede, 2001; Kanousi, 2005; Lee, & Sparks, 2007; Ndubisi, & Ling, 2005). Having significant relationships with the remaining justice dimensions suggests that while keeping guests informed, hoteliers should also provide a just recovery in terms of personal interaction and value of recovery that they provide, particularly when dealing with Chinese guests having severe problems (Huang et al., 1996; Prasongsukarn, & Patterson, 2001).

A careful analysis of Table 5.16 reveals that values obtained from the CHM data were slightly higher than results of the pooled data. As was the case of the pooled data, the relationship between *limited communication* and interactional justice was the strongest (γ = -.56, t = -27.7), followed by limited time and distributive justice (γ = -.34, t = -18.6) and limited time and procedural justice (γ = -.26, t = -4.5). They consequently supported hypotheses H_{3a}, H_{3b} and H_{3c} with the CHM data. These results indicated that when Chinese respondents wanted to complain about a major problem they were facing, limited communication was a considerable obstacle for them. The results also highlighted that the more that Chinese respondents perceived limited communication as a constraint on complaining, the more they expected a personal and courteous recovery from the hotel's representative. These results were consistent with the findings of Kindel (1983) who noted that people from high uncertainty avoidance cultures such as Chinese, perceived personal communication to be effective and in severe failure situations perceived it to be highly important (Huang et al., 1996; Poon et al., 2004). Results indicated that procedural and distributive justice was also perceived as important constraints. Contrary to the behavior expected from members of a high power distant culture - tolerant to possible inequalities (Hofstede, 2007b), Chinese respondents indicated that they expected an equal and fair solution to their problems (Ekiz, & Au, 2011). This finding indicated that Chinese people facing a severe problem may not be as forgiving and tolerant as Kindel (1983), Chiu et al. (1987) or Mok and DeFranco (1999) noted.

Path coefficient analysis of the CHM data demonstrated similar results to those of the pooled data by highlighting the importance of *limited involvement* as a complaint constraint for Chinese respondents. More explicitly, the relationship between limited involvement and interactional justice was the strongest (γ = -.40, t = -20.7), followed by distributive justice (γ = -.22, t = -3.2) and procedural justice (γ = -.20, t = -3.1). These results further supported the hypothesized relationships, H_{4a}, H_{4b} and H_{4c}. they also signified that, particularly after a severe failure incident, having limited involvement in the planning of holidays does not necessarily make Chinese tourists less demanding in asking for a fair fix of their problems. As in the pooled data, these results indicated that Chinese respondents required a pleasant and courteous interaction with hotel representatives, as well as a 'by the book' and just redress. These findings could be interpreted as a sign of an increase in consumption expectations of the Chinese. In other words, Chinese consumers were becoming increasingly aware of their rights and becoming more demanding (Li et al., 2011). This is consistent with Ekiz and Au's (2009b) conclusion where they noted that the complaining behavior of Chinese consumers were changing, particularly their attitude toward complaining.

Results obtained from the Chinese high magnitude data provided further evidence of relationships between *positive holiday mood* and interactional (γ = -.33, t = -14.9) and distributive (γ = -.21, t = -4.4) justice perceptions. As for the procedural justice, the path coefficient score was still statistically insignificant (γ = -.17, t = -1.8) at .05 level. Accordingly, hypotheses H_{5a} and H_{5b} received further support but H_{5c} was still unsupported. This result indicated that, in a severe failure situation, the more Chinese respondents regarded being in a positive holiday mood as a constraint, the more demanding they were to receive an interactive, and personal and fair recovery action. In other words, they expected the hotel representatives to not only be extra considerate and helpful while solving their major problems, but to also come up with a fair recovery plan. This finding is consistent with those of Chebat and Slusarczyk (2005) in terms of the existence of basic recovery expectations regardless of the guests' emotional state. Moreover, this result supported Ekiz and Au's (2009b) findings, which reported that Chinese respondents have a tendency to voice their dissatisfaction to provide benefits to their friends and relatives. As it was in the case of pooled data, the relationship between positive holiday mood and distributive justice was statistically insignificant. However, this does not signify that Chinese respondents do not demand an appropriate redress when faced with a serious problem. Findings of Ngai et al. (2007) are also consistent with this result.

As for the relationships between justice perceptions and loyalty intention, results of the analyses demonstrated similarities to those obtained from the pooled data. Relationships between loyalty and distributive justice ($\beta = .64$, $t = 34.1$), interactional justice ($\beta = .58$, $t = 30.4$) and procedural justice ($\beta = .46$, $t = 21.3$) were statistically of particular significance at the .01 level (Nunnally, 1978). Accordingly, hypotheses H_6, H_7 and H_8 received further support via the CHM data. Overall, these results indicated that in order to remain loyal to the hotel, Chinese respondents expected a fair recovery in terms of outcome, interaction and procedure, especially when experiencing a severe problem. This result provided further support to the well-established link between justice perceptions and loyalty intention in both consumer behavior (Hess et al., 2003; Maute, & Forrester, 1993; Smith et al., 1999) and tourist behavior literature (Fu, & Mount, 2007; Schoefer, & Ennew, 2005). Moreover, a thorough review of the results showed that for Chinese respondents, the link between distributive justice and loyalty intention was the most significant in high magnitude failure situations. This result most importantly indicated that Chinese respondents, as members of a high uncertainty avoidance culture, expected assurance of a fair fix, particularly in severe failure incidences. This finding is consistent with Zemke and Bell's (1990) and Grönroos's (2007) studies, which highlighted the importance of providing fair compensation of what was lost during service failure. In the same vein, several scholars noted that customers who had experienced failures involving significant monetary and/or psychological loss, demanded a just recovery action, regardless of their cultural background (Herbig, 1998; Mattila, & Patterson, 2004a; 2004b; Patterson et al., 2006).

Chinese Low Magnitude: A review of the path coefficient scores obtained from Chinese low magnitude (CLM) data showed both consistencies and discrepancies of the results with those of the pooled data as well as the Chinese high magnitude data. Coefficient values were significantly lower than previously obtained from the other samples. Moreover, four previously supported hypotheses (H_{1b}, H_{4a}, H_{4c}, and H_{5b}) and H_{5c}, which were not previously supported, failed to receive support using the CLM data (Babbie, 2004; see Tables 5.14 and 5.16 for comparison). The section below discusses the consistencies and discrepancies within the framework of culture, consumer behavior and tourist behavior research.

The relationships between *limited time* and interactional justice (γ = -.26, t = -9.7) and distributive justice (γ = -.25, t = -7.0) were statistically significant. On the contrary, the coefficient score for the relationship between limited time and procedural justice (γ = -.25, t = -4.1) was lower than the recommended cut-off level (Kelloway, 1998). These findings provided further support to the hypotheses H_{1a} and H_{1c} and rejected H_{1b} using the CLM data. The results indicated that the more Chinese respondents regarded limited time as a constraint the more they demanded a personal recovery from the hotel, even after a low magnitude failure. This result further contradicted those of Wong N.Y. (2004), Patterson et al. (2006) and Ngai et al. (2007) who implied Chinese consumers were non-complainers due to the 'face issue' and the need to respect authority figures, or their desire of harmony in life including avoiding conflict with others (Hofstede, 2001). Particularly in the case of the present research, Chinese respondents not only expected just interaction with the hotel representative but also demanded a fair fix.

This is an interesting finding, particularly when given the comparatively low significance set in the failure scenario - 20 minutes waiting time while having a drink (Kerr, 2004), and the well-established reputation of Chinese people as non-complainers (Kindel, 1983; Ngai et al., 2007). This result can denote the advantages of personal interaction, regardless of the low significance of the experienced failure (Blodgett, & Anderson, 2000). Literature relating to interpersonal communication supported the importance of personal interaction, particularly during stressful events (Bonvillain, 2003; Findlay, 1998; Garrett et al., 1991), such as service failures (McColl-Kennedy, & Sparks, 2003) and/or complaints (Gursoy et al., 2007). The most likely reasons are that Chinese respondents rated interactional justice more importantly than other justice types, in a time limited low magnitude failure situation.

Path coefficient results obtained from Chinese respondents indicated that the *unfamiliarity* constraint had significant negative relationships with justice dimensions, even in the case of low magnitude failures. Obtained coefficient scores were lower than, yet consistent with, those of pooled data and Chinese high magnitude data. Results showed that the link between unfamiliarity and procedural justice (γ = -.24, t = -6.9), interactional justice (γ = -.27, t = -9.4) and distributive justice (γ = -.22, t = -5.8) were statistically significant at .05 level. These findings supported hypotheses H_{2a}, H_{2b} and H_{2c} with use of the CLM data. The results showed that, even in a low magnitude failure situation, the more Chinese respondent's perceived unfamiliarity as a constraint, the fairer the recovery expectation was from the hotel. In other words, even though the problems they faced were minor, when not familiar with the establishment, they expected hotel representatives to follow established procedures when fixing their problem. These results suggested that hoteliers needed to have a well-organized and fair recovery management system, making it available to their Chinese guests. It is very important for the Chinese complainant from a high uncertainty avoidance culture, to know how his/her problem would be fixed (Mattila, 1999b). This finding is also consistent with findings from service recovery research, that highlighted the importance of keeping customers informed during service recovery (Lee, & Sparks, 2007; Ndubisi, & Ling, 2005; Patterson et al., 2006). Results of the remaining relationships suggested that while keeping Chinese guests informed, hoteliers should also provide just recovery in terms of personal interaction, even though the failure incident may have been an insignificant one (Plymire, 1991; Prasongsukarn, & Patterson, 2001).

As Table 5.16 shows, results obtained from the CLM data were slightly lower than those of the pooled and CHM data. Consistent with earlier findings, the relationship between *limited communication* and interactional justice were the strongest (γ = -.36, t = -22.6), followed by procedural justice (γ = -.23, t = -7.7) and distributive justice (γ = -.21, t = -6.4). These consequently supported hypotheses H_{3a}, H_{3b} and H_{3c} with use of the CLM data. These results herald that the Chinese respondents perceived limited communication as a significant obstacle when wanting to voice their complaints, even those of minor failures. The results also highlighted that the more they saw limited communication as a constraint to their complaining, the more they expected fair recovery in terms of interaction with hotel representatives. These results were in line with findings of Wong N.Y. (2004), and Hui and Au (2001) who noted that members of high uncertainty avoidance cultures such as Chinese people, tended to perceive personal communication to be efficient and important in solving problems. Similarly, Huang et al. (1996) investigated the link between national character and response to unsatisfactory hotel services. The findings of present research provided further support to their concluding remarks on the importance of personal communication for dissatisfied Asian consumers. The results indicated that procedural and distributive justice was perceived as a significant constraint. The statistically significant results of these relationships indicated that although Chinese respondents were regarded as a high power distant (Hofstede, 2001) they demanded a fair solution to their problem. This finding is consistent with Ekiz and Au's (2009b) recent observations on the Chinese attitude toward complaining. They argued that Chinese consumers were becoming more positive and vocal. This finding indicated that Chinese people who face even a comparatively trivial problem might not be as tolerant as previously reported (Chiu et al., 1987; Kindel, 1983).

Path coefficient analysis of the CLM data demonstrated disparate results from those of the pooled data. More specifically, out of three earlier supported relationships, only the one between *limited involvement* and procedural justice was supported by the CLM data. As Table 5.16 shows, results indicated that relationships between limited involvement and procedural justice (γ = -.24, t = -9.2) was statistically significant, whereas interactional justice (γ = -.17 t = -1.8) and distributive justice (γ = -.05, t = -.7) were insignificant. Thus, only hypothesis H_{4b} received additional support while H_{4a} and H_{4c} did not. This result indicated that the more Chinese respondents regarded limited involvement as a constraint on their complaining, the more they demanded to receive a 'by the book' recovery of their problem. This result suggested that even in a comparatively less severe failure incident, having limited involvement in planning of holidays does not necessarily make Chinese tourists less demanding in asking for justice. This finding is consistent with previous CCB literature in addressing the importance of having and applying company-wide complaint handling procedures (Boden, 2001; Gilly, & Hansen, 1992).

Results obtained from the Chinese low magnitude data provided further evidence for the relationship between *positive holiday mood* and interactional justice (γ = -.20, t = -6.1), however they failed to support the relationships between positive holiday mood and distributive (γ = -.11, t = -.9) and procedural (γ = -.15, t = -1.5) justice perceptions, at .05 level. Therefore, hypothesis H_{5a} received further support while H_{5b} and H_{5c} did not. This result indicated that, in a low magnitude failure situation, the more Chinese respondents regarded being in a positive holiday mood a constraint, the more they demanded receiving an interactive and personal recovery. Given that they were in a positive holiday mood, positive, tolerant and relaxed, they may have preferred to solve their minor problems by dealing with a considerate and helpful hotel representative, instead of reading the procedures and/or writing complaint letters. This finding is consistent with those of Maute and Forrester (1993), and Conlon and Murray (1996), who investigated the effects of failure severity on post-consumption action. They noted that, particularly in the case of less severe losses, talking to the hotel representative is the most commonly preferred way to deal with problems. This result showed that Chinese tourists would prefer to interact with hoteliers to solve their minor dissatisfactions. Consistent to results of the pooled data, the relationship between positive holiday mood and distributive justice was statistically insignificant. Yet, this finding alone does not suggest that hoteliers do not need to offer fair recovery actions to Chinese respondents, even in low magnitude incidents. This is consistent with findings from relevant literature (Hart et al., 1990; Huang, 1994; Zins, 2002).

Regarding the relationship between justice perceptions and loyalty intention, overall results were consistent with those obtained earlier, particularly with the relationships between loyalty and interactional justice ($\beta = .57$, $t = 32.3$), distributive justice ($\beta = .41$, $t = 19.7$) and procedural justice ($\beta = .40$, $t = 19.6$) which were statistically significant at .01 level. As a result, hypotheses H_6, H_7 and H_8 received further support with use of CLM data. These figures indicated minor differences in terms of the importance given to justice perceptions. More specifically, when the loss due to the failure is low, Chinese respondents reported interaction with hotel representatives to be the most effective way to ensure their loyalty. This result confirmed the importance of interactional justice and provided further support to the well-investigated link between justice perceptions and loyalty intention (Hocutt et al., 1997; Kim et al., 2009; Leung, & Stephan, 1998). Although in severe failure incidences, distributive justice was the most important factor affecting loyalty of Chinese respondents - which affirmed their high uncertainty avoidance attribute - yet in the case of low magnitude failures, interaction with the hotel representative was deemed the most important justice factor. This finding supported those of Liao (2007) and Martinez-Tur et al. (2006) who highlighted the importance of interaction during the recovery process.

6.3.2.2 American Cultural Background

For the last four decades, the United States has always been one of the main tourist generating countries (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2010). Moreover, UNWTO (2010c) predicts the United States to be on the list of top tourist generating countries in the coming decades. For this reason alone, several researchers focused their interest in knowing and understanding America's consumption behaviors, (Doran, 2002; Money et al., 1998; Vandello, & Cohen, 1999). These scholars chorded strongly to encourage any investigation that would provide invaluable implications for both academics and practitioners (Richins, & Verhage, 1985; Senguder, 2000; Tata et al., 2003). In line with these recommendations, this thesis investigated American perceptions on tourist complaining constraints, justice perceptions and loyalty intention.

This section presents findings from a series of path analyses conducted through application of t data collected from American respondents. The majority (28 of 36 relationships, representing 77.8 %) of the hypotheses, was similar to those of the pooled data with seven exceptions. The sections below provide a detailed discussion of the results concerning the relationships between TCC dimensions, justice perceptions and loyalty intention, from the American respondents' point of view.

American High Magnitude: The resulting analysis of path coefficients obtained from American high magnitude (AHM) data showed strong support of the results obtained from earlier pooled data. More specifically, the results supported 16 hypotheses with similar coefficient values. Of the 18 coefficient values obtained from the AHM data, only two (H_{2a} and H_{3b}) were lower than those of the pooled data (see Tables 5.14 and 5.16 for comparisons). From these two hypotheses, relationships between unfamiliarity and interactional justice and limited communication and procedural justice, were statistically insignificant (Kelloway, 1998). The following paragraphs first elaborate on the similarities and differences between the results obtained from the pooled and AHM data. Secondly, discussions on these differences within the broad field of culture, consumer and tourist behavior research are noted.

The relationship between *limited time* and interactional justice was the strongest (γ = -.38, t = -19.4), as was the case in both the pooled and CHM data. This was followed by the relationships between limited time and procedural justice (γ = -.28, t = -8.1) and distributive justice (γ = -.24, t = -4.3). In light of these findings, hypotheses H_{1a}, H_{1b} and H_{1c} received further support, with the use of AHM data. The results indicated that in a high magnitude failure situation, the more American respondents regarded limited time as a constraint the more they demanded an easy, custom-made and hassle-free recovery action from the hotel representative. This result supported the findings of previous studies, particularly those of Becker et al. (1999) and Ekiz and Au (2009b) who noted the American consumers' positive attitude toward complaining and not having any difficulties in interacting with service providers in restaurant and hotel settings. As noted by Hofstede (1980, 2001), American citizens do not have any difficulty in accessing/approaching people who have high power, in this case service providers. Most likely, for these reasons, American respondents rated interactional justice as the most important justice perception in a time-limited severe failure situation. This result was consistent with those of Manrai and Manrai (1993) and Tata et al. (2003) who characterized American consumers as highly vocal in expressing their dissatisfaction directly to the service provider, especially when they were under stress - time limitation, in the case of present research. As well as a smooth interaction with hoteliers during the recovery process, American respondents also demanded a 'by the book' recovery providing them with fair redress (Becker et al., 1999;

Senguder, 2000; Warden et al., 2003). Conceivably, for this reason, the analysis of data produced all significant relationships in a time-limited high magnitude failure situation.

A review of the path structural results obtained from the AHM data presented only a partial support to the link between *unfamiliarity* and justice perceptions. In particular, two of the three relationships were significant at the level of .05 or better. These results validated the relationships between unfamiliarity and procedural justice (γ = -.29, t = -5.4) and distributive justice (γ = -.22, t = -3.3) whereas the relationship between unfamiliarity and interactional justice (γ = -.16, t = -1.7) was statistically insignificant. These findings provided additional support to hypotheses H_{2b} and H_{2c}, but the data on hand did not support H_{2a}. These results indicated that American respondents not only perceived unfamiliarity as a constraint on their complaining behavior but also signified negative relationships between unfamiliarity and procedural and distributive justice dimensions. These results demonstrated that, in a high magnitude failure situation, the more American respondents perceive unfamiliarity as a limitation, the higher their recovery expectations were in terms of procedural and distributive fairness. In other words, when American respondents were unfamiliar with the system of handling guest problems, they expected the hotel representative to apply procedures that were available within the system, to solve their problems. By doing so, they were hopeful in overcoming their lack of knowledge of the system. One of the best ways to ensure that one is not being treated unfairly and what is offered as a remedy is consistent with what is offered to others, that is to ask the company to follow preset rules and/or regulations (Grönroos, 2007; Suh et al., 2005; Susskind et al., 2000). Moreover, results indicated that American respondents demanded fair redress, particularly when they faced a serious problem in an unfamiliar destination and/or hotel.

This finding is also consistent with previous CCB findings that underlined the importance of providing efficient, systematic and fair compensation (Boden, 2001). Furthermore, the results were coherent with those stressing the cultural characteristics of American consumers that affected their behavior during and after consumption, particularly: being masculine, individualistic and a low uncertainty avoidant (Hofstede, 2007b; Litvin et al., 2004).

Results attest to an overall coherence with results of previous analyses on the relationships between *limited communication* and interactional and distributive justice perceptions. However, in the case of the link between limited communication and procedural justice, the resulting figure was below the recommended value of ± 2.00 (Hayduk, 1996). The following figures were obtained from the analyses of AHM data concerning the relationships between limited communication and interactional justice (γ = -.51, t = -25.1), distributive justice (γ = -.38, t = -21.9) and procedural justice (γ = -.17, t = -1.8). These results indicated that the hypotheses H_{3a} and $H_{3c,}$ were supported, whereas H_{3b} was not. They also indicated that American respondents perceived limited communication as a considerable hindrance when they wanted to complain about a major problem they faced. They also pointed out that the more American respondents perceived limited communication as a constraint on their complaints, the more they waited for a personal and well-mannered recovery from the hotel representative. These results were coherent with findings of Alden et al. (1994) who noted that members of low uncertainty avoidance cultures, such as Americans, do not have any problems in communicating both their satisfaction and/or dissatisfaction (Huang et al., 1996; Tata et al., 2003). For this reason, American respondents deemed interactional justice as a necessity, mainly when their complaint was hindered by severe failure situation. Results also revealed that American respondents perceived the relationship between limited communication and distributive justice as significant. In fact, it was not surprising to learn that these respondents, members of one of the top masculine cultures (Hofstede, & Hofstede, 2005), demanded a fair redress in such a high magnitude failure situation.

Path coefficient analysis of the AHM data denoted similar results with those of pooled data and the CHM data, pointing out the importance of *limited involvement* as a complaint constraint in general and for American respondents in particular. Unequivocally, the relationship between limited involvement and interactional justice was the strongest (γ = -.51, t = -25.1), followed by distributive justice (γ = -.27, t = -9.3) and procedural justice (γ = -.24, t = -8.0). These results revealed additional support to hypothesized relationships, H_{4a}, H_{4b} and H_{4c}. These results also attested that having low limited involvement in planning of holiday does not necessarily cause American tourists to be less demanding on a fair fix of their problems, especially when their loss was considerably high. This result was consistent with those of Chanchani and Theivanathampillai (2002) and Josiam et al. (2005) who noted that members of low uncertainty avoidance cultures, such as Americans, would demand without hesitation, not only a fair resolution to their problems but also a satisfactory explanation of the reasons for that particular incident. This is supported in results from this thesis, providing empirical evidence on factors affecting complaining behaviors of American consumers. In particular, the results attested that American consumers demanded courteous interaction with hotel representatives, as well as just redress aligned with regulations of that particular establishment. This finding is coherent with those of previously published research (Alden et al., 1994; Manrai, & Manrai, 1993; Tata et al., 2003).

Results obtained from American high magnitude data provided further evidence for the relationships between *positive holiday mood* and interactional justice (γ = -.29, t = -12.4), procedural justice (γ = -.25, t = -4.6) and distributive justice (γ = -.23, t = -5.2) perceptions. Hence, hypotheses H_{5a}, H_{5b} and H_{5c} were supported. This result indicated that, in a severe failure situation, the more American respondents considered being in a positive holiday mood as a constraint, the more they demanded to receive an interactive, 'by the book' and value wise fair recovery. In other words, they expected the hotel representative to not only have polite interaction with them but to also provide a reasonable and fair recovery plan. Being members of a masculine culture, characterized by high value, money and financial gains, even during a relaxing holiday experience, American tourists demanded fair redress. This finding is coherent with the concluding remarks of Money et al. (1998) and Becker et al. (1999) who compared Japanese/American and Chinese/ American consumption behaviors. This result is also consistent with observations by Ekiz and Au (2009b) regarding American well-established and positive attitudes toward complaining behavior.

As for the relationship between justice perceptions and loyalty intention, the results exhibited similarities to those obtained from the pooled data. The relationship between loyalty intention and distributive justice (β = .71, t = 36.8) was the strongest, followed by interactional justice (β = .60, t = 31.9) and procedural justice (β = .57, t = 28.2) being statistically significant at the level of .01. Consequently, hypotheses H_6, H_7 and H_8 received further support with the use of AHM data. Overall, these results demonstrated that to remain loyal to any hotel, American tourists expected a fair recovery in terms of outcome, interaction and procedure, particularly when experiencing a severe problem. Overall, this result presented further support to the deep-rooted link between fairness perceptions and loyalty intention (Bies, & Moag, 1986; Goodwin, & Ross, 1990; Mattila, & Patterson, 2004a), by reporting the responses of American respondents in a high magnitude failure situation. Furthermore, results revealed that American respondents, characterized as being materialistic (Hofstede, 1980, 2001) and valuing monetary gains (Kanousi, 2005), rated the link between distributive justice and loyalty intention as the most significant, especially in a severe failure situation. This finding is accordant with findings of much empirical research in overall consumer behavior literature (Leung, 1988; Vandello, & Cohen, 1999) as well as tourist behavior literature (Becker et al., 1999; Ngai et al., 2007).

American Low Magnitude: Results of the path coefficient scores obtained from American low magnitude (ALM) data demonstrated both consistencies and discrepancies with those of the pooled data as well as the American high magnitude data. Overall, the coefficient values were considerably lower those obtained earlier. Moreover, five previously supported hypotheses (H_{1c}, H_{2a}, H_{2c}, H_{3c}, and H_{4b}) and H_{5c}, which did not get support previously, failed to receive support with the ALM data (See Tables 5.14 and 5.16 for comparison). The section below contains a discussion of these results within the framework of culture, consumer behavior and tourist behavior research.

The relationships between *limited time* and interactional justice (γ = -.20, t = -6.7) and procedural justice (γ = -.21, t = -4.6) were statistically significant. On the other hand, the coefficient score for the relationship between limited time and distributive justice (γ = -.16, t = -1.8) was lower than the recommended threshold level (Byrne, 1998). These findings provided further support to the hypotheses H_{1a} and H_{1b} and rejected H_{1c} with the use of ALM data. The results indicated that the more American respondents regarded limited time as a constraint the more they demanded a courteous and interactive recovery from the hotel, even if they only faced a low magnitude failure. This result corresponded with those of Manrai and Manrai (1993) who compared American and Bulgarian consumers' complaining behaviors and concluded that the magnitude of failure was not the main determinant to American complaining behavior. Moreover, they noted that even though their loss was comparatively insignificant, Americans had a tendency to voice their complaints frequently. Their conclusion found support in the works of several other scholars (Doran, 2002; Josiam et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2010; Senguder, 2000). The results also indicated that in a time-limited low magnitude failure situation the American respondents rated following proper procedures as significant. In other words, even if their loss was comparatively trivial, they preferred to see the procedures in action while the service providers handled their complaints. This finding signified the importance of having a set of well-established policies and procedures to handle and manage customer complaints. Similarly, Ekiz (2009) recommended that hotel managers should establish appropriate complaint mechanisms, systems and procedures to make full use of guest complaints. Moreover, he urged hoteliers to develop a tailor-made recovery system by taking customer profiles into consideration (Ekiz, 2009). Overall, the results showed that American consumers saw quality of interaction with hotel representatives and the existence of appropriate complaint procedures as essential factors in the fair fix of their complaints, regardless of the severity of the problem. This result is coherent with discussions found within CCB literature (Mattila, & Patterson, 2004a; McColl-Kennedy, & Sparks, 2003; Seiders, & Berry, 1998; Tata et al., 2003).

