



THE HONG KONG
POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY

香港理工大學

Pao Yue-kong Library

包玉剛圖書館

Copyright Undertaking

This thesis is protected by copyright, with all rights reserved.

By reading and using the thesis, the reader understands and agrees to the following terms:

1. The reader will abide by the rules and legal ordinances governing copyright regarding the use of the thesis.
2. The reader will use the thesis for the purpose of research or private study only and not for distribution or further reproduction or any other purpose.
3. The reader agrees to indemnify and hold the University harmless from and against any loss, damage, cost, liability or expenses arising from copyright infringement or unauthorized usage.

IMPORTANT

If you have reasons to believe that any materials in this thesis are deemed not suitable to be distributed in this form, or a copyright owner having difficulty with the material being included in our database, please contact lbsys@polyu.edu.hk providing details. The Library will look into your claim and consider taking remedial action upon receipt of the written requests.

**ANALYSES OF CUSTOMER DISSATISFIERS IN HOTEL
ONLINE REVIEWS AND THE CONSEQUENCES OF
CUSTOMER DISSATISFACTION**

BONA KIM

Ph.D

The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

2016

The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
School of Hotel & Tourism Management

**Analyses of Customer Dissatisfiers in Hotel Online Reviews
and the Consequences of Customer Dissatisfaction**

Bona Kim

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

July 2015

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 materials 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.

BONA KIM

ABSTRACT

Customer satisfaction is one of the most widely researched topics in management literature, and enhancing customer satisfaction is a core strategy for business. However, it is also important to understand customer dissatisfaction in order to maintain a sustainable business, given that the negative effects of customer dissatisfaction in service businesses may be even greater than the positive effects of satisfaction. This study investigates customer dissatisfaction in the hotel context.

In particular, firstly, this study is to identify dissatisfiers and satisfiers, and compare dissatisfiers to satisfiers based on Herzberg's two-factor theory by analyzing online hotel reviews generated by customers. Secondly, this approach is applied to compare between upscale and budget hotels, which can show different levels of customer expectation. Thirdly, it examines its consequences by focusing on the effect of customer dissatisfaction on attitude toward a hotel. It identifies a role for attitude in the relationship between customer dissatisfaction and negative behavioral intention (switching service provider, spreading negative word-of-mouth, and complaining). Fourthly, it is to compare the dissatisfaction relationship paths for two datasets drawn from customers of different hotel classes of upscale and budget hotels.

Results of Study I showed the two distinct sets of satisfiers and dissatisfiers in upscale hotels with the exception of two overlapped service-related factors, the results in budget hotels revealed the two sets of satisfiers and dissatisfiers with five common factors which are one service-related, one monetary factor, and three room facilities-related factors. As a result, the most critical factor was "staff and their attitude." In addition, results of Study II showed a full

mediating role of attitude toward a hotel in the relationship between customer dissatisfaction and negative behavioral intention (switching service provider, spreading negative word-of-mouth, and complaining). The relationship paths between upscale and budget hotel datasets showed a same pattern for upscale and budget hotel customers.

This study attempts to suggest the significance of customer dissatisfaction as an independent concept differentiated from satisfaction by analyzing customers' unsatisfactory reactions in form of electronic word-of-mouth based on theoretical foundation and broaden our knowledge of the role of attitude in the literature on customer dissatisfaction.

Keywords: Customer dissatisfaction, satisfiers and dissatisfiers, Herzberg's two-factor theory, upscale hotels, budget hotels, customer attitude toward a hotel, negative behavioral intention, switching behavior, complaining behavior, negative word-of-mouth recommendation

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to first show my sincere gratitude to my chief-supervisor, Dr Sam Kim, for his continuous advice and guidance on my research and Ph.D. thesis, since my Master's study, and also to my co-supervisor, Dr Cindy Heo, for her continuous encouragement and support on my long Ph.D. journey. I cannot imagine my three-years of Ph.D. study without my two supervisors who consistently believed in me and my endeavor in the process. I would not have been able to commence and complete my study without their supervision.

I would like to express my thanks to the BoE chair Professor Rob Law, and the supervisory committee members for their valuable feedback on my confirmation, Dr Karin Weber, Professor Cathy Hsu, Dr George Liu, Dr Deniz Kucukusta. In addition, I wish to express my special thanks to the external examiners Professor Metin Kozak (Dokuz Eylul University, Turkey) and Professor Janet Chang (National Kaohsiung University, Taiwan) for their support and encouraging comments.

My deep appreciation goes to Professor Bob McKercher who inspired me and gave me a chance to understand how fascinating research is. His philosophy and passion on tourism touched me and encouraged me to pursue on academic career in the future. Moreover, I would like to express many thanks to the professors in the SHTM, especially to Professor Brain King who always supported me at my seminars and gave me constructive comments, and Dean Kaye Chon, Professor Haiyan Song, Dr Mimi Li, Dr Sabrina Hwang, Dr Honggen Xiao, Dr Andrew Chan, Dr Yonghee Kim, Dr Steve Pan, and Dr Stephen Pratt for their distinguished lectures and kind help in my thesis development, and my teaching at SHTM.

I am also very grateful to Dr Nicholas Sampson and Dr Li Lan for their comments as my English mentors in the English Department of PolyU, and also all my friends and colleagues in office for their friendship.

Lastly, the most profound gratitude goes to my family, and Fr. Paul Yongho Lee for their prayers and support, and St. James, Virgin Mary and God who unconditionally give me love and blessings. Thank God indeed.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|------------------------------|-----------|
| LIST OF TABLES | 13 |
| LIST OF FIGURES | 15 |

Chapter 1

| | |
|--|-----------|
| INTRODUCTION..... | 16 |
| 1.1 Research background | 16 |
| 1.2 Research problems | 20 |
| 1.2.1 Satisfiers and dissatisfiers in hotel online reviews | 20 |
| 1.2.2 Customer dissatisfaction in the hotel context..... | 22 |
| 1.2.3 Attitude | 24 |
| 1.2.4 Hotel class related to customer expectation | 26 |
| 1.3 Research objectives | 29 |
| 1.4 Research significance (need to include references) | 31 |
| 1.5 Definition of terms | 35 |
| 1.6 Organization of the thesis..... | 36 |

Chapter 2

| | |
|--|-----------|
| LITERATURE REVIEW | 38 |
| 2.1 Herzberg's two-factor theory | 38 |
| 2.1.1 Factor structure of customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction | 42 |
| 2.1.2 Satisfiers and dissatisfiers in hotels | 53 |
| 2.1.3 Online hotel reviews as customer-generated content | 58 |
| 2.2 Overview of studies on customer dissatisfaction | 62 |
| 2.2.1 Customer satisfaction | 62 |
| 2.2.2 Customer dissatisfaction..... | 66 |
| 2.2.2.1 Service Failure | 67 |
| 2.2.2.2 Customer Complaint | 70 |
| 2.2.2.3 Customer Dissatisfaction in Hospitality and Tourism Research | 74 |

| | |
|---|----|
| 2.2.2.4 Negative Behavioral Intention | 77 |
| 2.3 Attitude toward a hotel | 83 |
| 2.3.1 Attitude | 83 |
| 2.3.2 The mediating role of attitude | 88 |
| 2.4 Hotel class related to customer expectation | 92 |

Chapter 3

| | |
|---|-----------|
| CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK..... | 99 |
| 3.1 Proposed conceptual framework for Study I..... | 99 |
| 3.2 Proposed conceptual model for Study II..... | 101 |
| 3.2.1 Development of research hypotheses for Study II..... | 102 |
| 3.2.1.1 The relationship between customer dissatisfaction and attitude toward a hotel.. | 102 |
| 3.2.1.2 The Relationship between Customer Dissatisfaction and Negative Behavioral Intention | 104 |
| 3.2.1.3 The relationship between Attitude toward a Hotel and Negative Behavioral Intention | 105 |
| 3.2.1.4 Comparison of the Consequences of Customer Dissatisfaction between Upscale and Budget Hotels..... | 106 |
| 3.3 Summary of research questions, objectives, and hypotheses..... | 108 |
| 3.4 Research design..... | 109 |
| 3.4.1 Mixed strategy design..... | 109 |
| 3.4.2 Overall research procedure..... | 110 |
| 3.4.2.1 Research design for Study I..... | 111 |
| 3.4.2.2 Research Design for Study II..... | 111 |

Chapter 4

| | |
|---|------------|
| RESEARCH METHODOLOGY | 115 |
| 4.1 Research methodology for Study I..... | 115 |
| 4.1.1 Unit of analysis..... | 115 |
| 4.1.2 Data collection | 116 |
| 4.1.3 Data analysis..... | 120 |
| 4.2 Research methodology for Study II | 123 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| 4.2.1 Sample | 123 |
| 4.2.1.1 Sample frame | 123 |
| 4.2.1.2 Sample size | 124 |
| 4.2.2 Construct measurements..... | 126 |
| 4.2.3 Questionnaire design | 129 |
| 4.2.4 Preliminary test and pilot test..... | 130 |
| 4.2.4.1 Profile of respondents in pilot test..... | 131 |
| 4.2.4.2 Descriptive statistics in pilot test | 134 |
| 4.2.4.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis in pilot test..... | 135 |
| 4.2.5 Data collection..... | 138 |
| 4.2.6 Data analysis..... | 138 |

Chapter 5

| | |
|---|------------|
| RESULTS | 139 |
| 5.1 Findings of Study I..... | 139 |
| 5.1.1 Average of reviews showing hotel customer reactions | 140 |
| 5.1.2 Average number of satisfiers and dissatisfiers in each review | 141 |
| 5.1.3 Satisfiers and dissatisfiers in upscale and budget hotels | 142 |
| 5.1.4 Satisfiers between upscale and budget hotels..... | 145 |
| 5.1.5 Dissatisfiers between upscale and budget hotels..... | 146 |
| 5.2. Findings of Study II..... | 147 |
| 5.2.1 Data preparation procedures | 147 |
| 5.2.2 Profiles of respondents in main study..... | 150 |
| 5.2.3 Descriptive statistics in main study | 153 |
| 5.2.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis..... | 155 |
| 5.2.4.1 EFA analysis in the upscale hotel dataset..... | 155 |
| 5.2.4.2 EFA analysis in the budget hotel dataset | 158 |
| 5.2.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis | 160 |
| 5.2.5.1 CFA analysis in the upscale hotel dataset..... | 160 |
| 5.2.5.2 CFA analysis in the budget hotel dataset..... | 166 |
| 5.2.6 Structural Equation Modeling | 169 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| 5.2.6.1 Overall model fit | 169 |
| 5.2.6.2 Regression paths of the conceptual model in the upscale hotel dataset..... | 170 |
| 5.2.6.3 Regression paths of the conceptual model in the budget hotel dataset..... | 174 |

Chapter 6

| | |
|--|------------|
| DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION | 178 |
| 6.1 Discussion of Study I | 178 |
| 6.1.1 Overall characteristics of online hotel reviews..... | 178 |
| 6.1.2 Identification of characteristics of satisfiers and dissatisfiers | 181 |
| 6.1.3 Satisfiers and dissatisfiers between upscale and budget hotels | 182 |
| 6.1.3.1 Comparison of overall satisfiers and dissatisfiers..... | 182 |
| 6.1.3.2 Comparison of satisfiers and dissatisfiers between upscale and budget hotels ... | 183 |
| 6.2 Discussion of Study II..... | 185 |
| 6.2.1 Relationship between customer dissatisfaction and attitude toward a hotel (H1)..... | 185 |
| 6.2.2 Relationship between customer dissatisfaction and negative behavioral intention (H2, H3, and H4) | 187 |
| 6.2.3 Relationship between attitude toward a hotel and negative behavioral intention (H5, H6, and H7) | 188 |
| 6.2.4 Comparison of structural equation models between upscale and budget hotel segments (H8)..... | 189 |

Chapter 7

| | |
|---|------------|
| CONTRIBUTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS..... | 191 |
| 7.1 Contributions of Study I..... | 191 |
| 7.1.1 Application of Herzberg’s two-factor theory to online hotel reviews..... | 191 |
| 7.1.2 Significant role of online hotel reviews in hotel management | 193 |
| 7.1.3 Study I: Limitations and future research directions..... | 196 |
| 7.2 Contributions of Study II | 198 |
| 7.2.1 Consequences of customer dissatisfaction | 198 |
| 7.2.2 The role of attitude in the consequences of customer dissatisfaction..... | 199 |
| 7.2.3. Importance of service recovery | 200 |
| 7.2.4 Customer dissatisfaction and hotel class | 202 |

| | |
|--|------------|
| 7.2.5 Study II: Limitations and future research directions | 203 |
| APPENDICES | 206 |
| Appendix 1. The summary of service failure literature | 206 |
| Appendix 2. The summary of customer complaint literature..... | 208 |
| Appendix 3. Survey questionnaire | 210 |
| Appendix 4. Satisfier framework | 215 |
| Appendix 5. Dissatisfier framework | 217 |
| REFERENCES..... | 219 |

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1 Definition of terms

Table 2.1 Summary of studies on the factor structure of satisfaction and dissatisfaction

Table 2.2 Summary of satisfiers and dissatisfiers in the hospitality and tourism industry

Table 2.3 Satisfiers and dissatisfiers in the hotel context

Table 3.1 Definitions of five constructs

Table 4.1 Profiles of selected New York City hotels

Table 4.2 Collected data

Table 4.3 Data coding table

Table 4.4 Measurements of main constructs

Table 4.5 Profile of respondents in pilot test

Table 4.6 Descriptive statistics of upscale and budget hotel datasets

Table 4.7 Results of EFA in the upscale hotel dataset in pilot test

Table 4.8 Results of EFA in the budget hotel dataset in pilot test

Table 5.1 Number of satisfaction- and dissatisfaction-indicating reviews

Table 5.2 Structure of satisfiers and dissatisfiers between upscale and budget hotels

Table 5.3 Results of univariate normality test

Table 5.4 Profile of respondents in the main survey

Table 5.5 Descriptive statistics of means, and standard deviations

Table 5.6 Results of the EFA analysis in the upscale hotel dataset

Table 5.7 Results of the EFA analysis in the budget hotel dataset

Table 5.8 Results of the CFA analysis in the upscale hotel dataset

Table 5.9 Correlations matrix in the upscale hotel dataset

Table 5.10 Results of the CFA analysis in the budget hotel dataset

Table 5.11 Correlations matrix in the budget hotel dataset

Table 5.12 Cut-off criteria of the overall model fit

Table 5.13 Results of the SEM analysis in the upscale hotel dataset

Table 5.14 Results of the SEM analysis in the budget hotel dataset

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 Overall structure of this study

Figure 1.2 Thesis structure

Figure 3.1 Overall conceptual framework for Study I

Figure 3.2 Proposed conceptual model for Study II

Figure 3.3 Overall research procedure

Figure 5.1 Average of reviews showing hotel customer reactions

Figure 5.2 Average number of satisfiers and dissatisfiers in each review

Figure 5.3 Measurement model of upscale hotel dataset

Figure 5.4 Measurement model of budget hotel dataset

Figure 5.5 Results of the structural model analyses in the upscale hotel dataset

Figure 5.6 Results of the structural model analyses in the budget hotel dataset

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research background

Customer experience has emerged as an important element of success or failure for service organizations. Pine and Gilmore (1998) argued that customers' memorable experiences are an important business matter. They argued the paradigm of economic value has shifted from an agrarian economy, a goods-based industrial economy, a service economy, and now to an experience economy. Customers in an experience-oriented economy try to acquire memorable experiences that exceed their expectations. To ensure a better customer experience, service providers should satisfy their customers and prevent customer dissatisfaction.

The literature on service management has emphasized customer satisfaction, making it one of the most researched topics (Kandampully & Suhartanto, 2000; Szymanski & Henard, 2001). Highly satisfied customers remain loyal customers for a longer time, and they are more likely to repurchase and spread positive word-of-mouth (Kim, 2011; Kim, Vogt, & Knutson, 2015). Thus, the level of customer satisfaction is considered as the best indicator that is directly related to developing a positive reputation and producing future profits of a company (Anderson, Fornell, & Lehmann, 1994). On the other hand, when customers are dissatisfied, the unfavorable results would occur. They express their unhappiness by spreading negative word-of-mouth, switching service providers, or complaining to the company (Oliver, 1977; Richins, 1987; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996).

Previous research has shown that the negative effects of customer dissatisfaction on service businesses may be even greater than the positive effects of customer satisfaction (Anderson, 1998;

Black & Kelley, 2009; Lee & Hu, 2004). The impact of negative word-of-mouth is two to 10 times stronger than that of satisfied customers (Schlossberg, 1991; TARP, 1981). Other studies have found that 75% of dissatisfied customers spread negative comments to their acquaintances, whereas only 38% of satisfied customers share their positive service experiences (Becker & Wellins, 1990; Hoffman & Chung, 1999).

Moreover, providing unpleasant experiences to customers also increases the number of customer complaints to the company. Customer complaints can be considered critical feedback to enable service providers to rectify their problems and shortcomings (Jones, McCleary, & Lepisto, 2002; Lewis, 1983; Sanes, 1993). Complaining behavior is a powerful reaction that requires additional cost and efforts from service providers (Lapr e & Tsikriktsis, 2006; Ro & Wong, 2012).

Furthermore, the importance of minimizing customer dissatisfaction is a priority because bringing in a new customer requires more effort than retaining an existing one. Reichheld (1996) reported that the cost of bringing in a new customer is five times higher than retaining an existing one. That is, dissatisfied customers increase companies' costs by causing customers to switch service providers. Thus, maintaining current customers is a significant issue. Reichheld and Sasser (1990) found that a 5% reduction of service defection could generate a profit of up to 85%. As a result, customer dissatisfaction has been gradually recognized as an important aspect of business that has a negative impact on subsequent behaviors and overall business profitability (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004).

According to Herzberg's two-factor theory, the causes of customer dissatisfaction may be different from those of customer satisfaction as bi-dimensional concept. Herzberg and his colleagues (1966, 1993) proposed that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not on the same bipolar continuum where one increases as the other diminishes. They identified satisfiers and dissatisfiers

perceived by workforce of organization and found out that satisfiers are more likely intangible, whereas dissatisfiers have more likely tangible feature. Moreover, by extending Herzberg's concept, some studies distinctively conceptualized two sets of factors leading to satisfaction and dissatisfaction in service quality and marketing studies (Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988; Chan & Baum, 2007; Crompton, 2003; Johns & Howard, 1998; Johnston, 1995; Jones & Lee-Ross, 1997; Maddox, 1981; Swan & Combs, 1976; Vargo, Nagao, He, & Morgan, 2007). As a result, it is essential to understand customer dissatisfaction is independent concept from customer satisfaction. In addition, the causes of customer dissatisfaction are independent dissatisfiers that may be differently identified from satisfiers.

With the wide use of digital-oriented information, very recently, hospitality operators started to have a keen interest in utility of social media due to technology (Anderson, 2012; Law, Buhalis, & Cobanoglu, 2014; Leung, Law, Hubert, & Dimitrios, 2013). Since social media contains online contents platform that customers generate their experiential facts, opinions, or even commentaries with authority, it is considered as an effective marketing tool and it is utilized to analyze customers' self-reported electronic feedback (Chan & Guillet, 2011; Kietzmann, Hermkens, McCarthy, & Silvestre, 2011). Most customers have a tendency to use social media and to report their own opinions regarding their either positive or negative service experience on social network space. Among diverse kinds of social media platforms, online review websites are recognized as one of the most accessible toolboxes to more precisely understand social media-friendly customers' experiences (Gretzel & Yoo, 2008; Pantelidis, 2010).

To keep pace with a popular use of social media by customers, recent hotel companies just started to adopt the applications of diverse social media tools, such as social media website, customer-generated content, or online review, to assist a decision making and maximize

utilization as a marketing technique (Chan & Guillet, 2011; McCarthy, Stockm, & Verma, 2010; Law, 2006; Vermeulen & Seegers, 2008). Likewise, a recent hospitality academic field has just initiated to have a great interest in identifying the importance of reviewing social media contents to improve customer experience quality and seek service recovery opportunity as a way to understand hotel customers' satisfaction and dissatisfaction based on reviewing contents showcased on social media (Jeong & Jeon, 2008; Levy, Duan, & Boo, 2013; Li, Ye, & Law, 2013).

Meanwhile, each hotel provides a particular level of service and facility in each hotel class (Jeong & Jeon, 2008; Musante, Bojanic, & Zhang, 2009). Customers also expect differently when they stay at a different class of hotel according to the standard of services and facilities (Griffin, Shea, & Weaver, 1997; Knutson, 1988; Knutson, Stevens, Patton, & Thompson, 1993). Thus, hotel class can be a substantial consideration to determinate both customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

As a conclusion, this study comprehensively examines customer dissatisfaction in the hotel context. Considering the importance of evaluating customer self-reported contents on social media in the hotel business, this study aims to identify dissatisfiers which are recognized from dissatisfaction-indicating online hotel reviews. In addition, the consequences of customer dissatisfaction by focusing on the effect of customer dissatisfaction on attitude toward a hotel, behavioral intention are examined. More specifically, the dissatisfiers and the consequences of customer dissatisfaction are compared between both upscale and budget hotels analytically and empirically.

1.2 Research problems

1.2.1 Satisfiers and dissatisfiers in hotel online reviews

Diverse studies have analyzed factors influencing hotel customer satisfaction since customer satisfaction is determined by customers' assessment regarding various hotel attributes (Barsky & Labagh, 1992; Choi & Chu, 2000; Dolnicar & Otter, 2003; Gu & Ryan, 2008; Gundersen, Heide, & Olsson, 1996; Poon & Low, 2005; Wuest, Tas, & Emenheiser, 1996). However, the previous studies measured customer satisfaction on a range from highly dissatisfied to highly satisfied, even though customers may feel satisfied and dissatisfied for different reasons in fact. This approach may therefore not be adequate, for two reasons (Alegre & Garau, 2010). Firstly, since the satisfiers do not include the negative features of customers' experiences at a hotel, they ignore the existence of negative features. Secondly, the uni-dimensional concept of satisfiers leading to customer satisfaction is not sufficient to understand customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction as distinct principles.

The implication here is that the causes of customer dissatisfaction may be different from those of customer satisfaction as a bi-dimensional concept. This can be supported by Herzberg's two-factor theory. According to the theory, satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not on the same bipolar continuum where one increases as the other diminishes (Herzberg, 1966; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1993; Maddox, 1981; Swan & Combs, 1976). In his and his colleagues' study (1966, 1993), employees' satisfaction and dissatisfaction are caused by two independent sets of factors, wherein motivators serve as satisfiers and hygiene factors serve as dissatisfiers from the perspective of human resource management. The two-factor theory has been extensively applied to employee motivation in the hospitality industry (Chitiris, 1988; Hyun & Oh, 2011; Lundberg, Gudmundson, & Andersson, 2009; Matzler & Renzl, 2007; Poulston, 2009).

Several studies have shown that the two-factor theory can be applied to situations of customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Babin & Griffin, 1998; Czepiel, Rosenberg, & Akerele, 1974; Maddox, 1981). Some studies conceptualized two types of factors leading to satisfaction and dissatisfaction, respectively (Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988; Johns & Howard, 1998; Johnston, 1995; Maddox, 1981; Swan & Combs, 1976; Vargo et al., 2007). In particular, a few studies in the hospitality and tourism context have commonly applied the two-factor theory to understand satisfiers and dissatisfiers (Alegre & Garau, 2010; Chan & Baum, 2007; Crompton, 2003; Jones, Lee-Ross, & Ingram, 1997). These studies attempted to compare between the components of both satisfiers and dissatisfiers, and mainly focus the features whether satisfiers are more related to intangible aspects of service than dissatisfiers. However, the results were inconsistently revealed in the different contexts, and the used methods were mainly questionnaire survey and interview.

With the development of digital-oriented information technology, customers have started to share their own experiences by generating contents on online platforms of social media (Kietzmann et al., 2011; Law et al., 2014; Leung et al., 2013; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010). As a newly-emerging means, online hotel reviews on social media has been considered as an effective marketing tool to understand customers' self-reported electronic feedback (Chan & Guillet, 2011; Kietzmann, et al., 2011). Even though the contents of online hotel review are accessible tools to understand customers' assessment for both satisfaction and dissatisfaction on hotel stay, reviewing contents showcased on social media has been limitedly analyzed in a few contexts (Jeong & Jeon, 2008; Levy, Duan, & Boo, 2013; Li, Ye, & Law, 2013).

In particular, the unfavorable outcomes can more greatly influence the firm's overall performance than the positive effects of customer satisfaction on it (Becker & Wellins, 1990; Hoffman & Chung, 1999; Schlossberg, 1991; TARP, 1981). However, research into

understandings the antecedents that determine hotel customers' dissatisfaction in online hotel reviews has been overlooked. Based on the Herzberg's two-factor theory that dissatisfiers causing customer dissatisfaction do not generate satisfaction when not present, this study identifies dissatisfiers revealed in online hotel reviews and examines how satisfiers and dissatisfiers are distinctively viewed. Overall, the examination of dissatisfiers on online hotel reviews is expected to reflect customer dissatisfaction from the perspective of new social media marketing trend in a social media-friendly customer's era, and provide managerial implications to the hotel business.

1.2.2 Customer dissatisfaction in the hotel context

Some studies investigated the degree of evaluation or behavior in the tourism context such as loyalty or frequency of revisit (Gitelson & Crompton, 1984; Kozak, 2001; Oppermann, 1999). For example, Kozak (2001) examined the extent to which past experience affects revisit in a destination. In particular, since satisfaction is a pivotal concept in assessing customers' experience, satisfaction measurement surveys have been focused to measure performance as a service indicator (Alegre & Garau, 2010; Kozak, 2001). On the other hand, though customer dissatisfaction has been examined in service failure, service recovery, or complaining-related literature (Bradley & Sparks, 2009; Rogers, Ross, & Williams, 1992; Susskind & Viccari, 2011; Zainol, Lockwood, & Kutsch, 2010), most studies focused on customer dissatisfaction in evaluating satisfaction ranged from dissatisfied to satisfied on a continuum (Alegre & Garau, 2010). The extent to which customers are dissatisfied however as a post-consumption process has not been clearly identified.

In recent years, most literature on customer dissatisfaction has been attached with two streams: service failure (Bradley & Sparks, 2009; Susskind & Viccari, 2011; Zainol, Lockwood, & Kutsch, 2010) and complaining behavior (Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2005; Rogers, Ross, & Williams, 1992; Singh, 1988). However, despite the importance of customer dissatisfaction in service businesses, more scholarly attention has focused on customer satisfaction than customer dissatisfaction (Anderson, 1973; Richins, 1983). Furthermore, few studies have clearly operationalized the concept of customer dissatisfaction (Giese & Cote, 2000).

In the hospitality and tourism field, major research topics in customer dissatisfaction include customers' emotional responses to customer dissatisfaction (Jang et al., 2013; Mattila & Ro, 2008; Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011; Velázquez et al., 2009), the role of personal values in expressing customer dissatisfaction (Chan & Wan, 2009; Chan et al., 2007), the relationship strength between customer and service provider affects responses of dissatisfaction (Ha & Jang, 2009; Yang & Mattila, 2012), and the role of cultural aspect on complaining (Alvarez & Korzay, 2008; Huang et al., 1996; Kim et al., 2014). Among the earlier studies, only a limited number have examined the effect of customer dissatisfaction on negative behavioral responses in considering customers' emotional status.

Not only customers' positive assessment but also negative assessment play a pivotal role in the purchasing process since they are both related to expectation level for future purchase behavior (Westbrook & Newman, 1978). In addition, favorable evaluation and attitude are significant sources of advantage in today's competitive business environment (Kozak, 2001). According to Oliver's (1980) satisfaction model, satisfied customers are likely to form a positive attitude and then develop a purchase intention. In a similar vein, Ekinci, Dawes and Massey (2008) found that attitude toward a service provider mediates a relationship between satisfaction and

behavioral intention. Even though dissatisfaction evaluation has a greater effect on revisit intention than satisfaction (Alegre & Garau, 2010), there still exists a lack of understanding of the consequences of customer dissatisfaction regarding customers' overall judgment as a significant predictor of their actual behavior. Accordingly, there is a need for a deeper understanding of customers' overall attitude toward a hotel when dissatisfied. Therefore, this study examines how customers' overall attitude toward a hotel are formed after they are particularly dissatisfied, and corresponding individuals' evaluations of hotels such as subsequent behavioral intentions by focusing on negative aspects.

1.2.3 Attitude

One of the key factors related to customers' subsequent behavior is attitude. The topic of attitude is essential to research on consumer behavior (Kassarjian & Kassarjian, 1979; Kokkinaki & Lunt, 1999), and there has been much research on the attitude-behavior relationship (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Fazio, Powell, & Williams, 1989; Priester, Nayakankuppam, Fleming, & Godek, 2004; Wicker, 1969). In general, attitude is conceived as enduring feelings of evaluation toward a particular object, such as a favorable or unfavorable response, and they have long been considered a useful predictor of customer behaviors toward a product/service (Lutz, 1991; Olson, & Mitchell, 2000). The development of positive attitude produces a corresponding change in behavior (Fazio et al., 1989). When people evaluate an object positively, they are more likely to purchase the object (Allport, 1935). Thus, the formation of favorable attitude has been found to be an essential way to understand customers' behavioral processes for purchasing products and services (Kokkinaki & Lunt, 1999; Priester et al., 2004; Wicker, 1969).

According to the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB), the TPB model explains predictive utility that customers form their intention of a certain behavior (Ajzen, 1985, 1991). A few studies have examined the importance of attitude in predicting customers' behaviors in the hospitality context, and in particular have focused on customers' negative behavioral intention (Cheng & Lam, 2008; Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2005, 2006). However, these studies in the TPB model mainly consider attitude as an attitude toward a given behavior to describe a behavioral belief such as attitude toward complaining or attitude toward negative word-of-mouth (Cheng & Lam, 2008; Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2005, 2006; Kim & Chen, 2010; Kim, Kim, Im, & Shin, 2003; Yuksel, Kilinc, & Yuksel, 2006).

In terms of the process of attitude acquisition, several studies have focused on attitude change and formation as a basic phenomenon (Olson & Mitchell, 1975). If customers are aware of an object positively, they are more likely to evaluate positively by forming positive attitude toward the object, and then there is by far higher probability that they approach or consume the object (Priester et al., 2004; Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009). Moreover, a few studies have examined the mediating role of attitude between customer satisfaction and behavioral intention (Ekinici, Dawes, & Massey, 2008; Oliver, 1980). Oliver (1980) investigated the mediating role of attitude between customer satisfaction and post-purchase intentions. The most immediate precursor of behavioral intentions is attitude. Other research in the hospitality industry found that customer satisfaction is an efficient indicator of customers' attitude toward a service firm and that overall attitude affect intention to return (Ekinici et al., 2008).

Despite this insight, not enough studies investigated overall attitude toward a hotel in the context of customer dissatisfaction (Ekinici et al., 2008; Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009). In particular, the empirical findings did not clearly confirm the impact of customer dissatisfaction on their

attitude, and behavioral intentions from a negative aspect. Our understanding of customer dissatisfaction and its effect on overt attitude toward a certain hotel and negative behavioral intention in the context of hotel management should not be neglected as a key consequence of customer dissatisfaction. Because customer dissatisfaction has a stronger impact on negative behavioral responses and lasts longer than satisfied responses (Giese & Cote, 2000), it is important to understand the effect of dissatisfaction on customer attitude and the role of attitude in the context of customer dissatisfaction. This study examines the consequences of customer dissatisfaction by focusing on a role of attitude toward a hotel between customer dissatisfaction and negative behavioral intention.

1.2.4 Hotel class related to customer expectation

A hotel property is categorized into different class according to various assessment criteria, such as price level, service strategy, or target customer (Garcia-Falcon & Medina-Muñoz, 1999). A hotel class provides particular property features such as certain level of services and facilities (Jeong & Jeon, 2008; Musante et al., 2009). One of the representative hotel rating systems is the star-rating system evaluated using such standards as quality of physical facilities, level of service, atmosphere and room rate (Ingram & Roberts, 2000; Jeong & Jeon, 2008). A hotel pertaining to a higher star rating will provide a higher level of hospitality service (Ariffin & Maghzi, 2012). For example, four- to five-star hotels are always more luxurious and more expensive than one- to two-star hotels. Likewise, a customer of a five-star hotel will also perceive a higher standard of service than would be available at a one-star establishment (Guillet & Law, 2010).

When customers stay at a hotel, each individual expects a certain level of tangible facilities and intangible services. Accordingly, the hotel management aims to provide a preferable level of

performance by fulfilling the level of customers' expectation (Costa, Glinia, Goudas, & Antomiou, 2004). Such expectation level acts as a guideline for evaluation (Cardozo, 1965; Olson & Dover, 1979). Customers in luxury hotels expect a higher level of services and facilities than those in economy properties (Knutson, 1988). Therefore, hotel class is one of criteria that is related to creating customers' expectation level (Knutson et al., 1993). As a result, the level of customer expectation for a hotel can vary according to hotel class, and it may be one of the significant factors in assessing satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Dolnicar, 2002). Therefore, hotel class related to customers' expectation level should be considered.

Previous studies have demonstrated that customers who stay at a higher level of hotel class have a higher level of expectation for service and room amenities and they are more willing to pay than those who stay at lower level of hotel class (Dolnicar, 2002; Griffin et al., 1997; Knutson, 1988; Knutson et al., 1993). As a result, these studies show that hotel class is highly related to the level of customer expectation, and may influence the level of satisfaction of customers regarding hotel service, because the level of expectation affects the evaluation of satisfaction (Cardozo, 1965).

Customer expectation is defined as a reference point from which people judge experiences and pretrial beliefs pertaining to perceived products or services (Olson & Dover, 1979; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1993). Customers expect a reasonable level of quality when they purchase a product or service. Customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction are related to the degree of discrepancy between customer expectations about service and their actual experiences (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1985).

Customer expectations have received considerable attention in the previous literature on consumer behavior (Anderson, 1973; Bearden & Teel, 1983; Oliver, 1980; Oliver & Linda, 1981;

Yi, 1990). Interest in the role of expectations can be traced to the perspective of Expectancy-Disconfirmation theory, which has been applied in various contexts (Oliver, 1980; Voss, Parasuraman, & Grewal, 1998). Previous studies emphasized the function of expectation and perceived performance in satisfaction (Boulding et al., 1993; Oliver, 1980). Only a few studies have explored the idea that how customers evaluate satisfaction according to level of their expectations (Cardozo, 1965). On the other hand, however, the effect of expectation level on customer dissatisfaction has not been extensively discussed in literature.

Nevertheless, hotel class as a significant criterion in hotel management has been less considered with regard to the level of customer expectation, and has been overlooked in investigating the identification of both hotel satisfiers and dissatisfiers. Moreover, research on the consequences of customer dissatisfaction has not been examined according to different hotel class, and the differences between upscale and budget hotels. Thus, there is a need to compare dissatisfaction and its consequences between customer groups in different hotel classes in order to comprehensively understand customer dissatisfaction in hotels. As a result, this study compares dissatisfiers and the consequences of customer dissatisfaction between the two different hotel classes of upscale and budget hotels.

1.3 Research objectives

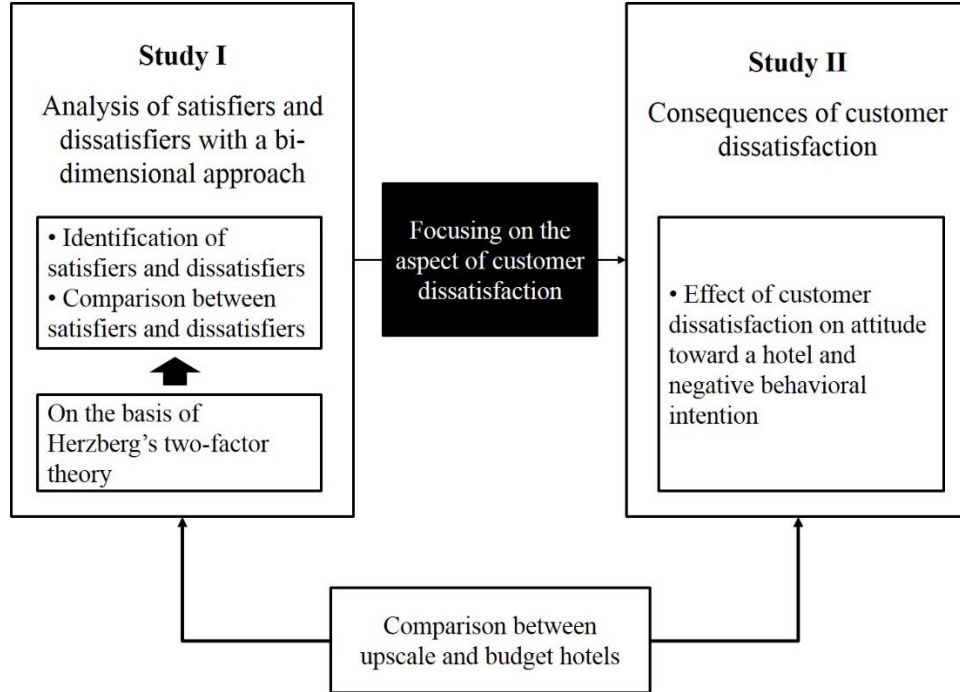
Based on the research problems, the following four research questions can be stated:

- How different are dissatisfiers from satisfiers?
 - (1) What are the factors leading to customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction, respectively?
 - (2) How does the class of a hotel affect which of its elements are seen by customers as satisfiers and dissatisfiers?
- How important is customer dissatisfaction?
 - (3) When customers are dissatisfied with their experiences at a hotel, how is their attitude toward a hotel, based on such dissatisfaction, related to their negative behavioral intention?
 - (4) How does the class of a hotel affect the consequences of dissatisfaction?

Together with addressing these questions, this thesis consists of two studies conducted to examine the four research objectives:

- Research Objectives of Study I:
 - (1) Identify two sets of satisfiers and dissatisfiers from online hotel reviews.**
 - (2) Compare the satisfiers and dissatisfiers according to class of hotel.**
- Research Objectives of Study II:
 - (3) Investigate whether customer dissatisfaction affects attitude toward a hotel, and three elements of negative behavioral intention (i.e., switching service providers, complaining, and spreading negative word-of-mouth).**
 - (4) Compare the relationship paths according to hotel class.**

Figure 1.1 Overall structure of this study



This study consists of two studies, Study I and Study II. Figure 1.1 illustrates the overall structure of this study. Study I focuses on identifying satisfiers and dissatisfiers and comparing between satisfiers and dissatisfiers to explore whether customer dissatisfaction occurs distinctively from customer satisfaction. The satisfiers and dissatisfiers are identified from online hotel reviews that are rapidly emerged data source generated by customers. It is mainly to analyze dissatisfiers as antecedents of customer dissatisfaction by comparing them to satisfiers with a bi-dimensional approach on the basis of Herzberg's two-factor theory.

By focusing on the aspect of customer dissatisfaction as an independent construct, Study II focuses on the consequences of customer dissatisfaction. In particular, Study II examines the effect of customer dissatisfaction on attitude toward a hotel and negative behavioral intention. It is to test the mediating effect of attitude toward a hotel on the sequent relationship between customer dissatisfaction and negative behavioral intention. Negative behavioral intention includes

switching service providers, complaining, and spreading negative word-of-mouth. Structural equation modeling (SEM) is used to test the mediating path of relationships between (1) customer dissatisfaction and attitude toward a hotel; and (2) customer dissatisfaction and negative behavioral intention; and (3) attitude toward a hotel and negative behavioral intention, respectively.

Results of the satisfiers and dissatisfiers identified from Study I and those of the consequences of customer dissatisfaction are compared according to different hotel classes related to different levels of customer expectation. Hotel classes are categorized into two levels—high (i.e., upscale hotel) or low (i.e., budget hotel). This study collects hotel customers' reviews from an online hotel review website, Trip Advisor, and identifies satisfiers and dissatisfiers in each of upscale and budget hotel groups, respectively by conducting a content analysis. The significance and sign of the paths on structural equation models in upscale and budget hotel groups are compared in Study II.

1.4 Research significance

This study attempts to make a theoretical contribution to the literature while also offering practical insights to the hotel industry. On the theoretical side, its first significance of this study is to extend Herzberg's two-factor theory by enlarging an important role of hotel class related to customers' expectation level in the hotel context. Herzberg's two-factor theory supports that both satisfiers and dissatisfiers are differently structured by independent causes (Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988; Herzberg, 1987; Herzberg et al., 1993; Johnston, 1995; Maddox, 1981; Swan & Combs, 1976). This study emphasizes an independent concept of customer dissatisfaction differentiated from satisfaction. A few researchers have distinguished two separate factors as both satisfiers and dissatisfiers in the hotel context based on the theory (Chan & Baum, 2007; Crompton, 2003; Johns

& Howard, 1998; Jones & Lee-Ross, 1997). However, those studies have been conducted in restricted contexts, such as eco-lodging and small hotel business and guesthouse context, and their findings focused on whether satisfiers have intangible feature or dissatisfiers have tangible features and they were inconsistent with different dissatisfiers emerging. This study suggests a concrete structure of hotel dissatisfiers differentiated from satisfiers and those two factors in upscale and budget hotel cases.

Moreover, its second theoretical contribution is to adapt social media being currently emerged such as online hotel review site into this study based on Herzberg's two-factor theory. As customers' online reviews are their direct and unaffected comments (Gretzel & Yoo, 2008; Harwood, 2007), the identification of satisfiers and dissatisfiers in upscale and budget hotel categories from data posted on online hotel review site was considered as an innovative method to extend the identification of both customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the hotel context. This suggests the importance of online resources generated by customers as an innovative means in understanding contemporary customers' actual experiences in hotel in order to recognize rapidly changing their needs and wants.

Comprehensively, the examination of online hotel reviews is expected to reflect a new social media marketing trend in a social media-friendly customer's era, and provide managerial implications to the hotel business. It also attempted to contribute to the academic literature by demonstrating an identification of satisfiers and dissatisfiers in considering for a new trend of electronic word-of-mouth.

As the third contribution to academia, this study establishes a new model regarding consequences of customer dissatisfaction including attitude toward a hotel, and negative behavioral intention, and tests this empirically. Previous studies show that attitude is a significant

determinant of future behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Oliver, 1980; Olson & Mitchell, 2000). Yet this aspect has not yet been extensively investigated in the specific context of customer dissatisfaction. Unhappy guests may form negative attitude towards the hotel stemming from unsatisfactory experiences with its hotel facilities or services. This, in turn, may affect negative behavioral intention such as switching, complaining, or spreading negative word-of-mouth. Therefore, this study attempts to empirically prove the effect of customer dissatisfaction on attitude toward a hotel, and negative behavioral intention is emphasized in different ways. As a results, it suggests to develop a particular dissatisfaction model by emphasizing the significant mediating role of attitude toward a hotel in the consequences of customer dissatisfaction, rather than considering that customer dissatisfaction is just an extension of satisfaction model.

In particular, the fourth theoretical significance of this study is to propose a new approach that focuses on the role of hotel class related to customer expectation in creating customer dissatisfaction. As previously discussed, customer dissatisfaction is an important concept in the literature, with a growing body of work examining a variety of relevant issues such as service failure and customer complaints (Hoffman & Chuang, 1999; McQuilken & Robertson, 2011; Spreng, Harrell, & Mackoy, 1995; Susskind, 2004). However, there still lacks conceptualization on customer dissatisfaction itself by considering different target customers who have diverse levels of customer expectation. Moreover, it is needed to understand how hotel class is related to customer dissatisfaction in the hotel context. Hotel class is one of key determinants of customer dissatisfaction because it highly related to service quality evaluation and customer expectation level with accordance to the expectancy-disconfirmation theory (Boulding et al., 1993; Oliver, 1980). However, it is still not clear how significant hotel class is associated with customer dissatisfaction. This approach suggests the significance of broaden understanding of customer

dissatisfaction with accordance to a range of hotel classes related to different level of targeted customers' expectation.

The main practical insight of this study offers a broader understanding of customer dissatisfaction to the hotel industry. Firstly, the findings serves as starting points for hotel practitioners wishing to think more about the importance of customer dissatisfaction. While managers mainly tend to focus on enhancing positive responses through measuring the customer satisfaction index (CSI), they tend to consider it less important to reduce customer dissatisfaction. The findings of this study may therefore help hotels to develop an equivalent customer dissatisfaction index (CDI) to manage unhappy guests more effectively.

Secondly, this study can also facilitate further understanding of how dissatisfied customers' attitude toward a hotel can lead to negative behavioral intention, and the importance of these attitude in influencing switching, complaining, or spreading negative word-of-mouth. The findings show practitioners that they need to make an effort to reduce customers' negative attitude toward their hotel when a customer is dissatisfied, in order to minimize the negative intention by proposing the importance of effective service recovery strategy.

Thirdly, the findings also help hotel practitioners in different hotel classes to recognize the importance of dissatisfiers that are differentiated from satisfiers in tackling customer dissatisfaction. Staff of both upscale and budget hotels can use the results from online hotel reviews in order to design their own strategies to prevent customer dissatisfaction and maintain a competitive advantage in the market. Overall, the examination of online hotel reviews is expected to reflect a new social media marketing trend in a social media-friendly customer's era, and provide managerial implications to the hotel business.

1.5 Definition of terms

Table 1.1 shows the definitions of terms for specific constructs in this thesis based on previous literature.

Table 1.1 Definition of terms

| Term | Definition |
|------------------------------------|---|
| Attitude | an element of judgment in evaluating the individual tendency to behave as a useful predictor leading to actual behavior toward product/service (adapted from Lutz, 1991; Olson & Mitchell, 2000; Wicker, 1969). |
| Budget hotel | the category that refers to hotels with the lowest prices in the marketplace that meet the basic needs of guests (adapted from Garcia-Falcon & Medina-Muñoz, 1999). |
| Customer dissatisfaction | customers' affective status when they experience discomfort caused by service failure during the purchase process. The provided products and service are usually expected and considered basic to the experience (adapted from Fornell & Wernerfelt, 1987; Kano, Seraku, Takahashi, & Tsuji, 1984). |
| Customer expectation | customers' individual belief as a reference point against which product/service performance is judged for satisfaction or dissatisfaction (adapted from Olson & Dover, 1979; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1993). |
| Complaining | a vocal action to express customer dissatisfaction to service providers or third parties such as the Better Business Bureau and the Office of Consumer Affairs (adapted from Day & Bodur, 1978; Rogers, Ross, & Williams, 1992; Singh, 1990). |
| Dissatisfier | a factor that only generates customer dissatisfaction when they are present (adapted from Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988). |
| Negative word-of-mouth | the negative communications of customers with members of their social and professional network by talking or mailing family members, friends, acquaintances, and so on. It is the result of dissatisfaction (adapted from Anderson, 1998). |
| Satisfiers | a factor that only generate customer satisfaction when they are present (adapted from Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988). |
| Switching service providers | the termination of a relationship with the service provider by initiating a relationship with another service provider, by performing the service yourself, or by refraining from the service altogether (adapted from Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). |
| Upscale hotel | the category that refers to hotels with the highest prices in the marketplace and a full-service strategy (adapted from Garcia-Falcon & Medina-Muñoz, 1999). |

* *Note:* Alphabetical order

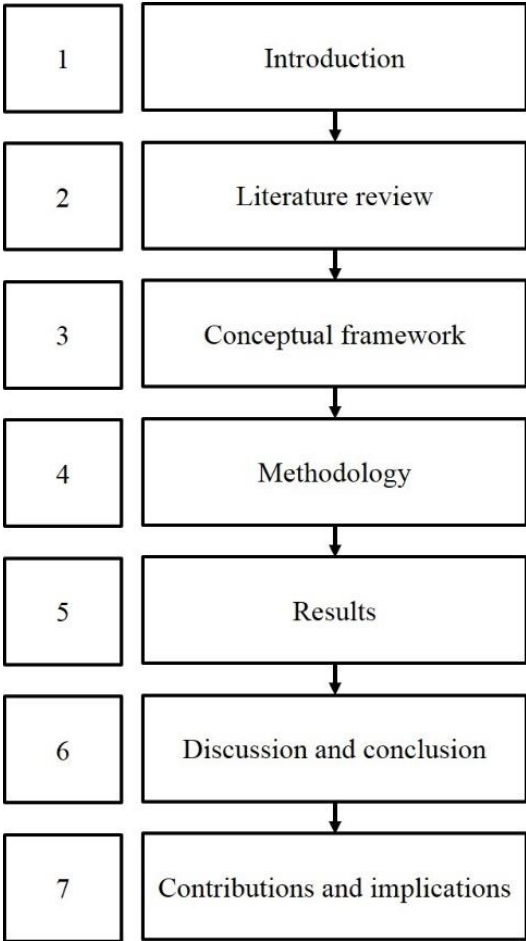
1.6 Organization of the thesis

In general, the structure of thesis provides seven chapters, namely the introduction, literature review, conceptual framework, methodology, results, discussion and conclusion, and contributions and implications (Perry, 2002). Based on the thesis structure, this thesis is mainly composed of seven chapters by dividing into one chapter into literature review and conceptual framework development.

Chapter 1 provides the research background, main research questions, objectives, and significance of the study by presenting the most structured pictorial overview of the thesis context including Study I and Study II. Chapter 2 reviews the literature regarding this thesis on Herzberg's two-factor theory as an umbrella theory for this study, satisfiers and dissatisfiers found in online hotel reviews as a tool of social media, customer dissatisfaction, attitude, and negative behavioral intention. Chapter 3 proposes the conceptual framework for Study I and the conceptual model to test the consequences of customer dissatisfaction, including the major five constructs for Study II.

Chapter 4 discusses the methodological issues of qualitative and quantitative studies according to the research objectives: research design, sampling, instrument development, data collection, and data analysis. Since this thesis includes two studies, Chapter 5 discusses the analysis and results of Study I through the qualitative analysis method, and those of Study II with the quantitative analysis method. Chapter 6 concludes the significance of customer dissatisfaction in the hotel marketing literature through discussion and contributions to the field. Chapter 7 discusses the contribution and implications as well as limitations of the present study and future study directions. The generic structure of thesis is graphically shown in Figure 1.2.

Figure 1.2 Thesis Structure



Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The objective of a literature review is to build an understanding of, and appreciation for, the large body of knowledge preceding the present study. In order to set out this foundation, this chapter offers an overview of the literature addressing the main constructs of interest here, namely Herzberg's two-factor theory, customer dissatisfaction, attitude, negative behavioral intention, and hotel class related to customer expectation. In particular, Herzberg's two-factor theory is presented as the theoretical underpinning of this study. In the process of conducting this review, gaps in the existing literature are identified, and the relationship between the constructs, namely customer dissatisfaction, attitude toward a hotel, and negative behavioral intentions, is reviewed.