Path coefficient results obtained from the ALM data were significantly lower than those of both the pooled and AHM data. Only one of three relationships was significant. The results confirmed the link between *unfamiliarity* and procedural justice (γ = -.21, t = -4.4) at the level of .05 (Hair et al., 2007), where interactional justice (γ = -.16, t = -1.8) and distributive justice (γ = -.18, t = -1.5) were not statistically significant. These findings supported the hypothesis H_{2b} and rejected H_{2a} and H_{2c} with the use of ALM data. The American respondents indicated that, in the case of low magnitude failures, unfamiliarity constraint had a significant negative relationship only with procedural justice dimension. These results also demonstrated that, even in a low magnitude failure situation, the more American respondents perceived unfamiliarity as a limitation on their complaining, the higher their recovery expectations were in terms of procedural fairness. In other words, even though the problem they faced was minor, when American respondents were unfamiliar with the regulations, they expected the hotel representative to follow available preset procedures in solving their problems. This finding was also coherent with previous CCB findings in underlining the importance of having a customer's complaint management system and informing customers about the availability of such a system (Boden, 2001; Ekiz, 2009). This may convince them to give a chance - a 'gift' (Barlow, & Moller, 1996) - to the company by voicing their complaints instead of just walking away and never coming back (Zemke, & Bell, 2000) or merely disseminating negative word of mouth (Davidow, 2003b).

Path coefficient scores, obtained from the ALM data concerning the link between *limited communication* and justice perceptions, indicated partial support of the results obtained earlier. Out of three tested hypotheses, only two were statistically significant (Nunnally, 1978). The relationship between limited communication and interactional justice was the strongest (γ = -.32, t = -14.5) followed by procedural justice (γ = -.20, t = -6.6) and distributive justice (γ = -.13, t = -1.1). Thus, hypotheses H_{3a} and H_{3b} received further support with the use of ALM data, while H_{3c} failed to do so. Overall, these results indicated that American respondents perceived limited communication as a potential barrier and a factor to consider while voicing their dissatisfaction, even in the case of a minor problem. In this sense, the more American respondents saw limited communication as a constraint on their complaining, the more likely they were to expect fair recovery in terms of interaction with hotel representatives and the procedures used to handle these problems. This finding highlights the importance of interactive and procedural justice perceptions, where the respondents' complaining behavior was restrained because of limited communication. These results were consistent with those of Bies and Moag (1986) and Blodgett et al. (1997) who underlined the significance of well-executed and sincere interaction as well as availability of a well-established and fair failure recovery system.

Moreover, in line with these results, culture literature contains a significant amount of evidence (Green et al., 2005; Luomala et al., 2004; Watkins, & Liu, 1996) on how members of an individual and low uncertainty avoidant culture, such as America, may prefer to resolve their conflicts on a personal level (Ekiz, & Au, 2009b, 2011; Senguder, 2000). Given that they were motivated with personal gains and have a low tolerance for the unknown, they tend to act on even the smallest of problems faced (Craighead et al., 2004;

Kerr, 2004). Manrai and Manrai (1993) noted that American consumers have full knowledge of their rights as consumers and showed a desire to receive individual solutions that follow written rules. The findings in this thesis provided further support to this based on American consumption behaviors. The results indicated that the relationship between limited communication, as a constraint, and perceived distributive justice, as insignificant. Even though this result relates to a low magnitude failure scenario, this finding nevertheless contradicted previous studies (Senguder, 2000). More specifically, although Hofstede (1980, 2001) labeled Americans as a masculine culture characterized by valuing financial gains and monetary benefits, the present research indicated that in the context of minor problems, American consumers preferred to receive fair interaction and an efficient working recovery system for immediate redress through distributive justice. This can be justified by the comparatively low magnitude of service failure (Kerr, 2004) and grooving interest on personalized solutions in conflict resolution (Lee, & Sparks, 2007). With this in mind, the results therefore indicated that American tourists demanded fair interaction and fair procedures, particularly if communication was difficult during a trivial problem. Results of path coefficient analysis with the use of ALM data revealed both similarities and differences when compared to those of the pooled and AHM data.

More specifically, out of three earlier supported relationships, two received further support, namely *limited involvement* and distributive and interactional justice. As Table 5.16 reveals, relationships between limited involvement and distributive justice (γ = -.26, t = -7.2) and interactional justice (γ = -.25 t = -9.1) were significant whereas procedural justice (γ = -.09, t = -1.0) is statistically insignificant. Thus, hypotheses H_{4a} and H_{4c} received additional support while H_{4b} did not. This result indicated that the more American respondents considered limited involvement as a constraint on their complaining, the more they demanded to receive fair compensation in terms of redress and interaction with the hotel representative. This result suggested that having limited involvement in planning of holidays does not necessarily make American tourists less demanding in asking for a fair recovery, even in comparatively less severe failure incidents. Thus, American respondents indicated their expectation to receive just compensation, accompanied by attentive and friendly interaction with the hotel representative. This finding is in accordance to previous consumer behavior studies in addressing the significance of providing a fair, particularly financial, compensation as a first step in any successful recovery attempt (Andreassen, 2000; de Matos et al., 2007; Zemke, 1993). Some studies also noted how recovery was delivered, and was as important as what has been delivered as recovery. In other words, interaction between service provider and the customer are as important as what may be given as the remedy (Hart et al., 1990; Magnini et al., 2007). Moreover, these results were consistent with previous cultural research in describing the characteristics of American consumers, that being masculine, demanding financial compensation, low uncertainty avoidant - not avoiding personal confrontation, individualistic and expecting the company to pay attention to their needs (Alden et al., 1994; Kim, & Lee, 2000; Tata et al., 2003). Results of this research indicated these characteristics also affected American tourists' complaining behavior even when they were unfamiliar with the destination and/or company (Ekiz, & Au, 2009b).

Path analysis results obtained from American low magnitude data provided further evidence of relationships between *positive holiday mood* and interactional and procedural justice dimensions. Although the coefficient scores were lower than those previously obtained, they nevertheless showed similarities in terms of direction and effect of hypothesized relationships. According to these results, interaction between positive holiday mood and interactional justice (γ = -.25, t = -9.6) and procedural justice (γ = -.22, t = -2.7) found support, whereas distributive justice (γ = -.14, t = -1.3) did not (Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2006). There was therefore support for hypotheses H_{5a} and $H_{5b,}$ while H_{5c} was rejected through using ALM data. This result indicated that, in a low magnitude failure situation, the more American respondents regarded being in a positive holiday mood as a constraint, the more they demanded an interactive and 'by the book recovery'. As discussed earlier, one explanation of this result could be the positive mood in which tourists were at the time of the problem. In other words, during their holiday they tended to be positive, tolerant and relaxed (Babin et al., 2005; Mattila, 2000; White, 2005) and may thus prefer to solve their minor problems by dealing with hotel representatives (Pizam, & Sussmann, 1995). Moreover, American respondents found procedural justice to be important, even in a low magnitude failure situation, which is consistent with findings from previous studies that highlighted the necessity of a well-functioning service recovery system (Boden, 2001; Grönroos, 2007; Suh et al., 2005). The results also showed that American respondents perceived distributive justice as insignificant in a less severe failure incident. This finding is in contradiction with previous research results, which presented financial gains as the primary driver behind complaining Americans (Hofstede, & Hofstede, 2005; Senguder, 2000; Tata et al., 2003). This research argued that the positive holiday mood affected tourists' consumption behaviors by making them more tolerant and forgiving. Perhaps for this reason, American tourists choose to solve their minor dissatisfactions by interacting with the hotel representative and/or by following the procedures of the hotel. In this way, solving minor problems is consistent with previous research findings (Bodey, & Grace, 2007; Doran, 2002; Zemke, 1995).

As for the relationship between *justice perceptions* and loyalty intention, the overall results were coherent with those obtained previously. The relationships between loyalty and distributive justice (β = .56, t = 29.5), interactional justice (β = .44, t = 22.1) and procedural justice (β = .43, t = 20.0) were statistically significant at the level of .01 (Nunnally, 1978). Consequently, hypotheses H_6, H_7 and H_8 received further support with the ALM data. More specifically, when the loss due to failure is low, the American respondents rated distributive justice, replacing what has been lost or damaged, to be the most effective way to ensure their loyalty. This result confirmed the importance of providing a fair redress, even if the loss comparatively trivial (Best, & Andreasen, 1977; Diener, & Greyser, 1978; Kolodinsky, 1993). Similarly, Hogarth and English (2002) urged the significance of redress as an important mechanism for protecting and empowering consumers in general, particularly American consumers. As noted previously, American culture is categorized as a masculine and materialistic culture (Hofstede, 1980).

In that sense, this particular finding was consistent with those of Becker et al. (1999), Manrai and Manrai (1993) and Alden et al. (1994) who argued distributive justice to be most important for American consumers. Results also revealed that, based on the mean rating, through receiving fair redress and having fair treatment in terms of regulations, smooth interaction followed with the hotel representative in a low magnitude failure situation. This result is coherent with previous research findings (Blodgett et al., 1997; Kau, & Loh, 2006; Yim et al., 2003; Xu, & Chan, 2010).

6.3.2.3 Chinese vs. American Cultures

In every facet of our daily lives, the amount of cross-cultural connection is increasing rapidly, regardless of its purpose and intensity (Kotler et al., 2010). This situation inevitably creates misunderstanding and/or conflicts between members of different cultures (Liu et al., 2001; Mattila, & Patterson, 2004b; Sizoo et al., 2003). With this in mind, this thesis aimed to reveal to what extent cultural background moderated relationships between TCC, justice perceptions and loyalty to the organization, in the context of tourism services. To achieve this, empirical data from both Chinese and American respondents were analyzed.

Table 5.16 reveals that when the hypothesized model was tested using four subsamples (Chinese and American, high and low magnitude failure), seven of the 17 previously supported hypotheses, received full support within both cultures. The remaining ten hypotheses, however, only received partial support when both samples were separately tested. A closer look at Table 5.16 shows that results of only eight hypotheses (H_{1a}, H_{2b}, H_{3a}, H_{5a}, H_{5c}, H_6, H_7 and H_8) matched when high and low magnitude data for both respondents were combined. More specifically, of these eight hypotheses, seven (H_{1a}, H_{2b}, H_{3a}, H_{5a}, H_6, H_7 and H_8) had received full support in both combined data sets, with the exception of H_{5c} (between the positive holiday mood and distributive justice perception), which received only partial support in both Chinese and American subsamples.

Three of these hypotheses (H_{1a}, H_{3a} and H_{5a}) were about relationships between three TCC dimensions (limited time, unfamiliarity and positive holiday mood) and interactional justice perception. Thus, there is consistency between both respondents on the importance of interaction when their complaining behavior is constrained by availability of time, existence of knowledge or being in a positive holiday mood. In other words, more respondents from both cultures perceived limited time, unfamiliarity and positive holiday mood to be constraints; the more they demanded an efficient, smooth and courteous interaction with the hotel representative. This finding is coherent with previous research, which highlighted the importance of interactional justice within service recovery in general (Bies, & Moag, 1986; Blodgett et al., 1995; Gursoy et al., 2007; Smith et al., 1999) and cross-cultural complaint behavior in particular (Doran, 2002; Manrai, & Manrai, 2003; Tata et al., 2003). Consistent with these findings, results of this research suggested that fairness of interpersonal communications during a complaint handling and/or recovery process inflicts considerable impact on how consumers evaluated the overall service recovery (Collie et al., 2000; Maxham III, & Netemeyer, 2002; Zemke, 1995). Perhaps for this reason, results obtained from two distinctively different cultures were overlapping.

In the case of relationships between justice perceptions and loyalty intention (H_6, H_7 and H_8) the findings also revealed similarities. Three justice perceptions were rated identical in three of the four sub-samples, namely Chinese high magnitude and American high and low magnitude data sets. Although the path coefficient scores varied slightly in these three data sets, the order of the effects remained the same (distributive, interactional and procedural justice). These results and ranking were consistent with results of previous studies (Ekiz et al., 2008; Goodwin, & Ross, 1989; Mattila, 2001b; Smith et al., 1999; Teo, & Lim, 2001; Yim et al., 2003). The result also indicated that, regardless of the magnitude of failure, both Chinese and American respondents demanded fair redress, being in the form of a refund, gift, coupon exchange, discount or repair, offered by the company (Kau, & Loh, 2006; Kelley et al., 1993). This result was supported by findings from several cross-cultural empiric studies (Leung, 1988; Richins, & Verhage, 1985; Senguder, 2000; Stauss, & Mang, 1999).

The remaining two hypotheses, H_{2b} and H_{5c}, also showed considerable similarities. In the case of hypothesis H_{2b}, the relationship between unfamiliarity and procedural justice, both Chinese and American respondents reported that they expected efficient service recovery systems, particularly when they were unfamiliar with the rules and/or regulations. This result is coherent with those of Leventhal (1976) who noted that fair procedures were necessary preconditions in the establishment and maintenance of overall satisfaction. Similarly, Sparks and McColl-Kennedy (2001) emphasized that customer satisfaction is based on not only the ultimate outcome of the service recovery but also the procedures used to reach that outcome. Perhaps these explain the consistency in the results of H_{2b}, across both Chinese and American data sets.

The final match between Chinese and American respondents appeared on H_{5c}, being between positive holiday mood and distributive justice perception. This hypothesis received only partial support from members of both Chinese and American cultures. The results were consistent with the pooled data and showed that the rejected hypothesis (H_{5c}) was also rejected in both subsamples. This suggested that the more Chinese and American respondents perceived positive holiday mood as a constraint on their complaining behavior, the more they expected distributive fairness within a severe failure situation. This result does not hold if the failure is not severe, or is comparatively less important (Grönhaug, & Zaltman, 1981; Tsang, & Ap, 2007b). Moreover, this finding is consistent with those of Seiders and Berry (1998) and Tyler (1994), who noted the changing effect of the magnitude of failure on different outcomes of service recovery evaluations.

A comparison of the figures obtained from the subsamples revealed contradictions on hypotheses H_{2a} and H_{5b}. The relationship between unfamiliarity constraint and interactional justice perception (H_{2a}) received full support from the Chinese data while being rejected by American data. This result indicated that the more the Chinese respondents perceived unfamiliarity as a constraint, the more and fairer interaction was expected from hoteliers during the recovery of their complaints. As previously discussed, this finding suggests that when Chinese respondents have limited knowledge/familiarity, they demand to receive a 'by the book' recovery, regardless of the significance of the failure incident. This result is consistent with Ekiz and Au's (2009a) findings in highlighting the changing and increasing complaining behavior of Chinese consumers. Moreover, it could be explained by the high uncertainty avoidance characteristics of Chinese culture, which suggested that members interact with the service provider to minimize uncertainties in the recovery process (Tata et al., 2003).

Along the same line, Leung (1988) noted that in a conflict situation (service failure in the case of the present research) contrary to individualistic American consumers, collectivist Chinese consumers preferred to bargain with service providers to solve the problem. On the other hand, the relationship between positive holiday mood and procedural justice (H_{5b}) received full support with American data while being rejected by the Chinese. This result suggested that American consumers expected the hotel representative to provide them with a reasonable and fair recovery plan, regardless of the positive holiday mood -

comparatively positive and accommodating mood - they were experiencing. This result can be explained by the deep-rooted consumer rights within the United States, which is not only binding to all companies but also demands that having a complaint handling and/or failure recovery system is a must for companies (Manrai, & Manrai, 1993; Senguder, 2000) and not a choice. Furthermore, this result is also consistent with remarks by Ekiz and Au (2009b) regarding the positive attitudes toward complaining behavior by Americans.

Finally, in the case of the remaining eight hypotheses, results indicated no consistencies between the responses of Chinese and American tourists. Results of these hypotheses (H_{1b}, H_{1c}, H_{2c}, H_{3b}, H_{3c}, H_{4a}, H_{4b} and H_{4c}) were different in the sense of whether they received full or partial support with their corresponding data sets. For instance, hypotheses H_{1b}, H_{4a} and H_{4c} received only partial support from the Chinese subsample while receiving full support from the American subsample. Conversely, the remaining five hypotheses, H_{1c}, H_{2c}, H_{3b}, H_{3c}, and H_{4b}, had full support from the Chinese subsample but only partial support from the American data, at a level of .01 or .05 (Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2006).

These results, combined with those of the mean score difference test (see Table, 5.10), indicated that Chinese and American respondents differed on several of the variables within the model. This was seen particularly between-country t-test analysis of mean scores that revealed eight of the nine tested constructs (five TCC dimensions, three justice perceptions and one loyalty intention) were statistically different at the level of .01, apart from one factor, ‘positive holiday mood’. This result alone suggested that regardless of the cultural background, tourists see positive holiday mood as a significant constraining factor upon their complaining behavior. The calculated gap between mean scores obtained from the Chinese and American subsamples, provided further evidence of well-established differences between consumer behaviors (Becker et al., 1999; Doran, 2002; Tata et al., 2003). This result is coherent with the results of previous studies. These suggested that companies who conduct business with, or target customers from these cultures, need to consider cross-cultural differences on consumption behavior in general (Becker et al., 1999; Doran, 2002; Kindel, 1983) and on complaining behavior in particular (Lee & Sparks, 2007; Ngai et al., 2007; Tata et al., 2003).

6.4 Theoretical Contributions

The study of tourist behavior has heavily relied upon consumer marketing literature (Jafari, & Gardner, 1991). Huang (2007) noted the similarities between tourist and overall consumer behavior but also listed the differences between them as follows:

(i) tourist behavior occurs mostly outside of their residential environment; thus tourists may behave differently to normal (Huang, 2007);

(ii) consumption of tourism services is highly based on experience (Jafari, & Gardner, 1991);

(iii) tourism behavior involves none or a limited tangible return on investment (Uriely, 2005);

(iv) tourist behavior does not involve a spontaneous or capricious purchase and mostly requires saving and pre-planning (Wahab et al., 1976).

These differences not only characterize the tourism product and its purchase, but also distinguish post-purchase evaluation, particularly satisfaction/dissatisfaction perceptions and complaining behavior (Ekiz, & Au, 2009b; Pearce, 1982a). Furthermore, an extensive review of tourism literature revealed that mostly, tourist behavior studies directly applied general consumer behavior theories without considering the unique characteristics of the tourism industry (Hsu et al., 2009; Hudson, & Ritchie, 2001). In particular, not only does tourism present characteristics of services in general (Zeithaml et al., 2006) but also differs from other services by being inherently a non-ordinary and non-routine experience (Voase, 1995). Following, are notes by scholars about tourist behavior: tourists have a different mindset (McCabe, & Marson, 2006) and perceive, behave and react 'differently' (Jafari, & Way, 1994; Uriely, 2005) in a different place, where they spend their holidays (Jafari, & Gardner, 1991: Jafari, 2007).

Given these differences, one might expect plentiful theories and/or research on these particular issues. However, there are only a limited number of theories exclusive to tourist behavior (Ekiz, 2010; McCabe, 2005; Pearce, 2005; Yuksel et al., 2006). Gilbert (1991) questioned the applicability of overall consumer behavior models to the tourism setting. McCabe (2005) and Yuksel et al. (2006) urged the need for tailor-made tourist behavior studies. Pearce (2004), pleaded for more theoretical improvement within tourism research, with particular focus on the Asian setting. Huang (2007) also pointed out the need for well-defined conceptual schemes in tourism and hospitality research and called for theory building and development studies.

Given the complexity and characteristics of the tourism product, frequent failures in its delivery become unavoidable (McIntosh et al., 2006; Pearce, 2005). Nonetheless, there were comparatively fewer empirical and/or theoretical studies that focused on service failure within tourism services (Becker et al., 1999; Kim, & Lee, 2000; Kim et al., 2010; Mattila, 2000) and even fewer on tourist complaining behavior (Pearce, & Moscardo, 1984; Ngai et al., 2007; Tata et al., 2003). A review of tourist behavior studies revealed that tourism scholars did not consider tourist complaining behavior to be different from consumer complaining behavior (Ekiz, 2010). This may not present an entirely accurate picture due to the differences in the overall experience (Pizam, & Sussmann, 1995; Schoefer, & Ennew, 2004). Tourism literature is short of comprehensive information on tourist complaining (Reisinger, & Turner, 2003) and pales by lack of a scale to measure factors constraining complaining behavior. Ekiz and Au (2009a) argued that little is known about the tourist complaining process and urged the need for further research. In this sense, this study has contributed to tourist behavior literature by mapping out the factors that hinder tourist complaining behavior. Results of this study suggested that: being unfamiliar to the destination, having limited time within the destination, having limited communication ability, limited involvement in planning or execution of the holiday and positive holiday mood, were factors that affected tourist complaining behavior. Furthermore, this research made additions to newly accumulated tourist behavior literature (Jafari, 2001, 2007) by developing a new tailor-made measurement scale. This scale measures the complaining constraints related to tourists rather than to overall consumer behavior.

The study has answered research calls by first developing a new measurement scale - tourist complaining constraints - tailor-made to incorporate the unique features of the tourism industry; secondly, by investigating the relationships between TCC dimensions and justice perceptions, thirdly, by exploring how cultural background and magnitude of failure can moderate these relationships. By attempting these goals, the present research has contributed to theory building within tourism research.

To achieve these goals, the present research first reviewed consumer and tourist behavior literature in search of possible TCC factors. Results revealed that limited time, unfamiliarity, limited communication and limited involvement were promising constraining factors. Positive holiday mood emerged later from the research data as the fifth factor. In order to provide empirical support to the newly proposed TCC scale, it was evaluated, modified, tested and confirmed, through qualitative (in-depth interviews), and quantitative (questionnaires) research (Churchill, 1979; DeVellis, 2003; Netemeyer et al., 2003).

Taking into account the future volume of Chinese outbound tourism and its potential contribution to the world travel market (UNWTO, 2010c); it was of great significance to firstly understand the factors affecting Chinese tourists complaining behavior. Thereafter, it was necessary to explore what was expected from hoteliers in order to feel fairly treated, thus to remain loyal after a failure incident whereby their complaining behavior was hindered by restraints. Similarly, the United States has always been, and is predicted to be, one of the main tourist generating countries (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2010). For these reasons, the study of complaining behavior by Chinese and American tourists has positively contributed to and complemented tourism literature in general, but tourist behavior research in particular. Even though complaining behavior has been well researched within marketing literature (Day et al., 1981; Mitchell, & Critchlow, 1993; Zemke, 1993), it has had less attention within tourism research (Dolnicar et al., 2008; Ngai et al., 2007). Similar to the study of complaint constraints resulting in a better understanding of consumers' complaining behavior, an investigation into tourist complaining constraints would help understand tourist behavior in depth (Ekiz, & Au, 2009b).

In this study, cultural background (Hoppe, 1990) and magnitude of service failure (Kerr, 2004) were integrated into the proposed model as moderators of relationships between TCC, justice perceptions and loyalty intention (Blodgett, & Anderson, 2000; Singh, 1988). Because of the fact that culture has not been adequately explored by tourism researchers (Reisinger, & Turner 2003; Schoefer, & Ennew, 2004) the effects on consumer complaining behavior within tourism has not been fully understood (Becker, 2000; Dolnicar et al., 2008). Therefore, the present study attempted to fill this gap. Furthermore, given that not all service failures were equal in terms of their significance, tourism companies needed to consider the severity of failures in order to provide appropriate remedies (Hess et al., 2003; Zemke, & Bell, 2000). By investigating culture and magnitude of failure, this study attempted to enhance the understanding of the role played by the cultural background of tourists and the magnitude of failure incidents in the context of tourism.

Although a number of studies have investigated relationships between justice perceptions (e.g., interactional, procedural and distributive) and loyalty intention (Au et al., 2001; Blodgett et al., 1993; Gursoy et al., 2007; McCollough, 2000), there are comparatively fewer studies that have examined the effects of culture (Manrai, & Manrai, 1993; Tata et al., 2003) and magnitude of failure (Craighead et al., 2004; Kerr, 2004) upon these relationships. Moreover, by integrating tourist complaining constraints into the justice and loyalty intention model and investigating the moderating effects of culture and magnitude of failure, this study not only contributed to the understanding of tourist behavior in developing and verifying a comprehensive tourist complaining behavior model, but also expanded upon the knowledge base by identifying and testing these less-researched relationships.

6.5 Practical Implications

The growing awareness of consumerism and its consequences on consumer complaints have made it challenging for competing companies to acquire and retain a pool of loyal and profitable customers (Kotler et al., 2010). This challenge is more critical for companies within the tourism and hospitality industry, given that their services are mostly high-interaction and purely experience-based (McIntosh et al., 2006; Pizam, & Ellis, 1999). Schoefer and Ennew (2004) pointed out that to entirely eliminate service failures is impossible, especially in the tourism industry. However, what distinguishes the few successful companies in the industry from the rest, are their own efforts to listen to their customers, particularly their complaints (Andreassen, 2000; Ekiz, 2010; Jafari, & Way, 1994). Due to the characteristics of tourism services (e.g., inseparability, experience based, non-routine, human interaction intensive) by not paying attention to tourists complaints it may cause considerable losses, if not bankruptcy, in today's business environment (Lin, & Mattila, 2006; Litvin et al., 2004; Yuksel, & Yuksel, 2008). The ever increasing use of and reliance on the internet, makes disseminating negative word of mouth very easy for dissatisfied tourists, putting additional pressure on managers of tourism and hospitality establishments (Au et al., 2009a; Au, Law, & Buhalis, 2009b; Ekiz et al., 2011; Tripp, & Grégoire, 2011).

For these reasons, managers should be able to 'hear' tourist complaints. The best way to achieve this is by finding the factors that hinder tourists from raising complaints and those that minimize and possibly eliminate them (Barlow, & Moller, 1996; Ekiz, 2010; Mattila, & Patterson, 2004b). This study has assisted managers within the tourism industry by developing a tailor-made instrument to measure factors that constrain tourist complaining. They have access to the newly developed TCC scale and are able to collect relevant data from their current and/or target customers. Once data is analyzed, results will give an indication as to how their customers perceived the five factors of the TCC scale as a constraint, in particular which one(s) will be perceived as the most significant, and how these constraints link post-purchase behavior.

When a service fails to meet expectations, the customer will wait for the company to treat them fairly, followed by established procedures and the provision of just redress (Berry et al., 1994; Davidow, 2003b; Yoda, & Kamakura, 2007). These expectations are known as interactional, procedural and distributive justice perceptions. The antecedents and consequences of these justice perceptions are in fact, well-studied in consumer behavior literature (e.g., Blodgett, & Anderson, 2000; Cropanzano et al., 2002; Oliver, & Swan, 1989; Tyler, 1994). Prehar and Chen (2002) and Gursoy et al. (2007) emphasized that the understanding of customers' justice perceptions are particularly important in the context of tourism services. If companies recover from their failed services effectively they strengthen the existing relationships with their customers, increase their customers' trust, prevent negative word-of-mouth, and increase their customers' repatronage (Blodgett et al., 1997; Ekiz et al., 2008; Sparks, & Browning, 2011; Tax et al., 1998). In order to see how tourist and hospitality establishments may achieve these advantages, the present research investigated the five dimensions of tourist complaining constraints, namely; limited time, unfamiliarity, limited communication, limited involvement and positive holiday mood, as antecedents of justice perceptions and justice perceptions as antecedents of loyalty intention. Implications of results obtained from this investigation are given in the following sections.

Overall, the results of this research were consistent with findings of previous studies. They suggested that it is crucial for companies in the tourism industry to learn the factors that prevent tourists from voicing their complaints (Altinay, 1994; Chang et al., 2011). By getting to know these constraining factors, companies can encourage dissatisfied tourists to voice their concerns, which in turn can help them receive more complaints and enhance customers' satisfaction and loyalty intention. Only then, can tourism companies grasp the competitive edge they vie. To this end, the present research developed a measurement scale - TCC, specifically designed to fit the characteristics of the industry and its customers, tourists. The TCC scale has five dimensions. These dimensions were tested and found statistically valid and reliable. From these results, specific practical implications of each TCC dimension are explained in the following paragraphs.

Consistent with relevant literature, having limited time was one of the important factors that affected complaining behavior (Liao, 2007; Swanson, & Kelly, 2001). An analysis of pooled data (the main data composed of 1,822 observations) showed that limited time perceived as a significant constraint on complaining behavior. Hotel guests having problems but not much time to solve them, did not want to be treated differently or any less importantly than those staying longer or having ample time in which to wait for the hotel to deliver recovery action. Tourists, perceiving limited time as a significant constraint on their complaining behavior, tended to be more demanding in receiving fair interaction with the hotel representative. Interactional justice perception was significant, not only within pooled data but also across six subsamples (HM, LM, CH, CL, AH and AL). This finding suggested that by already being in a restrained condition (having limited time), makes respondents sensitive, regardless of the magnitude of failure or cultural background. This finding further highlighted the importance of interactional justice on service recovery efforts (Davidow, 2003b; Mattila, & Patterson, 2004b). It suggests that hotel managers should pay extra attention in completing guests contact details with employees who possess good interpersonal skills (Barlow, & Moller, 1996; Luria et al., 2009). More specifically, results at item level showed that if respondents perceived the explanation of their complaint would take excessive time, they preferred not to complain. Managers should work on changing this perception by training their frontline employees to pinpoint guests having problems, but with limited time to raise their complaints. Guests staying at a hotel for a limited time should particularly be approached, being asked about their experiences as a hotel guest. In the same vein, breakdown of the relationship between limited time and remaining justice perceptions suggested that when tourists evaluated the recovery effort in a time-limited situation, they tended to expect the hotel to provide a ‘by the book’ recovery involving fair redress. Given that guests with limited time may simply walk-away with their problems unresolved, hoteliers should have a well-established service recovery system that does not requires extensive paperwork while enabling a just solution. Moreover, managers should provide friendly and fair compensation while avoiding lengthy procedures.

Data results supported the hypothesized relationships and indicated that limited familiarity perceived as a constraint. The more respondents were unfamiliar with their setting, the higher their justice expectations were in terms of followed procedures. In other words, tourists expect a completely fair recovery, particularly when they have limited venue knowledge, regardless of their cultural background and/or magnitude of failure experienced. Results from Chinese and American respondents indicated the following: (i) they would feel safer to express their complaints if they feel familiar with their venue, (ii) they would complain, if they knew how their complaint would be handled; and (iii) they would be more confident in conveying an unsatisfactory experience if there was a clear set of guidelines on how to do so. In light of these findings, hoteliers should establish appropriate complaint mechanisms, systems, and/or procedures (Blodgett et al., 1993; Smith, & Karwan, 2010) and should inform their guests as to how this system worked in providing them an efficient and effective solution to their problem (Ekiz, 2009). Hoteliers should develop procedures to ensure the following questions were answered: where/how to complain, in what form, when to expect redress and what rights guests' have (Colquitt, 2001, Mattila, & Cranage, 2005). Managers should not forget that by not having answers to these questions affects tourists' complaining behavior, by creating a barrier to either the voicing of their complaints or the way they channel their dissatisfaction (Voorhees et al., 2006).

When the subsamples were analyzed, results revealed that the relationship between unfamiliarity and the remaining justice dimensions received partial support. When the loss of tourists is significant within a failure incident, they demanded an all-around fair solution that includes smooth interaction with the hotel representative, follow up of the related procedures and a fair redress provided by the company. However, their expectations were comparatively lower in the low magnitude failure incidences. This result suggested that hotel managers not only need a recovery system but should also ensure the system is flexible enough to accommodate differences in severity of the initial failure (Goodwin, & Ross, 1989). When guests feel unfamiliar within their setting, it is always a good idea to go the extra mile to make them feel treated fairly. As for the effect of cultural background, results indicated differences between Chinese and American responses. In particular, the Chinese respondents perceived unfamiliarity to be a relatively more severe constraint than Americans. This finding suggested that managers should spend additional effort in familiarizing Chinese guests with their establishments and guest relations system if they wish to hear from them.

Results of the analyses revealed that respondents perceived limited communication to be a significant constraint. The findings suggested that the more respondents perceived communication as a barrier, the more they expected fair recovery through smooth interaction, regardless of cultural differences and/or severity of the failure. More specifically, respondents suggested that (i) they found it frustrating when hotel employees could not understand them whilst complaining (ii) they would feel more confident in expressing problems if the hotel employee could speak their language, and (iii) they would expect excellent communication skills during the complaint handling process. These results, consistent with findings within relevant literature, underlined the necessity and importance of healthy communication in a service encounter (Garrett et al., 1991; Kim, & Gudykunst, 1988). These findings suggested that managers should not only hire employees with necessary language skills but also invest in training their existing employees in communication skills, particularly in handling complaints. At a very basic level, this finding suggested that managers of hotels targeting Chinese and American tourists should hire employees who can speak Mandarin and English. By doing so, hoteliers may achieve the voice of unhappy guests more willing to complain before they check out and leave that establishment for good.

Moreover, the findings indicated that the relationship between limited communication and interactional justice was not only the most significant within the pooled data but also the only significant relationship common in all six subsamples. In light of this result, it is safe to suggest that managers should pay utmost attention in providing fair interaction, particularly in incidents whereby communication between employee and guest appear limited. This finding suggested that employees primarily involved in guest contact should be courteous, sincere and show real care for their guests who are experiencing communication problems (Bell, & Ridge, 1992; Berger, 2007). A comparison of the results of high and low magnitude failure revealed significant differences. All relationships were supported in the high magnitude failure subsample whereas only interactional justice was supported within low magnitude failure data. This result suggested that magnitude of failure created a difference within tourist perceptions with limited communication perceived as a more severe constraint when the failure causes more loss. This suggested that hoteliers should pay extra attention in providing a problem free communication while recovering their previous failure (Ekiz, 2010). The results also revealed that Chinese tourists worry more about communication problems than their American counterparts. This result contradicts the well-known characteristic of Chinese people being non-complainers due to the 'face issue', the need to respect authority figures, or their desire of harmony in life, including avoiding conflict with others (Hofstede, & Hofstede, 2005). This finding, a warning to hoteliers, suggested that Chinese tourists not only expected just interaction with the hotel representative but also ultimately demanded a fair fix, especially when there is limited communication between hoteliers and Chinese guests.

Overall, results supported the hypothesized relationships with pooled data and provided partial support with subsamples. More specifically, limited involvement was perceived as a constraint on tourists' complaining behavior. The more tourists perceived limited involvement as a constraint, the higher their procedural justice expectations become. In other words, having limited involvement in the planning of holidays does not necessarily make tourists less demanding in asking for fair compensation. On the contrary, they demand personalized recovery actions from the hotel as well as a properly handled fair settlement. This is coherent with previous research (Alice et al., 2011; Havitz, & Dimanche, 1999; Josiam et al., 2005) that suggested managers should be ready to handle failures not only for their highly involved customers but also for low involved tourists. Previous studies suggested that the more consumers spend effort in planning the more they complain (Cai et al., 2004; Josiam et al., 2005). Consistent with these findings, this study presented limited involvement as a constraint within tourists complaining behavior. In this sense, hoteliers should spend more effort in receiving complaints from tourists traveling with tour companies - as most package holidays contain travel, accommodation and combined related services, requiring comparatively less involvement (McIntosh et al., 2006). A breakdown of this result, by considering the magnitude of failure, showed significant differences between high and low magnitude failures. When the service failure was severe and tourist involvement was low, the tourists still demanded that the hotel provide a completely fair recovery, smooth interaction, fair procedures and just redress (Maute, & Forrester, 1993; Maxham III, & Netemeyer, 2002). However, in the case of low magnitude failures, results indicated that only interactional justice was significant. This finding suggested that the solution to comparatively less severe failures should simply be courteous, considerate and friendly interaction with hotel employees. When cultural differences are taken into account, hoteliers should pay extra attention to American tourists as their expectations were higher than their Chinese counterparts, particularly after a high magnitude failure. These differences could be explained by a well-established consumer rights movement in America backed by governmental policies and legal practices protecting consumers at different levels (Manrai, & Manrai, 1993; Senguder, 2000). For this reason, managers should be extra careful when serving American guests.

A careful review of the results showed that a positive holiday mood was perceived as a constraining factor by respondents. Moreover, the relationship between positive holiday mood and justice perceptions was significant. By and large, these results suggested that the more hotel guests saw being in a positive holiday mood a constraint, the more they demanded interactive and personal recovery actions from the hotel regardless of the magnitude of failure and/or cultural orientation. Given that the link between positive holiday mood and interactional justice was supported within the pooled data as well as six investigated subsamples, it would not be wrong to recommend that managers focus their efforts on providing flawless and courteous interaction during the recovery process, even if their guests appear in a good mood. Results indicated that, although tourists were in a positive and forgiving psychological mood, they still demanded chivalrous interaction as well as expecting a smooth and effective recovery system to be in place (Chebat, & Slusarczyk, 2005; Ekiz, 2009). As mentioned earlier, complaints should be considered as gifts (Barlow, & Moller, 1996), valuable feedback that showed areas in need of improvement in the provision of services. Hotel managers should thus be concerned when they receive only few or no guest complaints at all; they should try to find ways (e.g., distributing well-designed surveys, conducting focus groups and/or engaging small talk) to get more feedback (Pearce, & Moscardo, 1984; Tata et al., 2003). Although the coefficient scores produced from high and low magnitude failure data were slightly different, the results of hypothesized relationships were the same, thus providing consistent effects. These effects indicated that the severity of the failure does not play a very significant role when tourists are in a positive holiday mood. This finding should be interpreted in that hoteliers, who primarily serve leisure tourists, should not be very happy to receive few complaints and should not discard those they have by thinking their guests will settle for something less than a very rehearsed and delivered recovery. As for the effect on cultural background, comparisons of results from Chinese and American respondents indicated significant differences within the analyzed relationships. More specifically, when the failure is severe, American respondents demanded a completely just service recovery (interaction, procedure and outcome wise) whereas Chinese respondents were not so demanding when they were in positive holiday mood. These findings could be explained in the importance given to being harmonious and positive in social dealings with Chinese people (Mok, & DeFranco, 1999; Roy et al., 2001). The remaining subsamples did not show consistency, thus hypotheses were partially supported. This result suggested that hotel representatives, particularly in a severe failure situation, should not only follow the appropriate procedures while fixing their problems, but should also be extra courteous. These results showed that receiving fair compensation was particularly important for American tourists, even if they were in a positive holiday mood.

Results of the analyses also showed that the relationships between types of justice perceptions and loyalty intention were statistically significant, virtually in all data sets. This finding indicated that when faced with a service failure, respondents expected a fair recovery in terms of outcome, procedure and interaction, regardless of their cultural background and/or the severity of the problem they faced. Only then do they remain loyal to the hotel (Severt, 2002). This result is coherent with CCB and tourism literature that highlighted the importance of justice perceptions (Casado-Diaz et al., 2007; Goodman, 2006; Gursoy et al., 2007; Jones, & Farquhar, 2007; Schoefer, & Ennew, 2005). Furthermore, the link between distributive justice and loyalty intention was the strongest in all investigated subsamples, apart from Chinese low magnitude failure situations. This result was consistent with Tax et al. (1998) and Teo and Lim (2001) and indicated that hotel guests anticipated fair compensation of what had been lost during the service failure. For this reason, hotel managers should ascertain that what was lost or damaged during the initial service failure must be replaced, in a polite, friendly manner without failing to follow established procedures. Only then, should they expect a pool of satisfied and loyal guests.

6.6 Summary

In this chapter, research findings were discussed and linked to findings from previous studies. Firstly, the development and measurement of tourist complaining constraints were discussed. Secondly, the dimensions of TCC developed by the study were presented within the broad field of consumer behavior and tourist behavior research. Both consistencies and discrepancies between findings of this study and those of prior studies were noted. Thirdly, structural relations identified within the final structural model across the different data sets were discussed sequentially, each with a brief review of previous studies on the same issue. Fourth, the effects of culture and magnitude of failure within the structural model were discussed and elaborated on, by considering the findings from culture and service failure literature. Fifth, theoretical contributions of the study toward tourism research were addressed. This was followed by the practical implications derived from the study and specific recommendations relevant to the management of tourist complaints.

CHAPTER 7. CONCLUSIONS

This chapter concludes this thesis. It firstly provides an overview of the research study, followed by a recapitulation of major findings. Study objectives, thereafter examined, ensured they were achieved. The final section identifies limitations of the present study and makes recommendations for future research.

7.1 Overview of the Study

In today's highly competitive business environment, receiving complaints is crucially important for companies within the tourism and hospitality industry (Pearce, 2005). Nonetheless, the majority of unsatisfied tourists just walks away without voicing their grievances and never come back (Cohen, 2004; Gursoy et al., 2007). To prevent this from happening, it is imperative that managers in the tourism industry understand the factors that discourage tourists from complaining, that is, the factors that constrain them from voicing their complaints (Ekiz, & Au, 2009a). In that perspective, the present study aimed to develop a new measurement scale, this being a tourist complaining constraint, tailor-made to incorporate the unique features of the tourism industry. Secondly, it proceeded to examine relationships between the TCC factors and justice perceptions and thirdly, to determine how cultural background and magnitude of failure moderate these relationships. To accomplish these aims, relevant literature was reviewed covering consumer complaining behavior and tourist behavior.

The literature review revealed that most studies had directly applied general consumer behavior theories without considering characteristics of the tourism industry (Hudson & Ritchie, 2001). Specifically, tourism not only presents the characteristics of services in general (Zeithaml et al., 2006) but also demonstrates unique features that differentiate tourism services from the rest (Kotler et al., 2010). However, research also showed that researchers did not consider tourist behavior to be different from consumer behavior in general (Pizam, & Sussmann, 1995), complaining behavior in particular (Ekiz, & Au, 2009a). In addition, tourism literature is lacking in comprehensive information regarding tourist complaining (Reisinger, & Turner, 2003) and pales because there is no scale to measure the constraining factors. However, the intention of this thesis was to investigate how these constraining factors were perceived (Zemke, & Bell, 2000) and how tourists link them to particular justice perceptions (Blodgett, & Tax, 1993). Therefore, the intention of the research outcomes was to provide invaluable implications to both academia and industry.

Justice perceptions received considerable attention within consumer behavior literature (Casado-Diaz et al., 2007; Harris, 2003). The importance of justice perceptions in the evaluation of a company's recovery efforts is well-established (Boshoff, 1999; Gursoy et al., 2007; McCollough, & Bharadwaj, 1992). It is noted that a fair recovery can turn dissatisfied customers into satisfied and loyal ones (Smith & Bolton, 1998). Through learning more about the justice perceptions of their customers, companies would be able to provide a more effective service recovery that aims to turn them into loyal customers (Bell, & Zemke, 1987). Consequently, this thesis investigated the justice perceptions of tourists and the possible relationships between these perceptions and the factors that constrain their complaining behavior.

This research considered cultural background (Hofstede, 2001) and magnitude of service failure (Kerr, 2004) as important factors affecting tourist complaining. Being consistent with other relevant literature, it proposed these factors as having a moderating role on the relationships between TCC, justice perceptions and loyalty intention (Day et al., 1981; Gilly, & Hansen, 1992). Yet, culture has not been adequately explored by tourism researchers (Reisinger, & Turner 2003; Schoefer, & Ennew, 2004). The effect it has upon consumer complaining behavior in general and within the tourism industry in particular, has seen rather limited investigation (Becker, 2000; Dolnicar et al., 2008; Mattila, 1999). The findings of this thesis will therefore be important in terms of not only its academic purport, but also to industry members who target Chinese and American tourist markets.

The thesis investigated possible effects of magnitude of service failure on TCC, justice perceptions and loyalty intention. Considering the fact that not all service failures are equal in terms of their significance, tourism companies in particular, need to consider the severity of the inconvenience and magnitude of loss caused by these failures, in order to provide appropriate remedies (Zemke, & Bell, 2000). Magnitude of failure is associated with the extent of loss to customers and directly affects the customers' outcomes (Hess et al., 2003). Based on extensive literature reviews, a structural model was proposed, illustrating interrelationships between constructs. The model hypothesized five dimensions of TCC (limited time, unfamiliarity, limited communication, limited involvement and positive holiday mood) in having negative relationships with three levels of justice perceptions (interactional, procedural and distributive). Thereafter, justice perceptions were hypothesized, being seen to have a positive effect on loyalty intention. Finally, this study utilized the magnitude of service failure and cultural background as moderating constructs to uncover their effects, if any, on the relationships between TCC and justice perceptions and justice perceptions and loyalty intention.

7.2 Recapitulation of Findings

This study developed a new measurement scale, namely Tourist Complaining Constraints (TCC), tailor-made to incorporate unique features of the tourism industry and its' participants. Five factors of the TCC scale, identified by EFA and confirmed by CFA, were statistically valid and reliable (Tabachnick, & Fidell, 2006). The important study findings, are summarized in the following paragraphs.

Having limited time was one of the important factors affecting complaining behavior. Time, is perceived as a constraint on respondents' complaining behavior. Tourists who perceive time as a significant constraint on their complaining behavior tended to be more demanding in receiving fair interaction with the hotel representative. Interactional justice perception was the most significant justice perception. This suggested that an already restrained condition (having limited time) renders tourist sensitivity regardless of the magnitude of failure or cultural background. This finding suggested that hotel managers should pay extra attention in completing their guests contact details with employees who possess good interpersonal skills.

The results indicated that limited familiarity perceived as a constraint. The more respondents perceived unfamiliarity as a constraint on their complaining the higher their justice expectations were in terms of followed procedures. In other words, tourists expected a completely fair 'by-the-book' recovery, particularly when they had limited knowledge of their setting, regardless of their cultural background and/or magnitude of failure situation. Consequently, hoteliers should establish appropriate complaint mechanisms, systems, and/or procedures. An awareness of guests' lack of familiarity should encourage hoteliers to produce procedures to ensure the following questions are answered: where/how to complain? In what form should the complaint be expressed? When to expect redress? Moreover, what rights do guests have? Managers should not forget that by not having answers to these questions affects the complaining behavior of tourists by creating a barrier, either to the launch of a complaint or the way they channel their dissatisfaction. Chinese respondents perceived the lack of familiarity to be a relatively more severe constraint than of Americans.

The results of the analyses revealed that respondents perceived limited communication to be a significant barrier to the complaining behavior of tourists. These findings suggested that the more respondents perceived limited communication to be a constraint, the more they expected fair recovery through smooth interaction, regardless of cultural differences and/or severity of the failure. It suggested that managers should not only hire employees with necessary language skills, but invest in training existing employees in communication skills too. The results also revealed that Chinese tourists worry more about communication problems than their American counterparts. This contradicts the well-known characteristics of Chinese people as being non-complainers due to the 'face issue' and the need to respect authority figures, their desire of harmony in life, including the avoidance of conflict with others (Hofstede, & Hofstede, 2005). This must be considered to be a warning to hoteliers, in that it suggests that Chinese tourists not only expect just interaction with the hotel representative but they also ultimately demand a fair fix.

Overall, the results indicated that limited involvement perceived as a constraint on the complaining behavior of tourists. The more tourists perceived limited involvement as a constraint, the higher their procedural justice expectations were. In other words, having limited involvement in the planning of holidays does not necessarily make tourists less demanding in asking for fair compensation. On the contrary, they demand more personal recovery actions from the hotel as well as a properly handled and fair settlement. When the service failure is severe and tourist involvement is limited, tourists still demand that the hotel provide a completely fair recovery, smooth interaction, fair procedures and just redress. When cultural differences are taken into account, hoteliers should pay extra attention to American tourists as their expectations are higher than their Chinese counterparts, particularly after a high magnitude failure.

A careful review of the results showed a positive holiday mood to be perceived as a constraining factor by respondents. This result revealed that the more hotel guests saw being in a positive holiday mood a constraint, the more they demanded interactive and personal recovery actions from the hotel, regardless of the magnitude of failure and/or cultural orientation. Given that the link between positive holiday mood and interactional justice was supported within pooled data, also the six investigated subsamples, it would not be wrong to recommend that managers focus their efforts on providing flawless and courteous interaction during the recovery process. Severity of the failure does not play a very significant role when tourists are in a positive holiday mood. These results showed that receiving fair compensation is important particularly for American tourists, even if they are in a positive holiday mood.

Results of the analyses also showed that relationships between types of justice perceptions and loyalty intention were statistically significant in virtually all data sets. This is an indication that when faced with service failure, respondents expected a fair recovery in terms of outcome, procedure and interaction, regardless of cultural background and/or severity of the problem they faced. Only then were they likely to remain loyal to the hotel. Furthermore, the link between distributive justice and loyalty intention was the strongest in all investigated subsamples apart from the Chinese low magnitude failure situations. For this reason, hotel managers should ascertain that what has been lost or damaged during the initial service failure must be replaced with similar or higher values.

7.3 Achievement of Research Objectives

As outlined in Chapter 1, five research objectives were established for study. This section revisits the research objectives to ensure they have been achieved by highlighting them against the research findings.

The first objective was to develop a tailor-made scale to identify and measure the constraining factors on tourists' complaining. Through a rigorous scale development procedure, this thesis identified five constraining factors on tourists' complaints. These constraints are as follows: limited time, unfamiliarity, limited communication, limited involvement and positive holiday mood. The first objective was thus achieved.

The second objective was to prove how tourist complaining constraints, affected justice perceptions. Overall, the results of path analyses indicated negative relationships between

TCC dimensions and justice perceptions as hypothesized. The second objective was also thus achieved.

The third objective was to investigate how tourists' justice perceptions affect their loyalty intention. Results of the analyses pointed to the existence of positive and statistically significant relationships between types of justice perceptions and loyalty intention. Consequently, the third objective was achieved.

The fourth objective was to probe as to what extent the cultural backgrounds of tourists' moderated relationships between tourist complaining constraints, justice perceptions and loyalty to the organization. Culture was a significant moderator on the relationships investigated. The fourth objective was therefore achieved.

Finally, the fifth objective was to explore as to what extent the magnitude of failure-moderated relationships between tourist complaining constraints, justice perceptions and loyalty to the organization. In light of these results, it is safe to say that the severity of initial service failure is an important factor in shaping recovery expectations. Accordingly, the last objective was achieved.

In conclusion, all questions associated with the research objectives were satisfactorily answered and objectives were thus fully achieved.

7.4 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Although the methodology and research steps used in this thesis were found to strongly support consumer behavior studies (Fornell, & Westbrook, 1979; Hess et al., 2003) and tourism literature (Fu, & Mount, 2007; Heung, & Lam, 2003; O'Neill, & Mattila, 2004) the findings should be interpreted in light of following limitations. Methodology used to manage empirical research may have inherent limitations. A first limitation is the use of failure scenarios having high or low magnitude, in an attempt to create possible positive and/or negative reactions to failure situations. Although this methodology is frequently used and advocated by several scholars (Mattila, & Cranage, 2005; Maxham III, 2001; Swanson, & Kelly, 2001) actual tourist failure may create stronger emotional and behavioral reactions (Swanson, & Kelly, 2001). Use of scenarios was a decision of trade-off among external validity, realistic and internal validity, minimized memory-bias and convenience. More particularly, when faced with limited research funding and time, using scenarios was the most logical choice for this research. Future studies can consider using critical incident technique (Chung, & Hoffman, 1998) or review failure reports (Oliver, 1987) as alternative methods.

The second limitation could be the selection of students as target respondents. It is common practice to use student samples, university students in general (Goodwin, & Ross, 1992; O'Neill, & Mattila, 2004; Smith, & Bolton, 2002) and post-graduate students in particular (Becker et al., 1999; Kanousi, 2005; Leong, & Kim, 2002). However, some scholars criticize this by arguing that students may not have the experience, purchasing power or real intention to purchase the service/product in question (Bitner et al., 1994; Chung, & Hoffman, 1998). Opposing groups of researchers, stress the advantages of this methodology, which include: reasonable representation of the general buying public

(Bodey & Grace, 2006); maintaining equivalence on key demographic variables of age, educational status and occupational pursuit, which are critical to buying behavior (Malhotra, & McCort, 2001); and increase sample equivalence, which is one of the most critical issues in cross-cultural research (Green et al., 2005). Post-graduate students tend to be older, more experienced and economically independent (Becker et al., 1999), thus closer to non-student consumer characteristics. For these reasons, post-graduate students were chosen as respondents from China and America. However, to increase the generalization of future findings, studies could target actual tourists who are currently on holiday or at ports of exit after their holiday, for data collection.

A third limitation could be the use of a non-probabilistic sampling technique (Schoemaker, 1993), namely judgmental sampling (Judd et al., 1991). When both the challenges of (i) giving equal chances of selection to targeted populations of both Chinese and Americans, and (ii) limitations of the research - time and resources - were considered, the current research utilized non-probability sampling (Sekaran, 1992). It may be very challenging to obtain a probabilistic sample in such geographically vast countries, but it is not impossible. To increase confidence in collected data, future studies could consider one of the probabilistic sampling techniques for data collection.

A fourth limitation could be that, even though this research did not actually intend to measure culture, it has nevertheless tried to justify some of its findings by using Hofstede's culture framework. This is common practice in cross-cultural research whereby the measurement of national culture, as Hofstede did, was impractical (Hoppe, 1990), redundant (Litvin et al., 2004) and very difficult (McSweeney, 2002). For this reason, although a handful of researchers modified Hofstede's dimensions to reveal the individual level of culture differences (Furrer et al., 2000; Kanousi, 2005; Kim, & McKercher, 2011), the author himself cautioned that his dimensions were nation wise, macro indications rather than individual wise, micro characters (Hofstede, & Hofstede, 2005). Moreover, these researchers failed to replicate all five of Hofstede's (1980) dimensions. For instance, Kanousi (2005) found only three culture dimensions (IDV, MAS and LTO) associated with service recovery. Nevertheless, if future studies could measure Hofstede's (2001) five dimensions to associate them to the TCC constructs, the results would be very valuable in detailing which cultural characteristics affect which relationship, and in what way.

The fifth limitation lies in the SEM methodology. "SEM assumes free correlations between all exogenous variables in a structural model...[and]...it cannot test the directional relationship between each pair of exogenous variables even if causal relationships exist among them" (Huang, 2007, p. 280). Furthermore, there is much debate going on within relevant literature, regarding inconsistencies of cut-off values (Hayduk, 1996; Schermelleh-Engel, & Moosbrugger, 2003) and the undeveloped nature of SEM applications (Anderson, & Gerbing, 1988; Kaplan, 2000). Moreover, the improper use of SEM across various disciplines has decreased the credibility of its usage.