2.1 Herzberg's two-factor theory

It has been considered a generic notion that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are opposite concepts such as dissatisfaction being a consumer's response to the evaluation when people feel less satisfied. Measuring customer satisfaction is most commonly done using a bipolar continuum ranging from highly dissatisfied to highly satisfied (Yi, 1990). However, some scholars propose separate positive and negative measurements for satisfaction and dissatisfaction, respectively (Babin & Griffin, 1998). There exists an argument that customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction are uni- or bi-dimensional concepts (Maddox, 1981; Swan & Combs, 1976). Even though most studies tend to regard them as uni-dimensional, in the sense that both can be generated using the same factors, a handful of studies argue for a bi-dimensional conceptualization (Yi, 1990). However, some researchers suggest that the uni-dimensional framework may not be sufficient to

generate both satisfaction and dissatisfaction; while the presence of specific factors generates the former, their absence does not necessarily lead to the latter (Alegre & Garau, 2010).

Based on this assumption, the two-factor theory was developed and proposed by Herzberg and has become well known as the dual-factor or motivation-hygiene theory (Herzberg, 1987; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1993). Herzberg asserts that the specific factors causing satisfaction do not generate dissatisfaction, and vice versa (Chan & Baum, 2007). Hence, the theory has gained popularity as a management tool across different disciplines (Chitiris, 1988).

The two-factor theory was developed to address employees' behavior in the workplace. In order to identify job attitude, job satisfaction was investigated to find out what people liked and disliked about their work. Herzberg's initial research proposes that certain factors lead to job satisfaction when present, while dissatisfaction results if they are not. People may express dissatisfaction with a poor environment, which is one of the extrinsic elements of a job, and with tangible factors such as company policy and administration, working conditions, supervision, interpersonal relations, status, security, and salary. On the other hand, people are satisfied and committed to their jobs when working in a good environment, which is one of the intrinsic elements of work, and with intangible factors such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, and the nature of the work itself (Herzberg, 1987).

From Herzberg's discovery, two different sets of independent factors have emerged. Attributes related to a poor environment are labeled as hygiene factors, while those that make people satisfied are labeled as motivators. However, the typical notion of two sets of factors lying on a continuum has been shown to be a fallacy. In addition, there is evidence of many differences between factors, or the things workers like and dislike about their jobs. The factors that they like are now defined as satisfiers and those they dislike as dissatisfiers.

The dissatisfiers as hygiene factors are essentially our basic survival needs. They are not directly relevant to the job itself, but to the environment within which it is performed. As a result, they can cause dissatisfaction if not fulfilled. However, even if they are, motivation and satisfaction do not increase. In other words, tackling dissatisfiers can only ever prevent dissatisfaction, not increase satisfaction. On the other hand, the satisfiers of motivators denote growth needs within the work itself. They are considered important by many people. Satisfiers can increase satisfaction and enhance motivation. This being so, not being satisfied does not mean that one is dissatisfied, nor vice versa. The stronger the perceived presence of satisfiers, the greater the resulting satisfaction. The absence of satisfiers will not lead to dissatisfaction, but only to the absence of satisfaction. The more dissatisfiers present the greater will be the person's discontent, but they will not express themselves as having "no satisfaction" at all, as would be the case in the absence of satisfiers.

In order to avoid dissatisfaction and develop motivational factors to secure long-term satisfaction, human resource managers have long tried to identify hygiene factors (Herzberg, 1987; Herzberg et al., 1993). In particular, because staffing levels are considered important in the service industries (Matzler & Renzl, 2007), several studies in the hospitality and tourism sector have investigated employees' motivations using Herzberg's two-factor theory (Chitiris, 1988; Lundberg, Gudmundson, & Andersson, 2009; Poulston, 2009).

Chitiris (1988) applies Herzberg's theory to hotel employees in Greece and shows that they are more interested in hygiene factors as dissatisfiers than in motivators as satisfiers. Hygiene factors can become powerful sources of motivation when a company does not allow employees the opportunity to satisfy most of their needs. Lundberg, Gudmundson, and Andersson (2009) set out an example of testing for the effects of seasonality in the hospitality and tourism industry, in

their study of the motivation of seasonal workers at a ski resort. They examine motivation with reference to growth and hygiene factors based on the two-factor theory, adjusting the content to suit the specific nature of the work being carried out. Their results support the view that Herzberg's two-factor theory remains valid in this context.

Focusing on unsatisfactory perspectives, Poulston (2009) explores how well unsatisfactory hygiene factors identify employees' working conditions in the hospitality field. According to Herzberg's theory, motivating factors will not have an effect on employees' dissatisfaction; instead this will occur if the hygiene factors are absent, in which case an employee may become unmotivated and dissatisfied. Even though these studies focus on employees' motivation, they do so based on Herzberg's view of the nonparallel relationship between satisfaction and dissatisfaction. In particular, their results show that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not on a continuum, with one increasing as the other diminishes, but are two independent constructs with different dimensions (Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988).

Usually, the scale of satisfaction is presented as a continuum from satisfied (high values) to dissatisfied (low scores) with the midpoint indicating neutrality or indifference (Alegre & Garau, 2010). However, satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not at opposite ends of the same continuum. In other words, the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, but the absence of satisfaction, and the converse is also true (Herzberg, 1987; Herzberg et al., 1993; Maddox, 1981). The ground theory of this study was developed based on Herzberg's two-factor theory which states that the factors leading to dissatisfaction as dissatisfiers differ from those of satisfiers, as well as dissatisfaction being an independent construct from satisfaction.

2.1.1 Factor structure of customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction

The core concept of the proposed the Herzberg's two-factor theory is that different attributes are responsible for bringing about satisfaction and dissatisfaction, respectively. Satisfaction and dissatisfaction comprise a bi-dimensional framework in which the latter should be considered as an individual affective status in its own right. Moreover, the nature of these two sets of factors can be divided into general principles in order to represent the differences between them.

Herzberg's theory proposes extended concept of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and it implies that the causes of customer dissatisfaction may be different from those of customer satisfaction as bi-dimensional concept (Herzberg, 1987; Herzberg et al., 1993). Their studies indicated that the Two-Factor Theory that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not on the same bipolar continuum where one increases as the other diminishes.

In particular, satisfiers are related to intrinsic elements having intangible features, whereas dissatisfiers are more likely to be made up of extrinsic and tangible elements. Although the theory was developed to evaluate employees' satisfaction and dissatisfaction, it can be applied to general customer behavior and the feelings of individuals (Czepiel, Rosenberg, & Akerele, 1974). The fundamental framework of satisfiers and dissatisfiers can be applied to different types of customer experiences likely to generate satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Babin & Griffin, 1998; Chan & Baum, 2007; Maddox, 1981).

Some studies distinctively conceptualized two sets of factors leading to satisfaction and dissatisfaction and extended to various different contexts (Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988; Chan & Baum, 2007; Crompton, 2003; Johns & Howard, 1998; Johnston, 1995; Jones & Lee-Ross, 1997; Maddox, 1981; Swan & Combs, 1976; Vargo et al., 2007). For example, Swan and Combs (1976)

applied critical incident technique (CIT) to find two types of determinants of satisfaction and dissatisfaction, which are identified as expressive and instrumental factors. Considering the gap between the level of both expectation and performance, they show that satisfaction was regarded as “expressive outcomes” on the emotional and psychological level, whereas dissatisfaction was regarded as “instrumental outcomes” on cognitive and physical level in nature. The results also suggest that delivering expressive performance is likely to create satisfaction. Instrumental performance can create dissatisfaction, but will not lead to satisfaction even when acceptable. In other words, the absence of instrumental factors is more likely to create customer dissatisfaction, but is not enough in itself to generate satisfaction; that is more likely to come about as a result of expressive performance. This finding enables two distinct sets of factors affecting satisfaction and dissatisfaction to emerge. Additionally, dissatisfiers must also be considered if it aims to avoid dissatisfaction. However, this particular study cannot easily be generalized and does not suggest a strict dichotomy between satisfactory and unsatisfactory factors.

Maddox (1981) replicated the study of Swan and Combs (1976), and sets out to determine expressive and instrumental factors using a larger and more heterogeneous sample drawn from several industries such as clothing, personal care, durable products, and small appliances. Satisfiers are far more likely to be linked to expressive incidents, whereas dissatisfiers are more likely to be present in instrumental items. In addition, the low value of expressive factors leads to reduced satisfaction, but does not actually create dissatisfaction, and it is therefore suggested that these are distinct concepts. However, the difficulty is in classifying satisfiers and dissatisfiers, with different results emerging across diverse products. In addition, some factors cannot be classified as either satisfactory or unsatisfactory. As a result, the existence of both satisfiers and dissatisfiers was inconsistent depending on the ambiguous items and individuals.

Similarly, Johnston (1995) also identified the presence of both satisfiers and dissatisfiers by examining the distinct sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the bank management context. The satisfiers were related to interpersonal service features such as attentiveness, responsiveness, and friendliness. The dissatisfiers covered operational or physical features such as integrity, reliability, availability, and functionality. These classifications correspond broadly to Herzberg's motivators and hygiene factors. Again, the dissatisfiers are not necessarily sources of satisfaction, but in this example some factors are found in both categories.

Table 2.1 Summary of studies on the factor structure of satisfaction and dissatisfaction

| Author | Method | Context | Objective | Finding | Critical point |
|------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--|---|--|--|
| Swan and Combs (1976) | Critical Incident Technique (CIT) | Clothing products | - To investigate expressive factors and instrumental factors based on the Two-factor theory | - Expressive factors are more emotional and psychological performances - Instrumental factors are more cognitive and physical performances - Satisfaction is related to both instrumental and expressive factors, while dissatisfaction is only more likely to involve instrumental factors. | -Satisfaction and dissatisfaction are considered with the relation of expressive outcome and instrumental outcome. - In addition, criterion of result in satisfaction and dissatisfaction are supported by expectation-disconfirmation theory according to the gap between performance and expectation. |
| Maddox (1981) | Critical Incident Technique (CIT) | Several industries (clothing products, personal care products, durables, and small appliances) | - To replicate Swan and Combs's (1976) expressive and instrumental factors | - Satisfiers are far more likely linked to expressive incidents, whereas dissatisfiers are more likely linked to instrumental items. - Some of factors cannot be classified as either satisfactory or unsatisfactory features. - Low value of expressive factors reduces satisfaction, but it does not create dissatisfaction. | - It suggests that the low satisfaction is not same as dissatisfaction. - The study applies to larger and more heterogeneous sample in several industries. - Results between two sets of factors are different depending on the classification in the cases of diverse products. |
| Johnston (1995) | Critical Incident Technique (CIT) | Bank service | - To identify determinants of service quality in forms of satisfiers and dissatisfiers | - Dissatisfiers are related to operational features, whereas satisfiers are mainly related to intangible aspects of service delivery. - Satisfiers and dissatisfiers which correspond to Herzberg's motivators and hygiene factors. | - Dissatisfiers are not necessarily the sources of satisfaction. - Some factors can be overlapped into both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. |

In the hospitality and tourism literature, a few studies adopt Herzberg's two-factor theory to investigate satisfiers and dissatisfiers (Alegre & Garau, 2010; Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988; Chan & Baum, 2007; Crompton, 2003; Johns & Howard, 1998; Jones, Lee-Ross & Ingram, 1997). They identify two independent sets of factors in order to help hospitality businesses or travel destinations understand and deal with customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction. More recently, a handful of studies have examined the two types of factors and their characteristics leading to satisfaction and dissatisfaction with restaurant and lodging business (Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988), restaurant business (Johns & Howard, 1998), tourism destinations (Alegre & Garau, 2010), eco-lodgings (Chan & Baum, 2007), the events sector (Crompton, 2003), and small hotels and guest houses in the UK (Jones, Lee-Ross & Ingram, 1997).

For example, Cadotte and Turgeon (1988) carry out a content analysis of the compliments and complaints raised by customers of both 432 restaurants and 260 lodging business in the U.S. They identify various factors classified into four typologies; satisfiers, dissatisfiers, critical attributes, and neutral attributes. Satisfiers are defined as factors that can generate satisfaction when present but do not generate dissatisfaction when they are not, namely, staff's attitude, cleanliness, neatness of establishment, service quality, and staff's knowledge of service. Dissatisfiers are those items which generate dissatisfaction if they do not work properly, such as room price, foods, and service, speed of service, service quality, parking availability, and staff's knowledge of service. Their presence leads to complaints and dissatisfaction, but performing them well does not make customers positively pleased with the service. Critical factors have a role in both satisfaction and dissatisfaction, while neutral issues have no impact on customers whether or not they are present.

In a study of Johns and Howard (1998), a comparative study was conducted by following up the work of Johnston (1995) in order to determine 67 satisfiers and 61 dissatisfiers in a restaurant setting. Their results suggest that different industrial contexts lead to different results. In contrast to the earlier work, they show that restaurant customers are likely to be concerned with entertainment and pleasure. Depending on the nature of the industry, crucial elements of the customer experience emerge differently. These findings suggest that different industries generate different satisfiers and dissatisfiers. Individual subjective expectations and perceptions are also influential so that each attribute can be changeable as either satisfier or dissatisfier. However, in this study, performance is used to identify levels of delight, satisfaction, and dissatisfaction on a continuous level based on the expectancy-disconfirmation theory, with the latter interpreted from only the positive perspective.

Jones and Lee-Ross (1997) identify satisfiers and dissatisfiers in terms of service quality attributes in a sample of eight small hotels and guesthouses in the UK, using 299 guests' written feedback. Service quality as a satisfier and dissatisfier is analyzed in terms of its tangible and intangible aspects. Tangible features from both positive and negative guest experiences are mentioned frequently, while the intangible features are constructed solely from guests' positive experiences. In other words, the satisfiers have both tangible and intangible features, while the dissatisfiers are solely tangible in nature. Tangible factors are more likely to be related to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction whereas intangible ones are associated with satisfaction alone. The study emphasizes that these satisfiers and dissatisfiers are related to the tangible or intangible aspects of the guest experience. Although their nature is not clearly verified, the study suggests tentatively that satisfiers are more likely to be intangible, while dissatisfiers are tangible.

Crompton (2003) classifies the overall factors governing visitors' satisfaction in the events sector into two types, namely maintenance factors as dissatisfiers and motivator factors as satisfiers. Motivators facilitate visitors' satisfaction and function as core attractors. Physical and maintenance factors, including generic infrastructure elements, influence dissatisfaction and are distinctly different from motivators. However, these maintenance factors are also the essential underpinnings of a successful event. These findings show that the absence of dissatisfiers leads to dissatisfaction, but dissatisfiers alone are not enough to create satisfaction. However, the factors cannot be verified in terms of their potential impact, so as to be universally generalizable. The specifics of the events management context are addressed but the study contributes only from the perspective of visitors' satisfaction.

Chan and Baum (2007) investigate satisfiers and dissatisfiers based on the two-factor theory in the eco-lodging setting and show that the latter are related to facilities, amenities, and maintenance and the former to the personal and experiential aspects of natural attractions, atmosphere, activities, and staff and guides. These findings support Herzberg's two-factor theory. In their study, the dissatisfiers do not overlap with the satisfiers, and the characteristics of each also indicate that dissatisfiers include more tangible products and fewer intangible services. These findings suggest that the things that make guests happy are different from what makes them unhappy, so Herzberg's two-factor theory is capable of addressing visitors' satisfaction and dissatisfaction. However, the study is qualitative in nature and involves only 29 guests of an eco-lodging in Malaysia.

In terms of tourism destinations, the most recent study is that conducted by Alegre and Garau (2010), who address two different concepts of tourist satisfaction and dissatisfaction. When proposing a measurement scale, they suggest that people can separately express satisfaction and

dissatisfaction on the basis of the distinctive attributes of each, whereas previous surveys focus only on the positive attributions of a destination in considering the reasons why people visit, and not the negative features arising from unpleasant experiences. In particular, they assert that dissatisfiers stemming from negative experiences should be defined using a specific scale. That is, destination attributes need to be classified separately into satisfiers and dissatisfiers. The latter are evaluated on a specific scale in which dissatisfaction is measured from “not at all dissatisfied” to “highly dissatisfied”. The concept of measurement is also discussed in terms of Herzberg’s two-factor theory (Herzberg, 1966). This study reveals the importance of distinguishing between the characteristics of satisfiers and dissatisfiers, and the impact of evaluation type on overall satisfaction and intention to return to a destination.

Table 2.2 Summary of satisfiers and dissatisfiers in the hospitality and tourism industry

| Author | Context | Objective | Finding | Critical point |
|--|--|--|--|---|
| Cadotte and Turgeon (1988) | Restaurant and lodging business | To categorize the attributes into 4 kinds of factors: satisfiers, dissatisfiers, critical attributes, and neutral attributes | - The presence of dissatisfiers plays the role of creating complaints and dissatisfaction. - A higher level of dissatisfiers does not make customers satisfied with the service. | - It conducts contents analysis using comments of compliments and complaints reported by restaurant and lodging business owners. |
| Jones, Lee-Ross and Ingram (1997) | Small hotels and guesthouses in the UK | To identify service quality attributes as satisfiers and dissatisfiers based on Johnston’s (1995) service quality attributes | - Tangible features of service quality are mostly mentioned and dominated from both positive and negative guests’ experiences, while intangible features are constructed from guests’ positive experience. | - Satisfiers include both tangible and intangible features, while dissatisfiers include tangible feature. - Satisfiers and dissatisfiers are related to tangible or intangible aspects of the guest experience. |
| Johns and Howard (1998) | Restaurants | To conduct a comparative study with Johnston’s (1995) study in order to identify satisfiers and dissatisfiers | - Satisfiers and dissatisfiers depend on individual expectation and perception. - Performance is considered to identify the level of delight. - Satisfaction and dissatisfaction are | - Different context leads to different results depending on the nature of industries. - Depending on the nature of the industry, the crucial elements of the customer experience are shown differently in each industry. |

| | | | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------|---|---|---|
| | | | considered with continuous level based on expectancy-disconfirmation theory | |
| Crompton (2003) | Event sector | To suggest two types of maintenance factors and motivator factors of visitors' satisfaction | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Motivators facilitate visitors' satisfaction as core attractors. Physical and maintenance factors including generic infrastructure elements influence visitors' dissatisfaction, and are distinctively different features from motivators. - Maintenance factors are also essential factors to form the foundation in order to achieve a successful festival event. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The absence of dissatisfiers results in dissatisfaction, but dissatisfiers are not a sufficient enough condition to create satisfaction. - The factors cannot be verified to be generalizable constantly and universally. - The specific facets in the event context are approached in contributing from only visitors' satisfaction perspective. |
| Chan and Baum (2007) | Eco-lodging setting. | To investigate satisfiers and dissatisfiers based on the two-factor theory. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Result is exactly supported by Herzberg's two-factor theory focused on the tangible and intangible features. - Dissatisfiers are related to performance of maintenance. - Satisfiers are related to personal and experimental aspects - Results are that Herzberg's two-factor theory is capable of addressing human being's satisfaction and dissatisfaction. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The dimension of dissatisfiers does not overlap with the satisfiers, and the characteristics also show that dissatisfiers include more tangible products and less intangible services. - The study uses qualitative method involving only 29 interviewees in terms of eco-lodging accommodation specialized in Malaysia. |
| Alegre and Garau (2010) | Tourism destination | To reveal two different concepts of tourist satisfaction and dissatisfaction. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Dissatisfiers are applied with the specific scale in which dissatisfaction is measured with a specific scale as 'not at all dissatisfied to highly dissatisfied'. - Negative situations might not be able to explain overall satisfaction, but they had greater effect on intention to return. Then, | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Dissatisfaction is differentiated dimension from satisfaction, the satisfiers should be associated with satisfaction and the dissatisfiers should be associated with dissatisfaction. - In order to emphasize the explicit impact of dissatisfiers and dissatisfaction-based evaluations on behavior intention, the specific dissatisfiers can be associated with customer dissatisfaction and negative behavior intentions. |

To sum up, Herzberg's two-factor theory has been adopted to identify the existence of satisfiers and dissatisfiers, which manifest themselves differently across diverse industries (Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988; Johns & Howard, 1998; Johnston, 1995; Maddox, 1981; Swan & Combs, 1976), even in the hospitality and tourism industry (Alegre & Garau, 2010; Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988; Chan & Baum, 2007; Crompton, 2003; Johns & Howard, 1998; Jones, Lee-Ross, & Ingram, 1997). Such works are more likely to focus on identifying the pattern of satisfiers and dissatisfiers based on the theory, and on arguing for whether the characteristics of factors are tangible or intangible (Herzberg, 1987; Herzberg et al., 1993). The evidence indicates that satisfaction and dissatisfaction have different causes. Satisfiers and dissatisfiers may be considered to be distinct elements based on the bi-dimensional approach (Bitner, Booms, & Tetreault, 1990; Bleuel, 1990; Mersha & Adlakha, 1992; Smith, Weatherly, & Tansik, 1992). In other words, dissatisfiers do not lead to satisfaction, but dissatisfaction will occur when they are absent or deficient (Herzberg, 1976). This body of work also attempts to identify particular patterns of satisfiers and dissatisfiers in terms of whether or not they are psychological or physical, essential or "nice to have," or interpersonal or operational. It has also considered other service quality issues within a given industry.

However, the main focus of these studies is the identification of tangible satisfiers and dissatisfiers, supporting the bi-dimensional concept of satisfaction but without focusing on the dissatisfaction perspective (Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988). In fact, dissatisfiers are a necessary or basic condition for service performance. In other words, they are the minimum requirements which can prevent dissatisfaction but by themselves are not enough to lead to contentment. They can be distinguished from satisfiers, and have a greater impact on dissatisfaction. As such, they should be considered to be independent factors. It may also be noted that not only do satisfiers enable a

company to position itself more attractively than its competitors, but also that dissatisfiers have a greater impact on negative customer behaviors (because satisfiers may not fully reflect dissatisfaction). Therefore, dissatisfiers are best seen as a set of important needs which must be met to avoid unhappy customers.

In addition, consistent measures of satisfiers and dissatisfiers have not yet emerged from such studies applying Herzberg's two-factor theory to undertake this examination. The findings, though comprehensive overall, do not consistently follow the strict dichotomy developed from Herzberg's two-factor theory. The theory has also been criticized in terms of the distinction it draws between satisfiers and dissatisfiers (Lundberg et al., 2009) and its validity in different settings (Ruthankoon & Ogunlana, 2003). It is therefore necessary to study the specific question of whether or not there are actually two independent sets of satisfiers and dissatisfiers in the hotel industry context. Moreover, previous studies have concentrated on only a few sectors, such as those offering specific products and services. Because the classification of satisfiers and dissatisfiers can change across industries (Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988; Johns & Howard, 1998), it is essential to identify exactly which factors are relevant to each context and by doing so, to extend further our knowledge of the hotel industry. Furthermore, other effects on the identification of a factor structure are not considered. Especially, by focusing on hotel industry, this study considers hotel classes in identifying satisfiers and dissatisfiers in different categories.

In summary, as an assumption that customer dissatisfaction is a different dimension from satisfaction, dissatisfiers should be associated with the former and satisfiers with the latter. The last-mentioned study indicates that negative situations are unlikely to determine overall satisfaction, but may affect the attractiveness of a destination and reduce intention to return. Nevertheless, overall satisfaction is still assessed as a consequence of dissatisfiers even while

arguing that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are different dimensions. In order to emphasize the explicit impact of dissatisfiers and dissatisfaction-based evaluations on behavioral intention, specific dissatisfiers could be associated with the assessment of dissatisfaction and negative actions. This would enable an explicit consideration of poor-quality experiences, which may have more effect on customer behaviors than satisfaction alone.

Identifying two sets of satisfiers and dissatisfiers is a sensible approach, particularly in the hotel context, and is also a good way to consider another important construct that may influence inconsistent findings of two sets of satisfiers and dissatisfiers. Identifying such groups of factors not only presents a different bi-dimensional structure between satisfaction and dissatisfaction, but also focuses on their essential nature. Dissatisfiers can be suggested which will prevent customer dissatisfaction, which in turn can be considered as an independent construct to be addressed from its own individual perspective.

2.1.2 Satisfiers and dissatisfiers in hotels

In the hotel context, customers are likely to perceive services and facilities as important factors promoting satisfaction with their stay (Wuest, Tas, & Emenheiser, 1996). Several studies have carried out to identify relevant factors in hotels (Dolnicar & Otter, 2003). It is essential to understand them in order to recognize the needs and desires that are important to guests (Barsky & Labagh, 1992; Gundersen, Heide, & Olsson, 1996). In particular, attention has been paid to the factors influencing hotel selection (Ananth et al., 1992; Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988; Griffen, Shea, & Weaver, 1996; Knutson, 1988; Lewis, 1984; Saleh & Ryan, 1992). However, what determines selection may not be the same as what influences and maintains satisfaction. Although, as noted above, satisfiers have been widely investigated in the hospitality research, they are mostly regarded

as the determinants of guest satisfaction (Barsky & Labagh, 1992; Choi & Chu, 2000; Dolnicar & Otter, 2003; Gu & Ryan, 2008; Gunderson, Heide, & Olsson, 1996; Poon & Low, 2005). Most studies focus on identifying satisfiers from the uni-dimensional perspective of satisfaction. An overview of the literature on the factors leading to customer satisfaction is presented in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Satisfiers and dissatisfiers in the hotel context

| | Satisfiers | | Dissatisfiers |
|---|--|--|--|
| Barsky and Labagh (1992), Barsky (1992) Business and Leisure traveler | Employee attitudes, location, room, price, facilities, reception, services, parking, F&B (9 factors) | Heung (2000) Mainland Chinese traveler | Recreation facilities, frequent-traveler programs, baggage handling services, complimentary amenities, pool and gym facilities, physical appearance, view of surrounding area, transportation arrangement, business center, meeting facilities, hotel reputation, reasonable prices, fire prevention systems, reservation system, security, efficiency of front desk, laundry service, value for money of F&B, hotel staff, prompt service of hotel staff (20 factors) |
| Gunderson, Heide, and Olsson (1996) Business traveler | Receptionist's willingness to provide service, receptionist's ability to provide service, receptionist's ability to provide quick service, receptionist's accuracy in registration, F&B personnel's willingness to provide service, F&B personnel's ability to provide service, opening hours of the F&B department, housekeeping personnel's willingness to provide service, housekeeping personnel's ability to provide service, amenities in the hotel room, comfort of the hotel room, availability of room during stay (23 factors) | | |
| Choi and Chu (2000, 2001) Asian, Western traveler | Staff service, room quality, general amenities, business services, value, security, international direct dial facility (7 factors) | | |
| Qu, Ryan, and Chu (2000) International traveler | Quality of staff performance, quality of room facilities, value for money, variety & efficient service, business related services, safety & security (6 factors) | Dolnicar (2002) Business traveler | Weakness of cleanliness; room; personnel; service; food; bed; technical equipment; bathroom, unfriendly staff, too noisy atmosphere, room size, expensive pricing, bad location, low quality (14 factors) |
| Poon and Low (2005) Asian, Western traveler | Hospitality, accommodation, F&B, recreation & entertainment, supplementary service, security & safety, innovation & value added services, transportation, location, appearance, pricing, payment (12 factors) | | |
| Gu and Ryan (2008) Chinese traveler | Bed comfort, bathroom cleanliness and facilities, room size and facilities, location and accessibility, staff performance, ancillary service (pool, beauty salon etc.), food and drink (7 factors) | | |

Focusing now on dissatisfaction, even though it was argued that the absence of satisfiers cannot necessarily correspond to those which lead to and reinforce customer dissatisfaction (Alegre & Garau, 2010), only two studies so far explore the classification of dissatisfiers in a hotel setting (Dolnicar, 2002; Heung, 2000). For instance, Heung (2000) discovers a list of 20

dissatisfiers in Hong Kong hotels, defining these as features not delivered to the standard expected by guests. A sample of 203 Mainland Chinese travelers is found to be dissatisfied with facilities, frequent travelers' program, services, complimentary amenities, physical appearance, surrounding area, transportation, hotel reputation, prices, safety prevention systems, reservations, security, hotel staff, and value for money.

In the similar vein, a study of Dolnicar (2002) shows 14 hotel attributes of dissatisfaction perceived by business travelers in hotels in different countries using an open-question format. The hotel attributes which lead to dissatisfaction are poor cleanliness, weaknesses in the room, personnel, service, food, bed, bathroom or technical equipment, unfriendly staff, noise, room size, room price, bad location and low quality. Table 2.3 also summarizes the list of known satisfiers and dissatisfiers identified in previous studies.

However, both of these studies have limitations, given that the dissatisfiers are identified simply by measuring the discrepancy between guest expectations and perceived performance. Neither list can be generalized as a standard set of dissatisfiers for the hotel industry. Furthermore, dissatisfiers can be changed into satisfiers, or vice versa, depending on individual experiences and at different times. Finally, both studies were undertaken over a decade ago and are no longer sufficiently up to date to be used to generate measurement criteria (Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988; Kano et al., 1984). In addition, as described above, such findings of identifying satisfiers and dissatisfiers can be inconsistent across the different industrial contexts. As a result, this is a need to independently understand satisfiers and dissatisfiers perceived by hotel customers. Furthermore, it is required to identify whether satisfiers and dissatisfiers differ according to different hotel class because customers who stay in different hotel class expect distinctive level of facilities and services.

Focusing on dissatisfaction, reducing dissatisfaction is more difficult than increasing satisfaction. However, making an effort with the former results in more positive outcomes than the latter (Johnston, 1995). Even though dissatisfiers are an indicator of customer dissatisfaction, many studies which have set out to identify satisfiers may exclude possible negative features (Alegre & Garau, 2010). In other words, the existence of such features may have been ignored, particularly as there are relatively few studies on dissatisfiers. In particular, little work has been done to identify dissatisfiers in the hotel industry using a bi-dimensional approach.

Therefore, using Herzberg's two-factor theory as a theoretical foundation, the current study distinguishes sets of dissatisfiers from satisfiers and focuses on the importance of treating dissatisfaction as an independent construct in the hotel industry context. This will help to understand the importance of dissatisfaction and its prevention. Identifying satisfiers and dissatisfiers for hotel guests using a specifically bi-dimensional approach is a meaningful topic that remains to be fully examined.

In addition, given individual is differentiated in wants and needs, different results are likely be obtained from examining Herzberg's two-factor theory in certain contexts (Lundberg et al., 2009). In particular, hotels normally provide different levels of service, leading to diverse customer expectations according to different hotel class. The hotel industry has to take into account a number of diverse considerations, which means that it is also necessary to consider another factor affecting dissatisfaction. Moreover, this study focuses on social media that is current trend in the hotel field according to the trend that customers are voluntarily willing to participate in generating actual comments containing their satisfaction and dissatisfaction on Internet.

2.1.3 Online hotel reviews as customer-generated content

With the development of new technologies, the rapid recent growth of social media has occurred and such advances enable people to participate actively in online conversations by sharing their experiences and disseminating their experiences instantly (Lee & Hu, 2004; Mattila & Mount, 2003; Shea, Enghagen, & Khullar, 2005; Tyrrell & Woods, 2005). User-generated content has been developed to not only share customers' own experiences but also to collect unfiltered opinions from a large number of other customers in the Internet community (Hennig-Thurau et al., 2004). It is regarded as one of the most reliable information sources for purchase decisions because of up-to-date, enjoyable and trustworthy characteristics (Gretzel & Yoo, 2008; Harwood, 2007). For these reasons, customers are likely to rely on online peer opinions from user-generated content (Dellarocas, 2003).

In recent years, in the hotel and tourism field, increasing attention has been paid to user-reported content such as social media (Levy et al., 2013; Li et al., 2013; O'Connor, 2010; Vermeulen & Seegers, 2008). Specifically, the online review is recognized as the most accessible and valuable platform of feedback to the business in the recent hospitality business environment. Customers refer to others' experiences of either a hotel stay or a journey on online review sites in order to generate an overall evaluation before their purchase (O'Connor, 2010). In particular, online hotel reviews have a significant effect on hotel customers' purchase decisions and have generated more than \$10 billion in the online travel market (Anderson, 2012; Gretzel & Yoo, 2008; Vermeulen & Seegers, 2008). Therefore, the hotel industry needs to embrace user-generated content in the form of online hotel reviews so as to constantly monitor the reviews and understand customers' positive and negative experiences (O'Connor, 2010).

Several studies in the hotel management field have investigated online hotel reviews regarding the effect on customers' motivation to read online hotel reviews (Kim, Mattila, & Baloglu, 2011), the impact of online hotel reviews on hotel room sales (Ye, Law, & Gu, 2009), and customers' hotel booking intentions (Sparks & Browning, 2011; Verma, Stock, & McCarthy, 2012; Vermeulen & Seegers, 2008). Kim et al. (2011) found that men and women have different purposes to read online hotel reviews. Women are more likely to read online hotel reviews for convenience and quality and risk reduction, whereas men read reviews according to their level of expertise. In terms of the effect on booking intention of booking, Vermeulen and Seegers (2008) found that online hotel reviews enhance the likelihood of booking a hotel room.

In a similar vein, Verma, Stock and McCarthy (2012) discovered that the probability of booking when they encounter a positive review is higher than when they see a negative review. Even though travelers according to different types of travel such as business or leisure travel have different preferences when they collect information for a hotel stay, all kinds of travelers are likely to search online hotel reviews in their decision-making process. Sparks and Browning (2011) considered the impact of positive or negative online hotel reviews on the willingness to book a hotel and customers' choices. Negative information framed in overall negative reviews are more likely to influence customers' choices. These studies summarize the importance of online hotel reviews and in particular the stronger effect that negative reviews have on customers' consideration. Likewise, Hennig-Thurau et al. (2004) show that reviews by dissatisfied customers can more critically affect thousands of peer customers because of the significant impact of their bad experiences.

Previous studies on factors leading to customer satisfaction in the hotel industry show limitations that it is hardly possible to include all potential factors for extraction as reliable

indicators to measure customer satisfaction, and to evaluate the level of importance of these factors (Li, Ye, & Law, 2013). However, online hotel reviews can alleviate the limitations because user-generated content is customers' own opinions and includes rich information which reflects their experiences being willingly shared.

These previous studies show that online reviews have increasingly become one of the most candid information sources to understanding customers' good or bad experiences because customers take into account user-generated content from online social networks when making purchase decisions (O'Connor, 2010). Through such sharing by customers, compliments and complaints in online hotel reviews are regarded as a form of feedback on service providers' performances (Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988). Key factors can be identified from such reviews to understand why customers are either satisfied or dissatisfied in order to promote satisfaction or reduce the risk of dissatisfaction (Anderson, 2012; Gretzel & Yoo, 2008; Jeong & Jeon, 2008; Levy et al., 2013; Li et al., 2013).

Limited studies have used online reviews related to service evaluation (Jeong & Jeon, 2008; Levy et al., 2013; Li et al., 2013; Pantelidis, 2010; Sparks & Bradley, 2014). From the customers' perspective, Jeong and Jeon (2008) examined hotel performances evaluated on social media website, Trip Advisor. Nine attributes evaluated by customers were analyzed, including room, value, cleanliness, location, check-in and check-out, service, business service, guests' satisfaction, and future intentions, and compared according to ownership, star rating, hotel classes and average daily rate. Value was the most significant factor that affected customer satisfaction and intention to return. From the managers' perspective, Sparks and Bradley (2014) investigated managers' service recovery responses to negative hotel reviews on Trip Advisor in order to identify its typology. It was found that managers' responses from different hotel classes replied distinctively.

Managers in high-ranked hotels responded with recognition and appreciation, while those in low-ranked hotels replied with a description of the service failure and no further action was taken.

However, very few studies have collected actual online comments to identify factors that bring customer satisfaction (Li et al., 2013; Pantelidis, 2010) and dissatisfaction (Levy et al., 2013). For example, Li et al. (2013) identified satisfiers by analyzing online reviews on daodao.com between luxury and budget hotels in Beijing. However, the study failed to investigate negative reviews and only focused on the antecedents of satisfaction. In another study, Levy et al. (2013) examined the causes for customers' complaints by analyzing one-star rated reviews commented on ten famous review websites for the hotels in Washington, D.C. Complaints were analyzed regarding aspects of hotel characteristics, reviewers' characteristics, travel purpose, and location. It was found that the attitude of front desk staff, bathrooms, noisiness, and room cleanliness were the salient reasons for complaints. By focusing on reviews in restaurants, Pantelidis (2010) identified the key factors in determining customers' experiences posted on the online restaurant review site 'London-Eating.co.uk'. It was revealed that positive and negative comments on the site should be equally considered due to the important impact of positive and negative evaluations by customers.

In summary, customers' negative comments from online reviews are unavoidable and considerable factors in the hotel industry being better able to understand and improve customer dissatisfaction (Levy, Duan, & Boo, 2013). Reducing dissatisfaction is more difficult than increasing satisfaction. However, making an effort with the former results in more positive outcomes than the latter (Johnston, 1995). Dissatisfiers are an indicator of customer dissatisfaction. Nevertheless, many studies which have set out to identify satisfiers may exclude possible negative

features (Alegre & Garau, 2010). In other words, the existence of such features may have been ignored, particularly as there are relatively few studies on dissatisfiers.

Little work has been done to identify dissatisfiers in the hotel industry using a bi-dimensional approach, and work on customers' satisfied and dissatisfied experiences by analysis of online reviews has been insufficient despite the influential impact of online reviews on the hotel industry (Levy et al., 2013; Li et al., 2013; Pantelidis, 2010). Consequently, this study attempted to identify dissatisfiers that were independently analyzed from satisfiers through analyzing customers' self-reported hotel reviews on a social media platform in order to understand customers' experiential quality.

2.2 Overview of studies on customer dissatisfaction

2.2.1 Customer satisfaction

Customer satisfaction has become a cornerstone of the service management literature and is one of its most widely researched topics (Kandampully & Suhartanto, 2000; Szymanski & Henard, 2001). It is a key marketing performance indicator both in theory and practice, because satisfying customers enables companies to maximize profit (Anderson, Fornell, & Lehmann, 1994; Babin & Griffin, 1998; Barsky, 1992; Yi, 1990). As a result, practitioners have not only realized its significance as a key component of strategy, but also come to consider it as the determinant of survival in the market for organizations (Gursoy, McCleary, & Lepsito, 2003).

Scholars have put forward several definitions since customer satisfaction emerged as a legitimate topic of inquiry. Oliver (1981, p. 27) defines customer satisfaction as “the summary psychological status resulting when the emotion surrounding disconfirmed expectations is coupled

with the consumer's prior feelings about the consumption experience." Similarly, Westbrook and Oliver (1991) describe satisfaction as a post-choice evaluation judgment concerning a specific purchase selection. Tse and Wilton (1988, p. 204) define it as "the consumer's response to the evaluation of the perceived discrepancy between prior expectations and the actual performance of the product as perceived after its consumption." Westbrook and Reilly (1983, p. 256) propose a definition from the perspective of the customer experience which emphasizes the emotional aspect, suggesting that customer satisfaction is "an emotional response to the experiences provided by, associated with particular product/service purchased." Overall, these definitions can be synthesized as an evaluative judgment about the consumption of products or services in an evaluation process where the disparity between customer expectations and perceived performance is considered.

Early studies on customer satisfaction identified a relationship between expectations and performance (Cardozo, 1965). More recently, the focus has shifted to the relationships among expectations, disconfirmation, and satisfaction (Oliver, 1980, Olson & Dover, 1976; Swan & Trawick, 1981). Oliver (1980) identifies the influence of expectations and their disconfirmation in performance. The disparity between customer expectations and perceived performance can be explained by the expectancy-disconfirmation theory (Oliver, 1981). According to Oliver (1981) positive disconfirmation arises when perceived performance meets expectations, resulting in customer satisfaction. On the other hand, negative disconfirmation results in dissatisfaction, when performance is not aligned with expectations. Even though this work indicates that customer satisfaction or dissatisfaction can be characterized by two types of reactions, existing studies focus primarily on the effect of disconfirmation (Szymanski & Henard, 2001). Swan and Trawick (1981) examine the effect of perceived performance and disconfirmation on satisfaction and show that the

latter is more likely to be related to perceived product performance. Overall, these studies emphasize the importance of disconfirmation in the process of evaluating customer satisfaction.

In addition, a large number of studies on customer satisfaction have identified its antecedents and outcomes (Szymanski & Henard, 2001; Yi, 1990). From the numerous studies to have examined antecedences conceptually, a disconfirmation paradigm has emerged comprising four constructs; expectations, performances, disconfirmation, and satisfaction (Anderson, 1973; Cardozo, 1965; Churchill & Surprenant, 1982; Oliver, 1980; Olson & Dover, 1976; Swan & Trawick, 1981). Overall, a disparity has emerged between customer expectations and perceived performance in evaluating products or services (Oliver, 1980, Olson & Dover, 1976; Swan & Trawick, 1981). This also has an important effect on customers' post-purchase behaviors (Day & Landon, 1977; Fornell, 1992; Landon, 1977; Reichheld & Sasser, 1990; Yi, 1990).

The satisfaction literature has also focused significantly on outcomes such as attitudinal change, customer loyalty, and post-purchase behavior (Churchill & Surprenant, 1982; Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Oliver & Swan, 1989). One of the more important post-purchase behaviors is repurchase intention, which increases when customer satisfaction is higher (Anderson & Sullivan, 1993). Oliver (1980) suggests that customer satisfaction leads to more positive attitude, that in turn influence repurchase intention, a view supported by the evidence. Oliver (1977) goes on to suggest customer loyalty as an outcome and also to characterize customer satisfaction in three phases; cognitive, affective, and conative. He also finds that satisfaction positively influences repurchase behavior. In terms of brand loyalty, Jacoby and Chestnut (1978) show that customer satisfaction influences not just repurchase behavior and brand loyalty, but also decreases brand switching.

Moreover, many studies show that customer satisfaction is directly or indirectly related to post-purchase behaviors such as complaints, negative word-of-mouth, and repurchase intention

(Day & Landon, 1977; Fornell, 1992; Landon, 1977; Reichheld & Sasser, 1990; Yi, 1990). Word-of-mouth is regarded as a non-marketing information source, based on previous experience of the richness of face-to-face communication, and has more impact on potential customers than information from other sources (McConnell & Huba, 2007). In particular, most studies on outcomes have focused on remedies for dissatisfied customers (Day & Ash, 1979). Richins (1983) investigates whether negative word-of-mouth is affected by customers. However, customer responses to an unsatisfactory experience are mainly studied as an outcome of customer satisfaction.

In the hospitality and tourism field, a large number of studies focus on the effect of customer satisfaction on post-purchase behaviors (Clemes, Gan, & Ren, 2011; Getty & Thompson, 1995). Despite the attention paid to customer satisfaction, definitional and methodological issues still remain outstanding (Giese & Cote, 2000). Here, in the main, most previous studies assumed that customer satisfaction is measured from highly dissatisfied to highly satisfied using a bipolar continuum (Yi, 1990). However, there are issues that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are needed to be measured using separate positive and negative measurements, respectively (Babin & Griffin, 1998; Maddox, 1981; Swan & Combs, 1976).

Based on the view that a pleasant feeling is not the opposite of an unpleasant one, it is suggested that positive and negative emotions comprise two separate constructs (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Westbrook and Oliver (1991) show that a unipolar measure has stronger predictive validity than a conventional bipolar satisfaction measurement. Satisfaction and dissatisfaction exist on a bipolar continuum from a uni-dimensional approach. On the other hand, customers' evaluations of products or services may be expressed in various ways, with satisfaction

being denoted by either a positive expression of contentment or a lack of dissatisfaction, and vice versa; this is known as the bi-dimensional approach (Vargo, Nagao, He, & Morgan, 2007).

The bi-dimensional concept can be explained by Herzberg's two-factor theory (Herzberg et al., 1993; Maddox, 1981; Swan & Combs, 1976). This proposes that the causes of satisfaction are independent from those of dissatisfaction, and vice versa. In other words, one's levels of satisfaction and dissatisfaction can be independent from each other. A given individual can be simultaneously highly satisfied and highly dissatisfied with a product or service. Most studies focus on customer satisfaction from a positive perspective, without distinguishing the separate concept of dissatisfaction. In contrast, the current study focuses on customer dissatisfaction as an independent construct. In the section which follows, other studies related to customer dissatisfaction are reviewed.

2.2.2 Customer dissatisfaction

Several researchers have highlighted the importance of customer dissatisfaction to service organizations (Babin & Griffin, 1998; Swan & Combs, 1976), although the topic has received less attention overall. Customer dissatisfaction is viewed as an attitudinal consequence of service failure, and also influences customer complaints (Jiang, Gretzel, & Law, 2010). When dissatisfaction occurs, customers are less likely to come back to an organization, more likely to engage in negative word-of-mouth about it, and more likely to switch to another service provider.

Most of the definitions of dissatisfaction that have been proposed incorporate the idea of expectations (Gilly, 1979). On a conceptual level, it has been proposed that a discrepancy between the customer's expectations and his/her perceptions of actual performance leads to dissatisfaction (Anderson, 1973; Landon, 1977; Oliver, 1981). According to Fornell and Wernerfelt (1987),

customer dissatisfaction is a situation where customers experience the discomfort caused by service failure during the purchase process. That is, dissatisfaction can also be explained by reference to the disconfirmation paradigm (Bearden & Teel, 1983; Oliver, 1981; Oliver & Bearden, 1985; Swan & Trawick, 1981). In other words, it is the outcome of the difference between customers' expectations and a service provider's unsatisfactory performance (Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011). As a result, the more negative the disconfirmation, the greater the dissatisfaction.

Most of the research in this area addresses two key topics; service failure (Bradley & Sparks, 2009; Susskind & Viccari, 2011; Zainol, Lockwood, & Kutsch, 2010) and complaints (Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2005; Rogers, Ross, & Williams, 1992; Singh, 1988). Customer dissatisfaction is one of the outcomes of service failure (Jiang, Gretzel, & Law, 2010). This occurs when customers experience a critical incident which means that the service fails to meet their expectations (Michel, 2001). The other shows that customer dissatisfaction is an antecedent of complaining (Bearden & Teel, 1979; Day & Ash, 1979; Prakash, 1991; Singh, 1988; Singh & Pandya, 1991). The research on complaining emphasizes that it is a critical element of the post-purchase response and can be used as a potent marketing tool (Day, Grabicke, Schaetzle, & Staubach, 1981; Grønhaug, & Gilly, 1991; Singh, 1988; Slama & Williams, 1991).

2.2.2.1 Service Failure

Service failure means a problematic incident resulting from a defect in performance and it influences customers' consequent reactions (Hoffman & Chuang, 1999; Spreng, Harrell, & Mackoy, 1995). It is a generic term to explain negative service experiences. Service failure creates customer frustration (Susskind, 2004) and leads to negative repurchase intention (Susskind &

Viccari, 2011; Xie & Heung, 2012) or active complaining (McQuilken & Robertson, 2011). Reactions to service failure may have attitudinal and/or behavioral components. One of the former is customer dissatisfaction (Jiang, Gretzel, & Law, 2010).

Customers feel less satisfied after service failure than after a zero-defects service (McCollough et al., 2000). It is hard to provide perfect service all the time due to its distinctive characteristics such as the interaction between customers and providers, the inseparability of production and consumption, and the complexity of certain services (Fisk, Brown, & Bitner, 1993). In particular, the complex characteristics of hotel service may lead to problems with various transactions, and hotels generally face many possible opportunities for service failure (Lewis & McCann, 2004). Service failure during delivery has two distinct types; process and outcome failure. The former includes social and psychological factors, while the latter relates to physical, instrumental issues (Driver & Johnston, 2001). For example, a process failure in a hotel may be a delayed check in/out because staff are inefficient, and an outcome failure may be an unprepared room (Lewis & MaCann, 2004).

Customers react in one of two ways to service failure; they stay or they exit. As a further step, they may or may not also complain. Potential outcomes in this area include behavioral responses such as complaining, switching service providers, spreading negative word-of-mouth, and so forth. Service failure is considered a vital issue because it creates dissatisfaction and can lead to negative future behavior from customers. Therefore, service providers should properly compensate for any imbalance between expectation and performance (Chebat & Slusarczyk, 2005). In other words, understanding service failure is the starting point for reducing customer dissatisfaction.

In the hospitality and tourism literature, service failure has been examined from several viewpoints. From the service provider's perspective, Namkung and Jang (2010) identify the most critical risks among the four stages of restaurant service they identify, and show that customers encounter service failure most often during the consumption stage, followed by checking out, ordering food, and reception. Susskind and Viccari (2011) classify service failure points in a restaurant setting into four types; food, service, atmosphere or other, and both food and service combined. They discovered that the most serious service failure are incorrect food servings and food quality problems. Food and service related complaints were the most significant causes of customer dissatisfaction. The restaurant atmosphere showed the most significant effect on intention to return to the restaurant.

On the customer side, Cranage and Sujan (2004) focus on the mitigating effect of active actions such as making choices and the foreseeability of service failure, finding that these factors mitigate the impact on customers of service failure and also improve customer loyalty. Lee and Spark (2007) examine Chinese tourists' cultural values as regards service failure and emphasize five factors; face, equity, value, harmony, and *junji*. This is an important insight, given that Chinese customers are growing targets for worldwide tourism markets. From the observer's point of view, one study looks at the evaluations made by customers who are not directly involved in a service failure (Wan, Chan, & Su, 2011) and shows that observers with similar characteristics to the customer, such as age or VIP status, express more severe negative feelings.

Other researchers are interested in conceptual models of service failure. Xie and Heung (2012) test the moderating role of brand relationship quality between service failure and customers' behavioral intentions. McQuilken and Robertson (2011) look at the effect of service failure on negative customer behaviors. Namkung and Jang (2010) show that one of the negative behaviors

customers exhibit is making a complaint directly to the service provider. Focusing on the zone of tolerance perspective, Zainol, Lockwood and Kutsch (2010) explore the acceptable zone of tolerance when a service failure occurs. It was found that the zone of tolerance is larger when negative service encounters, however, it is narrower when positive service encounters.

Most studies on service failure considered service defects from providers' point of view and negative experiences from that of the customer. Service failure influences customers' consequent reactions, such as dissatisfaction (Kelley, Hoffman, & Davis, 1994). However, it has not been treated by most studies as an independent response. Even though the role of service failure in customer expectations has been shown to be important, most studies focus on the effect of customer expectations on satisfaction (Zainol, Lockwood, & Kutsch, 2010). Based on this, negative disconfirmation should focus on customer dissatisfaction. A summary of the literature on service failure is presented in Appendix 1 (see page 194).

2.2.2.2 Customer Complaint

Complaining is one of the possible responses to being dissatisfied (Prakash, 1991; Singh, 1988). The concept of Customer Complaining Behavior (CCB) has been proposed as a consequence of customer dissatisfaction, in order to understand its unsatisfactory behavioral expressions, and has been extensively studied (Day & Landon, 1977; Day, Grabicke, Schaetzel, & Staubach, 1981; Rogers et al., 1992; Singh, 1988; Singh, & Wilkes, 1996). CCB can be defined as "an action or set of actions arising out of customer dissatisfaction" (Rogers, Ross, & Williams, 1992, p. 81). It has received increasing attention in the service industry (Bearden & Teel, 1983; Rogers, Ross, & Williams, 1992; Singh, 1988; Slama & Williams, 1991) and the hotel industry (Huang, Huang, & Wu, 1996; Kim & Chen, 2010; Lee, Khan, & Ko, 2008; Lewis 1983; Lewis & Morris, 1987; Yuksel, Kilinc, & Yuksel, 2006).