Final limitation could be that of the limited communication construct, which regards the language capabilities of locals in hosting countries as a potential source of constraint. Although this may not be the case, there are a few countries for each language (Canada and Taiwan), yet given the UNWTO's (2010c) predictions of an increasing number of long-haul travelers traveling to culturally and linguistically different destinations, this research assumed that tourists do travel to destinations where limited communication might be a barrier. Future researchers should therefore consider focusing their efforts on respondents who travel and/or are traveling to, areas where other languages may be spoken. Although the present study used a hospitality setting for the scenario development, given the flexibility of TCC scale, future research could modify the failure scenario to make it fit another setting of the tourism industry. In fact, researchers are highly encouraged to test the applicability of the TCC to other sectors.

7.5 Concluding Remarks

In today's competitive business environment, no one has the comfort of disregarding customer complaints. In fact, hearing from unhappy customers should be treated as receiving a gift (Barlow, & Moller, 1996) as they are opportunities for any company to correct their mistakes and prevent future customer dissatisfaction (Yi, 1990). In this sense, receiving complaints is fundamentally essential for companies within the tourism and hospitality industry (Au et al., 2009a). In particular, considering the fact that only a few unsatisfied customers go through the process of complaining, companies should spend an increasing amount of effort to hear from their customers (Kotler et al., 2010). However, the majority of dissatisfied tourists are ready to just walk away and never come back (Cohen, 2004). To prevent this from happening, it is imperative that managers understand factors that discourage tourists from complaining, that is, the factors that constrain them from voicing their complaints (Zemke, & Anderson, 2007).

This study is imperative, not only because it creates knowledge and contributes to theory development in the field of tourism, but because it provides implications to both academia and industry in many respects. Several scholars argued that there are only limited numbers of theories exclusive to tourist behavior (Jafari, 2001; Kim, & McKercher, 2011) and are continuously calling for more research effort (Huang, 2007), appealing for more theoretical improvements in tourism research (Pearce, 2004, 2005) and urging the need for more tourist behavior studies (Yuksel et al., 2006). The present research must be seen as a response to these calls as it develops a tailor-made tourist complaining scale that contributes to the expansion of knowledge regarding tourist behavior.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Countries' Cultural Dimensions Scores

	PDI	IDV	MAS	UAI	LTO
Arab World **	80	38	52	68	-
Argentina	49	46	56	86	-
Australia	36	90	61	51	31
Austria	11	55	79	70	-
Bangladesh *	80	20	55	60	40
Belgium	65	75	54	94	-
Brazil	69	38	49	76	65
Bulgaria *	70	30	40	85	-
Canada	39	80	52	48	23
Chile	63	23	28	86	-
China *	80	20	66	30	118
Colombia	67	13	64	80	-
Costa Rica	35	15	21	86	-
Czech Republic *	57	58	57	74	13
Denmark	18	74	16	23	-
East Africa **	64	27	41	52	25
Ecuador	78	8	63	67	-
El Salvador	66	19	40	94	-
Estonia *	40	60	30	60	-
Finland	33	63	26	59	-
France	68	71	43	86	-
Germany	35	67	66	65	31
Greece	60	35	57	112	-
Guatemala	95	6	37	101	-
Hong Kong	68	25	57	29	96
Hungary *	46	80	88	82	50
India	77	48	56	40	61
Indonesia	78	14	46	48	-
Iran	58	41	43	59	-
Ireland	28	70	68	35	-
Israel	13	54	47	81	-
Italy	50	76	70	75	-
Jamaica	45	39	68	13	-
Japan	54	46	95	92	80
Luxembourg *	40	60	50	70	-
Malaysia	104	26	50	36	-
Malta *	56	59	47	96	-
Mexico	81	30	69	82	-
Morocco *	70	46	53	68	-
Netherlands	38	80	14	53	44
New Zealand	22	79	58	49	30
Norway	31	69	8	50	20
Pakistan	55	14	50	70	0
Panama	95	11	44	86	-

Peru	64	16	42	87	-
Philippines	94	32	64	44	19
Poland *	68	60	64	93	32
Portugal	63	27	31	104	-
Romania *	90	30	42	90	-
Russia *	93	39	36	95	-
Singapore	74	20	48	8	48
Slovakia *	104	52	110	51	38
South Africa	49	65	63	49	-
South Korea	60	18	39	85	75
Spain	57	51	42	86	-
Surinam *	85	47	37	92	-
Sweden	31	71	5	29	33
Switzerland	34	68	70	58	-
Taiwan	58	17	45	69	87
Thailand	64	20	34	64	56
Trinidad *	47	16	58	55	-
Turkey	66	37	45	85	-
United Kingdom	35	89	66	35	25
United States	40	91	62	46	29
Uruguay	61	36	38	100	-
Venezuela	81	12	73	76	-
Vietnam *	70	20	40	30	80
West Africa	77	20	46	54	16

Source: http://www.geert-hofstede.com/hofstede_dimensions.php, November 27, 2010
Notes: PDI = Power Distance Index, IDV = Individualism, MAS = Masculinity, UAI = Uncertainty Avoidance Index, LTO = Long-Term Orientation.
* Estimated values
** Regional estimated values: 'Arab World' = Egypt, Iraq, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, 'East Africa' = Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania, Zambia, 'West Africa' = Ghana, Nigeria, Sierra Leone

Appendix 2: In-Depth Interview Questions

General:

- How often do you travel?
- Do you prefer to travel long (overseas) or short (domestic) distances?
- Did you encounter any service failure/problem(s) during your vacation?
    - Can you recall the incident(s)?
- How would you describe your tolerance level of these types of service issues whilst on vacation?
- If you had a problem during your vacation, did you seek to remediate/solve the problem?
    - How did you express your dissatisfaction?
    - Did you make an official complaint? Why / why not?

Limited Time:

- Do you think complaining takes a long time?
- Would you consider filing a complaint if you had adequate time to do so?
- Would a limited stay affect your decision to file a complaint?
    - Even if you have limited time, do you choose to complain to the service provider about your dissatisfying experience?
- Would filing a complaint disrupt your vacation?
- Do you think filing a complaint takes a long time?
- Have you been in a situation where you were dissatisfied with a service but did not want to complain simply because you did not have enough time in your itinerary to do so?
- Do you agree that taking time to complain will affect your travel plans? How?

Limited Involvement:

- Do you agree/disagree that travelling requires a great deal of involvement (time/money/effort)?
- How do you think this involvement would affect complaining behavior when encountering a service failure?
- Do you think tourists would complain more if they had more to do with the travel arrangements?
- What level of involvement do you have when making travel arrangements?
- If your level of involvement is high, are you more apt to complain? Why?
- Have you been in a situation where you were dissatisfied with a service but did not want to complain simply because you did not feel highly involved? - (time/money/effort)?

Limited Communication:

- Do you agree that tourists prefer destinations where they can communicate with local people?
- What role do you think communication plays in expressing your experience?
- As a tourist, how do you feel about visiting a place where you cannot speak the local language? Why?

- As a tourist have you ever been dissatisfied with a service but did not want to complain because you could not speak the language of the service provider?
- Do you agree that being able to communicate dissatisfaction affects ones complaining behavior? How?
- Do you feel more confident in expressing concerns if the employee at your destination can speak your language?
    - Increase your intention to complain, you are more motivated to voice your complaints.
    - Decrease you intention to complain, you are more tolerant towards service failures thus complain less.

Unfamiliarity:
- Do you agree that tourists prefer traveling to destinations where they are familiar?
- What role does familiarity play in choosing a destination?
    - Is familiarity a small or a big concern?
- Do you think that tourists would act differently when they face a problem during their vacation in an unfamiliar destination?
- As a tourist, do you feel more comfortable to visit the places you know more about or are familiar with? Why?
- As a tourist are you more or less likely to complain if you are having your vacation in an unfamiliar destination?
- Do you think that if a tourist is familiar with the place s/he is visiting, this makes her/him more confident in expressing satisfaction or dissatisfaction?
- As a tourist have you ever been dissatisfied with a service but did not want to complain because you were not familiar with the destination you visited?
- As a tourist, do you feel that a lack of knowledge about local policies or procedures concerning your complaint, makes complaining difficult?

General:
- Do you think factors like time, involvement, communication and familiarity are relevant constraints that may/might affect your complaining process?
- Apart from those mentioned above, what other factors may affect your complaining behavior when faced with a problem during your holiday?

Appendix 3: Failure Scenario Used in Data Collection

Failure Scenario: Please read the following scenario and imagine yourself being in the following situation.

Your friends and you have decided to travel to an exotic destination for a well-deserved summer vacation. After considering all available alternatives, you decide to book your stay at a nice hotel. After a long and exhausting flight, the taxi finally arrives at the hotel; you are all ready to check-in to your cozy rooms where you will be staying for the next few days. Upon entering the hotel registration area, you notice that there is only one receptionist at the hotel front desk. Your friends are able to successfully check into their rooms, but the receptionist discovers a problem with your room assignment. The receptionist explains that due to maintenance issues there will be a delay of **(four hours or more) OR (twenty minutes)** before your room is ready. You are not happy about this, so you ask to speak with the manager to complain about the situation. A few minutes later, the manager arrives and after hearing your complaint, offers his/her sincere apology. S/he explains that there are no other vacant rooms immediately available, apologizes again for the inconvenience and offers you a 10 percent discount on your room rate as well as a free drink pass in the lobby bar.

失败场景：请阅读下面的场景并想象您自己在这个场景中

今年暑假，您与朋友决定前往一个具有异国情调的地点旅行；精心策划决定饭店后，你与朋友飞往目的地；在考虑所有条件之后，您选择一间豪华旅馆做为此次旅途的休息站。在经过长时间疲劳的飞行之后，您终于抵达饭店，预备办理入住手续。在饭店柜台前，您注意到只有一位服务人员接待所有贵宾。然而，在你的朋友完成手续进入房间后，您接到柜台服务人员告知，您目前进入的房间出现维修问题因而无法住宿，您必须等待**四小时或者更长**，下一个房间才能清理干净。对此情形，您相当不高兴并及时要求与饭店经理沟通；几分钟后，经理进入您的房间了解情况，聆听您的抱怨，并致上最深的歉意，然而，经理表示由于订房状况，饭店目前无法立即提供任何房间，除了深表道歉外，经理并允诺将您的房价给予九折优惠，且送上免费的饮料券。

Appendix 4: Items Generated from the In-Depth Interviews

Limited Time:

- I think finding the right contact person to voice dissatisfaction to takes a lot of time. For this reason, I usually choose not to complain during my vacation.
- While I am on holiday, the amount of time needed to complain is not an issue when I decide to complain.
- If I have a limited amount of time to explain my case to the service provider, I usually will prefer not to complain.
- The total amount of time that I spend on my vacation determines whether I will complain or not.
- If I feel that resolving the problem will take a long time, I will sometimes choose not to complain.
- The amount of time that I spend on holiday does not affect my complaining behavior.
- Spending time to complain affects my travel plans/schedule negatively.
- If I have limited time during my holiday, there is usually not much I can do to solve a problem.

Limited Involvement:

- I tend to complain more if I am highly involved in my vacation planning.
- If I spend a lot of effort in planning my holiday, I am more likely to complain if anything goes wrong.
- The more money I spend on my vacation, the more likely I am to complain when an issue arises.
- If I have little involvement in the planning of my holiday, it is more likely that I will not complain.
- The more involved I am with the planning of my vacation, the more short-tempered I will be when things go wrong during the trip.
- Regardless of the money and time I spend on my vacation, I prefer to complain when I am faced with a problem.

Limited Communication:

- For me, the ability to communicate my dissatisfaction clearly is very important when deciding whether to complain or not.
- I feel more confident in expressing my concerns if the employee(s) can speak my language.
- It becomes frustrating if the employee(s) cannot understand me while I am complaining.
- If there is a communication barrier between the service provider and myself, this decreases my intention to voice any complaints.
- I expect the service provider to demonstrate excellent communication skills when handling my complaint.
- Whenever there are problems communicating with the service provider, I try my best to find another way to express my dissatisfaction more clearly.

- I am highly tolerant in respect to communication problems during the handling of my complaints.

Unfamiliarity:

- As a tourist, I feel safer expressing my complaints if I am in a familiar destination.
- When faced with a problem during my holiday, I will be more likely to complain if I know how my complaint will be handled.
- I believe that the lack of knowledge on local policies and procedures concerning complaint handling makes complaining more difficult.
- Even though I may want to complain, I simply cannot at times, because I do not know how to do so in an unfamiliar environment.
- Having knowledge about the destination makes me more confident in conveying my unsatisfactory experience(s).
- When I am faced with a problem, I will complain regardless of the extent of my knowledge of the policies that will be used in handling my complaint.
- If I know how the service provider will handle my complaint, my confidence in the resolution process will increase.

Positive Holiday Mood:

- When I am on vacation, my tolerance level for service-related problems is usually low.
- During my holiday, I usually forgive service providers when they fail.
- Most of the time, I choose not to complain when I am on holiday.
- If I am experiencing a problem caused by a service provider, I choose to complain even if I am on my vacation.
- I like to express my dissatisfaction especially when I am on vacation.
- I consider myself very forgiving throughout my holiday.
- When I am faced with a problem during my holiday, I prefer not to complain.

Appendix 5: English and Simplified Chinese Versions of Invitation Letters Sent

Dear Respondent,

My name is Erdo, a PhD candidate from SHTM. I am writing my thesis on the cultural differences on complaining behavior with the focus of investigating Chinese versus American students. To do so, I need to your help. If you kindly spend 20 minutes of your precious time and fill out the attached questionnaire, I would really appreciate. To further show my appreciation, I will make a lucky draw among the respondents for a 300 HK $ worth shopping voucher for Park n Shop.

You can simply fill out the attached questionnaire and send it back to me. Alternatively, if you want I can provide a printed version of the questionnaire upon your request. Thank you very much for your time and help.

Wishing you the best of the luck with your studies.

Erdogan Ekiz
SHTM - PolyU

亲爱答辩人，

我的名字是 Erdo，是 SHTM 的一名 PhD 候选人。我的论文主要研究中国与美国学生的投诉行为中存在的文化差异。现在我需要您的帮助。如果您愿意花费 20 分钟宝贵的时间填好附上的调查表，我会由衷地感谢您。为了进一步表示我的谢意，我将为在应答者之中的幸运儿提供价值 300 港币的百佳购物券。请您填好附上的问卷表和并把它送回给我。

或者，我可以根据您的请求，提供一个打印的版本。谢谢在您的时间和帮助。

祝愿您学习顺利。

Erdogan Ekiz
SHTM - PolyU

Appendix 6: Pilot Questionnaire - English Version

Screening Questions

1. Were you born in USA/China? ☐ Yes ☐ No
(If yes = continue, if no stop the process and thanks)

2. Have you traveled outside USA/China before? ☐ Yes ☐ No
(If yes = continue, if no stop the process and thanks)

THE HONG KONG
POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY
香港理工大學

School of
Hotel & Tourism Management
酒店及旅遊業管理學院

Dear Respondent,

I appreciate your willingness to spend some time to participate in this study. The present study aims at finding out the possible relationships between; complaining constraints, justice perceptions and loyalty. This survey should take no more than 20 minutes of your time. As will be apparent, there is no right or wrong answer, I am interested only in your views on selected items.

Although, surveys that have been totally completed are the most beneficial to this project, you are under no obligation to answer any questions that you are uncomfortable with. You were selected at random to participate in this survey. The information that you submit will be kept completely confidential and will be used for academic purposes. Thank you in advance for completing this survey. The information you provide will be very valuable.

Erdogan H. Ekiz, *PhD Student*
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
erdogan.ekiz@polyu.edu.hk

Part I: The following items are related to possible constraints of being a tourist on complaining behavior. Please read each statement carefully and indicate your agreement or disagreement by marking the appropriate response category.

1. Strongly Disagree
2. Moderately Disagree
3. Slightly Disagree
4. Neutral
5. Slightly Agree
6. Moderately Agree
7. Strongly Agree

1. I think finding the right contact person to voice dissatisfaction takes a lot of time. For this reason, I usually choose not to complain during my vacation.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
2. I tend to complain more if I am highly involved in my vacation planning.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
3. For me, the ability to communicate my dissatisfaction clearly is very	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

important when deciding whether to complain or not.							
4. As a tourist, I feel safer expressing my complaints, if I am in a familiar destination.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
5. When I am on vacation, my tolerance level for service-related problems is usually low.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
6. While I am on holiday, the amount of time needed to complain is not an issue when I decide to complain.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
7. If I spend a lot of effort in planning my holiday, I am more likely to complain if anything goes wrong.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
8. I feel more confident in expressing my concerns if the employee(s) can speak my language.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
9. When faced with a problem during my holiday, I will be more likely to complain if I know how my complaint will be handled.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
10. During my holiday, I usually forgive service providers when they fail.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
11. If I have a limited amount of time to explain my case to the service provider, usually I will prefer not to complain.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
12. The more money I spend on my vacation, the more likely I am to complain when an issue arises.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
13. It becomes frustrating if the employee(s) cannot understand me while I am complaining.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
14. I believe that the lack of knowledge on local policies concerning complaint handling makes complaining more difficult.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
15. Most of the time, I choose not to complain when I am on holiday.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
16. The total amount of time that I can spend on my vacation determines whether I will complain or not.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
17. If I have little involvement in the planning of my holiday, it is more likely that I will not complain.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
18. If there is a communication barrier between the service provider and myself, this will likely decrease my intention to voice any complaints.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
19. Even though I may want to complain, I simply cannot at times, because I do not know how to do it in an unfamiliar environment.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
20. If I am experiencing a problem caused by a service provider, I choose to complain even if I am on my vacation.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
21. If I feel that resolving the problem will take a long time, I will sometimes choose not to complain.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
22. The more involved I am with the planning of my vacation, the more short-tempered I will be when things go wrong during the trip.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
23. I expect the service provider to demonstrate excellent communication skills when handling my complaint.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
24. Having knowledge about the destination makes me more confident in conveying my unsatisfactory experience(s).	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
25. I like to express my dissatisfaction especially when I am on vacation.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
26. The amount of time that I can spend on holiday does not affect my complaining behavior.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
27. Regardless of the money and time I spend on my vacation, I prefer to complain when I am faced with a problem.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
28. Whenever there are problems communicating with the service provider, I try my best to find another way to express my dissatisfaction more clearly.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
29. When faced with a problem, I will complain regardless of the extent of my knowledge of the policies that will be used in handling my complaint.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

30. I consider myself very forgiving throughout my holiday.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
31. Spending time to complain affects my travel plans/schedule negatively.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
32. I am highly tolerant with respect to communication problems during the handling of my complaints.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
33. If I know how the service provider will handle my complaint, my confidence in the resolution process will increase.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
34. When faced with a problem during my holiday, I prefer not to complain.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
35. If I have limited time during my holiday, there is usually not much I can do to solve a problem.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Failure Scenario: Please read the following scenario and imagine yourself being in the following situation.

Your friends and you have decided to travel to an exotic destination for a well-deserved summer vacation. After considering all the available alternatives, you decide to book your stay at a nice hotel. After a long and exhausting flight, the taxi finally arrives at the hotel; you are all ready to check-in to your cozy rooms where you will be staying for the next few days. Upon entering the hotel registration area, you notice that there is only one receptionist at the hotel front desk. Your friends are able to successfully check into their rooms, but the receptionist discovers that there is a problem with your room assignment. The receptionist explains that due to maintenance issues in your assigned room there will be a delay of four hours or more / twenty minutes before the room is ready. You are not happy about this, so you ask to speak with the manager to complain about the situation. A few minutes later, the manager arrives and after hearing your complaint, offers his/her sincere apology. He/she explains that there are no other vacant rooms immediately available, apologizes again for the inconvenience and offers you a 10 percent discount on your room rate as well as a free drink pass for the lobby bar.

Part II: Please indicate your perceptions about the scenario given above.

1. Strongly Disagree		**5.** Slightly Agree
2. Moderately Disagree	**4.** Neutral	**6.** Moderately Agree
3. Slightly Disagree		**7.** Strongly Agree

1. This kind of a situation would be a significant problem to me.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
2. This kind of a situation would upset me.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
3. There are service problems like this in real life.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
4. The scenario is realistic.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
5. This could happen in real life.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Part III: Please indicate on what level you agree or disagree with the following statements.

1. Strongly Disagree		**5.** Slightly Agree
2. Moderately Disagree	**4.** Neutral	**6.** Moderately Agree
3. Slightly Disagree		**7.** Strongly Agree

1. I felt that hotel policies allowed for flexibility in taking care of my	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

complaint.							
2. I felt that the representative was very polite.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
3. I am pretty happy with what the hotel provided me.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
4. I felt that the guidelines, used by the hotel to process my complaint, were fair.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
5. I felt that the concern shown by the representative was sincere.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
6. I thought that the hotel solution was definitely acceptable.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
7. I believe that the hotel guidelines for listening to and handling complaints are fair.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
8. I felt like the representative really cared about me.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
9. I think that the response to my complaint and the offer I got from the hotel were appropriate.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
10. I will say positive things about this hotel to other people.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
11. I will recommend this hotel to someone who seeks my advice.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
12. I will encourage my friends and relatives to stay in this hotel.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
13. I will consider this hotel as my first choice to buy accommodation services.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
14. I am more likely to patronize this hotel in the future.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Part IV: Please fill this part by marking the box that best fits to your own demographic character.

1. Your age?

☐ 17-20 ☐ 29-32
☐ 21-24 ☐ 33-36
☐ 25-28 ☐ 37 or above

2. Gender? ☐ Female ☐ Male

3. Current Program of study?

☐ 2-year college/Vocational School ☐ Master Program
☐ Undergraduate ☐ Doctorate / PhD

4. How many times you have travelled in last 3 years?

☐ 1-2 ☐ 5-6
☐ 3-4 ☐ 7 or more

Thank you very much for valuable contribution.

Appendix 7: Pilot Questionnaire - Simplified Chinese Version

基本問項

1. 請問您是否出生於美國/中國？ ☐ 是 ☐ 否
(若是，請繼續作答。若否，本份問卷至此結束，謝謝)

2. 請問您是否曾至美國/中國以外地區旅遊？ ☐ 是 ☐ 否
若是，請繼續作答。若否，本份問卷至此結束，謝謝)

THE HONG KONG POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY 香港理工大學

School of Hotel & Tourism Management 酒店及旅遊業管理學院

亲爱答辩人：
感谢您百忙之中抽空回答此份问卷。本研究目的在于了解限制顾客投诉的因素、对公平的认识，及客户忠诚度之间可能存在的关联性。本份问卷大约需要 20 分钟完成。所有答案并无对错，本研究仅针对您所提供的答案进行分析。

尽管我们期待您对问卷的全部问题进行回答，但是您有权拒绝回答某些让您觉得不妥的问题。我们随机邀请您参与我们的问卷调查。您提供的所有资讯将被完全保密，且仅用于学术统计及分析。您的帮助对我们来说非常重要。

Erdogan H. Ekiz, 博士研究生
香港理工大学，酒店及旅游业管理学院
erdogan.ekiz@

第一部分：以下描述的是有关限制游客投诉的种种情形。请结合您的实际情况，勾选您对每一个陈述的同意或不同意的程度。

1=非常不同意，2=不同意，3=稍微不同意，4=中立，5=稍微同意，6=同意，7=非常同意

1. 我认为要找到一个合适的人表达我的不满很费时间。因此，在度假期间，我一般选择不投诉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 如果我花了很多时间计划我的旅游事宜的话，我投诉的机率可能更高。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. 在决定是否投诉时，我认为自己是否具备有效沟通和表达不满意的能力很重要。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 如果我在熟悉的旅游目的地投诉的话，我会感到更安全一些。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 当我在旅游的时候，我对与服务有关的麻烦的忍耐度通常偏低。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 当我在度假期间决定要投诉的时候，我不在乎投诉究要花多少时间	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 如果旅游计划费了我很多心思，并且出现了差错的话，我更倾向于投诉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 如果雇员能够用我同样的语言交流的话，我会更自信地表达我所要投诉的事情。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 假如我知道我的投诉事宜将会如何得到处置的话，我更倾向向有关人员投诉我在旅游中遭遇到的麻烦。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 在旅游期间，我通常原谅服务人员的失误。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 如果投诉的时间很有限的话，我通常选择不投诉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. 我的旅游花销越大，遭遇了不愉快的事情的话，我就更倾向于投诉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. 如果处理我投诉的人听不懂我所用的语言的话，我会感到精疲力尽。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 我认为如果自己缺乏对当地投诉条款的了解，会使投诉本身变得更困难。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. 在我旅游的大部分时间，我一般选择不投诉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. 我是否投诉，要取决于我有多少时间能够用来度假。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. 当我很少参与旅游计划事宜的情况下，我更有可能不投诉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. 如果我和服务人员之间存在沟通障碍的话，我继续投诉的可能性减小。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. 当身处不熟悉的环境并且想投诉却又不知道怎样投诉的话，我会打消投诉的念头。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. 如果是服务人员导致了我的麻烦，不管我是否在旅游，我都选择投诉	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. 如果我感到处理我投诉的问题将会花费很长时间的话，我有时会不投诉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. 如果我花了很多时间规划我的旅游事项的话，遇到麻烦时我会更容易发脾气。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. 我期望处理我投诉的工作人员表现出卓越的沟通技能。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. 对到访的旅游目的地的了解，使得我更有信心倾诉我的不满的体验。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. 我喜欢表达我的不满，尤其是在旅游的时候。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. 我投诉的行为不受旅游时间长短的影响。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. 每当遭遇麻烦时我会选择投诉；这一行为或习惯不受旅游时间的长短和开支的多少的影响。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. 每当与处理投诉的人员沟通有障碍时，我会尽力寻找别的方式以便更清晰地表达我的不满。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. 当我遇到麻烦时我就会投诉；这一行为不受我对投诉政策了解的程度和多少的影响。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

30. 在我旅游的时候，我总是表现得很宽宏大量。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. 在投诉上花时间会消极影响我的旅游日程和计划。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. 在处理投诉期间遇到沟通障碍之类的问题时候，我会显得很忍耐。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. 如果我知道我的投诉将会得到怎样的处置的话，我对有效解决投诉的信心就会增加。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. 当我在旅游期间遭遇麻烦时，我会选择不投诉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. 如果在旅游中我的时间有限的话，对于解决麻烦我能做的事情很少	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

失败场景：请阅读下面的场景并想象您自己在这个场景中

今年暑假，您与朋友决定前往一个具有异国情调的地点旅行；精心策划决定饭店后，你与朋友飞往目的地；在考虑所有条件之后，您选择一间豪华旅馆做为此次旅途的休息站。在经过长时间疲劳的飞行之后，您终于抵达饭店，预备办理入住手续。在饭店柜台前，您注意到只有一位服务人员接待所有贵宾。然而，在你的朋友完成手续进入房间后，您接到柜台服务人员告知，您目前进入的房间出现维修问题因而无法住宿，您必须等待**四小时或者更长 / 二十分鐘**，下一个房间才能清理干净。对此情形，您相当不高兴并及时要求与饭店经理沟通；几分钟后，经理进入您的房间了解情况，聆听您的抱怨，并致上最深的歉意，然而，经理表示由于订房状况，饭店目前无法立即提供任何房间，除了深表道歉外，经理并允诺将您的房价给予九折优惠，且送上免费的饮料券。

第二部分：请根据情境中所描述的内容，圈选您实际的感受。

1=非常不同意，2=不同意，3=稍微不同意，4=中立，5=稍微同意，6=同意，7=非常同意

1. 这种情况对我而言是一个严重的问题。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 这种情况会使我非常郁闷。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 这个问题在真实生活中可能会出现。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 这个情境是可信的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 这个情况可能发生于真实生活里。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第三部分：请依照您自身感受圈选适合答案

1=非常不同意，2=不同意，3=稍微不同意，4=中立，5=稍微同意，6=同意，7=非常同意

1. 我认为该饭店的政策有弹性空间来处理我的投诉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 我认为与我接触的代理人非常有礼貌。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 我很高兴饭店所给我的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. 我认为饭店所提供解决抱怨的引导方针是公平的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 我认为与我接触的代理人所表现出来的态度非常真诚。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 我认为饭店的解决方案明显可以接受。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 我相信饭店所提供解决抱怨的引导方针里，倾听及处理抱怨的程序是公平的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 我感受到那顾客代表是相当在乎我。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 我认为我从饭店所得到的投诉结果是恰当的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 我向他人描述此饭店时，所给予的评价将是正面的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 若有人询问我，我会向他人推荐此间饭店。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. 我会鼓励我的亲友来此饭店住宿。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. 将来我会以此饭店为住宿的第一选择。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 我会愿意再来同一饭店消费。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第五部分：基本资料，请勾选适合您的问项。

1. 请问您的年龄?