Several types of complaining behavior have been identified in the literature (Day & Bodur, 1978; Day & Landon, 1977; Singh; 1988, 1990). It has been shown that 50% of dissatisfied customers take no action (Day, Grabicke, Schaetzle, & Staubach, 1981; Gursoy, McCleary, & Lepisto, 2003). On the other hand, dissatisfied customers who do take action, such as complaining, can deliver critical feedback which can be used to rectify service problems. Interestingly, Jones, McCleary and Lepisto (2002) find that customers who complain about their dissatisfied experiences are more likely to return than those who do not.

Day and Landon (1977) propose a two-level hierarchical classification of CCB. When dissatisfaction occurs, the first level includes two behavioral and non-behavioral actions, namely take some action and take no action. The second level of the choice to take some action can be further subdivided into public and private action. A public action involves seeking redress directly from the business, using legal process, or complaining to public or private agencies. A private action includes boycotting the seller or warning friends or relatives. Singh (1988) identifies three types of response styles; voice, private action, and third party. The purpose of complaining (or voicing) is to seek some form of extra benefit as a redress. Private action comprises negative word-of-mouth. Third party complaints are made to organizations such as legal agencies. Singh (1990) further classifies complaint intentions. Voice, again, refers to the action of complaining to seek redress from sellers or alternatively to taking no action. Private responses entail spreading negative word-of-mouth and switching shop or brand. Third party responses constitute taking legal action, complaining, or writing a letter to a consumer agency. According to various studies (Bearden & Teel, 1983; Day & Bodur, 1978; Day & Landon, 1977; Singh; 1988, 1990), the three stages of making a complaint can be classified as follows:

- 1) No action – doing nothing. This happens about two-thirds of the time.
- 2) Private actions, such as spreading negative word-of-mouth (warning family or friends), switching service providers, and boycotting the merchant.
- 3) Public actions, such as seeking redress, taking legal action, and making formal complaints to companies.

In the hospitality and tourism literature, researchers have mainly been interested in identifying the major factors affecting consumers' propensity to complain. Personality and behavioral factors have been cited in several studies (Gursoy, McCleary, & Lepisto, 2007; Jones, McCleary, & Lepisto, 2002; Kim & Chen, 2010). For example, Jones, McCleary and Lepisto (2002) use socio-demographic characteristics, personality, and behavioral factors to segment customers into three types; non-complainer, complainer to anyone, and word-of-mouth complainer. In a similar vein, Gursoy, McCleary and Lepisto (2007) investigate the personality and behavioral factors affecting consumers' propensity to complain. The most significant are customers' locus of control and price consciousness.

Susskind (2004) also examines the effect of propensity to complain and attitude towards complaining on the perception of information inadequacy, showing that both factors are significantly related to customer dissatisfaction with service failure. Kim and Chen (2010) examine convenience, benefits from complaining, consumer involvement, perceived self-importance, and consumers' attitude toward complaining, as well as the individual and situational differences of those who complain, in order to understand the effect of the latter on behavior. Lam and Tang (2003) explore complaint patterns and their correlation with demographic characteristics and

complaining behaviors, finding that younger, better-educated, and better-off customers make more active complaints.

From the cultural aspect, several scholars focus on the influence of cultural differences on complaining behavior (Huang, Huang, & Wu, 1996; Yuksel, Kilinc, & Yuksel, 2006). For example, Huang, Huang, and Wu (1996) compare American and Japanese guests' intention to complain about unsatisfactory hotel service. Yuksel, Kilinc, and Yuksel (2006) compare the complaining behaviors of customers from Turkey, the Netherlands, Britain, and Israel.

Attitude toward complaining are another determinant of CCB (Cheng & Lam, 2008; Kim & Chen, 2010; Yuksel, Kilinc, & Yuksel, 2006). Customers are more likely to complain if they have a positive attitude towards doing so. Kim and Chen (2012) regard attitude toward complaining as a key personal characteristic. Cheng and Lam (2008) look at the effect of personal attitude toward complaining, subjective norms, and the perceived behavioral control on the intention of Chinese customers to complain, showing that this is influenced by customer-seller relationships and the social pressure on the act of complaining; personal attitude have no effect.

In summary, many studies investigate CCB as one of the consequences of customer dissatisfaction (Rogers, Ross, & Williams, 1992). The most representative behaviors are spreading negative word-of-mouth, switching service providers, and boycotting (the private actions), and seeking redress, taking legal action, and making complaints to companies (public actions). In particular, customers' propensity to complain and their attitude toward complaining as a negative tendency has been acknowledged (Kim & Chen, 2010). Nevertheless, overall attitude toward service providers and negative behavioral intentions when dissatisfied have yet to be fully examined in the CCB literature. That literature is presented fully in Appendix 2 (see page 196).

2.2.2.3 Customer Dissatisfaction in Hospitality and Tourism Research

Customer dissatisfaction is defined as a customers' affective status when they experience discomforts caused by service failure (Fornell & Wernerfelt, 1987; Jiang et al., 2010). Compared to scholarly attention on customer satisfaction, the importance of customer dissatisfaction has been less highlighted in consumer behavior studies (Babin & Griffin, 1998; Richins, 1983; Swan & Combs, 1976). The issue of customer dissatisfaction has gradually been under researched in the hospitality literature (Foster & Botterill, 1995), but remains generally limited. The results of reviewing past studies in this area are classified into the five categories.

The first research category deals with the relationship between customers' negative emotions and customer dissatisfaction (Jang et al., 2013; Mattila & Ro, 2008; Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011; Velázquez et al., 2009). Mattila and Ro (2008) found that the negative emotions associated with service failure affect behavioral intentions such as complaining, spreading negative word-of-mouth, or switching service providers. The four negative emotions are classified into anger, disappointment, regret, and worry. They found the most significant customers' emotions which are anger, disappointment and regret because the three impact extensively on behavioral intentions but worry does not. In a similar vein, Sánchez-García and Currás-Pérez (2011) focused on the impact of customer dissatisfaction on negative emotions by investigating the mediating role of anger and regret. The study confirmed that anger and regret mediate between customer dissatisfaction and negative behavioral intention such as switching provider, complaining, and spreading negative word-of-mouth. in both the hotel and restaurant setting. It was discovered that anger affect switching, complaining, and spreading negative word-of-mouth intentions, while regret influences only switching and spreading negative word-of-mouth intention among hotel customers.

Velázquez, Blasco, Contrí, and Saura (2009) investigated the cognitive and affective aspects as important antecedents of customer dissatisfaction in a restaurant setting. They proved that cognitive factors (causality attributions and inequity) and affective factor (negative affection) have significant, direct, and positive effects on dissatisfaction. In addition, cognitive factors have greater impact on dissatisfaction than affective factor. A study of Jang et al. (2013) investigated that negative emotions affect dissatisfaction and behavioral intentions. The study discovered that regret and disappointment critically determined customer dissatisfaction and led to subsequent negative word-of-mouth and switching behavior.

The second category focuses on the role of personal values in customer dissatisfaction (Chan & Wan, 2009; Chan et al., 2007). Chan and Wan (2009) focused on analyzing Chinese customers' individual values about face and fate and propose these as key moderating variables (Chan & Wan, 2009). Similarly, Chan, Wan and Sin (2007) suggested that personal value orientation, in terms of face consciousness and fate submissiveness, affect customer dissatisfaction with service failure. The study also used value orientation of face and fate and found these affect customer dissatisfaction in two failure types of both process and outcome in hotel and restaurant setting.

The third category is the customer-service provider relationship in dissatisfaction response (Yang & Mattila, 2012). Yang and Mattila (2012) emphasized the effect of relationship strength and type of service failure on negative behavioral intention. The study discovered that customer who have a strong relationship with service provider do not complain because the service failure was offset and more dissatisfied customer expressed negative word-or-mouth or put to an end their relationship instead of complaining.

The last category focuses on personal values from different national cultures and the relationship with complaining (Alvarez & Korzay, 2008; Huang, Huang, & Wu, 1996; Kim et al., 2014). Since national culture determining individual's characteristics, attitudes, and behaviors is regarded as a standard of personal value, Alvarez and Korzay (2008) identified the main factors causing satisfaction and dissatisfaction for Japanese tourists in Turkey by conducting content analysis. The study found that the rudeness and bad manners of the host community was recognized as the most significant reason why they felt dissatisfaction. It emphasizes the significance of interaction and perception between the tourists and the local residents. Huang, Huang, and Wu (1996) found that national culture differently affected complaining behaviors by focusing on American and Japanese guests in Taiwanese hotels. Americans showed a tendency to stop purchasing of hotel service, complaining and spreading of the caveats about hotel to their acquaintances, while Japanese did not have face-to-face complaint actions. The results showed that customers who are from different countries have different ways of complaining.

A study of Kim et al. (2014) showed the different levels of expectation and perception and distinctive complaining behaviors between different nationalities such as Korean and Japanese in Thai hotel. Japanese customers are more likely to complain than Koreans. In addition, Koreans perceived that they actually had less complains than they expected, however, Japanese did not have differences between their levels of expectation and perception on complaining behaviors.

In addition, some researchers have investigated several perspectives on customer dissatisfaction. Duverger (2012) points out that it has a positive side in that dissatisfied customers can be a source of innovative ideas for service improvement. Foster and Botterill (1995) discuss customer dissatisfaction from the viewpoint of businesswomen, who are increasingly considered to be a major market segment for hotels given their growth in economic status and social position.

They show that women take into account sexist attitudes, lack of security, and irrelevant facilities when they stay at hotels. Lapré and Tsikriktsis (2006) demonstrate that there is a learning curve associated with customer dissatisfaction. It may not actually decrease, because customers' expectations of products and services may increase over time. Accordingly, dissatisfaction follows a U-shaped curve according to the organizational experience of the airline industry.

Through the review of existing literature review, it was found that most studies focus on service failure, consequent complaining behavior and how to overcome the service failure by managing the service recovery (McQuilken & Robertson, 2011; Susskind, 2004; Susskind & Viccari, 2011; Xie & Heung, 2012). In the main, the three main streams are highly related to customer dissatisfaction. Customer dissatisfaction per se has been researched as a negative affective status and in the limited particular aspects such as cultural and emotional values, and the customer-service provider relationship. However, the limitations of these studies include a lack of effort to conceptualize overall judgment and evaluation on customer dissatisfaction between dissatisfaction and negative post-purchase behavior. However, relatively less studies have emphasized the significance of customer dissatisfaction and the actual consequences of customer dissatisfaction, such as customers' overall judgment and evaluation of services, have not been fully assessed. Next section discuss negative behavioral intention in details as the consequences of customer dissatisfaction.

2.2.2.4 Negative Behavioral Intention

Service providers wish to obtain information on customers' reactions to their product or service (Lewis, 1983). In particular, dissatisfied customers express themselves through negative responses (Day et al., 1981; Oliver, 1997; Richins, 1987; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004; Zeithaml,

Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996). According to Crie (2003), the more dissatisfied customers there are, the more complaints will be generated, and the more customers will go elsewhere. Dissatisfied customers will tend to spread negative comments about bad experiences via their personal network (Chan & Wan, 2009; Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2005, 2006; Ha & Jang, 2009; Swanson & Hsu, 2009). This can lead people to change service providers (Wei, Miao, Cai, & Adler, 2012), and make complaints (Heung & Lam, 2003; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004).

Several types of dissatisfaction responses have been studied, and there is a substantial literature on such behavior including a taxonomy of complaints (Day & Landon, 1977; Hirschman, 1970; Singh, 1988, 1990). The most common acts of dissatisfied customers are complaining, switching service providers, and spreading negative word-of-mouth (Black & Kelley, 2009; Duverger, 2012). These actions cause more damage and last longer than those carried out by satisfied customers (Bolfing, 1989; Giese & Cote, 2000), so they have an important impact on profit (Lewis, 1983). In other words, the negative effects of customer dissatisfaction with service businesses can be even greater than the positive effects of their satisfaction (Anderson, 1998; Black & Kelley, 2009; Lee & Hu, 2004).

Going back to basic perceptions, negative information is likely to have a greater impact than positive data (Kelley, Hoffman, & Davis, 1993). Including explicit dissatisfaction-based evaluations can therefore offer helpful insights into reducing customer dissatisfaction and negative behavioral intentions. Thus, behavioral intentions should be considered from a negative perspective in order to examine the relationship between dissatisfaction and potential behavioral indicators such as spreading negative word-of-mouth, complaining, and switching service providers.

Firstly, customers may spread negative word-of-mouth to acquaintances, family, and friends, which has an uncontrollable effect on profit (Yang & Mattila, 2012). It has been shown that negative word-of-mouth has a more powerful impact than positive, and that it has a seriously damaging effect on companies (Anderson, 1998; Black & Kelley, 2009; Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2006; Lee & Hu, 2004; Lewis, 1983). When customers experience unsatisfactory services and poor facilities at a hotel, for example, they tend to comment widely on their experiences to family members, friends, or acquaintances (Duverger, 2012).

Several studies demonstrate the importance of dissatisfaction spread through negative word-of-mouth. Dissatisfied customers are likely to increase the cost of doing business. A full 90% of dissatisfied customers will report their bad experiences to at least nine other people and 13% spread the word to more than 20 others (Sheth, Mittal, & Newman, 1999). According to TARP (1981), customers participate more aggressively in spreading negative than positive word-of-mouth. An unhappy client is likely to make negative comments to 11 people, compared to a satisfied customer who speaks to only 3 (Richins, 1987). Likewise, Hart, Heskett, and Sasser (1990) show that bad experiences will be circulated to 11 people whereas pleasant experiences are passed on to 6 others. In percentage terms, 75% of dissatisfied customers spread negative comments to their acquaintances, whereas only 38% of satisfied clients share good experiences (Becker & Wellins, 1990). Schlossberg (1991) shows that dissatisfied customers engage in at least 2 to 3, and sometimes up to 10 times, more word-of-mouth as satisfied customers. Anderson (1998) also demonstrates that extremely unhappy customers engage in greater negative word-of-mouth than satisfied clients, and this feedback is more powerful because it involves venting negative emotions such as anxiety, warning, and hostility. Such communication has a stronger impact than positive

information (Richins, 1983), and so both potential and current customers are likely to be lost as a result (Miller & Grazer, 2003).

In cost terms, retaining an existing customer costs less than acquiring a new one (Cram, 2001; Reichheld, 1996). There are good financial reasons to minimize customer dissatisfaction. According to Sheth, Mittal, and Newman (1999), attracting a new customer is more than five times more costly than retaining an existing client. Other work shows that the cost of obtaining new customers may be 3-5 times higher than that of maintaining existing customers, and reducing service problems by 5% can accordingly generate profits of up to 85% (Reichheld & Sasser, 1990). Dissatisfied customers increase the cost of doing business and several studies have accordingly emphasized the importance of retention. Actions such as switching provider reduce profitability (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). Service businesses therefore need to focus not only on enhancing customer satisfaction but also on preventing dissatisfaction.

Another important aspect of this topic is the impact of complaints. Not all unhappy customers actually complain to the company, because most think it would be pointless and they would receive no response (Lewis, 1983). However, guests who have had negative experiences may make various complaints about their hotel (Heung & Lam, 2003). From a positive point of view, complaining can be considered as the delivery of critical customer feedback and an opportunity to rectify problems (Jones, McCleary, & Lepisto, 2002; Lewis, 1983; Sanes, 1993). It can also create opportunities for service recovery and improvements in quality (Dewitt & Brandy, 2003; Plymire, 1991; Snellman & Vihtkari, 2003). However, handling complaining incurs an exceptional cost and involves extra effort by employees and companies (Lapré & Tsikriktsis, 2006; Ro & Wong, 2012). It is therefore important to include a consideration of the impact of unhappy

clients, who may use information from their negative experiences to fuel their behavioral intentions, when looking at customer dissatisfaction.

Customers' negative behavioral intentions include complaining, spreading critical word-of-mouth, switching providers, and seeking redress (Bolfing, 1989). Several studies look at the effect of customer dissatisfaction on such intentions (Jones, McCleary, & Lepisto, 2002; Mattila & Mount, 2002; Oh, 2003; Susskind, 2005). The proactive approach, which involves examining the consequences of customer dissatisfaction, aims to overcome the adverse effects of such negative behaviors (Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011). It is important to understand the impact of dissatisfaction on behavioral intentions in order to reduce and even prevent such activity.

Several studies also investigate responses to dissatisfaction by considering strategic methods of reducing the negative behavioral intentions outlined above (Chan & Wan, 2009; Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2005, 2006; Ha & Jang, 2009; Heung & Lam, 2003; Kim & Chen, 2010; Mattila & Ro, 2008; Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011; Swanson & Hsu, 2009; Wei, Miao, Cai, & Adler, 2012; Yang & Mattila, 2012). According to Zeelenberg and Pieters (2004), dissatisfaction has a significant positive relationship with negative behaviors such as complaining, switching, and spreading negative word-of-mouth. Mattila and Ro (2008) also find that negative feelings are directly linked to such actions, and Sánchez-García and Currás-Pérez (2011) show that customers dissatisfied with a service failure are likely to carry them out. Swanson and Hsu (2009) demonstrate that switching behavior and spreading negative word-of-mouth are significantly associated with a customer's previous unsatisfactory experiences with a provider. These findings show that dissatisfaction with a service failure is likely to lead consumers to leave the provider, make a complaint, and/or tell others about their experience (Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004).

Customer dissatisfaction is an important topic in the hospitality and tourism industry. Although there is a growing research interest in customer dissatisfaction (Singh, 1988), one which has still received less research attention to date (Chan, Wan, & Sin, 2007; Duverger, 2012; Foster & Botterill, 1995). However, dissatisfaction has not been evaluated and considered as an individual concept; as such, less attention has been paid to dissatisfaction as a customer's attitudinal response to a service failure. An analysis of the consequences of customer dissatisfaction by exploring customers' overall feeling of evaluation in the situation of service failure occurrence is also needed.

Based on this comprehensive literature review, three key constructs have been identified to test the effect of customer dissatisfaction on a role of attitude toward a hotel and switching behavioral, negative word-of-mouth recommendation, and complaining behavior as the three negative behavioral intentions. Previous work has overlooked comparing the consequences of customer dissatisfaction on this basis. To maintain sustainable businesses, hospitality practitioners need to understand what makes customers dissatisfied, and why, so they can try in advance to prevent it. Given that dissatisfaction has an affective nature, as noted earlier, and may lead to behavior as a critical determinant of the attitude-behavior process, it is important to understand its impact on negative behavioral intentions.

Therefore, this study examines customers' resultant attitudinal responses that were likely to lead to behavioral changes. In particular, the role of customer attitude toward a hotel and their effect on negative behavioral intentions such as switching providers, complaining, and spreading negative word-of-mouth needs to be understood more deeply in the hospitality and tourism context. Based on the existing literature, different approaches to both customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction may be suggested. Such a conceptual framework on customer dissatisfaction is

developed by focusing on customers' overall attitude, which is now discussed in the following section.

2.3 Attitude toward a hotel

2.3.1 Attitude

People have particular ways of judging how they view the world, what they think, and what they do. One of the criteria for making cognitive judgments in evaluating an individual tendency is attitude (Lutz, 1991; Maio & Haddock, 2010; Olson & Mitchell, 2000; Wicker, 1969). With customer dissatisfaction receiving more attention, it is crucial to understand its impact on individual judgment and how this influences behavior.

As a concept, attitude has been widely examined in the social science literature. Considerable effort has been devoted to researching attitude and related phenomena in the early psychology and marketing studies, particularly in consumer research (Olson & Mitchell, 1975). LaPiere (1934) defines attitude initially as having a social aspect: it is “a behavioral pattern, anticipatory tendency, and predisposition to specific adjustment to the designated situations as a conditioned response” (p. 1). It is considered a core concept in social psychology because attitude reflects social and psychological behaviors towards a specific object (Wicker, 1969). It has also been the focus of interest as a construct determining behaviors (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). Overall, attitude has been extensively examined on both the conceptual and empirical levels (Olson & Mitchell, 1975).

In an early study on attitude, Allport (1935) notes that it is the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary social psychology. He emphasizes that attitude is

individual predisposition to respond to an object in a favorable or unfavorable way, and it has a role of precursor in individuals' behavior. The bipolar measurement of attitude is the most representative feature in terms of its subjective mental properties. Attitude typically implies how much we like or dislike an object, and a common definition is the summary evaluation of objects with paired anchors of bipolar measurement, such as liking or disliking (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Fazio, 1995; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Zanna & Rempel, 1988).

Following Allport's (1935) initial study, many researchers have proposed definitions of attitude (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Fazio, 1995; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Zanna & Rempel, 1988). In particular, it was discussed by incorporating several perspectives such as a general predisposition (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), categorization of a stimulus along an evaluative dimension (Zanna & Rempel, 1988), and an association in the memory between a given object and a summary evaluation (Fazio, 1995). In addition, the object can be a person, object, issue, place, product, or idea which is viewed in a consistently favorable/unfavorable or positive/negative manner (Cacioppo & Petty, 1981).

Although this shows that attitude can be defined in many ways, the aspect which is most commonly emphasized is that it is an element of the judgment made in the evaluation of behavior. Cohen (1964) suggests that attitude can be seen as a precursor of behavior and a determinant of how a person behaves in daily life. It may also be a useful predictor of actual behavior toward a product or service, because it has a role in evaluating individual behavioral tendencies (Allport, 1935, Lutz, 1991; Olson, & Mitchell, 2000; Wicker, 1969).

Attitude is an overall evaluation of an object based on cognitive, affective, and behavioral information (Maio & Haddock, 2010). From this perspective, several scholars have proposed models of attitude. According to the multi-component model, attitude has three components;

cognitive, affective, and behavioral (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). The first of these refers to beliefs, thoughts, opinions, and attributes. In particular, a person's attitude toward an object are formed through its positive and negative attributes. Affective information creates feelings or emotions as well as physiological reactions. Behavioral component denotes one's past experiences of an object, which may lead to an attitude being inferred from previous actions (for example, if someone remembers a bad experience with an object, he or she may have a negative attitude toward it).

After an attitude has been formed by collecting this multi-component information, it passes through an acquisition process constituted by the steps of formation and change (Olson & Mitchell, 2000). Oliver (1980) distinguishes the formation and change of two kinds of attitudes. In a service evaluation situation, pre- and post-purchase, there may be a difference between antecedent and continuous attitudes. The first of these is formed before purchasing and the latter afterward. The evaluation of a service may play a moderating role. Continuous attitude can be considered as a consequence of this evaluation.

People have the motivation and ability to obtain information about an object, so their attitudes towards it can form or change as the result of the thoughts that arise in response to such data (Priester et al., 2004). Positive information is more likely to lead to a positive attitude, and negative data to a negative one. Different behaviors may ensue, depending on the individual's evaluation of the object (Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009). There is also evidence that the formation of favorable attitude is essential to understanding the behavioral process through which consumers purchase products and services (Kokkinaki & Lunt, 1999; Priester et al., 2004; Wicker, 1969).

According to Allport (1935), attitude has a strong influence on behavior. An individual is more likely to consider purchasing an object if he/she has evaluated it positively. Lutz (1991) also asserts that attitude may lead to behavior. Fazio, Powell and Williams (1989) test the effect of

strength of attitude on consideration and behavior, and show that a stronger attitude is more likely to lead to subsequent behaviors than a weaker one.

In an initial study of attitude, LaPiere (1934) describes his experience of traveling with a Chinese couple in the USA. Because anti-Asian prejudice was prevalent at that time, he assumed that employees' attitude might influence the service provided in hotels and restaurants. However, his work shows that attitude does not necessarily impact behavior. Even though this study has flaws in its methodology and interpretation, it makes a useful contribution to the early development of attitude research. Demonstrating the relationship between attitude and behavior is one of the most fascinating topics in the field.

Another strand of research focuses attitude-behavior relations on how people form opinions and how their attitudes influence their behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Fazio, Powell, & Williams, 1989; Priester et al., 2004; Wicker, 1969). According to the findings, researchers found the process of influence, which a positive attitude creates a favorable change in behavior over time (Allport, 1935; Fazio et al., 1989; Maio & Haddock, 2009). These studies show that the development of positive attitude produces a corresponding change in behavior (Fazio et al, 1989). Moreover, the formation of a positive attitude is essential to understanding customers' behavioral processes in purchasing a product and service (Kokkinaki & Lunt, 1999; Priester et al., 2004; Wicker, 1969).

Fazio's (1986) proposed model of how attitude relates to behavior suggests that attitude leads to an appraisal when it is activated by a previous memory upon observation of the object. Fazio et al. (1989) set out a further model of this relationship. Behavior in a given situation is a function of the person's immediate perceptions of the attitude that has been encountered. Therefore, when attitude is activated from memory on observation of the object, they lead to an appraisal of

that object, which is a critical determinant of the attitude-behavior process. Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) also analyze the link between attitude and behavioral entities and demonstrate a consistently strong relationship between them when the attitude is directed at the same target and involves the same action. They put forward empirical evidence for this connection and highlight the important role of attitude in predicting behavior.

In this context, attitude has also been applied to predict consumer choice behavior. The process can be explained with reference to a well-researched and fully developed theory, the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). The TPB aims to understand how human behavioral intentions are related to attitude. When one is given an opportunity to act, such an intention is the best predictor of behavior. Intention, as determined by factors such as attitude and subjective norm, is the immediate determinant of individual action. The TPB generally supports the predictive power of attitude as regards behavioral intentions (Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2005). It plays the role of a salient behavioral belief representing individual's assessment of the significance of the consequences (Han, Hsu, & Sheu, 2010). According to Trafimow and Finlay (1996), it is better at predicting intention than subjective norms. The researchers identify the differences between the two factors and show that attitude predicts intention for 80% of people, as proposed by the TPB.

The TPB was developed to predict how behavior emerges rationally from attitude. Several studies seek to understand the effect of attitude on negative behavioral intentions in the hospitality and tourism sector on the basis of the TPB theoretical foundation (Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2005, 2006). Cheng et al. (2005) use an extended TPB model by adding the variable of past behavior, and test the mediating role of attitude on the relationship between this and intention (as expressed by different types of dissatisfaction) using a sample of restaurant customers. They show that the

effect of past behavior on negative word-of-mouth is mediated by attitude, while another study of Cheng et al. (2006) focused on the effect of attitude toward negative word-of-mouth on negative word-of-mouth communication, and found that attitude highly affected the intention of negative word-of-mouth. Apart from these results, however, Cheng and Lam (2008) concluded that personal attitude toward complaints is not the determinant of complaint intention by showing the insignificant relationship between attitude and complaint intention among Chinese customers in restaurants.

Most studies on attitude in the context of customer dissatisfaction discovered that attitude toward complaint positively correlates with complaint intention (Kim & Chen, 2010; Kim, Kim, Im, & Shin, 2003; Yuksel, Kilinc, & Yuksel, 2006). Personal attitude mainly indicates attitude toward a certain action (Cheng & Lam, 2008; Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2005, 2006; Han, Hsu, & Sheu, 2010; Kim & Chen, 2010; Kim, Kim, Im, & Shin, 2003; Yuksel, Kilinc, & Yuksel, 2006). Though attitude can describe individual's overall evaluation of an act and facilitate to predict behavioral belief, there still lacks an investigation of overall attitude toward a hotel in the context of customer dissatisfaction.

2.3.2 The mediating role of attitude

Attitude is formed when objects are observed, and consequently leads to behavior. This is a critical element of the attitude-behavior process (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). Such an evaluation of an object, and the resulting formulation of an attitude, is generally measured using a bipolar continuum ranging from favorable to unfavorable, positive to negative, or good to bad (Priester et al., 2004). In such a behavioral process, a person with a stronger attitude is more likely to go on to

do something than one whose view is weaker (Fazio, Powell, & Williams, 1989). Positive attitude leads to customer behavior in the form of making a choice (Priester et al., 2004).

Focusing on the process of attitude acquisition, the formation and change of attitude are differently identified (Ekinci et al., 2008; Oliver, 1980; Olson & Mitchell, 1975; Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009). A few studies elucidated two types of attitudes—antecedent and consequent attitudes—by conceptualizing a satisfaction model (Ekinci et al., 2008; Oliver, 1980). In the literature on service, Oliver's (1980) cognitive model of satisfaction decisions highlights the importance of post-purchase behavior. He proposes two types of attitude toward service providers, namely antecedent and continuous attitudes. The former arises before purchase and the latter after customers have come to regard themselves as satisfied with the service provided. Oliver (1980) also suggests that a continuous attitude is formed after customers have developed a cognitive view of satisfaction with their experience. His proposed model supports the idea that satisfaction influences changes in attitude and purchase intention.

Based on the work of Fishbein (1967), the level of satisfaction is incorporated into the relationship between attitude and post-purchase intention. Attitude, for its part, is formed by the influence of satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Later, post-purchase intention can be added as a further step in the formulation of attitude. According to Howard (1974), experiences of satisfaction influence future purchase intentions as well as post-purchase attitude. The model is therefore intended to help investigate the sequencing of these influences and the mediating role of attitude in the relationship between satisfaction and behavioral intentions.

Similarly, drawing on Oliver's (1980) cognitive model which proposes that attitude is the most immediate precursor of behavioral intentions (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), Ekinci, Dawes, and Massey (2008) examine how customer satisfaction and overall attitude toward a hotel affect

intention to return to it. Such an attitude can be formed before or after purchasing because it stems from a universal image of the service provider. Investigating the mediating role of attitude, the study shows that satisfaction has a positive impact on overall attitude to a service provider, such that the more favorable the view taken, the stronger the intention to return. Finally, the study also investigates the mediating impact of attitude on satisfaction and behavioral intentions. Customer satisfaction is considered to be an indicator of attitude to a service provider.

Oliver's model has been used to investigate the sequential relationships among attitude, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions, and also the mediating role of attitude toward a service provider in the link between the latter two concepts (Ekinci et al., 2008; Oliver, 1980). The results focus on the positive impact of attitude towards a provider, both antecedent and continuous. Because antecedent attitude dissipates quickly after the customer evaluates a service encounter (Oliver, 1980), the continuous component may have a stronger influence over customer behaviors after a purchase has taken place.

In the hotel context, antecedent attitude can be defined as a customer's overall feeling toward a hotel, and it refers to a general image that can be formed by the effect of several prior factors such as marketing communication, previous experiences, or others' word-of-mouth (Ekinci et al., 2008; Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009). On the other hand, a consequent attitude refers to the feeling created after customers' evaluations, and it is used to measure the consequences of their evaluations. In addition, the interacting attitude toward both an object and a situation is a better predictor of behavior than either attitude toward an object or attitude toward a situation (Rokeach & Kliejunas, 1972).

Different approaches to hotel-focused attitude have been analyzed in the hospitality literature (Bowen & Chen, 2001; Lee et al., 2008; Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009). For example,

Vermeulen and Seegers (2009) examined the impact of online hotel reviews on customer decision making. They proposed that positive or negative reviews affect attitude and purchase decisions, and showed that exposure to positive information on online hotel reviews enhanced a positive change of customers' attitude toward a hotel and improved their consideration on hotel by drawing out a positive response, while the exposure to negative information affected their attitude change in negative way. Similarly, Lee et al. (2008) found that the high proportion of negative information have a significant impact on negative attitude toward a hotel. In addition, Bowen and Chen (2001) suggested that attitude toward a hotel can be measured using the concept of loyalty because the attitudinal measurement refers to the emotional and psychological attachment. Their findings indicated that such loyal customers who has a favorable attitude toward a hotel are more likely to repurchase products and services, and also to recommend them to acquaintances.

In the hospitality and tourism field, some studies of attitude focus on brand orientation and the direct and indirect effect of customer satisfaction on purchase intention. Brand attitude plays an important role in the link between satisfaction and behavioral intentions (Ko & Chiu, 2008; Suh & Youjjae, 2006; Taylor & Hunter, 2003). It also has a positive effect on purchase intention, as the prevalent mediator; a more positive brand attitude stimulates a greater intention to buy (Hwang, Yoon, & Park, 2011). Brand attitude has a significant positive impact on consumer satisfaction, and plays a mediating role between it and repeat visits (Ko & Chiu, 2008; Taylor & Hunter, 2003), and loyalty (Suh & Youjjae, 2006).

Focusing on overall attitude toward a hotel, only a few studies have examined in terms of a consequent attitude by examining the mediating role of attitude between customer satisfaction and behavioral intention (Ekinici et al., 2008; Oliver, 1980). Oliver (1980) examined the effect of customer satisfaction on attitude and post-purchase intention. It was found that attitude is the most

immediate predictor of behavioral intention. Ekinçi et al. (2008) also found that customer satisfaction is a key indicator of customers' attitude toward a service company, whereas the overall attitude affected intention to return.

In sum, however, this body of work on attitude all considers it from the positive perspective. If customers evaluate a product or service in negative way, that means, they are dissatisfied, they are likely to form a negative attitude, and obtain a lower probability to purchase or consume it (Ekinçi et al., 2008; Oliver, 1980; Priester et al., 2004; Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009). Despite of this negative aspect, previous studies neglected assessing the role of the attitude in the situation of customer dissatisfaction. In particular, the impact of customers' attitude toward a hotel as a negative view remains unconfirmed by the empirical findings of the last-mentioned study. Therefore, the effect of attitude toward a hotel on negative behavioral intentions such as switching service providers, spreading negative word-of-mouth, or complaining, should also be emphasized in order to expand the scope of the theoretical model to include different types of dissatisfaction responses (Ekinçi et al., 2008). Focusing on the consequences of customer dissatisfaction, accordingly, overall attitude toward a hotel can be viewed as a mediator. This study empirically attempted to investigate the effect of customer dissatisfaction on attitude toward a hotel and the effect of attitude on negative behavioral intention since it is important to understand customer attitude toward a hotel in causing basic consequences of customer dissatisfaction.

2.4 Hotel class related to customer expectation

Each individual has a different level of expectation in evaluating past experience or the provision of different products or services (Miller, 1977). In an early study, Cardozo (1965) showed that expectation level can be defined as a guideline for prediction and evaluation.

Therefore, customer expectation has been a major concept in understanding customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Boulding, Kalra, Staelin, & Zeithaml, 1993; Oliver, 1980; Oliver & Linda, 1981; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1993).

Several researchers have set out to define the concept of customer expectation. Olson and Dover (1979) refer to it as a pretrial belief about a product or service. Such a belief serves as a standard or reference point against which product performance is judged (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1993). Oliver (1980) argues that expectations create a frame of reference within which one makes a comparative judgment. Santos and Boote (2003) observe that expectations are associated with a variety of standards, most of which are based on customers' subjective predictions. Accordingly, the term is defined here as the individual beliefs customers use to create a reference framework for their assessment of satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

Customer expectations play a significant role in evaluating service performance (Boulding et al., 1993; Oliver, 1980). The discrepancy between levels of expectation and perceived performance is explained by Oliver's (1980) expectancy-disconfirmation theory. This has been widely applied and is one of the best-known theories in the area of customer expectations. When customers evaluate service quality, they compare their perceptions of actual performance with their own preset standards for, or set of beliefs about, service delivery, against which subsequent experiences are compared (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1993, 1996). In order to apply the cognitive model of satisfaction decisions, Oliver (1980) suggests that the adaptive level of performance is determined by the extent of customers' expectations through a process of positive or negative disconfirmation.

Customer expectations can be measured before products or services are made available (Oliver, 1977). People purchase products or services with expectations about their performance,

which they then compare to the actual results. If the two match, confirmation occurs. Conversely, if there is a gap between expectations and performance, the result is disconfirmation. The situation where outcomes are rated lower than expectations is termed negative disconfirmation, while positive disconfirmation denotes the reverse scenario. Satisfaction results from confirmation or positive disconfirmation, whereas negative disconfirmation results in dissatisfaction. It is important to understand customers' expectations of product or service delivery given that this is related to their positive or negative disconfirmation of such expectations (Oliver & Linda, 1981). In addition, this determines satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1993; Zeithaml, Bitner, & Gremler, 2009). The main conclusion to be drawn from this is that when the performance to expectation ratio increases, so too does satisfaction. On the other hand, if expectations are higher than perceived performance, dissatisfaction results (Cardozo, 1965; Oliver, 1977, 1980).

Based on the expectancy-disconfirmation theory, expectation related to performance can be considered as a function of the adaptation level, which means the perception of the degree to which performance exceeds, meets, or falls below expectations (Oliver, 1980). Given that expectation levels provide a baseline for disconfirmation, they can be used as a reference for post-exposure reactions such as satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Higher expectations make it more difficult for a customer to feel satisfied. In other words, he or she will be more apt to feel dissatisfaction (Borden & Teel, 1983, Swan & Trawick, 1981).

Johnston and Clark (2005) assert that understanding what customers expect is significant in delivering service, as it is necessary to manage and manipulate such perceptions in order to achieve overall satisfaction. The most common operationalization of this concept is to arrange different types of service expectations along a continuum from high (ideal or desired performance)

to low (the minimum that would be tolerable). Customer expectations are therefore found at multiple levels (Day, 1977; Miller, 1977).

Each customer may have his or her own frame of reference for making comparisons, and different expectations in different situations. These can also vary from low to high depending on the individual's own standards (Miller, 1977). Several researchers suggest there are two main levels (Boulding et al., 1993; Licata, Chakraborty, & Krishnan, 2008; Teas, 1993; Zeithaml et al., 1993). Based on the idea of expectation levels as a pre-consumption standard, customers can judge the best experience by comparing them to perceived performance. Such a judgment is likely to depend upon the reference point set by customers based on previous experiences. Therefore, the role of expectations in the critical evaluation needs to be understood and measured as precisely as possible.

Research on customer expectations has treated it fairly broadly, as a key construct of customer satisfaction in the service context, given that it is an antecedent of customer satisfaction which requires to be integrated into a coherent framework (Day, 1977; Oliver, 1980; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1985). However, most studies suggest that customer expectations can be explained according to the expectancy-disconfirmation theory. Few studies look at this as a standalone construct, although a handful investigate the impact of expectations on satisfaction and behavioral intentions (Cardozo, 1965; Licata, Chakraborty, & Krishnan, 2008; Oliver & Burke, 1999; Santos & Boote, 2003).

In the hotel context, a limited number of studies treated customer expectation as an individual construct (Dolnicar, 2002; Hua, Chan, & Mao, 2009; Mok & Armstrong, 1998; Yilmaz, 2010). These addressed the nature of the factors driving budget hotel customers' expectations in general (Hua, Chan, & Mao, 2009) and the features determining business travelers' expectations

in particular (Dolnicar, 2002) in order to identify and understand how the concept operates in this sector. Hua, Chan, and Mao (2009) examine the critical success factors (CSF) for budget hotels in China. They identified five important dimensions; physical products, service quality, price, promotion, and location. Dolnicar (2002) showed that guests in different hotels consider different factors when setting expectation on their accommodation, focusing on the major features through the use of an open-questionnaire survey. It was found that budget hotel customers concentrate on more fundamental and basic facilities than those in luxury hotels, such as food, TV, staff, value for money, an ensuite toilet, cheap price, a shower, and good bed quality.

In particular, a few studies have examined a theoretical aspect of different customer expectation relevant to different hotel class (Griffin et al., 1997; Knutson, 1988; Knutson, Stevens, Patton, & Thompson, 1993; Nasution & Mavondo, 2008). A strand of this research focuses on price. Griffin, Shea and Weaver (1997) showed that hotel guest expectations rise as prices go up. Guests staying in luxury hotels expect high-quality services and a luxurious atmosphere. Those staying in mid-price properties expect low-priced facilities, whereas budget hotel guests expect only a minimal service which meets their basic requirements. The study ultimately concluded that the expectations of guests staying in hotels of different classes have distinctive features. Knutson and colleagues (1988, 1993) found that customers' expectations of hotel services and room amenities are linked to hotel class, which can be predominantly categorized into three groups; economy, mid-price, and luxury. Knutson (1988) showed that guests of luxury hotels have a higher level of expectation, while the reverse is true in economy properties when they consider hotel services, room amenities, and service quality, such as location, reputation, and value for money. In a similar vein, Griffin et al. (1997) discovered that customers who stay at a luxury hotel expect high-quality service and fancy atmosphere, whereas budget hotel customers expect only a minimal

service which meets their basic needs. Nasution and Mavondo (2008) also discovered that customers are likely to expect a higher level of personal service at a high-end hotel property, while customers expect less at a budget property to offer basic amenities.

To summarize, each hotel customer has a certain level of expectation when they stay at a hotel, and the hotel aims to provide both tangible products and intangible services at a certain level of quality in an attempt to meet customers' expectation to the certain level (Costa, Glinia, Goudas, & Antomiou, 2004). Such expectation level serves as a set of standards by which to judge the service, and directly influence such an evaluation. It is set differently according to hotel class (i.e., upscale hotels versus budget hotels) (Knutson et al., 1993). It is commonly shown that customers in luxury hotel have a higher level of expectation than those in economy property (Knutson, 1988) and such expectations rise in tandem with price, such as room rate, because they are likely to use price as a clue to set their expectation level (Griffin, Shea, & Weaver, 1997). As a result, the level of customer expectation on a hotel can vary according to hotel class, and it may be one of the significant factors in customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Dolnicar, 2002). Therefore, hotel class related to customers' expectation level should be considered.

In conclusion, most studies have focused on the process of generating customer satisfaction, however fewer have focused on the dissatisfaction aspect. Another key point emerging from this line of research is that hotel class is the key guideline of customer expectation level because customer expectation plays an important role in evaluating experiences such as satisfaction and dissatisfaction. In other words, little work has been done to compare the consequences of dissatisfaction across different hotel classes in considering different expectation levels in the hotel industry context. To extend Herzberg's two-factor theory, therefore, two sets of satisfiers and dissatisfiers were compared according to different hotel classes related to different expectation

levels. This study is more of a focus on the negative perspective. The consequences of dissatisfaction were compared at the hotel classes.

Chapter 3

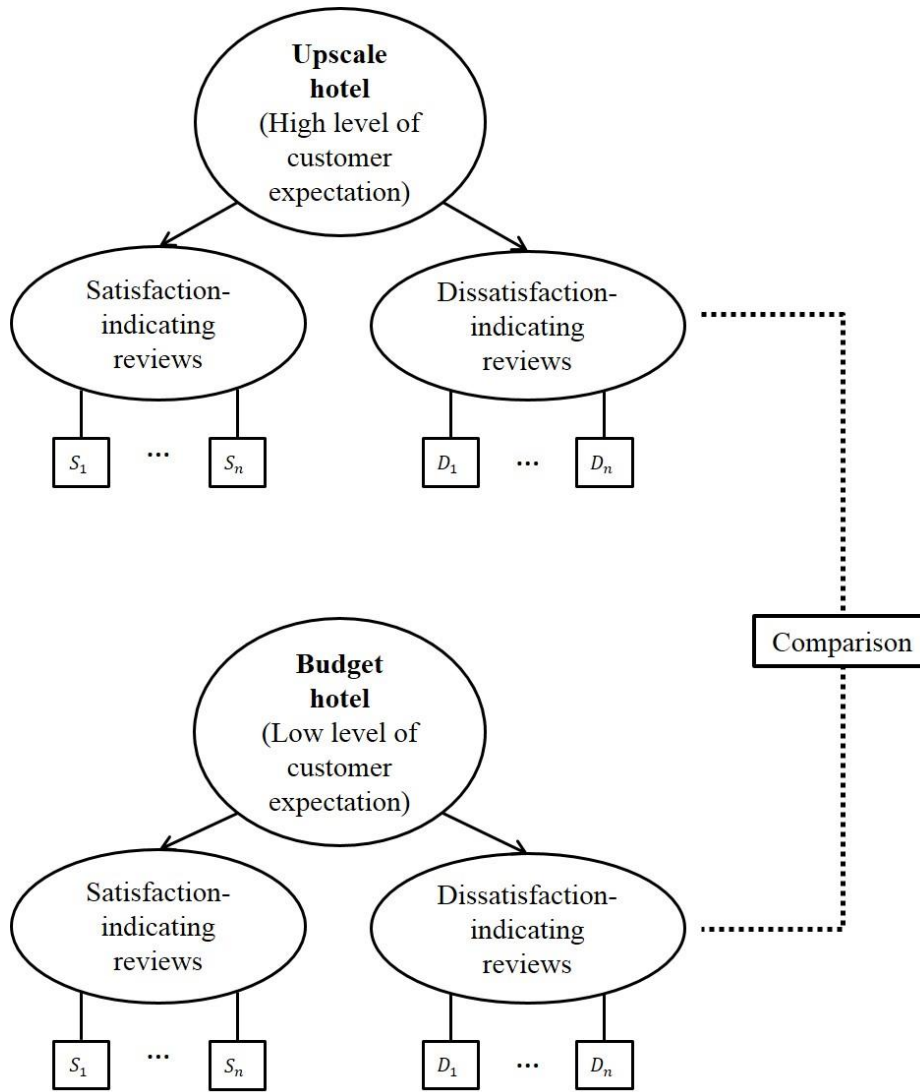
CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Chapter 3 introduces the conceptual framework of this study. The conceptual framework is divided into two parts for both Study I and Study II in order to answer the key research questions. This chapter begins with the proposed conceptual framework for Study I in order to identify satisfiers and dissatisfiers. The proposed conceptual model for Study II and the development of hypotheses, followed by research design encompassing qualitative and quantitative approaches.

3.1 Proposed conceptual framework for Study I

Considering customer self-generated contents posted on social media, which currently are significantly emerged in hotel management, this study focused on identifying satisfiers and dissatisfiers perceived by hotel customers. In addition, the satisfiers and dissatisfiers were compared according to hotel class that are significantly related to levels of customer expectation. Especially, the identification of satisfiers and dissatisfiers were based on Herzberg's two-factor theory by applying a bi-dimensional approach of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. This study attempted to explore what satisfiers and dissatisfiers exist by analyzing online hotel reviews. The satisfiers and dissatisfiers were compared in accordance with upscale hotel segment or budget hotel segment. Figure 3.1 presents overall conceptual framework for Study I.

Figure 3.1 Overall conceptual framework for Study I



* *Note:* S_n and D_n indicate satisfiers and dissatisfiers, respectively.

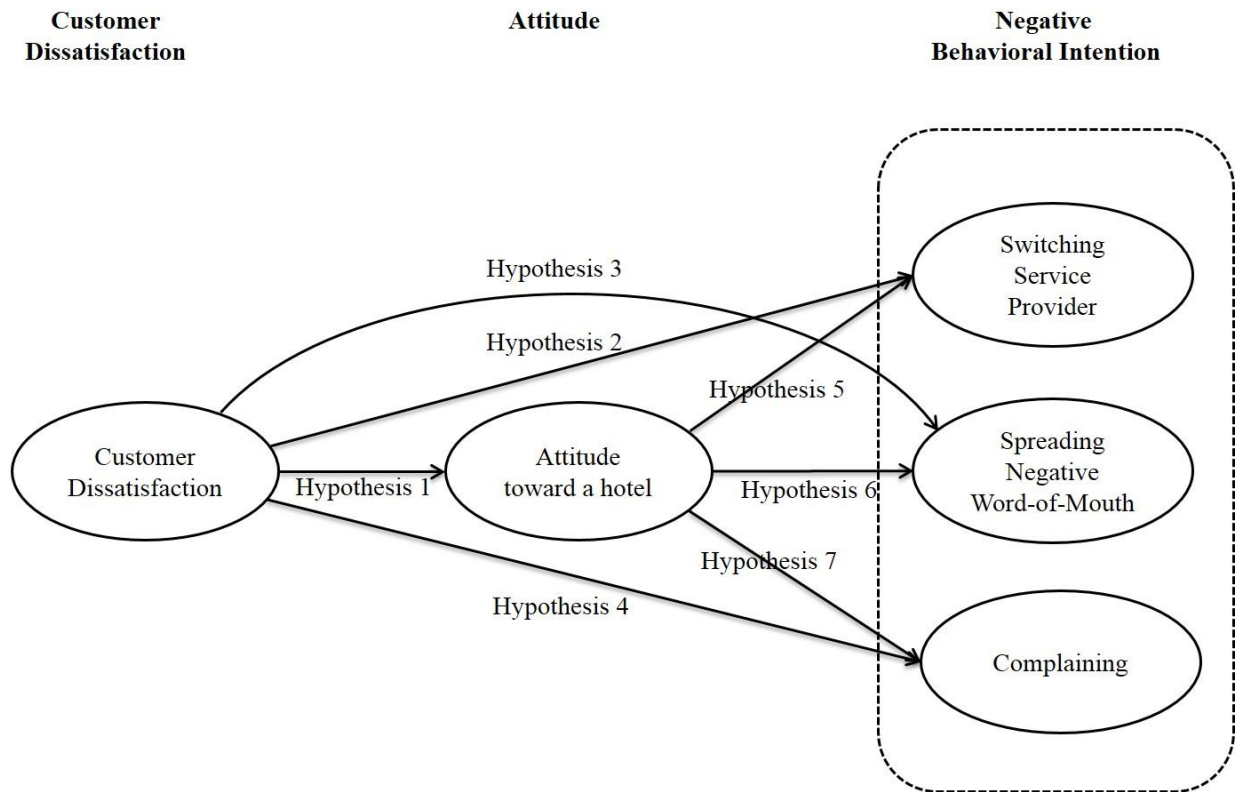
3.2 Proposed conceptual model for Study II

Through the comprehensive literature review with regard to the consequences of customer dissatisfaction, five constructs were included in this conceptual framework, namely customer dissatisfaction, attitude toward a hotel, switching service provider, spreading negative word-of-mouth, and complaining. Development of hypotheses and discussion are shown in this section. Definitions of these constructs are described in Table 3.1. The eight hypotheses were developed in order to examine customer dissatisfaction and its consequences according to two hotel classes. They were included on the conceptual model illustrated in Figure 3.2.

Table 3.1 Definitions of five constructs

| Constructs | Definitions |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| Customer Dissatisfaction | Customers' affective status when they experience discomfort caused by service failure during the purchase process. The provided products and service are usually expected and considered basic to the experience (adapted from Fornell & Wernerfelt, 1987; Kano, Seraku, Takahashi, & Tsuji, 1984). |
| Attitude toward a hotel | Customers' judgment in evaluating the individual tendency to behave as a useful predictor leading to actual behavior toward a hotel (adapted from Lutz, 1991; Olson & Mitchell, 2000; Wicker, 1969). |
| Switching Service Provider | Customers' behavioral intention of the termination of a relationship with the service provider by initiating a relationship with another service provider, by performing the service yourself, or by refraining from the service altogether (adapted from Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). |
| Negative word-of-mouth | Customers' behavioral intention of the negative communications of customers with members of their social and professional network by talking or mailing family members, friends, acquaintances, and so on. It is the result of dissatisfaction (adapted from Anderson, 1998). |
| Complaining | Customers' behavioral intention of a vocal action to express customer dissatisfaction to service providers or third parties (adapted from Day & Bodur, 1978; Rogers, Ross, & Williams, 1992; Singh, 1990). |

Figure 3.2 Proposed Conceptual Model for Study II



3.2.1 Development of research hypotheses for Study II

The hypotheses were developed to explore the consequences of customer dissatisfaction in upscale and budget hotel segments by identifying the mediating role of attitude toward a hotel in relationships among the five constructs. Each of the relationships in supporting hypotheses are elaborated as follows.