☐ 17-20　　☐ 31-33
☐ 21-24　　☐ 34-36
☐ 25-28　　☐ 37及以上

2. 请问您的性别　☐ 女　☐ 男

3. 请问您现阶段所修读的课程为何?

☐ 大学专科/职业技术学校　　☐ 硕士课程
☐ 大学本科　　☐ 博士课程

4. 在过去的三年中您旅行过多少次?

☐ 1-2　　☐ 5-6
☐ 3-4　　☐ 7及以上

感谢您的帮助！

Appendix 8: Final Questionnaire - English Version

Screening Questions	
1. Were you born in USA/China? (If yes = continue, if no stop the process and thanks)	☐ Yes ☐ No
2. Have you traveled outside USA/China before? (If yes = continue, if no stop the process and thanks)	☐ Yes ☐ No

THE HONG KONG POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY
香港理工大學

School of Hotel & Tourism Management
酒店及旅遊業管理學院

Dear Respondent,

I appreciate your willingness to spend some time to participate in this study. The present study aims at finding out the possible relationships between; complaining constraints, justice perceptions and loyalty. This survey should take no more than 20 minutes of your time. As will be apparent, there is no right or wrong answer, I am interested only in your views on selected items.

Although, surveys that have been totally completed are the most beneficial to this project, you are under no obligation to answer any questions that you are uncomfortable with. You were selected at random to participate in this survey. The information that you submit will be kept completely confidential and will be used for academic purposes. Thank you in advance for completing this survey. The information you provide will be very valuable.

Erdogan H. Ekiz, *PhD Student*
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
School of Hotel and Tourism Management
erdogan.ekiz@

Part I: The following items are related to possible constraints of being a tourist on complaining behavior. Please read each statement carefully and indicate your agreement or disagreement by marking the appropriate response category.

1. Strongly Disagree
2. Moderately Disagree
3. Slightly Disagree
4. Neutral
5. Slightly Agree
6. Moderately Agree
7. Strongly Agree

1. I think finding the right contact person to voice dissatisfaction takes a lot of time. For this reason, I usually choose not to complain during my vacation.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
2. I tend to complain more if I am highly involved in my vacation planning.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

3. For me, the ability to communicate my dissatisfaction clearly is very important when deciding whether to complain or not.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
4. As a tourist, I feel safer expressing my complaints, if I am in a familiar destination.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
5. When I am on vacation, my tolerance level for service-related problems is usually low.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
6. While I am on holiday, the amount of time needed to complain is not an issue when I decide to complain.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
7. If I spend a lot of effort in planning my holiday, I am more likely to complain if anything goes wrong.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
8. I feel more confident in expressing my concerns if the employee(s) can speak my language.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
9. When faced with a problem during my holiday, I will be more likely to complain if I know how my complaint will be handled.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
10. During my holiday, I usually forgive service providers when they fail.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
11. If I have a limited amount of time to explain my case to the service provider, usually I will prefer not to complain.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
12. The more money I spend on my vacation, the more likely I am to complain when an issue arises.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
13. It becomes frustrating if the employee(s) cannot understand me while I am complaining.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
14. I believe that the lack of knowledge on local policies concerning complaint handling makes complaining more difficult.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
15. Most of the time, I choose not to complain when I am on holiday.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
16. The total amount of time that I can spend on my vacation determines whether I will complain or not.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
17. If I have little involvement in the planning of my holiday, it is more likely that I will not complain.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
18. If there is a communication barrier between the service provider and myself, this will likely decrease my intention to voice any complaints.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
19. Even though I may want to complain, I simply cannot at times, because I do not know how to do it in an unfamiliar environment.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
20. If I am experiencing a problem caused by a service provider, I choose to complain even if I am on my vacation.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
21. If I feel that resolving the problem will take a long time, I will sometimes choose not to complain.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
22. The more involved I am with the planning of my vacation, the more short-tempered I will be when things go wrong during the trip.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
23. I expect the service provider to demonstrate excellent communication skills when handling my complaint.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
24. Having knowledge about the destination makes me more confident in conveying my unsatisfactory experience(s).	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
25. I like to express my dissatisfaction especially when I am on vacation.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
26. The amount of time that I can spend on holiday does not affect my complaining behavior.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
27. Regardless of the money and time I spend on my vacation, I prefer to complain when I am faced with a problem.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
28. Whenever there are problems communicating with the service provider, I try my best to find another way to express my dissatisfaction more clearly.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

29. When faced with a problem, I will complain regardless of the extent of my knowledge of the policies that will be used in handling my complaint.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
30. I consider myself very forgiving throughout my holiday.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
31. Spending time to complain affects my travel plans/schedule negatively.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
32. I am highly tolerant with respect to communication problems during the handling of my complaints.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
33. If I know how the service provider will handle my complaint, my confidence in the resolution process will increase.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
34. When faced with a problem during my holiday, I prefer not to complain.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
35. If I have limited time during my holiday, there is usually not much I can do to solve a problem.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Failure Scenario: Please read the following scenario and imagine yourself being in the following situation.

Your friends and you have decided to travel to an exotic destination for a well-deserved summer vacation. After considering all the available alternatives, you decide to book your stay at a nice hotel. After a long and exhausting flight, the taxi finally arrives at the hotel; you are all ready to check-in to your cozy rooms where you will be staying for the next few days. Upon entering the hotel registration area, you notice that there is only one receptionist at the hotel front desk. Your friends are able to successfully check into their rooms, but the receptionist discovers that there is a problem with your room assignment. The receptionist explains that due to maintenance issues in your assigned room there will be a delay of **(four hours or more) OR (twenty minutes)** before the room is ready. You are not happy about this, so you ask to speak with the manager to complain about the situation. A few minutes later, the manager arrives and after hearing your complaint, offers his/her sincere apology. S/he explains that there are no other vacant rooms immediately available, apologizes again for the inconvenience and offers you a 10 percent discount on your room rate as well as a free drink pass for the lobby bar.

Part II: Please indicate your perceptions about the scenario given above.

1. Strongly Disagree
2. Moderately Disagree
3. Slightly Disagree
4. Neutral
5. Slightly Agree
6. Moderately Agree
7. Strongly Agree

1. This kind of a situation would be a significant problem to me.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
2. This kind of a situation would upset me.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
3. There are service problems like this in real life.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
4. The scenario is realistic.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
5. This could happen in real life.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Part III: Please indicate on what level you agree or disagree with the following statements.

1. Strongly Disagree
2. Moderately Disagree
3. Slightly Disagree
4. Neutral
5. Slightly Agree
6. Moderately Agree
7. Strongly Agree

1. I felt that hotel policies allowed for flexibility in taking care of my complaint.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
2. I felt that the representative was very polite.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
3. I am pretty happy with what the hotel provided me.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
4. I felt that the guidelines, used by the hotel to process my complaint, were fair.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
5. I felt that the concern shown by the representative was sincere.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
6. I thought that the hotel solution was definitely acceptable.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
7. I believe that the hotel guidelines for listening to and handling complaints are fair.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
8. I felt like the representative really cared about me.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
9. I think that the response to my complaint and the offer I got from the hotel were appropriate.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
10. I will say positive things about this hotel to other people.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
11. I will recommend this hotel to someone who seeks my advice.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
12. I will encourage my friends and relatives to stay in this hotel.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
13. I will consider this hotel as my first choice to buy accommodation services.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
14. I am more likely to patronize this hotel in the future.	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**

Part IV: Please fill this part by marking the box that best fits to your own demographic character.

1. Your age?

☐ 17-20 ☐ 29-32
☐ 21-24 ☐ 33-36
☐ 25-28 ☐ 37 or above

2. Gender? ☐ Female ☐ Male

3. Current Program of study?

☐ 2-year college/Vocational School ☐ Master Program
☐ Undergraduate ☐ Doctorate / PhD

4. How many times you have travelled in last 3 years?

☐ 1-2 ☐ 5-6
☐ 3-4 ☐ 7 or more

5. Nationality? ______________________________

Thank you very much for valuable contribution.

Appendix 9: Final Questionnaire - Simplified Chinese Version

基本問項

1. 請問您是否出生於美國/中國？ ☐ 是 ☐ 否
(若是，請繼續作答。若否，本份問卷至此結束，謝謝)

2. 請問您是否曾至美國/中國以外地區旅遊？ ☐ 是 ☐ 否
若是，請繼續作答。若否，本份問卷至此結束，謝謝)

THE HONG KONG POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY 香港理工大學

School of Hotel & Tourism Management 酒店及旅遊業管理學院

亲爱答辩人：
感谢您百忙之中抽空回答此份问卷。本研究目的在于了解限制顾客投诉的因素、对公平的认识，及客户忠诚度之间可能存在的关联性。本份问卷大约需要 20 分钟完成。所有答案并无对错，本研究仅针对您所提供的答案进行分析。

尽管我们期待您对问卷的全部问题进行回答，但是您有权拒绝回答某些让您觉得不妥的问题。我们随机邀请您参与我们的问卷调查。您提供的所有资讯将被完全保密，且仅用于学术统计及分析。您的帮助对我们来说非常重要。

Erdogan H. Ekiz, 博士研究生
香港理工大学，酒店及旅游业管理学院
erdogan.ekiz@

第一部分：以下描述的是有关限制游客投诉的种种情形。请结合您的实际情况，勾选您对每一个陈述的同意或不同意的程度。

1=非常不同意，2=不同意，3=稍微不同意，4=中立，5=稍微同意，6=同意，7=非常同意

1. 我认为要找到一个合适的人表达我的不满很费时间。因此，在度假期间，我一般选择不投诉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 如果我花了很多时间计划我的旅游事宜的话，我投诉的机率可能更高。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. 在决定是否投诉时，我认为自己是否具备有效沟通和表达不满意的能力很重要。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 如果我在熟悉的旅游目的地投诉的话，我会感到更安全一些。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 当我在旅游的时候，我对与服务有关的麻烦的忍耐度通常偏低。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 当我在度假期间决定要投诉的时候，我不在乎投诉究要花多少时间	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 如果旅游计划费了我很多心思，并且出现了差错的话，我更倾向于投诉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 如果雇员能够用我同样的语言交流的话，我会更自信地表达我所要投诉的事情。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 假如我知道我的投诉事宜将会如何得到处置的话，我更倾向向有关人员投诉我在旅游中遭遇到的麻烦。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 在旅游期间，我通常原谅服务人员的失误。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 如果投诉的时间很有限的话，我通常选择不投诉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. 我的旅游花销越大，遭遇了不愉快的事情的话，我就更倾向于投诉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. 如果处理我投诉的人听不懂我所用的语言的话，我会感到精疲力尽。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 我认为如果自己缺乏对当地投诉条款的了解，会使投诉本身变得更困难。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. 在我旅游的大部分时间，我一般选择不投诉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. 我是否投诉，要取决于我有多少时间能够用来度假。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. 当我很少参与旅游计划事宜的情况下，我更有可能不投诉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. 如果我和服务人员之间存在沟通障碍的话，我继续投诉的可能性减小。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. 当身处不熟悉的环境并且想投诉却又不知道怎样投诉的话，我会打消投诉的念头。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. 如果是服务人员导致了我的麻烦，不管我是否在旅游，我都选择投诉	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. 如果我感到处理我投诉的问题将会花费很长时间的话，我有时会不投诉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. 如果我花了很多时间规划我的旅游事项的话，遇到麻烦时我会更容易发脾气。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. 我期望处理我投诉的工作人员表现出卓越的沟通技能。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. 对到访的旅游目的地的了解，使得我更有信心倾诉我的不满的体验。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. 我喜欢表达我的不满，尤其是在旅游的时候。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. 我投诉的行为不受旅游时间长短的影响。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. 每当遭遇麻烦时我会选择投诉；这一行为或习惯不受旅游时间的长短和开支的多少的影响。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. 每当与处理投诉的人员沟通有障碍时，我会尽力寻找别的方式以便更清晰地表达我的不满。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

29. 当我遇到麻烦时我就会投诉；这一行为不受我对投诉政策了解的程度和多少的影响。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. 在我旅游的时候，我总是表现得很宽宏大量。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. 在投诉上花时间会消极影响我的旅游日程和计划。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. 在处理投诉期间遇到沟通障碍之类的问题时候，我会显得很忍耐。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. 如果我知道我的投诉将会得到怎样的处置的话，我对有效解决投诉的信心就会增加。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. 当我在旅游期间遭遇麻烦时，我会选择不投诉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. 如果在旅游中我的时间有限的话，对于解决麻烦我能做的事情很少	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

失败场景：请阅读下面的场景并想象您自己在这个场景中

今年暑假，您与朋友决定前往一个具有异国情调的地点旅行；精心策划决定饭店后，你与朋友飞往目的地；在考虑所有条件之后，您选择一间豪华旅馆做为此次旅途的休息站。在经过长时间疲劳的飞行之后，您终于抵达饭店，预备办理入住手续。在饭店柜台前，您注意到只有一位服务人员接待所有贵宾。然而，在你的朋友完成手续进入房间后，您接到柜台服务人员告知，您目前进入的房间出现维修问题因而无法住宿，您必须等待**四小时或者更长**，下一个房间才能清理干净。对此情形，您相当不高兴并及时要求与饭店经理沟通；几分钟后，经理进入您的房间了解情况，聆听您的抱怨，并致上最深的歉意，然而，经理表示由于订房状况，饭店目前无法立即提供任何房间，除了深表道歉外，经理并允诺将您的房价给予九折优惠，且送上免费的饮料券。

第二部分：请根据情境中所描述的内容，圈选您实际的感受。

1=非常不同意，2=不同意，3=稍微不同意，4=中立，5=稍微同意，6=同意，7=非常同意

1. 这种情况对我而言是一个严重的问题。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 这种情况会使我非常郁闷。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 这个问题在真实生活中可能会出现。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 这个情境是可信的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 这个情况可能发生于真实生活里。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第三部分：请依照您自身感受圈选适合答案

1=非常不同意，2=不同意，3=稍微不同意，4=中立，5=稍微同意，6=同意，7=非常同意

1. 我认为该饭店的政策有弹性空间来处理我的投诉。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. 我认为与我接触的代理人非常有礼貌。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. 我很高兴饭店所给我的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. 我认为饭店所提供解决抱怨的引导方针是公平的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. 我认为与我接触的代理人所表现出来的态度非常真诚。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. 我认为饭店的解决方案明显可以接受。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. 我相信饭店所提供解决抱怨的引导方针里，倾听及处理抱怨的程序是公平的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. 我感受到那顾客代表是相当在乎我。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. 我认为我从饭店所得到的投诉结果是恰当的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. 我向他人描述此饭店时，所给予的评价将是正面的。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. 若有人询问我，我会向他人推荐此间饭店。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. 我会鼓励我的亲友来此饭店住宿。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. 将来我会以此饭店为住宿的第一选择。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. 我会愿意再来同一饭店消费。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

第四部分：基本资料，请勾选适合您的问项。

1. 请问您的年龄?

☐ 17-20　　☐ 31-33
☐ 21-24　　☐ 34-36
☐ 25-28　　☐ 37及以上

2. 请问您的性别　☐ 女　☐ 男

3. 请问您现阶段所修读的课程为何?

☐ 大学专科/职业技术学校　　☐ 硕士课程
☐ 大学本科　　☐ 博士课程

4. 在过去的三年中您旅行过多少次?

☐ 1-2　　☐ 5-6
☐ 3-4　　☐ 7及以上

感谢您的帮助！

REFERENCES

Aaker, D. A., & Bagozzi, R. P. (1979). Unobservable variables in structural equation models with an application in industrial selling. *Journal of Marketing Research, 16*(May), 147-158.

Adams, J. S. (1963). Toward an understanding of inequity. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, *67*(5), 422-436.

Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social change. In L. Berkowitz (Eds.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 2 (pp. 267-299), NY: Academic Press.

Alden, D. L., Stayman, D. M., & Hoyer, W. D. (1994). Evaluation strategies of American and Thai consumers. *Psychology and Marketing*, *11*(2), 145-161.

Alice, H. Y., Hon, J. Y., & Lu, L. (2011). A cross-level study of procedural justice perceptions, *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *26*(8), 700-715.

Altinay, M. (1994). *Kucuk ada ulke ekonomilerinde turizm,* Famagusta, Cyprus: Eastern Mediterranean University Press.

Anderson, E. W., & Sullivan, M. V. (1993). The antecedents and consequences of customer satisfaction for firms, *Marketing Science*, *12*(2), 125-143.

Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1988). Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin, 103*(3), 411-423.

Andreassen, T. W. (1999). What drives customer loyalty with complaint resolution? *Journal of Service Research*, *1*(4), 324-332.

Andreassen, T. W. (2000). Antecedents to satisfaction with service recovery. *European Journal of Marketing*, *34*(1/2), 156-175.

Anton, C., Camarero, C., & Carrero, M. (2007). Analyzing firms' failures as determinants of consumer switching intentions - the effect of moderating factors. *European Journal of Marketing*, *41*(1/2), 135-158.

Au, K., Hui, M. K., & Leung, K. (2001). Who should be responsible? Effects of voice and compensation on responsibility attribution, perceived justice, and post-complaint behaviors across cultures. *The International Journal of Conflict Management*, *12*(4), 350-364.

Au, N., Ekiz, H. E., & Huang, S. (2007). What motivates mainland Chinese tourists to travel to Hong Kong: A qualitative approach. *APAC-CHRIE & APTA Joint Conference 2007*, 24-27 May, Beijing International Studies University, Proceedings CD.

Au, N., Law, R. and Buhalis, D. (2009a). The impact of cultural on e-complaints: Evidence from Chinese consumers in hospitality organizations. *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2010*, *8*, 285-296.

Au, N., Law, R. and Buhalis, D. (20109b). Complaints on the online environment: The case of Hong Kong Hotels. *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2009*, *2*, 73-85.

Austin, W. (1979). Justice, freedom, and self-interest in intergroup conflict. In W. G. Austin & S. Warchel (Eds.), *The Social Psychology of Intergroup Relations!* CA: Wadsworth Inc.

Babbie, E. (2004). *The practice of social research* (10th ed.), CA: Thomson Wadsworth.

Babin, B. J., Lee, Y. K., Kim, E. J. & Griffin, M. (2005). Modeling consumer satisfaction and word-of-mouth. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *19*(3), 133-139.

Bach, S. B., & Kim, S. J. (2012). Online consumer complaint behaviors: The dynamics of service failures, consumers' word of mouth, and organization-consumer relationships, *International Journal of Strategic Communication*, *6*(1), 59-76.

Bagozzi, R. P., Gopinath, M., & Nyer, P. U. (1999). The role of emotions in marketing. *Academy of Marketing Science Journal*, *27*(2), 184-206.

Barlow, J., & Moller, C. (1996). *A complaint is a gift: Using customer feedback as a strategic tool*. SF: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Bauer, H. H., Falk, T., & Hammerschmidt, M. (2006). eTransQual. A transaction process-based approach for capturing service quality in online shopping. *Journal of Business Research*, *59*(7), 866-875.

Bearden, W. O., & Oliver, R. L. (1985). The role of public and private complaining in satisfaction with problem resolution, *Journal of Consumer Affairs*, *19*(2), 222-240.

Bearden, W. O., & Teel, J. E. (1983). Selected determinants of consumer satisfaction and complaint reports. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *20*(1), 21-28.

Becker, C. (2000). Service recovery strategies: The impact of cultural differences. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *24*(4), 526-538.

Becker, C., Murrmann, S. K., Murrman, K. F., & Cheung, G. W. (1999). A pancultural study of restaurant service expectations in the United States and Hong Kong. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *23*(3), 235-255.

Bell, C. R., & Ridge, K. (1992). Service recovery for trainers. *Training and Development*, *May*, 58-63.

Bennett, R., Härtel, C. E. J., & McColl-Kennedy, J. R. (2004). A taxonomy of expressed emotion in complaints. In proceedings of *33rd European Marketing Academy Conference*, Murcia, Spain, 18-21 May, (CD-ROM only).

Berger, A. A. (2007). A cultural approach to understanding tourist preferences. Unpublished manuscript, Hong Kong: The Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

Berry, L. L., Parasuraman, A., & Zeithaml, V. A. (1994). Improved service quality in America: Lessons learned. *Academy of Management Executive*, *8*(2), 32-52.

Best, A., & Andreasen, A. R. (1977). Consumer response to unsatisfactory purchases: A survey of perceiving defects, voicing complaints, and obtaining redress. *Law and Society*, *11*(4), 701-742.

Betts, T. K., Wood, M. S., & Tadisina, S. K. (2011). The impact of failure severity, prior failure, and company control on service recovery outcomes. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *18*(3) 365-376.

Bhandari, M. S., Tsarenko, Y., & Polonsky, M. J. (2007). A proposed multi-dimensional approach to evaluating service recovery. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *21*(3), 174-185.

Bies, R. J., & Moag, J. S. (1986). Interactional justice: Communication criteria for fairness. In B. Sheppard (Eds.), *Research on Negotiation in Organizations*, *1*(pp. 43-55). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Bitner, M. J. (1990). Evaluating service encounters: The effects of physical surrounding and employee responses. *Journal of Marketing*, *54*(2), 69-82.

Bitner, M. J., Booms, B. H., & Tetreault, S. M. (1990). The service encounter: Diagnosing favorable and unfavorable incidents. *Journal of Marketing*, *54*(1), 71-84.

Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. NY: Wiley Publishing.

Bloch, P. H., & Richins, M. L. (1986). A theoretical model for the study of product importance perceptions. *Journal of Marketing*, *47*(3), 69-81.

Blodgett, J. G., & Anderson, R. D. (2000). A Bayesian network model of the consumer complaint process. *Journal of Service Research*, *2*(4), 321-338.

Blodgett, J. G., & Tax, S. S. (1993). The effects of distributive and interactional justice on complainants' repatronage intentions and negative word-of-mouth intentions. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction, and Complaining Behavior*, *6*, 100-110.

Blodgett, J. G., Granbois, D. H., & Walters, R. G. (1993). The effects of perceived justice on complainants negative word of mouth behaviour and repatronage intentions. *Journal of Retailing*, *73*(2), 399-428.

Blodgett, J. G., Hill, D. J., & Tax, S. S. (1997). The effects of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice on postcomplaint behavior. *Journal of Retailing*, *73*(2), 185-210.

Blodgett, J. G., Wakefield, K. L., & Barnes, J. H. (1995). The effects of customer service on consumer complaining behavior. *The Journal of Services Marketing*, *9*(4), 31-42.

Boden, A. (2001). *The Handling Complaints Pocketbook*. Hants: Management Pocketbooks Ltd.

Bodey, K., & Grace, D. (2006). Segmenting service 'complainers' and 'non-complainers' on the basis of consumer characteristics. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *20*(3) 178-187.

Bodey, K., & Grace, D. (2007). Contrasting 'complainers' with 'non-complainers' on attitude toward complaining, propensity to complain, and key personality characteristics: A nomological look. *Psychology and Marketing*, *27*(4), 579-594.

Bollen, K. A. (1989). *Structural equations with latent variables*. NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Bonvillain, N. (2003). *Language, culture, and communication - the meaning of messages* (4th ed.), NJ: Prentice Hall.

Boshoff, C. (1997). An experimental study of service recovery options. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *8*(2), 110-130.

Boshoff, C. (1999). RECOVSAT: An instrument to measure satisfaction with transaction-specific service recovery. *Journal of Service Research*, *1*(3), 236-249.

Boshoff, C., & Allen, J. (2000). The influence of selected antecedents on frontline staff's perceptions of service recovery performance. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *11*(1), 63-90.

Boshoff, C., & Leong, J. (1998). Empowerment, attribution and apologizing as dimensions of service recovery: An experimental study. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *9*(1), 24-47.

Bourgeois, J. C., & Barnes, J. G. (1979). Viability and profile of the consumerist segment. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *5*(4), 217-228.

Brennan, C., & Douglas, A. (2002). Complaint procedures in local government, informing your customers. *The International Journal of Public Sector Management*, *15*(3), 219-236.

Brislin, R. W. (1976). Comparative research methodology: Cross-cultural studies. *International Journal of Psychology*, *11*(3), 215-229.

Brislin, R. W., Lonner, W. J. & Thorndike, R. M. (1973). *Cross-cultural Research Methods*. NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Brown, S. P., & Beltramini, R. F. (1989). Consumer complaining and word of mouth activities: Field evidence. In T. K. Srull (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research*, *16*(pp. 9-16). MI: Association for Consumer Research.

Buhalis, D. (1998). Strategic use of information technologies in the tourism industry. *Tourism Management*, *19*(5), 409-421.

Burns, P. M. (1999). *An introduction to tourism and anthropology*. LD: Routledge.

Buttle, F. A., & Burton, J. (2002). Does service failure influence customer loyalty? *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, *1*(3), 217-227.

Byrne, B. M. (1998). *Structural equation modelling with LISREL, PRELIS, and SIMPLIS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming*. NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Cai, L. A., Feng, R., & Breiter, D. (2004). Tourist purchase decision involvement and information preferences. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *10*(2), 138-148.

Casado-Diaz, A. B., Mas-Ruiz, F. J., Kasper, H. (2007). Explaining satisfaction in double deviation scenarios: The effects of anger and distributive justice. *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, *25*(5), 292-312.

Chan, Y. W. (2006). Coming of age of the Chinese tourists - the emergence of non-Western tourism and host-guest interactions in Vietnam's border tourism. *Tourist Studies*, *6*(3), 187-213.