3.2.1.1 The relationship between customer dissatisfaction and attitude toward a hotel

A number of past studies have attempted to assess the relationship between the level of customer satisfaction and its consequences (Anderson, 1998; Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Bowen

& Chen, 2001; Ekinçi et al., 2006; Oliver, 1980; Olsen, 2002). For example, Oliver (1980) proposed a cognitive theory regarding customer satisfaction and its consequences. In his theory, the level of customer satisfaction was positively correlated to attitude which positively affected future purchase intention. His findings were consistent with those of Olsen's (2002) study in that customer satisfaction had a positive effect on attitude. In addition, Ekinçi et al. (2006) examined the extended model of customer satisfaction and found that customer satisfaction influences customers' overall attitude toward a service firm. These studies consistently demonstrated the positive effect of customer satisfaction on overall attitude by indicating that customers more positively formulate their attitude as an adaptation level for subsequent satisfaction decisions after they are satisfied. That is, the magnitude of satisfaction serves as forming customer's positive attitude.

In a similar manner, Vermeulen and Seegers (2009) found that negative information generates a negative attitude toward a hotel. Lee, Park, and Han (2008) also noticed that negative information had a significant impact on negative attitude toward a hotel. However, it has been little empirically investigated that the effect of customer dissatisfaction on overall attitude toward a hotel exists. Since the previous studies have identified that customer satisfaction highly leads to a positive attitude, and that negatively perceived information affects a negative attitude toward a hotel, this study hypothesized that customer dissatisfaction has a negative effect on attitude toward a hotel. The research hypothesis was developed as follows:

Hypothesis 1. Customer dissatisfaction negatively influences attitude toward a hotel.

3.2.1.2 The Relationship between Customer Dissatisfaction and Negative Behavioral Intention

The majority of previous studies have investigated the relationship between the level of customer satisfaction and post-purchase intentions (Anderson & Sullivan, 1993; Bearden & Teel, 1983; Cardozo, 1965; Oliver, 1980; Yi, 1990). Findings of these studies showed a consensus that customer satisfaction is positively related to intention to return, customers' loyalty, and positive word-of-mouth as further purchase intentions. As a result, unsatisfactory experiences are more likely to decrease the repurchase intention.

Previous research in the hospitality field examined a wide range of behavioral responses and intentions in the event of service failure (Bolfing, 1989; Jang et al., 2013; Mattila & Ro, 2008; Sanchez-Garcia & Curras-Perez, 2011; Swanson & Hsu, 2009; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). In a study by Mattila and Ro (2008), which examined the relationships between negative emotions and dissatisfaction responses, emotions which can be caused by dissatisfaction led to complaining, spreading of a negative word-or-mouth, and switching. Sanchez-Garcia and Curras-Perez (2011) also found that anger as a negative customers' emotion had a significant effect on switching service provider, spreading negative word-of-mouth, and complaining behaviors in a customer's unsatisfactory situation. Zeelenberg and Pieters (2004) identified the positive relationships among negative emotions, customer dissatisfaction and associated negative behavioral reactions. Jang et al. (2013) found that customer dissatisfaction triggered by regret and disappointment influences switching and spreading of negative word-of-mouth.

As a consequence, it is convincing to propose that customer dissatisfaction has an impact on post-purchase behavior intentions. Particularly, it is assumed that there is a positive relationship between customer dissatisfaction and the three main negative behavioral intentions, such as

switching service provider, spreading negative word-of-mouth, and complaining. Based on a review of the previous literature, research hypotheses were developed as follows:

Hypothesis 2. Customer dissatisfaction positively influences switching service provider.

Hypothesis 3. Customer dissatisfaction positively influences spreading negative word-of-mouth.

Hypothesis 4. Customer dissatisfaction positively influences complaining.

3.2.1.3 The relationship between Attitude toward a Hotel and Negative Behavioral

Intention

Attitude is defined as an enduring feeling of evaluation toward a particular object, such as a favorable or unfavorable response, and it has long been considered as a useful predictor of customer behaviors toward a product or a service (Priester et al., 2004; Lutz, 1991; Olson & Mitchell, 2000). The formation of attitude has been found to be essential to understanding customers' purchase decision making (Kokkinaki & Lunt, 1999; Priester et al., 2004; Wicker, 1969).

Previous studies showed a consensus that overall attitude positively affected post-purchase behaviors as an outcome of attitude (Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2005, 2006; Ekinici et al., 2006; Howard, 1974; Oliver, 1980). For example, Howard (1974) found that the post-purchase attitude of satisfied customers affects future purchase intention. Oliver (1980) found that customers' attitude is positively associated with future intention in his satisfaction model. Likewise, Ekinici, et al. (2006) examined the effect of customers' overall attitude on intention to return. In a similar vein, the development of negative attitude negatively affects behavioral change (Lee et al., 2008; Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009). Based on past studies, therefore, this study attempts to explore the

effect of attitude toward a hotel under a service failure on negative behavioral intentions, and lead to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 5. Attitude toward a hotel negatively influences switching service provider

Hypothesis 6. Attitude toward a hotel negatively influences spreading negative word-of-mouth

Hypothesis 7. Attitude toward a hotel negatively influences complaining.

3.2.1.4 Comparison of the Consequences of Customer Dissatisfaction between Upscale and Budget Hotels

A hotel is classified into different levels according to various assessment criteria, such as price level, service strategy, or target customer (Garcia-Falcon & Medina-Muñoz, 1999). A hotel class differs with particular property features, and level of service and facility provided (Jeong & Jeon, 2008; Musante et al., 2009). One of the universal hotel rating systems is the star-rating system that is evaluated using such standards as quality of physical facilities, level of service, atmosphere and rates (Ingram & Roberts, 2000; Jeong & Jeon, 2008). The rating strongly influences the level of satisfaction of customers regarding hotel service because they believe that a hotel pertaining to a higher star rating will provide a higher level of hospitality service (Ariffin & Maghzi, 2012). Therefore, customers who want to stay at a higher star rating hotel demonstrated a higher level of willingness to pay and a higher level of expectation for service and room amenities (Dolnicar, 2002; Griffin et al., 1997; Knutson, 1988; Knutson et al., 1993). Similarly, it was shown that four- to five-star hotels are always more luxurious and more expensive than one- to two-star hotels. Likewise, a customer of a five-star hotel will also perceive a higher standard of service than would be available at a one-star establishment (Guillet & Law, 2010).

Level of customer dissatisfaction is affected by customer expectation because a customer evaluates whether an experience is unsatisfactory according to the standard of customer expectation (Zainol et al., 2010). Level of customer satisfaction can be affected by customer expectation. Here, the difference between upscale and budget hotels may indicate a different level of hotel classes. Thus, there is a need to compare dissatisfaction and its consequence between customer groups in different hotel class. As a result, this study hypothesized that a different hotel class may differently influence the consequences of customer dissatisfaction. The hypothesis is proposed as below:

Hypothesis 8. Significance and sign of path coefficients on structural equation models are likely different between upscale and budget hotel segments.

3.3 Summary of research questions, objectives, and hypotheses

Study I

Research Questions: How different are dissatisfiers from satisfiers?

- (1) What are the factors leading to customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction, respectively?
- (2) How does the class of a hotel affect which of its elements are seen by customers as satisfiers and dissatisfiers?

Research Objectives:

- (1) Identify two sets of satisfiers and dissatisfiers from online hotel reviews.
- (2) Compare the satisfiers and dissatisfiers according to class of hotel.

Study II

Research Questions: How important is customer dissatisfaction?

- (3) When customers are dissatisfied with their experiences at a hotel, how is their attitude toward a hotel, based on such dissatisfaction, related to their negative behavioral intention?
- (4) How does the class of a hotel affect the consequences of dissatisfaction?

Research Objectives:

- (3) Investigate whether customer dissatisfaction affects attitude toward a hotel, and three elements of negative behavioral intention (i.e., switching service providers, complaining, and spreading negative word-of-mouth).
- (4) Compare the relationship paths according to hotel class.

Hypotheses

- H1.** Customer dissatisfaction negatively influences attitude toward a hotel.
H2. Customer dissatisfaction positively influences switching service provider.
H3. Customer dissatisfaction positively influences spreading negative word-of-mouth.
H4. Customer dissatisfaction positively influences complaining.
H5. Attitude toward a hotel negatively influences switching service provider
H6. Attitude toward a hotel negatively influences spreading negative word-of-mouth
H7. Attitude toward a hotel negatively influences complaining.
H8. Significance and sign of path coefficients on structural equation models are likely different between upscale and budget hotel segments.

3.4 Research design

3.4.1 Mixed strategy design

Three types of methods are used social science research: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-method (Creswell, 2008). Qualitative studies usually depend on interpreting soft data such as interviews, whereas quantitative studies rely on a positivistic approach using hard data in the form of numbers. It is sometimes argued that these two methods are two opposing approaches, but, in fact, it may be more of a continuum—some studies tend to be more qualitative than quantitative, or vice versa. Lewis, Chambers, and Chacko (1995, p. 171) state that “qualitative research is usually to provide information for developing further quantitative research and quantitative research findings may also need confirmation and further interpretation from qualitative research.” Each approach has advantages and disadvantages in several ways, so they are often able to complement each other (Neuman, 2005).

Qualitative studies usually depend on interpreting soft data, in the form of words, sentences, impression, and so forth. Qualitative methods follow a nonlinear research path and emphasize detailed explanations of cases and contexts by observing a setting. The method is flexible in that the researcher can modify the design to understand new discoveries and relationships (Maxwell, 2005). It is the most common method for understanding the particular meaning of social problems. Data analysis follows an inductive style focusing on the importance of the complexity of the situation.

Quantitative studies rely on a positivist research paradigm using hard data in the form of numbers. The quantitative method follows a linear research path and emphasizes measuring variables and testing the hypotheses of causal relationships in proposed models by collecting data from the main survey based on developed survey instruments (Neuman, 2005). It is used to

test objective theories by examining the relationship between variables that can be measured. Therefore, a large amount of data can be analyzed using statistics (Creswell, 2009).

Even though the quantitative methods dominate hospitality and tourism research, the qualitative method is also increasingly used (Riley & Love, 2000). The mixed-method approach is becoming more popular (Ballantyne, Packera, & Axelsena, 2009). Mixed-method research combines qualitative and quantitative methods in a study. A mixed-method approach can reduce the bias that can come from using a single method (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). With mixed methods, exploratory and explanatory studies can be integrated into one research process.

3.4.2 Overall research procedure

This study examined to identify dissatisfiers and the consequences of customer dissatisfaction in the hotel industry within two parts, Study I and Study II. Study I aims to identify satisfiers and dissatisfiers on reviews commented on the customer-generated online hotel review website, and then compare satisfiers to dissatisfiers according to two hotel class groups using the qualitative method. Study II aims to test whether customer dissatisfaction affects attitude toward a hotel and switching behavior, negative word-of-mouth recommendation, and complaining behavior. In addition, the relationship paths of consequences of customer dissatisfaction according to the two hotel groups are compared using the quantitative method. The following section describes how the research was conducted.

3.4.2.1 Research design for Study I

Data in Study I was retrieved from online hotel reviews from hotel review website–Tripadvisor.com. Online hotel reviews are considered one of the most accessible and prevalent forms of feedback for businesses. This is because: (1) frequent customers consider peer reviews as highly useful sources of information, and they are likely to be highly influenced by them (Gretzel & Yoo, 2008); (2) reviews written by other customers affect purchase decision making (Gretzel & Yoo, 2008; Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009); and (3) reviews from consumer-generated media are perceived as more reliable and trustworthy than information from service providers (Smith, Menon, & Sivakumar, 2005). Thus, online reviews have been widely explored in recent times.

In this study, previous literature was comprehensively reviewed to develop a code list for analysis of data. After literature review, online hotel reviews were collected as main data set. Positive and negative reviews were considered to be representative opinions presented by customers as their satisfying and dissatisfying experiences in order to identify satisfiers and dissatisfiers as well as to compare them according to two hotel classes. A content analysis for Study I was conducted using customers' online hotel reviews. Content analysis is a methodology that is used as a set of processes to make valid inferences from a text. The main idea of content analysis is to classify the existing words into a fewer key content categories (Weber, 1990). It is to enable a statistical inference from non-statistical content in a non-post hoc way (Neuman, 2005).

3.4.2.2 Research Design for Study II

Research for Study II is based on Churchill's (1979) paradigm for developing measures of the quantitative method. Study II consists of three stages in order to address the research questions:

(1) developing the survey instruments based on the previous literature; (2) testing the survey instruments in the context of customer dissatisfaction in hotels by conducting a pilot test to see whether they are appropriate; and (3) testing the proposed conceptual model using structural equation modeling (SEM) based on the data from the main survey.

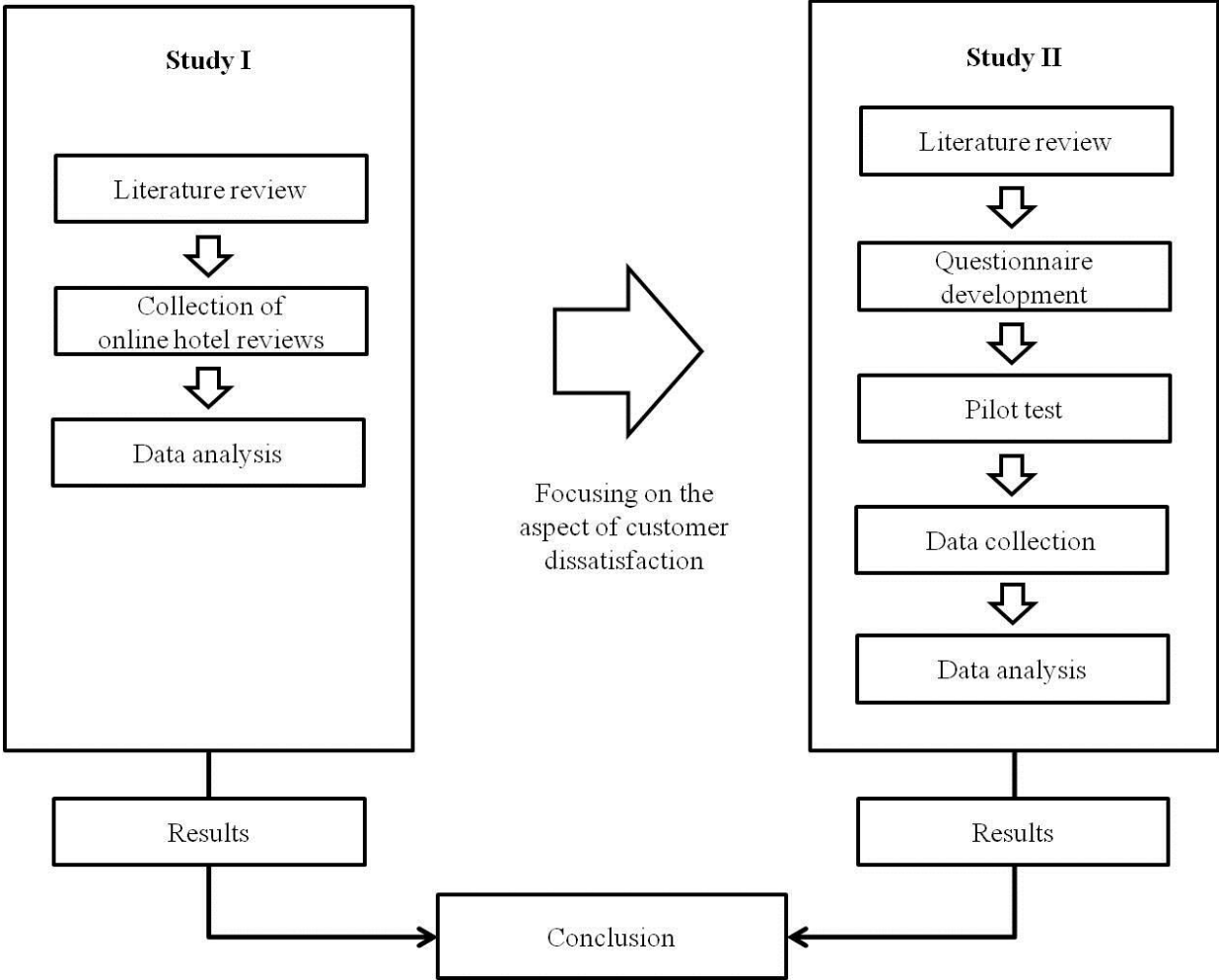
In order to compare and analyze the consequences of customer dissatisfaction between upscale hotel and budget hotel customer groups, two different types of questionnaires were developed. Established measurement items for the five constructs in the conceptual framework were drawn from the prior relevant literature. Some essential adjustments were required for the particular context of a hotel and for this research setting. Finally, the questionnaire used in this study was designed with the particular constructs after validity and reliability tests. A seven-point Likert scale was used to measure each of items. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used to analyze main data set.

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is one of the popular multivariate techniques that has emerged in recent times. Many researchers have paid much attention to SEM analysis because it can express a relationship based on a theory and test how well the theory fits reality with measured indicators and latent constructs (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2009). SEM is considered the main method of analysis to test the relationship path of this study. Prior to conducting SEM, firstly, an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was first conducted in order to define individual constructs based on the result of the pilot test. The purpose of the EFA is to test construct validity by confirming a model prior to employing a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) (Hair, et al., 2009). Secondly, the measurement model was developed and specified with appropriate measurement items. CFA is required as a prerequisite procedure to determine how well the measured variables represent the latent constructs. Each latent construct includes

measurement items. Given the confirmed constructs, CFA is conducted to confirm whether a conceptual measurement model is valid by testing the validity and reliability of the items (Hair, et al., 2009). In order to obtain useful results from the analysis of Study II, data from the main survey were analyzed by conducting a SEM in order to determine results based on the hypotheses testing in the main conceptual model in order to address the research questions for the Study II.

The proposed relationship path focused on the consequences of customer dissatisfaction. Study II investigated the impact of customer dissatisfaction on attitude toward a hotel and how the attitude affects customers' negative behavioral intention. The significance and sign of path coefficients in upscale and budget hotel groups were compared. Steps for Study I and Study II are followed and presented in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3 Overall Research Procedure



Chapter 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Chapter 4 discusses the qualitative and quantitative methodologies employed to examine Study I and Study II: 1) to conduct a content analysis based on online hotel reviews, 2) to test the structural model of the consequences of customer dissatisfaction in the hotel context. The first part for Study I details the qualitative method, presents the overall research design and the essential research procedure for the qualitative method such as unit of analysis, data collection and data analysis. The second part for Study II outlines the quantitative method and discusses some issues such as the sample, measurement items for the questionnaire, the data collection and the data analysis.

4.1 Research methodology for Study I

4.1.1 Unit of analysis

Each study has a specific unit of analysis for which researchers need to determine the appropriate method of data analysis, sample size, and number of variables. The levels of major entities include individuals, groups, social organizations, and countries (Sekaran, 2003). For the qualitative study (especially, content analysis), one issue is the choice of the unit of analysis. Because changing the unit of analysis will affect coding decisions, it should be well thought out depending on the context (Cook & Ralston, 2003). The unit of analysis can be considered in various ways since soft data is interpreted in the form of a word, a sentence, an impression, a phrase, a theme, a plot, and so forth (Neuman, 2005). In this respect, the major entity of Study I is online hotel reviews written by hotel customers. Each word posted on the online customer reviews

was a unit of analysis. In order to identify particular satisfiers and dissatisfiers, positive and negative reviews were collected.

4.1.2 Data collection

The researcher retrieved customers' reviews posted on Trip Advisor (www.tripadvisor.com), which is one of the most prominent online review websites for hotels or destinations worldwide (Law, 2006; O'Connor, 2010; Verma et al., 2012). As a subsidiary of the huge tourism e-commerce company Expedia, it is also recognized as the most dominant user-generated content site in the tourism and hospitality market (O'Connor, 2008). The website encompasses over 10 million registered members and 20 million reviews and opinions about hotels and destinations all across the globe (Trip Advisor, 2015).

Hotels in New York City on the review website were selected as samples of this study. The main reasons why New York hotels are considered are as follows. First, New York is one of the most famous global tourism cities in the world (Gladstone & Fainstein, 2001). Second, it is deemed a leading tourism destination to worldwide tourists as the biggest US metropolitan city, (Shoval, 2002). Third, there exists a large number of lodging businesses that represent a diversity of hotel classes ranging from luxury, upscale, mid-scale, to economy (Jeong, Oh, & Gregoire, 2003).

To enhance validity and reliability, several steps were followed for data collection and analyses. First, there are several existing hotel rating systems to classify hotel properties according to diverse criteria, such as type of service, service level, quality of facilities, atmosphere, and rates (Ariffin & Maghzi, 2012; Ingram & Roberts, 2000; Israeli, 2002; Jeong & Jeon, 2008). Star rating system is one of the examples, and its major criteria are determined by quality of physical facilities, levels of service, atmosphere and rates (Ingram & Roberts, 2000; Jeong & Jeon, 2008). However,

Trip Advisor also use their own five-star rating system to categorize hotel class. The star rating system on Trip advisor is decided by assessment criteria of third-party partners, such as national ratings organizations and Expedia (Trip Advisor, 2015). Thus, the star rating cannot be changed arbitrarily, and the framework is considered to be a well-established and durable standard (Trip Advisor, 2015).

On the basis of the star rating structure, a list of hotels in New York City was prepared and those hotels were categorized into two segments, upscale and budget hotel groups for this study. That is, one-star and two-star hotels were segmented as a budget hotel group, whereas four-star and five-star hotels were classified as an upscale hotel group. According to the common standards of star rating (Forbes Travel Guide, 2015), upscale hotels focus on intensive, expanded, superlative amenities and high level of services. They consider maximum requirement for distinctive, luxury atmosphere such as décor and furnishings. On the other hand, budget hotels provide basic and physical facilities and consider minimum requirements such as clean, comfortable, and reliable establishments in safe and secure atmosphere. In particular, three-star hotels were excluded because characteristics of three-star hotels are not clearly distinguished as either upscale or budget hotels, and it was also considered to more distinctively compare between higher hotel class and lower hotel class related to higher and lower expectation levels of customers.

In the second step, hotels listed on the hotel review website as of March 2013 contain 433 hotels in New York City having 28 five-star hotels, 120 four-star hotels, 45 two-star hotels, and nine one-star hotels. In order to choose an identical number of upscale and budget hotels, the 50 top ranking hotels and the 50 bottom ranking hotels in the list of hotels in New York on Trip Advisor were selected. For a sample of upscale hotels, this study selected the whole 28 five-star hotels, and 22 out of 120 four-star hotels ranked the highest. For a sample of budget hotels, this

study selected all nine one-star hotels and 41 out of 45 two-star hotels ranked as the lowest. As a result, 50 upscale and 50 budget hotels were selected for this study. Table 4.1 presents the profiles of selected hotels used for this study.

Table 4.1 Profiles of selected New York City hotels

| Hotel segment | Hotel class | Total | Selected |
|-------------------------|-------------|-------|----------|
| Upscale hotel (N=50) | Five-star | 28 | 28 |
| | Four-star | 120 | 22 |
| | Three-star | 112 | 0 |
| Budget hotel (N=50) | Two-star | 45 | 41 |
| | One-star | 9 | 9 |
| | All | 433 | 100 |

* *Note:* three-star hotels were ruled out.

In the third step, satisfaction- and dissatisfaction-indicating hotel reviews on the web pages of 50 upscale and 50 budget hotels were considered for main analysis. This study referred to guideline of Trip Advisor to identify satisfaction- and dissatisfaction-indicating reviews. Customers are generally asked to evaluate an overall hotel stay on the five-Likert type of rating ranging of five levels from “terrible”, “poor”, “average”, “very good”, to “excellent” and then requested to make a comment in that particular rating. The rating outcomes evaluated by customers were selected as a reliable assessment for this study. To identify the most satisfied and the most dissatisfied customers’ reviews, the most favorable rating “excellent” category and the most unfavorable “terrible” category were considered. Satisfaction-indicating reviews belonging to the “excellent” category and five dissatisfaction-indicating reviews in the “terrible” category were chosen.

Since using online reviews as customer-generated content has limitations in collecting and analyzing the bulk of text resources, the aspects in a quantifiable and time-efficient manner can be

considered in the data collection and analysis process (Lu & Stepchenkova, 2015). In their study, the average number of customers' reviews was 741 among the previous 28 studies that conducted content analysis using customer-generated reviews (except for a study that conducted content analysis using the whole existing dataset). Therefore, the total number of existing reviews are affected by hotel size (the number of rooms in hotel property) and the date that the hotel pages were opened in Trip Advisor. In this study, in order to decide on a reliable number of hotel reviews, five satisfaction- and dissatisfaction-indicating reviews from each hotel as of May 2013 were eventually selected and analyzed to identify satisfiers and dissatisfiers. In order to guarantee the validity of the data selection, a random sampling method was employed.

Reviews on the "very good" category (the second highest level out of five levels) and the "poor" category (the second lowest level out of five levels) were not included. It is because even though the two categories of customers assessed their hotel stay as relatively positive (for customers on the "very good" category) or as relatively negative (for those on the "poor" category), their reviews still contain negative aspects on "very good" category and positive aspects on "poor" category, simultaneously. It was necessary to consider the satisfaction- and dissatisfaction-indicating reviews evaluated by extremely satisfied and dissatisfied customers in order to enhance the reliability of interpretation of customer review contents. Therefore, this study attempted to examine the two extremes of evaluation, that is, the most highly satisfied "excellent" category and the most dissatisfied "terrible" category.

In the last step, 250 satisfied reviews and 221 dissatisfied reviews for upscale hotels, and 226 satisfied reviews and 222 dissatisfied reviews for budget hotels were singled out in considering for collecting the available reviews. As a result, 919 reviews out of 1,000 were employed for further analysis since there are few dissatisfied reviews on the web pages of upscale hotels, and

few satisfied and dissatisfied reviews on those of budget hotels. Table 4.2 displays the profiles of the selected hotels. As a consequence, 920 reviews instead of 1,000 reviews were employed for further analysis. Table 4.2 shows the collected data for main analysis.

Table 4.2 Collected data

| Hotel segment | Satisfaction- indicating review | Dissatisfaction- indicating review | Total |
|---|--|---------------------------------------|-------------|
| | Excellent category | Terrible category | |
| Upscale hotel (Four-, Five-star hotel) | 5 reviews * 50 hotels = 250 reviews | 221 reviews | 471 reviews |
| Budget hotel (One-, Two-star hotel) | 226 reviews | 222 reviews | 448 reviews |
| Total | 476 reviews | 443 reviews | 919 reviews |

4.1.3 Data analysis

A content analysis is to analyze soft data such as words by categorizing a fewer content-related clusters (Cavanagh 1997; March & White, 2006). The content analysis method has been proved as replicable and valid method in sorting text data out into content categories in providing a representation of facts and it was used to identify particular factors in the large sample of text information generated by customers on the Internet in the current hospitality studies (Levy et al., 2013; Li et al., 2013; Pantelidis, 2010).

This study adopted a manual holistic approach as one of methodological approaches to analyzing content (Matthes & Kohring, 2008). The aim of Study I is to identify satisfiers from satisfaction-indicating reviews and dissatisfiers from dissatisfaction-indicating reviews. However, some satisfaction-indicating reviews contained negative factors, even though customers overall evaluated the hotel stay as the highest level of “excellent” rating, vice versa. It was impossible to employ an analytical computer program for content analysis since the contents

of online hotel reviews are content-sensitive in terms of negative features. The computer aided-program only considers for frequency of keywords, and do not thoroughly distinguish the subtle differences between positive and negative keywords (Matthes & Kohring, 2008). To ensure accuracy whether each of factors represents satisfier or dissatisfier in containing subtle features, an in-depth manual review method was employed instead of a computer-aided analysis method.

The process of a manual holistic approach used for this study was conducted as follows (Marsh & White, 2006). In the first step, a coding table of satisfiers and dissatisfiers were established for the guidelines of classification for data coding through reviewing previous literature (Marsh & White, 2006; Matthes & Kohring, 2008). The codes for identification of satisfiers and dissatisfiers were adopted from the online review complaint framework in a study of Levy, Duan, and Boo (2013). Table 4.3 presents the data coding table developed for satisfiers and dissatisfiers.

Table 4.3 Data coding table

| Hotel issues | Room issues | Staff issues |
|---------------------|----------------------------|----------------|
| ▪ Check-in | ▪ Bathroom | ▪ Front desk |
| ▪ Restaurant | ▪ Cleanliness | ▪ Housekeeping |
| ▪ Parking | ▪ Noise | ▪ Bellhop |
| ▪ Billing | ▪ Room size | ▪ Concierge |
| ▪ Internet | ▪ Air conditioning | ▪ Maintenance |
| ▪ Look and feel | ▪ Smell | ▪ Doorman |
| ▪ Room service | ▪ Television | |
| ▪ Safety | ▪ Bedding and linens | |
| ▪ Location | ▪ Bugs | |
| ▪ Construction | ▪ Décor | |
| ▪ Booking | ▪ Bed | |
| ▪ Pool | ▪ Carpet and floor | |
| ▪ Elevator | ▪ View | |
| ▪ Smell | ▪ Minibar and refrigerator | |
| ▪ Vending machines | ▪ Amenities | |
| ▪ Gym Heat | | |
| ▪ Shuttle Furniture | | |
| ▪ Towels | | |
| ▪ Walls | | |
| ▪ Window | | |
| ▪ Phone | | |
| ▪ Coffee | | |
| ▪ Lighting | | |
| ▪ Kitchen | | |

* *Note:* Adopted from a study of Levy, Duan, & Boo (2013)

In the second step, 50 final year undergraduate students who were majoring in hospitality management at the Hong Kong Polytechnic University were hired to review the contents. Each of the students was assigned to review one of the 50 upscale hotels and one of the 50 budget hotels on the hotel list. Satisfiers from five satisfaction-indicating reviews and dissatisfiers from five dissatisfaction-indicating reviews were initially captured on the original context of online review according to the coding table in an Excel file. In the last step, on the basis of captured satisfiers and dissatisfiers in both upscale and budget hotels, the researcher conducted in-depth analysis by thoroughly coding the text contents in order to enhance validity of data analysis.

These three steps of process of content analysis were to enhance reliability and avoid subjectivity

in data analysis (Matthes & Kohring, 2008). In addition, extra information was researched for additional analyses, such as the total number of reviews for hotels in New York City.

4.2 Research methodology for Study II

4.2.1 Sample

4.2.1.1 Sample frame

A population is “a collection of elements about which we wish to make an inference” and a sample is “a collection of sampling units” (Scheaffer, Mendenhall, Ott, & Gerow, 2011, pp.8-9). The sample is used to estimate the population parameters, and decides the quality of the inferences (Agresti & Finlay, 2009). Collecting samples is an important process of the research design, since sampling the desired target population is not practically possible for researchers (Scheaffer et al., 2011).

This study examined the consequences of customer dissatisfaction in the hotel context. The unit of analysis focused on customers of two different hotel classes, upscale and budget hotels. The sample frame was the population of U.S. domestic travelers. A sampling unit was an individual traveler who had stayed at least once at either an upscale or a budget hotel within the previous 12 months within the year of 2013.

In order to choose appropriate respondents as given the restrictions of this study, the researcher hired an online survey company. There are several reasons why an online survey was conducted for this study: (1) it is a time- and cost-effective approach. Compared to traditional methods such as mail, phone, interview, or even on-site survey, an online survey can help to save cost and time in obtaining responses (Granello & Wheaton, 2004; Zikmund, 2003); (2) the respondents from the panel of an online survey company are more likely to be willing to

participate in a survey than those in a face-to-face survey. Online participants voluntarily access the web site to fill in the survey for the particular purpose of the reward provided by the online survey company; (3) an online survey allows respondents to complete the survey using their own electronic devices at the most convenient time and place. In fact, an online survey cannot be conducted without expenses and also needs time for designing and setting up the questionnaire on Internet. In addition, it is required to overcome any technical difficulties of internet access. However, as a result, online survey is the most proper means to find appropriate respondents for this study.

Based on these reasons, Qualtrics (www.qualtrics.com) was hired to collect data for the pilot test and the main survey for Study II. The company is a Utah-based online survey company in the U.S. and a specialist in providing particular web-based survey platforms. It provides user-friendly platform for the researcher and a robust survey tool to design a web-based survey questionnaire on Internet, and to collect respondents among a panel of the company for the survey. The final data collected is offered in the form of Microsoft Excel file and SPSS. The company assists academic and industrial research for over 6,000 clients across all industries in 75 countries and 1,300 universities all the globe (Qualtrics, 2015).

4.2.1.2 Sample size

A sample should be representative in order to understand the population being studied (Short, Ketchen, & Palmer, 2002). In general, larger samples are usually more representative and can reduce sampling error. However, due to the limited time and budget, study should decide a proper sampling plan. According to Roscoe's (1975) rules of thumb for sample size, a sample is deemed appropriate if it is larger than 30 and less than 500. If the sample is broken into subsamples,

a minimum sample size should be 30 for each category. The number of respondents is related to the method that is used, and the method is related to the purpose of study.

The determination of the sample size for Study II was affected to achieve the purpose of the quantitative research of Study II. As the main analysis method, SEM was used to test whether attitude toward a hotel mediates the relationship between customer dissatisfaction and negative behavioral intention between upscale and budget hotel customers. Considering the overall conceptual model including five constructs, ultimate valid sample size was required.

Several researchers insist the criteria for sample size for SEM. For example, Fritz and MacKinnon (2007) give the guidelines for necessary sample size for overall model fit in SEM to test mediation. From their survey, the lower quartile for required sample size was 189.5, the upper quartile was 778, and the median was 340.5. According to Hair and colleagues' (2009) rule of thumb, each construct should contain more than three items which is the minimum number of indicators needed to obtain a better fit. The minimum sample size is 150 if the model contains seven or fewer constructs and each construct includes more than three items. According to Jöreskog and Sörbom's (1993) criterion, sample size can be calculated with the formula:

$$k(k+1)/2 \text{ (k: the number of indicators)}$$

The conceptual model consists of five constructs with 22 measurement items for each of two hotel groups. According to Jöreskog and Sörbom's (1993) criterion, the main survey was required to have 300 samples as minimum per group.

4.2.2 Construct measurements

This study applied Churchill's (1979) procedure of measurement development consisting of eight sequential steps: specifying the domain of the construct, generating the sample of items, collecting the data for the pilot test, purifying the measure, collecting the data for the main test, assessing reliability, assessing validity, and developing norms. Accurate survey instruments are essential to ensure that constructs are measured with the proper measurement criteria. Otherwise, the research has problems of reliability and measurement validity, which can in turn bias the conclusions. Through review of relevant literature, measurement items of five constructs including customer dissatisfaction, attitude toward a hotel, switching service provider, spreading negative word-of-mouth, and complaining were developed after modifying them in the hotel context.

Most studies measure customer satisfaction using ordinal scales. In general, previous studies used scales of customer satisfaction to measure customer dissatisfaction using a five-point Likert scale to evaluate satisfaction and dissatisfaction on a single scale simultaneously (Alegre & Garau, 2010). According to Hausknecht (1990), there is no distinction between the measurements which are considered as a single continuum from satisfied to dissatisfied. However, an ordinal scale from "*highly dissatisfied*" to "*highly satisfied*" may not be enough to evaluate customer dissatisfaction. Oliver (1993) proposed a distinctive dissatisfaction scale of a six-point Likert scale (1 = "not at all" and 6 = "very much"). Further, a five-point Likert scale on customer dissatisfaction was further refined, such as 1 = "not at all dissatisfied" and 5 = "highly dissatisfied" (Alegre & Garau, 2010).

With regard to the measurement of level of customer dissatisfaction, first, this study used three items in the dissatisfaction-based scale to measure customer dissatisfaction construct (Chan

& Wan, 2009; Chan, Wan, & Sin 2007; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). The three items were measured using a 7-point Likert scale where 1 = “not totally dissatisfied”, 4 = “neutral”, and 7 = “highly dissatisfied.”

Second, seven items were employed to measure the attitude toward a hotel construct (Ekins et al., 2006; Maio & Olson, 1995). Attitude is judgment or evaluation leading to behavior, and a tendency to respond to an object in a favorable or unfavorable way (Allport, 1935). Attitudes are typically measured with bipolar scales, such as favorable/unfavorable or positive/negative (Cacioppo & Petty, 1981). Attitude toward a hotel in this study was defined as a judgment of their overall feelings toward a hotel after experiencing an unsatisfying situation. The construct was developed as seven semantic differential scales anchored by: 1 = “favorable” and 7 = “unfavorable”, 1 = “good” and 7 = “bad”, 1 = “rewarding” and 7 = “punishing”, 1 = “attractive” and 7 = “unattractive”, 1 = “like” and 7 = “dislike”, 1 = “positive” and 7 = “negative”, and 1 = “valuable” and 7 = “worthless”.

Third, negative behavioral intention indicates customer’s dissatisfaction response (Bolfing, 1989; Chan & Wan, 2009). All the possible negative behavioral intention that is affected by dissatisfied situation in the context of hotel were included such as switching service provider, spreading negative word-of-mouth, and complaining (Bougie et al., 2003; Mattila & Lo, 2008; Sanchez-Garcia & Curras-Perez, 2011; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). Each of the three constructs contained four measurement items. The three constructs included a total of 12 measurement items that were measured using a seven-point Likert scale where 1 = “strongly disagree”, 4 = “neutral”, and 7 = “strongly agree.” (Bougie, Pieters, & Zeelenberg, 2003; Mattila & Ro, 2008; Sanchez-Garcia & Curras-Perez, 2011; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). All measurement items were adopted from previous research and were modified to fit the hotel

context of this study. Through measurement development, a total of 22 items for five constructs were selected. Table 4.4 presents measurements of main constructs used in the questionnaire.

Table 4.4 Measurements of main constructs

| Construct | Survey instruments | Items | Measurements in main survey |
|--|--|-------|---|
| Customer dissatisfaction (CD) | - Chan & Wan (2009) - Chan, Wan, & Sin (2007) | 3 | 1. As a whole, I was _____ with the “Hotel A/B”. 2. I was _____ about my overall experience with the “Hotel A/B”. 3. I was _____ with the overall quality of the “Hotel A/B”. Not totally Dissatisfied (1) – Highly Dissatisfied (7) Q: How did you feel about the “Hotel A/B” based on your experience? |
| Attitude toward a hotel (AT) | - Ekinci, Dawes, & Massey (2006) - Maio & Olson (1995) | 7 | 1. Favorable (1) – Unfavorable (7) 2. Positive (1) – Negative (7) 3. Good (1) – Bad (7) 4. Like (1) – Dislike (7) 5. Rewarding (1) – Punishing (7) 6. Attractive (1) – Unattractive (7) 7. Valuable (1) – Worthless (7) |
| Switching service provider (SW) | - Bougie, Pieters, & Zeelenberg (2003) - Mattila & Ro (2008) - Sanchez-Garcia & Curras-Perez (2011) - Zeelenberg & Pieters (2004) | 4 | 1. I will NOT stay at the “Hotel A/B” after the experience. 2. I will NOT use the services of the “Hotel A/B” in the future. 3. I will NOT return to the “Hotel A/B” in the future. 4. I will switch to another competing hotel for my needs. Strongly disagree (1) – Strongly agree (7) |
| Negative word-of-mouth (NW) | - Bougie, Pieters, & Zeelenberg (2003) - Mattila & Ro (2008) - Sanchez-Garcia & Curras-Perez (2011) - Zeelenberg & Pieters (2004) | 4 | 1. I will say negative things about the “Hotel A/B” to other people. 2. I will discourage friends and family from going to the “Hotel A/B” 3. I will advise against the “Hotel A/B” when someone seeks my advice. 4. I will speak to my friends and relatives about my bad experience. Strongly disagree (1) – Strongly agree (7) |
| Complaining (CP) | - Bougie, Pieters, & Zeelenberg (2003) - Mattila & Ro (2008) - Sanchez-Garcia & Curras-Perez (2011) - Zeelenberg & Pieters (2004) | 4 | 1. I will let staff know about the problem. 2. I will complain to the “Hotel A/B” about the poor quality of service. 3. I will directly ask staff to solve the problem. 4. I will file a written complaint. Strongly disagree (1) – Strongly agree (7) |

* *Note:* Hotel A and hotel B represented upscale hotel and budget hotel in the questionnaire, respectively.

4.2.3 Questionnaire design

A questionnaire is needed to provide a respondent-friendly format with simple language in order to reduce response bias. The questionnaire contained four sections. Section 1 focused on two screening questions. This was followed by Section 2, which focused on the consequences of customer dissatisfaction including the five constructs (i.e. customer dissatisfaction, attitude toward a hotel, switching service provider, spreading negative word-of-mouth, and complaining), and Section 3 focused on information regarding both the demographic and hotel stay patterns. The questionnaire was designed in two versions for upscale hotel customers (Version 1) and budget hotel customers (Version 2), respectively.

In the Section 1, two screening questions were initially asked to select appropriate respondents for this study. The first question was to ask whether they had have a dissatisfactory experience at a hotel since January 2013. The second question was to ask whether their experience occurred at either an upscale (4-5 star hotel) or a budget hotel (1-2 star hotel). Only respondents who had have a dissatisfied experience at either upscale hotel or budget hotel were asked to choose either Version 1 (for upscale hotel customers) or Version 2 (for budget hotel customers) for the further survey. In the Section 2 as the main body of questionnaire, three items for customer dissatisfaction, seven items for attitude toward a hotel, four items for switching service provider, four items for spreading negative word-of-mouth and four items for complaining were displayed.

In the last Section 3, eight general demographics profiles (e.g. gender, age, marital status, education level attained, occupation, annual household income, nationality, ethnicity, and residence) and three hotel stay patterns (e.g. general purpose to stay at hotel, frequency of hotel stay, and average spending on room rate per night) were asked. These variables were deemed

essential considerations because demographic differences may affect the results. The questions about demographic and hotel stay related information were mostly measured as categorical and interval variables.

In addition, another two attention filter questions were inserted into the survey questionnaire in order to verify whether the respondents answered carefully by following the suggested instructions. One question was added as a form of text entry input prompt. It requested the respondents to complete the question “Please input the word “upscale hotel” in the space below.” for Version 1, and “Please input the word “budget hotel” in the space below.” for Version 2. The other was inserted in the section of future intention questions with a 7-point Likert scale in the form of ‘Please just click “Disagree” for this question’ on purpose. All questions in the self-administered questionnaire were designed in the form of close-ended questions and presented in English. The questionnaires used for the main survey are displayed in Appendix.

4.2.4 Preliminary test and pilot test

An initial questionnaire for the preliminary test was developed before the main survey was conducted. In order to guarantee the content validity, a preliminary test was conducted by ten academic experts including seven professors and three Ph.D. students in the hospitality and tourism field. On the basis of their comments, the questionnaires in relation to wording correction, proper meaning, and grammatical errors were amended, and two demographic-related questions and question for general purpose of hotel stay were added as minor changes. After the finalization of the questionnaire, a pilot test was subsequently conducted.

The pilot test was conducted for several reasons: (1) to assess the questionnaire development by clarifying the wording of the measurement items, response formats and instruments of the questionnaire; (2) to identify practical and technical problems related to the

data collection process on the Internet before launching the main survey; and (3) to evaluate the measurement items that measure the constructs of this study by conducting an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) for construct validity.

The online survey company, Qualtrics, possesses a database pool of a wide range of respondents and provided the population of hotel customers in the U.S. The questionnaire for online survey was programmed by the researcher using the Online Survey Software of Qualtrics. The data was collected with the assistance of the online survey company from October 1st to 5th, 2014. Based on the established questionnaire on the Internet, the company distributed the survey questionnaire with an anonymous survey link to respondents on behalf of the researcher. The pilot test collected a total of 250 questionnaires. Among them, 124 completed questionnaires (74 questionnaires for upscale hotel and 50 for budget hotel) were passed to the researcher in the format of an Excel file. 126 questionnaires containing missing values were excluded. After another slight modification to the survey instrument was made, a finalized questionnaire was designed for the main survey.

Multiple analytical methods such as descriptive analysis and a series of EFA were conducted using data from the 124 valid questionnaires. A descriptive analysis was carried out and an EFA was conducted to test whether the measurement items properly represented each construct.

4.2.4.1 Profile of respondents in pilot test

The researcher analyzed respondents' demographic profiles in the pilot test. It is an essential step to understand respondents' characteristics by screening their demographic profiles. Of the 124 respondents, 74 respondents participated in the survey for upscale hotel, and 50

respondents participated in the survey for budget hotel. In the pilot test, only six demographic-related questions and two questions for general travel pattern were asked.

As shown in Table 4.5, regarding the respondents in the upscale hotel data set, about 55% of respondents were female, and about 54% of them were aged 21 to 40. Nearly 42% of respondents hold Bachelor's degree, and their annual household incomes were equally distributed. Nearly 97% and 77% of them were American and Caucasian. In terms of their travel patterns, nearly 34% of respondents travelled twice within the year of 2013 and 53% of them travelled more than three times. About 51% of respondents spent on average US\$ 300 or under for hotel room per night and nearly 32% of them spent on average between US\$ 301 and US\$ 400.

Regarding the respondent in the budget hotel data set, 72% of respondents were female. The range of their ages were equally distributed except for the age group of 20 or less (6%). Most of respondents held lower than Bachelor's degree (66%), and all and 90% of them were American and Caucasian. 96% of their average spending on hotel room was mainly between US\$ 51 and US\$ 150. The detailed demographic information is shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Profile of respondents in pilot test

| Characteristics | | Upscale hotel (N=74) | | Budget hotel (N=50) | | |
|---|--|----------------------|----------------|---------------------|----------------|------|
| | | Frequency | Percentage (%) | Frequency | Percentage (%) | |
| Gender | Male | 33 | 44.6 | 14 | 28.0 | |
| | Female | 41 | 55.4 | 36 | 72.0 | |
| Age | 20 or less | 3 | 4.1 | 3 | 6.0 | |
| | 21-30 | 25 | 33.8 | 10 | 20.0 | |
| | 31-40 | 15 | 20.3 | 13 | 26.0 | |
| | 41-50 | 9 | 12.2 | 8 | 16.0 | |
| | 51-60 | 13 | 17.6 | 11 | 22.0 | |
| | 61 or more | 9 | 12.2 | 5 | 10.0 | |
| The highest level of education attained | High school or less | 12 | 16.2 | 16 | 32.0 | |
| | College student | 11 | 14.9 | 7 | 14.0 | |
| | Associates degree | 8 | 10.8 | 10 | 20.0 | |
| | Bachelor's Degree | 31 | 41.9 | 14 | 28.0 | |
| | Master's degree | 11 | 14.9 | 3 | 6.0 | |
| | Doctoral degree | 1 | 1.4 | 0 | 0 | |
| Annual household income | Less than US\$ 40,000 | 17 | 23.0 | 19 | 38.0 | |
| | US\$ 40,000–59,999 | 13 | 17.6 | 8 | 16.0 | |
| | US\$ 60,000–79,999 | 15 | 20.3 | 11 | 22.0 | |
| | US\$ 80,000–99,999 | 9 | 12.2 | 7 | 14.0 | |
| | US\$ 100,000 or more | 20 | 27.0 | 5 | 10.0 | |
| Nationality | American | 72 | 97.3 | 50 | 100.0 | |
| | Other | 2 | 2.7 | 0 | 0 | |
| Ethnicity | Caucasian | 57 | 77 | 45 | 90.0 | |
| | African-American | 4 | 5.4 | 4 | 8.0 | |
| | Hispanic | 5 | 6.8 | - | - | |
| | Asian | 3 | 4.1 | 1 | 2.0 | |
| | Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islander | 1 | 1.4 | 0 | 0 | |
| | Other | 4 | 5.4 | 0 | 0 | |
| Frequency of stay at an upscale/budget hotel since January 2013 | Once | 10 | 13.5 | 11 | 22.0 | |
| | 2 times | 25 | 33.8 | 15 | 30.0 | |
| | 3 times | 17 | 23.0 | 14 | 28.0 | |
| | 4 times | 10 | 13.5 | 2 | 4.0 | |
| | 5 times or more | 12 | 16.2 | 8 | 16.0 | |
| Average spending on room rate per night | Budget hotel (N=50) | US\$ 50 or under | | | 1 | 2.0 |
| | | US\$ 51~100 | | | 38 | 76.0 |
| | | US\$ 101~150 | | | 10 | 20.0 |
| | | US\$ 151~200 | | | 1 | 2.0 |
| | Upscale hotel (N=74) | US\$ 300 or under | 38 | 51.4 | | |
| | | US\$ 301~400 | 24 | 32.4 | | |
| | | US\$ 401~500 | 5 | 6.8 | | |
| | | US\$ 501~600 | 7 | 9.5 | | |

4.2.4.2 Descriptive statistics in pilot test

Before conducting Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) in the pilot test in order to define underlying construct structure among variables, the researcher estimated descriptive statistics in understanding mean values for the pilot test. As shown in Table 4.6, the results reflect that all the 22 measurement items for five constructs were rated above the mid-point at value 4. It indicates respondents were dissatisfied, had negative attitude toward a hotel, and had high levels of negative behavioral intention. The descriptive statistics in the upscale and budget hotel datasets is presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Descriptive statistics of upscale and budget hotel datasets

| Construct | Items | Upscale hotel (<i>N</i> =74) | | Budget hotel (<i>N</i> =50) | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------------|----------------|------------------------------|----------------|
| | | Mean | Std. Deviation | Mean | Std. Deviation |
| Customer dissatisfaction | Dissatisfaction 1 | 5.770 | 1.997 | 5.560 | 2.168 |
| | Dissatisfaction 2 | 5.622 | 1.914 | 5.440 | 2.101 |
| | Dissatisfaction 3 | 5.757 | 1.971 | 5.400 | 2.138 |
| Attitude toward a hotel | Attitude 1 | 5.878 | 1.858 | 6.240 | 1.271 |
| | Attitude 2 | 5.932 | 1.823 | 6.140 | 1.262 |
| | Attitude 3 | 5.932 | 1.853 | 6.220 | 1.250 |
| | Attitude 4 | 5.919 | 1.900 | 6.320 | 1.220 |
| | Attitude 5 | 5.568 | 1.806 | 5.900 | 1.216 |
| | Attitude 6 | 5.743 | 1.924 | 6.160 | 1.283 |
| | Attitude 7 | 5.608 | 1.789 | 5.920 | 1.368 |
| Switching service provider | Switching 1 | 5.473 | 1.807 | 6.080 | 1.523 |
| | Switching 2 | 5.541 | 1.776 | 6.120 | 1.409 |
| | Switching 3 | 5.595 | 1.782 | 6.220 | 1.329 |
| | Switching 4 | 5.878 | 1.579 | 6.100 | 1.515 |
| Spreading negative word-of-mouth | Negative w-o-m 1 | 4.851 | 1.833 | 5.360 | 1.588 |
| | Negative w-o-m 2 | 5.162 | 1.813 | 6.000 | 1.370 |
| | Negative w-o-m 3 | 5.554 | 1.623 | 6.000 | 1.355 |
| | Negative w-o-m 4 | 5.351 | 1.565 | 5.760 | 1.533 |
| Complaining | Complaining 1 | 5.960 | 1.503 | 6.140 | 1.355 |
| | Complaining 2 | 5.919 | 1.460 | 5.980 | 1.436 |
| | Complaining 3 | 6.014 | 1.626 | 5.920 | 1.563 |
| | Complaining 4 | 4.932 | 1.882 | 4.880 | 1.902 |

4.2.4.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis in pilot test

EFA is recommended at the pre-stage of the analysis for Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) analysis (Gerbing & Hamilton, 1996). The main objective of the pilot test is to confirm the reliability of the measurements and the dimensionality of the main survey (Churchill, 1979). Even though most measurement items were drawn from robust measures in previous literature, internal consistency and construct validity were reconfirmed by conducting an EFA using obtained data by the pilot test. In order to verify the reliability and validity of measurements, the most commonly used Principal Component Analysis (PCA) extraction method with a varimax rotation based on the orthogonal method was employed (Field, 2009). The results of the EFA were reported to reconfirm whether the five constructs were extracted as one component.