Chanchani, S., & Theivanathampillai, P. (2002). Typologies of culture. University of Otago, *Department of Accountancy and Business Law Working Papers Series, 04_10/02*. DN: University of Otago.

Chandy, P. R., & Williams, T. G. (1994). The impact of journals and authors on international business research: A critical analysis of JIBS articles. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *25*(4), 715-728.

Chapman, M. (1997). Social anthropology, business studies, and cultural issues. *International Studies of Management and Organization*, *26*(4), 3-29.

Chebat, J. C., & Slusarczyk, W. (2005). How emotions mediate the effects of perceived justice on loyalty in service recovery situations: An empirical study. *Journal of Business Research*, *58*(5), 664-673.

Chebat, J. C., Davidow, M., & Codjovi, I. (2005). Silent voices - why some dissatisfied consumers fail to complain. *Journal of Service Research*, *7*(4), 328-342.

Chelminski, P. (2003). *The effects of culture on consumer complaining behavior*. Unpublished PhD dissertation submitted to University of Connecticut, Connecticut.

Chen, J. S., & Gursoy, D. (2000). Cross-cultural comparison of the information sources used by first-time and repeat travelers and its marketing implications. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *19*(2), 191-203.

Cheung, G. W., & Rensvold, R. B. (2002). Evaluating goodness-of-fit indexes for testing measurement invariance. *Structural Equation Modeling*, *9*(2), 233-255.

Cheung, G. W., Murrmann, K. F., Murrmann, S. K., & Becker, C. (2004). Noninvariant measurement versus traditional approaches for studying cultural differences: A case of service expectations. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *28*(4), 375-390.

Chiu C. Y., Tsang, S. C., & Yang, C. F. (1987). The role of face situation and attitudinal antecedents in Asian complaint behavior. *Journal of Social Psychology*, *128*(2), 173-180.

Choi, S., & Mattila, A. S. (2006). The role of disclosure in variable hotel pricing: A cross-cultural comparison of customers' fairness perceptions. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, *47*(1), 27-35.

Christiansen, T., & Snepenger, D. J. (2002). Is it the mood or the mall that encourages tourists to shop? *Journal of Shopping Center Research*, *9*(1), 7-26.

Chu, K. H. L., & Murrmann, S. K. (2006). Development and validation of the hospitality emotional labor scale. *Tourism Management*, *27*(6), 1181-1191.

Chung, B. G., & Hoffman, K. D. (1998). Critical incidents: Service failures that matter most. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, *39*(3) 66-71.

Churchill, G. A. Jr. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *16*(1), 64-73.

Churchill, G. A. Jr., & Iacobucci, D. (2002). *Marketing research – methodological foundations* (8th ed.), Au: South-Western Thomson Learning.

Churchill, G. A. Jr., & Surprenant, C. (1982). An investigation into the determinants of customer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *19*(4), 491-504.

Clemmer, E. C., & Schneider, B. (1996). Fair service. In T. A. Swartz, D. E. Bowen & S. W. Brown (Eds.), *Advances in Services Marketing and Management: Research and practice*, *5*(pp. 109-126), Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Cohen, D. (1992). *Body language in relationships*. LD: Sheldon Press.

Cohen, E. (1979). Rethinking the sociology of tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *6*(1), 18-35.

Cohen, E. (2004). *Contemporary tourism: Diversity and change*. MA: Elsevier.

Cohen-Hattab, K., Kerber, J. (2004). Literature, cultural identity and the limits of authenticity: A composite approach. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *6*(2), 57-73.

Collie, T. A., Bradley, G., & Sparks, B. (2002). Fair process revisited: Differential effects of interactional and procedural justice in the presence of social comparison information. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *38*, 545-555.

Collie, T. A., Sparks, B., & Bradley, G. (2000). Investing in interactional justice: A study of the fair process effect within a hospitality failure context. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *24*(4), 448-472.

Collins English Dictionary and Thesaurus (1992). *English dictionary and thesaurus* (3rd ed.), Software, version 1.5. NY: Harper Collins Publisher.

Colman, A. M., Norris, C. E., & Preston, C. C. (1997). Comparing rating scales of different lengths: Equivalence of scores from 5-point and 7-point scales. *Psychological Reports*, *80*(2), 355-362.

Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of the organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(3), 384-400.

Colquitt, J. A. (2004). Does the justice of the one interact with the justice of the many? reactions to procedural justice in teams. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(4), 633-646.

Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M. J., Porter, C. O. L. H., & Ng, K. Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(3), 425-445.

Comer, J. (1980). The influence of mood on student evaluations of teaching. *The Journal of Educational Research*, *73*, 229-232.

Conlon, D. E., & Murray, N. M. (1996). Customer perceptions of corporate responses to product complaints: The role of explanation. *Academy of Management Journal*, *39*(4), 1040-1056.

Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S. (2006). *Business research methods* (9th ed.), Boston: McGraw-Hill Irwin.

Craig, S. C., & Douglas, S. P. (2005). *International research methods* (3rd ed.), Chichester, England: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Craighead, C. W., Karwan, K. R., & Miller, J. L. (2004). The effects of severity of failure and customer loyalty on service recovery strategies. *Production and Operation Management*, *13*(4), 307-321.

Craighead, C. W., Karwan, K. R., & Miller, J. L. (2004). The effects of severity of failure and customer loyalty on service recovery strategies. *Production and Operation Management*, *13*(4), 307-321.

Cranage, D. A., Sujan, H., & Godbey, G. (2005). Sharing the responsibility for service failure with customers: The effects of informed choice and outcome foreseeability on customer loyalty and exit. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*, *13*(3/4), 207-239.

Crie, D. (2003). Consumers' complaint behaviour. Taxonomy, typology and determinants: Towards a unified ontology. *Database Marketing and Customer Strategy Management*, *11*(1), 60-79.

Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*, *16*(3), 297-334.

Cropanzano, R., Prehar, C. A., & Chen, P. Y. (2002). Using social exchange theory to distinguish procedural from interactional justice. *Group and Organization Management*, *27*(3), 324-351.

Crotts, J. C. (2004). The effect of cultural distance on overseas travel behaviors. *Journal of Travel Research*, *43*(1), 83-88.

Cummings, V. H., & Venkatesan, M. (1976). Cognitive dissonance and consumer behavior: A review of the evidence. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *13*(3), 303-308.

Currie, R. R. (1997). A pleasure-tourism behaviors framework. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *24*(4), 884-897.

Dart, J., & Freeman, K. (1994). Dissatisfaction response styles among clients of professional accounting firms. *Journal of Business Research*, *29*, 75-81.

Davidow, M. (2000a). The bottom line impact of organizational responses to customer complaints. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *24*(4), 473-490.

Davidow, M. (2000b). Have you heard the word? the mediating effect of word of mouth and satisfaction on repurchase intentions following complaint handling. *American Marketing Association Conference Proceedings*, *11*(Winter), 86-87.

Davidow, M. (2003a). Organizational responses to customer complaints: What works and what doesn't. *Journal of Service Research*, *5*(3), 225-250.

Davidow, M. (2003b). Have you heard the word? the effect of word of mouth on perceived justice, satisfaction and repurchase intentions following complaint handling. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, *16*, 67-80.

Davis, L. L. (1992). Instrument review: getting the most from a panel of experts, *Applied Nursing Research*, *5*(4), 194-197.

Day, R. L. (1984). Modeling choices among alternative responses to dissatisfaction. In T. C. Kinnear (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research*, *11*(pp. 496-499). UT, Prova: Association for Consumer Research.

Day, R. L., & Ash, S. B. (1979). Collecting comprehensive consumer complaint data by survey research. In W. L. Wilkie (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research*, *6*(pp. 436-444). MI: Association for Consumer Research.

Day, R. L., & Bodur, M. (1978). Consumer response to dissatisfaction with services and intangibles. In K. H. Hunt (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research*, *5*(pp. 263-272). MI: Association for Consumer Research.

Day, R. L., & Landon, E. L. Jr. (1976). Collecting comprehensive consumer complaint data by survey research. In B. B. Anderson (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research*, *3*(pp. 263-268). MI: Association for Consumer Research.

Day, R. L., & Landon, E. L. Jr. (1977). Toward a theory of consumer complaining behavior. In A. G. Woodside, J. N. Sheth, & P. D. Bennett (Eds.), *Consumer and Industrial Buying Behavior*, (pp. 425-437). NY: Nord-Holland.

Day, R. L., Grabicke, K., Schaetzle, T., & Staubach, F. (1981). The hidden agenda of consumer complaining. *Journal of Retailing*, *57*(3), 86-106.

de Matos, C. A., Henrique, J. L., & Rossi, C. A. V. (2007). Service recovery paradox: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Service Research*, *10*(1), 60-77.

de Rojas, C. & Camarero, C. (2008). Visitors' experience, mood and satisfaction in a heritage context: Evidence from an interpretation center. *Tourism Management*, *29*(3), 525-537.

de Ruyter, K., & Wetzels, M. G. M. (2000). Customer equity considerations in service recovery: A cross-industry perspective. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *11*(1), 91-108.

Deutsch, M. (1985). *Distributive justice: A social-psychological perspective.* New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

DeVellis, R. F. (2003). *Scale development - theory and applications* (2nd ed.), CA: Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks.

Diamantopoulos, A., & Siguaw, A. J. A. (2005). *Introducing Lisrel*. LD: Sage Publications Ltd.

Diener, B. J., & Greyser, S. A. (1978). Consumer views of redress need. *Journal of Marketing*, *42*(4), 21-27.

Dolnicar, S., Grun, B., & Le, H. (2008). Cross-cultural comparisons of tourist satisfaction: Assessing analytical robustness. In A. Yuksel (Eds.), *Tourist Satisfaction and Complaining Behavior: Measurement and management issues in the tourism and hospitality industry*, (pp. 137-150). NY: Nova Science Publishers.

Doran, K. B. (2002). Lessons learned in cross-cultural research of Chinese and North American consumers. *Journal of Business Research*, *55*, 823-829.

Douglas, M. (1997). In defense of shopping. In P. Falk, P. & C. Campbell (Eds.), *The Shopping Experience* (pp.15-30), LD: Sage Publications.

Dowding, K., John, P., Mergoupis, T., & Van Vugt, M. (2000). Exit, voice and loyalty: Analytic and empirical developments. *European Journal of Political Research*, *37*, 469- 495.

Durvasula, S., Lysonski, S., & Mehta, S. C. (2000). Business-to-business marketing - Service recovery and customer satisfaction issues with ocean shipping lines. *European Journal of Marketing*, *34*(3/4), 433-452.

Ekiz, H. E. (2003). *Organizational responses to customer complaints in hotel industry: Evidence from Northern Cyprus*. Unpublished MBA Thesis, Famagusta: Eastern Mediterranean University.

Ekiz, H. E. (2007). Complaint management as a strategy for success: Current practices of Hong Kong hoteliers. *Research Postgraduate Conference*, 30 June, Hong Kong: Hong Kong University, 15.

Ekiz, H. E. (2009). Factors influencing organizational responses to guest complaints: Cases of Hong Kong and Northern Cyprus. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, *18*(6), 539-573.

Ekiz, H. E. (2010). Obstaculas al reclamo: El compartamiento particular de los turistas ante los reclamos. *Estudios y Perspectivas en Turismo*, *19*(1), 18-44.

Ekiz, H. E., & Arasli, H. (2007). Measuring the impacts of organizational responses: Case of Northern Cyprus hotels. *Managing Global Transitions: International Research Journal*, *5*(3), 271-287.

Ekiz, H. E., & Au, N. (2009a). Constraining factors to complaint: The particular complaining behavior of the tourists. *APacCHRIE Conference 2009*, 28-31 May, University of Nevada Las Vegas Singapore, Full paper published in Proceedings CD.

Ekiz, H. E., & Au, N. (2009b). Effects of attitude towards complaining on loyalty: Comparing Chinese and American perceptions. *APacCHRIE Conference 2009*, 28-31 May, University of Nevada Las Vegas Singapore, Full paper published in Proceedings CD.

Ekiz, H. E., & Au, N. (2011). Comparing Chinese and American attitude towards complaining. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* 23*(3)*, 327-343.

Ekiz, H. E., Arasli, H., Farivarsadri, G., & Bavik A. (2008). Measuring organizational responses to the student complaints in the perceived justice framework: Some evidence from Northern Cyprus universities. *Educational Research and Reviews*, *3*(7), 246-256.

Ekiz, H. E., Farivarsadri, G., Arasli, H., & Bavik, A. (2005). Ogrenci sikayetlerine kurumlarin verdikleri tepkilerin adalet boyutlari cercevesinde olculmesi: KKTC universiteleri ornegi. *10. Pazarlama Kongresi*, 16-19 November, Famagusta: Eastern Mediterranean University, 343-344.

Ekiz, H. E., Khoo-Lattimore, C., & Memarzadeh, F. (2011). Air the anger: Investigating online complaints on luxury hotels. *Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management*, 19-24 June 2011, Washington State University and Bogazici University, Turkey, Proceeding Book, 39-44.

Eroglu, S. A. (1987). The scenario method: A theoretical, not theatrical approach. *AMA Educator's Conference Proceedings*, Series No. 53, CH: American Marketing Association, 236-242.

Festinger, L. (1957). *A theory of cognitive dissonance*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Findlay, M. S. (1998). *Language and communication - a cross-cultural encyclopedia*. CA: ABC-CLIO Inc.

Fisher, J. E., Garrett, D. E., Arnold, M. J., & Ferris, M. E. (1999). Dissatisfied consumers who complain to the Better Business Bureau. *The Journal of Consumer Marketing, 16*(6), 576-581.

Fletcher, G. J. O., & Ward, C. (1988). Attribution theory and processes - a cross-cultural perspective. In M. H. Bond (Eds.), *The Cross-cultural Challenge to Social Psychology*, *11*(pp. 230-244). CA: Sage Publications.

Folger, R., & Cropanzano, R. (1998). *Organizational justice and human resource management*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sega Publications.

Folger, R., & Cropanzano, R. (2001). Fairness theory: Justice as accountability. In J. Greenberg & R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in Organizational Justice* (pp. 1-55). CA: Stanford University Press.

Folkes, V. S. (1984). Consumer reactions to product failure: An attribution approach. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *10*(4), 398-409.

Folkes, V. S., Koletsky, S., & Graham, J. L. (1987). A field study of causal inferences and consumer reaction: The view from the airport. *Journal of Consumer Research, 13*(4), 534-539.

Ford, G. T., Scheffman, D. T., & Weiskopf, D. A. (2004). Application of research on consumer complaint rates to the estimation of the financial impact of prospective product defects. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, *17*, 130-141.

Forgas, J. P. (1995). Mood and judgment, the affect infusion model (AIM). *Psychological Bulletin*, *117*(1), 39-66.

Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *18*(1), 39-50.

Fornell, C., & Wernerfelt, B. (1987). Defensive marketing strategy by customer complaint management: A theoretical analysis. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *24*(4), 337-346.

Fornell, C., & Wernerfelt, B. (1988). A model for customer complaint management. *Marketing Science*, *7*(3), 287-298.

Fornell, C., & Westbrook, R. A. (1979). An exploratory study of assertiveness, aggressiveness, and consumer complaining behavior. In W. L. Wilkie (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research*, *6*(pp. 105-110). MI: Association for Consumer Research.

Fornell, C., & Westbrook, R. A. (1984). The vicious circle of consumer complaints. *Journal of Marketing*, *48*(3), 68-78.

Friedman, R., Olekalns, M., & Oh, S. D. (2011). Cross-cultural difference in reactions to facework during service failure. Negotiation and Conflict Management Research, 16(8), 352-380.

Frijda, N., & Jahoda, G. (1966). On the scope and methods of cross-cultural research. *International Journal of Psychology*, *1*(2), 109-127.

Fu, Y. Y., & Mount, D. (2007). Hotel guests' cumulative satisfaction updating process in the context of service failure and service recovery. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, *8*(1), 77-98.

Furrer, O., Liu, B. S. C. & Sudharshan, D. (2000). The relationships between culture and service quality perceptions basis for cross-cultural market segmentation and resource allocation. *Journal of Service Research*, *2*(4), 355-371.

Garrett, D. E., Meyers, R. A., & Camey, J. (1991). Interactive complaint communication: A theoretical framework and research agenda. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction, and Complaining Behavior*, *4*(1), 62-79.

Garson, G. D. (2001). PA 765 statenotes. [Online] An online textbook. Retrieved February 15, 2009 from http://www2.chass.ncsu.edu/garson/pa765/statnote.htm.

Gelbrich, K., & Roschk, H. (2011). A meta-analysis of organizational complaint handling and customer responses. *Journal of Service Research*, *14*(1) 24-43.

George, J. M. (1989). Mood and absence. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *74*(2), 317-324.

George, J. M. (1991). State or trait: Effects of positive mood on prosocial behaviors at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *76*(22), 299-307.

Gerbing, D. W., & Anderson, J. C. (1988). An updated paradigm for scale development incorporating unidimensionality and its assessment. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *25*(2), 186-192.

Gilbert, D. C. (1991). An examination of the consumer behaviour process related to tourism. In C. P. Cooper, *Progress in Tourism, Recreation and Hospitality Management*, *3*(pp. 78-105). LD: Belhaven Press.

Gilly, M. C. (1987). Postcomplaint processes: from organizational response to repurchase behavior, *The Journal of Consumer Affairs*, *21*(2), 293-313.

Gilly, M. C., & Gelb, B. D. (1982). Post-purchase consumer processes and the complaining consumer. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *9*(3), 323-328.

Gilly, M. C., Hansen, R. W. (1992). Consumer complaint handling as a strategic marketing tool. *The Journal of Product and Brand Management*, *1*(3), 5-16.

Gnoth, J., Zins, A. H., Lengmueller, R., & Boshoff, C. (2000). Emotions, mood, flow and motivations to travel. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *9*(3), 23-34.

Goodman, J. (2006). Manage complaints to enhance loyalty. *Quality Progress*, *39*(2), 28-34.

Goodman, J., & Newman, S. (2003). Understanding customer behavior and complaints. *Quality Progress*, *36*(1), 51-55.

Goodwin, C., & Ross, I. (1989). Salient dimensions of perceived fairness in resolution of service complaints. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, *2*, 87-92.

Goodwin, C., & Ross, I. (1990). Consumer evaluations of responses to complaints: What's fair and why? *The Journal of Services Marketing*, *4*(3), 53-61.

Goodwin, C., & Ross, I. (1992). Consumer responses to service failures: Influence of procedural and interactional fairness perception. *Journal of Business Research*, *25*, 149-163.

Grainer, M. A., McEvoy, K. A., & King, D. W. (1979). Consumer problems and complaints: A national view. In W. L. Wilkie (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research*, *6*(pp. 494-500). MI: Association for Consumer Research.

Green, E. G. T., Deschamps, J. C., & Paez, D. (2005). Variation of individualism and collectivism within and between 20 countries a typological analysis. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, *36*(3), 321-339.

Greenberg, J. (1990). Employee theft as a reaction to underpayment inequity: The hidden cost of pay cuts. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *75*(5), 561-568.

Grönhaug, K., & Arndt, J. (1980). Consumer dissatisfaction and complaining behavior as feedback: A comparative analysis of public and private delivery systems. In J. C. Olsen (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research*, *7*(pp. 324-328). MI: Association for Consumer Research.

Grönhaug, K., & Zaltman, G. (1981). Complainers and noncomplainers revisited: Another look at the data. In K. B. Monroe (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research*, *8*(pp. 83-88). MI: Association for Consumer Research.

Grönroos, C. (1990). *Service management and marketing*, LEX: Lexington Books.

Grönroos, C. (2007). *Service management and marketing: Customer management in service competition* (3rd ed.), West Sussex: John Wiley and Sons Inc.

Gulati, R., & Yoo, B. (2001). Product failure and consumption-related behaviors: The

Gursoy, D., Ekiz, H. E. & Chi, C. G. (2007). Impacts of organizational responses on complainants' justice perceptions and post-purchase behaviors. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism*, *8*(1), 1-25.

Gursoy, D., Ekiz, H. E., & Chi, C. G. (2006). Impacts of organizational responses on complainants’ justice perceptions and post-purchase behaviors in North Cyprus hotel industry: International tourist perspective. *2006 Annual I-CHRIE Conference,* 26-30 July, Washington D. C., Proceeding Book, 141-146.

Gursoy, D., McCleary, K. W., & Lepsito, L. R. (2007). Propensity to complain: Effects of personality and behavioral factors. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *31*(3), 358-386.

Hair, J. F. Jr., Babin, B., Money, A. H., & Samouel, P. (2003). *Research Methods of Business*. West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Hair, J. F. Jr., Money, A. H., Samouel, P., & Page, M. (2007). *Research Methods of Business*. West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Hall, E. T. (1966). *The hidden dimension*. NY: Anchor Books Doubleday.

Hall, E. T. (1976). *Beyond culture*. NY: Anchor Books.

Hall, E. T. (1980). *The silent language*. CT: Doubleday and Company Inc.

Halstead, D., & Dröge, C. (1991). Consumer attitudes toward complaining and the prediction of multiple complaint responses. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *18*(1), 210-216.

Hart, C. W. L., Heskett, J. L., & Sasser, W. E. Jr. (1990). The profitable art of service recovery. *Harvard Business Review*, *68*(4), 148-156.

Hartline, M. D., & Ferrell, O. C. (1996). The management of customer-contact service employees: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Marketing*, *60*(4), 52-70.

Havitz, M. E., & Dimanche, F. (1999). Leisure involvement revisited: Drive properties and paradoxes. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *31*(2), 122-149.

Hayduk, L. A. (1996). *Lisrel issues, debates, and strategies*. MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Hedrick, N., Beverland, M., & Minahan, S. (2007). An exploration of relational customers’ response to service failure. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *21*(1), 64-72.

Heffes, E. (1998). Want to keep clients? knock their socks off! *Accounting Today*, *12*(6), 8-9.

Herbig, P. (1998). *Handbook of cross-cultural marketing*. NY: The Haworth Press.

Heskett, J. L., Jones, T. O., Loveman, G. W., Sasser, W. E. Jr., & Schlesinger, L. A. (1994). Putting the service-profit chain to work, *Harvard Business Review*, *72*(2), 164-174.

Hess, R. L. Jr., Ganesan, S., & Klein, N. M. (2003). Service failure and recovery: The impact of relationship factors on customer satisfaction. *Academy of Marketing Science Journal*, *31*(2), 127-145.

Heung, V. C. S., Ekiz, H. E., & Ling, L. (2007). Evaluation of customer feedback systems at hotels in China. *APAC-CHRIE & APTA Joint Conference 2007*, 24-27 May, Beijing: Beijing International Studies University, Full paper in Proceedings CD.

Higie, R. A., Feick, L. F., & Price, L. L. (1987). Types and amount of word-of-mouth communications about retailers. *Journal of Retailing*, *63*(3), 260-278.

Hinkin, T. R. (1995). A review of scale development practices in the study of organizations, *Journal of Management*, *21*(5), 967-988.

Hirschman, A. O. (1970). *Exit, voice and loyalty: Responses to decline in firms, organizations and states*, CAM: Harvard University Press.

Hoare, R. J., Butcher, K., & O'Brien, D. (2011). Understanding Chinese diners in an overseas context: A cultural perspective. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *35*(3), 358-380.

Hocutt, M. A., Bowers, M. R., & Donavan, D. T. (2006). The art of service recovery: Fact or fiction? *Journal of Services Marketing*, *20*(3), 199-207.

Hocutt, M. A., Chakraborty, G., & Mowen, J. C. (1997). The impact of perceived justice on customer satisfaction and intention to complain in a service recovery. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *24*, 457-453.

Hoffman, K. D., & Bateson, J. E. G. (2006). *Services marketing: Concepts, strategies and cases* (3rd ed.). OH: Thomson South-Western.

Hoffman, K. D., Kelley, S. W., & Rotalsky, H. M. (1995). Tracking service failures and employee recovery efforts. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *9*(2), 49-61.

Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences*. BH: Sage Publications.

Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and organizations - software of the minds.* NY: McGraw-Hill Inc.

Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences* (2nd ed.), CA: Sage Publications.

Hofstede, G. (2002a). Dimensions do not exist: A reply to Brendan McSweeney. *Human Relations*, *55*(11), 1-7.

Hofstede, G. (2002b). The pitfalls of cross-national survey research: A reply to the article by Spector et al. on the psychometric properties of the Hofstede Values Survey Module 1994. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, *51*(1), 170-178.

Hofstede, G. (2007a). A European in Asia. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, *10*, 16-21.

Hofstede, G. (2007b). What are Hofstede's five cultural dimensions? [Online] Retrieved November 29, 2007, from http://www.geert-hofstede.com/index.shtml.

Hofstede, G., & Bond, M. H. (1988). The Confucius connection: From cultural roots to economic growth. *Organizational Dynamics*, *16*(4), 5-22.

Hofstede, G., & Hofstede, G. J. (2005). *Cultures and organizations - software of the minds* (2nd ed.), NY: McGraw-Hill Inc.

Hogarth, J. M., & English, M. P. (2002). Consumer complaint and redress: An important mechanism for protecting and empowering consumers. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*, *26*(3), 217-226.

Hogarth, J. M., Hilgert, M. A., Kolondinsky, J. M., & Lee, J. (2001). Problems with credit cards: An exploration of consumer complaining behaviors. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, *14*, 88-107.

Hoppe, M. H. (1990). *A comparative study of country elites: International differences in work-related values and learning and their implications for management training and development.* Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, NC: The University of North Carolina.

Hoppe, M. H. (2004). An interview with Geert Hofstede. *Academy of Management Executive*, *18*(1), 75-79.

Hosany, S., & Gilbert, D. (2010). Measuring tourists' emotional experiences toward hedonic holiday destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, *49*(4), 513-526.

Houston, M. B., & Bettencourt, L. A. (1999). But that's not fair! An exploratory study of student perceptions of instructor fairness. *Journal of Marketing Education*, *21*(2), 84-96.

Hsu, C. H. C., & Lam, T. (2003). Mainland Chinese travelers' motivations and barriers of visiting Hong Kong. *Journal of the Academy of Business and Economics*, *10*(1), 60-67.

Hsu, T. K., Tsai, Y. F., & Wu, H. H. (2009). The preference analysis for tourist choice of destination: A case study of Taiwan. *Tourism Management*, *30*(2), 288-297.

Huang, J. H. (1994). National character and purchase dissatisfaction response. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, *7*, 257-266.

Huang, J. H., Huang, C. T., & Wu, S. (1996). National character and response to unsatisfactory hotel service. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *15*(3), 229-243.

Huang, S. H. (2007). The effects of motivation, past experience, perceived constraint, and attitude on tourist revisit intention. Unpublished PhD dissertation submitted to The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong.

Huang, S. H., & Hsu, C. H. C. (2005). Mainland Chinese residents' perceptions and motivations of visiting Hong Kong: Evidence from focus group interviews. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *10*(2), 191-205.

Huang, S. H., & Hsu, C. H. C. (2010). Effects of travel motivation, past experience, perceived constraint, and attitude on revisit intention. *Journal of Travel Research*, *48*(1), 29-44.

Hudson, S., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (2001). Cross-cultural tourist behavior: An analysis of tourist attitudes towards the environment. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *12*(2/3), 1-22.

Hui, M. K., & Au, K. (2001). Justice perceptions of complaint-handling: A cross-cultural comparison between PRC and Canadian customers. *Journal of Business Research*, *52*(2), 161-173.

Hui, M. K., Ho, C. K. Y., & Wan. L. C. (2011). Prior relationships and consumer responses to service failures: A cross-cultural study, *Journal of International Marketing*, *19*(1), 59-81.

Innis, H. A. (1949). The bias of communication. *The Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science*, *15*(4), 457-476

Iso-Ahola, S. E. (1982). Toward a social psychological theory of tourism motivation*:* A rejoinder. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *12*(1), 256-262.

Jacoby, J., & Jaccard, J. J. (1981). The sources, meaning, and validity of consumer complaint behavior: A psychological analysis. *Journal of Retailing*, *57*(3), 4-24.

Jafari, J. (1987). Tourism models: The sociocultural aspects. *Tourism Management*, *8*(2), 151-159.

Jafari, J. (2001). The scientification of tourism. In V. L. Smith & M. Brent *Host and guest revisited: Tourism issues of the 21st century* (pp. 28-50), NY: Cognizant Communication Corporation.

Jafari, J. (2007). Entry into a new field of study - leaving a footprint. In D. Nash (Eds.), *The study of tourism - anthropological and sociological beginnings* (pp. 108-121). OXF: Elsevier.

Jafari, J., & Gardner, R. M. (1991). Tourism and fiction: Travel as a fiction-fiction as a journey. Cahiers du Tourisme, Série C, N 119. Aix-en-Provence, France: Centre des hautes études touristiques.

Jafari, J., & Way, W. (1994). Multicultural strategies in tourism. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, *35*(6), 72-79.

Jennings, G. (2001). *Tourism research*. SYD: John Wiley & Sons Australia Ltd.

Johns, N., & Lee-Ross, D. (1998). *Research methods in service industry management*. LD: Cassell.

Johnston, R. (1998). The effect of intensity of dissatisfaction on complaining behaviour. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, *11*, 69-77.

Johnston, R., & Fern, A. (1999). Service recovery strategies for single and double deviation scenarios. The Service Industries Journal, *19*(2), 69-82.

Jones, H., & Farquhar, J. D. (2007). Putting it right: Service failure and customer loyalty in UK banks. *International Journal of Bank Marketing*, *25*(3), 161-172.

Jöreskog, K. G. (1993). Testing structural equation models. In K. A. Bollen & J. S. Long (Eds.), *Testing Structural Equation Models* (pp. 294-316). CA: Sega Publications Inc.

Jöreskog, K. G. (1999). Formulas for skewness and kurtosis. [Online] *Technical Paper*. Retrieved May 5, 2009, from http://www.ssicentral.com/lisrel/techdocs/kurtosis.pdf

Jöreskog, K. G., & Sörbom, D. (1996). *LISREL 8: User's reference guide*. CH: Scientific Software International Inc.

Josiam, B. M., Kinley, T. R., & Kim, Y. K. (2005). Involvement and the tourist shopper: Using the involvement construct to segment the American tourist shopper at the mall. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *11*(2), 135-154.

Judd, C. M., Smith, E. R., & Kidder, L. H. (1991). *Research methods in social relations* (6th ed.), TX: Rinehart and Winston Inc.

Kanousi, A. (2005). An empirical investigation of the role of culture on service recovery expectations. *Managing Service Quality*, *15*(1), 57-69.

Kaplan, D. (2000). *Structural equation modeling: Foundations and extensions.* CA: Sega Publications Inc.

Karande, K., Magnini, V. P., & Tam, L. (2007). Recovery voice and satisfaction after service failure an experimental investigation of mediating and moderating factors. *Journal of Service Research*, *10*(2), 187-203.

Karatepe, O. M., & Ekiz, H. E. (2004). The effects of organizational responses to complaint on satisfaction and loyalty: A study of hotel guests in Northern Cyprus. *Managing Service Quality*, *14*(6), 476-486.

Kasper, H. (1988). On problem perception, dissatisfaction and brand loyalty. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, *9*(3), 387-397.

Kasper, H., van Helsdingen, P., & Gabbott, M. (2006). *Services marketing management: A strategic perspective* (2nd ed.), West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Kau, A. K., & Loh, E. W. Y. (2006). The effects of service recovery on consumer satisfaction: A comparison between complainants and non-complainants. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *20*(2), 101-111.

Keiningham, T. L., Cooil, B., Aksoy, L., Andreassen, T. W., & Weiner, J. (2007). The value of different customer satisfaction and loyalty metrics in predicting customer retention, recommendation, and share-of-wallet. *Managing Service Quality*, *17*(4), 361-384.

Kelley, S., Hoffman, K., & Davis, M. (1993). A typology retail failures and recoveries. *Journal of Retailing*, *69*(4), 429-452.

Kelloway, E. K. (1998). *Using Lisrel for structural equation modeling*. CA: Sage Publications Inc.

Kerr, A. H. (2004). Service recovery and the elusive paradox: An examination of the effects of magnitude of service failure, service failure responsiveness, service guarantee and additional recovery effort on service recovery outcomes. Unpublished PhD dissertation submitted to Louisiana State University, Louisiana.

Kim, C., & Lee, S. (2000). Understanding the cultural differences in tourist motivation between Anglo-American and Japanese tourist, *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *9*(2), 153-170.

Kim, M. G., Wang, C., & Mattila, A. S. (2010). The relationship between consumer complaining behavior and service recovery: An integrative review. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *22*(7), 975-991.

Kim, M. G., Wang, C., & Mattila, A.S. (2010). The relationship between consumer complaining behavior and service recovery: An integrative review. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *22*(7), 975-991.

Kim, S. S., & McKercher, B. (2011). The collective effect of national culture and tourist culture on tourist behavior, *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *28*(2), 145-164.

Kim, T. T., Kim, W. G. & Kim, H. B. (2009). The effects of perceived justice on recovery satisfaction, trust, word-of-mouth, and revisit intention in upscale hotels. *Tourism Management*, *30*(1), 51-62.

Kim, Y. Y., & Gudykunst, W. B. (1988). *Theories of intercultural communication*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Ki-Moon, B. (2007). Tourism is the building block for global peace and cultural understanding. *UNWTO News*, *21*(3), 4.

Kindel, T. I. (1983). A partial theory of Chinese consumer behavior: Marketing strategy implications. *Hong Kong Journal of Business Management*, *1*(1), 97-109.

Kinnear, P. R., & Gray, C. D. (2008). *SPSS 15 made simple*. NY: Psychology Press.

Kline, R. B. (1998). *Principles and practice of structural equation modeling*. NY: Guilford.

Klockars, A. J., & Sax, G. (1986). Multiple comparisons. Sage University papers series, Quantitative applications in the social sciences (no: 07-061), CA: Sage Publications.

Kolodinsky, J. (1993). Complaints, redress, and subsequent purchases of medical services by dissatisfied consumers. *Journal of Consumer Policy*, *16*(2), 193-214.

Kolodinsky, J. (1995). Usefulness of economics in explaining consumer complaints. *The Journal of Consumer Affairs*, *29*(1), 29-54.

Kolondinsky, J., & Aleong, J. (1990). An integrated model of consumer complaint action applied to services: A pilot study. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, *3*, 61-70.

Kotler, P., & Armstrong, G. (2006). *Principles of marketing* (11th ed.), NJ: Prentice-Hall Inc.

Kotler, P., & Keller, K. (2008). *Marketing management* (13th ed.), NJ: Prentice-Hall Inc.

Kotler, P., Bowen, J., & Makens, J. (1999). *Marketing for hospitality and tourism* (2nd ed.), NJ: Prentice-Hall International Inc.

Kotler, P., Bowen, J., & Makens, J. (2010). *Marketing for hospitality and tourism* (5td ed.), NJ: Prentice-Hall International Inc.

Kowalski, R. M. (1996). Complaints and complaining: Functions, antecedents, and consequences. *Psychological Bulletin*, *119*(2), 179-196.

Kowalski, R. M. (2002). Whining, griping, and complaining: Positivity in the negativity, *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, *58*(9), 1023-1035.

Kroeber, A. L. (1987). *The nature of culture*. CH: The University of Chicago Press.

Lapidus, R. S., & Pinkerton, L. (1995). Customer complaint situations: An equity theory perspective. *Psychology and Marketing*, *12*(2), 105-122.

Laws, E. (2004). *Improving tourism and hospitality services*. OXn: CABI Publishing.

Lee, D. H. (2003). Consumers' experiences, opinions, attitudes, satisfaction, dissatisfaction, and complaining behavior with wending machines. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, *16*, 178-197.

Lee, J. S., & Back, K. J. (2009). An examination of attendee brand loyalty: Understanding the moderator of behavioral brand loyalty. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *33*(1), 30-50.

Lee, Y. L., & Sparks, B. (2007). Appraising tourism and hospitality service failure events: A Chinese perspective. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *31*(4), 504-529.

Leslie, D., & Russell, H. (2006). The importance of foreign language skills in the tourism sector: A comparative study of student perceptions in the UK and continental Europe. *Tourism Management*, *27*(6), 1397-1407.

Leung, K. (1988). Theoretical advances in justice behavior - some cross-cultural inputs. In M. H. Bond (Eds.), *The Cross-cultural Challenge to Social Psychology*, 11(218-229), CA: Sage Publications.

Leung, K., & Lind, E. A. (1986). Procedural justice and culture: Effects of culture, gender and investigator status on procedural preferences. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *50*(6), 1134-1140.

Leung, K., & Stephan, W. G. (1998). Perceptions of injustice in intercultural relations. *Applied and Preventive Psychology*, *7*(3), 195-205.

Leventhal, G. S. (1976). Fairness in social relationships. In J. W. Thibaut, J. T. Spence & R. C. Carson (Eds.), *Contemporary Topics in Social Psychology*, (pp. 211-239). NJ: General Learning Press.

Levesque, T. J., & McDougall, G. H. G. (1993). Managing customer satisfaction: The nature of service problems and customer exit, voice and loyalty. *Asia Pacific Journal of Quality Management*, *2*(2), 40-58.

Liao, H. (2007). Do it right this time: The role of employee service recovery performance in customer-perceived justice and customer loyalty after service failures. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*(2), 475-489.

Likert, R. (1932). *A technique for the measurement of attitudes.* In R. S. Woodworth (Eds.), Archives of Psychology, 140, NY: New York University Publications.

Liljander, V., & Mattsson, J. (2002). Impact of customer preconsumption mood on the evaluation of employee behavior in service encounters. *Psychology and Marketing*, *19*(10), 837-860.

Lin, I. Y. H. & Mattila, A. S. (2006). Understanding restaurant switching behavior from a cultural perspective. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *30*(1), 3-15.

Lind, E. A., Tyler, T. R., & Huo, Y. J. (1997). Procedural context and culture: Variation in the antecedents of procedural justice judgments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *73*(4), 767-780.

Litvin, S. W., Crotts, J. C., & Hefner, F. L. (2004). Cross-cultural tourist behaviour: A replication and extension involving Hofstede's uncertainty avoidance dimension. *The International Journal of Tourism Research*, *6*(1), 29-37.

Liu, T. C., Warden, C. A., Lee, C. H., & Huang, C. T. (2001). Fatal service failures across cultures. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*, *8*(1/2), 93-111.

Lo, A., Cheung, C., & Law, R. (2002). Information search behavior of Hong Kong's inbound travelers - a comparison of business and leisure travelers. J*ournal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *13*(3), 61-81.

Loevinger, J. (1957). Objective tests as instruments of psychological theory. *Psychological Reports*, Monograph Supplement *9, 3,* 635-694.

Lord, K. R., Putrevu, S., & Zheng, S. Y. (2005). Cross-border restaurant patronage: Cultural determinants of perceptions and satisfaction. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, *6*(4), 33-47.

Lovelock, C. H. (2000). *Services marketing: People, technology, strategy* (4th ed.), NJ: Prentice-Hall International Inc.

Lovelock, C. H., & Wright, L. (1999). *Principles of service marketing and management*. NJ: Prentice-Hall International Inc.

Lovelock, C. H., Patterson, P., & Walker, R. (2001). *Services marketing: An Asia-Pacific perspective* (2nd. ed.), SYD: Prentice-Hall International Inc.

Lovelock, C. H., Wirtz, J., & Keh, H. T. (2002). *Services marketing in Asia: Managing people, technology, strategy*. Singapore: Prentice-Hall Asia Pte Ltd.

Lowyck, E., Van-Langenhove, L., & Bollaert, L. (1992). Typologies of tourist roles. In P. Johnson & B. Thomas (Eds.), *Choice and Demand in Tourism* (pp. 13-32). LD: Mansell.

Lundberg, D. E. (1990). *The tourist business* (6th ed.), West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Luomala, H. T., Kumar, R., Worm, V., & Singh, J. D. (2004). Cross-cultural differences in mood-regulation: An empirical comparison of individualistic and collectivistic cultures. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, *16*(4), 39-62.

Luria, G., Gal, I., & Yagil, D. (2009). Employees' willingness to report service complaints. *Journal of Service Research*, *12*(2), 156-174.

Magnini, V. P., & Ford, J. B. (2004). Service failure recovery in China. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *16*(5), 279-286.

Magnini, V. P., Ford, J. B., Markowski, E. P., & Honeycutt, E. D. Jr. (2007). The service recovery paradox: Justifiable theory or smoldering myth? *Journal of Services Marketing*, *21*(3), 213-225.

Maheswaran, D. & Shavitt, S. (2000). Issues and new directions in global consumer psychology. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, *9*(2), 59-66.

Malhotra, N. K., & McCort, J. D. (2001). A cross-cultural comparison of behavioral intention models - theoretical consideration and an empirical investigation. *International Marketing Review*, *18*(3), 235-269.

Malhotra, N. K., Agarwal, J., & Peterson, M. (1996). Methodological issues in cross-cultural marketing research - a state-of-the-art review. *International Marketing Review*, *13*(5), 7-43.

Manrai, L. A., & Gardner, M. P. (1991). The influence of affect on attributions for product failure. In R. H. Holman & M. R. Solomon (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research*, *18*(pp. 249-254). UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Manrai, L. A., & Manrai, A. K. (1993). Complaints and compliments about service encounters: A comparison of American and Bulgarian consumers. In L. McAlister & M. L. Rothschild (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research*, *20*(pp. 97-101). UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Marsh, H. W., & Hocevar, D. (1985). The application of confirmatory factor analysis to the study of self-concept - first and higher order factor structures and their invariance across age groups. *Psychological Bulletin*, *97*(3), 562-582.

Martinez-Tur, V., Peiro, J. M., Ramos, J., & Moliner, C. (2006). Justice perceptions as predictors of customer satisfaction: The impact of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *36*(1), 100-119.

Mattila, A. S. (1999a). The role of culture and purchase motivation in service encounter evaluations. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *13*(4/5), 376-389.

Mattila, A. S. (1999b). The role of culture in the service evaluation process. *Journal of Service Research*, *1*(3), 250-261.

Mattila, A. S. (2000). When does mood matter? An examination of two types of hospitality service encounters. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*, *7*(3), 55-65.

Mattila, A. S. (2001a). The impact of relationship type on customer loyalty in a context of service failures. *Journal of Service Research*, *4*(2), 91-101.

Mattila, A. S. (2001b). The effectiveness of service recovery in a multi-industry setting. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *15*(7), 583-596.

Mattila, A. S. (2004). The impact of service failures on customer loyalty - the moderating role of affective commitment. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *15*(2), 134-149.

Mattila, A. S., & Cranage, D. (2005). The impact of choice on fairness in the context of service recovery. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *19*(5), 271-279.

Mattila, A. S., & Patterson, P. G. (2004a). Service recovery and fairness perceptions in collectivist and individualist contexts. *Journal of Service Research*, *6*(4), 336-346.

Mattila, A. S., & Patterson, P. G. (2004b). The impact of culture on consumers' perceptions of service recovery efforts. *Journal of Retailing*, *80*(3), 196-206.

Mattila, A. S., & Wirtz, J. (2004). Consumer complaining to firms: The determinants of channel choice. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *18*(2), 147-155.

Maute, M. F., & Forrester, W. R. Jr. (1993). The structure and determinants of consumer complaint intentions and behavior. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, *14*(2), 219-247.

Maxham III, J. G. (2001). Service recovery's influence on customer satisfaction, positive word-of-mouth, and purchase intentions. *Journal of Business Research*, *54*(1), 11-24.

Maxham III, J. G., & Netemeyer, R. G. (2002). Modeling customer perceptions of complaint handling over time: The effects of perceived justice on satisfaction and intent. *Journal of Retailing*, *78*, 239-252.

Maxwell, J. A. (1996). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach*. Applied Social Research Methods Series, 41, CA: Sage Publications.

McAlister, D. T., & Erffmeyer, R. C. (2003). A content analysis of outcomes and responsibilities for consumer complaints to third-party organizations. *Journal of Business Research*, *56*(4), 341-351.

McCabe, S. (2005). Who is a tourist? A critical review. *Tourist Studies*, *5*(1) 85-106.

McCabe, S., & Marson, D. (2006). Tourist constructions and consumptions of space: Place, modernity and meaning. In P. M. Burns, & M., Novelli (Eds.), *Tourism and Social Identities - Global Frameworks and Local Realities*, (pp. 91-108). MA: Elsevier.

McColl-Kennedy, J. R., & Sparks, B. A. (2003). Application of fairness theory to service failure and service recovery. *Journal of Service Research*, *5*(3), 251-266.

McCollough, M. A. (2000). The effect of perceived justice and attributions regarding service failure and recovery on post-recovery customer satisfaction and service quality attitudes. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *24*(4), 423-447.

McCollough, M. A., & Bharadwaj, S. G. (1992). The recovery paradox: An examination of customer satisfaction in relation to disconfirmation, service quality and attribution based theory. In C. T. Allen,T. J. Madden, T. A. Shimp, R. D. Howell, G. M. Zinkhan & D. D. Heisley (Eds.), *Marketing Theory and Applications* (p. 119). CH: American Marketing Association.

McCollough, M. A., Berry, L. L., & Yadav, M. S. (2000). An empirical investigation of customer satisfaction after service failure and recovery. *Journal of Service Research*, *3*(2), 121-137.

McGorry, S. Y. (2000). Measurement in a cross-cultural environment: Survey translation issues. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, *3*(2), 74-81.

McIntosh, R. W., Goeldner, C. R., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (2006). *Tourism principles, practices, philosophies* (10th ed.), NY: John Wiley and Sons Inc.

McKercher, B. (1998). The effect of market access on destination choice. *Journal of Travel Research*, *37*(1), 39-47.

McKercher, B., & Lew, A. A. (2003). Distance decay and the impact of effective tourism exclusion zones on international travel flows. *Journal of Travel Research*, *42*(2), 159-165.

McQuilken, L. (2010). The influence of failure severity and employee effort on service recovery in a service guarantee context. *Australasian Marketing Journal* ,*18*(4), 214-221.

Meethan, K. (2001). *Tourism in global society - place, culture, consumption*. LD: Palgrave.

Michel, S. (2001). Analyzing service failures and recoveries: A process approach. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *12*(1), 20-33.

Mill, R. C. (1990). *Tourism: The international business*. NJ: Prentice Hall.

Millan, A., & Esteban, A. (2004). Development of a multiple-item scale for measuring customer satisfaction in travel agencies services. *Tourism Management*, *25*(5), 533-546.

Mitchell, V. M., & Critchlow, C. (1993). Dealing with complaints: A survey of UK grocery suppliers. *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, *21*(2), 15-22.

Mittal, B., & Lee, M. S. (1989). A causal model of consumer involvement. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, *10*(3), 363-389.

Mok, C., & DeFranco, A. L. (1999). Chinese cultural values: Their implications for travel and tourism marketing. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *8*(2), 99-114.

Money, R. B., Gilly, M. C., & Graham, J. L. (1998). Explorations of national culture and word-of-mouth referral behavior in the purchase of industrial services in the United States and Japan. *Journal of Marketing*, *62*(4), 76-87.

Morel, K. P. N., Poiesz, T. B. C., & Wilke, H. A. M. (1997). Motivation, capacity, and opportunity to complain: Towards a comprehensive model of consumer complaint behavior. In M. J. Houston (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research*, *24*(pp. 464-469). MI, Ann Arbor: Association for Consumer Research.

Morello, G. (2004). Spacing and timing in leisure activities. In K. Weiermair & C. Mathies (Eds.), *The Tourism and Leisure Industry - Shaping the Future* (pp. 69-81). NY: Haworth Hospitality Press.

Morgan, R. M., & Hunt, S. D. (1994). The commitment-trust theory of relationship marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, *58*(3), 20-38.

Morley, C. L. (1990). What is tourism? definitions, concepts and characteristics. *The Journal of Tourism Studies*, *1*(1), 3-8.

Morris, M. W., & Leung, K. (2000). Justice for all? progress in research on cultural variation in the psychology of distributive and procedural justice. *Applied Psychology: An International Re*view, *49*(1), 100-132.

Moyer, M. S. (1984). Characteristics of consumer complainants: Implications for marketing and public policy. *Journal of Public Policy and Marketing*, *3*(1), 67-84.

Nabatchi, T., Bingham, L. B., & Good, D. H. (2007). Organizational justice and workplace mediation: A six factor model. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, *18*(2), 148-174.

Namkung, Y., & Jang, S. (2010). Service failures in restaurants: Which stage of service failure is the most critical? *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, *51*(3), 323-343.

Nash, D. (1996). *Anthropology of tourism*. NY: Elsevier Science Ltd.

Naylor, G. (2003). The complaining customer: A service provider's best friend? *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, *16*, 241-248.

Ndubisi, N. O., & Ling, T. Y. (2005). Complaint behaviour of Malaysian consumers. *Management Research News*, *29*(1/2), 65-76.

Netemeyer, R. G, Bearden, W. O., & Sharma, S. (2003). *Scaling procedures: Issues and applications*. LD: Sage Publications.

Ngai, E. W. T., Heung, V. C. S., Wong, Y. H., & Chan, F. K. Y. (2007). Consumer complaint behaviour of Asians and non-Asians about hotel services - an empirical analysis. *European Journal of Marketing*, *41*(11/12), 1375-1391.

Nicholls, R., (2011). Customer-to-customer interaction (CCI): a cross-cultural perspective, *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *23*(2), 209-223.

Nikbin, D., Ismail, I., Marimuthu, M., & Armesh, H. (2012). Perceived justice in service recovery and switching intention: Evidence from Malaysian mobile telecommunication industry, *Management Research Review*, *35*(4), XX-XY.

Nunnally, J. C. Jr. (1978). *Psychometric theory*, NY: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Nunnally, J. C. Jr., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric theory* (3rd ed.), NY: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Nyer, P. U. (2000). An investigation into whether complaining can cause increased consumer satisfaction. *Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *17*(1), 9-19.

O'Neill, J. W., & Mattila, A. S. (2004). Towards the development of a lodging service recovery strategy. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*, *11*(1), 51-64.

O'Neill, M., & Palmer, A. (2004). Cognitive dissonance and the stability of service quality perceptions, *The Journal of Services Marketing*, *18*(6/7), 433-449.

Ogden, D. T., Ogden, J. R., & Schau, H. J. (2004). Exploring the impact of culture and acculturation on consumer purchase decisions: Toward a microcultural perspective. *Academy of Marketing Science Review*, *3*, available at: www.amsreview.org/articles/ogden02-2004.pdf

Oh, D. G. (2004). Complaining behavior of academic library users in South Korea. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship*, *30*(2), 136-144.

Oh, D. G. (2006). Complaining intentions and their relationships to complaining behavior of academic library users in South Korea. *Library Management*, *27*(3), 168-189.

Oh, H., & Hsu, C. H. C. (2001). Volitional degrees of gambling behaviors. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *28*(3), 618-637.

Ok, C., Back, K. J., & Shanklin, C. W. (2005). Modeling roles of service recovery strategy: A relationship-focused view. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *29*(4), 484-507.

Oliver, R. L. (1987). An investigation of the interrelationship between consumer (dis)satisfaction and complaint reports. In M. Wallendorf & P. Anderson (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research*, *14*(pp. 218-222). MI: Association for Consumer Research.

Oliver, R. L. (1996). *Satisfaction: A behavioral perspective on the consumer*. NY: McGraw-Hill.

Oliver, R. L. (1999). Whence customer loyalty. *Journal of Marketing*, *63*(4), 33-44.

Oliver, R. L., & Swan, J. E. (1989). Consumer perceptions of interpersonal equity and satisfaction in transactions: A field survey approach. *Journal of Marketing*, *53*(2), 21-35.

Olsen, M., Teare, R., & Gummesson, E. (1996). *Service quality in hospitality organizations*. LD: Cassel Publishing Inc.

Ozer, L. S. (1999). Musteri tatmini ve tatmin teorilerine yonelik literaturedeki kuramsal tartismalar. *Working Paper*, Ankara: Hacetepe University.

Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. A., & Berry, L. L. (1988). A multi-item scale for measuring consumer perception of service quality. *Journal of Retailing*, *64*(1), 12-40.

Park, S. H. (1996). Relationships between involvement and attitudinal loyalty constructs in adult fitness programs. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *28*(4), 233-250.

Patterson, P. G., & Smith, T. (2003). A cross-cultural study of switching barriers and propensity to stay with service providers. *Journal of Retailing*, *79*(2) 107-120.

Patterson, P. G., Cowley, E., & Prasongsukarn, K. (2006). Service failure recovery: The moderating impact of individual-level cultural value orientation on perceptions of justice. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, *23*(3), 263-277.

Pearce, P. L. (1981). Environmental shock: A study of tourists' reactions to two tropical islands. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *11*(3), 268-280.

Pearce, P. L. (1982a). *The social psychology of tourist behaviour*. OX: Pergamon Press.

Pearce, P. L. (1982b). Tourists and their hosts: Some social and psychological effects of inter-cultural contact. In S. Bochner (Eds.), *Cultures in Contact: Studies in Cross-cultural Interaction*, *1*(pp. 199-221). OX: Pergamon Press.

Pearce, P. L. (2004). Theoretical innovation in Asia Pacific tourism research. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *9*(1), 57-70.

Pearce, P. L. (2005). *Tourist behaviour - themes and conceptual schemes*. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.

Pearce, P. L., & Moscardo, G. M. (1984). Making sense of tourists' complaints. *Tourism Management, 5*(1), 20-23.

Peng, K., Nisbett, R. E., & Wong, N. Y. C. (1997). Validity problems comparing values across cultures and possible solutions. *Psychological Methods*, *2*(4), 329-344.

Penny, K. I. (1996). Appropriate critical values when testing for a single multivariate outlier by using the Mahalanobis distance. *Applied Statistics*, *45*(1), 73-81.

Pizam, A., & Ellis, T. (1999). Customer satisfaction and its measurement in hospitality enterprises. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *11*(7), 326-339.