The results of the EFA of the upscale and budget hotel datasets including factor loading, item-to-total correlation, Eigen-value, variance explained, KMO result, χ^2 (df), and coefficient α are illustrated in Table 4.7 and Table 4.8. The factor loading of all 22 items were greater than 0.5 and the Chi-Square values of Bartlett's test of sphericity were significant at .000 level (Field, 2009). All the coefficient α values of the five constructs exceeded the value of 0.8, as a satisfactory level, thus the internal consistency of the measurements was confirmed.

Table 4.7 Results of EFA in the upscale hotel dataset in pilot test

| Upscale hotel (N=74) | | Factor loading | Item-to-total correlation | Eigen-value | Variance explained | KMO | χ^2 (df) | Coefficient α |
|----------------------------------|------|----------------|---------------------------|-------------|--------------------|------|-------------------|----------------------|
| Customer dissatisfaction | CD | | | 2.952 | 98.395 | .756 | 522.308 (3)* | .992 |
| | 1 | .995 | .989 | | | | | |
| | 2 | .985 | .968 | | | | | |
| | 3 | .995 | .989 | | | | | |
| Attitude toward a hotel | AT | | | 6.469 | 92.416 | .896 | 1047.388 (21)* | .986 |
| | 1 | .974 | .964 | | | | | |
| | 2 | .976 | .967 | | | | | |
| | 3 | .973 | .962 | | | | | |
| | 4 | .974 | .964 | | | | | |
| | 5 | .935 | .912 | | | | | |
| | 6 | .948 | .930 | | | | | |
| 7 | .949 | .931 | | | | | | |
| Switching service provider | SW | | | 3.581 | 89.533 | .815 | 353.931 (6)* | .961 |
| | 1 | .962 | .930 | | | | | |
| | 2 | .959 | .926 | | | | | |
| | 3 | .943 | .898 | | | | | |
| Spreading negative word-of-mouth | NW | | | 3.375 | 84.375 | .834 | 258.902 (6)* | .937 |
| | 1 | .925 | .865 | | | | | |
| | 2 | .934 | .882 | | | | | |
| | 3 | .896 | .815 | | | | | |
| Complaining | CP | | | 3.147 | 78.681 | .811 | 261.668 (6)* | .892 |
| | 1 | .947 | .863 | | | | | |
| | 2 | .955 | .888 | | | | | |
| | 3 | .928 | .826 | | | | | |
| | 4 | .691 | .545 | | | | | |

* **Note:** 1. Extraction method: Principal Component Analysis
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization
 2. Bartlett's test of sphericity: χ^2 (df), * $p = .000$

Table 4.8 Results of EFA in the budget hotel dataset in pilot test

| Budget hotel (N=50) | Factor loading | Item-to-total correlation | Eigen-value | Variance explained | KMO | χ^2 (df) | Coefficient α | |
|----------------------------------|----------------|---------------------------|-------------|--------------------|--------|---------------|----------------------|------|
| CD | | | | | | | | |
| Customer dissatisfaction | 1 | .992 | .981 | 2.953 | 98.434 | .769 | 311.372 (3)* | .992 |
| | 2 | .995 | .989 | | | | | |
| | 3 | .990 | .976 | | | | | |
| AT | | | | | | | | |
| Attitude toward a hotel | 1 | .950 | .929 | 6.016 | 85.945 | .886 | 532.558 (21)* | .972 |
| | 2 | .938 | .910 | | | | | |
| | 3 | .968 | .953 | | | | | |
| | 4 | .949 | .927 | | | | | |
| | 5 | .884 | .848 | | | | | |
| | 6 | .890 | .854 | | | | | |
| | 7 | .906 | .874 | | | | | |
| SW | | | | | | | | |
| Switching service provider | 1 | .876 | .764 | 3.131 | 78.277 | .765 | 210.766 (6)* | .899 |
| | 2 | .954 | .884 | | | | | |
| | 3 | .961 | .904 | | | | | |
| | 4 | .728 | .584 | | | | | |
| NW | | | | | | | | |
| Spreading negative word-of-mouth | 1 | .890 | .812 | 3.399 | 84.975 | .793 | 210.766 (6)* | .938 |
| | 2 | .950 | .898 | | | | | |
| | 3 | .947 | .893 | | | | | |
| | 4 | .898 | .824 | | | | | |
| CP | | | | | | | | |
| Complaining | 1 | .944 | .830 | 2.938 | 73.452 | .763 | 142.222 (6)* | .849 |
| | 2 | .934 | .818 | | | | | |
| | 3 | .896 | .756 | | | | | |
| | 4 | .611 | .454 | | | | | |

* **Note:** 1. Extraction method: Principal Component Analysis
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization
 2. Bartlett's test of sphericity: χ^2 (df), * $p = .000$

Based on the results, the measurement items were sufficiently employed to proceed to the next main survey without revision. Moreover, a series of pilot tests not only established the reliability and validity of the measurements for both exogenous and endogenous constructs, but also caught unexpected errors from the online program's soft launch because of the risk of the employing online Internet survey. After the trials of data collection on the online survey webpage, only a minor revision of the online survey design was needed such as the logical flow issue.

4.2.5 Data collection

The main survey was conducted with several aims: (1) to assess the measurement items by employing an EFA for construct validity; (2) to evaluate the individual measurement model by employing a CFA; (3) to test the overall measurement model with five construct in testing the effect of customer dissatisfaction on attitude toward a hotel negative behavioral intention by employing a SEM. After completing the pilot test, the main data collection through online survey was administered from October 10th to November 25th, 2014.

A total of 1,465 respondents were sampled. Among them, 647 valid questionnaires (325 for upscale hotel and 322 for budget hotel) were retained for the main data analysis after exclusion of questionnaires that include multiple missing values. The rate of final response was approximately 44.16%.

4.2.6 Data analysis

Data was coded in an MS Excel file, and analyzed operating two Statistic Software Package Programs: IBM SPSS Statistics 20 and IBM SPSS Amos 20 in order to draw on multiple analytical methods, such as Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM). In particular, the Amos program for CFA and SEM has several useful features: it provides a graphical interface to help draw a model. The measured variables can be drawn into the model and the software can be run after the model is drawn (Hair, et al., 2009). Validity and reliability were also verified by this program.

Chapter 5

RESULTS

Chapter 5 discusses the results of the qualitative and quantitative studies, respectively. Study I identified dissatisfiers as the antecedents of customer dissatisfaction, which were independently identified from satisfiers. The satisfiers and dissatisfiers were compared between upscale and budget hotels. Study II empirically confirmed the valid measurements for the proposed conceptual model and tested the eight hypotheses regarding the consequences of customer dissatisfaction between upscale and budget hotels by employing an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) analysis. Finally, this chapter concludes with the findings of the qualitative and quantitative research.

5.1 Findings of Study I

Before addressing the main objectives of Study I, several results were also found in further analyzing online hotel reviews as customer-generated contents. First, the numbers of satisfaction-indicating reviews and dissatisfaction-indicating reviews were counted. As shown Table 5.1, the results of the total number of reviews pertaining to 50 upscale hotels and 50 budget hotels showed The total number of reviews of 50 upscale hotels numbered 42,659, whereas those of 50 budget hotels numbered 27,525. Among the 42,659 reviews of upscale hotels, 28,866 reviews (67.7%) was satisfaction-indicating reviews that were evaluated as excellent level, and only 683 reviews (1.6%) were dissatisfaction-indicating reviews that were assessed as terrible level. In contrast, of the 27,525 reviews of budget hotels, 3,920 reviews (14.2%) were satisfaction-indicating reviews, 4,374 reviews (15.8%) were dissatisfaction-indicating reviews.

Table 5.1 Number of satisfaction- and dissatisfaction-indicating reviews

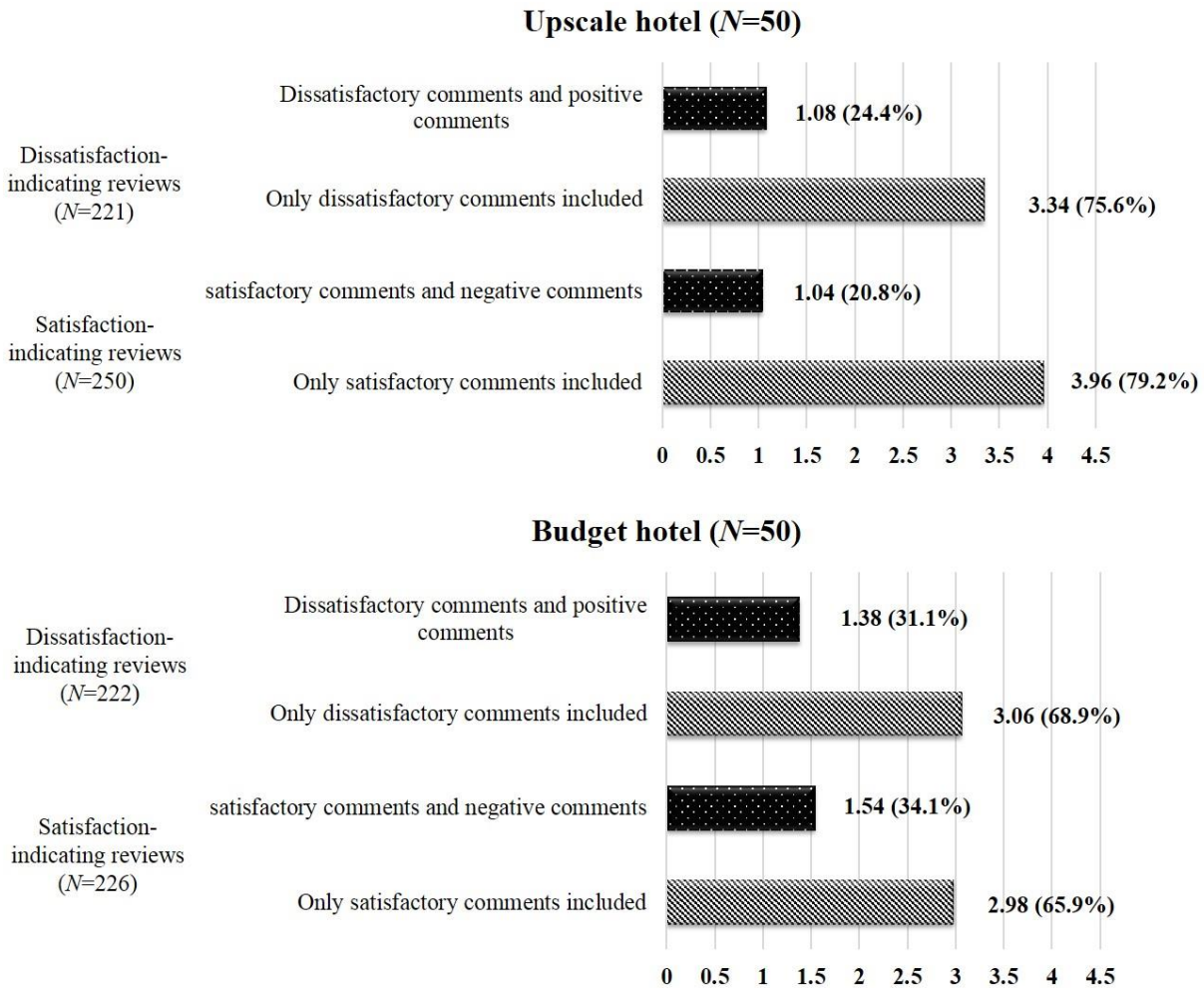
| Upscale hotel (N=50) | | | Budget hotel (N=50) | | |
|-------------------------------|--|---|-------------------------------|--|---|
| Total number of reviews | Satisfaction- indicating reviews (%) | Dissatisfaction- indicating reviews (%) | Total number of reviews | Satisfaction- indicating reviews (%) | Dissatisfaction- indicating reviews (%) |
| 42,659 (100%) | 28,866 (67.7%) | 683 (1.6%) | 27,525 (100%) | 3,920 (14.2%) | 4,374 (15.8%) |

5.1.1 Average of reviews showing hotel customer reactions

Even though online hotel reviewers rated their overall experience as “excellent” level, some of them also made negative comments. Within the upscale hotel segment, an average of 3.96 satisfaction-indicating reviews out of five per hotel (79.2%) included only satisfactory comments, while an average of 1.04 dissatisfaction-indicating reviews (20.8%) contained both satisfactory and negative comments. In addition, an average of 3.34 satisfaction-indicating reviews out of five per hotel (75.6%) consisted of only satisfactory comments, whereas an average of 1.08 dissatisfaction-indicating reviews (24.4%) included both satisfactory and positive comments.

Within the budget hotel segment, 2.98 satisfaction-indicating reviews per hotel (65.9%) on average consisted of only satisfactory comments, while 1.54 dissatisfaction-indicating reviews (34.1%) on average contained both satisfactory and negative comments. 3.06 satisfaction-indicating reviews out of five per hotel (68.9%) on average consisted of only satisfactory comments, but 1.38 dissatisfaction-indicating reviews (31.1%) on average contained both dissatisfaction and positive comments. Figure 5.1 displays the average of reviews showing hotel customer reactions.

Figure 5.1 Average of reviews showing hotel customer reactions

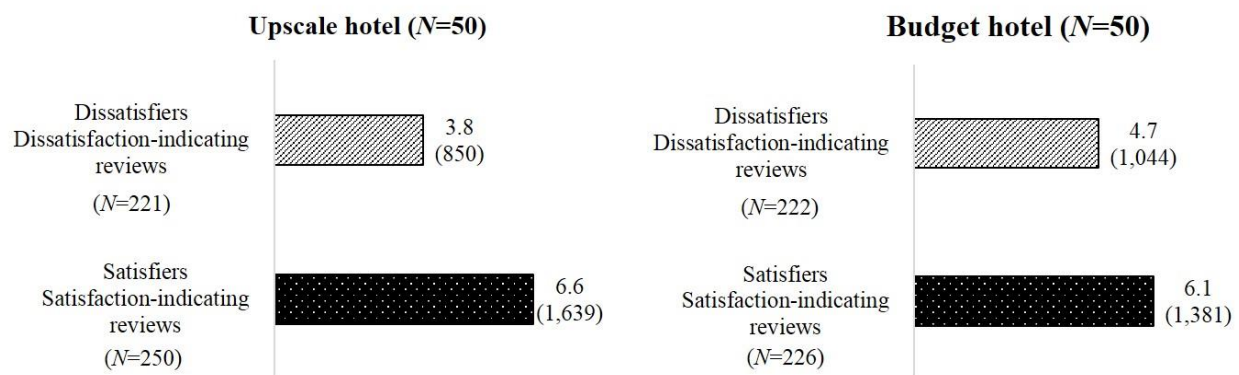


5.1.2 Average number of satisfiers and dissatisfiers in each review

Average number of satisfiers and dissatisfiers in each of satisfaction- and dissatisfaction-indicating review were analyzed. Within the upscale hotel cohort, 1,639 satisfiers in 250 satisfaction-indicating reviews were identified and 850 dissatisfiers in 221 dissatisfaction-indicating reviews were discovered. Therefore, each satisfaction-indicating review included 6.6 satisfiers and each dissatisfaction-indicating review consisted of 3.8 dissatisfiers in upscale hotel dataset.

Within the budget hotel cohort, 1,381 satisfiers in 226 satisfaction-indicating reviews and 1,044 dissatisfiers in 222 dissatisfaction-indicating reviews were identified. Thus, it is shown that each satisfaction-indicating review included 6.1 satisfiers and each dissatisfaction-indicating review consisted of 4.7 dissatisfiers in budget hotel dataset. The average number of satisfiers and dissatisfiers in each review is reported in Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2 Average number of satisfiers and dissatisfiers in each review



Note: Numbers in parentheses indicate total frequency of satisfiers or dissatisfiers.

5.1.3 Satisfiers and dissatisfiers in upscale and budget hotels

Satisfiers and dissatisfiers were identified within the five hotel components, namely room, staff, hotel property/appearance, facility, and extra component. The category of five hotel components was modified from the typology of customers' complaints by a study of Levy et al. (2013). Through the analysis of identification of satisfiers and dissatisfiers, satisfier framework and dissatisfier framework were developed. First, satisfier framework included 35 room components, nine staff components, ten hotel property/appearance components, six facility components, and 32 extra components (see Appendix 6). Dissatisfier framework consisted of 36

room components, ten staff components, eight hotel property/appearance components, seven facility components, and 35 extra components (see Appendix 7). A total of 3,020 satisfiers and 1,895 dissatisfiers in the both hotel segments were identified. In other hand, 85 satisfiers of upscale hotel were mentioned 1,639 times, and 75 satisfiers of budget hotel were mentioned 1,381 times. 90 dissatisfiers of upscale hotel were revealed 850 times and 80 dissatisfiers of budget hotel were revealed 1,045 time. Finally, the results showed 85 satisfiers and 90 dissatisfiers in the upscale hotel segment, and 75 satisfiers and 80 dissatisfiers in the budget hotel segment. On the basis of the results, the most significant nine satisfiers and dissatisfiers in two hotel segments were reported in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Structure of satisfiers and dissatisfiers between upscale and budget hotels

| Upscale Hotel (N=50) | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|---------------|-------|------------------------------------|--------------------------|---------------|
| Rank | Satisfiers | Components | Frequency (%) | Rank | Dissatisfiers | Components | Frequency (%) |
| 1 | Location | E | 139 (8.5) | 1 | Staff and their attitude | S | 78 (9.2) |
| 2 | Staff and their attitude | S | 136 (8.3) | 2 | Dirtiness | R | 50 (5.9) |
| 3 | Room size | R | 80 (4.9) | 3 | Service | S | 32 (3.7) |
| 4 | Service | S | 64 (3.9) | 4 | Noisiness | R | 30 (3.5) |
| 5 | Breakfast | E | 62 (3.8) | 5 | Management | E | 26 (3.1) |
| 6 | Room | R | 57 (3.5) | 6 | Manager attitude | S | 23 (2.7) |
| 7 | Bed | R | 50 (3.1) | 6 | Room service | S | 23 (2.7) |
| 8 | View | R | 49 (3.0) | 8 | Housekeeping service | S | 22 (2.6) |
| 9 | Neighborhood | E | 46 (2.8) | 9 | Restaurant | E | 21 (2.5) |
| 9 | Hotel style/design | H | 46 (2.8) | 9 | Bathroom | R | 21 (2.5) |
| Total | 85 | R: 4, S: 2 H: 1, E: 3 | 1,639 | Total | 90 | R: 3, S: 5 E: 2 | 850 |
| Budget Hotel (N=50) | | | | | | | |
| Rank | Satisfiers | Components | Frequency (%) | Rank | Dissatisfiers | Components | Frequency (%) |
| 1 | Location | E | 149 (10.8) | 1 | Dirtiness | R | 86 (8.2) |
| 2 | Staff and their attitude | S | 134 (9.7) | 2 | Staff and their attitude | S | 69 (6.6) |
| 3 | Room cleanliness | R | 105 (7.6) | 3 | Room size | R | 66 (6.3) |
| 4 | Transportation | E | 82 (5.9) | 4 | Noisiness | R | 62 (5.9) |
| 5 | Neighborhood | E | 76 (5.5) | 5 | Bathroom | R | 51 (4.9) |
| 6 | Room rate | E | 68 (4.9) | 6 | Bed | R | 32 (3.1) |
| 6 | Bed | R | 57 (4.1) | 7 | Temperature | R | 25 (2.4) |
| 8 | Bathroom | R | 56 (4.1) | 7 | Old building | H | 25 (2.4) |
| 9 | Breakfast | E | 45 (3.3) | 9 | Front desk staff and their service | S | 24 (2.3) |
| | | | | 9 | Smell | R | 24 (2.3) |
| | | | | 9 | Value for money | E | 24 (2.3) |
| Total | 75 | R: 3, S: 1 E: 5 | 1,381 | Total | 80 | R: 7, S: 2 H: 1, E: 1 | 1,045 |

* **Note:** Five hotel components (R: Room, S: Staff, H: Hotel property/appearance F: Facility, E: Extra component)

In upscale hotels, “location” (8.5%) was the highly ranked satisfier, followed by “staff and their attitude” (8.3%), “room size” (4.9%), “service” (3.9%), “breakfast” (3.8%), “overall room” (3.5%), “bed” (3.1%), “view” (3.0%), “neighborhood” (2.8%), and “hotel style/design” (2.8%). In addition, “staff and staff attitude” (9.2%) was the highly ranked dissatisfier, followed by “dirtiness” (5.9%), “service” (3.7%), “noisiness” (3.5%), “management” (3.1%), “manager attitude” (2.7%),

“room service” (2.7%), “housekeeping service” (2.6%), “restaurant” (2.5%), and “bathroom” (2.5%). The structure of satisfiers and dissatisfiers was differently identified except for “staff and their attitude” and “service” belonging to staff component.

In budget hotels, the most significant satisfier was “location” (10.8%), followed by “staff and their attitude” (9.7%), “room cleanliness” (7.6%), “transportation” (5.9%), “neighborhood” (5.5%), “room rate” (4.9%), “bed” (4.1%), “bathroom” (4.1%), and “breakfast” (3.3%). In addition, the most vital dissatisfier was “dirtiness” (8.2%), followed by “staff and staff attitude” (6.6%), “room size” (6.3%), “noisiness” (5.9%), “bathroom” (4.9%), “bed” (3.1%), “temperature” (2.4%), “old building” (2.4%), “front desk staff” (2.3%), “smell” (2.3%), and “value for money” (2.3%). Five factors of budget hotels were commonly revealed, namely “staff and their attitude”, “room cleanliness/dirtiness”, “bed”, “bathroom”, and “room rate/value for money”. Results showed dissatisfiers were partially differed from satisfiers. In addition, satisfiers and dissatisfiers in upscale hotels were also partially differed from those in budget hotels.

5.1.4 Satisfiers between upscale and budget hotels

As reported in Table 5.2, the significant satisfiers between upscale and budget hotels were compared. The commonly revealed satisfiers between both hotel segments were five satisfiers: “location”, “staff and their attitude”, “breakfast”, “bed”, and “neighborhood.” Among the five, “location” and “staff and their attitude” were ranked as first and second most significant satisfiers in both hotel segments. In other word, “room size”, “service”, “overall room”, “view from room” and “hotel style and design” were only revealed as satisfiers of upscale hotel. “Room cleanliness”, “transportation”, “price”, and “bathroom” were the dissatisfiers of budget hotel.

5.1.5 Dissatisfiers between upscale and budget hotels

As above described, the significant dissatisfiers between upscale and budget hotels were compared in the same way. Four dissatisfiers were discovered as common between upscale and budget hotels, namely “staff/staff attitude”, “dirtiness”, “noisiness” and “bathroom”. The first and second most significant dissatisfiers were “staff/staff attitude” and “dirtiness”. Except for four, “service”, “management”, “manager attitude”, “room service”, “housekeeping staff” and “restaurant” were the unique dissatisfiers in upscale hotels. On the other hand, “room size” “bed”, “room temperature”, “old building”, “front desk staff”, “smell”, and “value for money” were the dissatisfiers revealed in budget hotels.

5.2. Findings of Study II

A series of an EFA, a reliability α test, a CFA, and a SEM analysis were conducted. Validity and reliability were tested as estimates of Cronbach's alpha by conducting an EFA, a reliability α test, and a CFA. In particular, convergent validity and discriminant validity were checked. Finally, a SEM analysis was conducted to test the eight hypotheses for regression paths of the proposed conceptual model. The SEM analysis examined the inter-relational linkages through which an exogenous variable turns into an endogenous variable in a subsequent relationship within the conceptual model. It can comprise a set of linear equations and test more than two relationships among directly observable and unmeasured latent constructs simultaneously (Shook, Ketchen, Hult, & Kacmar, 2004). Therefore, the SEM was the most appropriate analysis for testing the relationships hypothesized in this study.

5.2.1 Data preparation procedures

In order to confirm that the quality of the data collected is appropriate for analysis, it is necessary to scan the raw data for outliers, missing data, and normality. These three criteria were considered the most important prerequisites for the data analysis for the following reasons. Firstly, an outlier is defined as an observed data point that substantially differs from the others. The effect of outliers is to bias the outcomes of statistical analysis such as the mean and normal distribution (Hair et al., 2009). There are two types of outliers: univariate and multivariate (Kline, 2011). Univariate outliers are scores that include extreme values and are particularly different from the mean on one single item. Multivariate outliers are scores that include unusual values for more than two items. The two types should be considered and eliminated from the dataset. A few univariate

outliers were deleted by descriptive data analysis using box plots in SPSS (Hair et al., 2009). In addition, a few other responses were deleted in order to eliminate multivariate outliers.

Secondly, missing data are generally ruled out if they are greater than 5% for a single variable (Kline, 2011). However, as this study involved an online survey, the validation settings provided by the survey company were utilized to collect data that would be valid for analysis. The company provides three additional functions to safeguard for the validity of the survey, namely survey validation, attention filters, and survey duration (Qualtrics, 2015). In particular, the validation options included a forced response metric which was set to reduce the amount of respondents who skipped questions or left large numbers of them blank. This was intended to minimize the probability of missing data by requiring respondents to complete all the responses in order to progress to the next page of the survey. Nevertheless, missing values were still found in the dataset. Since missing data can bias the statistical results and also indicates that the respondents did not have the intention of completing the survey, a few responses which included missing values were deleted. In addition, the two attention filter questions in the questionnaire were reviewed and the response removed if these were not answered properly.

Finally, the estimation technique of structural equation modeling (SEM) using partial least squares (PLS) does not require the assumption of normality (Chin, 1998). However, the normality of data is a basic assumption in multivariate analysis (Hair et al., 2009). A data sample was tested using the univariate normality indices of skewness and kurtosis. The absolute values of the normal distribution in both indices start at zero. Skewness refers to the asymmetrical shape of a distribution about its mean. If most scores are located below the mean, this indicates a positive skew, but if most scores are located above the mean, this indicates a negative skew. A positive kurtosis indicates a higher peak (leptokurtic distribution), while a negative kurtosis indicates a lower peak

(platykurtic distribution). Following the reference standard proposed by Kline (2011), the absolute cut-off value for skewness is 3.0 and for kurtosis is 8.0.

The absolute values of skewness for the data obtained in this study ranged from 0.951 to 2.225 for the upscale hotel dataset, and 0.623 to 2.558 for the budget. The absolute values of kurtosis were in the range 0.255 to 5.186 for the upscale hotel dataset, and from 0.762 to 7.329 for the budget. Most of the variables were negatively skewed and had positive kurtosis. However, it may be assumed that the data in this study did not severely violate the assumption of normality, as it was neither extremely skewed nor did it display extreme kurtosis. Moreover, a normal distribution is not the only consideration. Having a sample size of more than 200 significantly reduces the effect of having a non-normal distribution (Gao, Mokhtarian, & Johnston, 2008; Hair et al., 2009). The sample for this study (325 for upscale and 322 for budget hotels) is therefore large enough. In addition, the data were not extremely skewed and did not have extreme kurtosis (absolute cut-off values of 3.0 for skewness and 8.0 for kurtosis). Finally, as noted above, the SEM technique of PLS does not require the condition of normality. Therefore, further analysis of the data could be conducted. Table 5.3 reports the results of the normality testing.

Table 5.3 Results of univariate normality test

| Construct | Indicators | Upscale hotel dataset (N=325) | | | | Budget hotel dataset (N=322) | | | |
|----------------------------------|------------|-------------------------------|------------|----------|------------|------------------------------|------------|----------|------------|
| | | Skewness | Std. error | Kurtosis | Std. error | Skewness | Std. error | Kurtosis | Std. error |
| Customer dissatisfaction | ds1 | -1.414 | .135 | .320 | .270 | -1.536 | .136 | .762 | .271 |
| | ds2 | -1.382 | .135 | .255 | .270 | -1.535 | .136 | .786 | .271 |
| | ds3 | -1.379 | .135 | .256 | .270 | -1.572 | .136 | .881 | .271 |
| Attitude toward a hotel | at1 | -2.255 | .135 | 3.935 | .270 | -1.756 | .136 | 2.934 | .271 |
| | at2 | -2.194 | .135 | 3.644 | .270 | -1.829 | .136 | 3.416 | .271 |
| | at3 | -2.068 | .135 | 3.180 | .270 | -2.010 | .136 | 4.378 | .271 |
| | at4 | -2.123 | .135 | 3.369 | .270 | -2.162 | .136 | 4.702 | .271 |
| | at5 | -1.689 | .135 | 2.048 | .270 | -1.155 | .136 | 1.082 | .271 |
| | at6 | -1.877 | .135 | 2.517 | .270 | -1.854 | .136 | 3.788 | .271 |
| | at7 | -1.738 | .135 | 2.202 | .270 | -1.377 | .136 | 1.864 | .271 |
| Switching service provider | sw1 | -1.807 | .135 | 2.979 | .270 | -2.211 | .136 | 5.011 | .271 |
| | sw2 | -2.012 | .135 | 4.187 | .270 | -2.300 | .136 | 5.734 | .271 |
| | sw3 | -2.002 | .135 | 4.029 | .270 | -2.558 | .136 | 7.329 | .271 |
| | sw4 | -1.765 | .135 | 2.889 | .270 | -2.332 | .136 | 6.275 | .271 |
| Spreading negative word-of-mouth | nw1 | -1.234 | .135 | 1.011 | .270 | -1.139 | .136 | 1.088 | .271 |
| | nw2 | -1.416 | .135 | 1.493 | .270 | -1.573 | .136 | 2.603 | .271 |
| | nw3 | -1.791 | .135 | 3.506 | .270 | -1.820 | .136 | 4.260 | .271 |
| | nw4 | -1.376 | .135 | 1.569 | .270 | -1.376 | .136 | 1.668 | .271 |
| Complaining | cp1 | -2.214 | .135 | 5.186 | .270 | -1.746 | .136 | 3.368 | .271 |
| | cp2 | -1.994 | .135 | 3.793 | .270 | -1.565 | .136 | 2.586 | .271 |
| | cp3 | -1.748 | .135 | 2.870 | .270 | -1.583 | .136 | 2.227 | .271 |
| | cp4 | -.951 | .135 | .384 | .270 | -.623 | .136 | -.562 | .271 |

**Note:* Absolute cut-off values of skewness and kurtosis are 3.0 and 8.0, respectively

5.2.2 Profiles of respondents in main study

As presented in Table 5.4, information on the respondents such as social-demographic characteristics and hotel stay patterns were identified. Within the upscale hotel dataset, respondents consisted of about 60% of female and 40% of male customers. The major age range (about 48%) was between 21 and 40, and about 35% of them were older than 51. Nearly 60% of the respondents were married and almost 60% of them had Bachelor's degree or above as their education. Their occupations were mainly "professional/executive" (21.8%), followed by "retired" (13.8%), "homemaker" (13.5%), "education" (10.8%), and "company worker" (10.2%).

Regarding their annual household income, nearly 64 % of them declared their income level of US\$60,000 and above. Their major nationality and ethnicity were American (95.7%) and Caucasian (79.1%), respectively. In terms of their hotel stay pattern, the main reason for hotel stay was for leisure-related purposes (78.8%). Concerning the experience of a hotel stay in the year 2013, around 84% of them had made a trip more than twice in that particular year. Finally, approximately 50% of them showed a spending pattern for a hotel stay of more than US\$150 per night.

Within the budget hotel dataset, nearly 67% of the respondents were female. The age was almost equally distributed across the different age ranges with around 20%, except for the categories of “20 or less” (2.5%) and “41-50” (13.8%). Approximately 52% of them were married. Interestingly, about 52% of the respondents were college students or those educated to high school or lower. In addition, nearly 45% of them were Bachelor degree holders. It shows that the respondents of the budget hotel survey were relatively less educated than those who responded to the upscale hotel survey. In terms of their occupation, about 20% of them were “retired”, followed by “homemaker” (11.5%), “professional/executive” (10.2%), and “company worker” (9.9%). About 62% of them showed lower than US\$60,000 of their annual household income. Most respondents were American (96.3%) and Caucasian (80.4%). Their main purpose for their hotel stay was leisure-focused (68.3%). Around 81% of the respondents had experienced hotel stay more than twice in 2013. Interestingly, nearly 88% of them spent between US\$51 and US\$150 on their hotel room rate. None of them spent more than US\$ 300. The profiles of the respondents is exhibited in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4 Profile of respondents in the main survey

| Characteristics | | Upscale hotel dataset (N=325) | | Budget hotel dataset (N=322) | |
|---|--|-------------------------------|------|------------------------------|------|
| | | Frequency | % | Frequency | % |
| Gender | Male | 128 | 39.4 | 108 | 33.5 |
| | Female | 197 | 60.6 | 214 | 66.5 |
| Age | 20 or less | 8 | 2.5 | 12 | 3.7 |
| | 21-30 | 88 | 27.1 | 69 | 21.4 |
| | 31-40 | 69 | 21.2 | 66 | 20.5 |
| | 41-50 | 45 | 13.8 | 33 | 10.2 |
| | 51-60 | 63 | 19.4 | 64 | 19.9 |
| | 61 or more | 52 | 16.0 | 78 | 24.2 |
| Marital status | Single | 110 | 33.8 | 124 | 38.5 |
| | Married | 197 | 60.6 | 168 | 52.2 |
| | Other | 18 | 5.5 | 30 | 9.3 |
| The highest level of education attained | High school or less | 44 | 13.5 | 87 | 27.0 |
| | College student | 84 | 25.8 | 80 | 24.8 |
| | Bachelor's Degree | 134 | 41.2 | 146 | 45.3 |
| | Master's degree | 55 | 16.9 | 7 | 2.2 |
| | Doctoral degree | 8 | 2.5 | 2 | 0.6 |
| Occupation | Professional/Executive | 71 | 21.8 | 33 | 10.2 |
| | Education | 35 | 10.8 | 19 | 5.9 |
| | Company worker | 33 | 10.2 | 32 | 9.9 |
| | Public servant | 8 | 2.5 | 12 | 3.7 |
| | Sales/Service | 16 | 4.9 | 21 | 6.5 |
| | Homemaker | 44 | 13.5 | 37 | 11.5 |
| | Self employed | 17 | 5.2 | 21 | 6.5 |
| | Student | 22 | 6.8 | 20 | 6.2 |
| | Retired | 45 | 13.8 | 65 | 20.2 |
| | Unemployed | 8 | 2.5 | 30 | 9.3 |
| | Other | 26 | 8.0 | 32 | 9.9 |
| Annual household income | Less than US\$ 40,000 | 58 | 17.8 | 122 | 37.9 |
| | US\$ 40,000–59,999 | 60 | 18.5 | 76 | 23.6 |
| | US\$ 60,000–79,999 | 70 | 21.5 | 60 | 18.6 |
| | US\$ 80,000–99,999 | 61 | 18.8 | 25 | 7.8 |
| | US\$ 100,000 or more | 76 | 23.4 | 39 | 12.1 |
| Nationality | American | 311 | 95.7 | 310 | 96.3 |
| | Other | 14 | 4.3 | 12 | 3.7 |
| Ethnicity | Caucasian | 257 | 79.1 | 259 | 80.4 |
| | African-American | 23 | 7.1 | 20 | 6.2 |
| | Hispanic | 14 | 4.3 | 19 | 5.9 |
| | Asian | 17 | 5.2 | 15 | 4.7 |
| | Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islander | 1 | 0.3 | 0 | 0 |
| | American Indian | 2 | 0.6 | 3 | 0.9 |
| | Other | 11 | 3.4 | 6 | 1.9 |
| Leisure | 256 | 78.8 | 220 | 68.3 | |

| | | | | | |
|---|--------------------------------|-----|------|-----|------|
| General purpose to stay | Business | 42 | 12.9 | 21 | 6.5 |
| | Visiting Friends and Relatives | 24 | 7.4 | 68 | 21.1 |
| | Other | 3 | 0.9 | 13 | 4.0 |
| Frequency of stay at an upscale/budget hotel since January 2013 | Once | 51 | 15.7 | 61 | 18.9 |
| | 2 times | 104 | 32.0 | 107 | 33.2 |
| | 3 times | 64 | 19.7 | 65 | 20.2 |
| | 4 times | 47 | 14.5 | 36 | 11.2 |
| | 5 times or more | 59 | 18.2 | 53 | 16.5 |
| Average spending on room rate per night | US\$ 50 or under | 3 | 0.9 | 23 | 7.1 |
| | US\$ 51~100 | 15 | 4.6 | 192 | 59.6 |
| | US\$ 101~150 | 59 | 18.2 | 88 | 27.3 |
| | US\$ 151~200 | 81 | 24.9 | 18 | 5.6 |
| | US\$ 201~300 | 79 | 24.3 | 1 | 0.3 |
| | US\$ 301~400 | 51 | 15.7 | 0 | 0 |
| | US\$ 401~500 | 23 | 7.1 | 0 | 0 |
| | US\$ 501~600 | 13 | 4.0 | 0 | 0 |
| | US\$ 601 or more | 1 | 0.3 | 0 | 0 |

5.2.3 Descriptive statistics in main study

Descriptive statistics for the 22 measurement items of five constructs were estimated in order to provide an indication of the level of their dissatisfaction related responses with each statement. The number of valid samples, means, and standard deviations are described in Table 5.5. Within the upscale hotel dataset, the mean values of the three items measuring customer dissatisfaction were 5.69, 5.65, and 5.66, respectively. Those of the seven items measuring attitude toward a hotel were 6.24, 6.22, 6.18, 6.23, 5.95, 6.09, and 5.96. It shows that the mean values of the construct of attitude toward a hotel were slightly higher than those of customer dissatisfaction. The mean values of the four items measuring switching service provider were 6.28, 6.29, 6.34, and 6.32. Those of the four items measuring spreading negative word-of-mouth were 5.94, 6.09, 6.16, and 5.99. Those of the four items measuring complaining were 6.30, 6.28, 6.12, and 5.54. The highest rated item (6.34) was one of items of switching behavioral intention,

whereas the lowest rated measurement item (5.54) was one of the items of complaining behavioral intention.

Within the budget hotel dataset, the mean values of the three items measuring customer dissatisfaction were 5.75, 5.76, and 5.79, respectively. Those of the seven items measuring attitude toward a hotel were 6.32, 6.34, 6.37, 6.39, 6.07, 6.32, and 6.14. Here, the mean values of the construct of attitude toward a hotel was also slightly higher than those of customer dissatisfaction. The mean values of the four items measuring switching service provider were 6.42, 6.43, 6.50, and 6.36. Those of the four items measuring spreading negative word-of-mouth were 5.90, 6.23, 6.33, and 6.09. Those of the four items measuring complaining were 6.18, 6.10, 6.09, and 5.25. The highest rated item (6.50) was one of items of switching behavioral intention, while the lowest rated item (5.25) was one of the items of complaining behavioral intention. Overall, most of mean values were highly rated based on the seven-Likert scale. It indicates that the data reflected the negative experiences of hotel customers by showing most responses that mainly answered negatively on the questionnaire. The datasets were considered as adequate for further data analysis.

Table 5.5 Descriptive statistics of means, and standard deviations

| Construct | Items | Upscale hotel dataset (N=325) | | Budget hotel dataset (N=322) | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------------------|----------------|------------------------------|----------------|
| | | Mean | Std. Deviation | Mean | Std. Deviation |
| Customer dissatisfaction | Dissatisfaction 1 | 5.689 | 2.181 | 5.755 | 2.076 |
| | Dissatisfaction 2 | 5.652 | 2.169 | 5.764 | 2.045 |
| | Dissatisfaction 3 | 5.662 | 2.158 | 5.786 | 2.057 |
| Attitude toward a hotel | Attitude 1 | 6.243 | 1.565 | 6.320 | 1.035 |
| | Attitude 2 | 6.225 | 1.588 | 6.342 | 1.002 |
| | Attitude 3 | 6.175 | 1.588 | 6.373 | 1.004 |
| | Attitude 4 | 6.234 | 1.534 | 6.394 | 1.057 |
| | Attitude 5 | 5.954 | 1.583 | 6.065 | 1.082 |
| | Attitude 6 | 6.086 | 1.573 | 6.320 | 1.017 |
| | Attitude 7 | 5.957 | 1.588 | 6.143 | 1.055 |
| Switching service provider | Switching 1 | 6.283 | 1.147 | 6.416 | 1.008 |
| | Switching 2 | 6.292 | 1.159 | 6.435 | 0.985 |
| | Switching 3 | 6.339 | 1.115 | 6.497 | 0.951 |
| | Switching 4 | 6.323 | 1.062 | 6.357 | 1.105 |
| Spreading negative word-of-mouth | Negative w-o-m 1 | 5.939 | 1.311 | 5.898 | 1.258 |
| | Negative w-o-m 2 | 6.089 | 1.235 | 6.227 | 1.068 |
| | Negative w-o-m 3 | 6.163 | 1.189 | 6.326 | 0.978 |
| | Negative w-o-m 4 | 5.988 | 1.281 | 6.093 | 1.148 |
| Complaining | Complaining 1 | 6.295 | 1.227 | 6.183 | 1.144 |
| | Complaining 2 | 6.277 | 1.261 | 6.103 | 1.189 |
| | Complaining 3 | 6.120 | 1.301 | 6.093 | 1.269 |
| | Complaining 4 | 5.545 | 1.481 | 5.248 | 1.660 |

* *Note:* 1. Customer dissatisfaction was measured on a seven-Likert scale with 1 indicating “Not totally dissatisfied” to 7 indicating “Highly dissatisfied”

2. Attitude toward a hotel was measured on a seven semantic differential scales anchored by with 1 indicating “Positive scales” to 7 indicating “Negative scales”

3. Switching service provider, Spreading negative word-of-mouth, Complaining were measured on a seven-Likert scale with 1 indicating “Strongly disagree” to 7 indicating “Strongly agree”

5.2.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis

5.2.4.1 EFA analysis in the upscale hotel dataset

On the basis of the measurement items derived from the previous literature, a survey questionnaire was designed and data obtained from the main survey was analyzed. Through gaining enough two datasets, an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was able to be conducted to identify the compositions of constructs used in the conceptual model.

First, EFA empirically investigates whether there is an underlying dimension that is highly correlated among items, and verify the dimension as construct (Churchill, 1979; Hair et al., 2009). Factor loading measures the correlation among measurement items and indicate convergent validity. Items should be removed if the factor loading is lower than 0.4 (Field, 2009). Moreover, discriminant validity is supported if the factor loading is greater than 0.6 as no cross-loadings (Kaiser, 1974). The Kaiser Mayer-Olkin was used to check the sampling adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's test of Sphericity was used to check validity of correlation matrix. More than 0.7 of the estimates of the KMO is acceptable, and more than 0.9 is excellent (Field, 2009).

Second, following the validity test by the EFA, a reliability test was performed to investigate internal consistency between items by looking at the item-to-total correlations (Churchill, 1979). Cronbach's α is the most common estimate to confirm the construct reliability. Higher than 0.9 of an estimate of Cronbach's α means excellent, higher than 0.8 means good, and higher than 0.7 is acceptable (Field, 2009). As a result, the EFA results of the main survey were compared with those of the pilot test to confirm the dimension of constructs. In this study, since the seven measurement items of attitude toward a hotel were derived from two studies, EFA was needed to verify the dimension as one construct. In terms of rotation method for EFA, a varimax rotation method was used to maximize variance in factor loading and a principal components method was used to extract each underlying construct.

According to the criterion of Cronbach's α , factor loading (Chen & Hsu, 2001; Gursoy & Gavcar, 2003), and item-to-total correlations (Zaichkowsky, 1985), the items were successfully verified and satisfactory results of EFA analysis were provided. For example, in the dataset of 325 samples who used an upscale hotel, the measurement items of each construct were extracted

onto each construct. Factor loadings on most items were greater than 0.90 and all of them showed above 0.75 which is an acceptable standard of factor loading (Hair et al., 2009). KMO values of all items were greater than 0.70, while Bartlett's test of sphericity was highly supported at the .000 significance level. In addition, Cronbach's α values were greater than 0.80. When it comes to comparing the results of the main test to those of the pilot test, the EFA results of main test in the upscale hotel dataset was deemed greatly similar results except for the factor loading values. Table 5.6 shows the results of the EFA analysis in the upscale hotel dataset.

Table 5.6 Results of the EFA analysis in the upscale hotel dataset

| Upscale hotel (N=325) | Factor loading | Item-to-total correlation | Eigenvalue | Variance explained | KMO | χ^2 (df) | Cronbach's α | |
|----------------------------------|----------------|---------------------------|------------|--------------------|------|----------------|---------------------|------|
| Customer dissatisfaction | CD | | 2.940 | 98.011 | .786 | 1941.464 (3)* | .990 | |
| | 1 | .991 | | | | | | .979 |
| | 2 | .987 | | | | | | .971 |
| | 3 | .992 | | | | | | .982 |
| Attitude toward a hotel | AT | | 6.512 | 93.023 | .940 | 4599.256 (21)* | .987 | |
| | 1 | .965 | | | | | | .952 |
| | 2 | .977 | | | | | | .968 |
| | 3 | .974 | | | | | | .964 |
| | 4 | .975 | | | | | | .965 |
| | 5 | .951 | | | | | | .934 |
| | 6 | .969 | | | | | | .957 |
| 7 | .939 | .919 | | | | | | |
| Switching service provider | SW | | 3.402 | 85.041 | .857 | 1221.113 (6)* | .941 | |
| | 1 | .944 | | | | | | .896 |
| | 2 | .937 | | | | | | .885 |
| | 3 | .926 | | | | | | .866 |
| Spreading negative word-of-mouth | NW | | 3.365 | 84.128 | .824 | 1156.012 (6)* | .936 | |
| | 1 | .905 | | | | | | .832 |
| | 2 | .938 | | | | | | .885 |
| | 3 | .912 | | | | | | .841 |
| Complaining | CP | | 2.980 | 74.499 | .791 | 873.510 (6)* | .876 | |
| | 1 | .929 | | | | | | .842 |
| | 2 | .933 | | | | | | .850 |
| | 3 | .827 | | | | | | .683 |
| | 4 | .750 | .598 | | | | | |

* *Note*: 1. Extraction method: Principal Component Analysis, Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization
 2. Bartlett's test of sphericity: χ^2 (df), * $p < 0.001$

5.2.4.2 EFA analysis in the budget hotel dataset

As displayed in Table 5.7, in the dataset of 322 samples collected from budget hotels, the measurement items of each constructs were extracted onto each construct. Factor loadings of most items exceeded 0.80 except for one item of complaining (0.78). But all items were still greater than 0.75 which is an acceptable level of factor loading (Hair et al., 2009; Field, 2009).

KMO values of all items were greater than 0.79 and Bartlett's test of sphericity was highly supported at the .000 significance level. Moreover, Cronbach's α values were greater than 0.85. Accordingly, EFA analysis in the budget hotel dataset also provided satisfactory results and all measurement items were retained for the subsequent factor validation of CFA analysis. Table 5.7 reports the results of the EFA analysis in the budget hotel dataset.

Table 5.7 Results of the EFA analysis in the budget hotel dataset

| Budget hotel (N=322) | Factor loading | Item-to-total correlation | Eigen-value | Variance explained | KMO | χ^2 (df) | Coefficient α | |
|----------------------------------|----------------|---------------------------|-------------|--------------------|------|----------------|----------------------|------|
| Customer dissatisfaction | CD | | 2.953 | 98.441 | .792 | 2065.475 (3)* | .992 | |
| | 1 | .993 | | | | | | .984 |
| | 2 | .993 | | | | | | .984 |
| | 3 | .991 | | | | | | .979 |
| Attitude toward a hotel | AT | | 5.874 | 83.917 | .924 | 3025.856 (21)* | .967 | |
| | 1 | .933 | | | | | | .904 |
| | 2 | .945 | | | | | | .920 |
| | 3 | .936 | | | | | | .908 |
| | 4 | .937 | | | | | | .910 |
| | 5 | .848 | | | | | | .801 |
| | 6 | .913 | | | | | | .881 |
| 7 | .896 | .861 | | | | | | |
| Switching service provider | SW | | 3.377 | 84.434 | .839 | 1374.791 (6)* | .934 | |
| | 1 | .938 | | | | | | .877 |
| | 2 | .962 | | | | | | .918 |
| | 3 | .950 | | | | | | .896 |
| Spreading negative word-of-mouth | NW | | 3.032 | 75.799 | .808 | 773.799 (6)* | .889 | |
| | 1 | .842 | | | | | | .724 |
| | 2 | .916 | | | | | | .836 |
| | 3 | .861 | | | | | | .743 |
| Complaining | CP | | 2.957 | 73.928 | .796 | 744.976 (6)* | .865 | |
| | 1 | .890 | | | | | | .767 |
| | 2 | .915 | | | | | | .822 |
| | 3 | .848 | | | | | | .713 |
| | 4 | .780 | .635 | | | | | |

* **Note:** 1. Extraction method: Principal Component Analysis, Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization
 2. Bartlett's test of sphericity: χ^2 (df), * $p < 0.001$

5.2.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

5.2.5.1 CFA analysis in the upscale hotel dataset

SEM is a well-known analysis technique in estimating multiple regression equations simultaneously, and contains two components which are measurement model and structural model (Hair et al., 2009). First, measurement model is described as an integration of multiple indicators for a construct and it is analyzed by CFA to confirm how well the indicators reflect the corresponding construct on the basis of a proposed measurement theory. CFA is to statistically evaluate the data fit of a set of indicators in a single measurement model. It suggests the construct validity that deals with the accuracy of measurement (Kline, 2011).

Construct validity is the agreement among indicators of constructs through the fulfilment of a high level of convergent validity through factor loadings, variance extracted and reliability, and discriminant validity (correlation) (Hair et al, 2009). Convergent validity is regarded that items as indicators of a specific construct should converge or share a high proportion of variance in common (Bagozzi & Yi, 2012). Factor loading, Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Construct Reliability (CR) are all estimated to assess convergent validity. The factor loading should be 0.5 or higher, or ideally 0.7 or higher. The standard of a good level for AVE is 0.5 or higher, while the standard of acceptable level for CR is between 0.6 and 0.7 and 0.7 or higher is a good reliability (Hair et al., 2009).

Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which a given construct is different from others (Hair et al., 2009). Squared Multiple Correlation (SMC) measures the reliability of measurement items by presenting the proportion of variance for each measurement item explained by each construct. The satisfactory level of discriminant validity is when the estimated

AVE for each construct is greater than the highest Squared Multiple Correlation (SMC) coefficients for corresponding constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

In this study, before conducting SEM, two steps were employed to validate the conceptual model. First, a CFA was conducted for four endogenous and one exogenous constructs with the two datasets of upscale and budget hotels to confirm that the constructs can represent the measurement items. Afterwards, validity parameters were calculated and the CFA of the overall measurement model was conducted. Table 5.8 reports the standardized factor loading, t-value, p-value, AVE, and CR for convergent validity, and Figure 5.3 display the measurement model of upscale hotel dataset.

Table 5.8 Results of the CFA analysis in the upscale hotel dataset

| Upscale hotel (N=325) | | Estimate | Standard error | Critical ratio (t-value) | p- value | Standardized factor loading | AVE | CR |
|--|-----|----------|-------------------|--------------------------------|-------------|--------------------------------|-------|-------|
| Customer dissatisfaction | DS1 | 1.000 | | | | .987 | 0.874 | 0.954 |
| | DS2 | .984 | .015 | 65.527 | * | .977 | | |
| | DS3 | .993 | .012 | 83.360 | * | .991 | | |
| Attitude toward a hotel | AT1 | 1.000 | | | | .963 | 0.815 | 0.969 |
| | AT2 | 1.035 | .020 | 52.575 | * | .982 | | |
| | AT3 | 1.030 | .020 | 50.585 | * | .978 | | |
| | AT4 | .995 | .020 | 50.326 | * | .977 | | |
| | AT5 | .978 | .026 | 37.114 | * | .931 | | |
| | AT6 | .997 | .023 | 42.685 | * | .955 | | |
| | AT7 | .962 | .028 | 33.874 | * | .913 | | |
| Switching service provider | SW1 | 1.000 | | | | .925 | 0.771 | 0.931 |
| | SW2 | 1.008 | .035 | 29.042 | * | .922 | | |
| | SW3 | .952 | .035 | 27.497 | * | .905 | | |
| | SW4 | .834 | .038 | 22.240 | * | .834 | | |
| Spreading negative word-of-mouth | NW1 | 1.000 | | | | .855 | 0.700 | 0.903 |
| | NW2 | 1.025 | .043 | 23.808 | * | .931 | | |
| | NW3 | .952 | .043 | 22.192 | * | .897 | | |
| | NW4 | .988 | .048 | 20.663 | * | .864 | | |
| Complaining | CP1 | 1.000 | | | | .934 | 0.527 | 0.813 |
| | CP2 | 1.040 | .034 | 30.535 | * | .946 | | |
| | CP3 | .832 | .048 | 17.260 | * | .733 | | |
| | CP4 | .825 | .060 | 13.758 | * | .638 | | |
| N= 325, χ^2 (199) = 596.313 (p=.000); TLI=.957; CFI=.963; RMSEA=.078; NFI=.946; GFI= .851 | | | | | | | | |

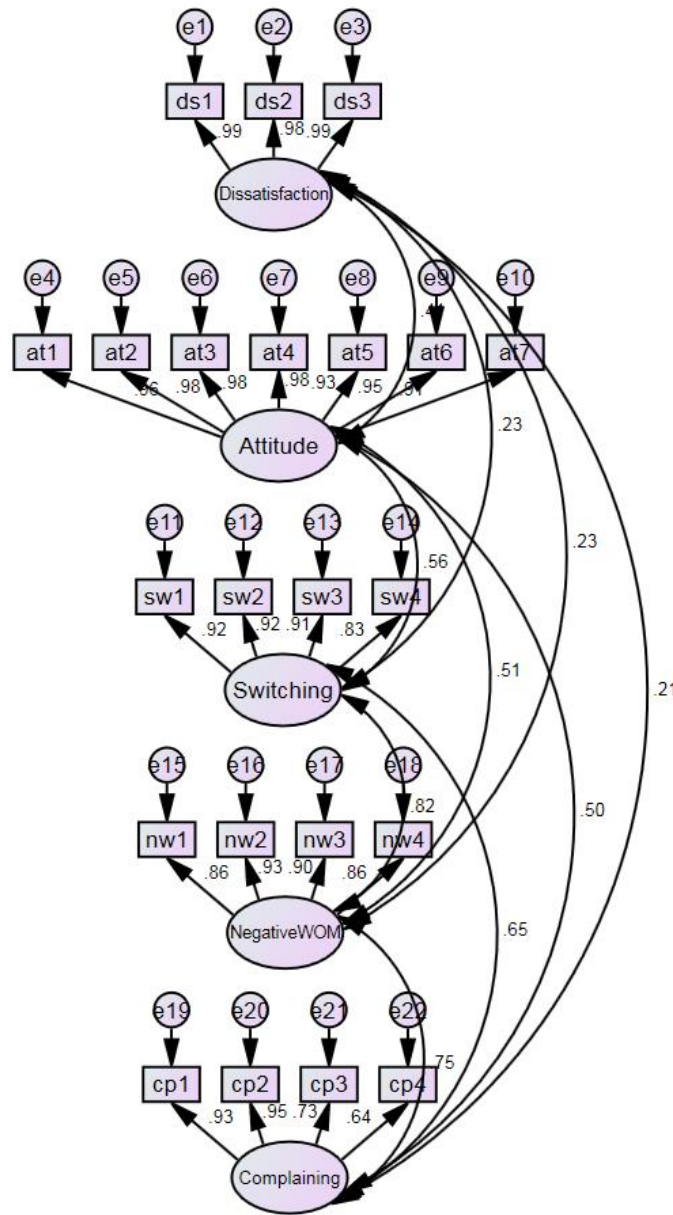
* **Note:** 1. Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = $(\sum \text{standardized factor loadings}^2) /$

$[(\sum \text{standardized factor loadings}^2) + \sum \text{measurement errors}]$

2. Composite Construct Reliability (CCR) = $(\sum \text{standardized loadings})^2 / [(\sum \text{standardized loadings})^2 + (\sum \text{measurement errors})]$

3. * $p < 0.001$

Figure 5.3 Measurement model of upscale hotel dataset



In order to confirm the measurement model within the upscale hotel dataset, a CFA was conducted to verify the five constructs using 325 valid samples of upscale hotel dataset. The five constructs were indicated as latent variables and the 22 measurement items were considered as

indicators. Firstly, the measurement model was assessed by a variety of goodness-of-fit measures. The results of the measurement model showed a good model fit with the exception of the chi-square value ($\chi^2 (199) = 596.313, p=.000$). However, since the chi-square value is sensitive to a sample size, other fit indices are extensively considered to evaluate a model (Bollen, 1989; Hair et al., 2009; Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). The measurement model fits are as follows: Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) =.957, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) =.963, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) =.078, Normed Fit Index (NFI) =.946, and Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = .851.

Following the measurement model fit, parameters for reliability and validity were estimated. Reliability was assessed by estimating construct reliability and it is regarded as a reliable level when the value is greater than .70 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2009). Results indicated that CR values of all five constructs were greater than 0.8 (e.g. dissatisfaction 0.954, attitude toward a hotel 0.969, switching service provider 0.931, spreading negative word-of-mouth 0.903, and complaining 0.813). It was proved that the proposed model was highly reliable on the basis of the standard.

Validity is assessed through the fulfilment of a high level of convergent validity and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2009). First, convergent validity regards that items as indicators of a specific construct should share a high proportion of variance in common. It was assessed by standardized factor loadings and AVE. For example, all the factor loadings were greater than 0.6 as acceptable level. In addition, all the values of AVE were also assessed to clarify how much the latent variable explains the variance of indicators (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). All the values of AVE were above 0.5, which indicate a satisfactory degree (e.g. dissatisfaction: 0.874, attitude toward a hotel: 0.815, switching service provider: 0.771, spreading negative word-of-mouth:

0.700, and complaining: 0.527). Therefore, the constructs indicated a satisfactory level in measuring convergent validity (Hair et al., 2009) as shown in Table 5.8.

Moreover, discriminant validity refers to the extent to which a given construct is different from others (Hair et al., 2009) and was assessed by estimating the comparison of the values of the AVE to the squared multiple correlations. Squared multiple correlation measures the reliability of measurement items by presenting the proportion of variance for each measurement item explained by each construct. The satisfactory level of discriminant validity is when the estimated AVE for each construct is greater than the squared multiple correlation for corresponding constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

The values of AVE shown in Table 5.8 were dissatisfaction 0.874, attitude toward a hotel 0.815, switching service provider 0.771, spreading negative word-of-mouth 0.700, and complaining 0.527. The values were compared to each correlation. All AVE values were close to or greater than the highest squared correlations in the upscale hotel data set. Therefore, the measurement model demonstrated discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Correlations matrix containing squared multiple correlations (SMC) in the upscale hotel dataset is presented in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9 Correlations matrix in the upscale hotel dataset

| Upscale | DS | AT | SW | NW | CP |
|---------|--------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|-------|
| DS | 1.000 | | | | |
| AT | .521 (.271) | 1.000 | | | |
| SW | -.423 (.179) | -.764 (.584) | 1.000 | | |
| NW | -.841 (.707) | -.910* (.828) | .598 (.358) | 1.000 | |
| CP | .368 (.135) | .447 (.200) | .222 (.049) | .401 (.161) | 1.000 |
| Mean | 5.668 | 6.125 | 6.309 | 6.045 | 6.059 |
| S.D | .019 | .127 | .026 | .101 | .352 |

* *Note:* 1. DS (customer dissatisfaction), AT (attitude toward a hotel), SW (switching service provider), NW (spreading negative word-of-mouth), CP (complaining)

2. * $p < .05$

3. (Squared Multiple Correlations)

5.2.5.2 CFA analysis in the budget hotel dataset

Like in the upscale hotel dataset, the measurement model in the budget hotel dataset was examined using 322 valid samples. First, the measurement model was evaluated by the fit indices such as the chi-square value ($\chi^2 (199) = 592.045$ ($p=.000$), and a variety of goodness-of-fit measures (TLI=.948; CFI=.955; RMSEA=.078; NFI=.934; GFI=.853). The results showed that the measurement model acceptably fits the budget hotel dataset.

To assess reliability, CR values were greater than 0.7 (e.g. dissatisfaction 0.967, attitude toward a hotel 0.964, switching service provider 0.935, spreading negative word-of-mouth 0.866, and complaining 0.792). It showed that the model was highly reliable on the basis of the standard. For convergent validity, all the factor loadings were greater than 0.6 as acceptable level. The AVE values were close or above 0.5, which indicate a satisfactory degree (e.g. dissatisfaction 0.908, attitude toward a hotel 0.794, switching service provider 0.785, spreading negative word-of-mouth 0.619, and complaining 0.492). Therefore, the constructs indicated a satisfactory level in measuring convergent validity (Hair et al., 2009) as shown in Table 5.10, and Figure 5.4 display the measurement model of budget hotel dataset.

Table 5.10 Results of the CFA analysis in the budget hotel dataset

| Budget hotel (N=322) | | Estimate | Standard error | Critical ratio (t-value) | p- value | Standardized factor loading | AVE | CR |
|---|-----|----------|-------------------|--------------------------------|-------------|--------------------------------|-------|-------|
| Customer dissatisfaction | DS1 | 1.000 | | | | .990 | 0.908 | 0.967 |
| | DS2 | .986 | .011 | 90.579 | * | .991 | | |
| | DS3 | .984 | .013 | 76.601 | * | .983 | | |
| Attitude toward a hotel | AT1 | 1.000 | | | | .941 | 0.794 | 0.964 |
| | AT2 | .978 | .027 | 36.258 | * | .951 | | |
| | AT3 | .977 | .027 | 35.781 | * | .948 | | |
| | AT4 | 1.019 | .030 | 34.232 | * | .939 | | |
| | AT5 | .870 | .043 | 20.290 | * | .783 | | |
| | AT6 | .911 | .034 | 26.502 | * | .872 | | |
| | AT7 | .914 | .038 | 24.170 | * | .844 | | |
| Switching service provider | SW1 | 1.000 | | | | .915 | 0.785 | 0.935 |
| | SW2 | 1.036 | .030 | 34.130 | * | .970 | | |
| | SW3 | .985 | .031 | 32.263 | * | .954 | | |
| | SW4 | .868 | .052 | 16.808 | * | .725 | | |
| Spreading negative word-of-mouth | NW1 | 1.000 | | | | .757 | 0.619 | 0.866 |
| | NW2 | 1.013 | .060 | 16.869 | * | .902 | | |
| | NW3 | .870 | .055 | 15.782 | * | .847 | | |
| | NW4 | .942 | .065 | 14.400 | * | .781 | | |
| Complaining | CP1 | 1.000 | | | | .852 | 0.492 | 0.792 |
| | CP2 | 1.145 | .053 | 21.647 | * | .939 | | |
| | CP3 | .974 | .062 | 15.756 | * | .748 | | |
| | CP4 | 1.155 | .084 | 13.709 | * | .678 | | |
| N= 322, χ^2 (199) = 592.045 (p=.000); TLI=.948; CFI=.955; RMSEA=.078; NFI=.934; GFI=.853 | | | | | | | | |

* **Note:** 1. Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = $(\sum \text{standardized factor loadings}^2) /$

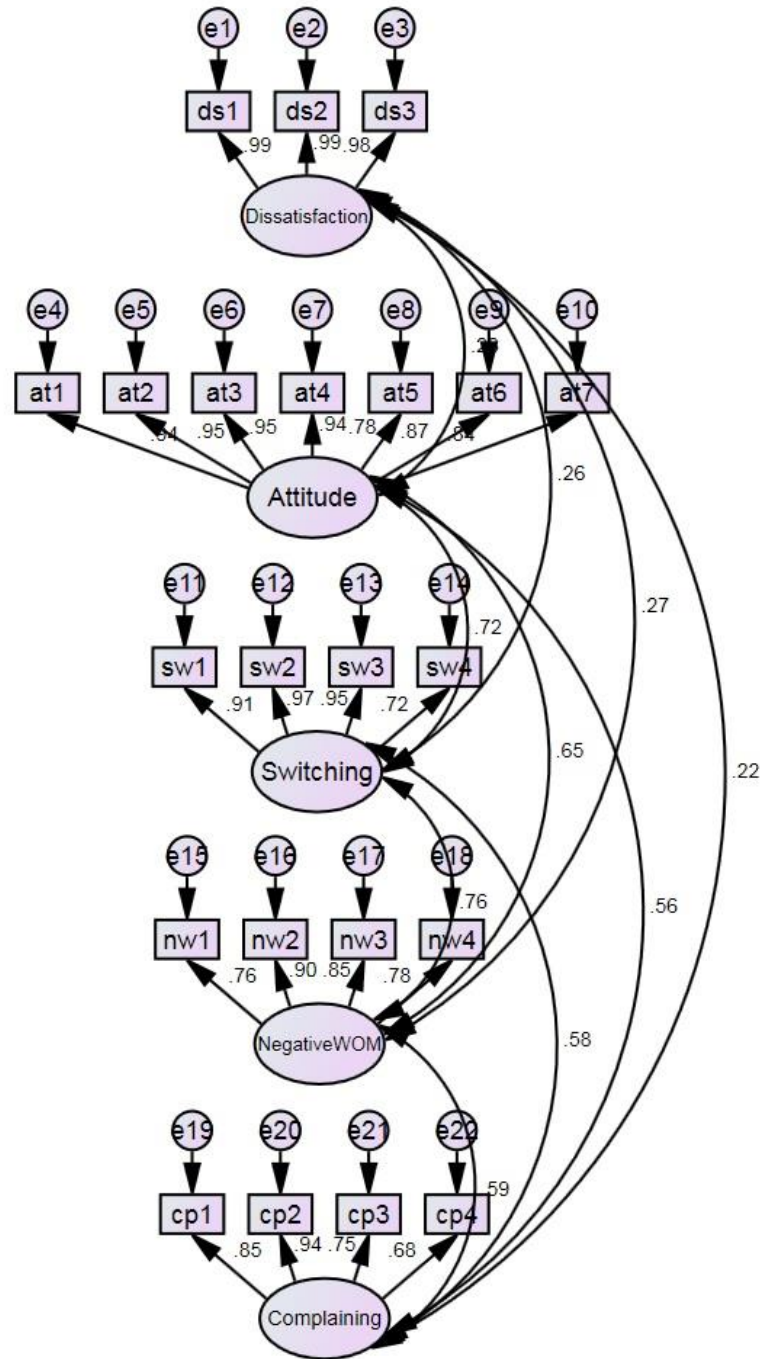
$[(\sum \text{standardized factor loadings}^2) + \sum \text{measurement errors}]$

2. Composite Construct Reliability (CCR) = $(\sum \text{standardized loadings})^2 / [(\sum \text{standardized loadings})^2 +$

$(\sum \text{measurement errors})]$

3. * $p < 0.001$

Figure 5.4 Measurement model of budget hotel dataset



To assess discriminant validity in the budget hotel dataset, the values of AVE shown in Table 5.10 were dissatisfaction (0.908), attitude toward a hotel (0.794), switching service

provider (0.785), spreading negative word-of-mouth (0.619), and complaining (0.492). The values were compared to each correlation. All AVE values were close to or greater than the highest squared correlations on the data sets. Therefore, the measurement model demonstrated discriminant validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Correlations matrix containing squared multiple correlations (SMC) in the budget hotel dataset is presented in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11 Correlations matrix in the budget hotel dataset

| Budget | DS | AT | SW | NW | CP |
|--------|--------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------|
| DS | 1.000 | | | | |
| AT | .992* (.984) | 1.000 | | | |
| SW | .997* (.994) | -.217 (.047) | 1.000 | | |
| NW | .864 (.746) | .482 (.232) | .611 (.373) | 1.000 | |
| CP | -.792 (.627) | -.803 (.645) | .756 (.572) | .063 (.004) | 1.000 |
| Mean | 5.769 | 6.280 | 6.426 | 6.136 | 5.907 |
| S.D | .016 | .125 | .0578 | .185 | .441 |

* *Note:* 1. DS (customer dissatisfaction), AT (attitude toward a hotel), SW (switching service provider), NW (spreading negative word-of-mouth), CP (complaining)

2. * $p < .05$

3. (Squared Multiple Correlations)

5.2.6 Structural Equation Modeling

5.2.6.1 Overall model fit

After establishing a secure measurement model regarding the model fit, reliability and validity by conducting a CFA, a SEM was undertaken to test the main conceptual model representing the eight hypotheses of Study II. A maximum likelihood estimation method was used to estimate the conceptual model. This was used to check whether the hypothesized model was consistent with the data collected for this study.

Before testing the hypotheses, model's goodness-of-fit is assessed. Indices of the proposed conceptual model indicate χ^2 chi-square (df), p -value, TLI (Tucker Lewis Index), CFI

(Comparative Fit Index), RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation), NFI (Normed Fit Index), and GFI (Goodness-of-Fit Index). χ^2 statistics with the associated degrees of freedom is the most fundamental measurement of goodness-of-fit to quantify the differences between observed and estimated covariance matrices (Hair et al., 2009). But the χ^2 value is sensitive to the sample size and the number of observed variables. Therefore, it cannot be used as a sole indicator of the SEM model fit (Hair et al., 2009). Other alternative indices are the TLI and the CFI (for goodness-of-fit index), the RMSEA (for badness-of-fit index), the NFI (for incremental fit index), and the GFI (for absolute sit index). The criteria of the overall model fit are presented in Table 5.12.

Table 5.12 Cut-off criteria of the overall model fit

| | | <i>N</i> > 250 (12 < <i>m</i> < 30) | | | | |
|------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Indices | χ^2 (df) | TLI | CFI | RMSEA | NFI | GFI |
| Cut-off criteria | Significant p-value can be expected | > .92 | > .92 | < .07 | > .90 | > .90 |

* **Note:** 1. *N* = number of samples, *m* = number of observed variables (measurement items)
 2. Source: Hair et al. (2009)

5.2.6.2 Regression paths of the conceptual model in the upscale hotel dataset

In terms of the overall structural model in the upscale hotel dataset, goodness-of-fit indices to assess the structural model fit indices and the standard paths coefficient for each structural equation, t-value and statistical significance of the structural coefficients are reported in Table 5.13. First, the chi-square value was statistically significant, which means the model did not properly fit (χ^2 (202) = 959.906, p =.000). However, other indices were as follows: TLI=.92, CFI=.93, RMSEA=.11, NFI=.91, and GFI=.79). The values of RMSEA and GFI were close to the cut-off criterion because an RMSEA of between 0.08 and 0.10 can be accepted as a mediocre

fit (MacCallun et al., 1996). In terms of GFI, the current GFI did not meet the cut-off criterion because a traditional cut-off point of 0.9 is recommended (Hair et al., 2009). However, alternative indices for goodness-of-fit such as CFI and TLI, as well as those for the absolute fit index such as the RMSEA supported the conceptual model.

Second, the direct regression paths among the five constructs in seven hypotheses were tested. The hypotheses were previously elaborated in Chapter 3. The statistical results are reported in Table 5.13 and overall structural model are displayed in Figure 5.5. Four out of the seven estimated path coefficients were statistically significant at the 0.001 level.

Hypothesis 1 states that customer dissatisfaction is likely to negatively affect attitude toward a hotel. This was tested by examining the path coefficient between ‘customer dissatisfaction’ and ‘attitude toward a hotel’. A significant relationship was found in Hypothesis 1 ($\gamma_{11}=.286$, $t=7.833$, $p < 0.001$). This means that customers who are highly dissatisfied with an upscale hotel are likely to have a negative attitude toward the hotel.

Hypothesis 2 states that customer dissatisfaction is likely to positively affect switching service provider. This was tested by examining the path coefficient between ‘customer dissatisfaction’ and ‘switching service provider’. However, the relationship in Hypothesis 2 ($\gamma_{21}=.003$, $t=.106$) was not supported. This means that customers who are highly dissatisfied with an upscale hotel are not likely to reveal a higher level of intention of switching service provider.

Hypothesis 3 states that customer dissatisfaction is likely to positively affect spreading negative word-of-mouth. This was tested by examining the path coefficient between ‘customer dissatisfaction’ and ‘spreading negative word-of-mouth’. However, the relationship in Hypothesis 3 ($\gamma_{31}=.016$, $t=.544$) was not supported. This means that customers who are highly dissatisfied

with an upscale hotel are not likely to have a higher level of intention of spreading negative word-of-mouth.

Hypothesis 4 states that customer dissatisfaction is likely to positively affect complaining. This was tested by examining the path coefficient between ‘customer dissatisfaction’ and ‘complaining’. However, the relationship in Hypothesis 4 ($\gamma_{41}=.007$, $t= .222$) were not significant. This means that customers who are highly dissatisfied with an upscale hotel are not likely to have a higher level of intention of complaining.

Hypothesis 5 states that attitude toward a hotel is likely to negatively affect switching service provider. This was tested by examining the path coefficient between ‘attitude toward a hotel’ and ‘switching service provider’. The hypothesis was supported at the .001 significance level ($\beta_{21}=.397$, $t=10.340$, $p < 0.001$). The result indicates that customers who have a higher level of negative attitude toward an upscale hotel are likely to have a higher level of intention of switching service provider.

Hypothesis 6 states that attitude toward a hotel is likely to negatively affect spreading negative word-of-mouth. This was tested by examining the path coefficient between ‘attitude toward a hotel’ and ‘spreading negative word-of-mouth’. The hypothesis 6 was supported at the .001 significance level ($\beta_{31}=.378$, $t=8.778$, $p < 0.001$). The result indicates that customers who have a higher level of negative attitude toward an upscale hotel are likely to have a higher level of intention of switching spreading negative word-of-mouth.

Hypothesis 7 states that attitude toward a hotel is likely to negatively affect complaining. This was tested by examining the path coefficient between ‘attitude toward a hotel’ and ‘complaining’. This was tested by examining the path coefficient between ‘attitude toward a hotel’ and ‘complaining’. The hypothesis 7 was supported at significance level of $p < 0.001$ ($\beta_{41}=.378$,

$t=8.835, p < 0.001$). The result indicates that customers who have a higher level of negative attitude toward an upscale hotel are likely to have a higher level of intention of complaining.

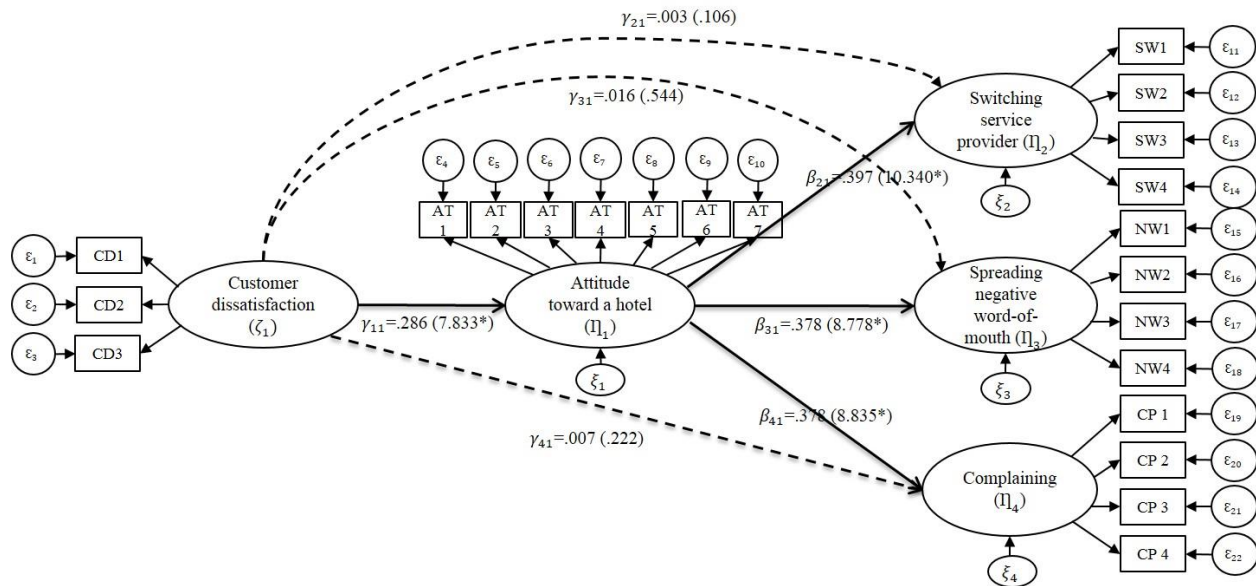
Table 5.13 Results of the SEM analysis in the upscale hotel dataset

| Regression Path Upscale | Standard Paths Coefficient | Standard Error | Critical Ratio (t-value) | p-value | Decision |
|----------------------------|----------------------------------|----------------|-----------------------------|---------|---------------|
| Hypothesis 1 (DS → AT) | .286 | .036 | 7.833 | * | Accept |
| Hypothesis 2 (DS → SW) | .003 | .026 | .106 | .915 | Reject |
| Hypothesis 3 (DS → NW) | .016 | .029 | .544 | .586 | Reject |
| Hypothesis 4 (DS → CP) | .007 | .029 | .222 | .824 | Reject |
| Hypothesis 5 (AT → SW) | .397 | .038 | 10.340 | * | Accept |
| Hypothesis 6 (AT → NW) | .378 | .043 | 8.778 | * | Accept |
| Hypothesis 7 (AT → CP) | .378 | .043 | 8.835 | * | Accept |

$N=325; \chi^2(202) = 959.906 (p=.000); TLI=0.919; CFI=0.929; RMSEA=0.108; NFI=0.912; GFI=0.790$

* **Note:** 1. DS (customer dissatisfaction), AT (attitude toward a hotel), SW (switching service provider), NW (spreading negative word-of-mouth), CP (complaining)
 2. * $p < 0.001$

Figure 5.5 Results of the structural model analyses in the upscale hotel dataset



* $p < .001$
 $N=325; \chi^2(202) = 959.906 (p\text{-value} = .000); TLI=0.919; CFI=0.929; RMSEA=0.108; NFI=0.912; GFI=0.790$

5.2.6.3 Regression paths of the conceptual model in the budget hotel dataset

In the budget hotel dataset, first, the chi-square value was statistically significant, which means the model did not properly fit ($\chi^2 (202) = 711.114, p=.000$). However, other indices showed an acceptable model fit such as TLI=0.934, CFI=0.942, RMSEA=0.089, NFI=0.921, and GFI=0.831). The structural model fit indices and the standard paths coefficient, t-value and statistical significance of the structural coefficients are reported in Table 5.14.

Second, the direct regression paths among the five constructs in seven hypotheses were tested within the budget hotel dataset. Four path coefficients (H1, H5, H6, and H7) were statistically significant at the 0.001 level, whereas three path coefficients (H2, H3, and H4) were not supported. Hypothesis 1 states that that customer dissatisfaction is likely to negatively affect attitude toward a hotel. This was tested by examining the path coefficient between ‘customer dissatisfaction’ and ‘attitude toward a hotel’. A significant relationship was found in Hypothesis 1 ($\gamma_{11}=.134, t=5.086, p < 0.001$). This means that customers who are highly dissatisfied with a budget hotel are likely to have a negative attitude toward the hotel.

Hypothesis 2 states that customer dissatisfaction is likely to positively affect switching service provider. This was tested by examining the path coefficient between ‘customer dissatisfaction’ and ‘switching service provider’. However, the relationship in Hypothesis 2 ($\gamma_{21}=.029, t=.1.529$) was not supported. This means that customers who are highly dissatisfied with a budget hotel are not likely to have a higher level of intention of switching service provider.

Hypothesis 3 states that customer dissatisfaction is likely to positively affect spreading negative word-of-mouth. This was tested by examining the path coefficient between ‘customer dissatisfaction’ and ‘spreading negative word-of-mouth’. However, the relationship in Hypothesis

3 ($\gamma_{31}=.044$, $t=1.920$) was not supported. This means that customers who are highly dissatisfied with a budget hotel are not likely to have a higher level of intention of spreading negative word-of-mouth.

Hypothesis 4 states that customer dissatisfaction is likely to positively affect complaining. This was tested by examining the path coefficient between ‘customer dissatisfaction’ and ‘complaining’. However, the relationship in Hypothesis 4 ($\gamma_{41}=.035$, $t=1.401$) were not significant. This means that customers who are highly dissatisfied with a budget hotel are not likely to have a higher level of intention of complaining.

Hypothesis 5 states that attitude toward a hotel is likely to negatively affect switching service provider. This was tested by examining the path coefficient between ‘attitude toward a hotel’ and ‘switching service provider’, and the hypothesis was supported at significance level of $p < 0.001$ ($\beta_{21}=.674$, $t=15.147$, $p < 0.001$). The result indicates that customers who have a higher level of negative attitude toward a budget hotel are likely to have a higher level of intention of switching service provider.

Hypothesis 6 states that attitude toward a hotel is likely to negatively affect spreading negative word-of-mouth. This was tested by examining the path coefficient between ‘attitude toward a hotel’ and ‘spreading negative word-of-mouth’. The hypothesis 6 was supported at significance level of $p < 0.001$ ($\beta_{31}=.634$, $t=11.083$, $p < 0.001$). The result indicates that customers who have a higher level of negative attitude toward a budget hotel are likely to have a higher level of intention of switching spreading negative word-of-mouth.

Hypothesis 7 states that attitude toward a hotel is likely to negatively affect complaining. This was tested by examining the path coefficient between ‘attitude toward a hotel’ and ‘complaining’. This was tested by examining the path coefficient between ‘attitude toward a hotel’

and ‘complaining’. The hypothesis 7 was supported at significance level of $p < 0.001$ ($\beta_{41}=.558$, $t=9.940$, $p < 0.001$). The result indicates that customers who have a higher level of negative attitude toward a budget hotel are likely to have a higher level of intention of complaining.

Based on the results using a sample of budget hotel customers, Hypotheses 1, 5, 6, and 7 were supported, whereas Hypotheses 4, 5, and 6 were not supported. The statistical results are reported in Table 5.14 and Figure 5.6 demonstrate the results of the structural model analysis in the budget hotel data set.

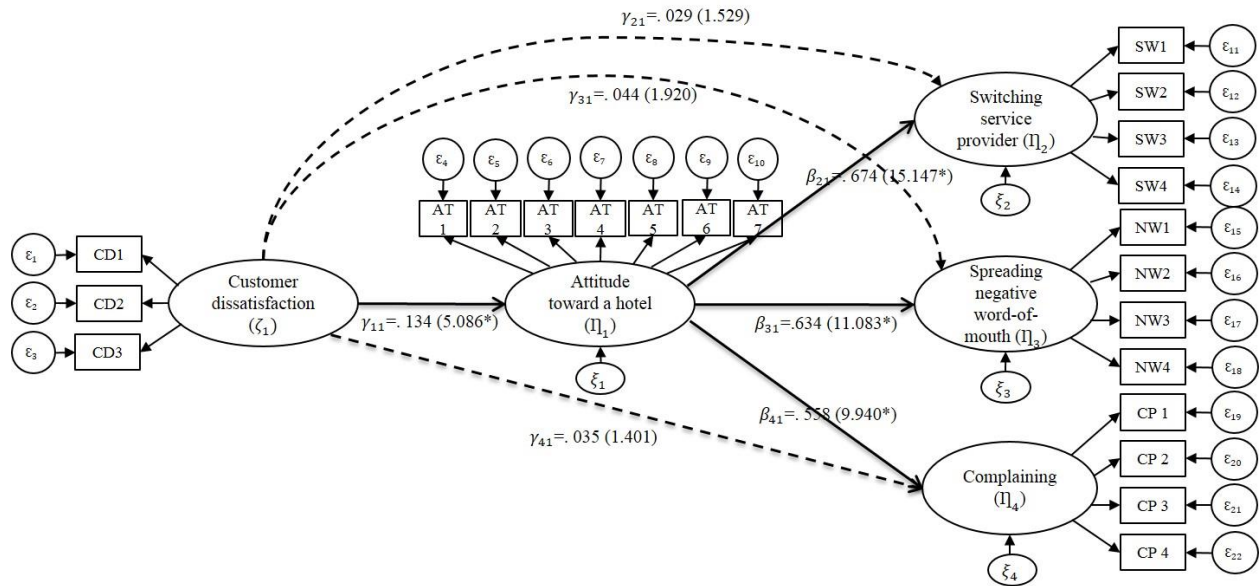
In order to test Hypothesis 8 that states significance and sign of path coefficients on structural equation models are likely to be different between upscale and budget hotel segments, the two structural models across two different upscale and budget hotel segments were compared. The SEM analyses of both the upscale hotel and budget hotel datasets demonstrated the same outcome in terms of the significance and sign of the estimated path coefficients. Therefore, Hypothesis 8 was not supported because the structural equation models were not different between upscale and budget hotel segments.

Table 5.14 Results of the SEM analysis in the budget hotel dataset

| Regression Path Budget | Standard Paths Coefficient | Standard Error | Critical Ratio (t-value) | p-value | Decision |
|---|----------------------------------|----------------|-----------------------------|---------|---------------|
| Hypothesis 1 (DS → AT) | .134 | .026 | 5.086 | * | Accept |
| Hypothesis 2 (DS → SW) | .029 | .019 | 1.529 | .126 | Reject |
| Hypothesis 3 (DS → NW) | .044 | .023 | 1.920 | .055 | Reject |
| Hypothesis 4 (DS → CP) | .035 | .025 | 1.401 | .161 | Reject |
| Hypothesis 5 (AT → SW) | .674 | .044 | 15.147 | * | Accept |
| Hypothesis 6 (AT → NW) | .634 | .057 | 11.083 | * | Accept |
| Hypothesis 7 (AT → CP) | .558 | .056 | 9.940 | * | Accept |
| $N=322$; $\chi^2(202) = 711.114$ ($p=.000$); TLI=0.934; CFI=0.942; RMSEA=0.089; NFI=0.921; GFI=0.831 | | | | | |

* **Note:** 1. DS (customer dissatisfaction), AT (attitude toward a hotel), SW (switching service provider), NW (spreading negative word-of-mouth), CP (complaining)
2. * $p < 0.001$

Figure 5.6 Results of the structural model analyses in the budget hotel dataset



* $p < .001$

N=322; χ^2 (202) = 711.114 (p -value = .000); TLI=0.934; CFI=0.942; RMSEA=0.089; NFI=0.921; GFI=0.831

Chapter 6

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Chapter 6 discusses the research conclusion based on the findings in addressing research questions and fulfilling the research objectives of Study I and Study II. First, the identification of dissatisfiers are discussed and the structure of satisfiers and dissatisfiers between upscale and budget hotels is compared. Second, the consequences of customer dissatisfaction focusing on the effect of customer dissatisfaction on attitude toward a hotel and negative behavioral intention are discussed. In addition, the relationships among the constructs between upscale and budget hotel segments are compared. The conclusion further leads to theoretical contributions as well as practical implications for the hotel industry.

6.1 Discussion of Study I

With popular use of trendy social media, Study I investigated to identify satisfiers and dissatisfiers by analyzing satisfaction- and dissatisfaction-indicating online hotel reviews as customer-generated content. Satisfiers and dissatisfiers were compared between upscale and budget hotels. Significant conclusions on the basis of analysis in Study I were eightfold.

6.1.1 Overall characteristics of online hotel reviews

First, analysis of a total number of 42,659 reviews in the upscale hotel segment and 27,525 reviews in the budget hotel segment indicates that upscale hotel customers have a tendency to participate more actively than those of budget hotels in making comments about their hotel stay experience via online channels. In particular, upscale hotels contained remarkably

more satisfaction-indicating reviews (67.7%) than dissatisfaction-indicating reviews (1.6%). This result shows a consensus with those past studies, which discovered that positive reviews commonly outnumbered negative reviews (Li et al., 2013; Pantelidis, 2010).

In contrast, the budget hotel segment consisted of only slightly a bit more dissatisfaction-indicating reviews (15.8%) than satisfaction-indicating reviews (14.2%). However, this finding contradicts the result of a study of Li et al. (2013), which discovered that satisfaction-indicating reviews always much outnumbered dissatisfaction-indicating reviews regardless of hotel class.

In fact, budget hotel customers pay relatively less for hotel room rate, and budget hotels also provide a minimal level of services and facilities as their operational business strategy (Forbes Travel Guide, 2015; Jeong & Jeon, 2008; Justus, 1991). However, even though budget hotel customers are less likely to express their opinions on Internet, the outnumbered dissatisfaction-indicating reviews indicate that they still feel dissatisfied with services in budget hotels.

Customers still require a certain level of services in a budget hotel property (Griffin et al., 1997; Knutson, 1988; Knutson et al., 1993; Li et al., 2013; Nasution & Mavondo, 2008), therefore it is needed to proactively improve low-cost hotel services and facilities. In particular, budget hotel management needs to recognize the importance of their dissatisfaction and the role of social media as a cost-effective method of improvement. Customer-generated online hotel review system can offer them tool to monitor the reasons for customer dissatisfaction.

Second, another interesting finding is that highly satisfied customers still make unfavorable comments in satisfaction-indicating reviews, whereas highly dissatisfied customers also make favorable comments in dissatisfaction-indicating reviews. According to the results, nearly 21% of satisfied customers in the upscale hotel segment and about 34% of satisfied customers in the budget hotel segment contained negative comments in satisfaction-indicating reviews. Around 24% of

dissatisfied customers in the upscale hotel segment and about 31% of dissatisfied customers in the budget hotel segment also made positive comments in dissatisfaction-indicating reviews. It implies that customers are satisfied and dissatisfied with different reasons, but they generally evaluate their level of satisfaction and dissatisfaction at one continuum of overall evaluation scale. In addition, satisfiers in satisfaction-indicating reviews and dissatisfiers in dissatisfaction-indicating reviews have a greater effect on their overall evaluation than the negative factors in satisfaction-indicating reviews and positive factors in dissatisfaction-indicating reviews.

The latter factors are called “neutral factors” in previous studies, which do not elicit salient effects on satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988; Vargo et al., 2007). In reality, it is impossible to provide perfect quality of service since each customer has his/her own utility, purpose of stay, and different service quality standards (Fisk et al., 1993). However, the finding shows that particular satisfiers and dissatisfiers lead to customers’ satisfaction or dissatisfaction, respectively, and some factors do not affect the overall evaluation. It suggests that understanding salient satisfiers are essential to maintain customer satisfaction and recognizing particular dissatisfiers are necessary to prevent customer dissatisfaction. As a result, hotel practitioners and researchers are required to understand both satisfiers and dissatisfiers, respectively and the adequate information sources are customers’ own opinions perceived through their own experiences.

Third, the number of satisfiers and dissatisfiers on average included per review was analyzed further. Six satisfiers per satisfaction-indicating review and three dissatisfiers in upscale hotels, and four dissatisfiers in budget hotels per dissatisfaction-indicating review show that a fewer number of dissatisfiers were included than satisfiers per review. This shows the characteristics of customers in posting a review, where satisfied customers are likely to mention a

higher number of satisfiers when writing satisfactory reviews, whereas dissatisfied customers are likely to mention a lower number of dissatisfiers when writing unsatisfactory reviews.

6.1.2 Identification of characteristics of satisfiers and dissatisfiers

Satisfiers and dissatisfiers in upscale and budget hotels were identified and ranked. Additionally, they were categorized into five major components: room, staff, hotel property/appearance, facility, and extra component. Satisfiers in the upscale hotel segment were mostly pertinent to room and extra components, whereas dissatisfiers were pertaining to service related component. In terms of budget hotel segment, satisfiers were germane to room and extra components, while dissatisfiers were mainly relevant to room component. It was interestingly found that satisfiers in both upscale and budget hotels were commonly germane to room and extra components. Dissatisfiers in upscale hotels were mainly service-focused and dissatisfiers in budget hotels were mainly room-related, respectively.

The results regarding overall characteristics according to several components showcased that most satisfiers in upscale hotels were more likely related to tangible features, while most dissatisfiers tend to be more intangible features. On the other hand, most satisfiers in budget hotels showed more tangible features, while most dissatisfiers in budget hotels were also more tangible features. In particular, the findings regarding the characteristics of factors in this study are inconsistently indicated with those of factors in previous studies examining Herzberg's two-factor theory, which indicates that satisfiers have intangible features and dissatisfiers have tangible features (Chan & Baum, 2007; Johns & Howard, 1998; Jones & Lee-Ross, 1997). In conclusion, the findings mainly were not consistent with those of previous studies that applied Herzberg's two-factor theory manifested which satisfiers are more likely intangible, whereas dissatisfiers are more

likely tangible (Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988; Chan & Baum, 2007; Herzberg, 1987; Herzberg et al., 1993; Johns & Howard, 1998; Jones & Lee-Ross, 1997).

6.1.3 Satisfiers and dissatisfiers between upscale and budget hotels

6.1.3.1 Comparison of overall satisfiers and dissatisfiers

Five noticeable satisfiers were identified as common satisfiers between both upscale and budget hotel segments: “location,” “staff and their attitude,” “breakfast,” “bed,” and “neighborhood.” Among these five satisfiers, “location” and “staff and their attitude” were the two most highly ranked satisfiers. It shows a consensus with the results from earlier studies that indicate location and staff are the factors leading to customer satisfaction (Jeong & Jeon, 2008; Li et al., 2013). It reflects the conventional fact that convenient hotel location and considerate attitude of staff highly benefit improvement of customer satisfaction (Jeong & Jeon, 2008; Knutson, 1988; Li et al., 2013).

Regarding dissatisfiers, four salient dissatisfiers were commonly revealed between both of upscale and budget hotel datasets, namely “staff and their attitude,” followed by “dirtiness,” “noisiness,” and “bathroom.” Among these four dissatisfiers, “staff and their attitude” and “dirtiness” were the two most highly ranked dissatisfiers and the result was consistent with that in a study of Levy et al. (2013). In fact, “dirtiness,” “noisiness” and “bathroom” can be amended by tangible improvement in hotel management, such as adopting soundproofing system and improving hygiene condition of in-room facilities. Since budget hotel management generally focuses on strategies regarding convenience as well as low prices, it is regarded to provide a minimal or tolerable level of service and facilities according to its management strategy on the basis of standard of hotel rating (Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988; Costa et al., 2004; Forbes Travel Guide, 2015; Jeong & Jeon, 2008). The results imply that the budget hotel management should

not neglect providing a certain level of service and facilities, in particular room-related generic services. This suggests requirement of precise understanding of the causes of dissatisfaction.

Comprehensively, distinctive differences between satisfiers and dissatisfiers were discovered. It supports the different factor structure between satisfiers and dissatisfiers, except for the most critical factor “staff and staff attitude.” The results show a similar pattern with those of previous studies which found “staff/staff attitude” as the most critical factor to fulfill both customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction in both upscale and budget hotels (Levy et al., 2013; Li et al., 2013). This findings confirm that “staff and their attitude” plays an important role in hotels overall.

6.1.3.2 Comparison of satisfiers and dissatisfiers between upscale and budget hotels

Two different sets of satisfiers and dissatisfiers were identified in the upscale hotel segment except for two service-related factors “staff and their attitude” and “service”. They were commonly revealed as significant both satisfiers and dissatisfiers. It is shown that the reasons making customer satisfied and dissatisfied are distinctive, but service-related factors that are more likely intangible as staff component, are necessary not only to pleasing customers but also to ruining their experiences. Since upscale hotel property is regarded to offer customized high-quality of service and high-end facilities (Forbes Travel Guide, 2015), the results indicate that upscale hotel customers are more likely to consider human-related, or service-related aspects to be substantial for upscale hotel experience (Walls, Okumus, Wang, & Kwun, 2011). As a result, it is showcased that customer dissatisfiers in upscale hotels are different from their satisfiers, except for service-related factors.

In the budget hotel segment, five common factors between satisfiers and dissatisfiers were revealed, namely “staff and their attitude,” “room cleanliness/dirtiness,” “bed,” “bathroom,” and

“room rate/value for money”. In particular, “room cleanliness/dirtiness,” “bed,” and “bathroom” were highly relevant to room component and “staff and their attitude” was the sole common factor that is related to staff component. In fact, room-related factors are considered as basic elements of hotel property. It shows a consensus of the findings of early studies showing reasons for complaining are more likely associated with room and staff, and it is more frequently to occur in bottom-ranking hotels than top-ranking hotels (Lee & Hu, 2004; Levy et al., 2013; Sparks & Browning, 2010; Sparks & Bradley, 2014).

Comparing to the results in upscale hotels, “staff and their attitude” was also revealed as the second most significant satisfier and dissatisfier in budget hotels. But “service” was not identified as neither satisfier nor dissatisfier. The result implies that “staff and their attitude” is considered as significant in budget hotels, but “service” is not a key factor because budget hotel is regarded as a property that provides limited services and facilities to strategically cater to economic customers’ need (Fiorentino, 1995; Justus, 1991; Forbes Travel Guide, 2015).

In addition, price-related “room rate/value for money” were commonly revealed as both satisfier and dissatisfier in budget hotels. This means that major concern of budget hotel customers is monetary issue (Fiorentino, 1995; Justus, 1991). Moreover, the room-related common factors (e.g. “room cleanliness/dirtiness,” “bed,” and “bathroom”) showcased a consensus with budget hotel customers’ characteristics that are more sensitive to basic room conditions than upscale hotel customers despite of a low room rate (Dolnicar, 2002).

As a result, service-oriented factors in upscale hotels, and staff, monetary, and room-related factors in budget hotels were commonly revealed as the characteristics of the most significant factors leading to satisfaction and dissatisfaction. In particular, “staff and their attitude” was the most significant to being satisfied and dissatisfied, regardless of hotel class. In conclusion, service

performance of staff and their courteous attitude in upscale hotels, and pleasant room condition in budget hotel should be continuously monitored and enhanced. Moreover, it implies different strategies to accelerate level of satisfaction and alleviate level of dissatisfaction according to different hotel class should be adopted.

6.2 Discussion of Study II

The purpose of Study II was to empirically investigate the effect of customer dissatisfaction in a framework of consequences of customer dissatisfaction in a hotel setting. In particular, it focused identifying the effect of customer dissatisfaction, overall customers' attitude toward a hotel, and negative behavioral intention, such as switching service provider, spreading negative word-of-mouth, and complaining. The consequences of dissatisfaction were compared between the upscale and budget hotel segments. Some insightful discussion points are as follows.

6.2.1 Relationship between customer dissatisfaction and attitude toward a hotel (H1)

First, Hypothesis 1 that customer dissatisfaction negatively influences attitude toward a hotel was supported in both upscale and budget hotel datasets. The majority of studies on customer satisfaction placed the emphasis on the positive effect of customer satisfaction on overall attitude (Ekinici et al., 2008; Oliver, 1980). In a similar vein, previous studies concluded that when customers positively perceive a hotel, their attitude is also formed in a positive way (Lee et al., 2008; Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009). On the contrary, this study empirically found that customers' attitude would be negatively formed during the evaluation time in consecutive order

after customers were dissatisfied with a service failure situation. This implies that attitude is an individual's enduring positive or negative beliefs since it is considered to be formed over time (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Olson & Mitchell, 2000; Priester et al., 2004). In conclusion, the negative effect of customer dissatisfaction on attitude was empirically confirmed in the hotel context and it shows that customer dissatisfaction is the strong predictor of forming negative attitude toward a hotel.

Along with previous studies on attitude, two types of attitude were distinguished by Oliver's (1980) satisfaction model containing antecedent and continuous attitudes. These two attitudes may not be the same because customer satisfaction affects the latter attitude. An antecedent attitude can be defined as a customer's overall feeling toward a hotel, and it is regarded as a general image that can be formed by being affected by several prior factors such as marketing communication, previous experiences, or others' word-of-mouth (Ekinici et al., 2008; Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009). On the other hand, a continuous attitude focuses on the feeling that is created after a particular evaluation. It also can be called a consequence of the customers' evaluation. For that reason, a continuous attitude was focused on when investigating the consequences of customer dissatisfaction in this study, as it implies that once customers are dissatisfied with a hotel, they form negative attitude toward the hotel. In other word, dissatisfied customers showcase a greater tendency to possess a negative attitude regardless of their prior attitudes, and this is an extension of forming customers' attitude toward a hotel under the situation of dissatisfaction.

6.2.2 Relationship between customer dissatisfaction and negative behavioral intention (H2, H3, and H4)

Second, hypotheses 2, 3, and 4 that customer dissatisfaction positively influences switching service provider, spreading negative word-of-mouth, and complaining behavioral intentions were not supported in both upscale and budget hotel datasets by the results of the data analysis. The results showed that the effect of customer dissatisfaction did not significantly lead to subsequent negative behavioral intentions. These results were shown in both the upscale and budget hotel datasets. That is, dissatisfied customers do not directly have intentions of switching service provider, spreading negative word-of-mouth, and complaining.

However, the results were inconsistent with those of earlier studies which indicate that highly dissatisfied customers directly tend to have intentions of switching, spreading negative word-of-mouth and complaining (Jang et al., 2013; Kelly & Davis, 1994; Mattila & Ro, 2008; Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). They showed that customer dissatisfaction is a powerful indicator of switching service provider, spreading negative word-of-mouth, or complaining behaviors (Richins, 1987; Jang, Cho, & Kim, 2013; Singh, 1988; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004).