Pizam, A., & Sussmann, S. (1995). Does nationality affect tourist behavior? *Annals of Tourism Research*, *22*(4), 901-917.

Plymire, J. (1991). Complaints as opportunities. *The Journal of Consumer Marketing*, *8*(2), 39-43.

Poon, P. S., Hui, M. K., & Au, K. (2004). Attributions on dissatisfying service encounters - A cross-cultural comparison between Canadian and PRC consumers. *European Journal of Marketing*, *38*(11/12), 1527-1540.

Prasongsukarn, K., & Patterson, P. G. (2001). A model of service recovery across east-west cultures. Australian and New Zealand Marketing Educators Conference (ANZMAC), AKL: Massey University.

Prentice, R. (2004). Tourist familiarity and imagery. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *31*(4), 923-945.

Qu, H., & Im, H. H. J. (2002). A study of Southern Asia tourists' perceptions of service quality in the San Francisco Bay area. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *13*(3), 35-60.

Raykov, T., & Marcoulides, G. A. (2006). *A first course in structural equation modeling*. NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Reimann, M., Lünemann, U. F., & Chase, R. B. (2008). Uncertainty avoidance as a moderator of the relationship between perceived service quality and customer satisfaction. *Journal of Service Research*, *11*(1), 63-73.

Reisinger, Y., & Crotts, J. C. (2010). Applying Hofstede's national culture measures in tourism research: Illuminating issues of divergence and convergence. *Journal of Travel Research*, *49*(2), 153-164.

Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. W. (1997). Cross-cultural differences in tourism: Indonesian tourists in Australia. *Tourism Management*, *18*(3), 139-147.

Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. W. (1998). Cultural differences between Mandarin-Speaking tourists and Australian hosts and their impact on cross-cultural tourist-host interaction. *Journal of Business Research*, *42*(2), 175-187.

Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. W. (2002). Cultural differences between Asian tourist markets and Australian hosts, part 1. *Journal of Travel Research*, *40*(3), 295-315.

Reisinger, Y., & Turner, L. W. (2003). *Cross-cultural behaviour in tourism: Concepts and analysis*. OX: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

Richards, G., & Wilson, J. (2003). Developing creativity in tourist experiences: A solution to the serial reproduction of culture? *Tourism Management*, *27*(6) 1209-1223.

Richins, M. L. (1982). An investigation of consumers' attitudes toward complaining. In A. Mitchell (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research*, *9*(pp. 502-506). MI: Association for Consumer Research.

Richins, M. L. (1983). Negative word-of-mouth by dissatisfied consumers: A pilot study. *Journal of Marketing*, *47*(1), 68-78.

Richins, M. L. (1985). The role of product importance in consumer complaint initiation. In H. K. Hunt, & R. L. Day (Eds.), *Consumer Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior* (pp. 50-53). IN: Indiana University School of Business.

Richins, M. L. (1987). A Multivariate Analysis of Responses to Dissatisfaction. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *15*(3), 24-31.

Richins, M. L., & Verhage, B. J. (1985). Cross-cultural differences in consumer attitudes and their implications for complaint management. *International Journal of Research in Marketing, 2*, 197-206.

Ro, H., & Mattila, A. S. (2008). A cognitive appraisal process model of emotions and complaining behavior. In A. Yuksel (Eds.), *Tourist Satisfaction and Complaining Behavior: Measurement and Management Issues in the Tourism and Hospitality Industry*, (pp. 217-232). NY: Nova Science Publishers.

Robbins, T. L., & Miller, J. L. (2004). Considering customer loyalty in developing service recovery strategies. *Journal of Business Strategies*, *21*(2), 95-109.

Roedder, W. C. (2001). *How equity sensitivity affects attitudes and behaviors*. Unpublished PhD dissertation submitted to The University of Tennessee, Tennessee.

Roese, N. J. (2000). Counterfactual thinking and marketing: Introduction to the special issue. *Psychology and Marketing*, *17*(4), 277-300.

Rosen, J. (1997). Customer complaints - are you getting enough? In S. A. Brown (Eds.), *Breakthrough Customer Service: Best Practices of Leaders in Customer Support*, (pp. 91-100). NY: John Wiley & Sons Canada Ltd.

Rust, R. T., Inman, J. I., Jia, J., & Zahorik, A. (1999). What you don't know about customer perceived quality: The role of customer expectation distributions. *Marketing Science*, *18*(1), 77-92.

Ryan, C., & Gu, H. (2007). Spatial planning, mobilities and culture - Chinese and New Zealand student preferences for Californian travel. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 9*, 189-203.

Sabharwal, N. & Soch, H. (2011). Confirmatory factor analysis of determinants of service recovery. *Global Business Review*, *12*(2), 297-318.

Sajtos, L., Brodie, R. J. & Whittome, J. (2010). Impact of service failure: The protective layer of customer relationships. *Journal of Service Research*, *13*(2), 216-229.

Salzberger, T., Sinkovics, R. R., & Schlegelmilch, B. B. (1999). Data equivalence in cross-cultural research: A comparison of classical test theory and latent trait theory based Australasian. Approaches Marketing Journal, *7*(2), 23-38.

Sánchez-García, I., & Currás-Pérez, R. (2011). Effects of dissatisfaction in tourist services: The role of anger and regret, *Tourism Management*, *32(6), 1397-1406.*

Sarikaya, E., Petrick, J. & Choi, H. S. (2004). The role of mood on tourism product evaluations. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *31*(3), 517-539.

Saxe, R., & Weitz, B. A. (1982). The SOCO scale: A measure of the customer orientation of salespeople, *Journal of Marketing Research*, *19*(3), 343-351.

Sayre, S. (2003). Sign language: Branded messages and the tourist experience. In D. Turley & S. Brown (Eds.), *European Advances in Consumer Research*, *6*(pp. 2-8). UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Schermelleh-Engel, K.. & Moosbrugger, H. (2003). Evaluating the fit of structural equation models: Tests of significance and descriptive goodness-of-fit measures. *Methods of Psychological Research Online*, *8*(2), 23-74.

Schiffman, L. G., & Kanuk, L. L. (2004). *Consumer behavior* (8th ed.), NJ: Prentice-Hall International Inc.

Schoefer, K. (2010). Cultural moderation in the formation of recovery satisfaction judgments: A cognitive-affective perspective. *Journal of Service Research*, *13*(1), 52-66.

Schoefer, K., & Diamantopoulos, A. (2008). The role of emotions in translating perceptions of (in) justice into postcomplaint behavioral responses. *The Journal of Service Research*, *11*(1), 91-103.

Schoefer, K., & Ennew, C. (2004). Customer evaluations of tour operators' responses to their complaints. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *17*(1), 83-92.

Schoefer, K., & Ennew, C. (2005). The impact of perceived justice on consumers' emotional responses to service complaint experiences. *Journal of Services Marketing*, *19*(5), 261-270.

Schoemaker, P. J. H. (1993). Multiple scenario development: Its conceptual and behavioral foundation. *Strategic Management Journal*, *14*(3), 193-213.

Schumacker, R. E., & Lomax, R. G. (2004). *A beginner's guide to structural equation modeling*. NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Schwab, D. P. (1980). Construct validity in organization behavior. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior* (pp. 3-43). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Seiders, K., & Berry, L. L. (1998). Service fairness: What it is and why it matters. *The Academy of Management Executive*, *12*(2), 8-20.

Sekaran, U. (1992). *Research methods for business - a skill building approach* (2nd ed.), NY: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Senguder, T. (2000). *An examination of personal and cultural values between Turkish and American consumers concerning cross-national customer satisfaction judgment*. Unpublished D. B. A., Nova Southeastern University.

Severt, D. E. (2002). The customer's path to loyalty: A partial test of the relationships of prior experience, justice, and customer satisfaction. Unpublished PhD dissertation submitted to Virginia Polytechnic University, Virginia.

Shapiro, D. L. (1991). The effects of explanations on negative reactions to deceit. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *36*(4), 614-630.

Shaw, J. C., Wild, E., & Colquitt, J. A. (2003). To justify or excuse?: A meta-analytic review of the effects of explanations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*(3), 444-458.

Shea, L., Enghagen, L., & Khullar, A. (2004). Internet diffusion of an e-complaint: A content analysis of unsolicited responses. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *17*(2/3), 145-165.

Singh, J. (1988). Consumer complaint intentions and behavior: Definitional and taxonomical issues. *Journal of Marketing*, *52*(1), 93-107.

Singh, J. (1990a). A typology of consumer dissatisfaction response styles. *Journal of Retailing*, *66*(1), 57-99.

Singh, J. (1990b). Identifying consumer dissatisfaction response styles: An agenda for future research. *European Journal of Marketing*, *24*(6), 55-72.

Singh, J. (1990c). Voice, exit, and negative word-of-mouth behaviors: An investigation across three service categories. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *18*(1), 1-15.

Singh, J. (1995). Measurement issues in cross-national research. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *26*(3), 597-619.

Singh, J., & Widing, R. E. (1995). What occurs once consumers complain? A theoretical model for understanding satisfaction/dissatisfaction outcomes of complaint responses. *European Journal of Marketing*, *25*(5), 30-46.

Sizoo, S., Iskat, W., Plank, R., & Serrie, H. (2003). Cross-cultural service encounters in the hospitality industry and the effect of intercultural sensitivity on employee performance. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, *4*(2), 61-77.

Smith, A. K., & Bolton, R. N. (1998). An experimental investigation of customer reactions to service failure and recovery encounters - Paradox or Peril? *Journal of Service Research*, *1*(1), 65-81.

Smith, A. K., & Bolton, R. N. (2002). The effect of customers' emotional responses to service failures on their recovery effort evaluations and satisfactions judgments. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *30*(1), 5-23.

Smith, A. K., Bolton, R. N., & Wagner, J. (1999). A model of customer satisfaction with service encounters involving failure and recovery. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *36*(3), 356-372.

Smith, J. S., & Karwan, K. R. (2010). Empirical profiles of service recovery systems: The maturity perspective. *Journal of Service Research*, *13*(1), 111-125.

Smith, P. B., Bond, M. H., & Kagitcibasi, C. (2006). Understanding social psychology across cultures: Living and working in a changing world. LD: Sage Publications.

Smith, R. B. & Sherman, E. (1993). Effects of store image and mood on consumer behavior: A theoretical and empirical analysis. *Advances in Consumer Research*, *20*(1), 631-650.

Smith, V. L. (1989). *Host and guest: The anthropology of tourism* (2nd ed.), PH: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Smith, V. L. (2001). The nature of tourism. In V. L. Smith & M. Brent *Host and guest revisited: Tourism issues of the 21st century* (pp. 53-68), NY: Cognizant Communication Corporation.

Söderlund, M. (2002). Customer familiarity and its effects on satisfaction and behavioral intentions. *Psychology and Marketing*, *19*(10), 861-880.

Solomon, M. R. (1992). *Consumer behavior*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon Publishing.

Sparks, B. A., & Browning, V. (2011). The impact of online reviews on hotel booking intentions and perception of trust, *Tourism Management*, *32(6), 1310-1323.*

Sparks, B. A., & Fredline, L. (2007). Providing explanation for service failure: Context of, content, and customer responses. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *31*(2), 241-260.

Sparks, B. A., & McColl-Kennedy, J. R. (2001). Justice strategy options for increased customer satisfaction in a service recovery setting. *Journal of Business Research*, *54*(3), 209-218.

Stauss, B., & Seidel, W. (2004). *Complaint management: The heart of CRM*. OH: Thomson Business and Professional Publishing.

Steenkamp, J. B. E. M., & Baumgartner, H. (1998). Assessing measurement invariance in cross-national consumer research. *Journal of Consumer Research, 25*(June), 78-90.

Stening, B. W., & Zhang, M. Y. (2007). Methodological challenges confronted when conducting management research in China. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, *7*(1), 121-142.

Stephens, N., & Gwinner, K. P. (1998). Why don't some people complain? A cognitive-emotive process model of consumer complaint behavior. *Journal of Academy of Marketing Science*, *26*(3), 172-189.

Steyn, T. F. J., Mostert, P. G., De Meyer, C. F., & van Rensburg, L. R. J. (2011). The effect of service failure and recovery on airline-passenger relationships: A comparison between South African and United States airline passengers, *Journal of Management Policy and Practice*, *12*(5), 105-115.

Stipek, D., Weiner, B., & Li, K. (1989). Testing some attribution-emotion relations in the People's Republic of China. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *56*(1), 109-116.

Su, W., & Tippins, M. J. (1998). Consumer attributions of product failure to channel members and self: The impacts of situational cues. In J. W. Alba (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer Research*, *25*(pp. 139-145). UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Suh, J. H. K., Barker, S., Pegg, S., & Kandampully, J. (2005). Service recovery readiness in Australian hospitality and leisure operations: A conceptual framework and findings from and exploratory study. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality and Tourism*, *6*(1/2), 43-64.

Sujithamrak, S., & Lam, T. (2005). Relationship between customer complaint behavior and demographic characteristics: A study of hotel restaurant' patrons. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, *10*(3), 289-307.

Sundaram, D. S., Mitra, K., & Webster, C. (1998). Word-of-mouth communications: A motivational analysis. In J. W. Alba & W. Hutshin (Eds.), *Advances in Consumer research*, *25*(pp. 527-531). UT: Association for Consumer Research.

Susskind, A. M. (2010). Guest service management and processes in restaurants: What we have learned in fifty years. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, *51*(4), 479-482.

Susskind, A. M. (2002). I told you so! Restaurant customers' word-of-mouth communication patterns. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, *43*(2), 75-85.

Susskind, A. M. (2004). Consumer frustration in the customer-server exchange: The role of attitudes toward complaining and information inadequacy related to service failures. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *28*(1), 21-43.

Susskind, A. M. (2006). An examination of guest complaints and complaint communication channels: The medium does matter! *Cornell University Center for Hospitality Research Reports*, *6*(14), 4-12.

Susskind, A. M., Borchgrevink, C. P., Brymer, R. A., & Kacmar, K. M. (2000). Customer service behavior and attitudes among hotel managers: A look at perceived support functions, standards for service, and service process outcomes. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, *24*(3), 373-397.

Suvantola, J. (2002). Tourist's experience of place: New directions in tourism analysis. Hampshire: Ashgate Publishing Ltd.

Swanson, S. R., & Kelly, S. W. (2001). Service recovery attributions and word-of-mouth intentions. *European Journal of Marketing*, *35*(1/2), 194-211.

Swarbrooke, J. & Horner, S. (1999). *Consumer behaviour in tourism*. OX: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2006). *Using multivariate statistics* (5th ed.), MA: Allyn & Bacon.

TARP (1979). *Consumer Complaint Handling in America: Final Report*. Washington, D. C.: U.S. Office of Consumer Affairs.

TARP (1999). Basic facts on customer complaint behavior and the impact of service on the bottom line. *Competitive Advantage*, *June*, 1-4.

Tata, J., Fu, P. P., & Wu, R. (2003). An examination of procedural justice principles in China and the U.S. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, *20*, 205-216.

Tax, S. S., & Brown, S. W. (2000). Service recovery: Research insights and practices. In Swartz, T. A. & Iacobucci, D. (Eds.), *Handbook of Services Marketing and Management*. (pp. 271-285). CA: Sega Publications.

Tax, S. S., & Chandrashekaran, M. (1992). Consumer decision making following a failed service encounter: A pilot study. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, *5*, 55-68.

Tax, S. S., Brown, S. W., & Chandrashekaran, M. (1998). Customer evaluation of service complaint experiences: Implication and relationship marketing. *Journal of Marketing*, *62*(2), 60-76.

Teo, T. S. H., & Lim, V. K. G. (2001). The effects of perceived justice on satisfaction and behavioral intentions: The case of computer purchase. *International Journal of Retail and Distribution Management*, *29*(2), 109-124.

Triandis, H. C. (1976). Methodological problems of comparative research. *International Journal of Psychology*, *11*(3), 155-159.

Triandis, H. C. (1994). *Culture and social behavior*. NY: McGraw-Hill Inc.

Tribe, J. (2008). Tourism: A critical business. *Journal of Travel Research*, *46*(3), 245-255.

Tripp, T. M., & Grégoire, Y. (2011). When unhappy customers strike back on the internet, *MIT Sloan Management Review*, *52*(3), 37-45.

Tronvoll, B. (2007). Complainer characteristics when exit is closed. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *18*(1), 25-51.

Tronvoll, B. (2011). Negative emotions and their effect on customer complaint behavior. *Journal of Service Management, 22*(2), 1111-134.

Tsang, N., & Ap, J. (2007a). Tourists' perceptions of relational quality service attributes: A cross-cultural study. *Journal of Travel Research*, *45*(3), 355-363.

Tsang, N., & Ap, J. (2007b). Keeping tourist happy - why culture matters. *Horizons SHTM Magazine*, *7*(2), 7-9.

Tse, E. C. Y., & Ho, S. C. (2009). Service quality in the hotel industry: When cultural contexts matter. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, *50*(4), 460-474.

Tyler, T. R. (1994). Psychological models of the justice motive: Antecedents of distributive and procedural justice. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *67*(5), 850-863.

UNWTO (2010a). Tourism highlights 2009 edition [Online], *World Tourism Organization*. Retrieved January 11, 2010, from http://unwto.org/facts/eng/pdf /highlights/UNWTO_Highlights09_en_HR.pdf

UNWTO (2010b). Confidence in tourism sector is gradually picking up. [Online], *UNWTO World Tourism Barometer*, 7(3), Retrieved January 11, 2010, from http://unwto.org/ facts/eng/pdf/barometer/UNWTO_Barom09_3_en_excerpt.pdf

UNWTO (2010c). Tourism 2020 vision [Online], *World Tourism Organization*. Retrieved January 11, 2010, from http://www.world-tourism.org/ facts/eng/ vision.htm.

Uriely, N. (2005). The tourist experience - conceptual developments. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *32*(1), 199-216.

Urry, J. (2002a). *The tourist gaze* (2nd ed.). LD: Sage Publications.

van de Vijver, F. J. R. (2001). Cross-cultural research methods. *International Encyclopedia of the Social and Behavioral Sciences*, Elsevier Science Ltd., 2999-3003.

van de Vijver, F. J. R., & Leung, K. (1997). *Methods and Data Analysis for Cross-Cultural Research*. CA: Sage Publications.

van de Vijver, F. J. R., & Tanzer, N. K. (2004). Bias and equivalence in cross-cultural assessment: An overview. *Revue Europeenne de Psychllogie Appliquee*, *54*(2), 119-135.

van der Knaap, W. (1997). *The tourist's drives - GIS oriented methods for analysing tourist recreation complexes*. The Netherlands: Landbouwuniversiteit te Wageningen.

Vandello, J. A., & Cohen, D. (1999). Patterns of individualism and collectivism across the United States. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *77*(2), 279-292.

Vandenberg, R. J., & Lance, C. E. (2000). A review and synthesis of the measurement invariance literature: Suggestions, practices, and recommendations for organizational research. *Organizational Research Methods*, *3*(1), 4-70.

Voase, R. (1995). *Tourism: The human perspective*. LD: Hodder & Stoughton.

Voorhees, C. M., & Brady, M. K. (2005). A service perspective on the drivers of complaint intentions. *Journal of Service Research*, *8*(2), 192-204.

Voorhees, C. M., Brady, M. K., & Horowitz, D. M. (2006). A voice form the silent masses: An exploratory and comparative analysis of noncomplainers. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *34*(4), 514-527.

Wahab, S, Crampon, L. J., & Rothfield, L. M. (1976). *Tourism marketing: A destination-orientated programme for the marketing of international tourism*. LD: Tourism International Press.

Walle, A. H. (1997). Quantitative versus qualitative tourism research. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *24*(3), 524-536.

Wang, C. Y., & Mattila, A. S. (2011). A cross-cultural comparison of perceived informational fairness with service failure explanations, Journal of Services Marketing, 25(6), 429-439.

Wang, Q., & Yao, Y. (2011). The impact of cultural differences on applicants' perceived fairness, *Management and Service Science*, 11(2), 1-6.

Wang, X. (2011). The effect of unrelated supporting service quality on consumer delight, satisfaction, and repurchase intentions. *Journal of Service Research*, *14*(2), 149-163.

Wangenheim, F. V. (2005). Postswitching negative word of mouth. *Journal of Service Research*, *8*(1), 67-78.

Warden, C. A., Liu, T. C., Huang, C. T., & Lee, C. H. (2003). Service failures away from home: Benefits in intercultural service encounters. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *14*(4), 436-457.

Warland, R. H., Herrmann, R. O., & Willits, J. (1975). Dissatisfied consumers: Who gets upset and who takes action. *The Journal of Consumer Affairs*, *9*(2), 148-163.

Watkins, H. S., & Liu, R. (1996). Collectivism, individualism and in-group membership: Implications for consumer complaining behaviors in multicultural contexts. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, *8*(3/4), 69-96.

Watson, D. (2000). *Mood and temperament.* NY: Guilford.

Weber, K., Hsu, C. H. C., & Sparks, B. (2011). Effect of acculturation on responses to service failure/ recovery: Evidence from focus group interviews in Beijing, China. *Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management*, 19-24 June 2011, Washington State University and Bogazici University, Turkey, Proceeding Book, 48-49.

Weiner, B. (2006). *Social motivation, justice, and the moral emotions: An attributional approach*. NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Werner, O., & Campbell, D. T. (1970). Translating, working through interpreters, and the problem of decentering. In: Naroll R, & Cohen, R. (eds.), *A Handbook of Cultural Anthropology*. (1st ed.), NY: American Museum of Natural History.

Westbrook, R. A. (1987). Product/consumption-based affective responses and postpurchase processes. *Journal of Marketing Research*, *24*(3), 258-270.

White, C. J. (2005). Culture, emotions and behavioural intentions: Implications for tourism research and practice. *Current Issues in Tourism*, *8*(6), 510-531.

Wickens, E. (2002). The sacred and the profane - a tourist typology. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *29*(3), 834-851.

Wirtz, J., & Mattila, A. S. (2004). Consumer responses to compensation, speed of recovery and apology after a service failure. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, *15*(2), 150-166.

Witt, S. F., & Moutinho, L. (1994). *Tourism marketing and management handbook* (2nd ed.), NY: Prentice Hall.

Woehler, K. (2004). The rediscovery of slowness, or leisure time as one's own and as self-aggrandizement? In K. Weiermair & C. Mathies (Eds.), *The Tourism and Leisure Industry - Shaping the Future* (pp. 83-92). NY: Haworth Hospitality Press.

Wong, A. (2004). The role of emotional satisfaction in service encounters. *Managing Service Quality*, *14*(5), 365-376.

Wong, N. Y. (2004). The role of culture in the perception of service recovery. *Journal of Business Research*, *57*(9), 957-963.

Wood, K., & House, S. (1991). *The good tourist: A worldwide guide for the green traveller*. LD: Mandarin.

World Travel and Tourism Council (2010). Progress and priorities 2008/2009. [Online], *World Travel and Tourism Council*. Retrieved January 11, 2010 from http://www.wttc.org/bin/pdf/original_pdf_file/ progress_and_priorities_2008.pdf

Wu, L. W., & Wang, C. Y. (2012). Satisfaction and zone of tolerance: the moderating roles of elaboration and loyalty programs, *Managing Service Quality*, *22*(1), XX-XY.

Xu, J. B., & Chan, A. (2010). A conceptual framework of hotel experience and customer-based brand equity: Some research questions and implications. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *22*(2), 174-193.

Yagi, C., & Pearce, P. L. (2007). The influence of appearance and the number of people viewed on tourists' preferences for seeing other tourists, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *15*(1), 28-43.

Yavas, U., Bilgin, Z., & Shemwell, D. J. (1997). Service quality in the banking sector in an emerging economy: A consumer survey. *The International Journal of Bank Marketing*, *15*(6), 217-223.

Yavas, U., Karatepe, O. M., Babakus, E., & Avci, T. (2004). Customer complaint and organizational responses: A study of hotel guests in Northern Cyprus. *Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing*, *11*(2/3), 31-46.

Yi, Y. (1990). A critical review of consumer satisfaction, In V. A. Zeithaml (Eds.), *Review of marketing*, *4*(pp. 68-123). CH: America Marketing Association.

Yiannakis, A., & Gibson, H. (1992). Roles tourists play. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *19*(2), 287-303.

Yim, C. K., Gu, F. F., Chan, K. W., & Tse, D. K. (2003). Justice-based service recovery expectations: Measurement and antecedents. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, *16*, 36-52.

Yoda, T., & Kumakura, T. (2007). Effect of unfairness on customer satisfaction: New insights into customer retention. Innovative Marketing, *3*(1), 44-55.

Yoo, J. J. E (2005). Factors affecting association convention participation decision-making process. Unpublished PhD dissertation submitted to The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong.

Yoo-Kyoung, S., and Chen, L., (2011). Cultural influence on loyalty tendency and evaluation of retail store attributes: An analysis of Taiwanese and American consumers, *International Journal of Retail & Distribution Management*, *39*(2), 94-113.

Yuksel, A., & Yuksel, F. (2007). Shopping risk perceptions: Effects on tourists' emotions, satisfaction and expressed loyalty. *Tourism Management*, *28*(3), 703-713.

Yuksel, A., & Yuksel, F. (2008). Tourist satisfaction: Definitional and relational issues. In A. Yuksel (Eds.), *Tourist Satisfaction and Complaining Behavior: Measure-*

ment and Management Issues in the Tourism and Hospitality Industry, (pp. 29-48). NY: Nova Science Publishers.

Yuksel, A., Kilinc, U. K., & Yuksel, F. (2006). Cross-national analysis of hotel customers' attitudes toward complaining and their complaining behaviours. *Tourism Management*, *27*(1), 11-24.

Zeithaml, V. A., & Bitner, M. J. (2000). *Services marketing: Integrating customer focus across the firm* (2nd ed.), NY: McGraw-Hill Publication.

Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L. L., & Parasuraman, A. (1996). The behavioral consequences of service quality. *Journal of Marketing*, *60*(2), 31-46.

Zeithaml, V. A., Bitner, M. J., & Gremler, D. D. (2006). *Services marketing: Integrating customer focus across the firm* (4th ed.), NY: McGraw-Hill Publication.

Zemke, R. (1993). The art of service recovery: Fixing broken customers and keeping them on your side, In E. E. Scheuing, & W. C. Christopher (Eds.), *The Service Quality Handbook with Contributions from 57 International Experts*. NY: American Management Association Publication.

Zemke, R. (1995). *Service recovery: Fixing broken customer*. OR: Productivity Press.

Zemke, R., & Anderson, K. (2007). *Delivering knock your socks off service* (4th ed.), NY: American Marketing Association Publication.

Zemke, R., & Bell, C. (1990). Service recovery: Doing it right the second time. *Training*, *27*(6), 42-48.

Zemke, R., & Bell, C. (2000). Knock your socks off service recovery. NY: American Marketing Association Publication.

Zikmund, W. G. (1994). *Business research methods* (4th ed.), PH: The Dryden Press.

Zins, A. H. (2002). Consumption emotions, experience quality and satisfaction: A structural analysis for complainers versus non-complainers. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, *12*(2/3), 3-18.