On the other hand, the results were consistent with those in a few studies (Bougie et al., 2003; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004) that examined the mediating role of negative emotions such as anger, regret, and disappointment between customer dissatisfaction and negative behavioral intentions. In other words, dissatisfaction per se was an insufficient motivation to directly lead to switching, spreading negative word-of-mouth or complaining behavioral intentions. In addition, the unfavorable emotions were significant predictors of behavioral responses to service failure instead. It implies that customers do not decide their final behavioral responses after they are

dissatisfied, however they have own negative inferences about the service failure during forming emotions or attitudes in the negative (Matilla & Ro, 2008).

Therefore, it is important to prevent dissatisfied customers from arriving at their negative attitude from dissatisfaction and have certain amount of time for negative inferences after dissatisfaction occurs. An immediate solution to resolving customer dissatisfaction are required in order to avoid negative consequences such as switching hotel, spreading unfavorable experiences toward families and friends, and complaining actions.

6.2.3 Relationship between attitude toward a hotel and negative behavioral intention (H5, H6, and H7)

Third, hypotheses 5, 6, and 7 that investigate attitude toward a hotel negatively influences negative behavioral intentions were supported in both upscale and budget hotel datasets. It was empirically found that a negatively formed attitude toward a hotel affects switching service provider, spreading negative word-of-mouth, and complaining. This means that when an attitude toward a hotel is formed by the customers' own evaluation, the consequent attitude toward the hotel plays a significant role in determining severe negative behavioral intentions, as supported by previous studies (Ekinci et al., 2008; Oliver, 1980) that customers who have a favorable attitude to a service provider obtained a positive intention to return to the service firm.

Some of other empirical studies on investigating the impact of attitude toward negative responses on negative word-of-mouth and complaining (Cheng & Lam, 2008; Cheng, Lam, & Hsu, 2006; Kim & Chen, 2010; Kim, Kim, Im, & Shin, 2003; Yuksel, Kilinc, & Yuksel, 2006). These studies show that customers tend to highly engage in negative behaviors, when they have a

positive attitude toward complaining or negative word-of-mouth. On the other hand, they are less likely to engage in negative behavior, when they have a less negative attitude toward complaining.

The relationship between attitude and behavioral responses is one of widely studied topic in earlier studies (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Since attitude is regarded as an overall judgement shown as positive or negative (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), a negative belief in the mind correspondently plays a determinant role as an antecedent of negative behavioral responses.

In addition to the discussion of linear relationships, a full mediation effect of attitude toward a hotel between customer dissatisfaction and negative behavioral intentions was found. This means that attitude toward a hotel is a dominant mediator that represents the generative role that customer dissatisfaction in a hotel tends to affect forming negative attitude the hotel and the negatively formed attitude also affect the customers' switching, negative word-of-mouth, and complaining intentions to the hotel (Baron & Kenny, 1986). But the dissatisfied customers do not immediately have such negative intentions without such negative inference in form of negative attitude. As a consequence, this finding adds credence to the argument that hotel practitioners need to make an effort on service recovery after customers' negative evaluations (Mattila & Ro, 2008).

6.2.4 Comparison of structural equation models between upscale and budget hotel segments (H8)

Lastly, this study mainly investigated the consequence of customer dissatisfaction by comparison between two different hotel classes. Hypothesis 8 examined whether the significance

and sign of path coefficients on structural equation models are different between upscale and budget hotel segments, but this was not supported. On the basis of previous literature on hotel class, customers in high-class hotels expect high quality of services and amenities provided in hotel than those in low-class hotels (Knutson, 1988; Knutson et al., 1993). However, it was found that the same pattern of consequences of customer dissatisfaction in the two structural models between upscale and budget hotel segments.

As a final note, the full mediation effect of attitude toward a hotel between customer dissatisfaction and switching service provider, spreading negative word-of-mouth, and complaining was discovered in the two hotel segments. It is believed that the tendency of upscale and budget hotel customers is similar to when they are dissatisfied by showing the pathways leading from customer dissatisfaction to negative attitude toward a hotel and the pathways leading from the negative attitude toward the hotel to negative behavioral intention. In conclusion, in the situation of customer dissatisfaction, customers showcase negative attitude and the corresponding negative behavioral intention regardless of hotel class.

Chapter 7

CONTRIBUTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Chapter 7 discusses the significance of this study. It sets out its contributions to the academic literature and implications for hotel practitioners. This will reflect the main findings from Study I and Study II, respectively, and offer the implications for theory and hotel management focusing on the aspect of customer dissatisfaction. Finally, limitations and recommendations for future research will be elucidated.

7.1 Contributions of Study I

This study shed light on understanding two distinct sets of satisfiers and dissatisfiers for different hotel classes, using a bi-dimensional approach, by analyzing hotel reviews. Having concluded the overall analysis, this study has several meaningful implications which can help both practitioners wishing to ensure effective hotel management and academics seeking the theoretical advancement of future research. These implications are discussed in turn as follows.

7.1.1 Application of Herzberg's two-factor theory to online hotel reviews

The significance of this study lies primarily in the application of Herzberg's two-factor theory to online hotel reviews. It is used in identifying satisfiers and dissatisfiers according to a bi-dimensional approach incorporating satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The two-factor theory has been widely researched in terms of identifying two different patterns of intangible satisfiers and tangible dissatisfiers in the hospitality context (Cadotte & Turgeon, 1988; Chan & Baum, 2007;

Johns & Howard, 1998; Jones & Lee-Ross, 1997). However, this study extends the theory by looking not only at both sets of satisfiers and dissatisfiers as identified from customers' online hotel reviews, which is a new approach to understanding customers' experiences based on their contemporaneous opinions, but also by comparing satisfiers and dissatisfiers according to hotel class. The results show an inconsistent pattern of both intangible or tangible satisfiers and dissatisfiers. A few common factors between satisfiers and dissatisfiers are identified in upscale and budget hotels, but two different sets of satisfiers and dissatisfiers still emerged.

Considering the bi-dimensional approach on the basis of Herzberg's two-factor theory, the findings partially support Herzberg's hypothesis that dissatisfiers can be differentiated from satisfiers. This study suggests a concrete structure of dissatisfiers as differentiated from satisfiers, and a need to understand customer dissatisfaction independently by supporting the substantial dimensions of dissatisfaction. Moreover, the sets of satisfiers and dissatisfiers should be considered for different hotel classes in accordance with the level of customer expectations. This study also highlights the significant role of hotel segmentation on satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Furthermore, the most critical factor involved in generating satisfaction and dissatisfaction among hotel management is "staff and staff attitude." This plays a substantial role in both satisfaction and dissatisfaction across upscale and budget hotels. Staff are therefore confirmed to be a key success factor in the hotel business. The performance of staff substantially contributes to satisfaction and dissatisfaction in this industry (Levy et al., 2013; Li et al., 2013). Thus, "staff and staff attitude" provides us with a new factor in understanding the antecedents of satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the hotel industry.

Most hotel managers recognize the importance of staff and their capacity. Thus, continuous attention toward staff and their attitude is an essential requirement. However, this is

rarely standardized to any meaningful degree. Hotel management should provide proper training opportunities, detailed service manuals, and appropriate compensation such as incentives and promotion in order to motivate staff to meet the different wants and needs of customers. Furthermore, strong bonds between customers and staff should be developed to improve service performance and satisfaction as well as to prevent dissatisfaction in the relational service industry (Yim, Tse, & Chan, 2008).

Hotel practitioners need to understand customer satisfaction and dissatisfaction. In addition, they should pay more attention to targeting customers' wants and needs in the context of the hotel class. In particular, different strategies to prevent customer dissatisfaction should be developed for upscale and budget hotels. The factor structures reported here can guide this management direction for practitioners. Above all, staff capacity and attitudes should be enhanced overall as a priority for hotel management.

In conclusion, little work has been undertaken to date to compare satisfaction and dissatisfaction across different hotel classes based on online hotel reviews. Success in the hotel business comes not only from enhancing customer satisfaction, but also by preventing dissatisfaction. Thus, efforts to achieve both outcomes should be considered simultaneously. In addition, with the development of effective social media marketing strategies, hotel practitioners can make full use of online reviews by considering the specific satisfiers and dissatisfiers expressed in relation to different hotel classes.

7.1.2 Significant role of online hotel reviews in hotel management

The rapid advancement of social media has facilitated the sharing of opinions as a form of communication among people in cyberspace. Modern interactive communication tools include

online reviews on social media platforms (Gretzel & Yoo, 2008; McCarthy et al., 2010). Such online reviews have primarily been used to understand potential and current customers as well as hospitality and tourism-related service operators since they allow interactive communication between customers, and also between customers and practitioners (McCarthy et al., 2010; Vermeulen & Seegers, 2009).

In terms of traditional communication between customers and hotel operators, feedback forms such as thank-you letters and complaint cards have been the main means used to understand customer's evaluation of a hotel. Since in practice few such comment cards are returned, this method was not sufficient to understand customers' reactions in full and even if it had been, the results may not have been valid. However, social media allows easy and instant scrutiny of customers' reactions (Sparks & Browning, 2011; Verma et al., 2012). From this point of view, social media provides a particular form of online space and creates a new means of obtaining in-depth information from communications between hotel operators and customers by understanding customers' freely expressed views and experiences (McCarthy et al., 2010).

From a costs point of view, social media is one of the more appropriate means to enhance service quality and improve hotel facilities because it avoids the extra marketing costs created by using traditional tools to obtain customers' service evaluations (Law et al., 2014). In particular, budget hotels have limited resources to invest in marketing strategies and fewer chances to reflect on their service performance. Thus, it is suggested that hotel managers proactively utilize customer-generated content posted online as a means of communication and monitoring.

For instance, as a method of communication between customers, potential customers tend to be willing to review online comments from their peers posted on social media before booking hotel rooms (Sparks & Browning, 2011; Verma et al., 2012; Vermeulen & Seegers, 2008). They

are more likely to trust peer reviews than information provided by organizations (McCarthy et al., 2010). The reputation of a hotel can be established by favorable or unfavorable reviews by customers posted on social media. Therefore, hotel operators should monitor the electronic word-of-mouth on behalf of potential customers by identifying previous and current customers' experiences of being satisfied and dissatisfied.

The effect of understanding satisfiers and dissatisfiers in online hotel reviews in this manner will contribute to developing strategies for maintaining service performance based on comprehensive evidence of customers' wants and needs. This will not only improve customer satisfaction, but also proactively reduce complaints at the earliest possible stage to prevent customer dissatisfaction. However, there are several pitfalls to the generating of electronic word-of-mouth through reviews posted on social media. Service providers have acknowledged their anonymity and exploited this by hiring ghost writers to produce fake comments. In addition, anonymity also means that false impressions are sometimes generated, depending on how the customer feels at the time of posting. However, these issues are not covered by legal or moral frameworks so hotel operators should monitor online reviews so as to employ them efficiently and effectively.

Based on the results of this, study recommend different strategies can be recommended for utilizing social media in upscale and budget hotel management. Upscale hotels should deploy customers' positive assessments as a reliable promotional tool and treat the critical points of negative assessments as a means of facilitating a zero-defect service. On the other hand, budget hotels should consider social media platforms as an efficient promotional tool for their brand by using volunteer evaluators who will share their experiences and spread positive word-of-mouth.

Overall, this study validates the existence of satisfiers and dissatisfiers based on Herzberg's two-factor theory. The factor structure implies that dissatisfaction should be distinguished from satisfaction. Furthermore, the satisfiers and dissatisfiers in upscale and budget hotels suggest that managerial strategies should be different according to hotel class. The level of service and staff and their attitude are both substantial factors for upscale hotel customers, whereas staff, room facilities, and monetary factors are significant to those staying in budget hotels. Above all, staff and staff attitude is the most important factor for satisfied and dissatisfied customers in both types of hotel.

As a final note, the customer experience has emerged as an important element of success or failure for service organizations. Giving customers memorable experiences is an important issue for businesses (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). Customers in an experience-oriented economy try to enjoy superlative experiences that will exceed their expectations. As a means of understanding their experiences, social media content such as customer-generated online reviews provides an excellent opportunity for this (Pantelidis, 2010). To ensure a better customer experience, service providers should satisfy their customers and also prevent dissatisfaction. The antecedents of customer dissatisfaction should also be handled differently by managers in each hotel class. This suggests that customer dissatisfaction should be considered as an independent issue by both researchers and practitioners.

7.1.3 Study I: Limitations and future research directions

There are some limitations associated with this study that need to be highlighted in relation to further work in this area. Firstly, since it was based on online reviews of New York City hotels posted on Trip Advisor, the results may be different for hotels in other locations. Secondly, reviews expressing satisfaction were chosen only from the "excellent" category, whereas those indicating

dissatisfaction review were chosen from those marked “terrible.” Future studies may consider including a wider range of review categories to explore customers’ assessments in more detail. Thirdly, due to time constraints, only five reviews indicating each of satisfaction and dissatisfaction were examined. Future studies may use software solutions to analyze larger amounts of data drawn from online review sites.

Fourthly, the reviews indicating satisfaction consisted of both satisfiers and negative comments, while those representing dissatisfaction included both dissatisfiers and positive comments. Only the satisfiers (dissatisfiers) were analyzed for the satisfaction- (dissatisfaction-) indicating reviews. However, the positive and negative comments could be further explored even though they are not defined as either satisfiers or dissatisfiers and hence not directly related to satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Based on the findings, a further empirical study using a survey approach and using the satisfiers and dissatisfiers identified here is recommended. For example, the dissatisfiers could be used to empirically test whether they affect customer dissatisfaction and if so, its effect on negative behavioral intentions.

Fifthly, future research may consider collecting additional demographic profile data to explore differences according to demographic variables. Finally, reviews posted on Trip Advisor only reflect customers’ perspective. Future work may explore this issue from practitioners’ perspective by examining attempts to implement service recovery strategies in response to negative comments.

7.2 Contributions of Study II

Study II set out to extend the literature on customer dissatisfaction. Specifically, it explored the consequences of customer dissatisfaction by empirically testing the impact of customer dissatisfaction on attitude toward a hotel as an overall customers' evaluation in a service failure situation. Based on the results of this analysis, the academic and practical implications of the study are as follows.

7.2.1 Consequences of customer dissatisfaction

Firstly, customer dissatisfaction is widely considered in studies of managing service quality, since unhappy customers make unfavorable statements and engage in negative post-purchase behaviors (Kelly & Davis, 1994; Mattila & Ro, 2008; Namkung & Jang, 2010; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004). Most such studies have identified a substantial role for customers' negative emotions, triggered by dissatisfaction and resulting in negative behavioral intention (Bougie, et al., 2003; Kelly & Davis, 1994; Mattila & Ro, 2008; Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011). However, taking a different approach to customer dissatisfaction, this study has empirically demonstrated that there is no direct correlation between customer dissatisfaction and negative behavioral intentions. It has highlighted the full mediating and substantial role of attitude toward a hotel as a mediator between customer dissatisfaction and behavioral intentions (defined as switching to another hotel, negative word-of-mouth, and making a complaint).

The findings indicate that if customers are dissatisfied with a hotel, they do not immediately form an intention to go elsewhere, spread negative word-of-mouth, or complain. The main reason for this is that they require time to formulate their overall attitude toward a hotel and their negatively consolidated attitude then spontaneously influences a high level of

future behavioral intention. Another reason is that dissatisfied customers experience a relatively transitory feeling, such as anger, disappointment, or regret, which develops into negative behavioral intentions after the lapse of time (Bougie, et al., 2003; Jang et al., 2013; Sánchez-García & Currás-Pérez, 2011; Zeelenberg & Pieters, 2004).

These findings are consistent with the conventional definition of attitude as a prolonged and persistent overall feeling that leads to behavior (Priester et al., 2004; Lutz, 1991; Olson & Mitchell, 2000). It is suggested that customers who are dissatisfied with a hotel take some time interval to translate their negative emotions into behavior. This means that attitude is also a significant predictor of customers' negative behavioral intentions, alongside customer dissatisfaction. The negative attitude formed also increases our insight into the behavior of customers after experiencing dissatisfaction.

In summary, this study provides empirical evidence that customer dissatisfaction negatively affects the formation of attitude toward a hotel and can result in a significantly negative evaluation. However, it is not in itself an antecedent of negative behavioral intentions. Studies have focused mainly on the effect of satisfaction on overall attitudes and future behaviors (Ekinici et al., 2008; Oliver, 1980). This study adds an important concept to the context of customer dissatisfaction, namely the fact that it is the event which does the damage leading to the formation of negative attitudes, but it is those which substantially affect future behavioral intention.

7.2.2 The role of attitude in the consequences of customer dissatisfaction

This study empirically demonstrates the impact of overall attitude toward a hotel as a salient mediator engaging in three different types of negative behavioral intention. Having

emphasized the significance of behavioral intention in a given setting of dissatisfaction, it is the principal predictor of behavior regarded as a motivation to engage in a certain behavior and represent people's expectancy about their behavior. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) operationalized intention as the likelihood of people's action. While people attempts to act according to their intention to engage in a certain behavior, one of the most influential determinators of intention is attitude. Unlike the general theoretical TPB framework that explains attitude toward a particular action represents an individual's overall positive/negative or favorable/unfavorable beliefs, this study more clearly expounds the overall attitude toward a hotel.

Moreover, there are two distinctive types of attitude: antecedent and continuous. This study focused on the latter since this has a strong impact on future behavior. Continuous attitude focuses on the feeling created after an evaluation. Even though customer dissatisfaction is also a form of evaluation, attitude is the evaluation that leads to behavior as a consequence of one's overall positive or negative judgment. Ultimately, it is more important to investigate a continuous attitude as a predictor of negative behavioral responses to the consequences of customer dissatisfaction. Moreover, the dissatisfaction literature tends to look at the attitude toward a behavior, such as complaining, not overall attitude toward a particular service provider. This study has identified the importance of having some knowledge of customers' continuous attitude toward a hotel.

7.2.3. Importance of service recovery

The findings of this study also highlight the significance of service recovery for dissatisfied customers, given that attitude toward a hotel acts as a mediator for predicting negative post purchase intentions. Studies emphasize the importance of service recovery as a

chance to alter customers' negative attitude by resolving a service failure (McDougall & Levesque, 1999; Michel, 2001; Spreng et al., 1995; Swanson & Hsu, 2009). Similarly, it is observed that a successful service recovery entails a higher level of customer satisfaction, customer loyalty, positive word-of-mouth, and increased profits (Bitner et al., 1990; Hart et al., 1990; Michel, 2001; Spreng et al., 1995).

In terms of the practical implications for hotel management, it is important to avoid customers developing a negative attitude after they have begun to feel dissatisfied. However, if management discovers a service failure or an incident of customer dissatisfaction, there is still a final opportunity to restore the relationship by providing an immediate solution before the customer takes a negative action. Such solutions might include a prompt apology, acknowledgement of service failure, or other service recovery actions. This finding adds credence to those of previous studies stressing the significance of instant management of service failures and the need to make substantial efforts in service recovery to ameliorate customers' negative assessment (Bradley & Sparks, 2009; Ha & Jang, 2009; Magnini & Karande, 2009; Mattila & Ro, 2008; McCollough et al., 2000; Susskind & Viccari, 2011).

In addition, practitioners should focus on the importance of customers' attitude toward their hotels. This study implies that customers who are dissatisfied with a hotel do not immediately indicate their negative behavioral intentions, but instead form a negative attitude toward the hotel which leads to the intention to switch, spread negative word-of-mouth, or complain. The negative attitude is a more important influence on their behavioral intention than their initial attitude as formed before their experience of staying in the hotel. Ultimately, this highlights the significance of service as a recovery strategy. Studies emphasize the importance of service recovery as a chance to alter negative attitudes by resolving a service failure (McDougall

& Levesque, 1999; Michel, 2001; Swanson & Hsu, 2009; Spreng et al., 1995) and accordingly improving customer satisfaction. Ultimately, successful service recovery leads to more customer loyalty, positive word-of-mouth, and increased profits (Bitner et al., 1990; Hart et al., 1990; Michel, 2001; Spreng et al., 1995).

7.2.4 Customer dissatisfaction and hotel class

This study has also identified the impact of hotel class in customer dissatisfaction. It has shown that patrons of both upscale and budget hotels demonstrate similar patterns in terms of the relationships between customer dissatisfaction and its consequences. Even though customers in each type of hotel have different expectations and perceptions of value for money (Griffin et al., 1997; Hua et al., 2009; Knutson, 1988; Knutson et al., 1993), the relationships between dissatisfaction, attitude toward a hotel, and consequences were similar regardless of hotel class. As a result, customer dissatisfaction negatively affects overall attitude toward a hotel and future purchase intention, mediated by attitude, regardless of hotel class.

In terms of the management perspective, a degree of service failure is practically inevitable regardless of hotel class. The results of this study have shown that dissatisfaction and its consequences do not differ across hotel classes. Upscale hotels tend to practice service recovery more proactively than budget (Sparks & Bradley, 2014). However, this study provides evidence that managers in both upscale and budget hotels should emphasize the importance of monitoring service failure and implementing active service recovery strategies. Even though budget hotels tend not to allocate enough resources to service recovery, they should not neglect it and need to design a financial plan in order to sustainably maintain their businesses.

As a final note, service failure cannot always be prevented. Although it sometimes happens and customers do become dissatisfied, this study suggests that there is an opportunity to avoid this turning into negative behavioral intentions. In conclusion, hotel practitioners need to monitor customers' unsatisfactory experiences and acknowledge the need to manage customers' negative attitude toward their hotel. In addition, it is necessary to provide successful service recovery before customers form a negative attitude in order to retain dissatisfied customers, prevent negative word-of-mouth, and avoid complaints.

The key point emerging from this study is that customer dissatisfaction can be distinguished from satisfaction in terms of its antecedents based on customer-generated content such as online hotel reviews. Furthermore, hotel class plays an important role in the evaluation of both good and bad experiences. There tends to be more of a focus on the negative perspective. However, both upscale and budget hotel customers in this study demonstrated a similar pattern in terms of the consequences of their dissatisfaction. In particular, they formed a negative attitude toward a hotel and developed a strong intention to engage in negative behavioral responses once they had become dissatisfied with a hotel. Customer dissatisfaction should be emphasized as an important independent construct as much as satisfaction.

7.2.5 Study II: Limitations and future research directions

This study also has some limitations which suggest directions for future research. Firstly, a handful of studies have defined two distinctive types of attitude (antecedent and continuous) within a customer satisfaction model (Ekinici et al., 2008; Oliver, 1980). This study has shown that consequent attitudes, affected by dissatisfaction, lead directly to actual behavioral intentions. Therefore, further work is needed to investigate the role of antecedent attitude in the event of

customer dissatisfaction. Secondly, this study set out to explore whether there is a difference in the consequences of customer dissatisfaction between upscale and budget hotels. Thus, a future study should test this model, taking into account respondents' demographic profiles and travel characteristics, in order to confirm whether the consequences of dissatisfaction and the role of attitude toward a hotel are consistent with the findings of this study. Thirdly, given the significance of service recovery identified here, future work should investigate diverse approaches to this and their impact on mitigating unhappy customers' behavioral responses, with a view to improving unfavorable attitude toward a hotel after a customer experiences dissatisfaction.

Fourthly, the hotel segment such as upscale and budget hotel is categorized according to hotel price. The results of Study II showed that the consequences of customer dissatisfaction were similarly identified between the upscale and budget hotel segments. This implies that the investigation of customer dissatisfaction can be more meaningful in considering not only the specific segment related to hotel price, but also other segments such as resort, air bnb, boutique hotel, business hotel, or country inn. The consequences of customer dissatisfaction in different hotel segments can be examined in a future study. Fifthly, a few errors were found out in the questionnaire. For example, future intention questions, 'BI6' and 'BI8' included two objectives in one question. In addition, the occupation answers '[1] Professional/Executive' and '[4] Public servant' may not be mutually exclusive. This might influence answers of respondents.

Lastly, this study empirically examined the effect of customer dissatisfaction on attitude toward a hotel and negative behavioral intention. However, there could exist more influential factors (e.g. regret, emotion, personality, culture or mood) and alternatives (e.g. tourist destinations, restaurants, and so on) that could affect the consequences of customer

dissatisfaction. They may affect the consequences and show different results in the framework. Thus, influential factors that were not considered in this study should be examined in future studies.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1. The summary of service failure literature

| Category | Author | Key point | Title | Summary |
|--|---------------------------|--|---|---|
| Service failure | Namkung & Jang (2010) | The most critical stage of service failure in restaurant | Conservative Choice, Service Failure, and Customer Loyalty: Testing the Limits of Informed Choice | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Service failure in casual and fine dining restaurant happens on the four stages which are reception, ordering meal, consumption, checkout following by the stages. - The weakest stage of customer satisfaction is consumption (stage 3) during the consumption. And the result follows checkout (stage 4), ordering (stage 2), and reception (stage 1). - Following the stage of service in restaurants, customers show the different critical magnitude for service failure, and the main reason of service failure can be shown as the main food during the meal. - Understating the most critical stage of service failure is an important point to reduce customer dissatisfaction. |
| Service failure Satisfaction Loyalty | Susskind & Viccari (2011) | The four types of service failure and Guests' satisfaction and their repeat-patronage intentions | A Look at the Relationship between Service Failures, Guest Satisfaction, and Repeat-Patronage Intentions of Casual Dining Guest | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The study investigated the relationship between the severity of service failure, satisfaction and repurchase intention depending on the four types of service failure (food, service, atmosphere or others, food and service) in restaurant. - Guests' satisfaction with the outcome of their complaint and their repeat-patronage intentions were negatively related to the severity of the service failure, but it was not significant. |
| Service failure Loyalty | Cranage & Sujan (2004) | Customers' choice to improve their loyalty when service failure happens | Customer Choice: A Preemptive Strategy to Buffer the Effects of Service Failure and Improve Customer Loyalty | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The strategy in terms of the interactive effect between choice and foreseeability of service failure was examined to mitigates service failure and improve customer loyalty. - The interactive effect between choice (no choice, uninformed choice, informed choice) and foreseeability of service failure (unforeseeable, foreseeable) affects customer loyalty. |
| Service failure | Bradley & Sparks (2009) | The important role of explanation for service failure by service providers | Dealing with service failures: the use of explanations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The effect of the types of explanation on the magnitude of service failure was examined. - The four types of explanation (excuse, justifications, referential, apologies) called social account by Bies (1987) are adopted. |
| Service failure Brand Behavior | Xie & Heung (2012) | The moderating role of brand relationship quality | The effects of brand relationship quality on responses to service failure of hotel consumers | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The study investigated the moderating role of brand relationship quality between service failure and customers' behavioral intention. - In order to apply brand relationship quality to hotel industry, brand relationship quality constructs the strength and depth of relationship with consumer formed with six dimensions such as three streams feeling, thinking, and acting. |



| | | | | |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------------|--|--|---|
| Service failure Complaining | McQuiken & Robertson (2011) | The effect of service guarantees, request to voice, and failure severity on complaint behavior | The influence of guarantees, active requests to voice and failure severity on customer complaint behavior | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The study examined the effect of service guarantees and request to voice following service failure by service providers and failure severity on customer complaint behavior. - The study was designed with 3 subjects' experimental scenario. Three guarantees (none, unconditional, combined) and two active requests to voice (yes, no) and two failure severity (major, minor). - The finding was that failure severity has the strongest influence on customer complaining behaviors. |
| Service failure | Lee & Spark (2007) | Five value of Chinese tourists for service failure | Appraising Tourism and Hospitality Service Failure Events: A Chinese Perspective | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Mean-end chain theory was applied to conduct qualitative method as the main methodology. - Chinese tourists are significantly growing targets in worldwide tourism destination. - Service failure can have a helpful aspect to develop service with a service recovery strategy. - The study is to investigate Chinese tourists' culture value in manner of Means-end chain method. - Five values which are face, equity, value, harmony, junzi aspiration were discovered. |
| Service failure | Wan, Chan, & Su (2011) | The role of personal similarity and regulatory focus observed by customers | When will customers care about service failures that happened to strangers? The role of personal similarity and regulatory focus and its implication on service evaluation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The study emphasized the indirect impact of service failure to a stranger on service evaluation through observing customers. - The study assessed the magnitude of involving service failure as a personal similarity such as a same age group and VIP tendency. - The role of concept for gain and loss was considered with regulatory focus are two approaches which are promotion focusing and prevention focusing. - Promotion focusing was approached from positive outcome and prevention focusing intensifies the negative impact of personal similarity on service evaluation. |
| Service failure | Zainol, Lockwood, & Kutsch (2010) | Zone of tolerance to service failure | Relating the Zone of Tolerance to Service Failure in the Hospitality Industry | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Service encounters were classified with positive and negative statements. - Positive items have narrower range or zone of tolerance than negative items. - Dissatisfying items have more impact on zone of tolerance. - Dissatisfaction raises the level of service expectation, and items influencing dissatisfaction should be considered for service failure. |

Appendix 2. The summary of customer complaint literature

| Category | Author | Key point | Title | Summary |
|---|------------------------------------|--|---|---|
| Propensity to complain Personality factors | Jones, McCleary, & Lepisto (2002) | Socio-demographic characteristics, personality, and behavioral factors | Consumer complaint behavior manifestations for table service restaurants: Identifying socio-demographic characteristics, personality, and behavioral factors | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The study examined the effect of the personality and behavioral factors on customers' propensity to complain and behavior responses. - The study verified the segmentation of complainers and non-complainers identified by socio-demographic characteristics, personality, and behavioral factors in restaurant setting. With the assumption of the two types of customers, the segmentation affected to consumer complaint behavior responses. |
| Propensity to complain Personality factors | Gursoy, McCleary, & Lepisto (2007) | The effect of personality and behavioral factors on propensity to complain | Propensity to complain: effects of personality and behavioral factors. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The study mainly explored the effect with personality and behavioral factors which affect to customers' propensity to complain. - The most significant constructs of personality and behavioral factors were customers' locus of control and their price consciousness. |
| Service failure Propensity toward complain | Susskind (2004) | Propensity to complain, attitude toward complain on information inadequacy, and on customer frustration in service failure | Consumer frustration in the customer-server exchange: The role of attitudes toward complaining and information inadequacy related to service failures | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Under the situation of customer-service provider exchange, service failure can happen. - The study investigated the phenomenon of customer frustration in service based transaction. - The effect of the propensity to complain and attitude toward complain on information inadequacy, and the perception of information inadequacy were significantly related to customer frustration. |
| CCB Demographic characteristic | Lam & Tang (2003) | Customers' demographic characteristics | Recognizing customer complaint behavior: the case of Hong Kong hotel restaurants. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The study clarified the customer complaint behavior. Particularly the relationship between four types of demographic characteristic (gender, age, education, income) and the behaviors were investigated by self-administrated questionnaire. - The study examined the four types of customer complaint behaviors (personal actions, word-of-mouth, complaining to management, and publicizing) in restaurant setting. |
| CCB Situational and personal characteristics | Kim & Chen(2010) | Attitude toward complaining | The effects of situational and personal characteristics on consumer complaint behavior in restaurant services | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - This study testified a model of effect of situational and personal characteristics on consumers' complaint behavior in restaurant setting. - After dissatisfaction occurs, situational (involvement, service recovery) and personal (perceived self-importance, positive attitude to complaint) would voice displeasure to a restaurant, stop patronizing a restaurant, engage in negative word-of-mouth, and resort to a third party. |
| Complaining intention | Cheng & Lam (2008) | Attitude toward complaining | The role of the customer-seller relationship in the | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The study examined the several customer-seller relationships between personal attitude toward complaining, the subjective norm, |

| | | | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------|--|---|---|
| | | Relationship Complaining intention | intention of the customer to complain: A study of Chinese restaurateurs. | perceived behavioral control, the relational contact and the complaining intention of Chinese customers were explored. |
| Cross-national approach | Yuksel, Kilinc, & Yuksel (2006) | Attitude toward complaining | Cross-national analysis of hotel customers' attitudes toward complaining and their complaining behaviors. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The study focused on the similarity and differences of customers' complaining attitude in complaining behaviors were conducted in four nationalities (Turkey, the Netherlands, Britain and Israel). - The result showed that differences are more precise than similarities and the attitude to complaining has moderating role. |
| Cross-national approach | Huang, Huang, & Wu (1996) | Complaining intention | National character and response to unsatisfactory hotel service. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The national characteristics between American and Japanese, and complaining intention to unsatisfactory hotel service were examined. - The result was that American guests are more likely to stop purchasing hotel service, complain about dissatisfaction and give acquaintances caveats than Japanese guests who did no action responses. |

Appendix 3. Survey questionnaire

| | |
|---|--|
|  <p>THE HONG KONG POLYTECHNIC UNIVERSITY 香港理工大學</p> | School of  Hotel & Tourism Management |
| Dear Survey Participant: | |
| I am a PhD student at the School of Hotel & Tourism Management of The Hong Kong Polytechnic University (HKPU). I am interested in your opinions regarding a hotel experience. | |
| In this survey, you will be requested to answer sets of short questions. Please follow the instructions and give your honest opinions. It will take less than 10 minutes to complete this survey. Your responses are completely confidential and anonymous. | |
| If you have any inquiries and concerns regarding this research, please contact the following investigator. | |
| Thank you very much for your assistance and I wish you all the best! | |
| <p>Ms. Bona Kim Ph.D. Student School of Hotel and Tourism Management The Hong Kong Polytechnic University Email: bona.kim@</p> | <p>Dr. Sam Kim Associate Professor School of Hotel and Tourism Management The Hong Kong Polytechnic University Email: sam.kim@</p> |

Please check (✓) the most appropriate answer.

Q. Have you had any dissatisfactory experience at a hotel since January 2013?

[1] Yes [2] No

If you answer '**[1] Yes**' to the above question, **please continue to answer** the following questions.

Q. Which type of hotel did you stay when you experienced dissatisfaction?

[1] Upscale hotel (4-5 star hotel) [2] Budget hotel (1-2 star hotel)

If you checked **[1] Upscale Hotel (4-5 Star Hotel)**, please go to the **VERSION I (page 2)**.

If you checked **[2] Budget Hotel (1-2 Star Hotel)**, please go to the **VERSION II (page 7)**.

VERSION I (Upscale Hotel, 4-5 Star Hotel)

Imagine when you experienced dissatisfaction with the upscale hotel during the hotel stay last year.

Part I. Evaluation of the “Hotel A” in the dissatisfactory situation

Based on your particular experience at the “Hotel A”, please check (✓) the answer that best reflects your opinion toward each statement.

| 1. | Evaluation of The “Hotel A” | Not totally Dissatisfied | | Neutral | | | Highly Dissatisfied | |
|-----|---|--------------------------|---|---------|---|---|---------------------|---|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| CD1 | As a whole, I was _____ with the “Hotel A”. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| CD2 | I was _____ about my overall experience with the “Hotel A”. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| CD3 | I was _____ with the overall quality of the “Hotel A”. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

| 2. | Attitude toward the “Hotel A” | Neutral | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| AT1 | Favorable | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Unfavorable |
| AT2 | Positive | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Negative |
| AT3 | How did you feel about the “Hotel A” based on your experience? | Good | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Bad |
| AT4 | | Like | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Dislike |
| AT5 | | Rewarding | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Punishing |
| AT6 | | Attractive | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Unattractive |
| AT7 | | Valuable | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Worthless |

| 3. | Future intention at “Hotel A” | Strongly disagree | | Neutral | | | Strongly agree | |
|-----|--|-------------------|---|---------|---|---|----------------|---|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| BI1 | I will NOT stay at the “Hotel A” after the experience. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| BI2 | I will NOT use the services of the “Hotel A” in the future. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| BI3 | I will NOT return to the “Hotel A” in the future. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| BI4 | I will switch to another competing hotel for my needs. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| BI5 | I will say negative things about the “Hotel A” to other people. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| BI6 | I will discourage friends and family from going to the “Hotel A”. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| BI7 | I will advise against the “Hotel A” when someone seeks my advice. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

| | | | | | | | | |
|------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| BI8 | I will speak to my friends and relatives about my bad experience. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| BI9 | I will let staff know about the problem. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| BI10 | I will complain to the “Hotel A” about the poor quality of service. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| BI11 | I will directly ask staff to solve the problem. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| BI12 | I will file a written complaint. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

Part II. Demographic Profile

Please check (✓) the most appropriate answer.

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|---|--|----------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------|--|---------------------|-------------------|-------------|-------------|-----------------|------------|
| V1 | Gender | [1] Male | [2] Female | | | | | | | | | |
| V2 | Age | [1] 20 or less | [2] 21-30 | [3] 31-40 | [4] 41-50 | [5] 51-60 | [6] 61 or more | | | | | |
| V3 | Marital status | [1] Single | [2] Married | [3] Other | | | | | | | | |
| V4 | The highest level of education attained | [1] High school or less | [2] College student | [3] Bachelor’s Degree | [4] Master’s degree | [5] Doctoral degree | | | | | | |
| V5 | Occupation | [1] Professional/Executive | [2] Education | [3] Company worker | [4] Public servant | [5] Sales/Service | [6] Homemaker | [7] Self employed | [8] Student | [9] Retired | [10] Unemployed | [11] Other |
| V6 | Annual household income | [1] Less than US\$ 40,000 | [2] US\$ 40,000–59,999 | [3] US\$ 60,000–79,999 | [4] US\$ 80,000–99,999 | [5] US\$ 100,000 or more | | | | | | |
| V7 | Nationality | [1] American | [2] Other (Please specify) _____ | | | | | | | | | |
| V8 | Ethnicity | [1] Caucasian | [2] African-American | [3] Hispanic | [4] Asian | [5] Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islander | [6] American Indian | [7] Other _____ | | | | |
| V9 | Your residence: | City/County (_____)/ State (_____) | | | | | | | | | | |
| V10 | General purpose to stay at upscale hotel | [1] Leisure | [2] Business | [3] Visiting friends and relatives | [4] Other | | | | | | | |
| V11 | How often did you stay at an upscale hotel since January 2013? | [1] Once | [2] 2 times | [3] 3 times | [4] 4 times | [5] 5 times or more | | | | | | |
| V12 | How much on average do you spend on room rate at upscale hotel per night? | [1] US\$ 300 or under | [2] US\$ 301~400 | [3] US\$ 401~500 | [4] US\$ 501~600 | [5] US\$ 601 or more | | | | | | |

Thank you for your participation!

VERSION II (Budget Hotel, 1-2 Star Hotel)

Imagine when you experienced dissatisfaction with the budget hotel during the hotel stay last year.

Part I. Evaluation of the “Hotel B” in the dissatisfactory situation

Based on your particular experience at the “Hotel B”, please check (✓) the answer that best reflects your opinion toward each statement.

| 1. | Evaluation of The “Hotel B” | Not totally Dissatisfied | | | Neutral | | | Highly Dissatisfied | |
|-----|---|--------------------------|---|---|---------|---|---|---------------------|--|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| CD1 | As a whole, I was _____ with the “Hotel B”. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| CD2 | I was _____ about my overall experience with the “Hotel B”. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| CD3 | I was _____ with the overall quality of the “Hotel B”. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |

| 2. | Attitude toward the “Hotel B” | Neutral | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| AT1 | Favorable | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Unfavorable |
| AT2 | Positive | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Negative |
| AT3 | How did you feel about the “Hotel B” based on your experience? | Good | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Bad |
| AT4 | | Like | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Dislike |
| AT5 | | Rewarding | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Punishing |
| AT6 | | Attractive | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Unattractive |
| AT7 | | Valuable | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | Worthless |

| 3. | Future intention at “Hotel B” | Strongly disagree | | | Neutral | | | Strongly agree | |
|-----|--|-------------------|---|---|---------|---|---|----------------|--|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| BI1 | I will NOT stay at the “Hotel B” after the experience. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| BI2 | I will NOT use the services of the “Hotel B” in the future. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| BI3 | I will NOT return to the “Hotel B” in the future. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| BI4 | I will switch to another competing hotel for my needs. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| BI5 | I will say negative things about the “Hotel B” to other people. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| BI6 | I will discourage friends and family from going to the “Hotel B”. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |

| | | | | | | | | |
|------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| BI7 | I will advise against the “Hotel B” when someone seeks my advice. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| BI8 | I will speak to my friends and relatives about my bad experience. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| BI9 | I will let staff know about the problem. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| BI10 | I will complain to the “Hotel B” about the poor quality of service. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| BI11 | I will directly ask staff to solve the problem. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| BI12 | I will file a written complaint. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

Part II. Demographic Profile

Please check (✓) the most appropriate answer.

| | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|--|----------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------|--|---------------------|
| V1 | Gender | [1] Male | [2] Female | | | | |
| V2 | Age | [1] 20 or less | [2] 21-30 | [3] 31-40 | [4] 41-50 | [5] 51-60 | [6] 61 or more |
| V3 | Marital status | [1] Single | [2] Married | [3] Other | | | |
| V4 | The highest level of education attained | [1] High school or less | [2] College student | [3] Bachelor’s Degree | [4] Master’s degree | [5] Doctoral degree | |
| V5 | Occupation | [1] Professional/Executive | [2] Education | [3] Company worker | [4] Public servant | [5] Sales/Service | [6] Homemaker |
| | | [7] Self employed | [8] Student | [9] Retired | [10] Unemployed | [11] Other | |
| V6 | Annual household income | [1] Less than US\$ 40,000 | [2] US\$ 40,000–59,999 | [3] US\$ 60,000–79,999 | [4] US\$ 80,000–99,999 | [5] US\$ 100,000 or more | |
| V7 | Nationality | [1] American | [2] Other (Please specify) _____ | | | | |
| V8 | Ethnicity | [1] Caucasian | [2] African-American | [3] Hispanic | [4] Asian | [5] Native Hawaiian and other Pacific Islander | [6] American Indian |
| | | [7] Other _____ | | | | | |
| V9 | Your residence: | City/County (_____)/ State (_____) | | | | | |
| V10 | General purpose to stay at budget hotel | [1] Leisure | [2] Business | [3] Visiting friends and relatives | [4] Other | | |
| V11 | How often did you stay at a budget hotel since January 2013? | [1] Once | [2] 2 times | [3] 3 times | [4] 4 times | [5] 5 times or more | |
| V12 | How much on average do you spend on room rate at budget hotel per night? | [1] US\$ 50 or under | [2] US\$ 51~100 | [3] US\$ 101~150 | [4] US\$ 151~200 | [5] US\$ 201 or more | |

Thank you for your participation!

Appendix 4. Satisfier framework

| Staff component | Room component | | Hotel property/appearance component | | Facility component | | Extra component | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|-------------------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|--------------------|---------------------|--------------------|--|--------------|--------------|--|--------------|--------------|
| | Upscale Rank (%) | Budget Rank (%) | Upscale Rank (%) | Budget Rank (%) | Upscale Rank (%) | Budget Rank (%) | Upscale Rank (%) | Budget Rank (%) | | | | | | |
| Staff and their attitude | 2 (8.30) | 2 (9.70) | Room size | 3 (4.88) | 10 (3.19) | Hotel style/design | 9 (2.81) | 19 (1.38) | Gym | 29 (1.16) | - | Location | 1 (8.48) | 1 (10.79) |
| General service | 4 (3.90) | 17 (1.74) | Room: Overall condition | 6 (3.48) | 13 (2.39) | Hotel atmosphere | 23 (1.46) | 25 (0.87) | Executive lounge | 31 (0.98) | 60 (0.07) | Breakfast | 5 (3.78) | 9 (3.26) |
| Front desk staff and their service | 11 (2.44) | 13 (2.39) | Bed | 7 (3.05) | 7 (4.13) | Lobby | 26 (1.40) | 30 (0.72) | Spa | 31 (0.98) | - | Neighborhood | 9 (2.81) | 5 (5.50) |
| Concierge | 13 (2.38) | 28 (0.80) | View | 8 (2.99) | 23 (1.09) | Decoration | 28 (1.28) | 35 (0.58) | Pool | 36 (0.73) | 56 (0.14) | Refreshments | 14 (2.32) | 32 (0.65) |
| Doorman service | 23 (1.46) | 60 (0.07) | Bathroom | 11 (2.44) | 8 (4.06) | Cleanliness | 46 (0.49) | 15 (2.24) | Business center | 74 (0.06) | - | Restaurant | 16 (2.14) | 37 (0.51) |
| Housekeeping staff and their service | 26 (1.40) | 25 (0.87) | Room cleanliness | 15 (2.20) | 3 (7.60) | Elevator | 49 (0.43) | 50 (0.22) | Additional facilities (gift shop, ice machine) | - | 43 (0.29) | Bar | 18 (2.07) | - |
| Room service | 33 (0.85) | - | Quietness | 16 (2.14) | 16 (2.17) | Artwork | 57 (0.31) | - | | | | Transportation | 22 (1.53) | 4 (5.94) |
| Bell desk staff and their service | 35 (0.79) | 32 (0.65) | Complimentary amenities | 19 (2.01) | 42 (0.36) | Hotel building | 60 (0.24) | 56 (0.14) | | | | Internet/Wifi /computer | 30 (1.10) | 18 (1.45) |
| Manager attitude | 66 (0.12) | 50 (0.22) | Room comfortable | 20 (1.83) | 11 (2.46) | Floor | 60 (0.24) | 60 (0.07) | | | | Room rate | 33 (0.85) | 6 (4.92) |
| | | | Room style | 20 (1.83) | 35 (0.58) | Carpet | 66 (0.12) | 60 (0.07) | | | | Value for money | 42 (0.55) | 11 (2.46) |
| | | | In-room facilities | 23 (1.46) | 19 (1.38) | | | | | | | Upgrade | 42 (0.55) | 43 (0.29) |
| | | | Shower | 36 (0.73) | 24 (0.94) | | | | | | | Special events | 42 (0.55) | 60 (0.07) |
| | | | Linen | 36 (0.73) | 25 (0.87) | | | | | | | Extra services (e.g., rental, butler, car) | 46 (0.49) | 50 (0.22) |
| | | | Minibar/fridge | 36 (0.73) | 30 (0.72) | | | | | | | Check in | 49 (0.43) | 28 (0.87) |
| | | | TV | 40 (0.61) | 21 (1.16) | | | | | | | Security/Safety | 54 (0.37) | 21 (1.16) |

| | | |
|------------------|--------------|--------------|
| Furnishing | 40 (0.61) | 40 (0.43) |
| Terrace | 42 (0.55) | - |
| Closet | 46 (0.49) | 60 (0.07) |
| Kitchen | 49 (0.43) | 37 (0.51) |
| Coffee machine | 49 (0.43) | 43 (0.29) |
| Lighting | 49 (0.43) | 56 (0.14) |
| Pillow | 54 (0.37) | 40 (0.43) |
| Couch | 57 (0.31) | 0 |
| Towel | 60 (0.24) | 37 (0.51) |
| Bath robe | 64 (0.18) | - |
| Heating system | 66 (0.12) | 56 (0.14) |
| Wake up call | 66 (0.12) | - |
| Curtain | 66 (0.12) | - |
| Air conditioning | 74 (0.06) | 32 (0.65) |
| Water pressure | 74 (0.06) | 43 (0.29) |
| Ventilation | 74 (0.06) | 50 (0.22) |
| Bath tub | 74 (0.06) | 50 (0.22) |
| Smell | 74 (0.06) | - |
| Temperature | - | 60 (0.07) |
| Blanket | - | 60 (0.07) |

| | | |
|---------------------------|--------------|--------------|
| Valet parking and parking | 54 (0.37) | 43 (0.29) |
| Other guests | 57 (0.31) | - |
| Quality | 60 (0.24) | - |
| Package promotion | 64 (0.18) | - |
| Room change | 66 (0.12) | 60 (0.07) |
| Early check in | 66 (0.12) | 60 (0.07) |
| Music | 66 (0.12) | - |
| Late check out | 74 (0.06) | 43 (0.29) |
| Membership | 74 (0.06) | - |
| Request for smoking room | 74 (0.06) | 43 (0.29) |
| Management | 74 (0.06) | 50 (0.22) |
| Check out | 74 (0.06) | 60 (0.07) |
| Lost & found | 74 (0.06) | - |
| Reservation | - | 60 (0.07) |
| Web information | - | 60 (0.07) |
| Everything | - | 60 (0.07) |
| Maintenance | - | 60 (0.07) |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------|---|---|----------------------|----|----|----------------------|----|---|---------------------|---|---|----------------------|----|----|
| Total: 9 satisfiers | 9 | 8 | Total: 35 satisfiers | 33 | 29 | Total: 10 satisfiers | 10 | 9 | Total: 6 satisfiers | 5 | 3 | Total: 32 satisfiers | 28 | 25 |
|---------------------|---|---|----------------------|----|----|----------------------|----|---|---------------------|---|---|----------------------|----|----|

Appendix 5. Dissatisfier framework

| Staff component | Room component | | Hotel property/appearance component | | Facility component | | Extra component | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|----------------|-----------|-------------------------------------|-----------|--------------------|--------------------|-----------------|-----------|------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------------------|-----------|-----------|
| | Upscale | Budget | Upscale | Budget | Upscale | Budget | Upscale | Budget | | | | | | |
| | Rank (%) | | Rank (%) | | Rank (%) | | Rank (%) | | | | | | | |
| Staff and their attitude | 1 (9.18) | 2 (6.60) | Dirtiness | 2 (5.88) | 1 (8.23) | Elevator | 27 (1.18) | 12 (2.11) | Pool | 64 (0.35) | - | Management | 5 (3.06) | 19 (1.72) |
| Service | 3 (3.76) | 30 (1.05) | Noisiness | 4 (3.53) | 4 (5.93) | Lobby | 27 (1.18) | 42 (0.67) | Executive lounge | 64 (0.35) | - | Restaurant | 9 (2.47) | 54 (0.38) |
| Manager attitude | 6 (2.71) | 36 (0.86) | Bathroom | 9 (2.47) | 5(4.88) | Carpet | 36 (0.82) | 30 (1.05) | Gym | 64 (0.35) | - | Responsibility | 11 (2.35) | 27 (1.24) |
| Room service | 6 (2.71) | 65 (0.19) | Room size | 14 (2.00) | 3 (6.32) | Hotel old building | 45 (0.71) | 7 (2.39) | Sauna | 78 (0.12) | - | Breakfast | 12 (2.24) | 25 (1.34) |
| Housekeeping staff and their service | 8 (2.59) | 30 (1.05) | Bed | 18 (1.53) | 6 (3.06) | Decoration | 45 (0.71) | 54 (0.38) | Spa | 78 (0.12) | - | Room rate | 15 (1.88) | 12 (2.11) |
| Front desk staff and their service | 12 (2.24) | 9 (2.30) | Air conditioning | 18 (1.53) | 18 (1.82) | Entrance | 78 (0.12) | - | Banquet | 78 (0.12) | - | Billing mischarged | 15 (1.88) | 49 (0.48) |
| Doorman service | 22 (1.41) | 65 (0.19) | In-room facilities | 18 (1.53) | 21 (1.53) | Art work | 78 (0.12) | - | Extra facilities | x | 49 (0.48) | Request | 17 (1.76) | 34 (0.96) |
| Bell desk staff and their service | 24 (1.29) | 47 (0.57) | Complimentary amenities | 27 (1.18) | 30 (1.05) | Hotel atmosphere | - | 36 (0.86) | | | | Value for money | 18 (1.53) | 9 (2.30) |
| Concierge | 27 (1.18) | 49 (0.48) | Room style/design | 27 (1.18) | 60 (0.29) | | | | | | | Reservation | 22 (1.41) | 14 (1.91) |
| Staff uniform | 78 (0.12) | - | Shower | 32 (1.06) | 23 (1.44) | | | | | | | Wrong web information | 24 (1.29) | 14 (1.91) |
| | | | Room atmosphere | 32 (1.06) | 39 (0.77) | | | | | | | Bar | 24 (1.29) | - |
| | | | Lighting | 35 (0.94) | 36 (0.86) | | | | | | | Internet/Wifi | 32 (1.06) | 21 (1.53) |
| | | | Temperature | 36 (0.82) | 7 (2.36) | | | | | | | Security/safety | 36 (0.82) | 14 (2011) |
| | | | Smell (e.g., smoking) | 36 (0.82) | 9 (2.30) | | | | | | | Location | 36 (0.82) | 34 (0.96) |
| | | | Towel | 36 (0.82) | 19 (1.72) | | | | | | | Check in | 36 (0.82) | 60 (0.29) |
| | | | Room assignment | 36 (0.82) | 75 (0.10) | | | | | | | Item missed | 45 (0.71) | 60 (0.29) |
| | | | TV | 36 (0.82) | 28 (1.49) | | | | | | | Room change | 45 (0.71) | 75 (0.10) |
| | | | Linen | 45 (0.71) | 14 (1.91) | | | | | | | Maintenance | 52 (0.59) | 25 (1.34) |

| | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------|--------------|
| Water pressure and temperature | 45 (0.71) | 23 (1.44) |
| View | 45 (0.71) | 54 (0.38) |
| Heating system | 52 (0.59) | 28 (1.49) |
| Furnishing | 52 (0.59) | 47 (0.57) |
| Room ready before check in | 52 (0.59) | 54 (0.38) |
| Bath tub | 52 (0.59) | 65 (0.19) |
| Room key | 58 (0.47) | 42 (0.67) |
| Pillow | 64 (0.35) | 42 (0.67) |
| Minibar/fridge | 64 (0.35) | 65 (0.19) |
| Curtain | 64 (0.35) | 65 (0.19) |
| Coffee machine | 64 (0.35) | - |
| Ventilation | 72 (0.24) | 39 (0.77) |
| Room uncomfortable | 72 (0.24) | 54 (0.38) |
| Phone (signal, system) | 72 (0.24) | - |
| Closet | 78 (0.12) | 39 (0.77) |
| Couch | 78 (0.12) | - |
| Kitchen | - | 42 (0.67) |
| Blanket | - | 54 (0.38) |

| | | |
|---|--------------|--------------|
| Additional charges | 52 (0.59) | 65 (0.19) |
| Quality | 58 (0.47) | 49 (0.48) |
| Item stolen | 58 (0.47) | 60 (0.29) |
| Wake up call | 58 (0.47) | 75 (0.10) |
| Check out | 58 (0.47) | 75 (0.10) |
| Extra services (e.g., coffee, butler, pick up, movie) | 58 (0.47) | - |
| Other guests | 64 (0.35) | 49 (0.48) |
| Valet parking/parking | 72 (0.24) | 60 (0.29) |
| Late check out | 72 (0.24) | 65 (0.19) |
| Membership | 72 (0.24) | - |
| Neighborhood | 78 (0.12) | 42 (0.67) |
| Lost & found | 78 (0.12) | 75 (0.10) |
| Refreshments | 78 (0.12) | 65 (0.19) |
| Upgrade | 78 (0.12) | - |
| Items damaged | 78 (0.12) | - |
| Transportation | - | 65 (0.19) |
| Everything | - | 65 (0.19) |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------------|----|---|-------------------------|----|----|------------------------|---|---|------------------------|---|---|-------------------------|----|----|
| Total: 10 dissatisfiers | 10 | 9 | Total: 36 dissatisfiers | 34 | 33 | Total: 8 dissatisfiers | 7 | 6 | Total: 7 dissatisfiers | 6 | 1 | Total: 35 dissatisfiers | 33 | 31 |
|-------------------------|----|---|-------------------------|----|----|------------------------|---|---|------------------------|---|---|-------------------------|----|----|

REFERENCES

- Agresti, A., & Finlay, B. (2009). *Statistical methods for the social sciences: With SPSS from A to Z: A brief step-by-step manual*.
- Ajzen, I. (1985) From intentions to actions: A theory of planned behavior. In: *Action control from cognition to behavior*. Eds: Khul, J. and Beckmann, J. Berlin: Verlag. 10-39.
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, 50(2), 179-211.
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1977). Attitude-behavior relations: A theoretical analysis and review of empirical research. *Psychological Bulletin; Psychological Bulletin*, 84(5), 888.
- Alegre, J., & Garau, J. (2010). Tourist Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37(1), 52–73.
- Allport, G. (1935). *Attitudes*. In C. Murchison (Ed.), *Handbook for social psychology* (798-884). Worcester, MA: Clark University Press.
- Alvarez, M. D., & Korzay, M. (2008). Influence of politics and media in the perceptions of Turkey as a tourism destination. *Tourism Review*, 63(2), 38-46.
- Ananth, M., DeMicco, F. J., Moreo, P. J., & Howey, R. M. (1992). Marketplace lodging needs of mature travellers. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 33(4), 12-24.
- Anderson, C. (2012). The impact of social media on lodging performance. *Cornell Hospitality Report*, 12(15), 4-11.
- Anderson, E. W. (1998). Customer Satisfaction and Word of Mouth. *Journal of Service Research*, 1(1), 5-17.
- Anderson, E. W., Fornell, C., & Lehmann, D. R. (1994). Customer satisfaction, market share, and profitability: findings from Sweden. *The Journal of Marketing*, 58(3), 53-66.
- Anderson, E. W., & Sullivan, M. W. (1993). The antecedents and consequences of customer satisfaction for firms. *Marketing science*, 12(2), 125-143.
- Anderson, R. E. (1973). Consumer Dissatisfaction: The Effect of Disconfirmed Expectancy on Perceived Product Performance. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 10(1), 38-44.
- Ariffin, A. A. M., & Maghzi, A. (2012). A preliminary study on customer expectations of hotel hospitality: Influences of personal and hotel factors. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(1), 191-198.

- Babin, B. J., & Griffin, M. (1998). The nature of satisfaction: An updated examination and analysis. *Journal of Business Research*, 41(2), 127–136.
- Bagozzi, R. P., & Yi, Y. (2012). Specification, evaluation, and interpretation of structural equation models. *Journal of the academy of marketing science*, 40(1), 8-34.
- Ballantyne, R., Packera, J. & Axelsena, M. (2009). Trends in tourism research. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 36(1): 149-152.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 51(6), 1173.
- Barsky, J. D. (1992). Customer Satisfaction in the Hotel Industry Meaning and Measurement. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 16(1), 51-73.
- Barsky, J. D., & Labagh, J. (1992). A strategy for customer satisfaction. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 33(5), 32-40.
- Bearden, W. O., & Teel, J. E. (1983). Selected determinants of consumer satisfaction and complaint reports. *Journal of marketing Research*, 20(1), 21-28.
- Becker, W. S., & Wellins, R. S. (1990). Customer-service perceptions and reality. *Training and Development Journal*, 44(3), 49-51.
- Bitner, M. J., Booms, B. H., & Tetreault, M. S. (1990). The service encounter: diagnosing favorable and unfavorable incidents. *Journal of Marketing*, 54(1), 71-84.
- Black, H., & Kelley, S. (2009). A storytelling perspective on online customer reviews reporting service failure and recovery. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 26(2), 169-179.
- Bleuel, B. (1990). Customer dissatisfaction and the zone of uncertainty. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 4(1), 49-52.
- Bolting, C. P. (1989). How do customers express dissatisfaction and what can service marketers do about it?. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 3(2), 5-23.
- Bollen, K.A. (1989). *Structural Equations with Latent Variables*, Wiley & Sons, New York, NY.
- Bougie, R., Pieters, R., & Zeelenberg, M. (2003). Angry customers don't come back, they get back: The experience and behavioral implications of anger and dissatisfaction in services. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 31(4), 377-393.
- Boulding, W., Kalra, A., Staelin, R., & Zeithaml, V. A. (1993). A dynamic process model of

- service quality: from expectations to behavioral intentions. *Journal of marketing research*, 30(1), 7-27.
- Bowen, J. T., & Chen, S. L. (2001). The relationship between customer loyalty and customer satisfaction. *International journal of contemporary hospitality management*, 13(5), 213-217.
- Bradley, G. L., & Sparks, B. A. (2009). Dealing with service failures: The use of explanations. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 26(2), 129-143.
- Cacioppo, J. T., & Petty, R. E. (1981). Argument-Based Persuasion. *Journal of personality and Social Psychology*, 41(5), 847-855.
- Cadotte, E. R., & Turgeon, N. (1988). Key factors in guest satisfaction. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 28(4), 44-51.
- Cardozo, R. N. (1965). An experimental study of customer effort, expectation, and satisfaction. *Journal of marketing research* 2(3), 244-249.
- Cavanagh, S. (1997). Content analysis: concepts, methods and applications. *Nurse researcher*, 4(3), 5-13.
- Chan, H., & Wan, L. C. (2009). Dual Influences of Moderating Variables in the Dissatisfaction Process: Theory and Evidence. *Journal of International Consumer Marketing*, 21(2), 125-135.
- Chan, H., Wan, L. C., & Sin, L. Y. M. (2007). Hospitality service failures: Who will be more dissatisfied? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 26(3), 531–545.
- Chan, J. K. L., & Baum, T. (2007). Researching Consumer Satisfaction. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 23(1), 71-83.
- Chan, N. L. & Guillet, B.D. (2011), Investigation of social media marketing: how does the hotel industry in Hong Kong perform in marketing on social media websites?, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 28(4), 345-368.
- 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.
- Chen, J. S., & Hsu, C. H. (2001). Developing and validating a riverboat gaming impact scale. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(2), 459-476.
- Cheng, S., & Lam, T. (2008). The role of the customer–seller relationship in the intention of the

- customer to complain: A study of Chinese restaurateurs. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 27(4), 552-562.
- Cheng, S., Lam, T., & Hsu C. H. C. (2005). Testing the sufficiency of the theory of planned behavior: a case of customer dissatisfaction responses in restaurants. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 24(4), 475–492.
- Cheng, S., Lam, T., & Hsu, C. H. (2006). Negative word-of-mouth communication intention: An application of the theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 30(1), 95-116.
- Chin, W. W. (1998). Commentary: Issues and opinion on structural equation modeling.
- Chitiris, L. (1988). Herzberg's proposals and their applicability to the hotel industry. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 12(1), 67-79.
- Choi, T. Y., & Chu, R. (2000). Levels of satisfaction among Asian and Western travellers. *International Journal of Quality & Reliability Management*, 17(2), 116-132.
- Churchill Jr, G. A. (1979). A paradigm for developing better measures of marketing constructs. *Journal of marketing research*, 64-73.
- Churchill Jr, G. A., & Surprenant, C. (1982). An investigation into the determinants of customer satisfaction. *Journal of Marketing research*, 19(4), 491-504.
- Clemes, M. D., Gan, C., & Ren, M. (2011). Synthesizing the Effects of Service Quality, Value, and Customer Satisfaction on Behavioral Intentions in the Motel Industry An Empirical Analysis. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 35(4), 530-568.
- Cohen, A. R. (1964). *Attitude Change and Social Influence*.
- Colgate, M., & Norris, M. (2001). Developing a comprehensive picture of service failure. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 12(3), 215-233.
- Cook, D., & Ralston, J. (2003). Sharpening the focus: Methodological issues in analysing on-line conferences. *Technology, Pedagogy and Education*, 12(3), 361-376.
- Costa, G., Glinia, E., Goudas, M., & Antoniou, P. (2004). Recreational services in resort hotels: Customer satisfaction aspects. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 9(2), 117-126.
- Cram, T. (2001). *Customers that count*. Financial Times Prentice Hall.
- Cranage, D., & Sujana, H. (2004). Customer choice: A preemptive strategy to buffer the effects of service failure and improve customer loyalty. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 28(1), 3-20.

- Creswell, J. W. (2008). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. SAGE Publications, Incorporated.
- Crie, D. (2003). Consumers' complaint behaviour. Taxonomy, typology and determinants: towards a unified ontology. *The Journal of Database Marketing & Customer Strategy Management*, 11(1), 60-79.
- Crompton, J. L. (2003). Adapting Herzberg: A Conceptualization of the Effects of Hygiene and Motivator Attributes on Perceptions of Event Quality. *Journal of Travel Research*, 41(3), 305-310.
- Cronin Jr, J. J., & Taylor, S. A. (1992). Measuring service quality: a reexamination and extension. *The journal of marketing*, 56(3), 55-68.
- Czepiel, J. A., Rosenberg, L. J., & Akerele, A. (1974). *Perspectives on consumer satisfaction* (119-123). New York University, Graduate School of Business Administration.
- Davidow, M. (2003). Organizational responses to customer complaints: what works and what doesn't. *Journal of Service Research*, 5(3), 225-250.
- Day, R. L. (1977). Extending the concept of consumer satisfaction. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 4(1), 149-154.
- Day, R. L., & Ash, S. B. (1979). Consumer response to dissatisfaction with durable products. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 6(1), 438-444.
- Day, R. L., & Bodur, M. (1978). Consumer response to dissatisfaction with services and intangibles. *Advances in Consumer Research*, 5(1), 263-272.
- Day, R. L., Grabicke, K., Schaetzle, T., & Staubach, F. (1981). The hidden agenda of consumer complaining. *Journal of Retailing*, 57(3), 86-106.
- Day, R. L., & Landon, Jr., E. L. (1977). *Toward a Theory of Consumer Complaining Behavior*. In *Consumer and industrial Buying Behavior*. Eds. Woodside, A., Sheth, J. and Bennett, P. North Holland Publishing Company, Amsterdam.
- Dellarocas, C. (2003). The digitization of word of mouth: Promise and challenges of online feedback mechanisms. *Management science*, 49(10), 1407-1424.
- DeWitt, T., & Brady, M. K. (2003). Rethinking Service Recovery Strategies: The Effect of Rapport on Consumer Responses to Service Failure. *Journal of Service Research*, 6(2), 193-207.
- Dickinger, A., & Bauernfeind, U. (2009). An analysis of corporate e-mail communication as part

- of airlines' service recovery strategy. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 26(2), 156-168.
- Dolnicar, S. (2002). Business travellers' hotel expectations and disappointments: A different perspective to hotel attribute importance investigation. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 7(1), 29-35.
- Dolnicar, S., & Otter, T. (2003). Which hotel attributes matter? *A review of previous and a framework for future research*.
- Driver, C., & Johnston, R. (2001). Understanding Service Customers. The Value of Hard and Soft Attributes. *Journal of Service Research*, 4(2), 130-139.
- Duverger, P. (2012). Using Dissatisfied Customers as a Source for Innovative Service Ideas. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 36(4), 537-563.
- Eagly, A. H., & Chaiken, S. (1993). *The psychology of attitudes*. Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers.
- Ekinici, Y., Dawes, P. L., & Massey, G. R. (2008). An extended model of the antecedents and consequences of consumer satisfaction for hospitality services. *European Journal of Marketing*, 42(1/2), 35-68.
- Fazio, R. H. (1986). *How do attitudes guide behavior*. Handbook of motivation and cognition: Foundations of social behavior, 1, 204-243.
- Fazio, R. H. (1995). *Attitudes as object-evaluation associations: Determinants, consequences, and correlates of attitude accessibility*.
- Fazio, R. H., Powell, M. C., & Williams, C. J. (1989). The role of attitude accessibility in the attitude-to-behavior process. *Journal of consumer research*, 16(3), 280-288.
- Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS*. Sage publications.
- Fiorentino, A. (1995). Budget hotels: not just minor hospitality products. *Tourism Management*, 16(6), 455-462.
- Fishbein, M. (1967). *Attitudes and the prediction of behavior*. In: FISHBEIN, M. (Ed.) Readings in Attitude Theory and Measurement, New York: John Wiley & Sons, 477-492.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*.
- Fisk, R. P., Brown, S. W., & Bitner, M. J. (1993). Tracking the evolution of the services marketing literature. *Journal of Retailing*, 69(1), 61-103.

- Forbes Travel Guide (2015), Forbes Travel Guide's Ratings: The Original Five Star Standard, Retrieved from <http://www.forbestravelguide.com/about/ratings>.
- Fornell, C. (1992). A national customer satisfaction barometer: the Swedish experience. *The Journal of Marketing*, 56(1), 6-21.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of marketing research*, 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.
- Foster, N., & Botterill, D. (1995). Hotels and the businesswoman: A supply-side analysis of consumer dissatisfaction, *Tourism Management*, 16(5), 389-393.
- Fritz, M. S., & MacKinnon, D. P. (2007). Required sample size to detect the mediated effect. *Psychological Science*, 18(3), 233-239.
- Gao, S., Mokhtarian, P., & Johnston, R. (2008). Nonnormality of data in structural equation models. *Transportation Research Record: Journal of the Transportation Research Board*, (2082), 116-124.
- Garcia-Falcon, J. M., & Medina-Muñoz, D. (1999). The relationship between hotel companies and travel agencies: an empirical assessment of the United States market. *Service Industries Journal*, 19(4), 102-122.
- Gerbing, D. W., & Hamilton, J. G. (1996). Viability of exploratory factor analysis as a precursor to confirmatory factor analysis. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 3(1), 62-72.
- Getty, J. M., & Thompson, K. N. (1995). The relationship between quality, satisfaction, and recommending behavior in lodging decisions. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 2(3), 3-22.
- Giese, J. L., & Cote, J. A. (2000). Defining consumer satisfaction. *Academy of marketing science review*, 1(1), 1-22.
- Gilly, M. C. (1979). Complaining consumers and the concept of expectations. *Refining Concepts and Measures of Consumer Satisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, 35-43.
- Gitelson, R. J., & Crompton, J. L. (1984). Insights into the repeat vacation phenomenon. *Annals of tourism Research*, 11(2), 199-217.
- Gladstone, D.L. & Fainstein, S.S (2001), Tourism in US global cities: A comparison of New

- York and Los Angeles, *Journal of Urban Affairs*, 23(1), 23-40.
- Granello, D.H. & Wheaton, J.E. (2004). Online data collection: Strategies for research. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 82(4), 387-393.
- Gretzel, U., & Yoo, K. H. (2008). Use and impact of online travel reviews. In *Information and communication technologies in tourism 2008* (pp. 35-46). Springer Vienna.
- Griffin, R. K., Shea, L., & Weaver, P. (1997). How business travelers discriminate between mid-priced and luxury hotels: an analysis using a longitudinal sample. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 4(2), 63-75.
- Grønhaug, K., & Gilly, M. C. (1991). A transaction cost approach to consumer dissatisfaction and complaint actions*. *Journal of economic psychology*, 12(1), 165-183.
- Gu, H., & Ryan, C. (2008). Place attachment, identity and community impacts of tourism—the case of a Beijing hutong. *Tourism Management*, 29(4), 637-647.
- Guillet, B. D., & Law, R. (2010). Analyzing hotel star ratings on third-party distribution websites. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 22(6), 797-813.
- Gundersen, M. G., Heide, M., & Olsson, U. H. (1996). Hotel guest satisfaction among business travelers what are the important factors?. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 37(2), 72-81.
- Gursoy, D., & Gavcar, E. (2003). International leisure tourists' involvement profile. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(4), 906-926.
- Gursoy, D., McCleary, K. W., & Lepsito, L. R. (2003). Segmenting dissatisfied restaurant customers based on their complaining response styles. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 6(1), 25-44.
- Ha, J. & Jang, S. (2009). Perceived justice in service recovery and behavioral intentions: The role of relationship quality. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(3), 319–327.
- Hair, J.F., Anderson, R.E., Tatham, R.L. & Black, W.C. (2009). *Multivariate data analysis with readings* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Han, H., Hsu, L. T. J., & Sheu, C. (2010). Application of the theory of planned behavior to green hotel choice: Testing the effect of environmental friendly activities. *Tourism Management*, 31(3), 325-334.
- Hart, C. W., Heskett, J. L., & Sasser Jr, W. E. (1990). The profitable art of service recovery.

- Harvard business review*, 68(4), 148.
- Harwood, S. (2007). Travellers trust user reviews over travel agent content, *Revolution UK*.
- Hausknecht, D. R. (1990). Measurement scales in consumer satisfaction/dissatisfaction. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, 3(1), 1-11.
- Hennig-Thurau, T., Gwinner, K.P., Walsh, G. & Gremler, D.D. (2004). Electronic word-of-mouth via consumer-opinion platforms: what motivates consumers to articulate themselves on the internet?, *Journal of interactive marketing*, 18(1), 38-52.
- Herzberg, F. (1966). *Work and the Nature of Man*. (Vol. 3, No. 3). Cleveland: World Publishing Company.
- Herzberg, F. (1987). One More Time: How Do You Motivate Employees. *Harvard Business Review*. 81(1), 87-96.
- Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. B. (1993). *The Motivation to Work*. Transaction Publishers, New Brunswick, New Jersey. Originally published in 1959 by John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Heung, V. C. (2000). Satisfaction levels of mainland Chinese travelers with Hong Kong hotel services. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 12(5), 308-315.
- Heung, V. C., & Lam, T. (2003). Customer complaint behaviour towards hotel restaurant services. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 15(5), 283-289.
- Hirschman, A. O. (1970). *Exit, voice, and loyalty: Responses to decline in firms, organizations, and states* (Vol. 25). Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- Hoffman, K. D., & Chung, B. G. (1999). Hospitality recovery strategies: Customer preference versus firm use. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 23(1), 71-84.
- Howard, J. A. (1974). The structure of buyer behavior. *Consumer behavior: Theory and application*, 9-32.
- Hua, W., Chan, A., & Mao, Z. (2009). Critical success factors and customer expectation in budget hotel segment—A case study of China. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 10(1), 59-74.
- 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.
- Hussey, J., & Hussey, R. (1997). *Business research*. Hampshire, UK: Macmillian Business.
- Hwang, J., Yoon, Y-S. & Park, N-H (2011). Structural effects of cognitive and affective

- reponses to web advertisements, website and brand attitudes, and purchase intentions: The case of casual-dining restaurants. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(4), 897–907.
- Hyun, S. & Oh, H. (2011). Reexamination of Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation in the Korean Army Foodservice Operations. *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 14(2), 100-121.
- Ingram, P., & Roberts, P. W. (2000). Friendships among Competitors in the Sydney Hotel Industry¹. *American journal of sociology*, 106(2), 387-423.
- Israeli, A. A. (2002). Star rating and corporate affiliation: their influence on room price and performance of hotels in Israel. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 21(4), 405-424.
- Jacoby, J., & Chestnut, R. W. (1978). *Brand loyalty: Measurement and management*. New York: Wiley.
- Jang, Y.J., Cho, S.B., & Kim, W.G. (2013). Effect of Restaurant Patrons' Regret and Disappointment on Dissatisfaction and Behavioral Intention. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 30(5), 431-444.
- Jeong, M. & Jeon, M.M. (2008). Customer reviews of hotel experiences through consumer generated media (CGM). *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 17(1-2), 121-138.
- Jeong, M., Oh, H., & Gregoire, M. (2003). Conceptualizing web site quality and its consequences in the lodging industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 22(2), 161-175.
- Jiang, J., Gretzel, U., & Law, R. (2010). Do Negative Experiences Always Lead to Dissatisfaction?—Testing Attribution Theory in the Context of Online Travel Reviews. In *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism 2010* (pp. 297-308). Proceedings from the International Conference In Lugano Swizerland, 2010. Springer Vienna.
- Johns, N., & Howard, A. (1998). Customer expectations versus perceptions of service performance in the foodservice industry. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 9(3), 248-265.
- Johnston, R. (1995). The determinants of service quality: satisfiers and dissatisfiers. *International journal of service industry management*, 6(5), 53-71.

- Johnston, R., & Clark, G. (2005). *Service operations management: improving service delivery*. Prentice Hall.
- Jones, D. L., McCleary, K. W., & Lepisto, L. R. (2002). Consumer complaint behavior manifestations for table service restaurants: Identifying sociodemographic characteristics, personality, and behavioral factors. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 26(2), 105-123.
- Jones, N., Lee-Ross, D., & Ingram, H. (1997). A study of service quality in small hotels and guesthouses, *Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 3(4), 351–363.
- Jöreskog, K. G., & Sörbom, D. (1993). *Lisrel 8: Structured equation modeling with the Simplis command language*. Scientific Software International.
- Justus, G. R. (1991). Microtel: How “simple” translates into success. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 32(4), 50-54.
- Kaiser, H. F. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika*, 39(1), 31-36.
- Kandampully, J., & Suhartanto, D. (2000). Customer loyalty in the hotel industry: the role of customer satisfaction and image. *International journal of contemporary hospitality management*, 12(6), 346-351.
- Kano, N., Seraku, N., Takahashi, F., & Tsuji, S. (1984). Attractive quality and must-be quality. *The Journal of the Japanese Society for Quality Control*, 14(2), 39-48.
- Kassarjian, H. H., & Kassarjian, W. M. (1979). Attitudes under low commitment conditions. *Attitude research plays for high stakes*, 3-15.
- Kelly, S. W., & Davis, M. A. (1994). Antecedents to customer expectations for service recovery. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 22(1), 52-61.
- Kelly, S. W., Hoffman, K. D., & Davis, M. A. (1994). A typology of retail failures and recoveries. *Journal of retailing*, 69(4), 429-452.
- Kietzmann, J.H., Hermkens, K., McCarthy, I.P. & Silvestre, B.S. (2011). Social media? Get serious! Understanding the functional building blocks of social media. *Business horizons*, 54(3), 241-251.
- Kim, C., Kim, S., Im, S., & Shin, C. (2003). The effect of attitude and perception on consumer complaint intentions. *Journal of consumer marketing*, 20(4), 352-371.
- Kim, E.E.K., Mattila, A.S. & Baloglu, S. (2011). Effects of gender and expertise on consumers’ motivation to read online hotel reviews. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 52(4), 399-406.

- Kim, H. J. (2011). Service orientation, service quality, customer satisfaction, and customer loyalty: Testing a structural model. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 20(6), 619-637.
- Kim, J. H., & Chen, J. S. (2010). The effects of situational and personal characteristics on consumer complaint behavior in restaurant services. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 27(1), 96-112.
- Kim, M., Vogt, C. A., & Knutson, B. J. (2015). Relationships among customer satisfaction, delight, and loyalty in the hospitality industry. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 39(2), 170-197.
- Kim, S., Elliot, S., Law, R., & Chon, K. (2014). Differences in Expectations and Perceptions Between Hospitality Providers and International Customers: The Case of Korean and Japanese Group Tourists in Thai Hotels. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, 15(2), 121-149.
- Kline, R. B. (2011). Principles and practice of structural equation modeling. New York: Guilford.
- Knutson, B. J. (1988). Frequent travelers: Making them happy and bringing them back. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 29(1), 82-87.
- Knutson, B., Stevens, P., Patton, M., & Thompson, C. (1993). Consumers' expectations for service quality in economy, mid-price and luxury hotels. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 1(2), 27-43.
- Ko, W-H. & Chiu, C. P. (2008). The Relationships Between Brand Attitude, Customers' Satisfaction and Revisiting Intentions of the University Students—A Case Study of Coffee Chain Stores in Taiwan, *Journal of Foodservice Business Research*, 11(1), 79-95.
- Kokkinaki, F., & Lunt, P. (1999). The effect of advertising message involvement on brand attitude accessibility. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 20(1), 41-51.
- Kozak, M. (2001). Repeaters' behavior at two distinct destinations. *Annals of tourism research*, 28(3), 784-807.
- Lam, T., & Tang, V. (2003). Recognizing customer complaint behavior: the case of Hong Kong hotel restaurants. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 14(1), 69-86.
- Landon, E. L. (1977). *A Model of Consumer Complaint Behavior*, " in *Consumer Satisfaction*,

- Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*. Ed. Ralph L. Day, Bloomington, IN: Indiana University School of Business.
- LaPiere, R. T. (1934). Attitudes vs. actions. *Social forces*, 13(2), 230-237.
- Lapr , M. A., & Tsiriktsis, N. (2006). Organizational learning curves for customer dissatisfaction: Heterogeneity across airlines. *Management science*, 52(3), 352-366.
- Law, R. (2006). Internet and Tourism—Part XXI: TripAdvisor. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 20(1), 75-77.
- Law, R., Buhalis, D., & Cobanoglu, C. (2014). Progress on information and communication technologies in hospitality and tourism. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 26(5), 727-750.
- Lee, C. C., & Hu, C. (2004). Analyzing Hotel Customers' E-Complaints from an Internet Complaint Forum. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 17(2), 167-181.
- Lee, J., Park, D. H., & Han, I. (2008). The effect of negative online consumer reviews on product attitude: An information processing view. *Electronic Commerce Research and Applications*, 7(3), 341-352.
- Lee, K., Khan, M. A., & Ko, J. Y. (2008). A cross-national comparison of consumer perceptions of service recovery. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 24(1), 1-16.
- Lee, Y. L., & Sparks, B. (2007). Appraising tourism and hospitality service failure events: a Chinese perspective. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 31(4), 504-529.
- Leong, J. K., & Kim, W. G. (2002). Service recovery efforts in fast food restaurants to enhance repeat patronage. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 12(2-3), 65-93.
- Leung, D., Law, R., Van Hoof, H., & Buhalis, D. (2013). Social media in tourism and hospitality: A literature review. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 30(1-2), 3-22.
- Levy, S.E., Duan, W. & Boo. S. (2013). An Analysis of One-Star Online Reviews and Responses in the Washington, DC, Lodging Market. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 54(1), 49-63.
- Lewis, B. R., & Clacher, E. (2001). Service failure and recovery in UK theme parks: The employees' perspective. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 13(4), 166-175.
- Lewis, B. R., & McCann, P. (2004). Service failure and recovery: evidence from the hotel industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 16(1), 6-17.

- Lewis, R. C. (1983). When guests complain. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 24(2), 23-32.
- Lewis, R. C. (1984). The Basis off Hotel Selection. *Cornell hotel and restaurant administration quarterly*, 25(1), 54-69.
- Lewis, R. C., Chambers, R.E. & Chacko, H.E. (1995). *Marketing: Leadership in Hospitality*. New York: Van Norstrand Reinhold.
- Lewis, R. C., & Morris, S. V. (1987). The positive side of guest complaints. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 27(4), 13-15.
- Li, H., Ye, Q. & Law, R. (2013). Determinants of customer satisfaction in the hotel industry: an application of online review analysis. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 18(7), 784-802.
- Licata, J. W., Chakraborty, G., & Krishnan, B. C. (2008). The consumer's expectation formation process over time. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 22(3), 176-187.
- Lu, W., & Stepchenkova, S. (2015). User-generated content as a research mode in tourism and hospitality applications: Topics, methods, and software. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 24(2), 119-154.
- Lundberg, C., Gudmundson, A., & Andersson, T. D. (2009). Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of work motivation tested empirically on seasonal workers in hospitality and tourism. *Tourism Management*, 30(6), 890–899.
- Lutz, R.J. (1991). The Role of Attitude Theory in Marketing, in Harold H. Kassarijian and J. J. Robertson, eds., *Perspectives in Consumer Behavior*, Prentice-Hall, 4th ed., 317-339.
- MacCallum, R. C., Browne, M. W., & Sugawara, H. M. (1996). Power analysis and determination of sample size for covariance structure modeling. *Psychological methods*, 1(2), 130.
- Maddox, R. N. (1981). Two-factor theory and Consumer Satisfaction: Replication and Extension. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 8(1), 97-102.
- Magnini, V., & Karande, K. (2009). The influences of transaction history and thank you statements in service recovery. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(4), 540–546.
- Maio, G., & Haddock, G. (2009). *The psychology of attitudes and attitude change*. SAGE Publications Limited.
- Maio, G. R., & Olson, J. M. (1995). Relations between values, attitudes, and behavioral

- intentions: The moderating role of attitude function. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 31(3), 266-285.
- Marsh, E.E. & White, M.D. (2006). Content analysis: A flexible methodology. *Library trends*, 55(1), 22-45.
- Matthes, J. & Kohring, M. (2008). The content analysis of media frames: Toward improving reliability and validity. *Journal of Communication*, 58(2), 258-279.
- Mattila, A. S., Cho, W., & Ro, H. (2009). The joint effects of service failure mode, recovery effort, and gender on customer' post-recovery satisfaction. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 26(2), 120-128.
- Mattila, A. S., & Mount, D. J. (2003). The impact of selected customer characteristics and response time on e-complaint satisfaction and return intent. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 22(2), 135-145.
- Mattila, A. S., & Ro, H. (2008). Discrete Negative Emotions and Customer Dissatisfaction Responses in a Casual Restaurant Setting. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 32(1), 89-107.
- Matzler, K., & Renzl, B (2007). Assessing asymmetric effects in the formation of employee satisfaction. *Tourism Management*, 28(4), 1093–1103.
- Maxham III, J. G. (2001). Service recovery's influence on consumer satisfaction, positive word-of-mouth, and purchase intentions. *Journal of Business Research*, 54(1), 11-24.
- Maxwell, J. (2005). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach*. Thousand Oaks, CA.: Sage.
- McCarthy, L., Stock, D., & Verma, R. (2010). How travelers use online and social media channels to make hotel-choice decisions. *Cornell Hospitality Reports*, 10(18), 6-18.
- McCullough, 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 & Tourism Research*, 24(4), 423-447.
- McCullough, 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.
- McConnell, B., & Huba, J. (2007). *Citizen marketers: When people are the message*. Kaplan Pub.

- McDougall, G. H., & Levesque, T. J. (1999). Waiting for service: the effectiveness of recovery strategies. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 11(1), 6-15.
- McQuilken, L., & Robertson, N. (2011). The influence of guarantees, active requests to voice and failure severity on customer complaint behavior. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(4), 953-962.
- Mersha, T., & Adlakha, V. (1992). Attributes of service quality: the consumers' perspective. *international journal of service industry management*, 3(3), 34-45.
- Michel, S. (2001). Analyzing service failures and recoveries: a process approach. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 12(1), 20-33.
- Miller, A. R., & Grazer, W. F. (2003). Complaint Behavior as a Factor in Cruise Line Losses. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 15(1), 77-91.
- Miller, J. A. (1977). Studying satisfaction, modifying models, eliciting expectations, posing problems, and making meaningful measurements. *Conceptualization and measurement of consumer satisfaction and dissatisfaction*, 72-91.
- Mok, C., & Armstrong, R. W. (1998). Expectations for hotel service quality: Do they differ from culture to culture?. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 4(4), 381-391.
- Mueller, R. D., Palmer, A., Mack, R., & McMullan, R. (2003). Service in the restaurant industry: an American and Irish comparison of service failures and recovery strategies. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 22(4), 395-418.
- Musante, M. D., Bojanic, D. C., & Zhang, J. (2009). An evaluation of hotel website attribute utilization and effectiveness by hotel class. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 15(3), 203-215.
- 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.
- Nasution, H. N., & Mavondo, F. T. (2008). Organisational capabilities: antecedents and implications for customer value. *European Journal of Marketing*, 42(3/4), 477-501.
- Neuman, W. L. (2005). *Social research methods: Quantitative and qualitative approaches*. Allyn and Bacon.
- O'Connor, P. (2008). User-generated content and travel: A case study on Tripadvisor.com. In *Information and communication technologies in tourism 2008* (pp. 47-58).
- O'Connor, P. (2010). Managing a hotel's image on TripAdvisor. *Journal of Hospitality*

- Marketing & Management*, 19(7), 754-772.
- Oh, H. (2003). Reexamining recovery paradox effects and impact ranges of service failure and recovery. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 27(4), 402-418.
- Oliver, R. L. (1977). Effect of expectation and disconfirmation on postexposure product evaluations: An alternative interpretation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 62(4), 480.
- Oliver, R. L. (1980). A cognitive model of the antecedents and consequences of satisfaction decisions. *Journal of marketing research*, 17(4), 460-469.
- Oliver, R. L. (1981). Measurement and evaluation of satisfaction processes in retail settings. *Journal of retailing*, 57(3), 25-48.
- Oliver, R. L. (1993). Cognitive, affective, and attribute bases of the satisfaction response. *Journal of consumer research*, 418-430.
- Oliver, R. L., & Bearden, W. O. (1985). Disconfirmation processes and consumer evaluations in product usage. *Journal of Business Research*, 13(3), 235-246.
- Oliver, R. L., & Burke, R. R. (1999). Expectation Processes in Satisfaction Formation A Field Study. *Journal of Service Research*, 1(3), 196-214.
- Oliver, R. L., & Linda, G. (1981). Effect of satisfaction and its antecedents on consumer preference and intention. *Advances in consumer research*, 8(1), 88-93.
- Oliver, R. L., & Swan, J. E. (1989). Equity and disconfirmation perceptions as influences on merchant and product satisfaction. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16(3), 372-383.
- Olson, J. C., & Dover, P. A. (1979). Disconfirmation of consumer expectations through product trial. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 64(2), 179.
- Olson, J. C., & Mitchell, A. A. (1975). The process of attitude acquisition: The value of a developmental approach to consumer attitude research. *Advances in consumer research*, 2(1), 249-265.
- Olson, J. C., & Mitchell, A. A. (2000). Are product attribute beliefs the only mediator of advertising effects on brand attitude?. *Advertising & Society Review*, 1(1) 318-332.
- Olsen, S. O. (2002). Comparative evaluation and the relationship between quality, satisfaction, and repurchase loyalty. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 30(3), 240-249.
- Oppermann, M. (1999). Predicting destination choice—A discussion of destination loyalty. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 5(1), 51-65.
- Pantelidis, I. S. (2010). Electronic meal experience: A content analysis of online restaurant

- comments. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 4, 483-491.
- Parasuraman, A., Zeithaml, V. A., & Berry, L. L. (1985). A conceptual model of service quality and its implications for future research. *The Journal of Marketing*, 49(4), 41-50.
- Perry, C. (1998). A structured approach for presenting theses. *Australasian Marketing Journal*, 6(1), 63-85.
- Pine, B.J., & Gilmore, J.H. (1998). Welcome to the experience economy. *Harvard business review*, 76, 97-105.
- Plymire, J. (1991). Complaints as opportunities. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 5(1), 61-65.
- Prakash, V. (1991). Intensity of dissatisfaction and consumer complaint behaviors. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, 4, 110-122.
- Priester, J. R., Nayakankuppam, D., Fleming, M. A., & Godek, J. (2004). The A2SC2 model: The influence of attitudes and attitude strength on consideration and choice. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 30(4), 574-587.
- Poon, W. C., & Low, K. L. T. (2005). Are travellers satisfied with Malaysian hotels?. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 17(3), 217-227.
- Poulston, J. M. (2009). Working Conditions in Hospitality: Employees' Views of the Dissatisfactory Hygiene Factors. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 10(1), 23-43.
- Qualtrics (2015) Quality Checks: Validation, Attention Filters, and Survey Duration. Retrieved from https://survey.qualtrics.com/SE/?SID=SV_2aB4cVix0F00dY9.
- Reichheld, F. (1996). *The Loyalty Effect*, Harvard Business School Press, Cambridge, MA.
- Reichheld, F. F., & Sasser Jr, W. E. (1990). Zero defections: quality comes to services. *Harvard business review*, 68(5), 105.
- Richins, L. M. (1987). A multivariate analysis of responses to dissatisfaction. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 15(3), 24-31.
- Richins, M. L. (1983). Negative word-of-mouth by dissatisfied consumers: A pilot study. *Journal of Marketing*, 47(1), 68-78.
- Riley, R. W., & Love, L. L. (2000). The state of qualitative tourism research. *Annals of tourism research*, 27(1), 164-187.
- Ro, H., & Wong, J. (2012). Customer opportunistic complaints management: A critical incident approach. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(2), 419-427.

- Rogers, J. C., Ross, S. C., & Williams, T. G. (1992). Personal values and purchase dissatisfaction response. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, 5(1), 81-92.
- Rokeach, M., & Kliejunas, P. (1972). Behavior as a function of attitude-toward-object and attitude-toward-situation.
- Roscoe, J.T. (1975). *Fundamental Research Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences* (2nd edition). New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Ruthankoon, R., & Ogunlana, S. O. (2003). Testing Herzberg's two-factor theory in the Thai construction industry. *Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management*, 10(5), 333-341.
- Saleh, F., & Ryan, C. (1992). Client perceptions of hotels: A multi-attribute approach. *Tourism Management*, 13(2), 163-168.
- 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.
- Sanes, C. (1993). Mining the gold in customer complaints Complaints are hidden treasure. *Journal for Quality and Participation*, 16(5).
- Santos, J., & Boote, J. (2003). A theoretical exploration and model of consumer expectations, post-purchase affective states and affective behaviour. *Journal of Consumer Behaviour*, 3(2), 142-156.
- Scheaffer, R. L., Mendenhall, W., & Ott, R. L. (1996). *Elementary survey sampling* (5th ed.). New York: Duxbury Press.
- Schlossberg, H. (1991). Customer Satisfaction: Not a Fad, but a Way of Life, *Marketing News*, 25(20), 18-21.
- Sekaran, U. (2003). *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approach* (4th edition). Hoboken: Wiley.
- Shea, L., Enghagen, L., & Khullar, A. (2005). Internet Diffusion of an E-Complaint. *Journal of travel & tourism marketing*, 17(2-3), 145-165.
- Sheth, J. N., Mittal, B., & Newman, B. (1999). *Consumer behavior and beyond*. NY: Harcourt Brace.
- Shook, C. L., Ketchen, D. J., Hult, G. T. M., & Kacmar, K. M. (2004). An assessment of the use

- of structural equation modeling in strategic management research. *Strategic Management Journal*, 25(4), 397-404.
- Short, J. C., Ketchen, D. J., & Palmer, T. B. (2002). The role of sampling in strategic management research on performance: A two-study analysis. *Journal of Management*, 28(3), 363-385.
- Shoval, N. (2002). A new phase in the competition for the Olympic gold: the London and New York bids for the 2012 Games. *Journal of Urban Affairs*, 24(5), 583-599.
- Singh, J. (1988). Consumer Complaint Intentions and Behavior: Definitional and Taxonomical Issues. *Journal of Marketing*, 52(1), 93-107.
- Singh, J. (1990). Identifying consumer dissatisfaction response styles: an agenda for future research. *European Journal of Marketing*, 24(6), 55-72.
- Singh, J., & Pandya, S. (1991). Exploring the effects of consumers' dissatisfaction level on complaint behaviours. *European Journal of Marketing*, 25(9), 7-21.
- Singh, J., & Wilkes, R. E. (1996). When consumers complain: a path analysis of the key antecedents of consumer complaint response estimates. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 24(4), 350-365.
- Slama, M. E., & Williams, T. G. (1991). Consumer interaction styles and purchase complaint intentions. *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction, Dissatisfaction and Complaining Behavior*, 4, 167-174.
- Smith, D., Menon, S., & Sivakumar, K. (2005). Online peer and editorial recommendations, trust, and choice in virtual markets. *Journal of interactive marketing*, 19(3), 15-37.
- Smith, W. L., Weatherly, K. A., & Tansik, D. A. (1992). A customer-based service quality study: use of the sorting/cluster analysis methodology. In *Proceedings of the 2nd International Research Seminar in Service Management, La Londe les Maures, June*, 591-603.
- Snellman, K., & Vihtkari, T. (2003). Customer complaining behaviour in technology-based service encounters. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 14(2), 217-231.
- Sparks, B.A. & Bradley, G. L. (2014). A “Triple A” Typology of Responding to Negative Consumer-Generated Online Reviews, *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 1096348014538052.
- 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.
- Spreng, R. A., Harrell, G. D., & Mackoy, R. D. (1995). Service recovery: impact on satisfaction and intentions. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 9(1), 15-23.
- Suh, J. C., & Youjae, Y. (2006). When brand attitudes affect the customer satisfaction-loyalty relation: the moderating role of product involvement. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 16(2), 145-155.
- 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 & Tourism Research*, 28(1), 21-43.
- Susskind, A. M. (2005). A content analysis of consumer complaints, remedies, and repatronage intentions regarding dissatisfying service experiences. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 29(2), 150-169.
- Susskind, A., & Viccari, A. (2011). A look at the relationship between service failures, guest satisfaction, and repeat-patronage intentions of casual dining guests. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 52(4), 438-444.
- Swan, J. E., & Combs, L. J. (1976). Product performance and consumer satisfaction: a new concept. *The Journal of Marketing*, 40(2), 25-33.
- Swan, J. E., & Trawick, I. F. (1981). Disconfirmation of expectations and satisfaction with a retail service. *Journal of Retailing*, 57(3), 49-67.
- Swanson, S. R., & Hsu, M. K. (2009). Critical incidents in tourism: Failure, recovery, customer switching, and word-of-mouth behaviors. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 26(2), 180-194.
- Szymanski, D. M., & Henard, D. H. (2001). Customer satisfaction: a meta-analysis of the empirical evidence. *Journal of the academy of marketing science*, 29(1), 16-35.
- Taylor, S. A. & Hunter, G. (2003). An exploratory investigation into the antecedents of satisfaction, brand attitude, and loyalty within the (B2B) eCRM industry, *Journal of Consumer Satisfaction*, 16, 19-35.
- Teas, R. K. (1993). Expectations, performance evaluation, and consumers' perceptions of quality. *The journal of marketing*, 57(4), 18-34.
- Technical Assistance Research Program (TARP) (1981). *Measuring the Grapevine: Consumer Response and Word-of-Mouth*. Atlanta, GA: Coca-Cola.

- Trafimow, D., & Finlay, K. A. (1996). The importance of subjective norms for a minority of people: Between subjects and within-subjects analyses. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 22(8), 820-828.
- Trip Advisor (2015). "What do star ratings for hotels mean?", Retrieved from <https://www.tripadvisor.com/hc/en-us/articles/200614057-What-do-star-ratings-for-hotels-mean->.
- Tse, D. K., & Wilton, P. C. (1988). Models of consumer satisfaction formation: an extension. *Journal of marketing research*, 25(2), 204-212.
- Tyrrell, B., & Woods, R. (2005). E-Complaint. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 17(2-3), 183-190.
- Vargo, S. L., Nagao, K., He, Y., & Morgan, F. W. (2007). Satisfiers, dissatisfiers, criticals, and neutrals: a review of their relative effects on customer (dis) satisfaction. *Academy of Marketing Science Review*, 11(2), 1-19.
- Velázquez, B. M., Blasco, M. F., Contrí, G. B., & Saura, I. G. (2009). Cognitive and affective causes of consumer dissatisfaction with the hospitality encounter. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 18(7), 653-675.
- Verma, R., Stock, D., & McCarthy, L. (2012). Customer Preferences for Online, Social Media, and Mobile Innovations in the Hospitality Industry. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 53(3), 183-186.
- Vermeulen, I. E., & Seegers, D. (2009). Tried and tested: The impact of online hotel reviews on consumer consideration. *Tourism Management*, 30(1), 123–127.
- Voss, G. B., Parasuraman, A., & Grewal, D. (1998). The roles of price, performance, and expectations in determining satisfaction in service exchanges. *The Journal of Marketing*, 62(4), 46-61.
- Walls, A., Okumus, F., Wang, Y., & Kwun, D. J. W. (2011). Understanding the consumer experience: An exploratory study of luxury hotels. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 20(2), 166-197.
- Wan, L. C., Chan, E. K., & Su, L. (2011). When will customers care about service failures that happened to strangers? The role of personal similarity and regulatory focus and its implication on service evaluation. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(1), 213-220.

- Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: the PANAS scales. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 54(6), 1063.
- Weber, R. P. (Ed.). (1990). *Basic content analysis* (No. 49). Sage.
- Weber, K., & Sparks, B. (2010). Service failure and recovery in a strategic airline alliance context: Interplay of locus of service failure and social identity. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 27(6), 547-564.
- Wei, W., Miao, L., Cai, L. A., & Adler, H. (2012). The influence of self-construal and co-consumption others on consumer complaining behavior. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(3), 764-771.
- Westbrook, R. A., & Oliver, R. L. (1991). The dimensionality of consumption emotion patterns and consumer satisfaction. *Journal of consumer research*, 18(1), 84-91.
- Westbrook, R. A., & Reilly, M. D. (1983). Value-percept disparity: an alternative to the disconfirmation of expectations theory of consumer satisfaction. *Advances in consumer research*, 10(1), 256-261.
- Wicker, A. W. (1969). Attitudes versus actions: The relationship of verbal and overt behavioral responses to attitude objects. *Journal of social issues*, 25(4), 41-78.
- Wuest, B. E., Tas, R. F., & Emenheiser, D. A. (1996). What do mature travelers perceive as important hotel/motel customer services?. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 20(2), 77-93.
- Xiang, Z. & Gretzel. U. (2010). Role of social media in online travel information search, *Tourism management*, 31(2), 179-188.
- Xie, D., & Heung, V. (2012). The effects of brand relationship quality on responses to service failure of hotel consumers. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(3), 735-744.
- Yang, W. & Mattila, A. S. (2012). The role of tie strength on consumer dissatisfaction responses. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(2), 399-404.
- Ye, Q., Law, R. & Gu, B. (2009). The impact of online user reviews on hotel room sales, *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(1), 180-182.
- Yi, Y. (1990). A critical review of consumer satisfaction. *Review of marketing*, 4, 68-123.
- Yilmaz, I. (2010). Do hotel customers use a multi-expectation framework in the evaluation of

- services? A study in Cappadocia, Turkey. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 10(1), 59-69.
- Yim, C. K., Tse, D. K., & Chan, K. W. (2008). Strengthening customer loyalty through intimacy and passion: roles of customer-firm affection and customer-staff relationships in services. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 45(6), 741-756.
- Yuksel, A., Kilinc, U., & Yuksel, F. (2006). Cross-national analysis of hotel customers' attitudes toward complaining and their complaining behaviours. *Tourism Management*, 27(1), 11-24.
- Zaichkowsky, J. L. (1985). Measuring the involvement construct. *Journal of consumer research*, 341-352.
- Zainol, N. A., Lockwood, A., & Kutsch, E. (2010). Relating the zone of tolerance to service failure in the hospitality industry. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 27(3), 324-333.
- Zanna, M. P., & Rempel, J. K. (1988). *Attitudes: A new look at an old concept*.
- Zeelenberg, M. & Pieters, R. (2004). Beyond valence in customer dissatisfaction: A review and new findings on behavioral responses to regret and disappointment in failed services. *Journal of Business Research*, 57(4), 445–455.
- Zeithaml, V. A., Berry, L. L., & Parasuraman, A. (1993). The nature and determinants of customer expectations of service. *Journal of the academy of Marketing Science*, 21(1), 1-12.
- 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. (2009). *Services marketing: Integrating customer focus throughout the firm*.
- Zeithaml, V. A., Parasuraman, A., & Berry, L. L. (1985). Problems and strategies in services marketing. *The Journal of Marketing*, 49(2), 33-46.
- Zikmund, W.G. (2003). *Business Research Methods*. Mason, OH: Thomson/South Western.